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relating to these KINGDOMS.

AND THE
CUSTOMS and USAGES to which all TRADERS are subject.

By **MALACHY POSTLETHWAYT**, Esq;
THE THIRD EDITION.

V O L. II.



L O N D O N:

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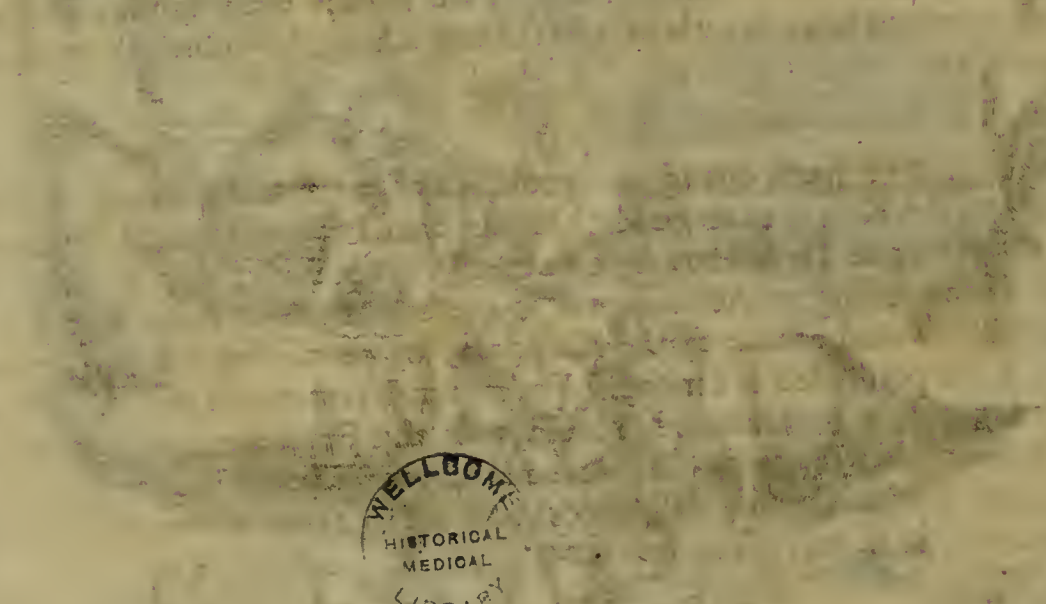
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TO

SIR STEPHEN THEODORE JANSSEN, BARONET,

CHAMBERLAIN OF THE CITY OF LONDON.

SIR,

THE Performance before you being planned upon Principles no Way incompatible with those you have always espoused, I am willing to hope that addressing this Volume to a Gentleman of your distinguished Character will not be unacceptable.

There being contained in this new Edition, and particularly in this Volume, several valuable Commercial Memoirs, with which you have been so kind as to favour me, calls for a grateful public Acknowledgment of the Obligation.

Though this was not the Case; and though I had not many Years had the Honour of your Friendship and Confidence, on whom could I pitch upon with more Propriety to inscribe this commercial Work, than to so zealous and conspicuous a Friend to Trade, and so closely connected with a Corporation the Author so highly venerates?

Had not the worthy Citizens of London lately given you distinguished Marks of their great Regard, and which has obtained the Sanction of public Approbation, your laudable Conduct, as a City Magistrate, or a commercial Patriot, would have been only known to a few, who considered its uncommon Merits.

When you became the happy Instrument of putting a Stop to the general Wear of French Cambrics, and instead of this Nation giving Employment to French Manufacturers, you promoted that of our English Weavers; the Kingdom has ever since been benefited no less than HALF A MILLION PER ANNUM: For before the Year 1744-5, when you procured an Act to prohibit the Wear of French Cambrics, which was enforced afterwards by several others, we paid at least 250,000 *l.* a Year to France for that Commodity: and having saved that Sum, and given Employment to our own Manufacturers of Gauzes and Blonds, and numerous other home-made Wares in their Stead, makes a Difference to the Nation between saving and spending of double the Sum: and the national Gain of half a Million yearly from 1745 to 1765, amounts to TEN MILLIONS OF PRINCIPAL MONEY. Was not this an Object worthy the Patronage of a British Legislature? And is not this Advantage, under a wise Administration, as likely to continue at least as many Years as it has done?

The Consideration of the Difficulties you had to encounter by this Step of public Virtue adds to its Lustre. There was a Duty of Import on French Cambrics, and that was appropriated; and the Annihilation of any Part of the Revenue, generally meets with ministerial Opposition, notwithstanding the national Emolument is demonstrable. This was your Case, Sir; yet your Reasons were urged with such irresistible Weight, that ministerial Authority concurred with your patriotic Design. And had we another JANSSEN to arise, who would obtain the PROHIBITION OF ALL FOREIGN WROUGHT SILKS, though he should meet with the like Obstacles; would not the Nation in the like Number of Years be Gainers thereby many more Millions than it has already been by that of Cambrics? We do not pay for foreign wrought Silks so little as a MILLION a Year, including all smuggled into Great Britain and her Plantations.

Was this saved to the Nation, instead of spent out of it, would it not make a Difference of TWO MILLIONS a Year? Is this Benefit to the Kingdom to be lost, for the Sake of a mortgaged Revenue? Is it not more politic to supply the Revenue Deficiency by all other Ways possible, than to suffer the Nation longer to be deprived of so interesting an Advantage it at present stands in Need of? Can it be proved, that an equivalent Benefit would accrue to the Kingdom, by permitting the Importation of foreign wrought Silk at all? I am persuaded it cannot. For in ten Years might not the Nation save TWENTY MILLIONS by their absolute Prohibition? I could wish this Point was duly considered by the present Patriotic Administration, and that you, Sir, would turn your Thoughts upon supplying any Deficiency in the Revenue, such a wise Measure might occasion. For as the Revenue is already highly indebted to you as a Financier; so it may be in future.

You

You have been happily successful in the essential Article of greatly improving the Revenue on Tea: and yet by Means that were judged to have the contrary Effect, when you first started them. Few Ministers are inclined to listen to the lowering of Duties; yet upon this singular Maxim, you proposed to augment the Revenue. Herein you met with no less Discouragement than in the Cambric Affair. Yet you persevered in maintaining that lowering the EXCISE DUTY ON TEA, would increase the Revenue. So it has to a very considerable Degree, notwithstanding the Opposition your Sentiments met with at first.

Before your Intentions, with regard to Tea, were carried into an Act of Parliament, both the Duties of Excise and Customs thereon, had not for several Years exceeded, *Communibus Annis*, 170,000 *l.* and the East India Company had not imported above 1,200,000 Pounds Weight of Tea, *Communibus Annis*: But since passing the Law, which you were instrumental to procure, the Exchequer has received yearly from 4 to 500,000 *l.* and for some Years past above 600,000 *l.* and even above 700,000 *l.* and the East India Company has sold from THREE to FOUR MILLIONS of Pounds Weight annually; whence it is that the East India Company have imported and sold not less than SIXTY MILLIONS OF POUNDS WEIGHT OF TEA MORE THAN THEY WOULD HAVE DONE, had it not been for the passing the said Act. By which it appears, that if the Company have gained no more than ONE SHILLING *per* Pound Weight, it amounts to THREE MILLIONS STERLING EXTRAORDINARY CLEAR PROFIT TO THAT COMPANY; of which the Proprietors and the Public Credit have reaped the Benefit: and the Public Revenue has been advantaged by You above SEVEN MILLIONS OF MONEY: and, perhaps, if your Principles of lowering the Duties upon other Articles of general Consumption, were adopted, the Revenue might be so advantaged, as to enable the present Administration likewise to promote the Prohibition of foreign wrought Silks; thereby save Millions upon Millions of Treasure to the Kingdom, and give full Employ to our industrious Spitalfields Manufacturers. I could wish, I could rejoice, as well for the Honour of the present wise and upright British Ministry, as the Interest of the Kingdom in general, that this national Point could be happily accomplished, in a Manner perfectly consistent with the general Prosperity. If thus reminding you, Sir, of the more extensive Application of your own Principles to advance the Revenue should have so good an Effect, I am persuaded, that any Thing of the kind will be well received by the Ministry, and if practicable, carried into Execution.

There is another Instance of your public Conduct, that has not been less admired than other Parts of it: That I mean is, when you had the Honour to be Lord Mayor of this City in the Year 1755. At which Time, Hostilities being expected to begin against France at the Commencement of the late War, you wrote a Letter to his Grace the Duke of Newcastle and Lord Anson, the former then one of his Majesty's principal Secretaries of State, and the other First Lord Commissioner of the Admiralty, signifying the then State of the French Trade to their Sugar Colonies; and informing them, from certain Intelligence you had received, "that the French Ships bound to America, were doubly manned; which to you appeared an indubitable Proof, that France intended to be at War with us before the Return of those Ships to Old France: wherefore you submitted to the Administration this Proposition: Whether it might not be an eligible Measure, by Way of Reparation for the many Murders and Incroachments made by the French upon his Majesty's Subjects in North America, since the Peace of Aix la Chapelle, to make Prizes of their homeward-bound West India Ships, without a FORMAL DECLARATION OF WAR; whereby You judged, that we could not have at once less than EIGHT THOUSAND FRENCH SAILORS PRISONERS IN ENGLAND; which would be crippling the French Navy during that whole War.—This was the Proposition you had the Honour to suggest to his Grace the Duke of Newcastle; and this very Measure was soon after adopted by the Court of London; and we actually had, as you prophetically declared before the Close of the Year 1755, eight Thousand French Sailors Prisoners in this Nation."—And certain it is, that his Grace of Newcastle did you the Justice and Honour to signify in Council, his Acknowledgement that he received the Information and Suggestion from the Lord Mayor of London: nor is it less certain, that no Step of this Kind was taken, or even thought of by the Administration, till this Intimation was given by You.

What Effect this Measure had to render the last War at Sea so successful as it happily proved, is too well known to need expatiating on: and in what Light this Master-stroke of English Policy was then looked on in France by the wisest Men in that Kingdom, is also notorious; and the Event sufficiently indicates their Discernment.

The numerous other publick Services You did, during the two last Wars, by a Series of judicious Intelligence you communicated to the Administration during their whole Course, I am not unapprized of; and was the whole laid before the Public, it would make an acceptable Volume not less to your Honour than what I have already taken the Liberty to notice: which I have done to animate others to imitate your glorious Example for the public Emolument. And did your public Spirit more abound, Ministers would often be better informed than they are, and the Nation rendered more prosperous; it being impossible for the ablest and best intentioned Administration at all Times to have all Requisites before them for the Guidance of their Judgment occasionally. In your Intelligence of that
Kind,

Kind, and in your several public Plans, you appear to have been very happy and fortunate : and although you have not been so in your private Affairs, and some have unknowingly and uncandidly attributed it to your Attention to those of the Public; yet I can take upon me to declare the contrary, having had the Examination of them, and am at present in Possession of authentic Vouchers to testify the Reverse. However, your late exemplary Conduct, as a Merchant, is at present deservedly in the highest Esteem, by all wise and good Men, as tending to render COMMERCIAL CREDIT SACRED AMONG THE TRADING WORLD; and as such your Example is worthy of constant Imitation, and therefore cannot be too much revered.

I am,

With great Friendship and Regard,

SIR,

Your most Humble

And most Obedient Servant,

Feb. 10, 1766.
Broad Street, London.

MALACHY POSTLETHWAYT.

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V O L. II.

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LABOUR. The price of the produce of land, and all the commodities which depend upon the mechanical and manufactural arts affecting trade in general, it becomes needful to make some

REMARKS on LABOUR in general, in relation to the natural price thereof.

A labourer's son, from 7 and 12 years of age, becomes an assistant to his father, either in keeping the flocks, or manuring the ground, or in other sorts of country labour, which require no art or skill.

But, if his father puts him to a trade, he is at some expence for it, and loses his assistance besides, during the time of his apprenticeship: and, as the life of a man is commonly calculated but at 10 or 12 years, his wages, as a servant, mechanic, or manufacturer, must exceed his wages as a labourer, in proportion to the expence he is at, and the risque he may run in such servitude. This shews why such servant ought to earn more than a common labourer.

Let it be supposed that two taylor's make the cloaths of a village, and that, the one dying, the survivor has more work than usual: this may enhance his price, by giving some preference in point of expedition to others, he may thus continue raising his price, 'till the countryman shall find it more advantageous to go to some taylor of another village, or market-town, or city, to have cloaths made, or 'till some other taylor comes into his own village, to share the business of making cloaths.

If, of two taylor's in a village, the one works better than the other, he may have a better price for his work; or, if he cuts his cloaths more fashionably (that is to say, if he pleases better) he shall have a better price.

The same reason will hold good in market-towns and cities; those trades which require more art and capacity to learn, and more time to arrive at perfection in, earn, *cæteris paribus*, a better price.

The arts and employments attended with danger, as sailors, bell-founders, silver-mines, &c. earn more in proportion; and, where there must be capacity, danger, and confidence, they earn still more, as pilots, skippers, &c.

If every labourer in a village breeds up several children, there will be too many hands for the cultivation of the land belonging to the village; and so several adult sons and daughters must go to seek a livelihood elsewhere: and it will probably happen that the inhabitants of this village shall not be more numerous in 500 years than they were at first.

The same may be said of the tradesmen of the village. If a taylor, who makes the cloaths of the whole village, breeds up three sons to the same trade, as there is but work enough for one, he will bring up one of his sons to succeed him, and the other two must seek their livelihood elsewhere.

VOL. II.

If they cannot find employment any where in their trade, they will go to sea, or into the army, or into foreign countries, or turn highwaymen and be hanged. But the number of tradesmen in the village in question will always proportion itself to the demand, or the work there is for them.

It is easy to conceive, in like manner, that the number of labourers and tradesmen proportions itself to the demand for them in market-towns and cities: but this further explication may be added: that, if four taylor's in a market-town be able to make all the cloaths of the inhabitants, a fifth taylor may nevertheless find employment there, by the diminution of the work of the other four; and thus it happens that tradesmen often gain a livelihood, though they may not have full occupation.

One acre of land produces more wheat; or feeds more sheep than another acre, and the work of one man is dearer than that of another, according to the occurrences, as we have explained.

If two acres of land are of equal goodness, the wheat or wooll of one is of equal value to that of the other, provided the work be equal that is employed about them.

Let us suppose the wooll produced by one acre to be made into a coarse suit of cloaths, and the wooll of the other to be made into a suit of fine cloth, containing the same quantity of wooll with the coarse cloth: as the fine suit of cloth requires more, and dearer workmanship, it will cost more in making than the coarse suit, and, proportionably to the difference of the work, one suit of fine cloth shall sell for ten times the price of a coarse suit, containing an equal quantity of wooll.

Wherefore the price of any thing, intrinsically, seems to take in the quantity of land with regard to the goodness of the land, and the quantity of the labour, with regard to the dearthness of the labour.

A pound of flax wrought into Brussels lace, according to the computation of the different parts of labour it may require, will employ the labour of one person for near 14 years; and thus the quantity of lace, manufactured out of a pound of flax, sells at a price which not only pays the maintenance of a woman for 14 years, or of 14 for one year, but also to yield a profit to the merchant, or principal undertaker of the lace-manufacture.

The steel spring which regulates a good watch, may sell at a price which makes the proportion of the value of the steel to the workmanship as 1 to 1,000,000.

On the other hand, the apples of a tree require so little labour, that their price seems to be proportioned almost to the land only that enters into their production.

The price of a bucket of water at the river is nothing; but, carried at some distance into the street, shall sell for one penny, which seems to be the measure of the labour of the water-carrier.

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From

From these examples and explanations it seems to appear, that the price of any thing intrinsically is the measure of the land, and the labour that enters into its production: but it may happen that things which have such an intrinsic value, may not sell accordingly, with regard to the fashions and humours of men. For example: if a gentleman cuts canals, and erects terraces in his garden, the price of them will be intrinsically proportionable to the land and labour thereon employed, because they really cost the gentleman in that proportion; nevertheless it may happen that nobody else will give him one quarter part of that value for them.

Land, which produces all commodities and goods, must necessarily maintain those who give those goods and commodities their form by labour; and the labour itself may be estimated by the quantity of land required to maintain those who labour, as may be further elucidated from what follows:

It does not appear that providence has given the right of the possession of land to one man preferably to another; some of the most ancient titles that we have any knowledge of, came by violence and conquest, and by laws established in consequence of such conquests. The property of the lands in Mexico is vested in Spaniards, and of those at Jerusalem in Turks; but, however people come by the property of land in a state, it naturally falls into the hands of a few*.

* Which way soever a society of men is formed, the property of the lands must be in the hands of few men. If a prince at the head of an army conquered France, and distributed the lands among his officers, or favourites, according to his pleasure, or their merit, he would then establish laws for vesting the said property in them, and their descendants. Each proprietor manages his own estate, or lets it to one or more farmers, as he thinks fit; and the farmer and his assistants must be maintained out of it, and he pays the proprietor the overplus of the produce of the estate; the proprietor pays the prince what he requires, according to the laws of society enacted or agreed upon, for the maintenance of his soldiers, courtiers, armies, &c. The use the land is put to depends upon the humour and fashion of living which the prince and the proprietors follow: if they delight in horses, a proportionable quantity of the land must be turned to pasture and meadow; if they are fond of a great number of servants and dependants, a proportionable quantity of the land must be applied to produce wherewithal to maintain them, &c.

If, upon the first conquest, the lands are divided among all the inhabitants by equal portions, yet they will gradually fall into the hands of a few; one man shall die without issue, and leave his portion to whom he pleases; another shall have several children, and not wherewithal to maintain them, and so they must become dependants on such as have too much land. One man shall be sickly, lazy, or extravagant, and be obliged to sell his portion of land to another, who is frugal and industrious, and this latter shall every year add to his estate.

Of this we have an instance in the first settlement of the Roman state: each citizen had two acres of land, and yet, soon after, the property of the land fell into few hands.

The most ancient accounts we have of the forming societies and states, tell us, that they have been formed by conquest; how they stood in the day of the patriarchs is not very clear.

Let us suppose the proprietor of an estate in land keeps it in his own hands, he will employ slaves, vassals, or servants, to work for him. If he employs slaves in great numbers, he must have overseers to keep them at work; he must have as many labourers and tradesmen, and mechanics, as are necessary to procure him all the conveniences his fancy and inclination lead him to.

In this economy, he must allow these slaves not only what will maintain them, but also their children; he must likewise allow the overseers of the slaves such advantages and rewards as are proportionable to the authority which he gives them. Wherefore the labour of a slave is worth, at least, the quantity of land that serves to maintain him, and about double the quantity of land which serves to breed up a child till he is of age fit for labour; for half the children that are born die before 17; so that two children must be reared up, on an average, in order to have one fit for labour, and even then their lives can be calculated but at 10 to 12 years.

It is true, that the one half of the children who die before 17, die faster in the first years than in the following; but, as the time the mother loses in producing and tending them, seems to make up for this computation, and the females are more chargeable, and less profitable when they grow up, than the males; it appears reasonable to think, that the labour of the meanest slave is equal to double the produce of the land that is required to maintain him.

When the proprietor maintains slaves on his land, if he has more of them than his labour requires, he sells the superfluous hands, as he does his cattle; in which case their value or price ought to answer (*cæteris paribus*) to the quantity of land employed to breed up two slaves to maturity.

But, if the proprietor employs in his service free servants, or vassals, instead of slaves, he may probably maintain them upon a better foot than slaves, according to the usage and

custom of the place he lives in: yet, in this case also, the labour of a day-labourer ought to correspond to about double the quantity of land that is employed to maintain him. If he be married, the surplus goes to the breeding up of his children, his wife being supposed just able to maintain herself by her labour: but, if he be a bachelor, he will probably employ his surplus to live more at his ease: for example, the married labourer will live upon bread and cheese, roots, &c. eat meat, drink strong beer or wine seldom, change cloaths and linen seldom; whereas the unmarried labourer will eat and drink better, and wear better apparel, and consequently (if we suppose their wages equal) he will consume the produce of more land for the maintenance of his own person, than the married man, if he saves nothing.

For the better understanding of this, it is to be observed, that a poor labourer may maintain himself at the lowest computation, upon the produce of an acre and an half of land; whereas, if he allows himself strong beer, meat, and all other conveniences, he may, without gluttony or excess, consume the produce of four to 10 acres of land, of ordinary goodness.

From this may be inferred, that the labour of a working man corresponds to more or less land in different countries, according to the different customs of living used in the said countries; and that, if the labour of a peasant in France be worth the produce of three acres, that of an English countryman, who drinks beer, wears woollen cloth, eats meat pretty often, and consequently consumes the produce of more land, is worth in England from six to eight acres.

It has been already observed, that a mechanic tradesman earns more than a day-labourer, and, consequently, he is able to consume, in the maintenance of his person, the produce of more land, or he may spare his overplus, if he pleases.

The master-tradesmen, and superior undertakers of business, upon the footing that things are managed in Europe, correspond something to the overseers of slaves in other parts, and gain more than the journeymen-tradesmen; and these master-tradesmen know how much work a journeyman can do in a day, and often pay them by the work and piece: this makes them work, for their own interest, as hard as they can, without further inspection.

From what has been said, it seems to be pretty clear, that the par and equation of land and labour are known by the quantity of land, the produce whereof is given for wages to the man who labours. That the labour of a man, who earns the produce of three acres, is equal to three acres; of a man who earns the produce of six acres, to six acres, &c. And it seems that the same proportion allotted for labour differs in several parts of the world, according to the different ways of living.—That, in China, the labour of a peasant may be equal to half an acre of land, since a quarter of an acre may probably maintain him after the Chinese manner.—That, among the Iroquois Indians in America, the labour of a vassal, or slave, may be equal to 20 or 100 acres, since the maintenance of a man may require half that quantity, in regard that they live mostly on wild beasts, which they hunt, and that the beasts one man consumes in a year must have many acres of pasture to feed them; especially since people there have not the knowledge to cut down the woods, and make the land produce as much grass for them as it might; and it seems in this as if nature had no regard to the multiplication of men in particular, but is indifferent whether the land produces grass, corn, or trees, or whether it maintains a great or small number of birds, beasts, or men.

The females commonly consume the produce of less land than the males, or, in other words, spend less; their infancy is not only indeed expence, but, even when they are grown up, they seldom earn more than what barely maintains them. Therefore it should seem that the labour of a peasant ought to exceed twice the quantity of land necessary to maintain him, with regard to the female children that are bred up in a state: but, as most of the day-labourers do not marry till they have saved something, such who are frugal are, by that means, enabled to breed up several children.

So that, if it be allowed reasonable that the labour of a peasant is equal to twice the product of the land that serves to maintain him, the mechanic and tradesman, who earn more, may be said to follow the same proportion.

If we consider to what quantity of land an hundred bushels of wheat correspond in value, we must not only take into consideration the number of acres which produced it, but also the double of the number of acres necessary to maintain the men whose work and labour produced it in that form, during the time they were at work thereupon: and, if the said wheat has been brought from afar, we must also take into consideration the land necessary to maintain the men and beasts employed in the carriage.

Thus, to judge of the intrinsic value of any thing, we must consider the land, and the labour that enters into its productions; and, since we may pretty nearly determine the par of land and labour, we may look upon land alone, perhaps, to be the principal measure of all values.

But as money is the medium, which finds out the proportion of all values, it is also the best medium to fix the proportion

of land and labour, in relation to all goods and commodities. If a workman earns half an ounce of silver per diem, and another earns an ounce, it may be judged that the latter has twice the quantity of land to spend, since he earns twice the quantity of money.

This notion of the par of land and labour Sir William Petty looked upon to be one of the most important considerations in political economics, as appears by a MS. of his, written in the year 1685; but the method he has taken to enquire into it, seems to be but very indifferently grounded. But the principles which we have laid down seem to be very plain and natural, and may be applied to the éclaircissement of many political altercations.

Money, for the facility and convenience of commerce, being the medium of all values, the more hard money there is in circulation, the dearer the price of labour, and consequently all commodities in general, will be in a state. See the articles BARTER, CASH, CIRCULATION, MONEY.

That the quantity of the hard circulating money of this kingdom has increased in the like proportion as the price of labour and commodities, no one, we presume, will undertake to prove. In proportion to the increase of our specie, the price of labour may have increased; but, as there are other obvious and apparent causes which have contributed to the increase in the price of labour within this century, it may be necessary to point out the source of those causes, that we may not ascribe certain effects to uncertain and inadequate causes.

This we have done under our article DUTIES, to shew how those DUTIES and TAXES, laid upon commodities in this nation, operated before the last war, when our PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES were not greatly above one-half of what they are at present; and consequently, what is represented under the article DUTIES, must have much greater weight now, than it had in our former edition of this work, and may be found to deserve, one day, due public attention.

But nothing can be more indubitably apparent, than that the high price of labour, and of all the produce and manufactures of this kingdom, is owing to the immense WEIGHT OF OUR TAXES: and are not these solely owing to the WEIGHT AND INCUMBRANCE OF OUR NATIONAL DEBTS? And, if those taxes were taken off, in consequence of the redemption of the principal national debts, would not the price of labour, and of all our commodities, fall in proportion BY SUCH ANNIHILATION OF OUR TAXES? I believe that no one would be hardy enough to attempt to prove, that, if our taxes were taken off, the price of labour and commodities would not be lessened in the like proportion, as it has been thereby augmented, making allowances for the different values of money now, and before they were imposed.

If this be the true state of the case, nothing can more demonstrably prove the necessity of paying off the debts of the nation, by measures every way adequate thereunto. How that may be effectuated, see the article DEBTS [PUBLIC DEBTS] and such other heads to which from thence we refer. There are other causes likewise, which will contribute to the keeping of the price of labour low, and in proportion to that of other neighbouring commercial states, by improvements in the mechanic arts and inventions, as well as in agriculture. See AGRICULTURE, FARMING, HUSBANDRY, MANURE.

In Russia, we are told, they had no other way of making planks, 'till near the end of the last century, but by hewing or chipping away a whole tree to the necessary thickness; notwithstanding which, they could afford to sell them cheaper than their neighbours. Two Russians might possibly, with hard labour, finish a plank in a day in this inartificial way, in the same time two carpenters could with ease saw out 20 good boards. Without troubling ourselves with the loss of timber, if both are sold at a neighbouring port for the same money, 'tis plain, the Russian must work for a twentieth part of the carpenter's wages: if a sawyer in Sweden can get ten pence a day, the Russian must be paid with an halfpenny. This instance may bear a further application; the carpenter, by the contrivance of the long saw, performs as much in a day, as twenty Russians with the axe; but, beyond this, there are in Sweden a kind of mills turned by water, and so contrived, as to take in large trees at the upper side the stream, and deliver them out on the lower, sawed into planks, in a very few minutes. One of these mills will at least make 500 planks, whilst the poor Russians could hew out a single one; so that it performs the business of a thousand Russians, or 50 common sawyers, in a day, with the attendance of a single person*.

* Reflections on various subjects, relating to arts and commerce.

That nation which invents such-like compendious arts of workmanship, will certainly stand the best chance to gain the trade of foreign markets; for, besides that machines generally do the work truer and better than the hand, the labour saved by them is so very great, that, if the materials are equally plentiful, they who use the machine, must underfel the others in a vast disproportion. For, as in this instance, both are supposed to work only to live, provisions can be in no part

of the world dearer than another, in the proportion of 500 to one. A larger quantity wrought in a more compendious manner may call for as many hands, as a less quantity in a way more laborious. These considerations tend to make up their numbers, which will be richer, more improved, and more ingenious, either to defend or acquire; for ingenuity is generally an over-match for strength.

States without commerce regard chiefly the increase of numbers of inhabitants, and their home markets; and commercial states consider wealth alone, and foreign markets. Without prejudice to either, engines may be allowed in the following cases. (1.) When they do such business as cannot be performed by hand at all. Of this kind are pumps, fire-engines, water-engines, looms, wine and oil-presses, hand-mills for grain, and perhaps horse-mills. (2.) Where the commodities wrought by them are such as would not have been used at all, except they were done by the machine, either being not cheap enough, or not good enough for consumption, when prepared by hand. Under this head are the mills for paper, those for forging, drawing, slitting of iron, copper, or lead, fulling of cloths and leather, and making gunpowder.

A people without commerce may safely refuse to admit stocking-looms, sawing-mills, throwing-engines, weaving or spinning-engines, mills for striking files, cutting watch-wheels, making nails, and all the variety of inventions produced by a rivalry amongst nations contending for commerce, and private men for orders.

Commercial states must have their eyes on their neighbours, and, if they design to engross foreign markets, must provide for the cheapness of labour at home. Goods must be made cheap, to render them of general use abroad and at home. Engines for shortening business ought to be rejected, or not admitted in commercial states; when the commodity is not at all sold abroad, when it affects not the price of labour, when the machines would lessen our home markets, more than increase our foreign ones; which is, perhaps, the case with most of the last mentioned ones, many of which tend only to take the bread out of the hands of thousands, and, by a shameful monopoly, to enrich one or two. And, if they were not most of them already admitted, one would not wish to see them in use here.

Of the natural causes of the rise and decay of nations in wealth and power, with regard to the price of labour.

Let us suppose France in a middling state, the land pretty well cultivated, and the proprietors rents pretty well paid; if in these circumstances there happens a civil war; the proprietors will take party, some on one side and some on the other; they will engage and mortgage their estates, to lend money to the chief of their faction to support his quarrel, since, if the opposite chief prevails, their lands and estates will be confiscated, the undertakers will be disheartened, the country rifled, the magazines and warehouses plundered, and labour will be discouraged; so the land will not produce wherewithal to maintain the inhabitants, and to supply necessaries for the armies. The chiefs of the parties will be obliged to get stores and other necessaries from the neighbouring states which are in peace, and consequently they will send money out of France to pay for them.

This will gradually create a scarcity of money in France; besides that great sums will be buried, and that all barter in evaluation and credit will be diminished, the uncertainty of the event of war will hinder marriages and multiplication, and the mortality in the war will diminish the inhabitants.

In this situation France will be in a deplorable condition, and in danger of being oppressed by a foreign power. A general plague in France will occasion much the same mischiefs.

Now let us suppose the civil war ended, the proprietors who received little or no rent during the troubles, and whose lands lay waste and uncultivated, will now farm them out at a small rent, as well because the scarcity of money, which makes all commodities cheap, as because they must encourage the farmers, in regard to the decrease of the inhabitants. As the rents are small, they will live without luxury, and consume little or no foreign commodities, which will be dear, since more money circulates on this hypothesis in the neighbouring states, than in France. The labourers and peasants, by reason of the thinness of the inhabitants, will be encouraged, and, as they will consequently find it easy to subsist, they will breed up a great number of children, and so France will become again very populous. The scarcity of money in France will make their commodities so cheap, that they will export great quantities of them, particularly if valuable manufactures are set up in France. So that France will in this case get a yearly balance, and fall naturally into the channels of trade.

This will gradually bring great sums of money into France, where it's plenty will begin to raise the price of all things, and where several undertakers will have amassed good sums of money.

Now, since the prices of all things are risen insensibly, the proprietors will raise the price of their estates, the increase of the inhabitants will make them offer to work for less sustenance than at first; and, as there is plenty of money in circulation,

circulation, foreign commodities will come at a cheap price, the exportation of commodities will slacken because of their dearth, and the neighbouring nations will be able to set up cheaper manufactures; and, as the business decreases in France, several French tradesmen will go into foreign parts, where there is work for them, and improve the manufactures there. The quantities of money amassed by the French undertakers in the course of their business, while France gained the balance of trade, will encourage to spend more money, and consume more foreign commodities, than usual, as they are now cheaper; and the proprietors, with their additional rent, will do the same, and so luxury will come into fashion. In the beginning of this turn of affairs, the balance of trade will be pretty equal, France being not yet quite beaten out of the channels of trade, but only beginning to lose some branches of it. In this situation France is in its acmé, or highest state of power, having more ready money than the neighbouring states, and consequently the king can raise greater sums from his subjects than at any time. But, as the increase of expence and luxury has taken root, 'tis remarkable those who begin it seldom lay it aside 'till they are undone; this will cause a continuance of the expence of foreign commodities, and, the exportation slackening and decreasing in proportion, the balance of trade will turn against France, and their money will be sent out annually in payment of the surplus of those foreign commodities they consume: and thus France will decline in its wealth and power, by the decrease of the quantity of actual money, and the thinning of its inhabitants, which its luxury and decay of trade and manufactures will necessarily occasion.

This example of France is historical. After the composing of the civil war there about 1652, the prime minister of the finances, Mr. Colbert, set up and encouraged fine manufactures there, and France lived several years without luxury, and few coaches were seen at Paris.

They gained greatly in the balance of trade, and Lewis the XIVth grew very powerful: money grew very plenty, and, about 1680, the balance of trade grew pretty equal, and luxury began; and then it would have naturally turned against France, which must have necessarily declined in process of time, if that operation had not been hastened by the expulsion of the Hugonots, which, by the money and inhabitants sent out of the kingdom, hastened the decline of France; which nevertheless did not happen visibly, 'till about the year 1715, when she was in peace.

The rise and decline of all other kingdoms, naturally and abstractedly from wars and conquests, are owing to causes of the like nature; and, when a nation gets a great plenty of money, and increases exorbitantly in its paper circulation, it naturally tends to decline, by the dearth that happens of land, labour, and commodities; and the greatest prudence of a legislator seems to be, when money and paper circulation are rising to that plenty, to take methods to clog their circulation, and, if possible, to lock great sums of money gradually and insensibly, to encourage the use of plate, and take any other methods than those that naturally and commonly happen, which is to send it again to foreign parts, in payment of jewels, pictures, and other ornaments of luxury. The next essential thing to be done, also, is the gradual annihilation of their paper debts, and the taxes thereby occasioned. If this could be effected, a state would continue, by a reasonable price of its commodities, to keep up the channels of trade and exportation; but, where things go on in their natural course, the too great plenty of money, or paper credit, by enhancing the price of things, gives other rival nations an opportunity to take the trade into their hands, and to get the money along with it.

There seems to be but a limited quantity of trade in Europe: suppose that in the trade of the woollen manufacture, the quantity of foreign cloth consumed in Italy, Spain, Portugal, Germany, Turkey, and the North, may amount to 30,000,000 ounces of silver, and that the cloth is chiefly supplied by England, France, Flanders, Holland, &c. That England is in the channel of exporting and supplying to the value of 15 millions; if it should in any year supply 20 millions, it must be at the expence and diminution of the sales of the others: and, if France should get into the channel of supplying large quantities of woollen manufactures more than usual, it would be probably so much taken away from the English trade.

Sir William Petty seems not to have had any thought of this limitation of consumption, when he insinuated, that it would be best for England to abandon the manure of the land, and make all the inhabitants turn tradesmen, weavers, &c.

If we suppose there are 90 millions of inhabitants in Europe, it will not, perhaps, be found that one in 50 of the whole number consumes yearly foreign manufactures: France and England principally consume their own; and even the greatest number of the inhabitants of all other countries are clothed at home.

Let us suppose the circulating money of England to have been four millions sterling, and the lands to be farmed out at 12 millions, the yearly produce of the land, according to the method of calculation we have followed, will be 36 millions; if, in process of time, the circulating money of England comes

to seven or eight millions, the rents of the land will naturally come to exceed 20 millions, without any other alteration than the increase of the quantity of circulating money; and whereas the lands of England might have been worth, at 20 years purchase, 240 millions, in the first supposition, they will, in the second, be computed at 400 millions, for no other reason than because from three to four millions additional money was introduced into barter, though the said sum should be due to foreigners, and pays them a yearly interest, to the great disadvantage of the English balance of trade.

Now if the said sum, from three to four millions, should be sent back to the foreigners, the rents of the lands would fall to 12 millions, as before; and here would appear, on computation, a vast decrease of the wealth of England, without any real decrease in the intrinsic value of the land and labour, and the annual produce of the land.

The more commercial labour there is in a state, the richer the state is esteemed.

It has been judged, by experience, that the labour of 25 persons is nearly sufficient to provide meat, drink, apparel, housing, and, generally, all the necessaries of life for 100 persons: upon this supposition, the fare and cloathing are coarse, but easy and plentiful: yet, as above one third of the inhabitants are either too old or too young to work, or sick, or infirm, and that full one half are necessarily idle, or free from common labour: there would be still, on this supposition, 25 adult working persons, or those capable of working, who would have nothing to do.

If the most part of these 25 persons in 100 are employed to draw metals out of the earth, or to work fine cloth and fine linen, and to refine, by greater labour, the houses, the utensils, and other conveniences of life, though they add nothing to the quantity of food of themselves, nor to the quantity and necessary uses of the cloathing; yet the state will be esteemed the richer for their labour: labour adds to the relish of food and drink, and to the ornament and convenience of cloathing.

The more labour is employed in a suit of cloaths, the dearer it sells, and the richer it is esteemed. A knife and fork that are nicely wrought, taking up more labour, are dearer, and esteemed richer, *cæteris paribus*.

It is true, that, whether the inhabitants wear fine or coarse cloath, if equally lasting, and eat or drink, and are lodged nicely or coarsely, it is, in one respect, much the same thing, since coarse and fine food and cloathing are equally consumed; but, in the general notion, the state that consumes fine cloathing is esteemed richer than that which consumes coarse, &c.

But when the additional labour of the 25 persons, we mentioned, produces permanent wealth, as gold, silver, copper, &c. to serve for a corps of reserve, whether by exchanging their labours with foreigners for those metals, or digging them out of the ground, the state is not only esteemed richer, but is in every respect so; and more particularly if such labour brings in gold or silver, for which, on any emergency, the state may have, even from its enemies, any thing it may stand in need of.

Wherefore the more labour there is in a state, the richer it is esteemed; and, if that labour be well applied, the richer in reality, and the more powerful, a state is. For,

The point, which seems to determine the comparative strength and riches of nations, is the corps de reserve which they have; magazines of all things necessary for the use of man, exceeding the yearly consumption, to answer in bad years and wars; or, forasmuch as gold and silver answer all these things, the quantity of gold and silver seems to determine the comparative wealth and power of states; for those are permanent and lasting riches.

It is very adviseable to encourage all sorts of work and labour in a state, since a state is esteemed the richer for it; but the labour which answers best, in case of war and difficulty, is the most to be encouraged. Diogenes, at the siege of Corinth, is said to have fell a rolling his tub, that he might not be idle, when all others were at work. We would not recommend that sort of labour; but, rather than have a person idle in the state, we would recommend the working of toys and trinkets, that have a shew of ornament, though little of real use.

If all the proprietors of land had but just as much of it as they could oversee, and manage by themselves, or as much as farmers commonly rent and oversee, without under officers to assist them; if the said proprietors became the undertakers of such their small estates, they would keep few or no idle servants, few pleasure-horses; they would live without luxury, and, consequently, the inhabitants of the state would be more numerous, and more laborious, *cæteris paribus*. This makes it sensible, that a great inequality in estates is prejudicial to a state, because of the luxury and idleness which great estates commonly introduce. And whether a convent of 50 monks live on a large estate, or a lord with 50 servants and horses, who do nothing but attend him, it seems pretty much the same thing in time of peace; but, in case of war, the lord, indeed, and his servants and horses, may be useful, and is always an ornament; whereas the monks seem to be of no real use in peace or war, on this side heaven.

But

But the convents of all Mendicants are baneful in a state; they are not only idle themselves, and live upon the industry of others, but are an hindrance to labour in many respects, by their holy devices: the number of holydays in Roman Catholic countries, and other institutions of devotion, seem to take off nearly one tenth part of the yearly labour of the state.

Before we dismiss this head, it may not be improper to observe, that the French always outdo us in the price of labour: their common people subsist upon roots, cabbage, and other herbage; four of their large provinces live, as it were, intirely upon chefnuts; and the best of them eat bread made of barley, millet, Turkey and black corn: so that their wages used to be small in comparison with ours.

The price of meat and wheat doth little concern the poor manufacturers, as they generally drink nothing but water, and, at best, a sort of liquor which they call beuverage (which is water passed through the husks of grapes, after the wine is drawn off) they save a great deal upon that account, for it is well known that our people spend half of their money in drink.

At Lyons, which next to Paris is the best city in France, they do not pay much above five-pence English money an ell for making lustrings; and the price paid here for making lustrings is above twelve-pence per ell.

In the paper-manufacture abundance of people are employed for sorting rags in the mills, who can earn in France not two-pence a day; and the price paid here for such work is from four-pence to six-pence a day.

The French working thus cheap, it is no wonder if they afford their manufactures at lower rates than their neighbours.

As this nation is our great rival in foreign commerce, it therefore becomes the wisdom of the nation to meditate all reasonable and practicable measures to remove every cause that tends to increase the artificial price of labour, and keeps us upon an inequality in trade with our competitors.

The LAWS of ENGLAND in regard to LABOURERS.

Who may be compelled to work, and how punished on refusal.

He who hath no lands of his own, or is not of some trade or mystery to get a livelihood. Fitz. N. B. 168. b.

The churchwardens and overseers, &c. may set such persons to work; and, if they refuse, one justice may send them to the house of correction: so he may those that refuse to work for reasonable wages.

Persons brought up in husbandry, or in any of the arts of trades, and not able to get a livelihood, if under thirty years of age, and having no visible means to maintain themselves but by labour, may be warned by two justices to get a service by a certain day; and, if they neglect or refuse to be hired for a year, they may be sent to the house of correction, or bound over to the next assizes or sessions, and to be of good behaviour in the mean time. Dalt. 116. 6 Eliz. c. 4.

One justice may put in the stocks, for two days and one night, such as he in his discretion shall think fit to work, and command so to do, if they refuse in the time of harvest. 3 Eliz. c. 4.

Artificers must likewise work in hay-time and harvest, and, if they refuse, the constable shall put them in the stocks for the like time; and the constable therein neglecting forfeits 40s.

In hay-time and harvest, labourers may go into other counties to work, but then they must have a testimonial, under the hand and seal of one justice, to signify that they had not work where they lived the winter before.

2. How long they must continue at work.

If they work by the day, or by the week, they must continue working from five in the morning 'till after seven at night, from the middle of March to the middle of September, and all the rest of the year from twilight to twilight; only from March to September as aforesaid, they are to be allowed two hours for breakfast, dinner, and drinking; and, from the middle of May to the middle of August, half an hour more for sleeping; and all the rest of the year an hour and a half for breakfast and dinner; and, for the absence of every hour, the master may stop one penny out of the wages. 4 Eliz. c. 4.

3. Punishment for departing when they do work by the great.

If they depart before it is finished (except for non-payment of wages agreed on, or with leave of the master, or being taken into the king's service, or for other lawful cause) they are to be committed for a month, without bail, and to forfeit 5l. to the party grieved, to be recovered by action of debt, &c. over and above the costs and damages as by law may be recovered for such offences.

4. For what wages they shall work.

The wages of artificers, labourers, and others, shall yearly be assessed by the sheriff of the county; this by 5 Eliz. c. 4. But the justices of the peace, or the greatest part of them resident in the county, have the like power by stat. Jac. I. cap. 6. in their sessions every Easter, or within six weeks

after. This assessment, by stat. Eliz. must be certified under their hands and seals to the chancellor, &c. who thereupon sends a proclamation into every county and corporation, before the 1st of September following, which the sheriff, or chief officer, must cause to be proclaimed and inrolled by the clerk of the peace, before Michaelmas ensuing; but, if no alteration is made in the old rates, then there is no need of such proclamation.

Every justice, &c. who shall be absent at the taxing the wages, not being sick, or not having some reasonable excuse, to be proved upon oath, and allowed by the rest of the justices, shall forfeit 10l. one moiety to the king, the other to the informer, to be recovered by action of debt, information, or otherwise.

5. The punishment for giving greater wages than what is allowed.

He who gives more wages, forfeits 5l. and may be committed for 10 days without bail. He who takes more wages, and is convicted before two justices, or a head officer, shall be committed for 20 days; but a master may reward a servant as he pleaseth, so as it be not by way of contract on the retainer.

6. The wages of labourers in the woollen trade.

By the stat. 1 Ann. all payments for work done in the woollen, linen, fustian, cotton, and iron manufactures, must be in current money, and not in cloth, victuals, or other commodities; and all the wooll, delivered to them to be wrought, shall be first weighed, and the true weight thereof declared. The offender, in either of those cases, forfeits to the labourer double the value of what shall be due for his work.

But, if the labourer shall be guilty of any fraud or fault in his work, then he must answer to the owner double the damages by him sustained: Then as to determining the wages, demands, frauds, and deceits of labourers in woollen, &c. it must be by any two justices of the peace where the controversy doth arise, who may examine witnesses upon oath; but there lies an appeal from the order of the two justices to the next sessions, after notice of the said order, whose judgment shall be final; and, if for the appellee, then they may give costs and charges.

REMARKS.

In a dictionary of trade, we have judged it necessary to introduce the article of LABOUR; in order to observe how, and in what manner, our taxes, as they are at present laid, enhance its price, and thereby augment that of our product and manufactures in general. This was most apparently the case, before the last war; and since we have accumulated, by that war, an additional debt, near equal to that we did, by the THREE PRECEDING GREAT WARS, our GENERAL TAXES have multiplied, in proportion as our PUBLIC DEBTS have. To what degree this our additional weight of TAXES affects the price of labour throughout the kingdom in general, and in consequence raises the prices of all our produce and manufacture, as well for foreign as home consumption, is too sensibly felt and experienced to need further proof, or whole commerce and navigation labouring under the oppression. See DUTIES.

LACE-MANUFACTURE, is a work composed of many threads of gold or silver, fine or otherwise, or of silk or linen, interwoven the one with the other, which is worked upon a pillow with spindles, or bones for bone-lace, according to the pattern designed. This is performed by the means of several pins, which are placed and displaced as the spindle is moved, upon which the threads are divided.

The fabric of lace has divers varieties and qualities, as that of net-work-lace, or bone-lace; also some with large, others with small flowers, some in a loose, others in a compact manner; some high-raised, others lower, and some very low-raised; one kind all of gold or silver-thread, or part of gold and part of silver; others of silk of divers colours, and others of linen-thread, extremely white.

The common use thereof is for the embellishment of drefs, in regard to linens, ladies head-dresses, the altar ornament of churches.

In France, the sale of lace makes a part of the mercery business.—The milliners deal only in that of white linen.

The manufacture of gold and silver-lace in France is carried on mostly at Paris, Lyons, and the adjacent villages belonging thereunto.

The finest silk lace is made at Fontenay, Puiffieux, Morgas, and the Louvre; the ordinary sort is manufactured chiefly in France, at St Denis, Montmorency, Villiers le Bel, Carcelle, Ecouan, St Brice, Groffat, Gisors, St Pierre des Champs, Estrepagny, Doumesnil, and in some other places in the neighbourhood of these cities, bourgs, and villages.

At the Louvre they manufacture particularly the greatest part of the raised black silk-lace for womens scarves.

The principal places from whence the fine white lace comes, are Antwerp, Bruffels, Malines, Louvain, and Gand, all cities of Spanish Flanders; also Valenciennes, Lisse, and some other places of French Flanders; Charleville, Sedan, Le

Comté de Bourgogne, Loraine, Liege, Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Honfleur, Harfleur, Pont L'Evesque, Gisors, Fescamp, Caën, and other cities of the province of Normandy; Arras, Bapaume, and other places of the county of Artois; Le Puy in Velay, some places of Auvergne and Picardy, the Louvre in Paris, St Denis in France, Montmorency, Villiers le Bel, &c.

The finest and most beautiful thread-laces are those of the Spanish Flanders, next to which are those of French Flanders; among which are distinguished the true Valenciennes, then those of Dieppe, and next those of Havre and Honfleur: for, with regard to those of other places, they are but ordinary, and of a middling price, although there is no inconsiderable vent for them.

The greatest part of the laces, as well of gold and silver as of silk and thread, which are made in France, are consumed in the kingdom. There is but little except those of silk, and particularly those of the black species abovementioned, whereof they make any considerable export into Spain and Portugal, and into the Spanish Indies, Germany, and Holland.

The French fabricate particularly a sort of white thread-lace, for the commerce of the Spanish West-Indies. It is composed only of large flowers, without net-work, or bars. This kind was formerly greatly in fashion; but, at present, they wear none of it; in Flanders they manufacture the most of this kind.

Of the principal LAWS of France in regard to LACE.

The mark upon thread-laces which come from Flanders, the Low Countries, and England, as likewise that of point from Genoa and Venice, and other foreign countries, was established in France in the year 1660, by royal ordonnance.

In 1664, it was united to the lease of the five gross farms.—In 1667, by a declaration of the king, a tariff took effect, conformably to which the duties of this mark should be paid; which tariff was afterwards confirmed, and its execution ordered by the arret of the council of state of 1681, of which we shall speak presently.

To this year the mark upon lace had not been established and practised, except in the jurisdictions of the custom-house of Lyons, for the point, which was imported from divers parts of Italy, particularly from Venice and Genoa.

In 1680, the king's farmer of the revenues, Mons. Boutet, having passed a lease to the Sieurs Joly and Fariole, of the under-farm of the impost-duties upon thread-laces of Flanders and the Low Countries, was obliged, in order to enable the lessees duly to enjoy it, to present a petition to the royal council, that the declarations, ordonnances, arrets of council, leases of the farms, and tariffs of the king, should be executed according to the form and tenor thereof; to which the king having regard, his majesty ordered, by an arret of the 8th of April, 1681, that all merchants, carriers, and others who brought Flanders lace into the kingdom, should be obliged to pass through the jurisdiction of Peronne, and represent the same to the said jurisdiction, in order to have such lace duly marked, with the farmer of that revenue's mark, at both ends of each piece of the said lace, and to pay the customs due, according to the declaration of his majesty, and the tariff made by the council the 18th of April, 1667; which laces, and the acquittals of the payment of such duties, merchants and others were obliged to lay before the jurisdiction of the said farms established in the city of Paris, to be there viewed and examined, upon pain of confiscation, and a fine of 3000 livres, &c. which was executed as well in the jurisdiction of Peronne, for the laces which passed through there from the time of the said arret, as in * the shops and merchants warehouses for laces, which were before entered into the kingdom.

* This policy, in collecting the duties on foreign imposts, may deserve attention in other nations.

In 1682, the merchants complaining that their merchandize was opened and handled, in the said jurisdiction of Peronne, they having no correspondence there to take the care of them, the merchants and farmers of the revenue unanimously agreed, that the laces should pass only by Peronne, where should be taken security for their passage to Paris, where they shall be marked, and the duties paid, which has been practised ever since.

The duties on importation and exportation out of the kingdom, and the provinces reputed foreign, for all sorts of lace, are paid by weight; and the duties are more or less, according to the different species and qualities, and the places of their fabrication.

Of the principal LAWS of England with regard to LACE.

Gold or silver thread, lace, fringe, or other work made thereof, or any thread, lace, fringe, or other work made of copper, brass, or any other inferior metal, or gold or silver wire or plate, imported, to be forfeited and burnt, and 100l. paid by the importer, for every parcel so imported. 10 Ann. cap. 26. sect. 65. and 15 Geo. II. 20. 7.

The allowance on gold and silver lace, thread, and fringe, exported.

By 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62. from 1 July 1712, for 32 years. By 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 1. thence continued for ever.

Upon sufficient security before shipping, that the goods shall not be relanded in Great-Britain, and oath before the collector or collector of the port, that they were actually made after the first of July 1712, of the plate-wire spun upon silk, the exporter thereof to foreign parts is to have the following allowances, viz.

Gold lace, thread, or fringe, the pound avoirdupoise weight, 6s. 8d.

Silver lace, thread, or fringe, the pound avoirdupoise weight, 5s.

To be paid out of the duties on gilt and silver wire, by the collector, or the commissioners, by a debenture from the collector of the customs, expressing the kinds and quantities, and the shipping testified by the searher. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62.

Foreign bone-lace, band-frings, cut work, embroidery, fringe needlework, made of thread or silk, and buttons of all sorts imported, forfeited; the importer liable to 100l. and the seller to 50l. 3 Ed. IV. cap. 3. §. 1.—1 Rich. III. cap. 10. §. 1.—19 Hen. VII. cap. 21. §. 1.—5 Eliz. cap. 7. §. 1.—13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 13. §. 2.—4 and 5 W. and M. cap. 10. §. 2.—9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 9. §. 1.—11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 11. §. 1.

Except thread bone-lace not made in the dominions of the French king, or the duke of Anjou. 5 Ann. cap. 17.

Of the form of the custom-house business relating hereunto.

3d of March 1730.—No. 35.

In the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica.

Roger Granger.

Twenty-four pounds one ounce of silver lace, } value at
Twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, } 200l. in
Ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, } all.

William Brooks [the maker] maketh oath, That the twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of silver lace, and ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, avoirdupoise weight, above-mentioned, were all made since the first day of July 1712, and were all made of plate-wire spun upon silk.

William Brooks.

Jurat 3 die Martii 1730, coram me

A. B. Collector of the customs.

And, before the said goods are shipped off, sufficient security must be given to the collector of the customs, for the due exportation, in the following manner:

A bond for the exportation of gold and silver lace, thread, or fringe.

Noverint universi, &c.

Whereas the above-bounden Roger Granger hath this day entered outwards in the port of Southampton, on board the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica, twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of silver lace, ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, avoirdupoise weight, all made since the first day of July 1712, and made of plate-wire spun upon silk: and, whereas the said Roger Granger, upon the exportation of the said gold thread, silver lace, and gold fringe, for foreign parts, is to have an allowance or drawback, according to an act of parliament of the tenth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, on that behalf made:

Now the condition of this obligation is such, That if the said gold thread, silver lace, and gold fringe, and every part thereof, shall be shipped, and really and truly exported into parts beyond the seas, and that the same, or any part thereof, shall not be relanded, or unshipped with intent to be relanded, or brought on shore again in any port or ports of Great-Britain: then this obligation to be void, or else to remain and be in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of

A. B. Collector.

B. C. Comptroller.

Roger Granger.

Daniel Bright.

A debenture for gold and silver lace, thread, and fringe.

* Roger Granger did enter with us the 3d day of March 1730, in the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica, twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of silver lace, ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, all made since the first of July 1712, and of plate-wire spun upon silk, as appears by the oath of William Brooks.

A. B. Collector.

B. C. Customer.

C. D. Comptroller.

* 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62.

Bond

Bond is taken in the penalty of 381. that the above-mentioned gold thread, silver-lace, and gold fringe, shall be shipped and exported, and that the same, or any part thereof, shall not be reloaded, or brought again into any part or parts of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector.
C. D. Comptroller.

The twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of silver lace, ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe above-mentioned, were shipped the 6th of March present. Certified the 19th of March.

D. E. Searcher.
E. F. Surveyor.
F. G. Land-waiter.

REMARKS.

'Tis but few years since England expended, upon foreign lace and linen, not less than two millions yearly. As lace in particular is the manufacture of nuns, our British ladies may as well endow monasteries as wear Flanders lace, for thus Popish nuns are maintained by Protestant contributions. This manufacture, in Flanders, not only employs the hands of nuns and other women, but of great numbers of the country peasantry, who also work at it. The number of people employed all over Flanders in making lace is almost incredible, nor can the value be easily estimated*. This is a branch of trade that we may either do without, or else bring to perfection in time among ourselves, so as, perhaps, to be able to export quantities of it†.

* The most celebrated places for this manufacture, are Anvers, Brussels, Malines, Louvain, and Ghent; in French Flanders, they make the best at Valenciennes and Lille, and in several places in the province of Normandy. Great quantities of black lace made of silk, are also wrought at those places, and vended in Germany, Spain, the Indies, &c. by the industrious inhabitants.

The manufacture of thread, in Flanders, has been also brought to a most surprising degree of perfection: M. Savary informs us, that they have spun thread, at Malines, so fine as almost to escape the sight, and the action of the very air easily breaks it. Thus, in order to spin it, the greatest precaution is necessary. It was in this town that fine threads were first manufactured for making of lace; but they have, at Lille and other places, come up to those spun at Malines. Thread has been manufactured in these places, from 7 or 8 livres the pound weight, to above 400 livres; so that nothing can well shew the value of industry to a greater degree.

† At Bland, a town on the Stour, between Salisbury and Dorchester, they make the finest lace in England. The author of the Tour through Great-Britain says, they shewed him some so exquisitely fine, that he never saw better in Flanders, and which, they said, was rated at above 301. sterling per yard.

In Ireland, the Dublin society in particular, have already, by premiums and other attempts, done great service towards exciting a spirit of improvement and industry throughout that kingdom, and, from the encouragement lately given by his most sacred majesty for the same ends, it is to be hoped, that, in a little time, this kingdom may be made happily instrumental to Great-Britain, in vying with her rivals in trade, in many important branches, and, in conjunction with England, in this of lace among the rest. The Cork society also, to their great honour, follow the same steps, and have distinguished themselves of late by the same kind of proceeding: what may we not hope from such a spirit? Several times and places have been famous for the advancement of the sciences, such as that of Philip and Alexander in Greece, the first Cæsars in Rome, the house of Medicis in Florence, and Lewis the XIVth in France. What these persons and ages were to their respective countries, it is to be hoped, the laudable endeavours of the above-mentioned societies, added to the royal bounty, will be to this kingdom.

As all the improvements in the lace manufacture, as well as in the linen in general, depend upon flax, too much care cannot be taken of the cultivation of this article to the last perfection in Great-Britain. See FLAX.

The lace manufacture in England has greatly improved within these few years, and is likely to arrive at as high perfection in this kingdom, as it is in any part of Europe, by the means of the honourable and laudable society of Antigallians, who have followed the example of the Dublin and Cork societies, in respect to lace; and, by their well-judged premiums, have been lately instrumental to produce lace manufactured in England, to an extraordinary pitch of delicacy*.

* August 7, 1752, six pieces of bone-lace for mens ruffles were produced, the premium of 10 l. 10s. adjudged to Mr. William Marriott of Newport-Pagnel, Bucks, for the best piece.—For the second best 5 l. 5 s. to Mrs Elizabeth Waterman of Salisbury.

May 8, 1753, 14 pair of needle work ruffles, the premium 5 l. 5 s. adjudged to Mrs Maria Maule of Stonecutter-street, London.—May 8, 1753, the second best to Miss Wiffendall

from Saxony.—The third best 2 l. 2 s. to Miss Anne Clarke of Leominster in Herefordshire, 14 years of age —6 Pair of lady's lappets, the premium 15 l. 15 s. adjudged to Mrs Lydia Maynard of Honiton.—The second best to Mrs Mary Channon of Lynn Regis Dorsetshire.—The third of 5 l. 5 s. to Mrs Mary Bere of Lynn Regis Dorsetshire.

GOLD and SILVER LACE. This manufacture depends on the art of GILDING and WIRE-DRAWING. And those arts depend on the ductility of gold and silver.

To give some idea of this extraordinary property, to which we have occasion to refer.

Our gold-beaters and wire-drawers furnish us with abundant proof of this property: they every day reduce gold into lamellæ, or leaves inconceivably thin; yet without the least aperture discoverable, even by the microscope: a single grain of gold may be stretched under the hammer into a leaf that will cover a pretty large house, and yet the leaf remain so compact, as not to transmit the rays of light, nor even to admit of the transudation of the spirit of wine.

Dr Halley took the following method to compute the ductility of gold: he learnt from the wire-drawers, that an ounce of gold is sufficient to gild a silver cylinder of 48 ounces weight; which cylinder may be drawn out into a wire so very fine, that two yards thereof shall only weigh one grain, and consequently 98 yards of the same wire only 49 grains. So that a single grain of gold here gilds 98 yards, and of course the $\frac{1}{10000}$ part of a grain is here above $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch long. And, since the $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch is yet capable of being divided into 10 lesser parts, visible to the naked eye, it is evident, that the $\frac{1}{100000}$ part of a grain of gold may be seen without the aid of a microscope. Proceeding in his calculus, he found, that a cube of gold, whose side is the $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of an inch, contains 2,433,000,000 visible parts: yet, though the gold wherewith such wire is coated, be stretched to such a degree, that there is not any appearance of the colour of the silver underneath.

Mr Boyle, examining some leaf-gold, found that a grain and a quarter's weight took up an area of 50 square inches: supposing, therefore, the leaf divided by parallel lines $\frac{1}{1000}$ of an inch apart, a grain of gold will be divided into 500,000 minute squares, all discernible by a good eye. For the same author shews, that an ounce of gold, drawn out into wire, would reach 155 miles and a half*.

* See Boyle's Abr. Vol. 1. p. 405.

Monf. Reaumur has carried the ductility of gold a greater length: a gold wire, every body knows, is only a silver one gilt. This cylinder of silver, covered with leaf-gold, they draw through the hole of an iron: and the gilding still keeps pace with the wire, stretch it to what length they can. Now M. Reaumur shews, that, in the common way of drawing gold-wire, a cylinder of silver, 22 inches long and 15 lines diameter, is stretched to 1,163,520 feet; or is 634,692 times longer than before, which amounts to above 97 leagues. To wind this thread on silk for use, they first flatten it; in doing which it stretches at least $\frac{1}{7}$ further, so that the 22 inches are now 111 leagues: but, in the flattening, instead of $\frac{1}{7}$ they could stretch it $\frac{1}{4}$, which would bring it to 120 leagues. This appears a prodigious extension, and yet it is little.

The cylinder of silver might have been covered with one ounce of gold only, instead of six, as supposed: the gilding, indeed, in this latter case, will be but thin; still it will be gilding, and no point but will have its coat of gold. On this foundation Reaumur computes, that the thickness of the gold-leaf on the wire is $\frac{1}{340000}$ of a line. He adds, that, as the leaf gold is not every-where the same thickness, but at least twice as thick in some parts as other, in the thinnest parts it will not be above $\frac{1}{525000}$ part of a line, or the 6,300,000th part of an inch.

Yet this is not the furthest the artist can go: in flattening the wire gently between two wheels, it may be extended to double the breadth hitherto supposed; in which case the thickness of the leaf will be reduced to less than a millionth part of a line, or a twelve millionth of an inch.

Yet after all, putting a piece of this gilt wire in aqua fortis [see AQUA FORTIS] the silver will be dissolved, and the gold left a perfect continuous tube*.

* Mem. de l'Acad. An. 1713.

This force of cohesion in the parts of gold, which appear scarce less than infinite, depends on its being freed from common sulphur: for mix but one single grain of sulphur with 1000 grains of gold, the mass ceases to be malleable, 'till the sulphur be evaporated. Hence we have a strong presumption, that the less cohesive metals, tin, copper, and iron, contain a large quantity of sulphur.

The immense divisibility of gold is learnt from another experiment.—Take a pound of silver, and fuse it with a single grain of gold; the gold will diffuse itself equally through every minute particle of the silver; so that taking a grain of the mass, and dissolving it in aqua fortis, you will find a quantity of gold fall to the bottom, which bears precisely the same proportion to the grain of gold, as the gold in the mass had in the whole mass.

The

The wire and thread we commonly call gold-thread, &c. which is only silver wire gilt, as before observed, is drawn from a large ingot of silver, usually about 30 pound weight. This they round into a cylinder, or roll about an inch and a half in diameter, and 22 inches long; and cover it over with the leaves prepared by the gold-beaters, laying one over another, 'till the cover is a good deal thicker than that in our ordinary gilding: and yet even then it is very thin, as will be easily conceived from the quantity of gold that goes to gild the 30 pound weight. Two ounces ordinarily do the business, and frequently little more than one. In effect, the full thickness of the gold on the ingot rarely exceeds $\frac{1}{400}$, or $\frac{1}{500}$ part, and sometimes not $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of an inch.

But this thin coat of gold must be yet much thinner: the ingot is successively drawn through the holes of several irons, each smaller than other, 'till it be as fine, or finer than a hair. Every new hole lessens it's diameter, but it gains in length what it loses in thickness, and consequently increases in surface. Yet the gold still covers it, that following the silver in all it's extension, and never leaving the minutest part bare, not even to the microscope. Yet, how inconceivably must it be attenuated, while the ingot is drawn into a thread, whose diameter is 9000 times less than that of the ingot.

M. Reaumur, by exactitude of weight and computation, found, that one ounce of the thread was 3232 feet long, and the whole ingot 1,163,520 feet, Paris measure, or 96 French leagues, equal to 1,264,400 English feet, or 240 miles English: an extent, which far surpasses what Father Merfenne, Furetier, Dr Halley, &c. ever dreamt of.

Merfenne says, that half an ounce of the thread is 100 toises, or fathoms long; on which footing, an ounce would only be 1200 feet; whereas M. Reaumur finds it 3232, &c. according to what has been already observed.

The method of drawing silver is the same with that of gold, except that the latter is gilt or covered with gold, and the other is not.

There are also counterfeit gold or silver wires: the first made of a cylinder of copper silvered over, then covered with gold; and the second of a like cylinder of copper silvered over, and drawn through the iron, after the manner of gold and silver wire, and this again is gilt.

And a great quantity of the French gold and silver lace is certainly made of this sort, which is too often passed upon the world for other. This may deserve the regard of those, who are so mighty fond of French lace, to the detriment of the British gold and silver lace manufacture, which is in general of a far superior quality, wears far preferably, and will fetch more after it is worn out, from the intrinsic value of the gold and silver.

The LAWS of England with regard to gold and silver LACE.

No metal inferior to silver shall be spun on silk, under penalty of 5 l. an ounce. Silver wire for making silver thread shall hold at least 11 ounces 15 pennyweights of fine silver upon the pound Troy weight; and all silver gilt, and used in the wire-drawers trade, shall hold at least 11 ounces 8 pennyweights of fine silver, for every pound Troy weight; and shall not have less than four pennyweights four grains of fine gold, without alloy, laid on each pound of silver, on penalty of five pounds per ounce. For gold and silver prepared as before said, and reduced into plate, there shall be allowed six ounces of plate to five ounces of silk. A penalty of 2s. 6d. per ounce for selling gold and silver lace mixed with any other metal, and 5 s. per ounce for selling by any other than Troy weight: no gold or silver thread, &c. made of copper or other inferior metal, or gold or silver wire or plate, shall be imported, on pain of being forfeited and burnt, and 100 l. on the importer for each parcel.

LADING. See BILLS of LADING, CHARTER-PARTIES, FREIGHT.

LAGAN, or LAGON, in our ancient marine laws, signifies goods shipwrecked, left by the sea, lying on the sand, either ashore, or out at sea. See FLOTSAM, JETSAM, and WRECK.

LANCASHIRE in England. This county has Yorkshire on the east, and the Irish Sea on the west, Westmoreland on the north, and Cheshire on the south, and is about 170 miles in circuit.

The air is serene and healthy, and the soil for the most part fruitful, yielding store of wheat, barley, and oats; and the pasture so nourishing, that their cattle are usually of a larger size than in other counties. Here is plenty of timber, coal and cannel coal-pits, with mines of lead, iron, and copper, antimony, black-lead, lapis calaminaris, besides allum, brimstone, and green vitriol, found in some of the coal-pits.

It's chief rivers are the Mersey, Ribble, Wire, Lon, and Ken; all which abound with fish. Another river, called the Irke, is noted for eels, reckoned the fattest in England, and too luscious for common digestion; which is ascribed to the grease and oils from the woollen cloths milled in it.

LANCASTER, the shire town, stands near the mouth of the river Lon. It is a populous thriving corporation, with a tolerable harbour and a custom-house. Vessels of 70 tons go

from hence to America, with hard-ware and woollen manufactures; but the country hereabouts is so thinly peopled, by reason of it's barrenness, that it cannot take off the sugars imported.

PRESTON on the Ribble, may, for it's beauty and bigness, compare with some cities. It is plentifully supplied with fish, coal, and other commodities.

LIVERPOOL is a large and populous town, and the most flourishing sea-port in these parts, pretending to rival, if not to excel Bristol, it's customs being increased eight or ten fold within these forty years past. The inhabitants are universally merchants; and, notwithstanding their out-of-the-way situation, drive an incredible trade, with great success, and very large stocks, to all the northern parts of the world, as to Hamburg, Norway, and the Baltic, to the British colonies in America, to Guinea and Ireland, and also to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy; so that there is no trade but that of Turkey, Greenland, and the East-Indies, in which they are not concerned. As it imports almost all kind of foreign goods, it has consequently a large inland trade, and shares that to Ireland and Wales with Bristol, as follows: as Bristol trades chiefly to the south and west parts of Ireland, from Dublin in the east to Gallway west; this town has all the trade of the east and north shores, from Dublin to Londonderry: as Bristol has the trade of South Wales, this has great parts of that of North Wales: as Bristol has the south west counties of England, and some north of it, as high as Bridgenorth, if not to Shrewsbury, Liverpool has all the north counties, besides what goods it sends to Cheshire and Staffordshire, by the new navigation of the rivers Mersey, Weaver, and Dane, even so near to the Trent, that it's goods are carried by land to Burton. The merchants of Liverpool are also concerned with those of Londonderry, in the fishery on the north coast of Ireland. There is a navigation from hence farther up the Mersey, even for ships of burden, as high almost as Warrington; and also up the south channel, called the river Weaver; but it is chiefly for two things, 1. For rock-salt, which is dug out of the earth, both in this county and Cheshire, and shipped off here in great quantities, not only to neighbouring parts, but to London, Colchester, and several other places in the south of England, where it is dissolved in sea-water, and boiled again into a stronger and finer, as good as that sort called salt upon salt, made by the Dutch of the St Ube's salt, and with which they cure their herrings. 2. For great quantities of Cheshire cheese shipped here.

REMARKS in 1764.

By an authentic account we have from Liverpool this year 1764, there were lying in that port the following vessels; viz. 81 ships, 27 snows, 67 brigs, 6 schooners, 3 doggers or ketches, 141 sloops; and only one ship and four brigs sailed; which reduced the number to 351 vessels lying in this harbour at the same time: an instance not to be equalled by any port belonging to Great-Britain, except the mother-port of London; especially when we consider that none of the merchants ships were accidentally forced into this harbour by contrary winds.

WARRINGTON stands on the Mersey, and is a populous and rich town, full of good country tradesmen, and has a particular market every week for linen, which is generally that called huckaback, the manufacture of it's neighbourhood; and it is said that at least 500 l. worth, and sometimes much more, is sold every market-day.

MANCHESTER, as an inland town, has perhaps the best trade of any in these north parts. The fustian manufactures, called Manchester cottons, for which it hath been famous for almost 150 years, have been very much improved of late, by some inventions of dyeing and printing; which, with the great variety of other manufactures known by the name of Manchester goods, as ticking, tapes, filletting, and linen cloth, enrich not only the town, but the whole parish, and render the people industrious. The weavers have looms here that work 24 laces at a time, an invention for which they are obliged to the Dutch*.

* How far it may be good policy for a commercial state to make use of machines to lessen the price of labour, see the article LABOUR, towards the conclusion, also the article MACHINE.

ROCHDALE is another town of good trade, being of late years much improved in the woollen manufacture.

BURY is a town also of good trade. It is the utmost bound of the fustian-manufacture, and drives a considerable trade in coarse goods, called halfbicks and kerseys, for which here is a very great market, though the town lies so much out of the way, and at the foot of the mountains, that otherwise it would not be much frequented.

BOLTON is a staple for fustians of divers sorts, especially those called Augsburg and Milan fustians, which are brought to it's fairs and markets from all parts of the county.

ORMSKIRK is a handsome town, with a good inland trade.

HAWKSTEAD has a good trade in cloth, in that part of the county called Fowness, towards Cumberland and Westmoreland.

LANDED INTEREST.

The reason why the decline of foreign trade sinks the value of LAND.

First, By sinking the markets at home.

For, the produce of land being rendered excessively dear, from the causes below enumerated *, foreigners will not take it's superfluities; and labour being by the same causes rendered excessively dear too [see the article LABOUR] we cannot manufacture, or improve that produce, nations that can afford cheaper supplying the markets abroad; so that the produce of the lands, not being carried off as usual, must become a dead stock on the farmers hands, and cause great quantities to be crowded into the markets, where being encouragement but for few buyers, the price naturally falls: as, for instance, the declining demand for our woollen goods abroad falls the price of wool at home.

- * The foreign trade of every country must decline, that
 1. Lays unequal taxes in general on it's people. See the articles LABOUR and TAXES.
 2. That cramps it's commerce, the fountain of riches, by high duties, and impolitic prohibitions. See the articles DUTIES and BONDING of duties at the custom-house, and the article CUSTOMS.
 3. That suffers many monopolies. See the articles COMPANIES and MONOPOLIES.
 4. That oppresses it's people by prohibiting the importation of victuals, under the pretence of raising the value of it's lands. See IRELAND, remarks thereon.
 5. That encourages idleness by bad laws relating to it's poor. See the article POOR.
 6. That tempts foreigners to carry away it's coin for less than it's intrinsic value. See the articles COIN and MONEY.
 7. That makes the obtaining justice chargeable. See the articles CONSULS and MERCHANT [COURT MERCHANT.]
 8. That suffers a heavy national debt, contracted in time of war, to continue unpaid in time of peace. See DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], FUNDS.

Suppose that, in 1669, we exported to Turkey }
40,000 cloths, the value of raw wool in each } 1. 80,000
being 21 amounts to — — — — — }

Suppose that, in 1738, we exported to Turkey }
8000 cloths, the value of raw wool in each } 12,000
being 11. 10s. amounts to — — — — — }

The difference of the value of wool exported in }
those two years — — — — — } 1. 68,000

Wools of this value, lying yearly on hand, must make a glut; the farmers push to sell at market, but in vain, unless at under prices; for the wool-staplers, finding the demand decreases, decrease in number themselves; some break, some leave off trade, some take to other trades; for many sellers, with great stocks on hand, and few buyers, naturally fall the markets; and the landlords pressing the tenants for rent, and threatening to seize if payments are not made, the wool must be sold at any rate to raise money; and there being yearly 68,000l. less money brought into the nation, to be laid out in wool, than in former times, the price must be still lower on that account; the lower the produce sells, the less rent the farmer can give for the land; the worse the markets, the greater arrears of rent the farmer runs into; and taxes, monopolies, &c. making necessaries grow dearer, and the decay of foreign trade making the wool sell cheaper, must break him in the end, and then the farm is thrown on the landlord's hands, who, unwilling to fall the rent, keeps it in the management of stewards or bailiffs, whose profits and charges seldom make it pay the old rent, but generally ends in mortgaging the land, or selling it; and, as these cases grow more frequent, more estates will be at market, and, consequently, the less prices they will fetch.

Secondly, By increasing the number of poor, to burden the land.

The poor, wanting employment, must be supported by the land; if foreigners give them work, they give them bread; but, when trade cannot maintain them, land must. When the poor's rates are heavier than the tenant can bear, the landlord must pay them, either by allowance in the rent, or by taking the farm into his own hands; or else by breaking of his tenant, who has paid that money to the poor's rates his landlord should have received.

Suppose, in 1669, the labour of the above }
40,000 cloths to have given employment } 40,000 People
to — — — — — }

Suppose, in 1738, the labour of the above }
8000 cloths to have given employment } 8,000 People
to — — — — — }

The difference is — — — — — 32,000 People

Suppose these 32,000 people to have earned by }
their labour formerly, from foreigners, 6l. per } 1. 192,000
annum each, it amounts to — — — — — }

But, wanting employment, they come on the }
parish, at 1s. 6d. per week each, which, for } 124,800
one year, amounts to — — — — — }

The difference to the landholder, in one year is 1. 316,800

VOL. II.

For as the land, by the decay of foreign trade, receives not the first sum, and is, by the same cause, loaded with the latter, it makes an annual difference of the above sums to the landholders in this single branch of labour, and is the same in proportion for all other decayed branches of trade.

Thirdly, By decreasing the stock of people.

For, as employment lessens, the most industrious, rather than starve here, will fly to other countries, where trade can maintain them; so, the consumption of these being taken away, the demand at market must grow less, and, of course, rents must fall, yet the farmers charges must grow greater; for, the fewer hands, the higher wages are; this must break him in the end, and produce all the consequences following that misfortune, mentioned in the first remark: besides, it is men that trade, and bring in money, therefore, the fewer they are, the less money will be brought; and, the less money, the less rent can be given for land.

Fourthly, By decreasing our riches.

This is a consequence of the above three remarks; for having fewer goods capable of being exported, by reason of their dear price, and our manufactures declining, must in time be lost: therefore the importation of foreign goods must naturally increase, and more money go out to pay for them.

Nations that have no mines of gold and silver, have no means to get them but by foreign trade, and, according to the degree of these metals they possess, the prices of their commodities, and therewith the value of their lands, rise and fall in proportion; which I shall now prove.

The Britannia Linguens, page 12, says, If there were but 500l. in England, an ox could hardly be worth a penny; therefore the rent must bear it's proportion to the riches. This appears by Maitland's History of London; for he says, that, in the year 961, land sold at 1s. per acre. The reason the land then bore so low a price, was, the low price the produce sold at; for he says, that, in the year 1000, an ox sold for 2s. 6d. a cow for 2s. a sheep for 1s. and a swine for 8d. This could be only owing to the little foreign trade the nation then had, and, consequently, to the little quantity of gold and silver, trade had then brought in.

But if it should be asked, What is the reason that, at present, all things are naturally so much advanced in price, to what they were in those days? The answer is, That the quantities of gold and silver brought to Europe since the progress made by the Spaniards and Portuguese in America, have made those metals more common, and of less value than formerly, so that 20s. will hardly purchase what 1s. would before the discovery of the West-Indies *.

* Let there be added to this consideration, that also the great increase of our national debts and taxes, in consequence thereof, together with the circulation of the interest of the principal money of the public funds, and likewise that great circulation of paper credit in trade, occasioned by notes and bills, in the way of private credit, which is destructive of our trade. See CREDIT [PRIVATE CREDIT.] Also the circulation of property by mortgages, and by means of the public securities in general; for, although one is obliged to take annuities in payment, yet who would refuse them on peculiar occasions? These things all conspire to promote an artificial circulation of property, which raises the price of commodities, and has the appearance, with too many, of the riches of the nation; whereas these things are the characteristics of a declining condition, and that we stand in need of a quantity of real hard money to circulate what trade we have, and are therefore obliged to make use of paper credit, which is only it's representative, and proceeds from our apparent necessities, not from our increase of so id treasure. This is certainly the case, unless it can be proved, that our national debts, and the taxes on labour and commodities occasioned thereby, are blessings, and that, the more we increase our debts, the richer the nation will be. Perhaps, too some will attempt to persuade us, that the more mortgages of land there are in the kingdom, and the oftener they are transferred, and the more private paper credit passes in trade, instead of ready cash, the richer the nation is; but these are egregious mistakes, and ought to be vigilantly guarded against; for, upon the annihilation of this shew of artificial wealth, the price of labour and commodities will fall to their natural value; which will be the means of so increasing our trade, that our paper circulation will become realized by solid gold and silver; and then the price of labour and commodities will be reduced to a natural state, according to the real, and not the imaginary riches of the nation. For further confirmation of these principles, see the articles DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DUTIES, FUNDS, LABOUR, MONEY.

The Spaniards and Portuguese do not throw away their gold and silver for us to pick up; we have no mines of these metals, therefore could not get such quantities as we have, but by our trade to Spain and Portugal, or to those countries that had an overbalance upon them, and were overbalanced by us.

So that the present natural price of land, and it's produce, is the proportion of gold and silver that foreign trade hath brought into, and left in the nation. If the present quantity was to be doubled by foreign trade, the natural price of land, and it's produce, must be so too; for, according to the price the farmer

farmer can sell his commodity at market, he can pay for the rent of land, and no otherwise. If our foreign trade decays until the present money in the nation be half swept away, the produce of land must sell for half the natural price it does now, and land must let at half the rent it naturally bears now: but if we should go on declining, until we have no more money left in the nation than there was in 961 or 1000, the prices of land, and its produce, can be no more than they bore in those days, taxes, &c. deducted.

Therefore, if the landed gentlemen have a mind to raise or sink the value of their lands, the encouraging or discouraging our foreign trade is the only means to do either, so closely united are land and trade; their true interests are the same; they must stand or fall together.

The sum of all is this: that

What foreigners take from others, instead of us,	} Sinks the value of lands.
What the poor have given them instead of buying	
The scarcity of people	
The scarcity of money	

Taxes, monopolies, ill-judged laws, and national debts, are the causes of the decline of our foreign trade; the decline of foreign trade causes the above calamities, and they sink the value of lands.

Before we conclude this point, we shall observe, that our chief intent, from what has been urged, is to remove that destructive prejudice arising from the false distinction of landing and trading interests, by shewing that there neither is, or can be any difference of interest between them; for whatever clogs trade, must sink the value of lands, and that any benefit to trade, how remote soever it may seem from land, will at last terminate in the increase of it's value; therefore we may dare to affirm, that the giving trade the utmost encouragement is the greatest and most solid improvement of the value of lands.

It must be evident, says the author of *Britannia Languens*, page 290, that, were our trade eased as our neighbour nations, England would have the superiority, since the same causes must produce greater effects in England, being invigorated with those national advantages which no other nation doth or can enjoy. See *BRITAIN* [*GREAT-BRITAIN*.]

REMARKS.

Of the effects of **LAND-TAXES**, compared with those upon **COMMODITIES**.

As the benefit of taxes to the public results only from the nett income, and the evil to individuals extends not only to the gross produce, but to every other expence and loss incident and consequential, that tax is most beneficial to the public, and least injurious to the subject, which produces a large sum through a cheap collection, and which is exempt from every other eventual charge.

To use a familiar instance: he who attends to his own affairs, lives upon his own land, employs but one steward, at a small salary, to receive his rents, and buys at the first hand, may, from a small and compact estate, thus conducted, spend and save more than the lord of an immense rental, widely dispersed, gathered by many hands profusely paid; he living at a distance, and purchasing what he consumes from the fourth or fifth retailer. That a land-tax is attended with the least expence of any other whatsoever, that does produce not any thing near the nett sum annually, is matter of fact.—Quære, therefore, whether **LAND-TAXES** are not far more beneficial to the public than **TAXES ON COMMODITIES**? How taxes upon commodities really affect the commerce of the nation, see the article **LABOUR**. It becomes necessary, however, to expatiate upon this important subject in other lights. As the good of our country should be the only object of such disquisitions, and truth the only medium through which it ought to be attained, advantage shall not be taken of a maxim favourable to the opinion here professed, although it hath been long received, and is supported by the greatest authorities.

The maxim in view is, That taxes, wherever laid, fall ultimately upon land; which with all due deference to those who first established it, and to those who have since adopted, and argued from it, seems to go farther than reason and experience will warrant.

The arguments, by which it has been maintained, seem rather calculated to puzzle than convince; for, although every man cannot answer the premisses, yet scarce any will assent to the conclusion, 'That in fact, and in reality, all the taxes in this nation are paid out of it's lands.' And strange it were if many agreed in the proposition, for it is certainly false.

When a tax is laid upon any commodity, it becomes a circumstance of expence, of the same nature with any other attending upon it. Therefore no reason seems assignable, why the tax should necessarily fall upon land, that will not equally conclude for every other circumstance, and for settling the whole charge of national expence and consumption upon the same bottom.

But this is impossible: for it is agreed by the best authors of political arithmetic, that the rents of lands, houses, and mines,

are not more than $\frac{1}{4}$ part, and half of the annual expences of the nation.

In Sir William Petty's computation of 7 millions of people in England, who, one with another, expended, for their lodging, feeding, and cloathing, 7l. a head, the annual expence and consumption of the whole people amounted to 49 millions: and Dr. Davenant's calculation of rents does not exceed fourteen.

The quantities are since, no doubt, considerably increased; but, as, most probably, the proportions remain very little unaltered, it is fair to argue upon them, as has been done by the best writers upon these subjects. But, Mr. Locke having treated of a tax upon land, a few extracts may not be improper from that incomparable author, which, with some restrictions, shall be applied to the present purpose.

A tax laid upon land, says that great man, seems hard to the landholder, because it is so much money going visibly out of his pocket: and, therefore, as an ease to himself, the landholder is always forward to lay it upon commodities. But, if he will thoroughly consider it, and examine the effects, he will find, he buys this seeming ease at a very dear rate; and, though he pays not this tax immediately out of his own purse, yet his purse will find it, by a greater want of money there at the end of the year than that comes to, with the lessening of his rents to boot; which is a settled and a lasting evil, that will stick upon him beyond the present payment.

To make this clear, let us suppose in the present state of affairs in England, that the rents of England are 12 millions, and that the charge and necessities of the government require a supply of 3 millions from the parliament, which is laid on land.

Here is $\frac{1}{4}$ part of his yearly income goes immediately out of the landlord and landholder's pocket. This is a burden very apt to be felt. The country gentleman, who actually pays the money out of his pocket, or finds it deducted out of his rent at quarter-day for taxes, fees and very sensibly observes, what goes thus out of his estate: but, though this be a quarter of his yearly income, and, out of an estate of 400l. a year, the public tax now openly takes away one hundred; yet this influences not at all the yearly rent of the land, which the rack-renter, or under-tenant, pays; it being the same thing to him, whether he pays all his rent to the king or his landlord; or half, or a quarter, or none at all, to the king: the case is all one to him, what hand receives his rent when due: so trade flourishes, and his commodities go off well, he will be able to pay his rent on. This lessens not any more the value of his farm, than an high or low chief rent does, paid out of it to the lord of the fee: the tenant's bargain and profit is the same, whether the land be charged or not charged, with an annuity payable to another man.

But suppose, to shift off the burden from the land, some country gentlemen should think fit to raise these 3 millions upon commodities, to let the land go free. First, it is to be considered, that since the public wants require 3 millions (for that we suppose for argument sake, let it be 3 millions, or 1 million, that's all one) and so much must go into the king's coffers, or else the necessities of the government will not be supplied; that for raising these 3 millions on commodities, and bringing so much into the Exchequer, there must go a great deal more than 3 millions out of the subjects pockets. For a tax of that nature cannot be levied by officers, to watch every little rivulet of trade, without a great charge, especially at first trial. But, supposing no more charge in raising it than of a land-tax, and that there are only 3 millions to be paid, 'tis evident, that, to do this out of commodities, they must to the consumer be raised a quarter in their price; so that every thing, to him that uses it, must be a quarter dearer.

Let us see now, who at long-run must pay this quarter, and where it will light. 'Tis plain, the merchant and broker neither will nor can; for, if he pays a quarter more for commodities than he did, he will sell them at a price proportionably raised*. The poor labourer and handicraftsman cannot, for he just lives from hand to mouth already; and, all his food, cloathing, and utensils, costing a quarter more than they did before, either his wages must rise with the price of things to make him live, or else, not being able to maintain himself and family by his labour, he comes to the parish, and then the land bears the burden a heavier way. If the labourer's wages be raised in proportion to the increased rates of things, the farmer, who pays a quarter more for wages, as well as all other things, whilst he sells his corn and wool, either at the same rate, or lower, at the market (since the tax laid upon it makes people less forward to buy) must either have his rent abated, or else break and run away in his landlord's debt, and so the yearly value of the land is brought down. And who then pays the tax at the year's end, but the landlord; when the tenant, not able to raise his rent by his commodities,

* See that charge, and the consequence of duties on commodities, proved under the articles **LABOUR** and **TAXES**.

either runs away in his landlord's debt, or cannot be continued in the farm without abatement of rent? For, when the yearly charge in his farm is greater by the increase of the labourer's wages, and yet his produce sells cheaper, by reason of the tax laid on his commodities, how will the farmer be able to make up his rent at quarter-day? For this may be worth our notice, that any tax, laid on foreign commodities in England, raises their price, and makes the importer get more for his commodities; but, on the contrary, a tax, laid on your native products and home-made commodities, lessens their price, and makes them yield less to the first seller.

If, therefore, the laying of taxes upon commodities does, as it is evident, affect the land that is out at rack-rent, it is plain it does equally affect all the other land in England too; and the gentlemen will, but the worst way, increase their own charges; that is, by lessening the yearly value of their estates, if they hope to ease their land by charging commodities. It is in vain, in a country whose fund is land, to hope to lay the public charge of the government on any thing else: there at last it will terminate. The merchant (do what you can) will not bear it, the labourer cannot, and therefore the landholder must: and whether he were best to do it, by laying it directly where it will at last settle, or by letting it come to him by the sinking of his rents, which, when they are once fallen, every one knows, are not easily raised again, let him consider.

Some passages in the foregoing abstracts seem to be too general, and, possibly, not quite consistent with one another.

For it is not easy to conceive, if 'taxes laid upon commodities raise the price proportionably to the consumer, why the farmer must sell his corn and wool either at the same rate, or lower at the market; or, if the reason assigned be a good one, that 'the tax, laid upon it, makes people less forward to buy,' why that reason should not have the same operation upon other commodities, not so indispensably necessary for the use of men; and, why 'a tax, laid upon our native product and home manufacture, may not make them yield less to others besides the first seller.'

And it certainly often hath this effect. For, as the demand for commodities is proportioned to the quantity of money subsisting in the market, traders must adapt their prices to that quantity; and, if additional taxes be laid, while the money, with which commodities are to be purchased, remains unincreased, they must be contented with smaller gains, or not trade at all. And the first part of the alternative will always be the case, where the profits of a flourishing trade may well support some diminution.

When Mr. Locke says, 'that the merchant and broker neither will nor can bear a tax; that, if he pays a quarter more for commodities than he did, he will sell them at a price proportionably raised,' these are propositions which seem too general: and that great master of reasoning, in a subsequent passage, appears sensible, that they required some qualification; where, after an assertion, that, 'lay your tax as you please, the traders will shift it off from their own gain,' he subjoins these words, 'the merchants will bear the least part of it, and grow poor the last.' And a little farther he says, 'a country may thrive, the country gentleman grow rich, and his rents increase (for so it has been here) whilst the land is taxed: but I challenge any one to shew me a country, wherein there is any considerable public charge raised, where the land does not most sensibly feel it, and, in proportion, bear much the greater part of it.'

Wherefore, although it be admitted, that Mr Locke's first position, taken in it's full extent, and without any limitation, is generally controvertible, yet it is conclusive as to our present situation; if it be confessed, that the lands of England are, in general, let at too high a rent, and that our trade is injured by the taxes already laid upon it. For then the inference will be plain, what the farmer and trader cannot pay out of their gains, the land-owner must pay out of his lands, or the farmer will fail, and the trader become bankrupt. Whether, therefore, it is better to lay the taxes immediately on land, as Mr. Locke insinuates, since the greatest part of them terminate there, may deserve consideration; because the expence, in collecting of such taxes, bears no comparison to those that are laid upon commodities. For, how greatly the expence of these is enhanced, is proved under the article LABOUR.

Certain it is, that no good to the nation can be produced by taxes upon commodities. They may starve the industrious, but they never will induce the idle and extravagant to labour, and to save for the benefit of his landlord; and the wisdom of such landlords, who, under such pretences, would lighten their own burdens, by laying insupportable weights on their tenants, is of a piece with that œconomy, which, to swell a large rental, beyond it's natural size, loses, by a rise of rents, much more in money than it gained upon paper. And it does not require much logic to demonstrate, that, where the tenant is undone, the land must proportionably suffer.

In order to prove the evils arising to our trade from the heavy

taxes with which it is incumbered, it were, perhaps, not just to consult the opinion of actual merchants, who, upon this subject, are prejudiced judges. But,

The testimony of those who have long withdrawn themselves out of trade, hath ever been deemed the best authority; and, as such, the late Sir Matthew Decker cannot be refused.

He tells us in favour of his scheme, that 'it would set the merchant and shopkeeper free from a multitude of false and vexatious, or frivolous informations, which may now be lodged against them: that the charge upon the revenue is now computed at above one million: that, as the duty upon merchandize imported from abroad, as well as upon our own exciseable goods, amounts, on an average, to about 50 per cent.' (and, since Sir Matthew wrote, it hath been greatly increased, by a very great additional duty on imports) 'it would, continues he, enable the merchant, as well as the shop and warehouse-keeper, to trade with half the stock, and make his profit the same, or rather increase it, in proportion to the lesser sum for which he can purchase the same commodity.

It would also encourage the great merchants, when they buy any goods upon speculation, as they call it, to keep the said goods at home, and employ their own warehouses; whereas, as the case now stands, they are, in prudence, obliged to ship off such goods, as are intitled to a drawback of 30, 40, and even more per cent. for Holland, or other places; whereby Dutch ships are not only benefited, but we pay commission, warehouse room, and other incidental charges, which our own people might put in their own pockets, and have the goods in their own possession.'

The ingenious Mr. Wood, beside much excellent reasoning upon the same principle, refers us, for farther proof, to the customs, which, says he, 'since the additional duties and impositions on some species of goods, have not actually produced so much as before.'

It is computed by the British Merchant, that, out of 49,000,000l. expended and consumed by our people at home, not more than 4,000,000l. are of foreign commodities.

There remains, therefore, 45,000,000l. for an annual expence and consumption in home products and manufactures. Of these the land-owner can expend and consume no more than his rents, and they are computed at no more than 14,000,000l. therefore, above two parts in three of home products and manufactures are expended and consumed by all other denominations of our people.

Whatever is expended and consumed at home, or exported into other countries, whether of home or foreign commodities, is the fruit of our lands, of the labourer and artificer, or is purchased by these fruits.

In 1713, the British Merchant computed our imports at 5,000,000l. and our exports at 7,000,000l. Of these one million he supposes to be of foreign commodities. Therefore, even at that time, our own consumption and foreign exportation amounted to 56,000,000l.

But, whatever is produced by land, by the labourer and artificer, is paid for by those, who rent lands, and employ labourers and artificers. Therefore, the farmer and trader contribute three parts in four, more than the land-owner can, to the employment of our people, and to the wealth and expences of the nation.

Landed men are, quatenus such, of advantage to the public, only in what they spend: traders are of advantage, by what they spend and by what they gain; and the gains of traders exceed their expences. A rise of rents can only be through an increase of employment, since lands can only rise by an increase of products and manufacture, and these are the fruits of labour and art. But land-owners, as such, can give no increase to employment, without a previous increase of rents.

Therefore they must be indebted for all such augmentations to trade, and to an increase of trade. If Dr. Davenant speaks truth, the whole rental of England, in 1600, did not exceed six millions, and the price of lands was 12 years purchase. In 1688, the rental was 14 millions; and the price of land was 18 years purchase: so that, within this period, the landed interest rose from 72 to 252 millions. And, in so much at that time, it stood indebted to an increase of trade. From the same cause, circulating by industry through innumerable different channels, life, and strength and spirit, were proportionably derived to the whole: necessities to the poor, ease and comforts to the middle rank, affluence and magnificence to the wealthy and the great.

They who pay for the employment, expence, and consumption of others, pay, in like degree, all taxes laid upon these articles. Therefore, the farmer and trader pay three parts in four more than the land-owner, to the support of government; and mankind is indebted to them, in the same proportion, for all natural and civil enjoyments.

To them, and to their prosperity it is owing, that, since the Revolution, this nation hath been enabled to bear those drains of treasure, which must long since have exhausted her vitals, had she no supply to trust to, but the landlord's wasting rents, and the tenant's diminished gains, with some small rivulets of foreign trade stealing in upon her.

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Since that happy deliverance, commerce hath produced sums sufficient to maintain armies and fleets, in defence of our liberties, and of that establishment on which they are founded; while the tenant hath been enabled, under an increasing load of taxes, and of rents raised on him, to cultivate and improve the lands of this nation.

But a continuation of public expences in peace, which ought, in a great measure, to have ceased with war, squandered the provision which should have been laid up for the day of danger and trial. That day came, and found the nation incumbered, after above 20 years of peace, with near the same load, that was heaped upon her by two successive wars. And the same bad policy, which lengthened out the expence beyond the occasion, rendered the burden more heavy, by the manner of collecting it. No wonder, if, in these circumstances, trade bleeding at every vein, had not strength, although her growth was miraculous, to support heavier loads, than ever were before laid upon the shoulders of this nation; and that some branches of commerce should droop and decay under the baleful influence of such weighty taxes, while our commercial competitors planted their interests where ours once flourished, and gathered the fruits of wiser management. From the same cause, the tenant can no longer supply an advance of taxes out of his declining stock; and, instead of that good class of men, the ancient strength and glory of this country, the wealthy, industrious, and sturdy yeomen, a race succeeds, of puny, abject wretches, tamed by want and servitude.

With the yeomen, the middling gentry of small estates, seem hastening to annihilation. The few remaining (for they every day decrease) are possibly the most miserable beings amongst us; with nothing left undiminished that belongs to their fathers, but pride and appetites beyond their fortunes. And these taxes, which have near devoured their little substance, have in no inconsiderable degree impaired the possessions of the greatest.

These are the effects of taxes upon commodities; which had they, according to Mr Locke's intimation, been rather raised wholly upon land, how many millions would have been saved to the nation, by the different manner of collection, and how would the landed interest have prospered?

Mistake us not, we are not pleading for land-taxes, but shewing the comparative difference only between them and taxes upon commodities, which must prove destructive of the national trade. See the articles DUTIES, LABOUR, and TAXES.

The inequality in laying the land-tax, a circumstance much complained of by some, and justified by others, does not regard the present subject. It may be a proper matter of contest between the owners of lands; and, if it be a grievance upon some of them, sufficient to deserve the redress, the parliament ought to grant that redress, and alter the particular measures by which they are rated.

But, however that matter may stand between the individuals of the landed interest, the proposition remains in full force, 'that a tax upon land is more advantageous to the community in general, and the landed interest in particular, than 'that upon commodities, and more effectual for those purposes, which render taxes necessary.'

Nor is the inequality, in laying this particular tax, attended with any of those disadvantages to the public, which would arise from the same cause in taxes laid upon commodities; since, in this instance, they who pay more than their share to the land tax, are the only sufferers; whereas other inequalities fall more diffusively, and may finally center upon the whole landed interest.

It has been objected to this, that through a land-tax the monied men escape, but this is totally devoid of foundation. For, Not to insist upon that share, which some of them really pay in the form of a land-tax, in every tax that affects consumption, they are taxed like other men, in proportion to what they consume. And, on the supposition, that commodities are already taxed as high as they can bear, these men cannot be taxed at more, through this medium.

Were mortgages or the funds to be taxed, matters would not be mended. For, as taxes, wherever placed, can have no tendency to lower the interest of money, they who buy into the funds, would buy so much cheaper as the tax would amount to, and the lender upon mortgages insist upon a higher rate of interest.

Besides, they, who by lending their money upon lower terms, than would be done if the lender were taxed, or by giving a higher price for stocks, enable others the better to pay taxes, contribute, in reality and effect, their share, as much as those who pay them. And, in this sense also, the mortgagee and stockholder are equally taxed with the owners of land.

But, if it be still insisted on, that the actual possessors of the soil are the only payers to the land-tax; this distinction will greatly reduce the importance of those, who are the subject of our present consideration; since a deduction must be made from that landed interest of their interest in land, who, by mortgages, are the legal and absolute proprietors; and also of that share absorbed out of land by every tax, which mediately or immediately affects it.

Lastly, It hath been said, that in distant countries the quantity of circulating money is not sufficient to supply the tax. As in these distant countries, for much the greater part, the land-tax is lower rated than in a nearer neighbourhood to the metropolis; this objection contradicts that which hath been mentioned, and seems, if any thing will, to justify the inequality of the measure, by which the tax is raised.

Yet no argument seems capable of justifying so extraordinary an inequality, in any kind of tax whatever; more especially of a land-tax, that being raised at the least expence of any whatever; and, if that tax is, more or less, to be continued to perpetuity, it ought to be equally raised, since, in that case, it would produce double what it ever has done: and, if the surplusage, from one shilling in the pound to four, should, as shall be required, be applied to the sinking fund, it would put the national debts once more into the parliamentary way of redemption, and thereby pave the way to the annihilation of taxes, upon our native produce and manufacture.

But taxes of all kinds cannot be too equally laid, nor too unexpensively raised. And therefore, that the land, as well as commodities, might be effectually eased of their weighty incumbrances, it becomes the wisdom of the legislature to think seriously of some UNINHANCEABLE TAXES, that will effectually answer that great end; either that proposed by the late Sir Matthew Decker, Bart. or one or more something similar thereunto; for taxes of that nature, collected at a small expence, seem to be the grand specific to give succour to our land and our trade, by freeing them from those burthens, which, if multiplied, must prove the inevitable ruin of both. See the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, TAXES.

The landed gentleman being convinced that his interest must rise or fall with trade, and that taxes on native commodities must, at length, prove the ruin thereof, it becomes his interest to study the national benefits of commerce. How this can be done to the purpose, is the next consideration. To which end we submit the following queries.

1. Whether the country gentleman, unacquainted with practical trade, can be presumed capable of making so good a judgment of what may tend to it's national prosperity, as one acquainted therewith?
2. Whether the country gentleman, being equally knowing with the skilful merchant in the ways of conducting trade, and the essential usages among traders, and laws of nations relating thereto, may not be esteemed better qualified to promote the public interest of trade, though not practically engaged therein, than the merchant, who, being interested in any peculiar branch, may be somehow biased in his judgment, in regard to his own peculiar trade?
3. Whether this Dictionary of Commerce may not be instrumental so to inform the country gentleman in the nature of trade, as to enable him to judge properly thereof, in any public capacity, for the benefit of the nation in general?
4. Whether the country gentleman, in any public capacity, from the consul to the ambassador, may not, by means hereof become serviceable to the commercial interests of his country abroad, as well as in any post of honour at home, from the clerk in a public office to the senator?
5. Whether a well grounded knowledge in the practical and political nature of commerce, and the money affairs of the kingdom, may not prove more generally instrumental to the rise and prosperity of country gentlemen, and the male branches of their families, than any other kind of knowledge whatever?
6. Are not the capital debates in parliament mostly upon matters that have relation to commerce, and the money-affairs and public credit of the nation? And are not likewise our concerns and negotiations with foreign courts principally with regard to affairs of trade and navigation?
7. Whether those studies do not require as regular a course of erudition as any other whatever, to arrive at any distinguished degree of discernment therein?
8. Whether the proper establishment of one or more colleges, for purposes so highly beneficial and honourable, would not as well become the wisdom of this nation as any other kind of literary institution whatever?

REMARKS.

The late ingenious Mr. Carey of Bristol, in his Discourse on Trade, where he recommends to the parliament a standing committee of trade, constituted of men well versed therein, to scrutinize into whatever comes before that most honourable assembly, says, 'That, in the management of things of much less moment, we employ such who are supposed to understand what they undertake, and believe they cannot be carried on without them; whilst the general trade of the nation (which is the support of all) lies neglected, as if the cogs that direct it's wheels did not need skill to keep them true: trade requires as much policy as matters of state, and can never be kept in a regular motion by accident; when the frame of

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our trade is out of order, we know not where to begin to mend it, for want of a set of experienced builders, ready to receive applications, and able to judge where the defect lies.

Such a committee as this will soon appear to be of great use and service, both to the parliament in framing laws relating to trade, and also to the government, in the treaties which they make with foreign nations.

As to the first, it hath sometimes been thought, that, when that great and glorious assembly [the parliament] hath meddled with trade, they have left it worse than they found it; and the reason is, because the laws relating to trade require more time to look into their distant consequences than a session will admit; whereof we have had many instances.—He proceeds to give a few instances in his time.

To begin with the French trade, says he; in the 22d of Car. II. a new impost was laid on wines, viz. 8l. per tun on the French, and 12l. per tun on Spanish and Portuguese. This difference, with the low subsidies put on their linens by former acts, in respect to those of other places, was a great means of bringing the balance of that trade so much against us, that the parliament, in the 7th and 8th of Will. III. thought fit to make an act, which, in effect, prohibited all trade with that nation for 21 years, by laying a great duty on the importation thence; in order to prevent a correspondence, 'till the trade should be better regulated.

In the 14th of Car. II. logwood was permitted, by act of parliament, to be imported, paying 5l. per ton duty; the same act repeals two statutes of queen Elizabeth, against importing and using it in dyeing here, and sets forth the ingenuity of our dyers in finding out ways to fix the colours made with it; and yet, at the same time, gave a drawback of 3l. 15s. per ton on all that should be exported; whereby foreigners use it so much cheaper in their manufactures than ours here; which proceeded from a too hasty making that law, and being advised, or rather abused, by those who regarded more their own interest than that of the nation.

By an act made 1 Jac. II. an impost of 2s. 4d. per cent. was laid on muscovado sugars imported from the plantations, to be drawn back at exportation: the traders to the plantations stirred in this matter, and set forth, that such a duty would discourage the refining them here, by hindering the exportation of refined sugars, which was then considerable, and carry that manufacture to Holland and Flanders; but the commissioners of the customs prevailed against them, and the bill passed; the fatal consequences whereof soon appeared; for, the exporters of muscovado sugars drawing back 2s. 4d. per cent. by that act, and 9d. per cent. by the act of tonnage and poundage, foreign markets were supplied with refined sugars from other places cheaper by about 12 per cent. than we could furnish them; hence; by which means we were beat out of that trade; and tho' the duty of 2s. 4d. per cent. was not continued on the expiration of that act, by the parliament 2 Will. and Mar. (as they did the 3d. per pound on tobacco) the bad effects thereof being then apparent, yet it is difficult to retrieve a lost trade, commercial nations being like expert generals, who make advantage of the mistakes of each other, and take care to hold what they get.

By a statute of the 4th and 5th W. and M. 20s. per ton was laid on lapis calaminaris dug here and exported, on an information given to the house of commons, that it was not to be had any where else*; the merchants concerned in exporting that commodity made application, and set forth, that such a duty would bring in nothing to the crown, but be a total bar to its exportation; yet the act passed, and we were like to have made a fatal experiment; for, 'till the statute of the 7th and 8th of the same king, which reduced the duty to 2s. per ton, the exportation ceased; and, in the mean time, those places which had been discouraged from digging and calcining it, because we undersold them, set again to work, and supplied the markets where we vended ours.

* Does not this shew the necessity of the legislature, as well as private traders, being well acquainted with trading commodities, and the places of their production or manufacture? This is the great reason for our being so particular in this work in the description of the chief commodities throughout the world.

What injury was done by the act made in the 9th and 10th Will. III. for the more effectual preventing the importation of foreign bone-lace, &c. doth sufficiently appear by the preamble of that made in the 11th and 12th of the same reign, for repealing it, three months after the prohibition of our woollen manufactures in Flanders (which was occasioned by it) should be there taken off.

I mention these things with great submission to the judgment of that glorious assembly, the wisdom and strength of the nation; to whom I only presume, with all humility, to offer my thoughts, that it would very much tend to the putting matters of trade into a true light before them, if they were first referred to a body of men, well versed in the

true principles thereof, and able to see through the sophistical arguments of contending parties, to be by them considered, and well digested, before they received the sanction of a law.

And, as to foreign treaties, I do not think our trade hath been so much bettered by them as it might have been, for want of such a committee; the representations made by private merchants (who generally differ, according as their interests clash with each other) tending rather to distract, than to inform the government; which would not be, if their first applications were made to an experienced committee, who had judgment enough to subtract out of them what was proper to be offered; by which means, our demands might be rendered short and comprehensive.—So far Mr. Carey.

It was said, some time ago, by an honourable person in the House of Commons [Sir J——B——d] esteemed to be very well acquainted both with the practical and political knowledge of commerce, that 'There cannot be brought before that House any questions more difficult in themselves, more entangled with a multiplicity of relations, or more perplexed with an endless diversity of circumstances, than those which relate to commercial affairs; affairs on which the most experienced often disagree, and on which the most sagacious may deceive themselves with erroneous conjectures. There are no questions which require so much personal knowledge of the subject to which they relate, nor is there any subject with which so few gentlemen in that House have had opportunities of being acquainted: there are no questions, which their variety of relations to different persons exposes to be so easily misrepresented, without detection; nor any in which the opposition of particular interests so much incites a false representation. In all these cases, deceit is easy; and there is a strong temptation to deceive.' With more to the like effect.

It is certain that the chief knowledge which the gentry obtain of trade, is derived from the information they receive from traders themselves; and that is not always to be depended upon, especially at those conjunctures when the legislature may scrutinize thoroughly into the nature of any particular branch. But, although traders themselves may be extremely well acquainted with their own peculiar trades, so far as it relates to their private interest, yet they may not always have such a comprehensive view thereof as to discern how the nation is, in all relations, a gainer or loser thereby. It is rare, therefore, that the country gentleman can obtain a satisfactory knowledge from traders.

In order to make a right judgment of any branch of trade, when considered in a national light, it is frequently necessary to survey its connection with various others; and, if the landed gentleman is not duly informed of these connections, how should he be capable of making suitable enquiries?

Besides, nothing is more common than for traders to differ widely among themselves, in regard to measures proper to be taken by the legislature for the due encouragement or regulation of peculiar branches. Whence arise those opposite and contradictory petitions to parliament from traders, which often tend to mislead, and even confound, the legislature itself.

These considerations, without urging more, manifest the necessity of landed gentlemen being well informed in the nature of every branch of the national trade and commerce, if possible, in order to render them capable of judging of the best public measures requisite to be occasionally taken for the benefit of the whole, without regard to the private interest of particulars.

Of the country gentleman's advancement of his LANDED ESTATE.

We will suppose, from what has been here said, and also in divers other parts of this work, that the British landed gentleman cannot avoid discerning that his own private interest is intimately connected with that of the national commerce: and, if so, he is nearly concerned to promote its benefit and advantage, in every shape possible; and can any thing be more conducive to this great end, besides what has been humbly suggested, than the due improvement of every inch of his land? For, as the prosperity of land depends upon that of trade, so that of trade equally depends upon the culture, and other beneficial management of the land. The more useful and estimable productions the land affords, as articles of merchandizing, the more treasure will the trader be capable of bringing into the kingdom, by vending them in foreign markets.

It is not the cultivating of lands at random, that will best promote the interest of commerce, and of the landholder. These interests are best promoted by cultivating such things as commerce points out to be the most beneficial to both. And how are these specific particulars to be known, but from the knowledge of trade?

The increase of new productions for commerce depends on the farther transplanting and communicating of the several natural commodities of all nations, to other airs and other soils,

soils, and other ways of cultivation. That this is not yet brought to the ultimate perfection is evident, in that there is no land so well furnished as to produce all the various sorts of things which its ground and temperature is capable to receive; and also because many of the most fertile countries contain large spaces that are utterly barren.

These improvements depend chiefly upon three kinds of endeavours.

The first, by transplanting out of one land into another, of the same situation in respect of the heavens. This may be tried by conveying the eastern spices, and other useful vegetables, into our western plantations. Nor can it be imagined, why they should thrive in one Indies, and not in the other; why the soil should not be as good where the sun sets, as where it rises: seeing there are parts of both, which lie under the same influence of that, and the other celestial bodies, to whose kindly heat and neighbourhood the oriental nations are supposed to owe their advantages.

This also may be attempted in our northern climates. For instance: the flax and hemp which we stand so much in need of, may prosper far more than it does in England, Ireland, and Scotland, in many vast tracts of ground, which lie barren and uncultivated.

Other improvements of this nature are accomplished by carrying and transplanting living creatures, as well as vegetables, from one climate to another. Sometimes the soil and the air, being changed, will give a new force to the new guests; as the Arabian horse, by mingling with our breed, produces a more serviceable race than either of them single. And sometimes the alteration will be for the worse, which must be guarded against; as the vine of France brought into England, and the horses and dogs of England into France, both which are found to degenerate exceedingly: their soil and their sun, it seems, being fitted to produce things of pleasure and delight, and our air and our earth being more proper to beget valour and strength.

The third way of this kind of improvements to be tried, is by removing the plants and the productions of the same country from one part of it into another, and by practising every where all the sorts of husbandry, which are used in some places with success. That this is not enough perfected in England, is manifest to every one that beholds the Kentish orchards, and the Herefordshire hedges, which seem to upbraid the laziness of other counties, whose highways are only fenced with thorns and briars, or, at the best, with hazel; while theirs are beautified with apples, pears, and cherries.

In every one of these transplantations, the chief progress that has hitherto been made has been rather for the collection of curiosities, to adorn cabinets and gardens, than for the solidity of philosophical discoveries: yet there may be a prodigious advantage made in them all, both for the one end and the other. And in this it will be found, as in many other things, that, if men only intend a little curiosity and delight, they will reap not much more by their pains: but, if they regard real use, not only the profit, but a greater delight will also follow thereon.

And, for our encouragement, whatever attempts of this nature have succeeded, they have redounded to the great advantage of the undertakers. The orange of China, being brought into Portugal, has drawn a great revenue every year from London alone. The vine of the Rhine, taking root in the Canaries, has produced a far more delicious juice, and has made the rocks, and the sun-burnt ashes of those islands, one of the richest spots of ground in the world. And, if we can produce silk, hemp, flax, pitch and tar, timber and naval stores of every sort, cocheneal, pot-ash and spices, in the British American colonies, as may now be done since our new acquisitions by the peace of 1763, this kingdom might reap unspeakable benefits thereby. If the silk-worm should at length be brought to thrive there (of which there seems to be no doubt, if the affair was wisely, vigorously, and honestly conducted) the profit on that article alone would be inexpressible: we may happen, if that proves the case, to give hereafter cloaths to a great part of Europe: we may, in some measure, guess at the extraordinary advantages, by considering what number of caravans [see CARAVANS] and how many great cities in Persia are maintained by that manufacture alone, and what mighty income it yearly brings into the sphi's revenue.

To which end, it will be requisite to consult such other distinct articles of merchandizes in our Dictionary, as every climate will admit of under the British dominion.

This being done, the next step is, to consult every art of cultivating those exotics to the best advantage within our own dominions: for which see the articles MANURE, FARMING, HUSBANDRY, HOPS, SOIL; see also CACAO, COCHENEAL, INDICO, HEMP, FLAX, NAVAL STORES, SILK.

Beside, there is scarce any land but what affords something within its bowels, of a greater or less depth, beneficial to the proprietor if he can make a just judgment of the nature of EARTHS, BOLES, CLAYS, FOSSILS of all kinds, LOAMS, SANDS: see those distinct articles, and such others to which from them we refer.

These points being duly considered, it then becomes necessary for the country gentlemen to be so far skilled in philosophical chemistry, as to be able to make such experiments upon bodies of all kinds, as may enable him to judge of their worth; otherwise, a gentleman may have more treasure upon his land within the compass of a few acres, than others may have in some thousands. See the articles CHEMISTRY, EARTH, PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL, and ROYAL SOCIETY.

Were the particulars here intimated made an essential part of the education of the gentry of these kingdoms, they would be as capable of advancing the trade of their country, in these respects, as practical traders do in others; they would be instrumental to supply traders with more valuable commodities, the produce of their lands, to dispose of in foreign countries, than we have at present: and 'to this purpose I will venture to propose, says the learned bishop Spratt, to the consideration of wise men, whether this way of TEACHING, by PRACTICE and experiments, would not at least be as beneficial as the other, by UNIVERSAL RULES; whether it were not as profitable to apply the eyes and the hands of children, to see and to touch all the several kinds of sensible things, as to oblige them to learn, and remember the difficult doctrines of general arts? In a word, whether a mechanical education would not excel the methodical?

This certainly is no new device: for it was that which Plato intended, when he enjoined his scholars to begin with geometry; whereby, without question, he designed that his disciples should first handle MATERIAL THINGS, and grow familiar to visible objects, before they entered on the retired speculations of other more abstracted sciences.

According to this counsel of the father of philosophers, it would not be amiss, if, before young scholars be far engaged in the beaten tracks of the schools, the mysteries of manual arts, the names of their instruments, the secrets of their operations, the effects of natural causes, the several kinds of beasts, of birds, of fishes, of plants, of stones, of minerals, of earths, of waters, and all their common virtues and qualities, were proposed to be the subjects of their first thoughts and observations.

It may be here suggested, that the vast number of such particulars will soon overwhelm their tender minds, before they are well established by time and use. But, on the contrary, it is evident that the memories of youth are fitter to retain such sensible images, than those of a fuller age. It is memory that has most vigour in children, and judgment in men: which, if rightly considered, will confirm what I said, that, perhaps, we take a preposterous course in education, by teaching GENERAL RULES before PARTICULAR THINGS; and that therein we have not a sufficient regard to the different advantages of youth and manhood. We load the minds of children with doctrines and precepts, to apprehend which they are most unfit, by reason of the weakness of their understandings: whereas they might, with more profit, be exercised in the consideration of visible and sensible things, of whose impression they are most capable, because of the strength of their memories, and the perfection of their senses.

The country gentleman, thus trained up to know and pursue his own interest, from experiments in regard to his lands, and every production thereof, both above ground and below, will be far more capable of promoting the commercial interests of his country.

And, if ever the English will attain to the mastery of commerce, not only in discourse, but reality, they must begin it by their labours, as well as by their swords; they must do it by awaking their minds, by rousing themselves from this lethargy by action, by trials, by working: unless this be done, they will in vain be victorious; at the end of their wars they will cool again, and lose all the fruits of their labour. The arts of peace, and their improvements, must proceed in equal steps with the success of their arms: the works of our citizens, our ploughmen, our gardeners, our wood-men, our fishers, our diggers in mines, must be equally advanced with the triumphs of our fleets, or else their blood will be shed in vain: they will soon return to the same poverty, and want of trade, which they strove to avoid.—And who are so capable to inspire a national industry like the country gentlemen of this kingdom?

LAND-CARRIAGE OUTWARDS. All foreign goods, sent by land-carriage from one part of this kingdom to another, as the law at present stands, must be accompanied with certificates under the hands of the collector, customer, and comptroller of the port from whence they are sent*; otherwise any officer of the customs may stop them, 'till due proof be made that the duties have been paid, &c.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 39, 42.

And all brandy, arac, rum, spirits, or strong waters, exceeding the quantity of one gallon, so sent, must be likewise accompanied with a permit, or certificate from an officer of the excise, or customs, expressing the quantity and quality, and

and signifying that the duties have been paid, or that the same has been condemned. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 18.
And, with respect to wool, wool-fells, mortlings, shortlings, yarn made of wooll, wooll-flocks, fuller's-earth, fulling-clay, or tobacco-pipe clay, it must be observed, that no packs, sacks, bags, or casks thereof, may be loaden on any horse, cart, or other carriage, or be conveyed by land, to or from any place in Great-Britain, within five miles of the sea-coast, but in the day-time, and at seasonable hours, that is, between sun-rising and sun-setting, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, with the horses, carriages, &c. 14 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 9. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. §. 8.
For all other regulations relating to wooll, and for the form of a certificate, or let-pafs, see the directions hereafter given; but, for all other goods, it must be as follows, viz.

A land-carriage certificate, or let-pafs, for any other goods than wooll.

Port of Southampton.

Know ye, that Benjamin Shaw is permitted to pass three casks, containing four hundred weight and eighteen pounds of raisins solis, in the waggon [coach, * L. S. Customer. cart, &c.] of Benjamin Daws, for Bristol. To be in force six days from the date hereof, and no longer.
Dated the 12th of January, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Note, The time these certificates are to be in force, must be limited, in proportion to the distances of the places where the goods are to be sent.
Before a land-carriage certificate is granted for foreign goods, oath must be made on the back, that the duties of the goods therein mentioned have been paid, or that they were bought in a fair and lawful way of trade, &c. or if the goods are to be exported from the port to which they are designed to be sent, and receive the drawback, a particular certificate of the collector, &c. must be granted, as directed at the granting of sufferances for the shipping of foreign goods, to be sent coastways by water.
And, before the certificate be delivered to the merchant, it must be entered in a book to be kept for that purpose, thus:

Land-carriage certificate outwards.

To what place.		Time to be in force.
	12th of January, 1730. In the waggon, &c. of Benj. Daws.	6 Days
Bristol	Benjamin Shaw. 3 casks, containing 4 C. 18 lb. raisins solis. A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.	

For all goods (but especially wines) in order to secure the London-duty, sent by land-carriage to London, a duplicate of the certificate must be transmitted to the commissioners, the first post after granted, thus:

Port of Southampton.

An account of wines, &c. sent by land-carriage to London, 13th of January, 1730. George White, 3 baskets, containing 18 gallons of French wine, paid duty by E. H. the 18th of November last.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller.

The foregoing are instructions for, and general rules to be observed, by the officers of the customs, in relation to goods sent from one port or part of Great-Britain to another, either by water or land: but, British wooll being (to prevent exportation) under very particular regulations, it may be proper here to shew the several requisites to be performed, from the time of sheering to the removal to the last place where it is to be consumed or manufactured.

Regulations relating to British wooll.

* British wooll, shorn or housed, laid up or lodged within ten miles of the sea-side, within the counties of Kent and Suffex, must be entered with the officers of the customs, at the next adjoining port, within three days after the sheering, by a certificate under the hand of the proprietor, or owner. † And, in all other counties, British wooll having been carried from the place of sheering to the proprietor's own house, within five miles, or less, of the sea, must, within ten days after sheer-

* 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 40. §. 3.
† 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 32. §. 3.

ing, be entered with the officer of the customs at the next port, by a certificate under the proprietor's hand.
Which enteries, certificates, or notices, must be in form following:
This is to certify, That I A. B. of C. have shorn two hundred fleeces of sheeps-wooll, and the wooll of one hundred lambs, and have lodged the same at my dwelling-house at C. Witness my hand this 14th of July, 1730.

A. B.

Note, if through ignorance the wooll be not entered in time, and the proprietors will come and voluntarily enter the same, making oath of their ignorance of the laws, and that the wooll in question is numerically the same, both for quantity and quality, that the owners sheered the last summer, and no part has been since removed, or exported, it may then be registered, &c.
The proprietors having thus entered their wooll, it must be registered in a book for that purpose, by way of charge on such proprietors, and a certificate of the entry granted them in form following, viz.

Port of Southampton.

A. B. of C. hath entered two hundred fleeces of sheeps-wooll, and the wooll of one hundred lambs. Certified the 14th day of July, 1730.

B. C. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

* And, with respect to the buyers of wooll, it must be observed, that every person residing within 15 miles of the sea in the counties of Kent and Suffex, who intends to become a buyer or dealer in wooll, before he presumes so to do, must, with sufficient sureties, become bound to his majesty in the following manner, viz.
The condition of this obligation is such, That the above-bound B. C. who is a dealer in wooll, shall not again sell any part of the wooll which he shall at any time hereafter buy, to any person or persons residing within 15 miles of the sea in the counties of Kent or Suffex, and shall not transport nor sell the same to any other person, or persons, to be transported, but shall well and truly observe all the acts of parliament made against the transportation of wooll: then this obligation shall be void, or else to remain in full force and virtue.

A. B. *
B. C. *
C. D. *

Sealed and delivered in the presence of

D. E. Collector,
E. F. Comptroller.

* And, when the proprietor has sold the wooll, at least three days before the removal he must certify it to the officers of the customs, upon the back of the aforementioned certificate of entry, mentioning the time when it is to be delivered, thus:

* 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 32. §. 3. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 40. §. 3.

This is to certify, that I have sold the wooll within-mentioned, weighing fifty tods eighteen pounds, to B. C. of E. to be delivered him there the fifteenth day of September, 1730.
Witness my hand this seventh of September, 1730.

A. B.

Then, if the intention of removal is regularly certified, a let-pafs (to be in force no longer than the time appointed for the delivery) may be granted for the removal, thus:

Port of Southampton.

Know ye, that B. C. is permitted to pass by land-carriage *, in the day-time, as the law directs, from the house of A. B. of C, to his own house in E, with two hundred fleeces of sheeps-wooll, and the wooll of one hundred lambs, weighing fifty tods and eighteen pounds; it being the wooll of the said A. B. entered here the 14th day of July last, and now certified to be sold to B. C. aforesaid. To be in force four days, from the 7th day of this present September, and no longer.
Dated at the Custom-House, the 8th day of September, 1730.

C. D. Collector, D. E. Customer, E. F. Comptroller.

* 14 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 9. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. §. 8.

LAND-CARRIAGE INWARDS. Though foreign goods, carried by land from one port of this kingdom to another, should be accompanied with a certificate, yet, that being only an authority for any officer of the customs * not to stop them, there is no occasion to deliver in such certificate at the custom-house when the goods arrive at the intended port, unless they are intended to be exported from thence, and the duties intended to be drawn-back; or they are prohibited East-India goods, coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, or pepper sent from London in order to be exported.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 39, 42.

As to the form and general direction of these certificates inwards, and of the payment of duties for goods to be exported, they are the same as for the dispatches outwards, but, with respect to the following goods, they are under these additional regulations, viz.

I. * Prohibited East-India goods.—When intended to be sent by land-carriage to any out-port, to be thence exported to foreign parts, security for the due exportation is taken at London, before they may be delivered out of the warehouses in which they were first lodged: and, on such security, a cocket is granted for the delivery of the goods, and their conveyance to the intended port, in form following, viz.

• 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 2.

A cocket for prohibited East-India goods sent by land-carriage from London.

London.

Know ye that Andrew Bell ind' hath entered twenty taffaties, forty cushaes, ten photaes, fifteen damaks, twelve pelongs, which paid duty out of time: late unladen, and now by land-carriage to Southampton, and so for exportation.

Dated the 3d of March, 1730, anno quarto Georgii Secundi, &c.

C. D. Collector Outwards,

D. E. Comptroller (Surveyor, or Surveyor-General).

* Loc. Sig.

On the back are to be specified the several packages, with the particular contents of each.

The searcher in London having executed this cocket, it is to be returned to the commissioners, who send it by the post to the collector of the port; and, the goods being likewise directed to him, he is, by virtue of the cocket, to demand them of the carrier, &c. in order to have them lodged in the custom-house warehouse till exportation; observing whether the package be agreeable to the indorsement on the cocket, and under the seal of the officers of London: and, if the goods do not arrive within 20 days of the date of the commissioners letter, they are to be acquainted thereof.

And, when the merchant declares his intention of exporting such goods, and has passed an entry at the port, the London cocket is to be delivered to the proper officer, who, before shipping for exportation, is to open and examine the goods, to see if they agree in quantity and quality; and, the next post after the goods are shipped off, the commissioners must be acquainted with the proceedings.

II. * Coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, and pepper.—When designed to be sent by land-carriage to any out-port, after proper security has been given for the due exportation, a cocket is granted for the delivery out of the warehouse, and conveyance to the intended port, in form following, viz.

• 8 Ann. cap. 7. §. 20. 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. §. 26.

A cocket for coffee, tea, or cocoa-nuts, sent by land-carriage from London.

London.

Know ye, that Andrew Bell ind' hath entered five hundred forty-four pounds weight of tea, by the united East-India company, the 18th of August last: late unladen, and now by land-carriage to Southampton, and so for exportation.

Dated the 3d of March, 1730, anno quarto Georgii Secundi, &c.

C. D. Collector Outwards.

D. E. Comptroller (Surveyor, or Surveyor-General.)

* Loc. Sig.

For the form of a cocket for pepper, see that for prohibited East-India goods. And as to the whole proceedings of sending the coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, and pepper, with the cockets, to the collector, and the method of shipping them off at the port, they are the same as directed for prohibited East-India goods, remembering, that, at the examination, they must be carefully weighed.

And when any foreign goods intitled to a drawback, which came by land carriage from any other port, have been exported to foreign parts, a debenture must be made out, to be sent to the * port where the duties of such goods had been before paid, at the time of their importation, to intitle the exporter, or his agent to demand the drawback of the collector of such port. See the article CARRIAGE.

• 2d rule of the Book of Rates, p. 177, 178.

LAND-WAITER, an officer of the Custom-House, whose duty is, upon landing any merchandize, to examine, taste, weigh, measure them, &c. and to take an account thereof.—In some ports they also execute the office of a coast-waiter.—They are likewise occasionally styled searchers, and are to attend and join with the patent searchers, in the execution of all cockets for the shipping of goods to be exported to foreign

parts: and, in cases where drawbacks or bounties are to be paid to the merchant on the exportation of any goods, they, as well as the patent-searchers, are to certify the shipping thereof on the debentures.

In case of SUFFERANCES granted for landing goods at an unlawful key, they are signed by the land-waiters and surveyor, collector, customer, and comptroller; also for SUFFERANCES granted for the landing and examining of passengers baggage and wearing apparel.

When the goods are entered, and the warrants, sufferances, &c. granted for the landing and delivering of the same, are produced to the land-waiters to whom they are directed (who are to be appointed by the collector, either by noting their names in the margin of the report-book, or in a particular book to be kept for that purpose) they are to accept of the same (provided the contents of the goods are found to be justly represented, and the other requisites duly performed) as an authority for them to permit the landing and delivering; but they may not presume to examine the goods on board, but must order them to be brought on shore at the merchants charge: and, in order thereunto, upon receipt of the warrants, &c. they are to certify the entry to the tide-men on board the ship, before the said tide-men may presume to permit any goods to be unladen. The form of which certificate must be as follows:

In the Providence of London, James Bell master, from Rotterdam.

Oliver Rook.

O. R.

No. 1, 2. Two fats
3, 4. Two bags
5 a 44. Forty bolts
45. One box
46. One case
47. One bale

21st of January, 1730.

A. B. } Land-waiters.
B. C. }

To the officers on board
the aforesaid ship.

And, if the SUFFERANCE permits the landing of the goods at any other place than the lawful keys, the same must be mentioned on the aforesaid order, thus:

SUFFERANCE for—

By virtue of the aforesaid order, the tide-men on board are to suffer the goods to be unladen, and brought on shore, and are to deliver them into the charge of the proper land-waiters, who are to attend at the landing of the goods, to examine, taste, weigh, measure, gauge, number, &c. the same, according to the nature thereof, and to take an account of the quantities and qualities, in order to adjust the duties which are to be paid for the same.

That the land-waiter may be duly prepared to take an account of the examination and delivery of the goods, as soon as every ship is reported, a blank book is to be directed and delivered to each of the land-waiters, whom the collector shall think fit to appoint, or direct to see such ship discharged. The title of which book must be as follows:

Custom-House, Southampton, 8th day of January, 1730.

This book contains 12 leaves, delivered to Mr. A. B. land-waiter, to take an account of the delivery of the lading of the Providence of London, James Bell master, from Holland, reported the 8th day of January, 1730.

B. C. Collector.

And as to such ships which do not report, &c. every land-waiter must have a general pocket-book delivered to him, wherein he is to enter all warrants directed to him for the delivery of any goods out of such ships, with the particular execution thereof. The title of which book must be as follows:

This book, containing one hundred leaves, delivered to Mr. A. B. land-waiter, to take an account of the delivery of all goods landed out of such ships as do not report.

B. C. Collector.

In the landing, examining, and delivering all goods, and merchandizes, it must be carefully observed,

1. That no goods may be landed or delivered without a proper warrant, and, if any goods are so landed, they are liable to seizure.

2. That no more goods may be delivered than what the land-waiters have perfect warrants for; and if, upon examination of such dry goods as pay duty by tale or measure, the importer appears to have entered short, the said goods must be seized, and sent immediately to his majesty's warehouse, in order to be prosecuted: but, in case of short entries upon goods paying duties by weight or gauge, the land-waiters must give the merchant an account thereof in writing, that he may make a post-entry for the same, before such goods may

may be permitted to be taken off the keys, unless the quantity short-entered be very small ; and then if the surveyor thinks fit to permit the goods to be carried away before such post-entry be made, one of the land-waiters is to go immediately and enter the same in a book to be kept for that purpose, above-stairs in the Custom-House, that the collector may know the quantity and quality of the goods, in order to demand the duties of the merchant, which the land-waiters are to see posted the next day at the furthest ; though, in strictness, the land-waiters should not give any credit, of which

they are to be frequently admonished : and, in order to prevent their giving credit, the surveyor must, within 14 days after the expiration of every month, deliver to the collector and comptroller a list of all ships cleared in the preceding month, with an account of the post-entries that were standing out six days after the ships were cleared ; who are to enquire into the reasons thereof, and charge the officers concerned in giving such credit to transmit their answers to the commissioners, with their observations thereon.

The form of the afore said post-entry book may be as follows :

When posted.	In the Providence of London, James Bell master, from Rotterdam.			
No. 47. Lady-day } quarter, 1731. }	Post on No. 17.			
	20th of February, 1730.			
	Juniper berries.			
	C. qrs. lb.			
	Delivered	3	3	14
No. 58. Lady-day } quarter, 1731. }	Entered			
	3			
	0			
	4			
	Short			
				0 : 3 : 10
				C. D. Land-waiter.
				27th of February, 1730.
				In the Providence aforesaid.
				Daniel Fuller.
				Post on No. 25.
				Crop Madder.
				C. qrs. lb.
				Delivered
				23 : 2 : 7
				Entered
				20 : 0 : 0
				Short
				3 : 2 : 7
				Old Iron.
				Tons C. qrs. lb.
				Delivered
				5 : 17 : 3 : 14
				Entered
				5 : 00 : 0 : 00
				Short
				0 : 17 : 3 : 14
				Broken Glafs.
				C. qrs. lb.
				Delivered
				23 : 1 : 0
				Entered
				20 : 0 : 0
				Short
				3 : 1 : 0
				Pearl Barley.
				C. qrs. lb.
				Delivered
				9 : 0 : 7
				Entered
				8 : 0 : 0
				Short
				1 : 0 : 7
				C. D. Land-waiter.

3. That the account of all goods must be taken in the proper books, at the time of examination, &c. and not in any other books or loose papers.

4. That the marks and numbers of all casks, &c. must be carefully observed, and placed to the proper merchant's account ; and that each day's work must be compared with the account taken by the merchant, his servant, cooper, &c.

5. That goods are not to be brought to the warehouse without a bill of lading, or other warrant, or the consent of the surveyor, under his hand, in the land-waiter's book.

6. That, upon any mistake in taking the account of any goods, the land-waiters are not to erase their books, but, having struck the pen through the error, are to insert the true figures, &c. and to write the reason thereof in their books.

7. That the land-surveyor must duly attend at the water-side, and frequently every day inspect the land-waiters in the discharge of goods.

8. That after payment of the new duties, and before the delivery of any hides and skins liable to those duties, the same are to be stamped with a proper mark (being an hammer) which, with some printer's ink, and a little box, have been sent for that purpose ; and, when the said hammer or stamp is not in use, it is to be secured under the separate locks of the collector and comptroller ; but, for using the said stamp, a block is to be prepared, which may be of elm, two feet and one half high, about 10 inches diameter at the top, and hollowed one inch and a half, which is to be filled up with lead, about five inches square, in order to make it solid, and prevent the hammer's rebounding, and to keep the lead from spreading and cracking.

9. That after the payment of new duties, and before the delivery of linens chequered, striped, printed, painted, stained, or dyed, the same are to be stamped with the proper seal and stamp, with printer's ink ; which stamp is to be lodged in the (joint) custody of the collector and comptroller, and not to be delivered thence but to the land-surveyor, and land-waiter appointed to the ship, wherein there are any such linens imported, as are liable to be stamped ; and, after entry and landing, such linens are to be stamped in their presence by a weigher or porter, who is under oath and security ; and the land-waiter is to keep an account thereof in his book, which is to be marked by the land-surveyor : and, when they leave off stamping, the said stamp or seal is to be returned by the surveyor and land-waiter, into the joint custody of the collector and comptroller, to be locked up under two different locks 'till wanted again.

10. That if, upon examination of any goods at the delivery, the merchant appears to have over-entered, either in any particular goods, or upon the whole entry, the following regulations must be observed, in order to procure the repayment of the duties for the goods so over-entered : and though he should be over-entered on some goods, and short-entered on others, yet such short-entry must not be deducted from the over-entry, but a post-entry must be made for what is short, and the over-entry must be obtained by the regulations before-mentioned, being as follows :

1. On the face of the warrant, at the bottom, must be certified the quantity of goods over-entered, thus :

VOL. II.

The merchant is over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown silk.

B. C. }
C. D. } Land-waiters.

2. On the back of the warrant, the merchant, his servant, or agent, must make oath to the quantity of goods received, and the occasion of the over-entry, thus :

James Cross maketh oath, That neither himself [and, if the goods were taken up by a servant or agent, there must be likewise added, nor A. B. the proprietor] nor any other person for him, or to his use, did to his knowledge or belief, receive any more than three hundred pounds of the silk within mentioned, nor had any more landed out of the within mentioned ship, and that this over-entry was occasioned by a mistake * in casting up the invoice.

Jurat' 16 die Martii, coram me

D. E. Collector.

Signed James Cross.

* Or any other occasion, as may be the case.

Underneath which oath must be certified as follows :

Upon examination, as also per affidavit above, we find the merchant is over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown silk.

Certified the 16th of March 1730. B. C. }
A. B. Surveyor. C. D. } Land-waiters.

Whereupon a certificate must be made out, in order to repay the duties for the goods so over-entered, signed by the land-waiters. On the back whereof must be inserted the particular duties to be repaid, with the merchant's receipt for the same.

But, before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards, referred to in the second certificate, must be discharged for so much goods as were over-entered, by writing off the same in the margin of the book : and the whole must be entered in particular books, to be kept by the collector and comptroller for that purpose.

11. That as all goods are to be entered as sound, with regard to damage, &c. therefore, if on examination of poundage goods *, except tobacco, they appear to have received damage by salt-water, &c. whereby the merchant will be prejudiced ; the collector, surveyor, and land-waiters, may make such allowance as they think proper, though no allowance must be made in consideration of the meanness of any goods : but, if the merchant is not satisfied with the allowance made, then the collector, and any other principal officer, may appoint two indifferent merchants, experienced in such goods, on their oath, to adjust the allowance.

* 11th Rule of the book of rates, at the end of letter A.

Whereupon the officers or other persons who have adjusted the damages, are to certify the same on the back of the warrant. —Which allowance for damage, &c. must be made upon the keys, or in the king's warehouse, immediately after landing the goods, and before taken into the merchant's possession : and, in making these allowances, the quantity allowed

ed for damage must not be deducted from the quantity short-entered (if any); but a post-entry must be made for such short-entry, and a certificate for the repayment of the duties of the goods allowed for damage, signed by the land waiters. But, before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards, referred to in the said certificate, must be discharged for so much goods as were allowed for damage, by writing off the same in the margin or the book: and the whole certificate must be entered in particular books to be kept for that purpose, by the collector and comptroller.

12. That although no allowance is made to the importers of tobacco, in consideration of any that is damaged or mean, yet, if on delivery, any part appears damaged, and the merchant is not willing to enter and pay, or secure the duties, he may either refuse the whole, or separate the damaged tobacco (but not the stalk from the leaf) by cutting off from the hogheads, &c. so much as he shall refuse to enter, &c. and any three or more of the principal officers may cause such tobacco to be burnt: whereupon a certificate for an allowance, in consideration of the tobacco so destroyed, must be made out, signed by the surveyor and land-waiters.

On the back whereof, the merchant must give a receipt for the payment of the aforesaid allowance. See WOOLL.

But, before this allowance is paid, the same must be entered, in particular books to be kept for that purpose, by the collector and comptroller.

Land-waiters are not to be paid their salaries, 'till a certificate be produced from the surveyor, that they have not any post-entries standing out.—They are to assist at the shipping of corn and other goods, and to certify on debentures—To examine the ship's contents, and compare them with the merchant's endorsements on the cocket—To examine the ships, and discharge the tidemen—To preserve and enter the warrants outwards—A book to be kept by them for the outward business—To assist the coast-waiters in examining foreign goods.

LANERKSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the south with Dumfriesshire; on the south-west with that of Aire; on the north-west with that of Rensfrew; on the north with that of Dumbarton; on the north-east with Sterlingshire; and on the east with that of Linlithgow and Mid-Lothian.

It is a pleasant fruitful country, and, though mountainous in some places, and woody in others, is very well inhabited, especially near the Clyde. It abounds with coal-pits and lime-stone, and has some profitable lead-mines.

GLASGOW, in this shire, for extent, buildings, trade, and riches, is the chief city of the kingdom, next to Edinburgh. Though the river Clyde, on whose banks it stands, is navigable up to the town for small vessels, yet New Glasgow, at the mouth of the Clyde, is the harbour for those of great burden, where the city obliges the merchants to load and unload, there being a good wharf, and a custom-house for all the coast; and ships are also repaired, laid up, and fitted out here, or at Greenock. There is not only an appearance, but a reality of trade at this city, both as to foreign commerce and domestic manufacture; which, though great before, is very much improved since the union, which more fully answered it's end to this city, than to any other part of Scotland, so that they now send above 80 sail of ships every year to Virginia, and other English colonies in America. They have a very considerable trade in the herring-fishery, which they catch sooner, and cure so much better than the English, that they are reckoned equal to the Dutch. They have also the advantage of situation, lying so convenient for the coasts of Spain and Portugal, that they are often at Cadiz, the Straights mouth, and even at the Canaries, in eight or nine days. Their situation for the American trade is no less advantageous, especially in time of war. They lately purchased a harbour on the Frith, near Alloway, to enable them to reship their sugars and tobacco for Holland, Germany, and the Baltic, without sailing round England or Scotland.

They have a manufacture of plaids and muslins, which last are so good and fine, that great quantities are sent to England, and the British plantations, where they fetch a good price, being generally striped, and much used for aprons by the ladies, and sometimes in head-cloths by the meaner sort.

LANGUEDOC in France. This province is bounded on the north by Quercy and Rouergne, on the east by Auvergne and Lyonnois, on the south it borders on the Mediterranean Sea, and on the west the Garonne separates it from Gascony.

It is esteemed one of the most pleasant and fruitful provinces in France: it's chief commodities are wine, oil, honey, wax, saffron, silk, and salt.

In this province is the famous canal, cut at an immense expence, to make a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean. 'Twas begun in 1666, and completed in 1680. It cost above thirteen millions of livres, and takes an immense sum yearly to keep it in repair; and yet does not answer the design for which it was chiefly made, namely, to carry the French fleets, which are still obliged to pass through the freights of Gibraltar. Nor does it seem to be of great use for the inland trade.

'Tis divided into the following districts or divisions, viz.

I. **TOULOUSAIN**, lying between Gascony on the west, Albigeois on the east, and the county of Foix on the south. In it is

TOULOUSE, the capital of the whole province, seated on the river Garonne.

Though this city is very advantageously situated for trade, it has hardly any, the genius of it's inhabitants not being turned that way; so that, though this be one of the greatest cities in France, it is neither rich nor populous.

II. **ALBIGEOIS** is bounded by Rouergne on the north and west, by Toulousain on the south, and by Quercy on the east. The soil about **GAILLAC** is the only part of Albigeois, that produces wine proper to be exported beyond sea. They send it by the river Tarn, which begins here to be navigable to Bourdeaux, where the merchants sell it to the English, this wine being better after it has been transported by sea.

RABASTENS on the Tarn also, is an ancient city, but gone to decay; there is, however, some trade here, particularly of wine, which is very good.

III. **LAURAGAIS** lies on the east of Toulousain, between the rivers Ariege and Agout.

CASTLENANDARI has a pretty good trade, the plains that surround it producing abundance of corn. It stands on a hill, at the foot of which is a basin of the royal canal of Languedoc.

IV. The district of **NARBONNE** lies between Lauragais and the county of Foix on the west, Roussillon on the south, the sea and the district of Besiers on the east, and Toulousain on the north.

Narbonne is commodiously seated in a low country, on a canal cut from the river Aude. It formerly had a good harbour, and drove a vast trade in the Mediterranean, but it has been long since stopt up, the sea having left the coast.

CARCASSONNE is seated on the river Aude. The country round it is much enriched by the manufacture of all sorts of cloth established here, and which afford a constant employment for all the inhabitants.

LIMOUX, a small city on the same river, has likewise a manufacture of cloths and other woollen stuffs. 'Tis also the staple for all the iron that is worked in the neighbouring forges.

V. The district of **BESIERS** is extended between that of Narbonne on the west, Rouergne on the north, the district of Nismes on the east, and the sea on the south.

The soil of this diocese is one of the most fruitful of the whole province; it produces excellent wines, and much more corn than the inhabitants can consume, and a great quantity of oil.

VI. The district of **NISMES** lies between that of Besiers on the west, the Mediterranean Sea on the south, Provence on the east, and Sevennes on the north.

Nismes is a large town, well peopled, and has a very good trade, which consists chiefly in woollen stuffs made here.

MONTPELLIER is the capital city of what is termed Lower Languedoc, and the largest and most considerable of the whole province, except Toulouse.

The inhabitants are employed in making treacle, verdegrease, white wax, dimities, silks, and woollen stuffs, and other sorts of manufactures.

BEAUCAIRE, situated on the Rhône, is famous chiefly for the fair kept yearly about the time of St. Magdalen's festival. It had formerly great privileges granted, but, in 1632, they laid a duty on all merchandizes, which amounts yearly to about 25,000 livres; besides another of twenty-pence on every bale that has not been opened, which brings in about 5000 livres more. They carry on in this fair a trade for above six millions of livres. Merchants resort hither from Italy, Germany, Spain, Turkey, Armenia, Smyrne, &c.

SOMMIERES is considerable for it's manufactures of serges, which are sold in this and the adjacent provinces.

VII. **GEVAUDAN** is for the most part a mountainous and barren country; but most of the people follow some trade at home, making serges and other stuffs, which they sell very cheap; and yet those little manufactures bring in above two millions of livres yearly, being exported into Switzerland, Germany, Italy, and even into the Levant.

MARVEJOLS is a pretty populous city, and drives a good trade.

VIII. **VIVARAIS** lies between Languedoc, properly so called, on the south, Gevaudan on the west, Forez and Velay on the north, and the river Rhône on the east.

VIVIERS is it's capital, but is not a place of any trade.

IX. **VELAY** is a small county or district, and has Vivarais on the east, Forez on the north, Auvergne on the west, and Gevaudan on the south.

The most considerable place in it is **PUY**, where they make a vast quantity of laces, by which they are much enriched.

LAPIDARY, an artificer who cuts precious stones. The same is said of those who deal therein, and have a perfect knowledge of gems in general, and of those also who have wrote thereon in French, as Boot, Berguen, Ruzus, Gesner, Durondel, &c.

This art is of great antiquity. The French fell into it late, yet have carried this art to a very great perfection, but not superior to that of the English.

Divers machines are employed in the cutting of precious stones, according to their quality. The diamond which is extremely hard, is cut on a wheel of soft steel, turned by a mill, with diamond-dust, tempered and polished with olive oil.

The oriental ruby, sapphire, and topaz, are cut on a copper-wheel with diamond-dust, tempered with olive oil, and are polished on another copper-wheel with tripoli and water.

The hyacinth, emerald, amethyst, garnets, agates, and other stones not of an equal degree of hardness with the other, are cut on a leaden-wheel with smalt and water, and polished on a tin-wheel with tripoli.

The turquois, of the old and new rock, girasol, and opal, are cut and polished on a wooden-wheel with tripoli also.

The lapidaries of Paris have been a corporation since the year 1290. It is governed by four jurats, who superintend their rights and privileges, visit the master-workmen, take care of the master-piece of workmanship, bind apprentices, and administer the freedom. There are two jurats chosen, every year, by a plurality of voices.

The apprenticeship is for seven years; a master can have but one apprentice at a time; he is permitted, however, to take a second toward the end of the last year of the time of the others.

Apprentices, after the expiration of their servitude, must serve two years as journeymen with masters, in order to perfect them in the art.

Every candidate for the freedom of the corporation, even by the royal recommendation, is obliged to perform a master-piece of workmanship before admission.

Masters may have no more than two wheels, nor more than three mills going.

Foreigners, or aliens, are not allowed to expose to sale either rough or cut precious stones, or even pearls; nor are the masters to purchase any of them, that have not been visited by the jurats.

These merchandizes can only be sold by the master-lapidaries, and the goldsmith-jewellers; all others are forbid to mend or repair them.

Some of these articles have been since new modified and changed.

1. By an arret of the council of May 1613, registered the June following, all merchants, foreigners, strangers, and others, are forbid to carry and sell, in the kingdom, any precious stones and diamonds, cut and fashioned, unless in the fair time, who are then subject to visitation by the jurat-lapidaries.

2. By another arret of the council of December 1614, the preceding is ratified; and yet it is ordered, that the dealing in diamonds, and other rough and cut precious stones, carried by merchant strangers, shall remain free, as well to the goldsmith as the lapidaries, without the latter visiting or dividing the stones by lots among themselves; being also forbid, both the one and the other, to be factors or agents to merchants foreigners.

The parliament of Paris made a decree in February 1740, with regard to a law-suit between the body of trading goldsmith-jewellers, that of the mercers, and that of the other four corporations of merchants of the city of Paris of the one part, and the company of lapidaries on the other: the latter and the goldsmith-jewellers were at law for above 100 years; and this decree of the parliament terminated their differences, and definitively regulated the state of these corporations among themselves; by which decree, the lapidaries are forbidden to vend any sort of precious stones set and adorned by art, under the penalty of a fine and confiscation of the same, and they are restrained to the sale of rough stones, and these cut and polished, but not set and adorned. By an arret of the council of state of January 1673, lapidaries were prohibited, and all others except goldsmiths, selling all precious stones, on pain of 3000 livres penalty, and of all expence, damage, and interest. The foregoing arret of parliament, in consequence thereof, forbids lapidaries from assuming the quality of merchant jewellers, and to give to their jurats the name of wardens, nor permits them to be called only master lapidaries, gravers, and artificers, in all sort of precious stones, fine and natural.

LAPLAND. This country is divided into Danish, Swedish, and Muscovian Lapland. See the articles NORWAY, SWEDEN, and RUSSIA.

LAQUE, or artificial LACCA, a name given to a coloured substance, drawn from several flowers; as the yellow from the flower of the juniper, the red from the poppy, and the blue from the iris or violet.

The method of preparing the vegetable colours called laques.

Take a pound of turmeric root, reduced to fine powder, three pints of fair water, and an ounce of salt of tartar; put them into a glazed earthen vessel, and let them boil together gently, over a clear fire, 'till the water appears richly impregnated with the turmeric, or will stain a piece of white paper beautifully yellow; then filtre the liquor, and gradually add to it a strong aqueous solution of roch-allum, 'till the yellow

matter is all curdled together, or precipitated: after this, pour the whole into a filtre of paper, where the aqueous part will run off, and leave a yellow matter behind; which beingedulcorated, or washed in the filtre, by the repeated affusion of fresh water, 'till the water comes away insipid, and afterwards dried, it becomes the laque of turmeric, or a beautiful yellow colour for painting.

This experiment shews a general method of obtaining a laque from all the vegetable subjects fitted to afford it: for in the same manner may a red laque be made from madder, brazil, nicaragua, and many other dyeing woods, or tinging vegetables. But, where the colour of the subject depends upon a very subtle texture, mixture, or arrangement of the parts, this method destroys, or at least impairs the colour; as particularly in violets, red roses, carnations, &c. So that it seems applicable only to the tinging vegetables of a somewhat strong and firm texture.

In some cases also, a simple process is sufficient to obtain rich laques; particularly that beautiful red one, emphatically called laque, and from which the name seems to be derived to the rest. This red laque is obtained, barely by boiling stick-lac in water, then filtering the decoction, and evaporating the superfluous humidity: for the beautiful red colour adheres to the outsides of the sticks broke of the trees, along with the gum-lac, and readily communicates itself to boiling water*. Some of this tinging matter likewise sticking to the gum itself, it is proper to boil them both together: for the gum does not prejudice the colour, nor dissolve in boiling water: so that, after the operation, the gum is as fit for the making of sealing wax, or other uses that do not require the colour, as it was before.

* The tinging matter adhering to the sticks and gums is, perhaps, not a vegetable, but animal substance; somewhat of the nature of cocheneal, and deposited in form of an excrement, by a certain kind of bees in the Indies. See a paper upon this subject in the French Memoirs; see also Mr. Boyle upon human blood, Abridgment, Vol. II. p. 481.

And, much after the same manner, is that extremely rich and beautiful red colour called carmine, prepared from cocheneal, and a solution of tin; for carmine may be conceived as no more than the scarlet, or Bow-dye liquor, concentrated, or reduced to what the painters call a body.

How far the present experiment may be applicable to other parts of the materia tinctoria, seems not hitherto well considered. Doubtless, it might afford a great variety of new colours, by a proper extension and diversification in the menstruum and method. For example: if red saunders be digested warm in spirit of wine, the menstruum acquires a deep red colour; and, if drawn off by distillation, leaves behind it a red, tasteless, and inodorous rosin, that affords no smell even upon burning, nor dissolves in any expressed or essential oil; yet, even in a small proportion, tinges spirit of wine of a full red colour, so as to render it useful for anatomical injections, &c.

In like manner, may a particular gummy red substance, or pigment, be obtained by spirit of wine, from dried red wine lees; and, whether the tinging parts of the more cumbersome dyeing woods and stuffs could not be advantageously extracted at the places of their growth, so as to leave their ponderous bulk behind, and bring away only their concentrated essential colours, might deserve the consideration of the merchant, the dry-salter, the dyer, the callico-printer, &c. It might be tried on logwood, brazil; on madder, safflore, and many other dyeing woods and stuffs*, whose names we seldom meet with but in the bills of entry.

* This is well deserving the consideration of those traders, who are any way concerned in these things.

LAQUERED WARES are peculiar sorts of cabinet-work, varnished, in the nature of japan-work, over with laquer. See LAQUE.

A white laquer, or varnish.

Take ten ounces of rectified spirits of wine, and fine pulverized gum-sandarac two ounces, clear Venice turpentine two ounces; put them together into a glass, and cover it close with waxed paper and a bladder; then take a pot with water, put it on a coal fire, and, when it begins to be warm, put some hay under the bottom of the pot, whereon set your glass; let it boil for two or three hours, and the sandarac and turpentine will dissolve and unite with the spirits: then pour your laquer boiling hot through a clean hair-cloth; and put it in a clean phial for use. This is an excellent laquer, fit to be used for light colours.

Another laquer to mix with red or dark colours, and to japan the work over with.

Take rectified spirits, that is, such as, when poured on gunpowder, will fire it; or when a linen rag being dipped into it and lighted, it will consume it one pound; of clean gum lacca a quarter of a pound; grind them fine, and put them into a phial, then pour the spirits over it; let it stand for two days,

days, shaking it once every hour: the third day, hang it over a gentle cool fire 'till it is well dissolved, then strain it through a hair-bag, and put it up for use.

Another laquer varnish.

Take of the best and strongest brandy one quart, calcined tartar one pound; let the brandy stand upon the tartar covered, for one day, in a gentle warmth; pour off the brandy, and filtrate it through paper; of this take one pound, white amber six ounces, sandarac six ounces, gum-lac two ounces, (the amber must be picked out of clear pieces) grind all fine together, put them into a phial or matrafs, then pour on it three pounds of the filtrated brandy: your phial must be but about half filled; then shake it for about an hour together, keep it in a matrafs for two days, shaking it once every hour; when settled, pour it through a hair-cloth, and it will be fit for use.

What sediment remains in the phial, may be used in making another such quantity, adding to it but one half the quantity of fresh ingredients.

A fine laquer or varnish, for blue, and other colours, which will make them bright like looking-glasses.

If your table is to be of a blue colour, paint it first with indico and white, ground with oil, with a little turpentine; when dry, you may give it another layer, and heighten it to your liking; and, when this is thoroughly dry, laquer it with the following matter.

Take clear Cyprian turpentine half an ounce, sandarac one ounce, mastic two ounces; grind the sandarac and mastic very fine; then take-oil of spike two ounces, oil of turpentine one ounce, put them into a glass cucurbit, to dissolve over a gentle heat: add thereto the pulverized gum, set the glass or matrafs in a pan with water; let it boil over a slow fire for an hour, and all will be dissolved and incorporated: let it cool, preserve it in a phial well stopped for use.

When used, first wipe your painted table, and clean it from dust; then take some fine and light smalt in a cup, or upon a plate, according to what quantity your piece requires; temper it with the above laque, and, with a large hair-brush pencil, glaze it as quick as you can all over; let it dry in a clean place that is free from dust, which will be in about three hours time, then glaze it over again: the oftener you repeat it, the brighter your table will be: if you chuse to have it of an exceeding fine lustre, glaze it over 12 or 15 times.

A Chinese laquer for all sorts of colours.

Put into a matrafs a pint of spirits of wine, one ounce of gum-animæ, two ounces of mastic, two ounces of sandarac or juniper gum, powdered finely together in a mortar: put them together into a matrafs, close it up, and hang it in hot weather in the sun for 24 hours, or so long over a fire, 'till the gum is dissolved, and the spirits are tintured therewith: then filtre it through a clean cloth, and keep it in a phial closed up: you may mix therewith what colour you please: for red, use vermillion; for black, use lamp-black, or ivory-black; for blue, use indico and white, Prussian blue or smalt, and white lead, &c.

LATITUDE, in geography, the distance of any place from the equator, measured in degrees, minutes, and seconds, upon the meridian of that place; and is either north or south, according as the place is situated, either on the north or south side of the equator. It is found at sea, by having the sun's or any star's declination (by a proper table, and his meridian altitude) and that is found by a quadrant or astrolabe. From the horizon to the zenith being 90° , if from 90° you take the sun's meridian altitude, the remainder will be the sun's distance from the zenith. When, therefore, by observation, the sun's meridian altitude is found, you are to consider, whether the sun hath any declination or not: if he hath none, but moves in the equinoctial that day, then the elevation of the equator will be equal to his meridian altitude; and, consequently, his meridian altitude is the co-latitude: subduct, therefore, that from 90 , the remainder is the latitude of the place, which will be north, if the sun be on the south part of the meridian; and south, when the sun comes to the north of the meridian.

'Tis the same thing with any star in the equator. When the sun or star hath any declination, the zenith distance with that will give the latitude; for, if the meridian altitude and declination be both the same way, i. e. both north, or both south, the difference between them will be the latitude of the place, or the pole's height: only observe, that, if the zenith distance exceeds the declination, the contrary pole will be elevated. If the declination be $23^{\circ} 30' N.$ and the zenith distance $8^{\circ} 30' N.$ the latitude will be $15^{\circ} N.$ But, if the zenith distance be $71^{\circ} 30' S.$ and the declination $20^{\circ} S.$ the difference will be $51^{\circ} 30' =$ to the latitude, as before; only it will be north, because the zenith distance exceeds the declination.

If the declination be north, and the meridian altitude south, or vice versa, i. e. one contrary to the other, then the sum of the declination and the zenith is the latitude of the place. Indeed, sometimes the sun or star may have two meridian altitudes, as when the altitude and declination being the same way, the latter exceeds the former, and then the sum of the co-declination and the meridian altitude is the height of the pole, towards which the declination is. And you must observe, that, whether the meridian altitude be north or south, if that and the co-declination together be less than 180° , the sun or star will have two meridian altitudes in 24 hours. See the article **LONGITUDE**, with regard to navigation, and also the article **COMMANDERS OF SHIPS**.

L A W. Traders in general are the principal persons who ought to keep out of litigious broils, yet they are the most liable to be plunged into them, by reason of their constant dealings with great variety of people. We have, therefore, endeavoured, throughout this work, not only to give the statute law in miniature which has relation to the chief species of merchandizes, but also the determination, in our courts of common law and equity, of the most curious mercantile cases which have come before them, in order to guard traders against those evils to which they are too frequently liable.

Besides the common and statute laws of England, as also the *lex non scripta*, there are in several parts of England certain customs and usages, which have the force of common law among those people to whose property they belong; as borough English, a custom so called, not being in use out of England, where the youngest son, or, for want of sons, the youngest brother, is to inherit, the eldest being supposed to have learned the father's trade, and the youngest the least able to shift for himself.

Besides these, we make use of the civil and maritime law, in regard to divers commercial and naval occurrences; which law is exercised in the high court of admiralty, as corresponding and agreeing with the laws of foreign nations, being suitable to the nature and negotiations of the people that are subject to them. By this law, and the ancient customs thereof, a mutual intercourse of commerce is maintained between nations, and should, in trading states, be precisely and strictly upheld and preserved; yet the rights of the municipal laws of the kingdom should, by no means, be infringed, but each jurisdiction restrained within its proper limits; which will be more advantageous to the trading interests of this nation, than the suffering either of them to inroach upon, and swallow up and devour the other: and that law which is universally regarded in all trading nations, should seem the best calculated to determine all misunderstandings between the trading subjects of those several nations which have relation to traffic, or maritime concerns. Yet, in the leagues that are established between nation and nation, the laws of either kingdom are excepted; and as the English merchants in France, or in any other nation in amity, are subject to the laws of that country where they reside, so must the people of France, or any other country, be subject to the laws of England, when resident here. 19 Hen. VII.

By the common law, merchants were always particularly regarded in this kingdom; but the municipal laws of England, or, indeed, of any realm, are not sufficient for the ordering and determining the affairs of traffic, and matters relating to commerce, merchandizing being so universally extensive, that it is impossible: therefore there is another law, called the law-merchant, which is a kind of special law, differing from the common law of England, proper to merchants, and is become a part of the law of the realm; and all nations take special knowledge of this law; and the common and statute laws of this kingdom leave the causes of merchants, in many cases, to their own peculiar law, which is founded on customs and usages immemorial. On this law, also, we have been pretty copious throughout our whole work.

REMARKS.

There can be nothing more perplexing and vexatious to traders than the being unhappily involved in law-suits. To avoid, which, or to prove successful therein, nothing can be more conducive than method and regularity, which is the life of a trader's affairs in general. Thus the due arrangement and methodizing of the original vouchers which relate to a trader's transaction, for immediate reference, should, by no means, be neglected: for, the grand books being of no authority in courts of judicature, without the original vouchers, these ought to be as regularly disposed as the other, in the way they will admit of; neglects of this kind, either by misplacing, or losing those testimonials of a trader's transactions, being productive of great confusion in public business: order and regularity in all things cannot be too early made habitual to the young trader.

And, indeed, if a trader has any misunderstanding or law-suit with others, and has the best cause to defend, and employs the most skilful, as well as most upright council, solicitor or attorney, yet, if he cannot produce authentic vouchers in his vindication, he will lose his cause.

With

With relation particularly to the laws, which concern the various branches of the PUBLIC REVENUE, traders in general should not be remiss in making themselves acquainted with those that may concern themselves, lest they should incur the penalties thereby inflicted, or injured by the officers who may exceed their authority. Thus the merchant should be well informed in the laws, relative to the business of the CUSTOMS; variety of the essential whereof is given in this work, either under the respective articles which they immediately concern, or at the end of every letter, wherein the general BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS is concerned. But they are so numerous, that it cannot be expected we should give the whole, and at large, which would be no more than to transcribe the Statutes at large: we have judged it sufficient to give the practical trader such an idea thereof, as may tend to induce him to look into those, wherein his own private interest is concerned.

Those traders, who are liable to the excise laws in any peculiar branch, should not be neglectful to become familiar with those which concern their respective branches of business: as the salt or stamp duties, &c.

The necessity of merchant importers and exporters informing themselves well in the laws relative to the CUSTOMS in particular, will appear under the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, at the conclusion of our letter A, and the end of the subsequent letters of the alphabet.

LEAD, is the heaviest of all metals, next to gold, quicksilver not being ranked in the class of metals. It is the softest of all, and very ductile, though much less so than gold; is very little subject to rust, and the least sonorous, except gold; the most readily fusible of all except tin, and acquires this fluidity long before it changes colour; when melted, it readily calcines into a grey powder, which, if the fire be increased, becomes of a fine florid red, which is the minium of the shops. If the fire be made yet more vehement, it runs into an oleaginous matter, which, as it cools, turns reddish, which is litharge. These several substances, by addition of iron-filings over the fire, or only some pieces of charcoal, or any oily matter, become lead again.

The scoriae of lead in a strong fire vitrify, and in that form escape through all sorts of vessels.

Lead readily amalgamates with mercury, and as readily fuses with all other metals, except iron. Its specific gravity is to that of water as 11,322 to 1000. Exposed to a burning-glass, it in a few moments goes through all the changes already mentioned.

When kept in fusion over a common fire, it throws up all other bodies, except gold; it afterwards vitrifies with the baser metals, carrying them off as scoriae.

The weakest acids are its best solvents; it dissolves readily in aqua fortis, mixed with water, as also in vinegar, and is corroded with the fumes of the weakest acids, becoming what is called cerusse. It gives a sweetish taste to liquors wherein it is dissolved. If heated 'till it smoaks, and copper in thin plates be put in, it boils up vehemently, and the copper breaks and blends with it. The mixed mass, when cool, is very brittle, resembling cast iron where broken.

Lead is met with in the mines in various forms. The ore is usually of colour easily distinguishable to the eye, being a little darker than lead, bright and glossy where fresh broken, and composed either of cubic pieces, or of small granules, or of long striæ. The first is called potters lead ore, the second steel-grained ore, and the third antimoniated lead ore. These, though apparently different, are in reality very like, when compared with the help of glasses.

There is, besides these ores, a very curious kind, which is green, and of crystalline substance, usually mixed with a kind of calamine: this has not the least appearance of lead, though it contains very much, and some zink.

Lead is more easily separated from its common ores than any other metal, requiring only a common wood-fire and bellows. Such ores as contain earth and stones are first to be powdered and washed, and those which have pyrites, or marcasites, must be roasted two or three times, to burn away the sulphur; then powdered and washed, and finally mixed with the common black flux, if very refractory. If there be occasion to separate lead from copper in the regulus, it is readily done, as the lead will run off in a heat not strong enough to fuse the copper.

As to its medicinal virtues, it seems to be a metal very cautiously to be given, and rather calculated for outward application. Its ore is poisonous: the steam of the furnaces where it is worked infects the grass around about, and kills the animals that feed on it; and its best preparation, the saccharum saturni, is apt to bring on violent cholics, and so many other disorders, that the remedy is often worse than the disease.

The preparations most in use are the following, viz.

MINIUM.

Melt lead in a broad, earthen, unglazed vessel, stirring continually 'till calcined to a grey powder; continue stirring, and

it will become yellow, and is the masticot used in painting. Then calcine further in a reverberatory furnace; and it will be of a fine red, which is the common minium.

LITHARGE.

This is of two kinds; but differing only in colour, called litharge of gold, and of silver. It is not prepared on purpose; but got from the silver smelting furnaces, or from those where gold and silver are purified with lead; but it is generally run into lead again, to serve for the same uses. The litharge of the shops is from the copper-works. The greatest quantities are brought from Sweden, Germany, and Denmark; Poland furnishes some; as also our own country, but the Dantzic kind is most esteemed. The best is the most calcined, and of the liveliest colour. It is soluble in oil and unctuous substances, making the basis of most of the ointments and plaisters of the shops. The best way of preparing it, is to grind it in a mortar with water, which pour off thick, adding fresh to the remainder, 'till all the litharge is washed off, and the faces only remain. The litharge subsiding from these liquors is to be kept for use, after carefully drying it.

BURNT LEAD.

Cut a quantity of the thinnest milled lead that can be got, into small plates, with which fill an earthen vessel that will bear the fire, and, with powder of brimstone, laid layer upon layer; when the sulphur is burnt away, the lead will be in a blackish powder: five ounces of brimstone suffice for half a pound of lead. Stir the matter while on the fire, and, when cold, wash the powder in three or four waters. It is used externally as the litharge: mixed with lard alone, it makes a good unguent for the piles.

WHITE LEAD, or CERUSSE,

Is a calx of lead, made by the vapour of vinegar. The usual way of making it is by covering an earthen vessel, in which is some sharp vinegar, with a plate of lead, and setting it in a place gently warm; in 10 or 14 days it converts it mostly into this white matter, which separate for use.

But a much better way is recommended by Boerhaave. Cut a glass cucurbit in such a manner as to leave a very large mouth, to which fit a glass helm; put some vinegar in the body, and a number of thin plates of lead in the head, so as they may stand somewhat erect. Set in a gentle sand-heat for 12 hours, and, after letting cool 12 hours more, unlute the vessel; the receiver will contain a sweet and styptic liquor, nauseous and turbid, and the lead will be covered with cerusse.

The same process, used with iron or copper, converts them also into a calx, that of iron being red, and the copper green.

Cerusse is of great use externally, either in unguents, or used dry, sprinkling it on old ulcers, running sores, and many cutaneous diseases.

The finer part of this calx causes, in those who grind and prepare it, violent and incurable asthmas, palsies, and other nervous complaints.

Painters use it in great quantities; and, to afford it them cheap, it is generally adulterated with common whiting. The English and Dutch cerusse are very bad in this respect; the Venetian ought always to be used by the apothecaries.

SACCHARUM SATURNI.

Put into a large glass cucurbit any quantity of true Venetian cerusse, on which pour twenty times its weight of distilled vinegar; boil three or four hours in a sand-heat; when settled, pour off the clear liquor, and add more vinegar to the remainder: repeat the operation with fresh vinegar, 'till the cerusse is nearly all dissolved. Mix the liquors, and evaporate part, if to be kept under this form. If the salt of lead is to be prepared, inspissate in a sand-heat, to the thickness of oil, and set it in a cool place for the salts to shoot. Pour off the liquor, and dry the cake of salt in a gentle heat.

The vinegar of lead is used by some for pimples: an ointment may also be prepared from it, by mixing with oil of roses, and working together some hours in a leaden mortar. This is called butter of lead, and is an excellent medicine, by way of liniment, for almost all kinds of eruptions.

The sugar of lead is greatly recommended by some internally, in dysenteries and hæmorrhages; but the generality condemn it, as containing all the poisonous qualities of lead in their highest degree.

Externally it has been long famous for many virtues. It is good against inflammations of all kinds, and in collyria for the eyes, and in the erysipelas: it deterges, dries, and cicatrises ulcers, and in gonorrhœas is mixed in injections with great success.

If one ounce of it, and two of oil of turpentine, be set in a sand-heat, 'till the salt is dissolved, the oil turns red, and is called balsam of lead. This is also an external medicine, of great note for it's effects in old and sharp ulcers.

REMARKS.

There are lead-mines in divers parts of England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, and the British plantations, and in various other parts of Europe; but Great-Britain has larger plenty than most countries, and exports great quantities. Flintshire and Derbyshire are the two counties in England, which have been long famed for their lead-works; and that of the latter is generally esteemed the best, as being the softest: the reason of which we ascribe to it's being smelted in North Wales with pit-coal fuel, and in Derbyshire with wood fuel. For the method of assaying lead ores, see the article ASSAY.

The method of smelting lead ore at the great works, with pit-coal.

The smelting-houses have large air-furnaces, in the form of ovens, with a kind of hopper in the center at top, wherein to put the ore. At one end is an open fire-place, the breadth of the furnace, with large iron bars, wherein is put the pit-coal; and at the other end is a large chimney-flue, which draws the flame of the pit-coal over the inward part of the furnace, and melts the ore.

To prepare the ore more easily for fusion, they pound it, either with iron stampers, or by hand, and put it into the hopper before-mentioned: and, in order to separate the sparry, or stony and sulphureous matter from the lead, they, for cheapness sake, use burnt lime, in proportion to the quantity of ore to be smelted at a time; for the sulphur of the lead has a natural tendency to vitrify the lime, and the stony or sparry part of the ore, and to precipitate the lead: so that quick lime is esteemed a proper flux [see FLUX] for the generality of lead ores; but, as lead itself hath a tendency to vitrification, there is commonly a quantity of the lead turned into glass, as well as of the lime and spar, &c.—To prevent which, nothing has a better effect than to throw in, after the ore is melted, a small quantity of billet-wood, or charcoal, the salts of whose ashes the vitrified matter will instantly lay hold of, and thereby the greater quantity of lead will be precipitated, than with the mere pit-coal alone; and the lead will also become the purer and the softer, for the addition of a small quantity of wood at the end of the smelting.

When all is thoroughly fused, and the lead as neatly precipitated as it can be in the great work, with these unexpensive fluxes, there is a tap-hole, which is opened; out of which the lead runs, into the form of pigs, or bars, of fixed sizes. And if the lead, by the assay, will yield silver sufficient to pay the expences of refining, and to leave any reasonable profit, the lead is then refined for it's silver, which is performed after the following manner.—A large test is made with bone or fern-ashes, and fixed in an iron ring; which test will contain several tons of lead in fusion: the lead is melted upon this test, with a reverberatory fire, and, when melted, is blown off with a large pair of bellows, that go either by hand or water, into litharge, and, at the same time, the silver is left or precipitated at the bottom of the test; and, if the refinement is carried on to the full extent, the silver will be as fine as silver can possibly be. After the silver is thus extracted from the litharge, that is reduced again into a body of lead, by being put into another furnace for that purpose, and melted down with pit-coal, and a small quantity of wood fuel put into the furnace per contactum with the fused matter; for, the litharge being a kind of half-vitrified lead, the ashes of the fuel hath, as before observed, a natural tendency to unvitrification.

And here the reader will please to observe, that, after the lead is thus refined in the great works for it's silver, yet every particle of the litharge lead, when again reduced into a body of lead, contains silver, in an equal proportion; and, indeed, there is scarce any lead but what holds some small proportion of silver, though the produce will not pay the expence of the extracting operation. But if, by any art, the whole quantity of silver, if such a thing is possible, could be extracted in one single, easy, and unexpensive operation, as has been attempted by some, it might probably be of some additional advantage.

The method of smelting lead ore with wood fuel

Is much the same, in point of operation, as the preceding, with this difference, that the furnaces are open, and worked by bellows, instead of mere air, which go by water or by hand, and the fuel is conjoined with, or laid stratum super stratum with the ore. After fusion, it is tapped in the like manner as before described, and the lead is refined also, as before represented, with wood alone instead of pit-coal.

Lead ores, as well as all other kinds of ores, being of different qualities in point of their value, and more or less difficult of fusibility, and in the separation of their respective metals; they require as different methods of treatment in a large way of working, as they do in the assay.

There are very few instances of native lead existing naturally pure and malleable among other metals*.

* Some pure native malleable lead hath been found in New-England. What is commonly taken for native lead, is really a very rich, somewhat malleable, silver ore, of a lead colour. The vitrean silver ore is of an irregular, and altogether unsettled figure: it is very ponderous, easy to be flatted with the hammer, and to be cleft, not much harder than lead, and much of the same colour; it melts presently, and soon grows red-hot. This is what is often taken for native lead. It consists of sulphur and of pure silver, which the regeneration of it, and the chemical analysis shew: it contains above three quarter parts of silver. See the article SILVER.

Gallena tessulata, or the cubic dice-lead ore, is an ore very rich of lead, consisting of a quantity of small equilateral cubes, or of oblong parallelepipeds. But these cubes are, as it were, composed of very thin, well polished lamina's, that shine very bright, and are of a blackish blue colour. However, this ore is very ponderous, soft, and brittle; it is more fusible than a great many other ores, though it requires a much greater fire to be melted than lead itself: the cause of which is, the abundance of sulphur that lies hidden in the lead ore, and constitutes almost one quarter part of it. In a fusion well managed, one hundred pounds weight of pure and solid lead ore, will yield from 65 to 70 pounds weight of lead.

If the foregoing sort of lead ore consists of small, thin, oblong cubes*, when broken, it appears finely striated.

* You will always see this cubical figure in this lead ore; nor was ever any other figure observed in it, except such as had been given it by some external power or resistance; for, even in this case, it has always the same form within. But lead ores are called by different names, according to the various either regular or irregular application of the cubes to each other, agreeably to their magnitude, and their brightness thereon depending, and to their surfaces, whether smooth or rough, and granulated. There is also a difference observed in them as to their colour, some being of a lighter and more bright colour, and others of a dark or blackish dye.

Lazarus Erker, page 161, mentions a red kind of lead ore, which he says is ponderous, and like red clay. But it has been found that this red mineral, which has been mistaken for cinnabar, was nothing more than the lead ore, having here and there larger cubes, easy to be distinguished by the eye, without any help; and an infinite number of very minute ones, not to be seen without a microscope, and lying hidden in a red kind of marly earth: so that it does not constitute a particular species.

The same author mentions another lead ore, resembling a white sandy stone. There are also sandy rocks now and then rich of lead, but, well examined, contain an ore not in the least different from that last described. The rock which is commonly soft, and therefore does not deserve to be called a rock, bears a true lead ore, which is irregular on the outside, looks globular, and is filled, throughout the substance of the rock, with small masses, of various sizes, and not very bright; so that, when the rock is broken, there appears the perfect species of lead ore, the last but one described. Abundance of these are digged out of the mines at Braybach.

The stones that are of a lighter colour, especially the flints, and their like*, when they are mixed with ash or black colour, or only marked here and there with veins and spots of the like dye, thereby shew, that they contain either iron or lead in them.

* Some of them will melt in the greatest heat of a wind-furnace, and are said to be of the vitrifying kind, to which class they are referred.—All minerals hitherto known may be referred to six classes, viz. metals, semi-metals, salts, sulphurs, stones, and earths. See MINERALS.

The green lead ore is very rare, of a yellowish green colour, much varied, and half transparent. It varies it's figures, though it most commonly has that of spade, shooting in form of nitre, but less regular. It is likewise ponderous, not hard, and, at the same time, very rapacious; nevertheless, 100 pounds weight of it yields from 70 to 80 pounds weight of lead. The white and ash-coloured lead ores are looked upon as being like this, and are as rare.

The lead ores, hitherto mentioned, are never rendered refractory by a mixture of iron ore, or of the sulphureous iron pyrites [see PYRITES], as are the other ores [see ORES]: for, unless the ore then contains iron, be naturally associated to the lead ores, the major part of assayers, in order to roast them with greater care and benefit, commonly use an addition of iron, or of it's fusible scoria's, that are still reducible. However, the white arsenical pyrites, if worthy to be classed among ores,

ores, ought, in this case, to be excepted, on account of it's rapacioufness, and it's refractory quality of the abundant caput mortuum that remains of it, after the arsenic has been blown away.

BLACK LEAD, is found in several parts of Europe and America; the wad-mines of Cumberland in England have it in heavy lumps, some of which are hard, stony, and of small worth; others very soft, and of a fine grain and texture.

This mineral hath none of the properties of metal; it will not fuse, but calcine in an intense fire; though there are some fluxes, perhaps, that would melt it. The mechanics, who work in iron, steel, and brass, frequently use it, as well by way of polish as to ease the motion of the finer wheel-work; and quantities of it are wrought into pencils; though the consumption is not very great.

LEAKAGE. There is an allowance of 12 per cent. in the customs, allowed to importers of wine, for the waste and damage it is supposed to have received in the passage: an allowance of two barrels in twenty-two is also made to the brewers of ale and beer, by the excise officers. See the articles **BREWERS** and **WINE**, and the **BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS**, at the end of each letter.

LEASE, in law, a demise, or letting of lands, tenements, or hereditaments, unto another for life, term of years, or at will, for a rent reserved.

The party who lets a lease is called the lessor, the party to whom it is lett, the lessee.

The business of leases taking into consideration the calculation of annuities upon lives, and the use of tables of interest computed to answer the variety of cases which may be required upon these occasions; we have been pretty full upon the articles of **ANNUITIES** and **INTEREST**. With regard to the former of these heads, we have built on the foundation laid by the great Dr. Halley in the Philosophical Transactions, No. 196. and the calculus made by the method laid down by the ingenious Mr. Abr. De Moivre, in his Annuities on Lives. In relation also to the latter, we have given accurate tables of interest, both simple and compound, to seven decimal places, for 3, 3½, 4, 4½, and 5 per cent. with examples of the divers cases, to which they are generally applied: these are necessary introductions to what we have to say under this head.

The former of these being algebraically investigated, and therefore not intelligible by those who are unacquainted with that admirable analytic art of reasoning; we shall, on this article, endeavour to accommodate ourselves to the skill of the arithmetician only; though what we have to say is founded on the very same principles, and will be more generally understood.

About 20 years ago, the doctrine of leases was warmly controverted by several ingenious gentlemen. The occasion was some Tables calculated for renewing and purchasing of the leases of cathedral churches and colleges, &c.—With the value of church and college leases considered, &c. said to be wrote by Sir Isaac Newton; but this, by some writers at that time, was denied: how justly I shall not enter into.

From the best judgment that I have been able to form of this delicate subject, I shall give the following state of it for general use, according to the principles whereon they have been calculated, since the time of the learned Dr. Halley.

Our design being to reduce estates of all kinds, as near as may be, to their true value in cash, by comparing them with annuities to continue a certain number of years, it will be necessary to explain what an annuity is: by which we mean a sum of money to be paid yearly; and, if the same is to be continued a determined number of years, then 'tis an annuity for years certain; if it is to be continued as long as one, two, or three persons, or either of them, shall continue in being, then it is an annuity for life, or lives.

As these yearly payments are frequently charged on estates as a security, so they may be incumbered with a part of the assessments on such estates: an estate of 100l. per ann. may be bound for payment of 50 or 60l. a year: with the proviso, that the annuitant allows out of the said annuity, a proportionable part of the taxes, tythes, &c.—In such case, we would reduce these outgoings to a certainty, as near as may be, and deduct the same out of the said gross annuity, calling the remainder only the nett annuity.

The next point to enquire is, whether, by rules certain, we can know how much ready money, at a given rate of interest, will, in the time of the annuity's continuance, amount to an equivalent for the said annuity?

'Tis obvious, that, if a person advances a sum of money, to receive an equivalent for it at one year's end, he must then receive, over and above the sum laid out, one year's interest for the same: now the sum to be received, and the interest expected, being settled, the money to be laid out will easily be found. Again: for the next year, the purchaser must lay out no more for this, than a sum which continued two years at compound interest would amount to the same annuity; and so on for the 3d, 4th, 5th, &c. years, as long as the annuity is to continue. Hence it is plain, that, where the yearly income, the rate of interest, and the number of years are fixed, the value of the annuity in ready money may be easily found; the method of doing which we shall shew hereafter.

Though the method of computing the value of an annuity, when the terms are thus fixed, is easy; yet frequently the fixing of the term is difficult, and not always possible; for in some cases, the yearly income of an estate is hard to be found; in others, the rate of interest that the purchaser ought to be allowed for the money he lays out, is somewhat uncertain: and the term that the purchaser shall enjoy the income, is in some kind of tenures unknown: one or more of these perplexities happen in almost every query of this kind, according to the nature of the tenure by which the purchaser is to hold the estate.

It is scarce possible to give an account of all the tenures that are amongst us; secundum consuetudinem manerii, inserted in the copies of court rolls, refer to customs different in almost every manor: we, therefore, shall only remark those which are general. As 1. Estates in fee. Under this head we may range those held by lease for a long term, under small rents; for, though the nature of the tenure be different, yet is the real value of them near the same, as appears by comparing the present value of an annuity to continue 200 years, with the value of the same in fee, at 4, 5, 6, &c. per cent. interest.

The difficulty in valuing these estates lies, first, in ascertaining the yearly income likely to be produced by them, and the yearly outgoings in rates, taxes, repairs, &c. (assessment on land only excepted, for that is also chargeable on money at interest). And, secondly, the rate of interest that the purchaser may expect for the money he lays out, as the security for the estate and income are better or worse than the common security for money at interest.

2. Another kind are such estates as are held for terms absolute, under divers conditions and reservations of rents, &c.—These are also reduced to annuities as the former, only the reserved rent must be valued as an annuity to be deducted, and at a lower rate of interest than that of the rack-rent, in regard of the security for payment being better than that of the other.

3. Another sort are copyhold lands; under which are included all church, college, dean, and chapter lands; some held for term of years, renewable at certain periods, for stated sums of money; others for life or lives absolute, renewable in like, or different manner with the former.

It is the custom of some manors, that the widow of him that was tenant for life, hath a right of dower during widowhood; sometimes of the whole, sometimes of a moiety, the other moiety of the estate to the son. These and divers other customs there are, which must be well considered, to find the real value of these tenures; and the income, rate of interest, and, in some cases, time of continuance being dubious, must be fixed with judgment, if we would, with any degree of certainty, arrive at the just value.

4. Another kind of tenure is for a term of years, determinable on the death of one, two, or three persons, with reservation of rents, &c. Under this head may be included those that hold by life, or lives absolute; for, though this last be in the nature of a freehold, yet, as to the real value of such estates, there is little difference betwixt that which is held for 99 years, if 1, 2, or 3 lives, or either of them live so long, and that which is held for the same lives absolute: and the cautions, mentioned in copyhold estates for fixing the term, are also to be observed in these.

Under these general heads may be comprized all, or the most part of holdings, in use at present among us; all of which may, with due caution, be reduced to annuities of a known equal value; so may the reversion of a term of years, or a life or lives, after an estate in esse, be computed by the same method.

Mr. De Moivre justly observes, 'that the method of calculating the value of annuities upon lives, was never perfectly understood before Dr. Halley's rules were made public.'

As to estates in fee simple, the vulgar method used, before Dr. Halley's time, for finding their value, is thus: divide 100l. by the rate of interest per annum, and take the quotient for the number of years value of the purchase in ready money: hence, after the yearly income is known (which with them is the rack-rent, exclusive of tythes, without any allowance for outgoings) there is no more to be done, but to multiply this yearly income by the said quotient, and the product is esteemed to be the value in cash.

The fallacy of this way of computation will be obvious, if we consider the consequence: for instance, admit I were to purchase an estate of 100l. per ann. interest of money being at 5 per cent. Both parties can expect no other terms than these, by this method of reckoning: 100 divided by 5, the quotient is 20 years value the fee, which in cash is 2000l. Now, admit that, out of this estate, I must pay 12l. per ann. parochial assessments (exclusive of the king's tax) and 3l. per ann. more for repairs; then it is plain, that I shall receive no more clear than 85l. for the income of my 2000l. To find what rate of interest I have for my money, let the

$$\text{rate be } = r; \text{ then } \frac{100}{r} \times 85 = 2000; \text{ consequently } r = \frac{8500}{2000} = \frac{8,5}{2} = 4,25; \text{ that is, } 4 \text{ and } \frac{1}{4} \text{ per cent.}$$

The common argument for this is, that a man would rather take $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on landed security, than 5 on the common security for money; this is plausible, but it is a wrong way of computing: let us suppose again, that the estate I would purchase were of the same yearly value (100 l.) as before, and that the price at which I must purchase be likewise 2000 l. admit also, that, in this latter, the outgoings be no more than 4 l. a year (as the case may be in different parishes and circumstances): upon this supposition I have 96 l. per ann. income for my 2000 l. which is above $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. that is, 11 s. per cent. more than in the former case. So that upon the whole, by this way of computation, a man may purchase an annuity, in one place, of $\frac{1}{8}$ yearly value more than he can in another, for the same sum of money. And although the difference of these outgoings be sometimes made a ground for cavil in the treaty, yet all that is said about it, amounts to nothing conclusive on either side. But,

2. With respect to such as hold for a certain number of years, the common method, if it be deficient in nothing else, is so in this respect, that no difference is made in the security for the rack-rent, and of that for the reserved rent, rates, taxes, &c. The best of the usual methods, for estimating the value, being to deduct the outgoings, and value the remainder as an annuity, for the number of years that the estate is to continue at legal interest: whereas a man may reasonably expect more interest for laying out his money on such a tenure, because he binds and incumbers the whole estate for the payment of an annuity (for such are the outgoings) thereby taking all casualties upon himself. Thus if a man, for want of opportunity, keeps his money by him, he pays nothing out of what it would bring in, if it were at interest; it is different in this purchase; here the outgoings must be paid, whether the estate brings in any thing or no.

3. The ordinary valuation of copyhold estates was still more fallacious than either of the former; those who held for lives, no regard was had to the probabilities of life (a matter very considerable) neither was there any allowance made for the money paid out in a regular way: to instance some particulars: and, first, in valuing three lives absolute (or 99 years determinable on 3 lives, which is the same to all intents, as to the value) the general rule was formerly, to reckon it as a lease of 21 years certain; which, by the tables for that purpose at 5 per cent. is worth, in ready money, 12,82 years value, and no more, for 3 lives; the first of which they esteemed worth 6 years, the second 4, and the third 2,82; so that to renew 2 lives, in reversion of one, would cost 7 years, or one in reversion of 2, three years value: and this was the constant expectation, what age soever the life or lives in esse were of, at the time of renewing.

This way of computing was corrected by another, which is likewise, in several respects erroneous. For, By this other method (which is still in practice) a lease for one life may be reckoned equivalent to one of 9, 10, 11, or 12 years, &c.

That for two lives, at 17, 19, 21, or 23 years, &c.

That for three lives, as a lease of 24, 27, 30, or 33 years, &c.

Though this latter method is a little more plausible than the former, by reason of the steward's liberty of chusing which of these proportions he pleases, yet what analogy does this bear to the reason of the thing? For, if the different numbers are to be chosen according to the age or goodness of the lives, or the different value of the outgoings, or both, how do they bear any proportion to each other? At best, it is but groping in the dark; no one can give such a reason for his choice as will weigh with an unprejudiced person, that the value thereby attained is just and reasonable. By this method, at 6 per cent.

One life is worth 6,8, or 7,4, or 7,9, 8,4 years value.

Two lives are worth 10,5—11,2—11,8—12,3 years value.

Three lives are worth 12,5—13,2—13,8—14,3 years value.

This was always the rule, without any regard to the different ages of the lives, or the greater or less burden of the poor, &c. Whence it appears, that, when three lives are valued at 14 years, they value one in reversion of two, at two years, two in reversion of one, at six years, and the one life in possession, at eight years purchase: if ever these numbers agree with the real value, it is by chance; as will more evidently appear, when we consider the probabilities of life, and the value of the chances relating thereto.

Another particular under this head, is that of renewing leases for years, of church or college lands; wherein the advantage of the lessees is very evidently made appear, by an anonymous author, who wrote in the year 1731*, in a letter published to that purpose; at the end of which letter is a table †, for renewing any number of years lapsed in a lease for 21 years.

* This tract is intitled, The Value of Church and College Leases considered: And the advantage of the Lessees made very apparent, dated July the 1st, 1718.

† A T A B L E, for the renewing of any number of years lapsed in a lease for 21 years.

Years lapsed.	11 l. 11 s. 8 d. per cent.			5 per cent.			6 per cent.			8 per cent.			10 per cent.		
	Years.	Months.	Decimals parts.	Years.	Months.	Decimals parts.	Years.	Months.	Decimals parts.	Years.	Months.	Decimals parts.	Years.	Months.	Decimals parts.
1	0	0	1	2	0	1	1	3	0	0	2	4	0	0	6
2	0	0	2	5	0	2	2	8	0	2	1	2	0	1	4
3	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	5	0	3	2	2	0	1	3
4	0	1	2	7	1	2	0	5	1	1	0	4	0	2	5
5	0	2	1	6	1	3	2	8	1	2	1	8	1	0	8
6	0	3	0	6	2	1	2	3	2	0	0	6	1	0	4
7	1	0	0	0	2	3	2	0	2	1	2	6	1	1	3
8	1	0	2	6	3	1	2	1	2	3	1	9	2	0	5
9	1	1	2	5	3	3	2	4	3	1	1	5	2	1	0
10	1	2	2	7	4	2	0	1	3	3	1	5	2	3	8
11	2	0	0	3	5	0	1	1	4	1	1	8	3	1	0
12	2	1	1	3	5	2	2	5	4	3	2	5	3	3	6
13	2	2	2	8	6	1	1	2	5	2	0	6	4	1	7
14	3	0	1	8	7	0	0	3	6	0	2	1	4	3	3
15	3	2	1	3	7	2	2	8	6	3	1	1	5	1	4
16	4	0	1	5	8	1	2	8	7	2	0	6	6	0	2
17	4	2	2	5	9	1	0	2	8	1	0	5	6	2	7
18	5	1	1	3	10	0	1	1	9	0	1	0	7	1	9
19	6	0	0	9	10	3	2	4	9	3	2	1	8	0	9
20	6	3	1	5	11	3	1	3	10	3	0	8	9	0	8
Total value.				Tot. value.			Tot. value.			Tot. value.			Tot. value.		
7 3 0 3				12 3 0 8			11 3 0 1			10 0 0 2			8 2 1 7		

The customary method of doing this, is, to deduct the rent reserved out of the rack-rent, and then one year's value is the fine for renewing seven years, now this method, compared with that used by the laity in such cases, will stand thus:

A lease for 7 years, in reversion of another lease of 14 years in church or college lands, is sold for - - - - - } 1 year's value.
A lease for the same term, of other lands, at 6 per cent. is sold for, and is really worth - - - } $2\frac{1}{2}$ years value.

Thus it appears, that the former lessors have not above $\frac{2}{3}$ of the value of what they sell. The before-mentioned author hath made it plainly appear, that the tenants in church lands have (when they renew their leases) after the rate of 11 l. 11 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. interest for the money they lay out; which is such a rate, as will fix on them the guilt of extortion in a high degree.

At the first view of this preposterous way of dealing, the public were much at a loss to find what should induce clergymen, fellows of colleges, &c. to give away, what they had so just a title to, from themselves and families. But it seems to be cleared up by what was then urged by Mr. Richards.

‘ The reading the aforementioned letter, says he, confirmed the truth of the matter of fact, but then it gives no light into the reasons of it's being so. The author ingeniously aggravates the guilt and shame of the oppression, but how the landlords should be induced to grant such terms (if it be in their power to advance the fine) he is silent. It is certain, that the keeping the estates in hand would be more advantageous than to lease them out for less than half the value; and as it is as certain, that the tenants would advance at least a part of what is under value, rather than refuse a bargain that would still be better than any the laity would grant them.

‘ To say, that, by following the rules fixed by their predecessors of 180 years ago, they think they do themselves and successors justice, is to brand them with a degree of ignorance they cannot be possessed with. For the statute of 37 Hen. VIII. was made to reduce interest of money to 10 per cent. which shews, that it was higher before that time; and hence, if this was the custom of renewing these leases at this time, it carried reason with it: but why the custom should continue after the reason of it ceased, is still to be accounted for.

‘ In order to explain this seeming paradox, the deans and chapters, fellows of colleges, &c. must be considered in a double capacity: first, as they are a society, and, as such, have a right to divers lands, with power to make and renew leases of these lands for a term of years: but then, secondly, in their private capacity, they have a right to the money brought in by these leases, to be disposed of at their own will and pleasure.

* And now, if it can be made appear, that it is for the worldly advantage of the members of these societies, in regard to their private capacity, to keep the leases filled at this low rate, rather than let them run out, and thereby hazard their never having an opportunity to make any advantage to themselves; I say, if this can be shewn, then I doubt not but every one will suspect, that it is this god of the world, that tempts them to do a thing so prejudicial to themselves as a society.

That the value of renewing, or filling up these leases is different with respect to these different circumstances, will appear by the solution of these following queries, viz.

Quere 1. What is the value of renewing 7 years lapsed in a lease of 21 years, at 5 per cent.?

The answer will be about three years value.

Quere 2. What is the value of renewing 7 years lapsed in a lease of 21, to continue, if one life should so long happen to live, at 6 per cent.?

This to a man of about 50 years of age, by a rational computation deduced from the probabilities of life, is worth no more than one year's value.

Wherefore the man that receives one year's value for renewing such a lapse, receives as much as it is worth on the chance of his own life; (and he can enjoy it no longer, if it falls into his hands): but, as the lease is good for the term absolute, the lessor grants away the right of his successors; these successors do the like by the next, and so on, and have nothing for it. And this they chuse to do only, or chiefly, it seems, because the tenants are obstinate, and will not break through a custom that is so profitable to them, altho' the reason for establishing the custom is ceased long ago.

We shall now proceed to give some farther account of the absurdities in the common method of valuing copyholds; but the customs of manors being so various, it would be endless to run through them all; we shall therefore proceed to the fourth sort of tenures before-mentioned.

4. In these, estates for 99 years, determinable on the death of 1, 2, or 3 lives, the method of valuing is generally the same with those on lives before-mentioned, and is consequently liable to the same mistakes. As this kind of tenure is very common, at least in the western counties, so the most care ought to be taken in adjusting the value, and, if possible, such rules laid down, as may include all the circumstances, viz. all the incumbrances of rates, taxes, repairs, high rents, &c. and all the casualties; which are different, according to the quality and situation of the estate. All these should be duly considered, and a proper allowance made, before the value of the lease can be determined.

That the common way of estimation doth not provide for these differences in any regular manner is evident, and therefore must of necessity be deficient on that account.

Previous to the ascertaining the value of leases, it will be necessary to have a right understanding of the following particulars:

1. The nature of the tenure, and term of continuance (as near as may be) of the estate to be purchased; and whether the lord hath a full, or only a conditional power of granting it for such a term.

2. The casualties, incumbrances, and impositions that go along with the estate, and how far the possessor of the estate is liable to them.

3. The quality of the estate, as to the present condition of repair; what it will cost to put the same in good repair, and how much per ann. afterwards to keep it in that condition, during the term to be purchased.

4. This rate of interest for money, together with the analogy that the common security for money lent bears to the security for the income of the estate to be purchased.

5. The yearly value. Here great care must be taken, that it be not fixed too high nor too low; for it is not always the rent that an estate is lett for, that is the value of it. A landlord may lett out an estate for more or less than it is really worth, according to the necessities or convenience of himself or tenant.

Besides these, there may be other accidental circumstances that attend particular tenures; but these being the principal, we shall take notice of them, and leave the less material to be considered by the parties concerned.

1. As to the nature of the tenure, enough hath been already said: but the continuance of the term, which is often during 1, 2, or 3 lives, is a matter very precarious, because nobody can tell how long these lives will continue in being: wherefore, since the certain knowledge of this is out of our reach, the best we can do is to inform ourselves of the most probable consequences in those respects: and, though, in regard to these uncertainties, the buyer must be said to purchase a chance, yet the real value of chances, as such, may be found to a tolerable degree of certainty: to do which, let the following hypothesis be assumed, viz.

* The probability that a life of any given age will continue in being, 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. years, is exhibited by Dr. Halley's tables, published in the Philos. Transf. No. 196, or may be deduced therefrom.' See the article ANNUITIES.

VOL. II.

Nobody will undertake to prove, that this is mathematically certain: for it is evident, that the nature of the thing will not admit of that degree of certainty. The deficiency that the learned doctor seemed to apprehend in it, was the want of a great number of years experience; but it will, we apprehend, cause but a small error in the result, if the numbers in the doctor's table should, on future experience, be a little varied. To proceed:

If the lord, from whom you purchase, has no more, or will grant no more than a conditional right, then the value of the hazard of such conditions must be computed, whether it depend on a chance, or otherwise, and that sum must be deducted as prudence shall direct.

2. By casualties we understand such unforeseen accidents which an estate is exposed to; as fire and inundation, whereby houses are liable to be consumed, wears, banks, &c. demolished, and cattle destroyed, to which some estates are more liable than others. Beside, is the estate likely to be always tenanted? Will it not be often changing tenants, which always brings a charge? If, on a scrutiny, the hazards that a person runs by the purchase be greater or less than the common hazard in lending money, a purchaser must be allowed a proportionably greater or less interest for the money he thus lays out.

By the incumbrances and impositions that are inseparably annexed to an estate, must be understood all tythes, rents, rates, taxes, harriots, suits, services, &c. for the payment of which the estate is generally bound; consequently, these must be valued as a rent charge, or clear annuity to be paid out, when, sometimes at least, the income of the estate, as being attended with some uncertainties, &c. must be reckoned at 1 or 2 per cent. more than these outgoings.

3. As to the quality of the estate, in regard to repair: herein the greatest difficulty seems to lie; for the best that can be done is but guess-work, with respect to these disbursements. If it be out of repair at the time you purchase, the best way will be, whether it be fields or houses, or both, to procure men, well skilled in these matters, to compute the charge of putting it into tenantable condition: which charge ought to be deducted out of the value, and reckoned as so much money paid; so far the difficulty is surmounted.

But, as all estates will cost money yearly to keep them in repair, these disbursements also must be computed. Here again the judgment and experience of honest men must be your guide: for repairs of houses, &c. are dearer in one place than another, so are they more exposed to storm, &c. in one place than another. Moreover, old houses, though at first put into repair by the former supposition, are more chargeable in future repairs than those of later building; and houses, at first slightly built, are more chargeable than others of a more substantial structure. Thus sometimes it may be necessary, in estates which consist chiefly of houses, to allow $\frac{1}{3}$, at other times not above $\frac{1}{10}$ part of the annual income towards the repairs of these houses.

If the right to timber-trees, coppice-woods, corn, &c. or the profits of mines, &c. are to be also transferred to the purchaser, then, as to the former of these, they must be estimated at their present worth, and so much money added to the fine. In regard to mines, the clear yearly profit like to arise thereby, and the probable time of their continuance must be considered; and, the chances herein being more hazardous than others, perhaps the person that purchases may reasonably expect a greater rate of interest for the money he lays out in these; therefore they must be separately valued, and this value added to that of the estate before found.

4. We shall now consider the rate of interest and security for money lent, and compare it with money laid out in lands, &c. The legal interest is 5 per cent. per annum. Though a person can lawfully take no more, yet he may lay out his money for less advantage: many who lend money by way of mortgage, or purchase land security, accept of 4 and under.

But, if a man lays out his money on an estate for life only, there is no reason why he should not expect the legal interest, in regard of the uncertainty of the tenure, &c. And, indeed, he may a great deal more, if the estate purchased be houses, or the like, where the calamities are many and great; such as fire, damage by storm, bad tenants, or perhaps none at all: in these cases 6, 7, or even 8 per cent. may be little enough.—Of this more hereafter.

5. Because the value of estates is to be computed from their yearly income, due care must be taken to ascertain that. If the estate has not been lett at a yearly rent, the judgment of skilful honest men in the neighbourhood will be a good guide, as well in that as in regard to the value of all advantages and deficiencies; if it has been lett at a yearly rent, those persons can inform whether that was too much or too little, and why. By these means the value may be ascertained, by which the worth of the fee, or lease for years or lives, may be computed. It is beside necessary to be considered, whether the lessee is bound to pay a harriot or farley, either absolutely of each life, or conditionally, if the liver dies in course. In the first case, the probability of life being known, i. e. how long it is likely each life may continue in being, the value of the money, or harriot,

harriot, then to be paid, may, by the following tables, be found in ready money: and so of each life. In the second case, the probability of the lives dying in course, together with the probability as to the number of years, as before, being found, by the rules and tables hereafter laid down, the value in ready money may thence be found; which sums, so found, must be deducted out of the purchase-money.

Sometimes there is a condition in a lease for a certain sum to be paid for renewing a life, in case one should die within a time prefixed. Here the probability of all the lives living for that time being found, the value of such a privilege to the lessor, or lessee, may be found. If there be any other conditions of this kind, we presume, they may be reduced to some or other of these and the following cases.—Before we proceed to the tables, it may be requisite to say something in general of REVERSION.

By which is meant that right to an estate which is to take place after the determination of a term of years, or lives, during which it is held by some former grant.—The questions that arise, in relation to these estates in posse, are such as these:

1. What is the value of the fee, in reversion of a certain number of years, or of a life or lives in being?
2. What is the value of a term of years, to commence after the expiration of another term of years certain?
3. What is the value of a term of years, or of one, two, or three lives, in reversion for a life or lives in being, to be nominated either now, or at the end of the term in being?
4. Three persons being to enjoy an estate by equal portions, during their joint lives, the remainder to the survivor and survivors, and what is the value of each man's right?

These, and the like, are the queries that will arise about reversions; and the solution of them will appear easy enough, if we consider,

1. That the value of the estate in esse, added to the reversion, is equal to the value of the fee in possession: whence it is plain, that, subtracting the value of the present possessor's right out of the value of the fee simple, the remainder is the value of the reversion in the first query.

2. Find the value of the term of years in esse, and then add the two terms together, and find the value of that whole term; the excess in value of that whole term, above the value of the estate in esse, is the value sought in the second query.

If in the third query, the life, or lives, in reversion, be to be nominated at the time of taking, first find the value of a lease to continue during the term of all the lives, and from that value subtract that of the lives in esse; the remainder is the answer to the first part of the question: but, if the lives are to be nominated at the expiration of the right in esse, find the probable duration of the present estate in years, and also the value of one, two, or three lives, in ready money; then (from the tables for that purpose) find how much this last sum, payable at the end of the years before found, is worth in ready money also, rebate at 5 per cent. for this is the value required.

4. For a solution to the fourth question, note, that each person has a right to one third of the value of their joint lives, and to half the value of the expectation, after the death of either of the other two, and also to the whole value of the expectation, after the death of both the others; which three sums, added together, give the value for each. The value of two or three joint lives is found by the tables for that purpose, which follow.

These tables, for the more easy computing the value of annuities upon lives, are, as before observed, the result of those observations published by Dr. Halley, and are calculated according to the method laid down by Mr. Abraham De Moivre, in his treatise intitled Annuities upon Lives, &c.

But, before we proceed to these, it may be proper to give the reader here a table for finding the value of an annuity for years certain, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

Though the following tables are calculated some for every 5th, and some but for every 10th year of age; yet, it is presumed, that the common known method of equating will accommodate them, as well to any other year of age, as to any intermediate rate of interest.

TABLE I.

Shewing the value of an annuity, in years and decimal parts, for any number of years not exceeding 100, at the rate of 4, 5, 6, 7, or 8 per cent.

Years of continuance.	4per cent. Value in years.	5per cent. Value in years.	6per cent. Value in years.	7per cent. Value in years.	8per cent. Value in years.
1	0.98	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.92
2	1.88	1.86	1.83	1.81	1.78
3	2.79	2.72	2.67	2.62	2.58
4	3.61	3.55	3.46	3.39	3.31
5	4.44	4.33	4.21	4.10	3.99
6	5.23	5.07	4.92	4.77	4.62
7	5.99	5.79	5.58	5.39	5.21
8	6.57	6.46	6.21	5.97	5.75
9	7.42	7.11	6.80	6.51	6.25
10	8.09	7.72	7.36	7.02	6.71
11	8.75	8.31	7.89	7.50	7.14
12	9.37	8.86	8.38	7.94	7.54
13	9.97	9.39	8.85	8.36	7.90
14	10.55	9.90	9.29	8.74	8.24
15	11.10	10.38	9.71	9.11	8.56
16	11.60	10.84	10.15	9.45	8.85
17	12.15	11.27	10.47	9.76	9.12
18	12.64	11.69	10.83	10.06	9.37
19	13.12	12.08	11.16	10.33	9.60
20	13.57	12.46	11.47	10.59	9.82
21	14.01	12.82	11.76	10.83	10.02
22	14.43	13.16	12.04	11.06	10.20
23	14.84	13.49	12.30	11.27	10.37
24	15.25	13.80	12.55	11.47	10.53
25	15.60	14.09	12.78	11.65	10.67
26	15.96	14.37	13.00	11.83	10.81
27	16.31	14.64	13.21	11.99	10.93
28	16.64	14.90	13.40	12.14	11.05
29	16.97	15.14	13.59	12.28	11.16
30	17.27	15.37	13.76	12.41	11.26
31	17.57	15.59	13.93	12.55	11.35
40	19.78	17.08	15.03	13.39	11.91
50	21.47	18.25	15.67	13.83	12.17
60	22.61	18.93	16.17	14.00	12.34
70	23.39	19.34	16.34	14.11	12.42
80	23.90	19.58	16.50	14.15	12.46
90	24.26	19.75	16.59	14.18	12.47
100	24.50	19.85	16.64	14.20	12.48
The fee sim.	25	20	16.66	14.29	12.50

In this, and the following tables, the numbers at the left-hand of the points are years, and the remaining figures are decimals of a year. I suppose there will be no difficulty to understand the value of these decimal parts; but, if there should, it may be very useful, to such as are wholly unacquainted with decimals, only to take the half of the decimal, and reckon it for so many weeks: thus, against 40 years of continuance, you will find, under 4 per cent. 19.78; the 19 shews so many years, and the half of 78, being 39, shews so many weeks: therefore an annuity for 40 years is worth 19 years 39 weeks, or, rather, 19 years 10 months purchase nearly. See the articles ARITHMETIC and INTEREST.

TABLE II.

Shewing the present value of 1 l. payable at any number of years hence under 100, at 5, 6, 7, or 8 per cent. viz.

Years.	Value at 5 per cent. in parts.	Value at 6 per cent. in parts.	Value at 7 per cent. in parts.	Value at 8 per cent. in parts.
1	.95	.94	.93	.92
2	.91	.89	.87	.86
3	.86	.84	.82	.79
4	.82	.79	.76	.74
5	.78	.75	.71	.68
6	.75	.71	.67	.63
7	.71	.67	.62	.58
8	.68	.63	.58	.54
9	.64	.59	.54	.50
10	.61	.56	.51	.46
11	.58	.53	.47	.43
12	.56	.50	.44	.40
13	.53	.47	.41	.37
14	.51	.44	.39	.34
15	.48	.42	.36	.32
16	.46	.39	.34	.29
17	.44	.37	.32	.27
18	.42	.35	.30	.25
19	.40	.33	.28	.23
20	.38	.31	.26	.21
21	.36	.29	.24	.20
22	.34	.28	.22	.18
23	.32	.26	.21	.17
24	.31	.25	.20	.16
25	.29	.23	.18	.15
26	.28	.22	.17	.13
27	.27	.21	.16	.12
28	.25	.19	.15	.11
29	.24	.18	.14	.11
30	.23	.17	.13	.10
35	.18	.13	.09	.07
40	.14	.10	.07	.05
50	.09	.05	.03	.02
60	.05	.03	.02	.01
70	.03	.017	.008	.004
80	.02	.009	.004	.002
90	.012	.005	.002	.001
100	.008	.003	.001	.0004

I suppose that an example or two will render the finding the value of these parts in money very easy.

Thus: against 15 years, and under 5 per cent. is .48
Multiply these parts by 20

In the parts given are two figures at the right-hand of the point, therefore cut off two figures in the product, and the remaining figure to the left-hand is 9.60 shillings

Again: multiply these parts by 12

And cut off, as before, then the figures at the left-hand are pence 7.20

Hence the parts 48 is the same with 9 s. 7 d. $\frac{2}{10}$.

Again: opposite to 70 years, under 7 per cent. is .008
20

00.160

12

1.920

Hence the value in money is 1 d. $\frac{2}{10}$, &c.

TABLE III.

Shewing the value (in years and decimal parts) of annuities to continue 7, 10, 14, or 21 years, if a person of a given age live so long, calculated to every 10th year of age, at 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

Annuity for 7 years on a life.

Age.	5 per cent. Years.pts.	6 per cent. Years.pts.	7 per cent. Years.pts.	8 per cent. Years.pts.
2	5.11	4.94	4.77	4.62
7	5.43	5.24	5.06	4.88
12	5.59	5.40	5.21	5.04
22	5.55	5.36	5.18	5.00
32	5.42	5.24	5.06	4.88
42	5.27	5.10	4.92	4.74
52	5.07	4.91	4.76	4.59
62	4.80	4.64	4.38	4.13
72	3.92	3.80	3.69	3.58
79	2.64	2.58	2.52	2.46

Annuity for 10 years on a life.

Age.	5 per cent. Years.pts.	6 per cent. Years.pts.	7 per cent. Years.pts.	8 per cent. Years.pts.
2	6.75	6.45	6.18	5.91
7	7.15	6.83	6.53	6.24
12	7.36	7.02	6.70	6.40
22	7.24	6.91	6.50	6.31
32	7.05	6.73	6.43	6.15
42	6.77	6.47	6.19	5.92
52	6.48	6.20	5.93	5.68
62	5.91	5.66	5.42	5.20
72	4.70	4.55	4.36	4.21
82	1.38	1.36	1.34	1.32

Annuity for 14 years on a life.

Age.	5 per cent. Years.pts.	6 per cent. Years.pts.	7 per cent. Years.pts.	8 per cent. Years.pts.
2	8.58	8.12	7.72	7.21
7	9.21	8.68	8.23	7.69
12	9.27	8.73	8.28	7.75
22	9.04	8.51	8.10	7.50
32	8.70	8.21	7.81	7.30
42	8.24	7.80	7.43	6.94
52	7.76	7.36	7.02	6.56
62	6.78	6.28	6.17	5.76
72	5.08	4.94	4.74	4.56

Annuity for 21 years on a life.

Age.	5 per cent. Years.pts.	6 per cent. Years.pts.	7 per cent. Years.pts.	8 per cent. Years.pts.
2	11.00	10.16	9.41	8.75
7	11.63	10.70	9.90	9.18
12	11.60	10.67	9.87	9.16
22	11.18	10.30	9.55	8.86
32	10.60	9.80	9.10	8.46
42	9.98	9.24	8.61	8.03
52	8.99	8.42	7.88	7.39
62	7.77	7.26	6.86	6.47
65	7.18	6.77	6.40	6.06

TABLE IV.

Of the value of an annuity for one life, calculated to every fifth year of age, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

Age.	Value at 4 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 5 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 6 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 7 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 8 per cent. Years.pts.
2	15.28	13.56	11.92	10.59	9.64
7	17.32	15.30	13.42	11.79	10.69
12	17.20	15.23	13.36	11.72	10.67
17	16.68	14.73	12.99	11.47	10.46
22	16.05	14.14	12.54	11.14	10.17
27	15.18	13.46	11.97	10.73	9.78
32	14.30	12.79	11.47	10.38	9.46
37	13.40	12.10	10.90	9.90	9.07
42	12.50	11.27	10.24	9.37	8.62
47	11.58	10.49	9.58	8.82	8.16
52	10.50	9.65	8.91	8.25	7.68
57	9.31	8.70	8.11	7.58	7.10
62	8.04	7.53	7.08	6.66	6.29
67	6.53	6.21	5.90	5.60	5.32
72	5.21	4.98	4.78	4.56	4.38
77	3.52	3.40	3.29	3.19	3.09
82	1.41	1.38	1.36	1.34	1.32

TABLE V.

Of the value of an annuity for two joint lives (to continue till one of them dies) of equal ages, calculated to every fifth year of age, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

Age.	Value at 4 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 5 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 6 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 7 per cent. Years.pts.	Value at 8 per cent. Years.pts.
2	10.89	10.04	9.24	8.50	7.84
7	13.04	12.08	11.16	10.26	9.37
12	13.01	12.05	11.13	10.22	9.32
17	12.36	11.42	10.60	9.76	8.95
22	11.64	10.80	10.00	9.24	8.53
27	10.80	10.12	9.43	8.73	8.04
32	9.94	9.41	8.83	8.19	7.49
37	9.07	8.61	8.12	7.58	7.01
42	8.21	7.78	7.36	6.94	6.52
47	7.37	7.02	6.69	6.36	6.02
52	6.52	6.26	6.00	5.75	5.49
57	5.58	5.44	5.25	5.04	4.84
62	4.63	4.53	4.42	4.27	4.10
67	3.70	3.63	3.56	3.48	3.40
72	2.73	2.68	2.60	2.58	2.53
77	1.68	1.66	1.64	1.62	1.60
82	0.55	0.54	0.54	0.53	0.53

TABLE

LEA

TABLE VI.

Shewing the value of annuities for two joint lives of any ages (that is to continue 'till one of them dies) calculated to every 10th year of either of their ages, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

One life 2 years old.					
Age.	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
2	10.89	10.04	9.24	8.50	7.84
12	11.88	10.99	10.11	9.28	8.48
22	11.28	10.40	9.60	8.87	8.21
32	10.37	9.68	9.01	8.35	7.67
42	9.36	8.77	8.19	7.62	7.07
52	8.17	7.74	7.31	6.88	6.45
62	6.59	6.29	5.99	5.70	5.41
72	4.52	4.37	4.22	4.07	3.93
82	1.33	1.31	1.29	1.27	1.25
One life 12 years old.					
12	13.01	12.05	11.13	10.22	9.32
22	12.37	11.41	10.50	9.67	8.88
32	11.27	10.96	9.84	9.11	8.39
42	10.52	9.47	8.84	8.22	7.64
52	8.73	8.39	7.84	7.38	6.91
62	6.54	6.68	6.39	6.08	5.75
72	4.71	4.57	4.42	4.26	4.10
82	1.35	1.34	1.32	1.30	1.28
One life 22 years old.					
22	11.64	10.80	10.00	9.24	8.53
32	10.82	10.09	9.11	8.73	8.05
42	9.65	9.22	8.45	7.92	7.45
52	8.42	8.00	7.55	7.12	6.67
62	6.71	6.43	6.15	5.88	5.61
72	4.58	4.45	4.32	4.20	4.09
82	1.44	1.33	1.31	1.29	1.27
One life 32 years old.					
32	9.94	9.41	8.83	8.19	7.49
42	8.97	8.54	8.03	7.53	7.04
52	7.89	7.54	7.19	6.78	6.38
62	6.39	6.14	5.89	5.62	5.35
72	4.43	4.31	4.18	4.03	3.88
82	1.31	1.30	1.28	1.26	1.25
One life 42 years old.					
42	8.21	7.78	7.36	6.94	6.52
52	7.26	6.92	6.58	6.25	5.96
62	5.93	5.71	5.49	5.29	5.09
72	4.27	4.12	3.96	3.81	3.71
82	1.28	1.27	1.25	1.24	1.23
One life 52 years old.					
52	6.52	6.26	6.00	5.75	5.49
62	5.42	5.24	5.06	4.88	4.70
72	3.92	3.83	3.73	3.63	3.50
82	1.25	1.23	1.22	1.20	1.19
One life 62 years old.					
62	4.63	4.53	4.42	4.27	4.10
72	3.46	3.38	3.30	3.21	3.13
82	1.18	1.17	1.16	1.14	1.12
One life 72 years old.					
72	2.73	2.68	2.63	2.58	2.52
82	1.04	1.03	1.03	1.01	1.00
One life 82 years old.					
82	0.55	0.54	0.54	0.53	0.53

The use of the foregoing table is very easy: for, the age of one of the lives being found at the top, and that of the other in the left-hand column (as is usual in such-like tables) right against it, under the proper rate of interest, you will find the value of the annuity, in years and decimal parts; which decimal parts may be reduced to months or weeks, by the foregoing rules laid down under Tab. I.

TABLE VII.

Wherein is shewn the value of an annuity for three joint lives, in years and decimal parts, calculated to every tenth year of either of the ages, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

One life 2 years old.					
2d life.	3d life.	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.
2	2	8.44	7.97	7.49	7.01
12	12	9.03	8.60	8.11	7.60
22	22	8.69	8.21	7.73	7.26
32	32	8.17	7.87	7.50	7.09
42	42	7.49	7.25	6.90	6.52
52	52	6.69	6.44	6.13	5.85
62	62	5.55	5.31	5.06	4.92
72	72	3.98	3.89	3.78	3.67
82	82	1.25	1.23	1.21	1.20

LEA

One life 2 years old, continued.

2d life.	3d life.	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
12	12	9.70	9.23	8.75	8.21	7.58
22	22	9.31	8.85	8.37	7.85	7.30
32	32	8.66	8.28	7.89	7.43	6.92
42	42	7.94	7.60	7.24	6.86	6.46
52	52	7.04	6.79	6.50	6.28	5.88
62	62	5.82	5.65	5.46	5.24	4.98
72	72	4.12	4.04	3.93	3.82	3.68
82	82	1.28	1.27	1.27	1.26	1.25
22	22	8.94	8.50	8.04	7.58	7.05
32	32	8.35	8.00	7.61	7.19	6.72
42	42	7.67	7.33	6.98	6.63	6.26
52	52	6.84	6.60	6.31	6.04	5.71
62	62	5.66	5.50	5.31	5.12	4.89
72	72	4.04	3.96	3.86	3.75	3.61
82	82	1.27	1.25	1.23	1.22	1.21
32	32	7.82	7.56	7.25	6.85	6.37
42	42	7.24	6.95	6.63	6.31	5.95
52	52	6.48	6.28	6.08	5.80	5.48
62	62	5.39	5.26	5.11	4.94	4.70
72	72	3.91	3.83	3.74	3.64	3.51
82	82	1.24	1.23	1.22	1.21	1.19
42	42	6.71	6.44	6.16	5.88	5.60
52	52	6.06	5.86	5.63	5.42	5.17
62	62	5.09	4.95	4.81	4.59	4.43
72	72	3.72	3.65	3.57	3.48	3.36
82	82	1.22	1.20	1.19	1.18	1.16
52	52	5.50	5.37	5.21	5.03	4.79
62	62	4.68	4.59	4.47	4.33	4.16
72	72	3.49	3.43	3.36	3.28	3.19
82	82	1.18	1.17	1.15	1.14	1.13
62	62	4.07	3.99	3.90	3.80	3.68
72	72	3.12	3.07	3.02	2.97	2.91
82	82	1.12	1.11	1.10	1.09	1.08
72	72	2.50	2.47	2.43	2.39	2.33
82	82	0.99	0.98	0.96	0.95	0.94
82	82	0.53	0.52	0.52	0.51	0.50
One life 12 years old.						
12	12	10.44	10.00	9.50	8.94	8.24
22	22	10.01	9.58	9.09	8.58	7.95
32	32	9.28	8.94	8.55	8.07	7.48
42	42	8.45	8.15	7.78	7.37	6.89
52	52	7.46	7.22	6.90	6.64	6.26
62	62	6.07	5.93	5.75	5.55	5.30
72	72	4.27	4.20	4.11	3.99	3.85
82	82	1.29	1.28	1.27	1.26	1.24
22	22	9.60	9.18	8.71	8.27	7.61
32	32	8.93	8.60	8.21	7.76	7.26
42	42	8.15	7.83	7.47	7.12	6.69
52	52	7.24	6.99	6.71	6.42	6.08
62	62	5.91	5.77	5.60	5.42	5.19
72	72	4.18	4.10	4.01	3.90	3.77
82	82	1.29	1.28	1.26	1.25	1.23
32	32	8.32	8.06	7.74	7.33	6.88
42	42	7.64	7.40	7.11	6.77	6.38
52	52	6.82	6.64	6.41	6.13	5.80
62	62	5.55	5.48	5.37	5.19	4.96
72	72	4.03	3.98	3.92	3.82	3.66
82	82	1.27	1.26	1.24	1.22	1.21
42	42	7.09	6.83	6.56	6.28	5.95
52	52	6.36	6.18	5.96	5.73	5.48
62	62	5.33	5.20	5.04	4.88	4.69
72	72	3.85	3.79	3.71	3.62	3.50
82	82	1.24	1.23	1.22	1.21	1.20
52	52	5.76	5.63	5.47	5.29	5.15
62	62	4.88	4.78	4.66	4.53	4.38
72	72	3.61	3.55	3.49	3.41	3.31
82	82	1.20	1.19	1.18	1.17	1.16
62	62	4.22	4.15	4.07	3.97	3.85
72	72	3.20	3.16	3.11	3.06	3.00
82	82	1.14	1.13	1.12	1.11	1.09
72	72	2.56	2.53	2.49	2.46	2.41
82	82	1.01	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.97
82	82	0.54	0.53	0.53	0.52	0.51
One life 22 years.						
22	22	9.20	8.80	8.33	7.88	7.35
32	32	8.58	8.25	7.85	7.42	6.95
42	42	7.88	7.57	7.21	6.86	6.46
52	52	7.21	6.88	6.50	6.23	5.92
62	62	5.77	5.62	5.43	5.26	5.03
72	72	4.10	4.01	3.91	3.87	3.70
82	82	1.27	1.26	1.25	1.24	1.22
32	32	8.03	7.78	7.48	7.08	6.59
42	42	7.41	7.14	6.84	6.53	6.17
52	52	6.63	6.44	6.21	5.96	5.66
62	62	5.44	5.35	5.22	5.06	4.84
72	72	3.95	3.89	3.81	3.71	3.59
82	82	1.25	1.24	1.23	1.22	1.21
42	42	6.99	6.66	6.34	6.05	5.77
52	52	6.17	5.98	5.75	5.56	5.33
62	62	5.19	5.06	4.91	4.76	4.58
72	72	3.78	3.71	3.63	3.54	3.43
82	82	1.23	1.22	1.21	1.19	1.18

One life 22 years old, continued.

2d life	3d life	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
52	62	5.61	5.46	5.30	5.13	4.93
53	62	4.77	4.67	4.56	4.44	4.28
72	82	3.53	3.48	3.42	3.36	3.28
82	82	1.19	1.18	1.17	1.16	1.15
62	72	4.14	4.06	3.97	3.88	3.77
62	82	3.16	3.11	3.06	3.00	2.93
72	82	1.12	1.11	1.11	1.10	1.09
72	82	2.53	2.49	2.45	2.42	2.38
82	82	1.00	0.98	0.97	0.97	0.96
82	82	0.53	0.52	0.51	0.51	0.51

One life 32 years old.

32 years old.	42	52	62	72	82
42	52	62	72	82	82
52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
42	52	62	72	82	82
52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82

One life 42 years old.

42 years old.	52	62	72	82	82
52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82

One life 52 years old.

52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
52	62	72	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82

One life 62 years old.

62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
62	72	82	82	82	82
72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82

One life 72 years old.

72	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82
82	82	82	82	82	82

One life 82 years old.

82	82	82	82	82	82
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The way of finding the value of lives of any ages, howsoever combined in the foregoing tables, cannot be difficult; for, if the age of any one of the lives be found at the top, then may the age of the other two be met with in the two left-hand columns; and the value of those three joint lives is given in years and decimal parts, in the column under the given rate of interest. How to reduce those decimal parts to weeks or months, hath been already shewn: we shall therefore proceed to the consideration

Of annuities for years absolute, &c.

We shall apply the preceding tables to this purpose, by giving examples in the peculiar cases before-mentioned: in

which we shall be particular in regard to the nature of the disbursements; and to start all objections that may arise on account of the precariousness of the tenure.

Example I. There is an annuity of 40 l. payable to A clear of all outgoings; to continue for 30 years absolute; for the payment of which he has security on lands of a much greater value, what is this worth in ready money, legal interest being 5 per cent.?

For solution to this it must be considered, that in regard the security for payment is better than the common security on money lent, and also that the assessment of 2, 3, or 4 s. in the pound on interest money is hereby saved (the 40 l. per ann. being, by supposition, to be paid clear of all outgoings) the purchaser ought to be contented with less than legal interest, and, perhaps, all things duly weighed, 4. per cent. may be sufficient interest, and agreed on.

This premised, in order to solve the question, look into Table I. for the number of years in the first column, and right against it, under the rate of interest, viz. 4 per cent. you will find 17,27 decimals, which shews, that the annuity is worth so many years value: wherefore, 17,27 being multiplied by 40, the product is 1.690,8 = 16 s. the value sought in ready money.

Suppose the annuitant be to allow his proportion towards the rates and assessments, and that these deductions, exclusive of the land-tax, amount to 2 l. 10 s. a year: in this case, if the annuitant be to pay his share of the land-tax, it is reasonable that he should be allowed 4 l. 10 s. per cent. and the rest of the outgoings being deducted out of the annuity 40 l. the remainder, viz. 37 l. 10 s. must be called the annuity.

Against 30 years in Tab. I. and under 4 per cent. is 17,27 decimals; and in the same table against 30, and under 5 per cent. is 15,37. The mean between these two numbers, viz. 16,32, is the number of years answering to $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and this number multiplied by 37,5, or 37 l. 10 s. the product 612 is the value of the annuity required in the question.

Example II. Admit the farm of — were to be leased out for a term of 21 years, at the end of which, the tenant to yield it up in as good condition as he finds it.

Suppose the yearly value thereof, at a rack-rent, to be (the landlord paying tythes, and all outgoings, except the king's tax) 76 l. that can be made thereof: suppose also that those tythes, chief rents, rates, and repairs, amount to 11 l. yearly; and suppose further, that the lessor will reserve 10 l. a year rent: now, granting that the casualties, &c. to which it is exposed, make it reasonable that the purchaser should be allowed 6 per cent. for the money he lays out, what fine ought he to pay for the 21 years?

In this case it should be considered, that, though the purchaser may expect 6 per cent. for his money laid out on an estate thus encumbered, and subject to such casualties, yet as to the rates, tythes, chief rent and repairs, it being a tenure of the best kind, and liable to no deductions at all, it may be reasonably reckoned at 4 per cent. and then the reserved rent, being liable to the king's tax only, may be considered as an annuity at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. These things premised, the matter will stand thus:

The rack-rent is an annuity of 76 l. per ann. subject to divers incumbrances, casualties, &c. and therefore, 6 per cent. interest, being allowed 21 years continuance, is worth per Tab. I. 11,76 years value, which amounts to 894 l.

Out of this, the parson, the parish, the chief lord, &c. have an annuity paid clear, which (on the best computation that can be made of it) amounts to 11 l. yearly: this at 4 per cent. is worth per Tab. I. 14,01 years value, which in cash amounts to 154 l.

The reserved rent is an annuity of 10 l. yearly, subject to the king's tax only, and therefore to be valued at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. which, per Tab. I. (due equation being made) is worth 13,41 years value, which in cash amounts to 134 l.

Lastly, If these two mentioned sums of 154 l. and 134 l. be deducted out of the whole value, the remainder, or 506 l. is the sum that ought to be paid by the purchaser, for the grant of 21 years in the farm. Our being so very particular in this example will excuse expatiating so largely again.

Example III. An estate in houses containing divers tenements, to be lett for a term of 21 years; the whole yearly rent amounts to 50 l. the charge of putting the houses in repairs is about 40 l. and of keeping them so during the term 7 l. per ann. the outgoings in rates, &c. 4 l. a year, rent reserved 3 l. a year. In regard of the situation, casualties, hazard of bad tenants, or of none at all, &c. the purchaser ought to be allowed 7 l. per cent. Quere, What fine ought he to pay?

An annuity of 50 l. for 21 years at 7 per cent. 1.541 10 0
Out of which deduct

An annuity of 11 l. for the same time, at 4 per cent. 154 0 0

An annuity of 3 l. for 21 years, at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. 40 0 0

The charges of putting the same into repair 40 0 0

The remainder, after these deductions, is the answer to the query 307 10 0

Note, If it be considered that houses are liable to accidents by fire, and that, where the estate (as in this instance) consists of divers tenements, the charge of tenants always brings a charge of repairs with it, and very often loss of rent: these things considered, 7 l. per cent. we apprehend, will be judged little enough to be allowed the purchaser.

Example IV. Out of a lease for 30 years in an estate which is 6 per cent. costs 700 l. there is lapsed 17 years: what must be given at the same rate of interest, to renew the said 17 years?

In Tab. I. against 30, and under 6 per cent. you find 13,76, by which dividing 700, the quotient is 50,85: this is the annuity, which was at first purchased for 700 l.

The value of an annuity of 50 l. 17 s. to continue } 1. 700
30 years at 6 per. cent. is - - - - -
The value for 13 years at the same rate, by the } 450
same table, is - - - - -

The remainder, after subtraction, is the sum to be paid for renewing the 17 years lapsed - - - } 250

Example V. An estate in fields, only worth 70 l. per ann. out of which is issued a chief rent of 1 l. per ann. and the rates and tythes thereof amount (exclusive of the king's tax) to 12 l. a year: what is the fee in reversion of a lease of 40 years worth in ready money, the accidents and casualties very few, or none at all?

Here the nett produce of the estate is 57 l. a year: And 57 l. per ann. to continue for ever, is equal to a fee simple, if it were in possession; which at } 1. 1267
4½ per cent. is - - - - -

The value of the lease for 40 years, by the tables } 1050
and multiplication, is at 4½ per cent. - - - - -

This last value, subtracted from the former, leaves } 217
the value of the reversion - - - - -

In this last example, the security that the purchaser has for the rack-rent, is near as good as that for the payment of the outgoings; on which account, the outgoings are first deducted from the yearly value, and the remainder is reckoned as an annuity: but, generally speaking, it ought to be done otherwise, viz. by reckoning the whole rent as an annuity, to be received at a proper rate of interest, and then to compute the outgoings as near as possible, and to value that sum as an annuity to be paid out; for which, generally, the rate of interest ought to be 10 s. and sometimes 1 l. per cent. less than the legal interest on money.

Having given these cautions, we shall, in all that follows, call this last mentioned annuity, the sum paid out: which shall include all rates, tythes, repairs, or the like disbursements, which go along with the tenure; and which must be judiciously computed, before the just value of the purchase can be obtained.

In the preceding examples, a difference is made in the reserved rent, and other outgoings; for this reason, that, when the reserved rent amounts to 20 s. or upwards, the landlord is to allow the tenant a proportion towards the king's tax, and therefore ½ per cent. more should be reckoned for it, than for clear annuities, such as rates, tythes, repairs, &c.

Of COPYHOLDS.

Method leads us next to shew, how, by the foregoing tables, the value of estates held from deans and chapters, colleges, &c. for terms of years, or for life or lives, renewable at certain periods on fixed conditions, or otherwise, may be found; and, to this purpose, the following examples may be acceptable.

Example I. A tenement of church lands of 30 l. per. ann. rent, to be leased on the condition that the tenant pay at the end of every seven years 30 l. or one year's value for ever; what ought to be paid for the first purchase, the sum paid out yearly 4 l. and the rate of interest to the purchaser 6 per cent.?

Note, Though, perhaps, no bishops, deans, or fellows of colleges, do or can grant their leases on such absolute conditions of renewing; yet, in effect, it is all one to the tenant; for they always think themselves sure of these terms, and the common practice has confirmed it: by this example, therefore, shall be shewn, how much they ought to pay for the first purchase.

The value of the fee at 6 per cent. is, by the foregoing tables, 16½ years purchase - - - } 1. 500
Deduct the value of the sum paid out at 4 per cent. } 100
25 years - - - - -

Remainder is the value of the estate in fee - - - 400
For the value of the septennial payment of 30 l. per. Tab. I. an annuity of 1 l. to continue 7 years at 4 per cent. is worth 5,99, and per Tab. II. the present value of 1 l. to be paid at the end of 7 years, is (at 4 per cent.) .760. Wherefore, dividing .760 by 5,99, the quotient .1269, being multiplied by 30, produces 3,84 = 3 l. 16 s. 1 d. ½. This is the sum that may be paid yearly as an equivalent for the 30 l. that is to be paid at the end of every 7 years: consequently, an annuity of that value to continue for ever, must be deducted out of the value of the fee before found.

Thus the value of that annuity at 4 per cent. is } 1. 95
worth 25 years value, or - - - - -

Hence the remainder, after subtraction, is the sum that should be paid for the first purchase, viz. } 305

Example II. What is the sum to be paid for renewing of 7 or 14 years lapsed in a lease of 21, in an estate of 40 l. per ann. at 6 per cent. the sum paid out being 6 l. per ann.?

The value of the yearly rent for 21 years, at } 1. 470 00
6 per cent. is - - - - -
Deduct the value of the sum paid out, at 4 per } 84 00
cent. - - - - -

Remainder is the value of the 21 years - - - 386 00

The value of 14 years at 6 per cent. - - - 371 12
The value of the sum paid out for that time - - - 63 6

Remains the value of the estate of 14 years in } 308 6
effe - - - - -

Hence the sum to be paid for the renewing of } 77 14
the 7 years should be - - - - -

Again:

The value of the 21 years, as above, is - 386 00
The value of 7 years, the time in effe, at 6 per } 223 00
cent. - - - - -

The value of the sum to be paid out for that time 36 00

Remains the value of the 7 years in effe - 187 00

Hence the sum to be paid for the renewing of } 199 00
14 years lapsed should be - - - - -

And by the like process, may the value of renewing any number of years be found, without any difficulty, by the tables before-mentioned.

Example III. to find the value of a lease of 7, 10, 14, or 21 years, if a person of a given age should so long happen to live.

Let the yearly rent be 50 l. the rate of interest 6 per cent. the sum to be paid out 7 l. per ann. and the person's age 42 years, what is the value?

By Tab. III. the value of the annuity for 7 years } 1. 255
on the given age, at 6 per cent. is 5,10 years, or
Deduct the value of the outgoings taken from the } 39
same table, at 4 per cent. 5,6 years value - - - - -

Remainder is the sum to be paid for 7 years, on a } 216
life of 42 years old - - - - -

By the like method of proceeding, the value of 10 } 274
years on the same life is - - - - -

That for 34 years is worth - - - 329

That for 21 years is worth - - - 286

Example IV. Admit there be 7 years lapsed in the former lease of 21 years, what is the value of renewing the said lapse?

First, The value of a lease of 21 years to a person } 1. 364
of 49 (for that will be now the age) is - - - - -

Secondly, the value of the lease for 14 years on } 316
the same life of 49 to be deducted - - - - -

Remainder is the value for renewing 7 years - - - 48

Let there be 10 years lapsed in the same lease, then } 353
by the like process the value of a lease of 21 years
to a life of 52, at 6 per cent. is - - - - -

The lease of 11 years in effe is worth - - - 282

The remainder, after subtraction, is the sum to be paid for renewing - - - 71

By these examples it is apparent, that the value of renewing 7 years lapsed in the lease of 21, is, to the person that purchases it, absolutely worth almost twice as much, as it is to him that can enjoy it only conditionally, viz. if a person of 42 years of age live so long.

Example V. What is a lease for 7 years absolute, in reversion of a life of 52 years old, worth in ready money, on an estate worth 60 l. per ann. at 5 per cent. interest, the sum paid out being 9 l. per ann. and to be valued at 4 per cent.?

The value of a life of that age, and at that rate of } 1. 579
interest, as may be found by Tab. IV. is 9,65
years purchase, or - - - - -

This number 9,65 being found in Tab. I. under 5 } 757
per cent. against it in the first column (by making
due equation) is 13,51, which shews that the life
is reckoned to continue in being so many years; to
this add 7, the term of the reversion, the sum is
20,51; against which in Tab. I. under 5 per cent.
is 12,62, for the year's value of the rent during
both terms, which in money is - - - - -

The remainder, after subtraction, is the value of the } 178
rent in reversion, if it were to be paid clear of
outgoings, that is - - - - -

The value of the sum paid out at 4 per cent. during } 94
the life in effe, is 10,50 years value - - - - -

The

The number 10,50 found in Tab. I. under 4 per cent. answers to 13,96 years; this added to 7, the years of the reversion, makes 20,96; to which number of years in the same table, answers under 4 per cent. 13,96: that is in money } 1. 128
The difference of these two sums is the value of the sum paid out } 34
This last sum subtracted from the sum before found, viz. the value of the rent, leaves the value of the reversionary lease required } 144

Of leases for one, two, or three lives.

It has been observed before, that the value of a lease for 99 years, determinable on the death of one, two, or three lives, is the same with that of a lease on those lives absolute: so that we shall make no difference, but call them all leases on life, or lives.

Example I. A man of 37 years of age is possessed of an estate for his life of 65 l. per ann. the yearly outgoings of which are as follow, viz.

	l. s.
To the lord's rent	3 00
To the church and poor's rates	3 00
To tythes	5 10
To repairs (one year with another)	2 10
How much is the lessee's right worth in ready money at 5 per cent.?	
In Tab. IV. the value of a life of 37 years, at 5 per cent. is 12,10 years in cash.	786 10

The value of the same life at 4 per cent. by the same table, is 13,40 years value, which, for the rates, tythes, and repairs, amounts to	147 00
The value of the same life, at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is 12,70 years, which for the high rent is	38 00

The whole sum to be deducted is 185 00

And hence the value required is 601 10

Example II. What is the value, in the same estate, of two joint lives, one of which is 12; the other 32 years old, and the estate to be extinct, when one of them dies?

Out of Tab. VI. take the value of the two joint lives at 5 per cent. for the rent which is 10,56 years, this, multiplied by 65, produces	686 00
From the same table, the value of the joint lives at 4 per cent. is 11,27 years; which multiplied into 11 l. the yearly outgoings in rates, tythes, and repairs, produces	124 00
By the same table, the value at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is 10,92 years value, which multiplied by 3 l. the yearly rent to the lord, produces	33 00
Hence the value of the estate for two joint lives, that is, to continue 'till one of them dies, is	529 00

Example III. To find the value of three joint lives, on the same estate, one of which is 12, another 22, and the third 42 years old.

From Tab. VII. finding the age of the youngest at the top, the next at the left-hand column, and the other in the second column to the left-hand, under 5 per cent. take out the value of the three joint lives, which is 7,83 years; this drawn into 65, the yearly rent produces	509 00
At the same place (under 4 per cent.) you find 8,15, which multiplied by 11 l. the product is	90 00
Again: In the same table, the number answering to $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is 8,00; this, for the high rent, 3 l. per ann. is worth	24 00
These two last sums being subtracted out of the former, the remainder is the value of a lease to continue as long as all three of the lives remain in being	395 00

Example IV. An Estate of bad houses meanly situated, containing divers small tenements, in all (when full of tenants) of the yearly value of 50 l. to be leased for the term of one, two, or three lives, and the longest liver of them, the purchaser to have 6 per cent. for his money: the sum to be paid out in rates, repairs, and high rents (which last is under 20 s. per ann. and therefore to be reckoned as a clear annuity, as well as the other disbursements) amounts to 6 l. a year: what must be paid for the purchase?

First, for one life aged 67 years.	
This, for the whole rent, by Tab. IV. is worth, at 6 per cent. 5,90 years purchase; which, in cash, at 50 l. a year, amounts to	295 00
The value of the sum to be paid out at 4 per cent. is 6,53 years, or	39 00

The value of a lease for one life	256 00
Secondly, For the value of two lives, one 67, the other 52, Mr. Abraham De Moivre has demonstrated, [see the article ANNUITIES] that the value of an annuity upon the longest of two lives is the remainder, after subtraction of the va-	

lue of those lives jointly taken, from the sum of their values singly taken.

The yearly rent on the life of 67 years was found before to be worth	295 00
That for the life of 52 is worth	445 00

The sum is	740 00
The value of the same for the joint lives is 4,39 years, or	220 00

Remainder after subtraction is the value on the longest liver of the two	520 00
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The value of the sum paid out on the first life, at 4 per cent. is 6,53 years, or	39 00
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The value of the second life is 10,50 years, or	63 00
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The sum	102 00
On the two joint lives 4,67	28 00

The remainder after subtraction is the value of the outgoings on the longest	74 00
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The sum being subtracted from the 520 l. leaves the value required	446 00
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Thirdly, Let a third life, aged 22 years; be joined with the two before mentioned, and let the value of the estate on the longest liver of these three be required.

For the whole rent,	The life 67 years old 5,90	} Years value.
	The life 52 years old 8,91	
	The life 22 years old 12,54	

Their sum is	27,35
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The value for the three joint lives, at the same rate (viz. 6 per cent.) is	3,99
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The whole sum	31,34
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The before-mentioned ingenious author shews, that the values of the joint lives combined, two and two added together, and the sum subtracted from the foregoing sum, leaves the value of the annuity upon the longest liver of them.

Thus for the purpose:

	Years.
The value of the first and second jointly	4,39
The value of the first and third jointly	5,26
The value of the second and third jointly	7,56

The sum is	17,21
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This last sum being subtracted from the former sum, the remainder is 14,13 years for the value of the longest liver, which in cash is	707 l.
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We are next to find the value of the sum to be paid out at 4 per cent. in the same manner as the former was found.

The life of 67 years old value in years	6,53
That of 52	10,50
That of 22	16,05
The three joint lives	4,15

The sum of which is	37,23
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The first and second jointly	4,66
The first and third jointly	5,67
The second and third jointly	8,42

The sum of these three	18,75
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Remainder after subtraction	18,48
This drawn into 6, the yearly outgoings, produces in money	111 l.

This sum being subtracted from the value before found (viz. 707) leaves the value of the lease on the longest of the three lives, and at the rate of interest proposed	596
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The result of the whole operation will appear to be as follows, viz.

One life of 67 years old is worth	1. 256
Two lives, one 67, the other 52, worth	446
Three lives, aged 67, 52, and 22, worth	596

An objection, it may be presumed, will be made to what has been said, by reason of the difference that there is, or seems to be, betwixt this result, and the common way of estimation: for, says the gentleman's steward, it is always reckoned, that one life in possession is as good as two in reversion; and a third life, in reversion of two, is generally reckoned but in two years value: whereas, by this way of computing, the first life amounts but to $5\frac{1}{4}$ years value; and the other two are here worth above 7. And again: the third life in reversion of 2, in the above example, amounts to almost 3 years and an half's value: and how can this be?

In answer to which objection, it has been observed, that, though this be true in the example alledged, yet it is no deviation from reason, notwithstanding it be from the ordinary practice: and that it rather establishes the truth and necessity of this method, than is of real weight against it, will appear by another example, wherein the value of the reversions,

reversions, on account of different ages of the life or lives in possession, will, when found by this method, be thought as much too little, as those are too great.

Example V. Admit the estate to be purchased on lives be worth 40l. per ann. and of such quality, that 6 per cent. is a proper interest for the purchaser: suppose that the rates, tythes, and repairs, be 5l. per ann. and the reserved rent 2l. per ann. let 5 per cent. be allowed for the money to be paid out, and let the ages of the lives to be purchased be,

The first 32 }
The second 22 } Years old.
The third 12 }

What will be the value of one, two, or three of those lives, in the order that they are here placed?

Lives.	Number of years value for 40 l. per ann. rent.	No. of years value for the 7 l. per ann. paid out.	Value in cash after subtraction.
	At 6 l. per cent.	At 5 l. per cent.	
1st	11,47 years	12,79 years - - -	1. 370
2d	12,54 years	14,14 years - - -	402
3d	13,37 years	15,23 years - - -	428
Lives.	The value of the longest liver for the rent	The value of the longest liver for the money paid out.	Value of the remainder money.
1st and 2d	14,60 } Years.	16,84 }	1. 466
1st and 3d	14,99 }	17,46 }	477
2d and 3d	15,40 }	17,96 }	490
The value of the longest liver of the three lives for the 40l. per ann.		The value of the longest liver for the 7 l. per ann.	Value of the remainder money.
15,83 years.		18,71 years.	1. 502

By the above estimation it appears, that two lives of 22 and 12 years old, in reversion of one of 32, is worth but 132l. which is little more than $\frac{1}{3}$ of the value of the life in possession; and that two of 32 and 22, in reversion of one of 12, is of much less value, viz. no more than 74l.

Again: One of 12 in reversion of two of 32, and 22 years of age, is worth but 36l. that is less than one year's value; and, for one life of 32 in reversion of two of 12 and 22 years old, must be given no more than 12l.

Hence the great difference that arises on account of the age of the lives appears (if this method holds good) to call for a particular regard, and that even when the difference of the age of the lives is not very great, as in this example; how much more then, if the tenant should defer the renewing of his lease, till the life or lives in esse arrive to a declining age?

Thus we have endeavoured to clear up the affair, as to estates in esse, and given some light in regard to the valuation of reversions; of which we shall now speak more particularly, and shew how to find the value of such in expectancy: to do which, we shall lay down the following general rule.

From the value of the sum of the terms in possession and reversion, subtract the value of that in possession, the remainder is the sum to be paid for the reversion.

We have before shewn, how to find the value of the fee in reversion of a term of years absolute; and, from what we have last said, may be easily deduced the value of the fee in reversion of lives, or of one life in reversion of two; of two in reversion of one, by a due application of the above general rule. Something, however, may be requisite to be said of the value of a life in reversion of a term of years, to be nominated at the expiration of the said term; and of a term of years in reversion of another term of a life or lives, or of 2 or 3 joint lives; as also of the right of such two or more, as hold by joint tenancy and survivorship.

Example I. Let it be required to find how much an estate of 30l. per ann. is worth, during the continuance of a life of 22 years of age; the right to commence, and the life to be nominated, at the expiration of a term of 14 years, allowing the purchaser 6 per cent, and deducting the value of the sum paid out, viz. 4l. a year at 5 per cent.

The value of such a life in possession, for the whole rent, is by Tab. IV. 1. 376
The sum paid out is worth 56

Remains the value of the life, if it were to be entered upon immediately 320

The question then will be, What 320l. payable at the end of 14 years, is worth in ready money at the rate of legal interest, viz. 5 per cent.?

By Tab. II. we find the value of 1 l. payable at the end of 14 years, is .505 decimal parts of a pound; which, being multiplied by 320, gives the value of the reversion, viz. 162l.

By this example may be seen, the method to find the worth of 2 or 3 lives in reversion for a term of years, and also of a term of years in reversion of a term in esse.

If it be required to shew the value of a term of years in reversion of a life or lives; first find the number of years value of the estate in esse, and then, by Tab. I. see how many years it must continue to produce that value; and the value of the estate in posse, payable after the expiration of this

number of years, is the sum to be paid in hand for the expectancy.

If a life is to be nominated at the death of another, the sum to be paid for it may be found, by seeking, in the tables, the number of years of an annuity that is of equal value with each of the lives; and then find, in the table for that purpose, the value of the money that the life in posse will be worth at the death of the other, and the present value of such a sum is the sum required.

Example II. There is, at present, on an estate of 50l. per ann. one life, aged 52; the tenant would purchase another life, to be nominated at the death of the former, viz. one that shall be then 22 years old, allowing the purchaser 6 per cent.; and for the sum paid out, which is 9l. per ann. 5 per cent. what is the value of the life to be purchased?

The life in possession is worth, at 6 per cent. (for any rate may be taken for this purpose) 8,91 years.

This number found under the same rate of interest, in Tab. I. shews in the first column, that the life is as valuable as an annuity certain for the term of 13,14 years.

Hence the life that is to succeed, is to be named at the end of 13,14 years.

A life of 22 is worth, by Tab. IV. at 6 per cent. 12,54 years. And the same at 5 per cent. 14,14

Which being the number of years value that the rent and outgoings will be worth for the second life at the end of 13,14 years, the value of each, in ready money, may be found, by taking out the numbers in Tab. II. answering to the times at 5 per cent. and multiplying that by these numbers of years respectively, the two products will shew the number of years value for the rent, and for the sum paid out, Thus:

The number in Tab. II. under 5 per cent. and against 13,14, by duly equating, is 527. This, multiplied by 12,54, produces 6,61 years; and, multiplied by 14,14, produces 7,45 years.

Hence the value of the rent in money is 1. 330
And that of the sum paid out 67

Consequently the sum to be paid is 263

By the like process may be found, the value of a third life in succession of two to be named at the death of one or both of these; as of two lives to be named, one at the death of the first, another at the death of the second, or in any other manner: this, doubtless, will be easy enough to the persons concerned, without adding more examples to that purpose.

Example III. A man dying leaves to his three daughters an annuity of 20l. per ann. each, during their lives, payable out of lands of a much greater value; and he so ordered it, that, when either of them should die, her annuity should fall to the other two in equal shares; and, at the death of another of them, the whole is to come to the survivor for life: their ages at the father's death are 32, 22, and 12, what is the right of each worth in ready money at 5 per cent.?

Years.
The value of the eldest life is 12,79, or 256l.
That of the next is 14,14, or 283
The youngest worth 15,25, or 305
The joint lives of the first and second is 10,21
of the first and third is 10,56
of the second and third is 11,41 } Years.
The three joint lives are worth 8,59

For the right of the eldest daughter.
First, 20l. per ann. during her life is worth 1. 256

Secondly, 10l. per ann. in reversion of the youngest, to continue from thence during the joint lives of the other two; found by subtracting the value of the three joint lives from the value of the first and second jointly 16

Thirdly, 10l. per ann. in reversion of the second, to continue during the joint lives of the first and third, found by subtracting the value of the three joint lives, from that of the first and third jointly 20

Fourthly, 40l. per ann. in reversion of the two youngest lives during her own life, found by subtracting the value of the longest of the second and third, from that of the longest of the three lives, is 30

The whole sum of these four values is the eldest daughter's portion, viz. 321

By the like process, the second daughter's right in the estate will appear 376

And that of the third, or youngest 426

The whole value is 1123

And the truth of the work will appear, by finding, according to the method laid down, the value of the whole estate on the survivor of the three lives; which, by the tables, will be found 18,71 years purchase; and this multiplied by 60, the whole yearly value of the three annuities, the product is 1123l. as before.

Thus

Thus have we given examples in most of the useful cases of this subject; by the help whereof, any of the queries that arise about the value of leases in possession or reversion, may be solved.

REMARKS.

We might very well have concluded this article here, but, considering that this work might fall into hands, to whom what we have said on this topic might be useless, on account of the operations for finding the value of the survivorship; to do which, the numbers are required to be taken out of the several tables, and to be added, subtracted, &c. which to some persons may seem such an intricacy, as probably to discourage them from endeavouring to become masters of the subject: for the ease and convenience of such, therefore, we shall add tables of the value on the longest liver of 2 or 3 lives; where the same may be taken out at once for these purposes, and for any ages, howsoever combined, to every tenth year.

We have likewise added two other short tables, the one for finding the value of the decimal parts of a year in months; the other, shewing the value of the decimal parts of a pound in money; so that it is but to find the numbers to the right-hand of the point in the first column of the tables, and, opposite to it in another column, is the value thereof in months in one table, and in money in the other.

TABLE VIII.

Shewing the value of an annuity for two lives, that is to continue till both are dead, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent. and to every tenth year of age.

Age.	One life 2 years old.				
	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
2	19.67	17.08	14.60	12.68	11.44
12	20.60	17.81	15.17	13.03	11.83
22	20.05	17.30	14.86	12.86	11.60
32	19.21	16.67	14.38	12.62	11.41
42	18.42	16.06	13.97	12.34	11.19
52	17.61	15.47	13.52	11.96	10.87
62	16.73	14.80	13.01	11.55	10.52
72	15.97	14.17	12.48	11.08	10.09
82	15.36	13.63	11.99	10.66	9.71
	One life 12 years old.				
	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
12	21.39	18.41	15.59	13.24	12.02
22	20.88	17.96	15.40	13.19	11.96
32	20.33	17.46	14.99	12.99	11.74
42	19.58	17.03	14.76	12.87	11.65
52	18.97	16.59	14.43	12.59	11.44
62	18.30	16.08	14.05	12.30	11.21
72	17.70	15.64	13.72	12.02	10.95
82	17.26	15.27	13.40	11.76	10.71
	One life 22 years old.				
	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
22	20.46	17.48	15.08	13.04	11.81
32	19.45	16.84	14.60	12.79	11.58
42	18.90	16.39	14.33	12.61	11.34
52	18.13	15.79	13.90	12.27	11.16
62	17.38	15.24	13.46	11.92	10.80
72	16.68	14.67	13.00	11.40	10.46
82	16.12	14.19	12.59	11.19	10.23
	One life 32 years old.				
	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
32	18.66	16.17	14.11	12.17	11.43
42	17.83	15.55	13.68	12.22	11.04
52	16.91	14.90	13.21	11.85	10.76
62	15.95	14.18	12.66	11.42	10.41
72	15.08	13.46	12.07	10.91	9.96
82	14.40	12.87	11.55	10.46	9.53
	One life 42 years old.				
	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
42	16.79	14.76	13.12	11.80	10.72
52	15.74	14.00	12.57	11.37	10.34
62	14.61	13.09	11.88	10.74	9.82
72	13.44	12.13	11.06	10.09	9.29
82	12.63	11.40	10.35	9.47	8.71
	One life 52 years old.				
	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
52	14.48	13.04	11.82	10.75	9.87
62	13.12	11.94	10.93	10.03	9.29
72	11.79	10.81	9.96	9.18	8.56
82	10.66	9.80	9.05	8.39	7.81
	One life 62 years old.				
	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
62	11.45	10.53	9.74	9.05	8.48
72	9.79	9.13	9.56	8.01	7.54
82	8.27	7.74	7.28	6.86	6.48
	One life 72 years old.				
	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
72	7.69	7.28	6.93	6.54	6.24
82	5.58	5.33	5.11	4.89	4.70
	One life 82 years old.				
	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
82	2.27	2.22	2.18	2.15	2.11

TABLE IX.

Whereby is shewn the value of an annuity, in years and decimal parts, for three lives, to continue till they are all dead, at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent.

		One life 2 years old.				
		4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.
2d life.	3d life.					
	2	21.61	18.53	15.53	13.28	11.93
	12	22.14	18.95	15.85	13.44	12.21
	22	21.85	18.63	15.67	13.34	11.99
	32	21.40	18.38	15.25	13.45	11.96
	42	20.94	18.06	15.36	13.33	11.90
	52	20.52	17.69	15.02	13.02	11.76
	62	20.08	17.34	14.76	13.85	11.66
Two years old.	72	19.82	17.21	14.72	12.77	11.51
	82	19.67	17.08	14.59	12.68	11.44
	12	22.61	19.24	16.04	13.48	12.28
	22	22.31	19.00	15.98	13.42	12.21
	32	22.02	18.64	15.68	13.38	12.17
	42	21.56	18.44	15.57	13.32	12.13
	52	21.24	18.22	15.43	13.22	12.03
	62	20.93	18.02	15.33	12.15	11.90
Twelve years old.	72	20.70	17.89	15.24	12.08	11.86
	82	20.61	17.80	15.19	12.06	11.85
	22	22.12	18.74	15.84	13.47	12.08
	32	21.53	18.32	15.52	13.35	12.04
	42	21.21	18.11	15.44	13.30	11.96
	52	20.80	17.81	15.22	13.15	11.85
	62	20.45	17.61	15.11	13.06	11.76
	72	20.00	17.42	14.96	12.90	11.57
22 years old.	82	20.06	17.27	14.85	12.76	11.51
	32	21.02	17.83	15.28	13.31	12.06
	42	20.62	17.60	15.03	13.15	11.87
	52	20.13	17.22	14.86	13.01	11.74
	62	19.66	17.03	14.69	12.90	11.65
	72	19.38	16.80	14.50	12.72	11.49
	82	19.22	16.67	14.39	12.64	11.43
	32 years old.	42	20.06	17.22	14.82	13.03
52		19.55	16.91	14.62	12.89	11.63
62		19.03	16.54	14.38	12.58	11.41
72		18.56	16.20	14.14	12.46	11.29
82		18.34	16.08	14.04	12.35	11.19
52		18.92	16.49	14.31	12.61	11.40
62		18.32	16.06	14.02	12.27	11.21
72		17.73	15.68	13.71	12.10	11.01
42 years old.	82	17.62	15.48	13.52	11.98	10.88
	62	17.62	15.50	13.68	12.04	10.98
	72	17.06	15.10	13.29	11.80	10.74
	82	16.15	14.83	12.23	11.57	10.53
	72	16.43	14.57	12.84	12.38	10.35
	82	15.97	14.19	12.51	11.09	10.10
	82	15.42	13.68	12.05	10.72	9.77
	One life 12 years old.					
12 years old.	12	23.01	19.54	16.19	13.46	12.29
	22	22.71	19.30	16.12	13.46	12.28
	32	22.53	19.02	15.93	13.45	12.19
	42	22.10	18.89	15.83	13.42	12.15
	52	21.89	18.70	15.77	13.90	12.58
	62	21.69	18.51	15.64	13.27	12.11
	72	21.45	18.45	15.64	13.25	12.05
	82	21.39	18.39	15.58	13.22	12.02
22 years old.	22	22.52	19.08	16.15	13.62	12.33
	32	22.44	18.71	15.83	13.49	12.24
	42	21.76	18.54	15.82	13.46	12.18
	52	21.47	18.31	15.63	13.36	12.12
	62	21.18	18.15	15.54	13.31	12.08
	72	20.98	18.02	15.45	13.19	11.92
	82	20.86	17.95	15.38	13.19	11.96
	32 years old.	32	21.64	18.34	15.53	13.40
42		21.28	18.15	15.37	13.30	12.06
52		20.93	17.92	15.30	13.21	11.93
62		20.49	17.65	15.16	13.14	11.90
72		20.33	17.53	15.09	13.08	11.80
82		20.25	17.46	14.99	12.99	11.71
42		20.84	17.88	15.36	13.36	12.06
52		20.45	17.65	15.21	13.22	11.94
42 years old.	62	20.08	17.37	15.00	13.04	11.79
	72	19.66	17.11	14.87	12.95	11.72
	82	19.60	17.04	14.78	12.89	11.66
	52	19.98	17.12	14.97	13.00	11.77
	62	19.53	16.98	14.82	12.82	11.66
	72	19.17	16.72	14.55	12.67	11.53
	82	18.98	16.59	14.43	12.60	11.45
	52 years old.	62	18.99	16.55	14.39	12.68
72		18.54	16.27	14.22	12.45	11.34
82		18.32	16.08	14.05	12.31	11.21
72		18.03	15.90	14.06	12.20	11.12
82		17.73	15.65	13.72	12.03	10.96
82		17.31	15.30	13.43	11.79	10.73

One life 22 years old.						
	4 per cent.	5 per cent.	6 per cent.	7 per cent.	8 per cent.	
2d life.						
3d life.						
22 years old.	22.43	18.82	15.99	13.58	12.27	
	21.74	18.34	15.58	13.38	12.12	
	21.54	18.28	15.63	13.47	11.99	
	21.31	18.01	15.39	13.28	11.93	
	20.85	17.77	15.29	13.20	11.91	
	20.61	17.57	15.13	13.12	11.82	
	20.46	17.46	15.07	13.04	11.79	
32 years old.	21.14	17.91	15.31	13.33	12.09	
	20.84	17.72	15.20	13.24	11.99	
	20.27	17.39	15.00	13.10	11.87	
	19.93	17.15	14.86	13.01	11.77	
	19.70	16.95	14.69	12.83	11.62	
	19.56	16.83	14.60	12.80	11.52	
42 years old.	20.53	17.52	15.10	13.17	11.76	
	19.89	17.10	14.86	13.05	11.70	
	19.49	16.84	14.68	12.82	11.51	
	19.04	16.51	14.46	12.65	11.35	
	18.02	16.38	14.34	12.59	11.33	
52	19.30	16.64	14.56	12.78	11.59	
	18.81	16.32	14.33	12.61	11.42	
	18.37	15.97	14.05	12.36	11.28	
	18.14	15.79	13.89	12.28	11.16	
62	18.22	15.87	13.95	12.31	11.20	
	17.71	15.50	13.69	12.07	10.94	
	17.39	15.23	13.47	11.93	10.86	
72	17.11	15.01	13.28	11.70	10.62	
	16.70	14.67	13.00	11.51	10.48	
82	16.17	14.22	12.62	11.22	10.25	
One life 32 years old.						
32 years old.	20.63	17.49	15.01	13.34	12.18	
	20.18	17.18	14.81	13.13	11.84	
	19.65	16.86	14.61	13.03	11.77	
	19.28	16.58	14.44	12.87	11.68	
	18.85	16.30	14.22	12.66	11.53	
	18.68	16.17	14.12	12.60	11.44	
42 years old.	19.64	16.80	14.56	12.91	11.63	
	19.05	16.44	14.39	12.77	11.49	
	18.51	16.07	14.09	12.56	11.33	
	17.99	15.70	13.87	12.33	12.12	
	17.85	15.56	13.69	12.16	11.04	
52	18.34	15.99	14.07	12.52	11.31	
	17.72	15.45	13.74	12.29	11.14	
	17.19	15.12	13.41	12.01	10.92	
	16.93	14.91	13.22	11.89	10.77	
62	16.95	14.96	13.28	11.96	10.90	
	16.33	14.50	12.95	11.68	10.63	
	15.98	14.19	12.67	11.39	10.41	
72	15.59	13.90	12.45	11.24	10.27	
	15.12	13.48	12.08	10.93	9.97	
82	14.50	12.95	11.63	10.54	9.59	
One life 42 years old.						
42 years old.	18.94	16.35	14.30	12.74	11.52	
	17.20	15.90	14.07	12.58	11.27	
	16.67	15.46	13.68	12.23	11.04	
	16.95	14.94	13.35	11.98	10.89	
	16.82	14.78	13.14	11.80	10.71	
52	17.51	15.35	13.61	12.20	11.09	
	16.76	14.87	13.35	12.06	10.98	
	16.04	14.26	12.84	11.59	10.55	
	15.77	14.02	12.59	11.39	10.35	
62	15.90	14.12	12.67	11.43	10.42	
	15.04	13.48	12.22	11.07	10.12	
	14.64	13.11	11.84	10.75	9.82	
72	14.04	12.67	11.58	10.53	9.69	
	13.47	12.18	11.09	10.12	9.31	
82	12.73	11.47	10.43	9.54	8.75	
One life 52 years old.						
52	16.59	14.80	13.19	11.85	11.23	
	15.72	14.07	12.68	11.47	10.47	
	14.95	13.42	12.16	11.01	10.14	
	14.51	13.07	11.84	10.78	9.89	
62	14.68	13.22	11.98	10.95	10.07	
	13.70	12.47	11.41	10.44	9.65	
	13.15	11.96	10.95	10.06	9.29	
72	12.63	11.53	10.61	9.73	9.08	
	11.85	10.85	9.99	9.22	8.51	
82	10.78	9.92	9.15	8.48	7.89	
One life 62 years old.						
62	13.41	12.14	11.08	10.13	9.56	
	12.28	11.27	10.41	9.65	9.01	
	11.49	10.56	9.76	9.09	8.51	
72	10.90	10.13	9.47	8.82	8.28	
	9.87	9.20	8.62	8.07	7.60	
82	8.44	7.90	7.42	6.98	6.59	
One life 72 years old.						
72	9.19	8.64	8.19	7.64	7.26	
	7.82	7.40	7.03	6.65	6.36	
82	5.85	5.59	5.37	5.14	4.95	
One life 82 years old.						
82	2.86	2.80	2.75	2.71	2.68	

TABLE X.

Shewing the value of the decimal parts of a year, in months and weeks; useful for the finding the value of those parts in the preceding tables.

Parts.	Value in M. W.		Parts.	Value in M. W.		Parts.	Value in M. W.	
.02	0	1	.35	4	2	.67	8	3
.04	0	2	.37	4	3	.69	9	0
.06	0	3	.38	5	0	.71	9	1
.08	1	0	.40	5	1	.73	9	2
.10	1	1	.42	5	2	.75	9	3
.12	1	2	.44	5	3	.77	10	0
.13	1	3	.46	6	0	.79	10	1
.15	2	2	.48	6	1	.81	10	2
.17	2	1	.50	6	2	.83	10	3
.19	2	2	.52	6	3	.85	11	0
.21	2	3	.54	7	0	.87	11	1
.23	3	0	.56	7	1	.88	11	2
.25	3	1	.58	7	2	.90	11	3
.27	3	2	.60	7	3	.92	12	0
.29	3	3	.62	8	0	.94	12	1
.31	4	0	.63	8	1	.96	12	2
.33	4	1	.65	8	2	.98	12	3

TABLE IX.

Shewing the value of the decimal parts of a pound, in shillings and pence, at one view.

Parts.	s.	d.	Parts.	s.	d.	Parts.	s.	d.
.004	0	1	.22	4	06	.64	12	09
.008	0	2	.24	4	09	.65	13	00
.012	0	3	.25	5	00	.66	13	03
.017	0	4	.26	5	03	.67	13	06
.021	0	5	.27	5	06	.68	13	09
.025	0	6	.28	5	09	.70	14	00
.029	0	7	.30	6	00	.71	14	03
.033	0	8	.31	6	03	.72	14	06
.037	0	9	.32	6	06	.74	14	09
.042	0	10	.34	6	09	.75	15	00
.046	0	11	.35	7	00	.76	15	03
.050	1	00	.36	7	03	.77	15	06
.054	1	01	.37	7	06	.78	15	09
.058	1	02	.38	7	09	.80	16	00
.062	1	03	.40	8	00	.81	16	03
.066	1	04	.41	8	03	.82	16	06
.070	1	05	.42	8	06	.84	16	09
.075	1	06	.44	8	09	.85	17	00
.079	1	07	.45	9	00	.86	17	03
.083	1	08	.46	9	03	.87	17	06
.087	1	09	.47	9	06	.88	17	09
.091	1	10	.48	9	09	.90	18	00
.096	1	11	.50	10	00	.91	18	03
.100	2	00	.51	10	03	.92	18	06
.11	2	03	.52	10	06	.94	18	09
.12	2	06	.54	10	09	.95	19	00
.14	2	09	.55	11	00	.96	19	03
.15	3	00	.56	11	03	.97	19	06
.16	3	03	.57	11	06	.98	19	09
.17	3	06	.58	11	09	1.00	20	00
.18	3	09	.60	12	00	1.01	20	03
.20	4	00	.61	12	03	1.02	20	06
.21	4	03	.62	12	06	1.04	20	09

Further REMARKS on this article.

The reader will please to observe, that the foundation of these tables are the principles of the learned Dr. Halley and Mr. Abraham De Moivre; whose reputations for this kind of studies have been esteemed superior to all others: and Mr. Richards, in the preceding calculations, has applied their principles to the several uses before represented: but, notwithstanding the authority of great names, the principles, rules, and computations, laid down by these learned gentlemen, have been objected to; and, indeed, with no little colour of reason and plausibility; as appears from the objections made thereto, by that judicious gentleman Weyman Lee, Esq; in his Essay to ascertain the Value of Leafes and Annuities for Years and Lives, &c. and also by that ingenious gentleman Mr. Thomas Simpson, in his Tract entitled, The Doctrine of Annuities and Reversions, deduced from general and evident Principles, &c. The latest author, who has obliged the public with something new upon this subject, is Mr. James Hardy, in his book printed in 1753, entitled, A Complete System of Interest and Annuities; founded upon new, easy, and rational principles, &c. which seems to be a work of no less merit than either of them. Upon the whole, however, this subject does not appear to be yet settled upon such a basis, as to obtain in universal practice, according to the sentiments of either of these learned and judicious gentlemen, who have so laudably distinguished themselves therein. See the articles ANNUITIES, LIFE, or LIVES, LOTTERIES, MONEY, MORTALITY [BILLS of MORTALITY]; under which several heads, we shall endeavour to give the substance of what has been said most pertinently upon this subject.

LEATHER

LEATHER, is the skin of several sorts of beasts, dressed and prepared for the use of the various manufacturers, whose business it is to make them up, according to their different employments. The butcher, and others who flay them off the carcases, dispose of them raw or salted to the tanner and tawyer, they to the shamoy, morocco, and other kind of leather-dressers, who prepare them according to their respective arts, in order to vend them among the curriers, glovers, harness-makers, coach-makers, saddlers, breeches-makers, gilt leather-makers, chair-makers, shoe-makers, book-binders, and all in any way concerned in the article of leather.

Leather has divers names, according to the state wherein it is, and according to the different kinds of skins whereof it is prepared, and it's peculiar qualities when so prepared.

(1.) The skin is raw as it comes off of the animal. (2.) Some are salted with sea-salt and allum, or with natron, which is a species of salt-petre, or white salt-wort, to prevent corruption in keeping, or sending to distant tanneries during hot seasons.

Skins dried with the hair on, are commonly those of oxen and cows, or buffaloes, either tame or wild.—Most of those in France come from foreign countries. The places which furnish them with the largest quantity, are Peru, the isle of St. Domingo, Barbary, Cape Verd isles, the river Senegal in Africa, Muscovy, Ireland, the island of Cuba. Those of this latter place are the most esteemed; they are called Havannah skins, from the name of the capital city of that island, whither they are carried, in order to be sent to Spain, and from thence into other parts of Europe.—After these skins are stript of their hair, they are sold to the tanner. See **TANNER**, and **SKINS**.

The three principal assortments of leather are tanned or tawed, and oil and allum leather, all which are dressed in some yards, as they are by Shipton and sons of Watford.

If we reflect on the number of skins of all sorts which this kingdom produces, the prodigious quantity of many kinds that are imported from Spain, Portugal, Ireland, and from our own colonies * in general, under the various denominations of hides, deer-skins, deer-pelts, half-dressed ditto, &c. if this be considered, and also that most, if not all of these are dressed here, many manufactured into a variety of things for our own consumption, and very large quantities of the several sorts of leather wrought and unwrought (tanned in particular) exported; it will be readily granted, that leather is a staple commodity, that may very justly be ranked in the first class of those belonging to this kingdom.

* Our late accounts from South Carolina inform us, that they exported from thence, in about 12 months, no less than 303, hogheads of deer-skins, which, upon a modest computation, is 10,000 skins.

REMARKS.

It may be affirmed, with great truth, that the skins of our own production, and those imported from our NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES, when dressed in this kingdom, make the best leather in the world, and therefore is an article of very great importance to the trade of the nation; but, unless some proper regulations are made in relation to this branch of trade, we are in a fair way soon to lose no inconsiderable part of it, as will appear hereafter. For the king of Prussia hath lately established this manufacture in several parts of his dominions, which, with the conduct of France in regard to the same, is likely to do this kingdom no small detriment in this particular.

REMARKS since the last war, and DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By the large territories ceded to the crown of Great-Britain in NORTH AMERICA, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY, 'tis to be hoped we shall use every measure to obtain the strict friendship and alliance of the INDIAN NATIONS inhabiting there; in which case, we shall not want great plenty of skins to carry on this branch of traffic at the CHEAPEST RATES, and thereby to improve in every part relative to the manufacture thereof, in the most extensive manner.

The various trades to which the epithet leather is annexed, are as follow, viz. leather breeches-maker, leather-cutter, leather-dresser, leather-dyer, leather-parer and grounder, leather-seller. We shall speak of these in the order wherein they are mentioned.

LEATHER BREECHES MAKER, is a business sprung from the glover, and is a trade, whose number of artizans has greatly increased within these few years, and employs a great many hands in all parts of the kingdom, there being scarce a market-town or village of any note, but some of this trade may be found therein: and it may be truly observed, that some of the present masters of this business, in the cities of London and Westminster, have brought it to so great perfection, that what was thought to be a garment fit to be worn only by the laborious, is become fashionable, and universally worn, from the tradesmen to those of the first rank in the kingdom; and may, with suitable encouragement, become a very profitable mercantile commodity, when exported to proper markets, the best London made leather breeches be-

ginning to be esteemed, and to be worn in many parts abroad, not excepting even some very hot countries.

The sorts of leather breeches are various; some being made of deer, sheep, and goat-skins; others of calf, lamb, and beaver-skins. The two first sorts are the principal, the consumption whereof is of more consequence than may at first view appear. The deer-skins being chiefly imported from our colonies, and the only commodities (the half dressed ones in particular) the Indians have to exchange with our Indian traders in North America, for what they want of them: and as this commerce with the Indians may increase, the import of deer-skins will do so in the like proportion; consequently the price must fall, if a proper vent be not found; and, in that case, a stop may, in some measure, be put to that branch of our trade.

The consumption of the second sort, i. e. the sheep-skin kind, is, in some degree, an help to the woollen trade; for, if the fell-monger cannot find a market for the pelt, it's value will, of course, enhance the price of wooll.

This being the case, may it not be worth consideration to enquire how the consumption may be effectually supported? In answer to which it may be said, (1.) By the makers taking due care to manufacture them in the best manner, and selling them as low as possible. (2.) By the merchants making trial of a small quantity of those sorts, which are not perishable, nor too low priced; which has been done, and good returns made for them. And, in order to encourage the maker, the exporter, and the foreign markets, (3.) by the parliament's taking off the drawback on undressed deer-skins, and giving such a bounty, or allowing such a drawback on the exportation of buck, doe, and sheep-skin breeches, as may appear nearly adequate to the duties, and the excise which the skins and leather have paid.

As the duties and excise are the great obstruction to the exportation of leather breeches, it may be conducive to the general good, if our superiors would please to consider, that, as this article now stands, our politic rivals, the French, have, and do actually buy our deer-skins undressed, taking the drawback on exportation, and dress and manufacture them at home, and send them in breeches to a foreign market, where they have sold very well (though inferior in many respects to those that are made in London) which seems to be owing to our ill-judged imposts, duties, and excises on leather. See the article **LABOUR**.

LEATHER-CUTTER and CURRIER, is a business in London of large extent, and is generally carried on by those who were originally curriers; between whom and the worshipful company of cordwainers in London, there was some few years since a dispute at law, concerning the right of cutting leather; which, after expending some thousands of pounds, ended with each party's sitting down with their own costs. To curry a skin, is to finish it after it comes from the tanner; the art consisteth in cutting them to a proper ground, waxing, colouring, and making them fit for the use of several manufactures. It is deemed a good employment for master and journeyman, especially as they now cut large quantities of bucks and buffs into soles for shoes and boots, and of calves leather for upper-leathers for shoes and legs for boots; which they sell to many shoemakers in town and country, wholesale and retail, and deal largely in all the sorts of uncut, tanned, and other leather. It is a business, that, in it's present situation, requires a good capital; the tanner selling chiefly for ready money, and the returns generally considerable, with some * very large.

* There is one on Snow-Hill, London, said to return near 40,000l. per ann.

LEATHER-DRESSER. We have before observed, that leather might be divided into three assortments, i. e. tanned or tawed, oil and allum leather; and the dressers into the like number. For the tanned or tawed leather, see **TANNER**. Those who dress in oil and allum come under this article, and are called leather-dressers. The art of dressing skins in oil is a business of large extent, and very beneficial to this kingdom. To describe every process in this art is needless; it may be sufficient to say, that when the skins are put into work, they are first soaked, then thrown into the lime-pit, when taken thence are pulled and delivered to the friezer, then struck with the oil and sent to the mill; when they are milled sufficiently, they are thrown into the drench to be seoured, (then by some scudded) which done, they are hung upon the hooks to dry; after which they are deemed leather, and when the proper officers have weighed and marked them, in order to estimate the excise duty thereon, they are fit for the market, or to be sent to the respective proprietors. The sorts of skins dressed in oil, are deer, sheep, and lamb (some few goat, and others not worth mentioning) of which prodigious quantities are consumed, when wrought into the different manufactures made thereof. It is a flourishing business in most parts of the kingdom; it's professors (those especially who dress their own skins) being men of large fortunes, and dealing for very considerable sums: London, Bristol, and Exeter, are the principal markets for oil-leather *, although there are others, and oil-mills set up within these few years, in several part of the kingdom.

* The oil they use is Newfoundland, i. e. cod's liver oil, of which they consume a great quantity.

Some

Some of this business make from their pieces a large quantity of glue, which is judged to be the best that is; that made by Shipton and sons of Watford in particular.—It may, perhaps, be of service for the farmer to know, that the fleshings and shavings, made by friezing the skins, is a very rich manure.

The allum leather-dresser is one, that understandeth the manner of dressing skins in allum, of which there is a considerable consumption; the art consisteth in properly soaking, limeing, wringing*, and striking them in a liquor composed of water, salt, and allum, then drying them properly; which done, and the excise account taken, they are fit for the market.—The sorts of skins dressed in allum are sheep and lambs and a large quantity of kid.

* Some sorts are not wrung, nor any by some dressers.

LEATHER-DYER. This is an art of which there are but few in the trade; their business is to dye, colour, oil, and allum leather, for the manufacturers; which they do of all colours, some of them to a very great nicety. This profession hath suffered by black ram-skin breeches not being so generally worn now, as they were before the death of her late majesty. The mourning for her occasioning a large demand for black ram lamb-skins, obliged the manufacturers to dye some skins that were not quite proper; and the dyer being pressed to expedite them too fast, were the true causes that many of them did not come up to the character they bore before that time: the consequence of this was (and ever will be in such cases) a decline in their consumption; notwithstanding which, there is not so good or serviceable a commodity of the colour as black ram-skin breeches are, when made as they ought to be. We take notice of this as a caution to all manufacturers, to be careful how they vend an indifferent commodity, for the sake of a present profit; for it will prove in the run of trade to be a future loss, to all concerned in that manufacture; therefore this should never be done, on any consideration whatsoever.

LEATHER-PARER and GROUNDER is an art, by which it's professors give the finishing stroke to all sorts of oil, allum, and some tanned leathers. It consisteth in bringing the oil leather to it's proper face, by pareing off the surface left on it by the dresser, and grounding it with a stone, composed or made of pieces of the pumice-stone; and in washing and grounding the allum and tanned leather, and making all fit for the use of the several manufacturers. It is a laborious art, that affordeth a good maintenance to the master, and good wages to the journeyman.

LEATHER-SELLER is a business that is followed by many in this city, and several other parts of the kingdom. They buy large quantities of undressed deer-skins of the importers: oil, allum, and some sorts of tanned leather of the dressers; all which they sell to the manufacturers.—It is a very genteel business, but their returns being large and slow, (they buying all their undressed deer-skins with ready money, and giving large credit) it requires a very large capital to carry it on. In the city of London they are an incorporated company, &c. and generally have with an apprentice 100 l. frequently more.

The chief laws of England relating to leather.

There shall be paid for all skins and hides, and pieces of skins and hides imported, the duties following, over and above all other customs.

For all deer-skins dressed in oil or allum, or otherwise perfectly dressed and imported, 6 d. per pound.

For all loshee, buffalo, elke, or any other hides dressed in oil, 4 d. per pound.

For Russia hides imported, 2 d. per pound.

For tanned hides and calf-skins imported, 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per pound.

For horse, mare, or gelding's hides, imported and dressed in allum and salt, or meal, or otherwise tawed, 1 s. per hide.

For hides of steers, cows, or any other hides imported, and dressed in allum and salt, or meal, or otherwise tawed, 2 s. for every hide.

For calf-skins and kippes imported, dressed in allum, salt, or meal, or otherwise tawed, 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per pound.

For all flink calf-skins imported and dressed in allum and salt, or otherwise, with the hair on, 1 d. per pound; if without the hair, $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per pound, and the like $\frac{1}{2}$ d. for dog's skins.

For cordivants, 4 s. per dozen imported.

For goat-skins not usually called cordivants, imported and dressed in oil or allum, salt, meal, or otherwise, 6 d. per lb.

For all kid-skins imported, dressed or undressed, 1 s. per dozen; and, if any of the kid-skins shall be dressed after imported, no farther duty shall be paid.

For all sheep-skins imported and dressed in oil, 1 s. per dozen; and upon all imported sheep-skins and lamb-skins dressed in allum, salt, or meal, or tawed, 6 d. per dozen.

For all hides and skins, and pieces imported, tanned, tawed, or dressed, and not before charged; and for all wares made into manufacture of leather, or whereof the greatest part is leather, a duty after the rate of 15 l. for every 100 l. of the real value, to be paid by the importer.

For hides tanned in England, 1 s. per pound.

For calf's-skins, kippes, hog-skins, and dog-skins, tanned in England, 1 d. per pound.

For goat-skins tanned with sumac, or otherwise in resembling Spanish leather, 2 d. per pound.

For all sheep skins, which shall be tanned for roanes in England, 1 d. per pound.

For all sheep-skins and lamb-skins tanned in England for gloves and bazils, a half penny per pound.

For all other skins and pieces of skins (not before charged) and tanned in England, a duty after the rate of 15 l. for every 100 l. of the true value, to be paid by the tanners.

For hides of horses, mares, and geldings, dressed in allum, salt, meal, or tawed, in England, 1 s. per hide.

For hides of steers, cows, or any other hides dressed in allum, salt, or meal, 2 s. per hide.

For calf-skins and kippes dressed in allum, salt, or meal in England, 1 d. per pound.

For all flink calf-skins dressed with the hair on, 1 s. 6 d. per dozen.

For all buck and doe-skins dressed in allum, salt, or meal in England, or tawed, 3 d. per pound.

For all kid-skins, 6 d. per dozen.

For goat-skins, 1 s. 6 d. per dozen.

For sheep-skins and lamb skins, a halfpenny per pound.

And for all other skins and parts of skins, tawed in England, fifteen pounds in the hundred of the true value, and proportionably for greater or lesser quantities; all the duties to be paid by the tawers or makers thereof into leather.

For all hides and skins dressed in oil in England, 4 d. per pound.

For deer-skins, beaver-skins, goat-skins, and calf's-skins, dressed in oil in England, 4 d. per pound.

For sheep-skins dressed in oil, and for lamb-skins, 1 d. per pound.

For all other skins and parts of skins dressed in oil, fifteen pounds for every hundred pounds of the true value, and so proportionably.

Tanned hides are such as are tanned in ooze, made of the bark of trees, or sumac. Hides dressed in oil, are such as are made into leather, in oil or any liquor, of which the chief ingredient is oil; tawed hides are such as are dressed in allum, salt, or meal.

For all vellum and parchment made in England, or imported, after the rate of 1 s. per dozen; for vellum imported, and for parchment imported, 6 d. per dozen; and the same, if made in England, to be paid by the maker.

When the duty is paid on skins imported, the officer of the customs shall mark them, to shew that the duty is paid.

If the raw hide of any ox, bull, steer, or cow, or the skin of a calf, shall wilfully or negligently be gashed or cut in the flaying, or, being gashed, shall be offered to sale by any other butcher, then he who gasheth it, or who offered it to sale, shall forfeit 2 s. 6 d. for every hide, and 1 s. for every calf's-skin, one moiety to the poor where the same shall be offered to sale or found, the other moiety to the informer.

A tanner shaving a hide or calf's-skin before it is thoroughly tanned, so that it is impaired and the duty diminished, the same shall be forfeited, or the value thereof, one moiety to the crown, and the other to the informer.

Tanners, &c. shall not use any place for drying hides or skins, &c. without giving notice to the proper officer of the places for drying and keeping their hides.

Collar-makers, glovers, bridle-cutters, and others who dress skins in allum, &c. and who cut the same into wares, shall be accounted tawers, and subject to the penalties and forfeitures aforesaid, and shall be charged with the duties before the skins be cut and converted into wares.

Where hides or leather manufactures are exported, in such a case, upon shipping them, and upon sufficient security given to the customer, that such hides or ware shall not be reloaded in England, the customer shall give the exporter a certificate in writing of the kinds, qualities, and weight of the hides, calf-skins, and wares exported; and, upon producing that certificate to the collector of the duties at the port where they shall be exported, then he, or in his default the commissioners of the duties, shall repay two-thirds of the duties which were before charged for the said hides, &c. and wares so shipped to be exported.

Wares made of hides or skins, shall have now drawback, as made wares, in respect of being dressed, or curried by a currier.

All sheep-skins and lamb-skins, tanned, tawed, or dressed, which are chargeable with any duties by the act 9 Ann. shall, upon exportation thereof, have a drawback or allowance of two thirds of the duties usual, as upon exportation of hides and calf-skins.

Some other of the laws and regulations in England in regard to leather tanned.

* As manufactures of tanned leather, such as boots, shoes, gloves, or other goods and wares, are, upon exportation, entitled

entitled to a drawback or repayment of the excise duties; therefore, besides making an entry as for other goods, the exporter must, on the bill of entry, give a certificate of the kinds and weights, as a foundation for making out a debenture to obtain the drawback, the form of which certificate must be as in the following example:

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4.

16th of February 1730.—No. 26.

In the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright, master, for Jamaica.

William Turner.

Four dozen and an half of mens leather-heel shoes — — — } Containing two hundred forty-nine pounds.
Three dozen of womens shoes — — — }
Fifteen dozen of boys and girls shoes — — — }

These are to certify, That the shoes above-mentioned, weighing two hundred forty-nine pounds weight, were made of tanned hides and calf-skins, chargeable with a duty of one penny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the ninth year of her late majesty queen Anne; and an additional duty of one halfpenny per pound weight, by an act of the tenth year of her said late majesty's reign.

William Turner.

And, before the said manufactures of tanned leather are shipped off, sufficient security must be given for the due exportation, in the following manner:

A bond for the exportation of manufactures of tanned leather.

KNOW ALL MEN by these presents,

Whereas the above-bounden William Turner hath this day entered outwards in the port of Southampton, on board the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright, master, for Jamaica, four dozen and a half of mens leather-heel shoes, three dozen of womens shoes, and fifteen dozen of boys and girls shoes, made of tanned hides and calf-skins, weighing two hundred and forty-nine pounds weight, chargeable with a duty of one penny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the ninth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne; and an additional duty of one halfpenny per pound weight, by an act of the tenth year of her said late majesty queen Anne: And whereas the said William Turner, upon the exportation of the said shoes, is to have an allowance or drawback, according to the said acts of parliament on that behalf made:

Now the condition of this obligation is such, That if the said shoes and every part thereof, shall be really and truly exported into parts beyond the seas, and no part thereof be relanded, or unshipped with intent to be relanded, or brought on shore again in any part or parts of Great-Britain; then this obligation to be void, or else to remain and be in full force and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

William Turner*.
Daniel Bright*.

A debenture for hides and calves-skin leather, tanned, tawed, or dressed, exported.

Port of Southampton,

* These are to certify, That Bartholomew Richardson did enter with us the 16th day of February 1730, in the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Streights, twelve bales of tanned hides and calf-skin leather, containing one hundred and six hundred weight, one quarter, and nine pounds avoirdupoise weight; and hath made oath, that all the tanned hides and calf-skins contained in the said twelve bales respectively (weighed as above-mentioned) were marked with the marks and stamps denoting the charging of the duties of one penny and one half-penny per pound, payable for the same by the several acts of parliament made in that behalf, and not with the marks or stamps denoting the charging the duty of one half-penny per pound, as being stock in hand, the 24th day of June 1711. Certified this 19th day of March 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4, 5.

Bond is taken in the penalty of one hundred pounds, that all the said tanned hides and calf-skin leather shall be exported into foreign parts, and shall not be relanded or brought on shore again in any port or parts of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector.
C. D. Comptroller.

The one hundred and six hundred weight, one quarter, and nine pounds, of tanned hides and calf-skins above-mentioned, were shipped the 18th of February last. Certified the 22d of March 1730.

E. F. Searcher.
F. G. Surveyor.
G. H. Land-waiter.

Vol. II.

On the back of the aforesaid debenture must be endorsed the duties to be repaid, as follows:

The two-third parts of the old duty payable by the 9th of queen Anne, to be repaid for the tanned hides and calf-skins within mentioned, amount to thirty-three pounds one shilling and seven pence half-penny — — — } 33 1 7½

The two-third parts of the additional duty payable by 10 Ann. to be repaid for the said hides and skins, amount to sixteen pounds ten shillings and nine pence half penny — — — } 16 10 9½

The total — 49 12 5

A. B. Collector } of the customs.
C. D. Comptroller }

Note. Hides and calf-skins dressed, or curried, are to be allowed one penny per pound weight. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 26. Sheep and lamb-skins tanned, tawed, or dressed, are to be allowed two-third parts of the duties formerly paid. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 69.

* The debenture being thus executed by the officers of the customs, the same is to be delivered to the exporter, in order to be produced to the collector of the duties on hides and skins at the port of exportation; who is forthwith, out of the monies in his hands arising by the said duties, to repay the two-thirds, (as above) of the duties which were before paid; or in default thereof, the commissioners of the said duties are to repay the same.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 40. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 5.

A debenture for manufactures of tanned leather.

Port of Southampton,

* William Turner did enter with us the 16th of February 1730, in the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica, four dozen and an half of mens leather heel shoes, three dozen of womens shoes, fifteen dozen of boys and girls shoes, made of tanned hides and calf-skins, weighing two hundred forty-nine pounds weight, chargeable with a duty of one penny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the ninth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, and an additional duty of one halfpenny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the tenth year of her said late majesty's reign.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4.

Bond is taken in the penalty of four pounds, that the shoes above-mentioned, and every part thereof, shall be exported for parts beyond the seas, and not relanded or brought on shore again in any part or parts of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector.
C. D. Comptroller.

The shoes above-mentioned containing two hundred forty-nine pounds weight, were shipped the 16th of February last. Certified the 20th of March 1730.

D. E. Searcher.
E. F. Surveyor.
F. G. Land-waiter,

On the back of the aforesaid debenture must be endorsed the duties to be repaid, as follow:

The old duty payable by the ninth of Anne, to be repaid for the shoes within mentioned, amounts to one pound and nine-pence — — — } 1 0 9

The additional duty payable by the tenth of Anne, to be repaid for the said shoes, amounts to ten shillings and four pence half-penny — — — } 0 10 4½

The total — 1 11 1

A. B. Collector } of the customs.
C. D. Comptroller }

* The debenture being thus executed by the officers of the customs, the same is to be delivered to the exporter, in order to be produced to the collector of the duties on hides and skins at the port of exportation, or to the commissioners for managing the said duties; who are forthwith, out of the monies arising for the same duties, to repay (as above) one penny half-penny for every pound thereof; although the marks and stamps to denote the payment of the duties do not appear on such shoes [or other wares.] Relanded, forfeited with treble the value.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 41. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 68.

REMARKS ON LEATHER-DRESSING in general.

Although there is no little difference between the dressers of shamoy, allum leather, Hungary leather, Morocco leather, the tanner, and parchment-maker; yet the skins which pass through the hands of several workmen, ought to have been, for the most part at least, washed of the blood and impurities in a running water; set to drain; worked with hands, or pounded with wooden pestles in a vat; put into the pit (made in the ground, and bordered with wood, or stone and mortar) filled with water in which quick lime is dissolved, in order

der to loosen the hair, that it may be easily rubbed off without injuring the skin; drawn out, and set to drain on the edge of the pit; stretched on the leg or horse, in order to have the hair scraped off with a blunt iron knife, or a wooden cylinder; pared off the membranes on the fleshy side, and of the scabs or roughness on the grain side with a sharp knife, rubbed with a whetstone on the same horse, to take off any particles of the lime or other thing, which may occasion hardnesses; thickened by different sorts of powder, whereby they become greater in bulk, and so much lighter, as gradually to rise to the surface of the water; stretched out green or half dried, and piled one over another; or put up separate after dried to a crust; hung out to air upon poles, lines, or any other way: which must be repeatedly done in the dressing of small skins.

This alternate transition from the liquid of the air into that of water, and from water into the air, with the assistance of the lime, salts, and oils, opens the inmost fibres of the skin so effectually, as greatly to facilitate the introduction of substances proper for making them pliant without rendering them thinner.

Natural philosophy would be embarrassed to settle the order and number of these operations, by dint of reason à priori alone: but what the most penetrating genius has never been able to invent, frequent handling of the same thing brings a man to practise with ease and success. Common workmen continue to do the same thing scrupulously by habit. One of them, more expert than the rest, and whose experience makes up all his philosophy, oversees the whole, judges of the degree of dryness and moisture, hardness and softness, determines justly; and either repeats, lengthens, or shortens the processes.

These processes, though really the same in the four or five principal dressings of leather, are so different in regard to the manner of executing them, and the time required in them, that the knowledge of all the minute particulars is requisite for him who would understand the trade to perfection.

The allum leather-dresser dresses all sorts of white leather, from the ox-hide to the lamb-skin. He works chiefly for the saddler and glover. For dressing the saddler's leather, he uses bran, sea-salt and allum. For that which the glover uses, after the common preparatives, he first employs bran, and then with salt, allum, fine flour, and yolks of eggs mixed in hot water, he makes a sort of pap, with which the skins are smeared in a trough.

The shamoy dresser soaks in oil*, not only the skins of the true shamoy, which is a wild goat, but likewise those of all other goats, though much inferior to the true, and even sheep-skins, which he dresses like shamoy.

* The shamoy leather-dresser uses fish-oil.

The tanner uses the bark of young oaks, from eighteen to thirty years old, ground in a tanning-mill; in which he soaks skins more or less, according to the different services expected from them, and their chief use is to remain firm and keep out water.

Whereas the tanner's way of dressing leather in lime and tan, takes up two or three years; the Hungary* leather-dresser allows but three or four weeks to that which passes through his hands. He supplies the harness-makers, saddlers, belt-makers, and all other trades that use not only white and allum leather, or oiled and tanned leather, but also skins coloured grey with ink, and dressed in tallow, which is the distinctive work of the Hungarian leather-dresser†.

* The Hungary leather-dresser employs suet or tallow.

† The leather-dressers in England dress this sort of leather to great perfection.

His name (Hongreyeur in French) and method came from Hungary, whither a French workman went, by order of Henry IV. to learn the trade by stealth; and thereby to lower the price of harnesses, and several other things wanting in his armies, made of leather.

The tanner, in certain cases, instead of tan, uses redon, which is a plant cultivated much in Gascony, and very common in Polish Russia.—It serves chiefly for tanning ram and sheep-skins, which the French call basanes: but it is also used in dressing Russia leather, which the Polish Russians make a great mystery of, though there is a very good manufacture of that sort at St. Germain en Laye.

The confit and sumac are little in use but for Morocco leather. The confit, into which goat-skins are put after the common preparations, is a large tub of warm water, wherein they are thrown, after having dissolved therein a very cheap substance taken from the animal kingdom, viz. the sweepings of dog-kennels; for there is nothing in nature, but what the philosophic artist can usefully apply.

The sumac is taken from the vegetable kingdom. It is a dust, which comes on the leaves and small branches of the plant called rhus, or sumac. It is sumac, with galls and allum, that the Morocco leather-dressers chiefly use; whose intention is to give a grain to goat-skins, and thereby to render them susceptible of the most beautiful colours. They call grain those little wrinkles or furrows, which run all over

the surface of Morocco leather, as also that of calves and cows-leather, which they bring to a resemblance of it, by dint of washing, pounding, wringing, and folding the skins different ways. They use also water tinged with rust of iron, which serves to give a black colour; and laque [see LAQUE] and other substances, which colour the skins red, yellow, &c.

The workmen, who give the grain and the most likely colours to skins of the shamoy, or other goats, and who dress calves and sheep skins in the same manner to imitate Morocco, make a great secret of certain parts of their art, which are the nicest; but the experimental philosopher is rarely at a loss to discover any, which he in earnest attempts.

As the grain and beautiful dyes of goat-skins are the work of the Morocco leather dresser, the last preparations and dyes, given to certain tanned leather, are the business of the currier. So likewise, when skins dressed white by the skinner, are destined for writing or drawing, the parchment-maker puts the finishing hand to them.

Of skins brought from the tan-yard, some are sent in crust to the shoemakers and other tradesmen who employ hard leather, the rest are softened, and sometimes coloured by the currier.

His chief business is to soften and supple cows and calves-skins, which make the upper leathers and quarters of shoes, coverings of coaches, harness, and other things; which must keep out water, bear continual jolts, and yet be pliant, either for receiving a handsome shape, or to facilitate motion by their giving way.

First, these skins, after coming from the tanner's yard, having still many fleshy fibres on them, the currier soaks them some time in common water.

Secondly, he takes them out and stretches them on a very even wooden horse. Then with a paring-knife he scrapes off all the superfluous flesh, and puts them into soak again.

Thirdly, he puts them wet on a hurdle, and tramples them with his heels, till they begin to become soft and pliant.

Fourthly, he soaks them in train-oil, which, by its unctuousity, is the best liquor for this purpose.

Fifthly, he spreads them on large tables, and fastens them at the ends. These, with the help of an instrument called a pummel, which is a thick piece of wood, the under side whereof is full of furrows crossing each other, he folds, squeezes, and moves them forward and backward several times under the teeth of this instrument, which breaks their too great stiffness. This is what is properly called currying.

The order and number of these operations vary in different places, but the material part is always the same.

Sixthly, after the skins are curried, there may be occasion to make them white or black. In order to whiten them, they are rubbed with lumps of chalk or white lead, and afterwards with a pumice-stone. As calves-leather is generally required to be thin, instead of using the scraping-knife to take off the flesh, the currier makes use of the round paring-knife, which carries a good edge on it's whole circumference, and has a round opening in the center, big enough to let both hands through, in order to manage it with strength. When a calf's-skin is hung on the paring-horse or frame, which has a cross-bar at top and is open at bottom, the workman fastens it on tight, and pulls it down as he thinks fit, by means of a cord that secures both ends of it, and goes round his own body. He then rubs it with chalk, and with the knife he pares off the flesh. He repeats this work as often as is necessary, till the skin is as thin and white as he desires.

Seventhly, when a skin is to be made black, after having oiled and dried it, he dips a puff, which is a thick tuft of fringes or hair, in water impregnated with iron. The old iron, which he has let stand some time in this water, together with it's rust, deposits a quantity of salts, and particles of iron, which are known to be the basis of the blackness of ink. After this first wetting, he gives the skin another in a water prepared with foot, vinegar, and gum arabic. These different dyes gradually turn the skin black, and the operations are repeated till it is of a shining black. The grain and wrinkles, which contribute to the suppleness of calves and cows-leather, are made by the reiterated folds given to the skin in every direction, and by the care taken to scrape off all hard parts on the coloured side.

The parchment-makers business is more simple. After the skinner has dressed the skins white which he wants, and put them on the paring horse, pared, rubbed them with chalk several times, wetted, pumiced, wetted again, drained, rubbed them again with pumice stone, dusted them with a piece of lamb's-skin with the wool on; the parchment-maker takes those same skins to scrape them dry, and rub them thinner on both sides with an iron instrument.

After he has gathered up the scrapings, for making a thin glue or size, which serves particularly for sizing the warp of several sorts of woollen stuffs, and for making it move easier through the reed; he finishes his work by rubbing the skin with the pumice-stone, and carefully removing all roughness from the surface of it. If it be a sheep-skin, it is called parchment, the principal use of which is to engross acts or deeds that are required to last long.

If it be a flink calf or lamb's-skin, it is named vellum; and is used by designers for whatever requires a very smooth ground and great propriety in the execution.

We see the advantage of differently imbibing skins with tallow, mutton-suet, or fish-oil, and of feeding them with some vegetable powders.

Instead of those substances, many of which are brought from very remote places, and are expensive to be got; it is not impossible but we may have some as good, or better at home, which are not taken notice of. We have a number of large seeds and thick barks, which might yield powders or oils fit to supply the places above-mentioned. In costly undertakings, it is prudent to adhere to what has already succeeded: but a more noble concern ought to put our manufacturers upon making daily trials of improvement in little. The same experimental philosophy, which has merited our acknowledgements by its first discoveries, may still gain more glory, by diminishing the tediousness and expence of several works, and, perhaps, even by suppressing some unnecessary rules or operations in the mechanic as well as manufactural arts.

LEDGER, in regard to accountantship [see ACCOUNTANTSHIP], is a large book, containing all the transactions of a trader's or gentleman's affairs, methodized in the form of debtor or creditor. The ledger, indeed, is only the waste-book, or the journal so digested, as to exhibit, as it were, at one view, the state of a merchant's, or any other trader's concerns, though they be ever so various and complicated. To methodize every distinct account in a peculiar book, two pages are required, opposite to each other; that on the left hand serving for the debtor side, the other for that of the creditor: and each article consists of five parts, viz. the date, the person whom we credit, or are credited by, the thing for which we are indebted or credited, the page where such counterpart is found, and the sum or amount of the article, so posted into the ledger.

The peculiar nature and form of this grand livre, or most essential book, as the French call it, we have exemplified under the article of BANKING; where at the same time that we illustrate the art of accountantship by debtor and creditor, we likewise comprehend the principal business of domestic banking. See BANKING.

We shall here take occasion also to illustrate the utility and importance of this book, by transactions drawn from some real foreign mercantile concerns, that happened some years since; which will give a lively idea, not only of foreign mercantile accounts, but of the nature of conducting the business of a trading voyage at the same time.

Those mercantile transactions, as they fell out, are as follows; viz.

Thomas Dale of Leghorn, James Goodman of Barcelona, Peter Winberton of Smyrna, Peter Blaxland of New England, John King, John Kelly, Peter Bradbey of London, James Bradson of Bilboa, James Dixon of Cadiz, and James Corman of Lisbon, correspond and trade with each other: viz.

Thomas Dale of Leghorn buys the Anne galley, and fits her out to sea, to proceed on a voyage from Leghorn to Barcelona, and thence to Smyrna and the Arches, for a lading of wheat for Lisbon, to be consigned to the care and disposal of James Corman, who is $\frac{1}{3}$ part concerned therein, and Thomas Dale $\frac{2}{3}$, and who paid for the hull, masts, &c. according to inventory and contract 1600 dollars, and paid all charges of fitting out to sea, as per account, dollars 1589:12—Insured dollars 3600 on the hull from Leghorn for Barcelona, at 9 per cent. with more, $\frac{1}{2}$ per mill. palace charges—Also insured dollars 6000 on the hull and stock, from Barcelona to Smyrna, the Arches, and to Lisbon, at 28 per cent. with more $\frac{1}{2}$ per mill. palace charges, and reckons his provision on both insurances $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.—The galley arriving at Barcelona, James Goodman receives the freight of barley and wheat, made by said galley, being dollars 1242:10—Buys 2000 pieces of eight Spanish money, amounting for cost and charges to dollars 2068:12:6—Delivers them to Capt. Barnby commander of the galley, to dispose of in Smyrna, in buying a cargo of wheat—Pays also to said captain dollars 280—Reckons for his commission on said transactions dollars 30:2:6, and 15 sols for postage of letters—Draws the balance of account on Thomas Dale of Leghorn, at livres 18 $\frac{1}{4}$ per pistole—The galley arriving at Smyrna, Peter Winberton sells the 2000 pieces of eight, weighing 1951 (most pillar) one with the other, at 35 per cent.—Paid consulage 2 per cent. shroffage, or loss on money, 4 per mill.—Reckons his provision and brokerage at 2 per cent.—Buys a cargo of wheat at sundry prices, viz. 622 kellow's at $\frac{2}{3}$, and at $\frac{1}{12}$ per kellow—659 ditto at $\frac{2}{3}$ —505 kellow's at $\frac{2}{3}$, and at $\frac{1}{12}$ —1800 ditto at $\frac{2}{3}$ —1194 ditto at $\frac{2}{3}$, and at $\frac{1}{12}$ —Pays petty expences, and for boats, &c. dollars 20:2—For consulage 4 per cent.—Brokerage $\frac{1}{8}$ of a dollar per kellow—Reckons his provision at 3 per cent.—Pays to Capt. Barnby dollars 235, and draws the balance on Thomas Dale at 13 per cent.—Thomas Dale draws on James Corman dollars 1506:18:7, at 930—

Dollars 400, at 925—Dollars 300, at 930, and the balance of Corman's account current at 930—Having reckoned him $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. brokerage, and expences of postage of letters at Leghorn, Amsterdam, and London, amounting to dollars 24:5:1—The galley arriving at Lisbon, Corman sells the lading of wheat (that was purchased by Winberton) as follows—360 Alquiers at 480 rees per alquier—60 Ditto at 460—358 Ditto at 450—10,494 Ditto at 440—488 Ditto at 430—And, by selling the corn to several persons, it fell short 3 moys of what it first measured aboard—Corman paid measuring aboard of 204 moys, 80 rees per moy—Boat-hire to Bellem on ditto 100 rees per moy—Porterage into the warehouse on ditto, 90 rees per moy—Boat-hire from Bellem to the market on 190 moys, at 120 rees per moy—Porters, landing, cartage, &c. on 190 moys, 210 rees per moy—Measuring into the market on 204 moys, 100 rees per moy—Porterage, cartage, &c. to a private warehouse for sale, on 38 moys, at 380 rees per moy—Hire of empty sacks, 10,300 rees—Gave the health office at Lisbon 48 milrees—Ditto at Bellem, for assisting in unloading 10,300 rees—Guards to watch the boats, with sundry expences, 8500 rees—Warehouse room, and turning, 22,700 rees—Selling in the markets 201 moys, at 600 rees per moy—Brokerage on 201 moys, at 100 rees per moy—His commission 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on sales.

Corman buys the ship Jenny for his own account, for 960 milrees—Lades on board her 155 moys of salt, at 3500 rees per moy, and charges, amounting to 576,770 rees—Pays sundry disbursements in fitting her out to sea for New England, Capt. John Walker, amounting to 581,572 rees—He also pays sundries on the Anne galley for her voyage to Algier, to lade corn on freight; viz. To the captain, as per his account of disbursements (allowed) 910,819 rees—To guards and pilot 15,840 rees—For 5 boats of ballast 17,500—For 7 barrels of beef, and 2 frails of fruit, 34 milrees—For 3 casks of butter, containing nett 249 lb. at 35 rees per pound—For port charges, as per Tho. Harwood's account, 16 milrees—For a pilot going out 7200 rees—For 25 alquiers of pease, &c. as per bill, 76 milrees—To William Pratt, the ship-chandler, as per his account, 328 milrees—To John Stamp, the sail-maker, as per his account, 93 milrees—For wine and fruit 9600 rees—For 3 cannons 48 milrees—For sundry petty expences 3600 rees—For cash paid Capt. Barnby 14,400 rees, and said Corman reckons 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. commission—Ship Jenny arriving at Boston in New England, Peter Blaxland sells to James Dudley 210 hogsheds of Lisbon salt, at 33s. per hogshed—To John Priestly 30 hogsheds of French salt, at 28s. per hogshed—To ditto 121 hogsheds ditto, at 25s. per hogshed—To John Pieterfon 78 hogsheds ditto, and 20s. per hogshed—Pays lighterage, and porterage of the salt landing and measuring, l. 10:1:10—Pays storage for the salt that was landed, 5 l.—Reckons his commission at 5 per cent.—The Anne galley returns from Algier to Lisbon, and Corman receives of Samuel Bolt for freight (as per charter-party) of 155 tons of corn, and other goods brought from Algier, at 14,500 rees per ton—For 9 boats of ballast (sold at Gibraltar) 18 pieces of eight—For $\frac{2}{3}$ port-charges at Lisbon 25,733 rees—Peter Blaxland, of Boston in New England, buys 200 quintals of dry cod-fish at 21s. per quintal—More 1000 quintals ditto at 22s—More 294 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals of dry hack and haddock, at 16s. 6d. per quintal—More, 377 quintals of dry pollock, at 14s. per quintal—Pays boat-hire, cullage, primage, and several extraordinary charges, amounting to l. 29:7:10—Reckons his commission on cost and charges at 5 per cent. and lades said fish on board the Jenny for Bilboa, consigned to James Bradson for account of Corman, 1391 quintals, and for his own account 480 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals—Corman of Lisbon disbursed and allowed sundry sums on the Anne galley for her voyage to Genoa and Leghorn on freight, viz. Pays to Capt. Barnby, as per his account, for mens wages, &c. 637,670 rees—Pays for damage, with porterage and waterage aboard, 2780 rees—For labourers, 10 men for one day and half, at 200 rees—For cooperage and for nails 8400—For sundry provisions, as beef, pork, butter, bread, pease, &c. as per bill, 204,851 rees—For port charges, as per Thomas Harwood's account, 23,900 rees—To the caulker, as per bill, 45,600—To James Leven the mate, 10 pieces of eight due to him, and discharged him—For 10 bolts of canvas at 10,300 rees—For a cable weighing 19 quintals one aroba, and a piece of hawser, 176,175 rees—To William Pratt the ship-chandler, as per bill, 73,794 rees—To John Stamp the sail-maker 31,355 rees—For pilotage out 10,080 rees, and sundry petty expences 9500 rees—For consulage at Lisbon, and vice-consulage, and charges at Bellem for two voyages, 33 milrees—To Capt. Barnby (as per his account) for expences during the Algier voyage 181 pieces of eight at 800 rees, out of which he deducts 18 pieces of eight, which was charged in a former account of disbursements—Reckons his commission at 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.—Blaxland of New England pays the ship Jenny's disbursements, and to the captain, as per account and receipt, amounting to l. 437:8:4, and to reimburse himself for the affairs done by him (as aforesaid) draws by order of Corman on

on John King of London, payable to Samuel Prag at 40 days sight, l. 225 sterl. at 55 per cent.—More on John Kelly of London, payable to Daniel Hooper at 40 days sight, l. 100 sterl. at 50 per cent. and the balance of account, he draws on Peter Bradby of London, payable to John Henschman at 40 days sight, at 50 per cent.

The Anne galley arriving at Leghorn, Thomas Dale accompts for freight made from Lisbon to Genoa and Leghorn, viz. for freight (as per manifesto) made good by Alberti Geminiani of Genoa, in l. 5825, at 51. per dollar, less $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on 1000 dollars drawn in—For freight received at Leghorn (according to manifesto) 1104 dollars—For freight received for other merchandize, dollars 52 : 15—For average of 5 per cent. received for the owners on dollars 1104—And the said Dale pays sundry charges on said galley, viz. for charges at Pratick, dollars 2 : 5—To the ship-chandler per accompt, dollars 42 : 4 : 1—To the butcher per accompt, dollars 17 : 7—For port-charges per accompt, dollars 22 : 11—To the shipwright per his accompt, dollars 8 : 10—To the baker for provisions, &c. per his accompt, dollars 200—For salt provisions, beef, &c. dollars 205—For ballast, dollars 25—For translating the charter-party, dollar 1—To Capt. Barnby for his expences at this port, as per accompt, dollars 92 : 3 : 4—For charges, entering his consulate, and procure, to recover in the freight, dollars 4 : 10—To Capt. Barnby for his expences at Genoa, l. 529 : 4, at 51. per dollar—For a barrel of tar at Genoa, paid for by Geminiani, 401.—For expences incurred by Geminiani in going to Genoa, as per accompt, l. 168 : 9 : 4—For expences made by ditto at going from Genoa for Lisbon, l. 326 : 13 : 4—For boat-hire several times, for assisting the galley's dispatch, dollars 1 : 10—Reckons his provision 2 per cent. recovering in the freight, and correspondence for her dispatch hence, and at Genoa, dollars 47 : 4 : 9—For postage of letters on this affair, dollars 4 : 11 : 6—The ship Jenny arrives at Bilboa, and there Bradson sells 1640 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals of fish to sundry persons, as per accompt, for rials plate 103,811—And delivers for provostage $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in specie of fish, and one quintal to the weighers, as usual—Pays for an express to and from Portugal, when the ship arrived with orders to go to Lisbon, rials 13 : 26—To the inquisition-vessel 22 rials, and for refreshment 45 rials—For freight of 12 gabars with fish, up to the keys, at 16 rials vellon per gabar—Unlading at the keys 9 gabars, at 93 rials vellon each—To the oxen, mews, and sledges, carrying the lading of 12 gabars, at 20 rials vellon—Guards to watch the fish at landing, 10 rials plate—To seamen for their due, as customary, on 12 gabars, at 5 rials plate—For removing and piling 9 gabars in small piles, at separating the sorts, at rials 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ plate per gabar—Weighing out 9 gabars, at 20 rials plate—Town duties on weights, and new impost, rials 891 plate—Lodge-hire half a rial plate, per quintal on 1122 quintals—Contribution duties one per cent. on sales—National duties $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.—Primage on 90 tons paid the captain at 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ rials plate—Reckons commission 5 per cent. on sales and returns—Said Bradson buys 300 bundles of chestnut-hoops, at 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ quarts vellon per bundle—200 Bundles ditto at 4 rials vellon per bundle, which he shipped on board the Jenny for Cadiz, consigned to James Dixon of said place, for accompt of Corman, and pays shipping them

on board two lighters, 2 marvedees vellon per bundle, and boat-hire aboard, rials 21 : 10 plate—The Anne galley arrives at Lisbon, and Corman accounts for freight made by her from Leghorn and Genoa to Lisbon, viz. J. Baptista Thialini, 30 parcels of sewing silk, at 8 dollars per parcel—Lorenzo Geminiani 100 bales of paper, at dollars 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per bale—Nicolo Lazerogo 1100 bags of rice, containing 3710 quintals, at 700 rees per quintal—Nunez Alvarez 6 bundles of coral, 12 milrees—J. Rodrigus Autunez, 6 parcels of ribbon, 60 milrees—For primage 5 per cent. to the captain on 200 tons, at dollars 15 per ton, which was received of the above people, and passed to the captain's credit. Ship Jenny arrives at Cadiz, and James Dixon sells, for accompt of Corman aforesaid, 378 bundles of chestnut-hoops to Don Pedro de Tranquello, at 10 rials plate per fiere of 2 bundles—More, 120 bundles ditto to ditto (being damaged) at 4 rials plate per fiere of 2 bundles, and Capt. Walker had the remaining 2 bundles, which he applied to the ship's use—Dixon reckons brokerage one per cent.—For extraordinary charges on sales aboard $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.—For commission on sales, and returns 5 per cent. of which 1 per cent. is to be charged on remission, remains 4 per cent.—Dixon receives the freight made by the Jenny, Capt. Walker, from Bilboa, viz. for 2194 bars of iron weighing 577 quintals, consigned to Don Juan de Matta Gonfavez, at 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ rials plate new money per quintal—For 1540 bars ditto, weighing 500 quintals, consigned ditto at 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ rials ditto—For 476 bars ditto, weighing 200 quintals ditto, and 8 bundles chapa de fierro, weighing 1369 pounds, together is 208 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals, at 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ rials ditto, consigned to Don Sebastian dos Lopez—For 250 bars ditto, weighing 100 quintals, consigned to ditto, at 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ rials ditto—For 774 rexas de fierro de arar, weighing 61 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals, consigned to ditto, at 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ rials ditto—For 72 carones de herrage clanos, weighing 140 quintals, consigned to Don Juan Gonfavez Lopez dos Santos, at 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ rials plate—For 500 single bundles of chestnut-hoops, consigned to said Dixon, being for accompt of the owner of the Jenny, nothing—For the gross average on said freight, occasioned by the ship's losing her bowsprit, deducting the $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the charge to be borne by ship Jenny, and a proportion by the hoops: the remainder was adjusted at $\frac{1}{2}$ a rial plate per ducat, on 750 ducats; what received thereon, was 375 rials plate—Dixon reckons his commission on said freight, and gross average, at 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.—And by order of Corman, and for his accompt, sells the ship Jenny, with all her masts, yards, &c. to David Burrows, for 1300 pieces of eight, to pay in 30 days—Charges for boat-hire aboard several times, and other petty charges, 40 rials plate—For the duties of alcala y cientos on the sale, which he has hopes to avoid paying; but, if he should be obliged to it afterwards, he will then charge it to accompt; in the interim charges nothing—Reckons brokerage 1 per cent.—For commission on sale and returns 5 per cent. of which 1 per cent. is to be charged on remission; remains 4 per cent. which he now charges.

These transactions are stated as follow in the ledger only, according to the method of accountantship by double entry, whereby it will appear, what is due to or from the respective merchants herein concerned; what profit or loss arises to each of them on this trade, and by the exchange or difference in the valuation of monies.

THOMAS DALE'S LEDGER OF LEGHORN.

SHIP THE ANNE GALLEY, IN C ^o . between Corman $\frac{1}{3}$ and Self $\frac{2}{3}$		Dr.
		Doll. Sols. Den.
(1) To cash, paid for the ship, charges fitting to Barcelona, and for two insurances	-	5198 - 8 : —
(4) To cash, paid for the draught of Goodman's account of Barcelona for balance	}	1092 : 14 : 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
(6) To cash, paid Winberton of Smyrna balance of his account per his account		504 : 19 : 9 $\frac{1}{4}$
(13) To James Corman's Leghorn account for his $\frac{1}{3}$ of what I have received for freight		732 : 6 : 4
(14) To cash, paid charges on her, &c.	-	654 : 14 : 2
(18) To Corman's Leghorn account for $\frac{1}{3}$ of what I received for Geminiani	-	55 : — : —
(21) To profit and loss, gained by this trading voyage	-	1484 : 2 : 6 $\frac{2}{3}$
		9722 : 4 : 11 $\frac{3}{4}$

* See Goodman's account and Winberton's account how found.

C A S H.		Dr.
(8) To James Corman's Leghorn account for three several draughts per question	-	2206 : 18 : 7
(10) To ditto, received per draught the balance of his Leghorn account	-	86 : — : 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
(12) To ship Anne galley in company received for freight, made from Genoa and Leghorn	-	2196 : 19 : —
(17) To ditto, received remainder of Geminiani's freight per manifesto, &c.	-	165 : — : —
(22) To balance for what paid more than received in this affair	-	2820 : 2 : 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
		7475 : 1 : 2 $\frac{3}{4}$

JAMES CORMAN OF LISBON (his Leghorn Account).		Dr.
(2) To ship the Anne galley in company, for $\frac{1}{3}$ her cost and charges	-	1732 : 16 : —
(3) To provision, for his $\frac{1}{3}$ part of what I reckon on insurance	-	3 : 6 : 11 $\frac{1}{2}$
(5) To ship the Anne, in company for $\frac{1}{3}$ the balance of Goodman's account drawn	-	364 : 4 : 8 $\frac{3}{4}$
(7) To ditto - - - for $\frac{1}{3}$ the balance of Winberton's account ditto	-	168 : 6 : 7
(9) To cash, for brokerage, expences, and postage of letters per question	-	24 : 5 : 1
		2292 : 19 : 4 $\frac{1}{4}$
(15) To ship Anne galley in company, for $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the charges I paid	-	218 : 4 : 8 $\frac{2}{3}$
(16) To provision for $\frac{1}{3}$ of what I reckon	-	17 : 15 : 5
(20) To Corman's Lisbon account, to discharge what should be brought hither	-	326 : 13 : 4
(23) To balance due to him on this account	-	224 : 12 : 10 $\frac{1}{3}$
		787 : 6 : 4

P R O V I S I O N.		Dr.
(24) To profit and loss, gained hereby	-	21 : 2 : 4 $\frac{1}{2}$

JAMES CORMAN PARTNER (my Lisbon Account).		Dr.
	Rees.	
(11) To Anne galley, in company, for my $\frac{2}{3}$ of the ship's produce	2,452,199 *	2636 : 15 : 5 $\frac{1}{2}$
(19) To ditto - - - - -	1,779,331 $\frac{1}{3}$ †	1913 : 5 : 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
(20) To ditto - - - of 490 dollars $\frac{2}{3}$, is = 326 $\frac{2}{3}$	4,231,530 $\frac{1}{3}$	4550 : — : 8
* In Corman's account Dale is Cr. 4494530 $\frac{1}{3}$ Dr. 2042331 $\frac{1}{3}$		
† At ditto account At ditto account.		
2452199		

P R O F I T and L O S S.		Dr.
(25) To balance, to shut up this account and for gain	-	1505 : 4 : 11 $\frac{1}{6}$

B A L A N C E.		Dr.
(26) To James Corman's Lisbon account, due Millr. 4,231,530 $\frac{1}{3}$	-	4550 : — : 8

LED

LED

TWO THIRDS IN THE ANNE GALLEY.

PER CONTRA.

		Reference column to ledger.	Cr.		
			Doll.	Sols.	Den.
(2)	By Jam. Corman's Legh. account, for his $\frac{1}{3}$ the cost, charges, and insurance of galley		1732	16	—
(5)	By ditto - - - for $\frac{1}{3}$ balance of Goodman's account		364	4	8 $\frac{3}{4}$
(7)	By ditto - - - for $\frac{1}{3}$ balance of Winberton's account of Smyrna		168	6	7
(11)	By James Corman's Lisbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ the produce per his account 2,452,199		2636	15	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
(12)	By cash, received for her freight from Leghorn and Genoa, &c.		2196	19	—
(15)	By James Corman's Leghorn account for $\frac{1}{3}$ of charges paid as per contra		218	4	8 $\frac{2}{3}$
(17)	By cash, received the remainder of Geminiani's freight made good by him		165	—	—
(19)	By James Corman's Lisbon account, for $\frac{2}{3}$ freight accounted for by him		1913	5	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
(20)	By ditto - - - for $\frac{2}{3}$ of 490 dollars received by him 303,800		326	13	4
			9722	4	11 $\frac{5}{12}$

PER CONTRA.

			Cr.		
(1)	By ship the Anne galley in company, &c. disbursed for her, for fitting out and insur.		5198	8	—
(4)	By ditto, paid Goodman of Barcelona balance per his account		1092	14	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
(6)	By ditto, paid Winberton of Smyrna his balance drawn on me		504	19	9 $\frac{1}{4}$
(9)	By James Corman's Leghorn account for brokerage, expences, &c.		24	5	1
(14)	By ship Anne galley in company paid charges, on her per particulars		654	14	2
			7475	1	2 $\frac{3}{4}$

PER CONTRA.

			Cr.		
(8)	By cash, received for 3 draughts at various prices per question		2206	18	7
(10)	By ditto, received the balance of his account		86	—	9 $\frac{1}{4}$
			2292	19	4 $\frac{1}{4}$
(13)	By ship Anne galley in company, for his $\frac{1}{3}$ of what I received for freight		732	6	4
(18)	By ditto - - - - -		55	—	1
			787	6	4

PER CONTRA.

			Cr.		
(3)	By James Corman's Leghorn account for $\frac{1}{3}$ I reckon on insurance		3	6	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
(16)	By James Corman's Leghorn account for his $\frac{1}{3}$ of what I reckon per question		17	15	5
			21	2	4 $\frac{1}{2}$

PER CONTRA.

			Cr.		
(20)	By Corman's Leghorn account, to rectify an error per contra 326 $\frac{2}{3}$ *		4550	—	8
(26)	By balance for what he owes me hereon 4,231,530 $\frac{1}{3}$				

* This being the method of writing off errors in accounts, to prevent erasements, we think it best to let it remain rather than alter it, for the information of those who may not be acquainted therewith.

PER CONTRA.

			Cr.		
(21)	By Anne galley in company, gaining by her trading voyage		1484	2	6 $\frac{2}{3}$
(24)	By provision, for gain and clofe thereof		21	2	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
			1505	4	11 $\frac{1}{6}$

PER CONTRA.

			Cr.		
(22)	By cash, paid more than received in this affair		2820	2	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
(23)	By James Corman's Leghorn account due to him		224	12	10 $\frac{1}{4}$
(25)	By profit and loss, to shut up that account		1550	11	4 $\frac{1}{6}$
			4550	—	8

N. B. 930 a fixed exchange.

JAMES CORMAN'S LEDGER OF LISBON,

THE ANNE GALLEY IN COMPANY, between Dale of Leghorn		Dr.
(2) and Self $\frac{1}{3}$.		Rees.
(1) To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account, for $\frac{1}{3}$ part, cost, charge, insurance, &c. provision	expended on the said ship for our account dollars 1736 : 2 : 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ - - - }	1,614,617
(2) To Goodman of Barcelona, for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of what he exported valued	- - - - -	338,739
(4) To Thomas Dale of Leghorn, for $\frac{1}{3}$ of what he reckons insurance	- - - - -	3,113
(5) To Winberton of Smyrna, for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of his disbursement	- - - - -	156,546
(7) To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account for what he reckons me	- - - - -	22,556
(13) To cash, for charges per particulars	- - - - -	469,620
(14) To commission, for what I am allowed 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on sales	- - - - -	133,317
(15) To Thomas Dale's Lisbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ nett proceed of wheat	- - - - -	3,153,175 $\frac{1}{3}$
(16) To cash, paid charges on voyage to Algiers per particulars	- - - - -	1,582,774
(20) To Thomas Dale's Lisbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ what received for freight of corn	- - - - -	1,331,755
(21) To cash, paid charges per particulars	- - - - -	1,406,005
(24) To Thomas Dale's Lisbon account, for $\frac{1}{3}$ of the 18 pieces of eight received	- - - - -	9,600
(36) To ditto - - - - - for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what received for freight	- - - - -	1,779,331 $\frac{1}{3}$
(38) To ditto - - - - - for $\frac{2}{3}$ of 490 received for freight	- - - - -	303,800
(40) To profit and loss gained hereby	- - - - -	660,436
		12,965,384 $\frac{2}{3}$

THO. DALE OF LEGHORN PARTNER (my Leghorn Account).		Dr.
(8) To cash, for his draught - - - - - at 930	Doll. 1506 18 7 -	1,401,441
To ditto - - - - - at 925	400 - - - - -	370,000
To ditto - - - - - at 930	300 - - - - -	279,000
(9) To ditto - - - - - at 930	86 - - - - - 9 $\frac{1}{4}$	80,015
(10) To Anne galley, for discharge of an error - - - - -	3 6 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,113
		Doll. 2296 6 3 $\frac{3}{4}$
(11) To Anne galley in company, for the difference arising per exchange	- - - - -	2,002
(34) To ditto, for what is due for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of freight received per him, as per his account	rendered thereof* dollars 551 : 6 : 2 $\frac{1}{3}$ - - - - - }	512,718
		511,718
* In Dale's ledger, Corman's Leghorn account is Dr. 236 : 0 : 1 $\frac{2}{3}$ And Cr. 787 : 6 : 4 551 : 6 : 2 $\frac{1}{3}$ the difference.		

JAMES GOODMAN OF BARCELONA.		Dr.
(3) To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account for $\frac{1}{3}$ his draught	Doll. of Legh. 394 : 4 : 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ Doll. of Barc. 479 : - : -	338,739

PETER WINBERTON OF SMYRNA.		Dr.
(6) To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account for $\frac{1}{3}$ the draught	Doll. of Legh. 168 : 6 : 7 Doll. of Smyr. 190 : 17 : -	

CASH.		Dr.
(12) To Anne galley in company, received for the lading wheat purchased per Winberton	- - - - -	5,332,700
(91) To ditto - - - - - received for freight of corn, &c. &c.	- - - - -	1,983,233
(23) To ditto - - - - - received for 18 pieces of eight	- - - - -	14,400
(35) To ditto - - - - - received for freight from Leghorn, Genoa, and to Lisbon	- - - - -	2,669,000
(37) To ditto - - - - - received for freight ditto dollars 490 : -	- - - - -	455,700
(39) To Capt. Barnby, received for prim. and now passed to his credit per question doll. 3000	- - - - -	2,790,000
		13,245,033

COMMISSION.		Dr.
(43) To profit and loss, for gain and close hereof	- - - - -	183,129 $\frac{2}{3}$

LED

LED

ONE THIRD IN THE ANNE GALLEY IN COMPANY.

PER CONTRA.			Reference column to ledger.	Cr. Rees.
(10)	By Thomas Dale's Leghorn account to rectify an error per contra	- - -	-	3,113
(11)	By ditto - - - for the difference per exchange	- - -	-	2,002
(12)	By cash, received for the loading of wheat	- - -	-	5,332,700
(17)	By Thomas Dale's Lisbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ parts of the charges expended to Algiers	- - -	-	1,055,182
(19)	By cash, received for freight of corn, &c.	- - -	-	1,983,233
(22)	By Thomas Dale's Lisbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ charges expended	- - -	-	937,336 $\frac{2}{3}$
(23)	By cash, received 18 pieces of eight *, at 800 rees per piece of eight per question	- - -	-	14,400
(34)	By Thomas Dale's Leghorn account for my $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the nett freight, doll. 551 : 6 : 2 $\frac{1}{3}$	- - -	-	512,718
(35)	By cash, received for freight from Leghorn, Genoa, and to Lisbon	- - -	-	2,669,000
(37)	By ditto - - - at 930 rees doll. 490 : — : —	- - -	-	455,700
				<u>12,965,384$\frac{2}{3}$</u>

PER CONTRA.			Cr.
(1)	By Anne galley in company, for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of total cost and charges	Doll. 1736 2 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,614,617
(3)	By James Goodman of Barcelona, for $\frac{1}{3}$ his draught	364 4 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	338,739
(4)	By Anne galley in company for $\frac{1}{3}$ insurance	3 6 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,113
(6)	By Peter Winberton of Smyrna for $\frac{1}{3}$ the draught	168 6 7	156,546
(7)	By Anne galley in company, &c. for what he reckons	24 5 1	22,556
		<u>Doll. 2296 6 3$\frac{3}{4}$</u>	
(38)	By Thomas Dale's Lisbon account to rectify an error	Doll. 326 13 4	303,800
(41)	By balance for what he owes me on this account	224 12 10 $\frac{1}{3}$	208,918
		<u>551 6 2$\frac{1}{3}$</u>	<u>512,718</u>

PER CONTRA.			Cr.
(2)	By Anne galley in company for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of his disbursements	Doll. of Legh. 364 : 4 : 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ Doll. of Barc. 479 : — : —	338,739

PER CONTRA.			Cr.
(5)	By Anne galley in company for my $\frac{1}{3}$ of his disbursements	Doll. of Legh. 168 : 6 : 7 Doll. of Smyr. 190 : 17 : —	

P E R C O N T R A.					Cr.
(8)	By Thomas Dale's Leghorn account for his three draughts	-	-	-	2,050,441
(9)	By ditto for the balance of my account	-	-	-	80,015
(13)	By Anne galley in company, paid charges	-	-	-	469,620
(16)	By ditto - - - - to Algiers	-	-	-	1,582,774
(21)	By ditto - - - - per particulars	-	-	-	1,406,005
(26)	By ship Jenny proper, for her cost and all charges fitting out	-	-	-	2,118,342
(42)	By balance for what received more than paid	-	-	-	5,537,836
					<u>13,245,033</u>

P E R C O N T R A.										Cr.
(14)	By Anne galley in company, allowed $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on sale of wheat	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	133,317
(18)	By Thomas Dale's Lisbon account for $\frac{2}{3}$ allowed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26,379 $\frac{1}{3}$
(25)	By ditto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23,433 $\frac{1}{3}$
										<hr/>
										183,129 $\frac{1}{3}$

THOMAS DALE'S LISBON ACCOUNT.

		Dr.
		Rees.
(17)	To Anne galley in company, for $\frac{2}{3}$ parts charges paid to Algiers	1,055,182
(18)	To commiffion for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what I reckon	26,379 $\frac{1}{4}$
(22)	To Anne galley in company for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what paid	937,336 $\frac{1}{4}$
(25)	To commiffion for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what I reckon	23,433 $\frac{1}{4}$
(38)	To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account to rectify the error per contra dollars 326 $\frac{2}{3}$	
(44)	To balance owing to him on this account	4,231,530 $\frac{1}{4}$
		6,273,861 $\frac{2}{4}$

Reference column to ledger.

SHIP JENNY PROPER.

At 97d. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. E. per milrec.

		Dr.
(26)	To cash, for coft, charges, and difbursements, for fitting her to New England	2,118,342
(28)	To Peter Blaxland's New England account, for coft, charges, &c. of cod-fish *	4,623,384
(45)	To profit and lofs, for gain on this fhip and clofe hereof	1,603,403
		8,345,129

N. E. M. Rees. N. E. M.
 * Found thus: If 97d. $\frac{1}{2}$ give 1000 l. 1878 : 5
 Answer 4,623,384 Rees.

PETER BLAXLAND OF NEW ENGLAND, (My Account).

		Sterling Money.	New England Money.	Dr.
(27)	To fhip Jenny proper, for the nett proceed of falt		l. 571 : 15 : 5	1,407,435
(29)	To King of London, a draught on him at 55 per cent.	l. 225 fterling.	348 : — : 0	856,615 $\frac{3}{4}$
(30)	To Kelly of ditto - - - at 50 per cent.	100 : — : —	150 : — : 0	369,230 $\frac{3}{4}$
(31)	To Bradby ditto - - - at 50 per cent.	538 : 19 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	808 : 9 : 7	1,990,102 $\frac{1}{2}$
		l. 863 : 19 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	l. 1878 : 5 : 0	4,623,384

JOHN KING OF LONDON.

(46)	To balance owing to him	225 l. fterl.	Dr. 856,615 $\frac{3}{4}$
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JOHN KELLY OF LONDON.

(47)	To balance owing to him	100 l. fterl.	Dr. 369,230 $\frac{3}{4}$
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PETER BRADBY OF LONDON.

(48)	To balance owing to him	l. 538 : 19 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	Dr. 1,990,102 $\frac{1}{2}$
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CAPT. BARNBY OF THE ANNE GALLEY.

(49)	To balance owing to him	Doll. 3000	Dr. 2,790,000
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J. BRADSON'S ACCOUNT OF BILBOA, (My Spanish Account).

		Ryals Plate.	Dr.
(32)	To fhip Jenny proper, for the proportionate part of the fift account of } Blaxland and felf in company per Bradfon's account *	69,453 : 26 $\frac{3}{4}$	5,037,716

* Vide Bradfon's ledger.

J. DIXON'S ACCOUNT OF CADIZ, (My Spanish Account.)

		Ryals.	Dr.
(33)	To fhip Jenny proper, for the nett produce of the chefnut hoops, and } of the fhip Jenny herfelf as per Dixon's account *	20,266 : 15	1,899,978.

* Vide Dixon's ledger.

LED

Reference column to ledger.

(15)	By Anne galley in company,	for $\frac{2}{3}$	nett proceed of wheat, being	-	-	-	3,153,175 $\frac{2}{3}$
(20)	By ditto	-	for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what I received for freight	-	-	-	1,331,755
(24)	By ditto	-	for $\frac{2}{3}$ of 18 pieces of eight valued at	-	-	-	9,600
(36)	By ditto	-	for $\frac{2}{3}$ of what received for freight	-	-	-	1,779,331 $\frac{1}{3}$
(38)	By ditto	-	ditto - - of 490 rees is doll.	326 $\frac{2}{3}$	-	-	
							<u>6,273,861 $\frac{2}{3}$</u>

At 97d. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. E. M. per milree.

(27)	By Peter Blaxand's New England account for nett proceed of salt l. 571 : 15 = 5 *	-	1,407,435
(32)	By Bradson's account of Bilboa, for part of the said fish Ryals 69,453 : 26 $\frac{3}{4}$ †	-	5,037,716
(33)	By Dixon of Cadiz, for nett proceed of hoops and the ship, &c. 20,266 : 15 †	-	1,898,071
			8,345,129

	Rees.	Rees.
* Found thus: If 97 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. E. M. - - 1000 - - 1.511:15 N. E. M.		1,407,435.
† Lisbon exchanges with Bilboa on ducats of 375 marvedees at about 800 rees per ducat. ∴ Ryals		
× by 34 and ÷ by 375, give ducats 6297:2:11, at 800 rees, &c.		
Lisbon on Cadiz, at rees 750 plus or minus per doll. of 272 marvedees, ∴ × 34 and ÷ 272.		

At 97 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per milree.

(28)	By ship Jenny proper, for what he has expended for cod-fish, &c.	-	1. 1878 : 5 : —	4,623,384
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New England Money.

(29)	By Blaxland's New Engl. acc ^t . for a draught on him of 1.225:0:0 at 65d. ft. per milree	856,615 $\frac{3}{4}$
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1. 1878 : 5 : —

(30)	By Blaxland's New Eng. acc ^t . drawn on him by order 1. 100:0:0 at 65d. ft. per milree	369,230 ³ / ₄
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11. 1070. 3.

(31) By Blaxland's New England acc^t. for a draught of || l. 538 : 19 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ at 65d. ft. per milree | 1,990,102 $\frac{1}{2}$

930 fixt

(39)	By cash, received his primage of 200 tons, at 15 doll. per ton	Doll. 3000 : — : —	2,790,000
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|| Ryals Plate.

(18) By balance for what he owes me, being	69,453 : 26 $\frac{3}{4}$	5,037,716
--	---------------------------	-----------

Ryals.

(19) By balance for what he owes me, being	20,266 : 15	1,899 978
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L E D

L E D

PROFIT and LOSS.

		D ^r .
		Rees.
(50)	To balance, for gain and close of this account - - - - -	2,446,968 $\frac{1}{2}$

BALANCE.

		D ^r .
		Rees.
(40)	To Thomas Dale's Leghorn account due to me thereon. Doll. 224 = 12 = 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ -	208 9 18
(42)	To cash, for what I have received more than paid in this affair - - -	5,537,836
(50)	To Bradson, for what he owes me for produce of fish Ryals 69,453 : 26 $\frac{3}{4}$ - -	5,037,716
(54)	To Dixon's account of Cadiz for what he owes me - 20,266 : 15 - -	1,899,978
		<u>12,684,448</u>

JAMES GOODMAN'S LEDGER.

CASH.

		SPANISH MONEY.
		D ^r .
		Doll. Sols. Den.
(1)	To ship Anne galley, account of Messrs. Dale and Corman received freight -	1242 : 10 : —
(5)	To ship Anne galley, &c. for a draught on balance - - -	1437 : — : —
		<u>2679 : 10 : —</u>
N. B. The pistole is worth 4 piafters, or 32 ryals exchange, ∴ pistoles 359 : 5 drawn on Dale of Leghorn, or 4) 1437 = 359 : 5, at livr. 18 $\frac{1}{4}$ per pistole = doll. 6556 $\frac{1}{4}$ long money of Leghorn, ÷ 6 = doll. 1092 : 14 : 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ drawn on Dale.		

SHIP THE ANNE GALLEY, Account of Messrs. Dale and Corman.

		D ^r .
(2)	To cash, paid for 2000 pieces of eight account of Dale and Corman - -	2648 : 12 : 6
(3)	To ditto, paid postage of letters - - - - -	— : 15 : —
(4)	To profit and loss, for commission for my trouble - - - - -	30 : 2 : 6
		<u>2679 : 10 : —</u>

PROFIT and LOSS.

		D ^r .
(7)	To balance for close hereof - - - - -	30 : 2 : 6

BALANCE.

		D ^r .
(6)	To cash, for what received more than paid in this affair - - -	30 : 2 : 6

LED

LED

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
		Rees.
(40)	By the Anne galley in company gained thereby	660,436
(43)	By commission gained by that article	183,129 ² / ₃
(45)	By the ship Jenny for proper account gained thereby	1,603,403
		<u>2,446,968²/₃</u>

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
		Rees.
(44)	By Thomas Dale's Lisbon account owing to him thereon	4,231,530 ¹ / ₃
(46)	By John King of London, for what drawn on him	856,615 ³ / ₄
(47)	By John Kelly of London, ditto	369,230 ¹ / ₄
(48)	By Peter Bradby of London, drawn on him	1,990,102 ¹ / ₂
(49)	By Capt. Barnby of London, received his primage Doll. 3000 at 930	2,790,000
(50)	To profit and loss, for gain and close of that account	2,446,968 ² / ₃
		<u>12,684,448</u>

OF BARCELONA.

PER CONTRA.

		SPANISH MONEY.
		Cr.
		Doll. Sols. Den.
(2)	By ship account of Messrs. Dale and Corman, paid for 2000 pieces of eight, &c.	2648 : 12 : 6
(3)	By ditto paid postage of letters	— : 15 : —
(6)	By balance for what received more than paid and close hereof	30 : 2 : 9
		<u>2679 : 10 : —</u>

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(1)	By cash, received the freight to purchase pieces of eight for Smyrna, &c.	1242 : 10 : —
(5)	By ditto, received the balance hereof per a Draught on Dale	1435 : — : —
		<u>2679 : 10 : —</u>

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(4)	By ship the Anne galley account of Messrs. Dale and Corman, allowed commission	30 : 2 : 6

PER CONTRA.

		Cr.
(7)	By profit and loss, to shut up account	30 : 2 : 6

LED

LED

PETER WINBERTON'S LEDGER

C A S H.		Reference column to ledger.	D ^r .	
			Doll.	Aspers.
(1)	To pieces of eight account of Messrs. Dale and Corman merchants, received	-	2700	: — : —
(9)	To Messrs. Dale and Corman, drawn on Dale, the balance	- - -	570	: 51 : —
			3270	: 51 : —

PIECES of EIGHT ACCOUNT of DALE and CORMAN.		Reference column to ledger.	D ^r .	
			Doll.	Aspers.
(2)	To cash, for consulage and shroffage, the first 2 per cent. and other 4 per milree	-	64	: 64 : —
(3)	To provision at 2 per cent. on these transactions	- - -	54	: — : —
(7)	To Messrs. Dale and Corman's account due on this affair	- - -	2581	: 16 : —
			2700	: — : —

P R O V I S I O N.		Reference column to ledger.	D ^r .	
			Doll.	Aspers.
(11)	To profit and loss, for gain and close hereof	- - -	133	: 22 : —

WHEAT ACCOUNT of Messrs. DALE and CORMAN, Merchants.		Reference column to ledger.	D ^r .	
			Doll.	Aspers.
(4)	To cash, paid for 4780 kellowes at various prices per account	-	2651	: 2 : 2
(5)	To cash, paid charges on this affair amounting to	- - -	421	: 42 : 3
(6)	To provision, allowed me at 3 per cent. is	- - -	79	: 22 : —
			3151	: 67 : —

Messrs. DALE and CORMAN's ACCOUNT Current.		Reference column to ledger.	D ^r .	
			Doll.	Aspers.
(8)	To wheat account of themselves, owing thereon	- - -	3151	: 67 : —

B A L A N C E.		Reference column to ledger.	D ^r .	
			Doll.	Aspers.
(10)	To cash, received more than paid	- - -	133	: 22 : —

P R O F I T and L O S S.		Reference column to ledger.	D ^r .	
			Doll.	Aspers.
(12)	To balance, for close hereof	- - -	133	: 22 : —

LED

LED

OF SMYRNA *

PER CONTRA.

- (2) By pieces of eight account of Messrs. Dale and Corman paid for account
 (4) By wheat account of ditto paid for 4780 kellowes per question
 (5) By ditto, paid charges amounting to per particulars
 (10) By balance received more than paid

C ^r .	
Doll.	Aspers.
64	64 : —
2651	2 : —
421	42 : —
123	22 : —
3270	51 : —

* Smyrna keeps accounts in dollars and aspers, 80 aspers = 1 dollar.

PER CONTRA.

- (1) By cash, received for 2000 at 35 per cent.

C ^r .	
2700	— : —

PER CONTRA.

- (3) By pieces of eight account of Messrs. Dale and Corman, allowed me
 (6) By wheat account of Dale and Corman, &c. allowed me

C ^r .	
54	— : —
79	22 : —
133	22 : —

PER CONTRA.

- (8) By Messrs. Dale and Corman due from this account

C ^r .	
3151	67 : —

PER CONTRA.

- (7) By pieces of eight account of themselves, due thereon
 (9) By cash, received the balance drawn on Dale at 13 * per cent.

C ^r .	
2581	16 : —
570	51 : —
3151	67 : —

* i. e. 113 Dollars of Smyrna = 100 of Leghorn, ∴ If 113 dollars of Smyrna, give 100 dollars of Leghorn, what will 570 : 51 dollars of Smyrna.

Anfw. 504 : 19 : 9 $\frac{1}{4}$. Vide Dale's Leghorn account. ¶

PER CONTRA.

- (12) By profit and loss, for close

C ^r .	
133	22 : —

PER CONTRA.

- (11) By provision, for gain

C ^r .	
133	22 : —

LED

LED

PETER BLAXLAND'S LEDGER

SALT ACCOUNT of CORMAN of LISBON.		Reference column to ledger.	New England Money.
			D ^r :
			l. s. d.
(2)	To cash, paid charges hereon	- - - - -	15 : 1 : 10
(3)	To commission, allowed me hereon at 5 l. per cent.	- - - - -	30 : 17 : 9
(4)	To Corman's account current for nett proceed of his salt	- - - - -	571 : 15 : 5
			<u>617 : 15 : -</u>

CASH.			D ^r .
(1)	To salt account of Corman of Lisbon, received for 497 hogsheds	- - - - -	617 : 15 : -
(12)	To Corman's New England account, received for draught on King of London	- - - - -	348 : - : -
(13)	To ditto - - - - - received for a draught on Kelly of ditto	- - - - -	150 : - : -
(14)	To ditto - - - - - ditto - - - - - on Bradby ditto	- - - - -	808 : 9 : 7
(16)	To balance paid more than received in this affair	- - - - -	374 : 10 : 8
			<u>2298 : 15 : 3</u>

COMMISSION.			D ^r .
(17)	To profit and loss, for gain and close hereof	- - - - -	99 : 9 : 11

J. CORMAN's (New England) Account.			D ^r .
(6)	To cod-fish in company, for his proportional part of the cost	- - - - -	1350 : 7 : 10
(8)	To ditto, for his proportional part of charges	- - - - -	21 : 16 : 8
(9)	To commission, for his proportional part of what I reckon	- - - - -	68 : 12 : 2
(11)	To ship Jenny account of himself, due thereon	- - - - -	437 : 8 : 4
			<u>1878 : 5 : -</u>

COD-FISH ACCOUNT, in Proportion between CORMAN and SELF.			D ^r .
(5)	To cash, paid for at various prices, 1871 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals	- - - - -	1816 : 17 : 3
(7)	To cash, paid charges	- - - - -	29 : 7 : 10
(18)	To profit and loss gained hereon for my part	- - - - -	288 : 2 : 3
			<u>2134 : 7 : 4</u>

SHIP JENNY ACCOUNT of CORMAN of LISBON.			D ^r .
(10)	To cash, paid several disbursements on her amounting to	- - - - -	437 : 8 : 4

BRADSON of BILBOA, (My Spanish Account).		At 60d. per piece of eight.	D ^r .
(15)	To cod-fish in proportion, for my proportionate part of nett proceed	Ryals. Mar. 24,388 : 18 *	762 : 2 : 10
		* Vide Bradson's ledger how found.	

BALANCE.		N. B. 6d. per dollar.	D ^r .
(19)	To Bradson, for what he owes me, being Ryals 24,388 : 18	- - - - -	762 : 2 : 10

PROFIT and LOSS.			D ^r .
(20)	To balance, for close hereof	- - - - -	387 : 12 : 2

L E D

L E D

O F N E W E N G L A N D .

P E R C O N T R A .

(1) By cash, received for falt 497 hogheads

Reference column to ledger.
New England Money.
Ct.
l. s. d.
617 : 15 : —

P E R C O N T R A .

(2) By falt account of Corman, paid charges thereon
(5) By cod-fish in proportion, paid for 1871 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals
(7) By ditto paid charges
(10) By ship Jenny account of Corman, paid on her

Ct.
15 : 1 : 10
1816 : 17 : 3
29 : 7 : 10
437 : 8 : 4
2298 : 15 : 3

P E R C O N T R A .

(3) By falt account of Corman of Lisbon
(9) By J. Corman's New England account for his part of what I reckon

Ct.
30 : 17 : 9
68 : 12 : 2
99 : 9 : 11

P E R C O N T R A .

(4) By falt account of himself for nett proceed thereof
(12) By cash, received per Corman's order by draught on King
(13) By ditto, received ditto on Kelly
(14) By ditto for balance of Corman's account

Ct.
571 : 15 : 5
348 : — : —
150 : — : —
808 : 9 : 7
1878 : 5 : —

P E R C O N T R A .

Valued at 60d. N. E. M. per piece of eight.

(6) By Corman's New England account for his proportional part therein
(8) By ditto, for his part of the charges expended
(15) By Bradson of Bilboa, for my proportional part of nett proceed Ryals 24,388 : 18

Ct.
1350 : 7 : 10
21 : 16 : 8
762 : 2 : 10
2134 : 7 : 4

P E R C O N T R A .

(11) By J. Corman's New England account for close hereof

Ct.
437 : 8 : 4

P E R C O N T R A .

(19) By balance to shut up this account

Ryals. Mar.
24,388 : 18

Ct.
762 : 2 : 10

P E R C O N T R A .

(16) By cash, for what paid more than received
(20) By profit and loss for close hereof

Ct.
374 : 10 : 8
387 : 12 : 2
762 : 2 : 10

P E R C O N T R A .

(17) By commission, for gain
(18) By cod-fish in company gained thereby

Ct.
99 : 9 : 11
288 : 2 : 3
387 : 12 : 2

L E D

L E D

J. BRADSON'S LEDGER.

C A S H.				SPANISH MONEY.
				D ^r .
(1)	To fish account of Corman, received for 1640 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals	-	-	Ryals Pl. Mar. 103,811 : 11
				Reference column to ledger.
FISH ACCOUNT of CORMAN and CO.				D ^r .
(2)	To cash, paid charges in ryals plate	-	1640 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals	3070 : 12
(3)	To ditto, paid in ryals vellon, 1049 is plate ryals	-	-	559 : 16
(4)	To commission, for 5 per cent. on sales, at 5 ryals per cent. is	-	-	5190 : 19
(9)	To Corman's account current due to him hereon	-	-	94,990 : 32
				103,811 : 11
C O M M I S S I O N :				D ^r .
(13)	To profit and loss gained hereby	-	-	5245 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
CHESTNUT-HOOPS ACCOUNT of CORMAN of LISBON.				D ^r .
(5)	To cash, charges paid hereon	-	-	21 : 10
(6)	To ditto, paid 800 ryals vellon, and 10,050 quarts vellon for 500 bundles, is	-	-	1057 : 1 $\frac{3}{4}$
(7)	To ditto, paid 1000 marvedees vellon, is	-	-	15 : 20
(8)	To commission, allowed me 5 per cent. on the returns per question	-	-	54 : 23 $\frac{1}{2}$
				1148 : 21 $\frac{1}{4}$
JAMES CORMAN'S ACCOUNT CURRENT.				D ^r .
(10)	To chestnut-hoops, his account due to me thereon as above	-	-	1148 : 21 $\frac{1}{4}$
(11)	To Peter Blaxland of New England, for his proportional part of fish	-	-	24,388 : 18
(14)	To balance for what I owe him	-	-	69,453 : 26 $\frac{3}{4}$
				94,990 : 32
PETER BLAXLAND of NEW ENGLAND, his Account current.				D ^r .
(15)	To balance owing to him	-	-	24,388 : 18
				N. B. 4 Marvadees vellon = 1 quart vellon, and 15 ryals vellon = 8 ryals plate.
B A L A N C E.				D ^r .
(12)	To cash, received more than paid	-	-	99,087 : 19 $\frac{1}{4}$
P R O F I T and L O S S.				D ^r .
(16)	To balance, for gain and close of this account	-	-	5245 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$

LED

LED

OF BILBOA.

PER CONTRA.				Reference column to ledger.	SPANISH MONEY.
					Cr.
					Ryals Pl. Mar.
(2)	By fish account of Corman and company, paid charges	-	-	-	3270 : 12
(3)	By ditto	-	-	-	559 : 16
(5)	By chestnut-hoops, paid charges thereon	-	-	-	21 : 10
(6)	By ditto	-	-	-	1057 : 1 $\frac{3}{4}$
(7)	By ditto - paid 1000 marvadees	-	-	-	15 : 20
(12)	By balance, received more than paid	:	-	-	99,087 : 19 $\frac{1}{4}$
					103,811 : 11

PER CONTRA.					Cr.
(1)	By cash, received for	-	-	1640 $\frac{1}{2}$ quintals	103,811 : 11

PER CONTRA.					Cr.
(4)	By fish account of Corman, for commission on the sale	-	-	-	5190 : 19
(8)	By chestnut-hoops, allowed me 5 per cent. on the return to Corman	-	-	-	51 : 23 $\frac{1}{2}$
					5245 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$

PER CONTRA.					Cr.
(10)	By Corman's account current for close hereof and transfer thither	-	-	-	1148 : 21 $\frac{1}{4}$

PER CONTRA.					Cr.
(9)	By fish account of himself, due for nett proceed thereof	-	-	-	94,990 : 32

PER CONTRA.					Cr.
(11)	By Corman's account current, for his proportionate part of my cod-fish *	-	-	-	24,388 : 18
	Quintals.		Quintals.		
	* If 1871 $\frac{1}{2}$	94,990 : 32	1391 for Corman's account.		
	Anfw. 70,602 : 14	Corman's share.			
	And 24,388 : 18	Blaxland's ditto.			
	94,990 : 32	the produce.			

PER CONTRA.					Cr.
(14)	By Corman's account current, due to him	-	-	-	69,453 : 26 $\frac{3}{4}$
(15)	By Peter Blaxland of New England, ditto	-	-	-	24,388 : 18
(16)	By balance	-	-	-	5245 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
					99,087 : 19 $\frac{1}{4}$

PER CONTRA.					Cr.
(13)	By commission, for gain thereby	-	-	-	5245 : 8 $\frac{1}{4}$

L E D

L E D

J. DIXON'S LEDGER

C A S H.		SPANISH MONEY.	
		Dr.	
		Ryals. Plate. O. P.	
(1)	To chestnut-hoops account of Corman received for 498 bundles	-	2130 : — : —
(5)	To ship Jenny, received freight 10,317 $\frac{3}{4}$ ryals plate, new money, is	-	8254 : 7 : —
(6)	To ditto, for the gross average	-	376 : — : —
N. B. 10 Ryals new = 8 ryals old plate.		-	10,759 : 7 : —

CHESTNUT-HOOPS ACCOUNT of CORMAN.		Dr.	
(2)	To cash, paid brokerage 1 per cent. on sales 2130 ryals plate is on 500 bundles	-	21 : 10 : —
(3)	To ditto, paid extraordinary charges on the sale $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.	-	10 : 22 : —
(4)	To commission for 4 per cent. on the sales	-	85 : 6 : —
(12)	To Corman of Lisbon's account current for nett proceed hereof	-	2012 : 30 : —
		-	2130 : — : —

C O M M I S S I O N.		Dr.	
(15)	To profit and loss, for gain and close hereof	-	716 : 28 : —

SHIP JENNY, ACCOUNT of CORMAN of LISBON.		Dr.	
(7)	To commission for freight and average 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.	-	215 : 22 : —
(9)	To cash, for charges	-	40 : — : —
(10)	To cash, for brokerage, &c. on 1300 pieces of eight	-	104 : — : —
(11)	To commission for 4 per cent. on 1300 pieces of eight, is ryals	-	416 : — : —
(13)	To Corman's account current for the nett produce of ship Jenny	-	18,253 : 19 : —
		-	19,029 : 7 : —

J. CORMAN of LISBON, his ACCOUNT Current.		Dr.	
(16)	To balance owing to him	-	20,266 : 15 : —

DAVID BURROWS.		Dr.	
(8)	To ship Jenny account of Corman, sold her for 1300 pieces of eight, is ryals	-	10,400 : — : —

B A L A N C E.		Dr.	
(14)	To cash, for close thereof	-	10,583 : 9 : —
(17)	To David Burrows, for what he owes for the ship Jenny of Corman	-	10,400 : — : —
		-	20,983 : 9 : —

P R O F I T and L O S S.		Dr.	
(18)	To balance to shut up this account	-	716 : 28 : —

LED

LED

OF CADIZ.

PER CONTRA.										SPANISH MONEY.
										Cr.
										Ryals. Plate. O. P.
(2)	By chefnut-hoops account of Corman, paid brokerage	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	21 : 10 : —
(3)	By ditto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10 : 22 : —
(9)	By ship Jenny paid thereon	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	40 : — : —
(10)	By ditto - - brokerage, &c. on 1300 pieces of eight	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	104 : — : —
(14)	By balance received more than paid in this affair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,583 : 9 : —
										10,759 : 7 : —

Reference column to ledger.

PER CONTRA.										Cr.
(1)	By cash, received for 498 bundles	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2130 : — : —
	Applied by Capt. Walker 2 bundles for the ship's use, which makes out the 500 bundles.									

PER CONTRA.										Cr.
(4)	By chefnut-hoops account of Corman 4 per cent. on sales, is	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	85 : 6 : —
(7)	By ship Jenny account of Corman, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on freight and average	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	215 : 22 : —
(11)	By ditto, for 4 per cent. on the returns	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	416 : — : —
										716 : 28 : —

PER CONTRA.										Cr.
(5)	By cash, received for freight 10,317 $\frac{3}{4}$ ryals plate new, is old	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8254 : 7 : —
(6)	By ditto - - for the gross average	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	375 : — : —
(8)	By David Burrows, sold him the ship for 1300 pieces of eight	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,400 : — : —
										19,029 : 7 : —

PER CONTRA.										Cr.
(12)	By chefnut-hoops account of himself for the nett proceed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2012 : 30 : —
(13)	By ship Jenny account of Corman for the nett proceed of her	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18,253 : 19 : —
										20,266 : 15 : —

PER CONTRA.										Cr.
(17)	By balance for what he owes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,400 : — : —

PER CONTRA.										Cr.
(16)	By Corman's account owing to him	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20,266 : 15 : —
(18)	By profit and loss, for gain and close thereof	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	716 : 28 : —
										20,983 : 9 : —

PER CONTRA.										Cr.
(15)	By profit and loss, to shut up that account	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	716 : 28 : —

REMARKS.

From the face of the ledger-account of these mercantile negotiations, there arises a double advantage: (1.) The nature of carrying on foreign trade from one country to another, is intelligibly illustrated from facts and realities. (2.) The method of accountancy, as practised by the several merchants therein concerned, is, at the same time, familiarly exemplified; also the nature of foreign accounts, as kept in the monies of different countries, is represented; and those of MY ACCOUNT, HIS ACCOUNT, and COMPANY ACCOUNTS, or those of FACTOR and MERCHANT, as kept in their proper columns, are also set in a clear light: from whence is seen, likewise, in what manner the profit or loss is stated, that may happen by the rise or fall of the prices current of exchange.

The conformity, also, amongst these several accounts is manifest; and nothing can give a better idea of mercantile accountancy, than the stating of all the accounts respectively of the several parties who may be concerned in foreign adventures.

By accounts of this kind, the nature of anonymous partnerships in foreign traffic may be judged of, and the reasonableness of what we have said under the article anonymous, which is not incurious. See ANONYMOUS.

These accounts very plainly show the justness and elegance of the art of accountancy by debtor and creditor, according to the true merchant-like method, by double entry; for, if one merchant has dealings with ever so many others in foreign countries, if they are all thoroughly skilled in this admirable art, they can have no misunderstanding in the stating of their accounts, as to the part of charge and discharge; their balances will be all in conformity to their vouchers; and, if there happen to be any mistakes in relation to the arithmetical part, these are easily rectified: whence the reason of the signature of the ordinary phrase of ERRORS EXCEPTED, in the mutual transmission of accounts from trader to trader, is apparent.

And when any errors happen to be committed in the stating of the accounts, as well with respect to their debts and credits in the ledger, as in the journal, or any mistakes of a different kind occur, it is as inconsistent with the character of the fair and honourable trader, as with that of an accountant, to suffer any erasures or obliterations in his books: his business is to acknowledge such mistakes by plain words, and rectify them by writing them off in the ledger, or properly explaining them, if they are of the arithmetical kind, &c.—It is, therefore, we have left here and there an error, as happened in stating the accounts, with design to show how they are wrote off, without rasure or obliteration. For more matter in relation to this excellent method of account-keeping, see the articles BANKING, DEBTOR and CREDITOR, and MERCANTILE ACCOUNTSHIP.

LEEWARD-ISLANDS in AMERICA; chiefly those islands that were called the NEUTRAL-ISLANDS before the last peace.

The French, after they first became masters of GUADALOUPE and MARTINICO, as they made no scruple of destroying and expelling the inhabitants, so when that was once done, they under colour of a treaty pretended themselves to be defenders of them in DOMINICA and ST. VINCENT, that they might hinder England from extending her territories, till they should grow strong enough to occupy these as they had done the rest.

The negotiation last mentioned, was actually depending when the revolution happened. But notwithstanding this, the French thinking the opportunity favourable, broke without ceremony the treaty of NEUTRALITY; made November 5, 1686, at Whitchall, by attacking the English quarters in the island of St. Christopher's, which was insisted upon by king William and queen Mary, as the grounds of declaring war against the French king in America. From this period, down to the treaty of AIX LA-CHAPELLE in 1748, both nations have kept up their claims; and by the last mentioned treaty, things were again reduced to their old situation, by a positive declaration that ST. LUCIA, ST. VINCENT, and DOMINICA, should be esteemed NEUTRAL; and considered in that light, not to be settled by other nations.

By that treaty likewise, a fourth island was added, to which the French had never laid any express or direct claim before, and this was TOBAGO. Such were the regulations this treaty made, and such the state of things, or at least such the state of things ought to have been, at the opening of the late war. By the 9th article of the peace signed at Paris, February 10, 1763, all the three islands of DOMINICA, ST. VINCENT, and TOBAGO, were yielded in full and perpetual sovereignty to GREAT-BRITAIN, the island of St. Lucia being ceded by the king of Great-Britain to France, in exchange for the ISLAND of GRANADA, which by the before mentioned 9th-article, with the GRANADINES or GRENADILLAS, and all their DEPENDENCIES, are absolutely and for ever yielded to Great-Britain. We shall describe the three formerly NEUTRAL, which are now become BRITISH ISLANDS, and these TWO ISLANDS that were thus exchanged.

DOMINICA lies, as it were, in the bosom of all the FRENCH

ISLES, 8 leagues north-west from MARTINICO; about the same distance, south east from GUADALOUPE; having the three small islands called the Saints, between them, and at the distance of five leagues south-west from Marigalante. Dominica lies stretched out from south to north-west. It is a large island, at least twenty-eight English miles in length, and about thirteen in breadth, in circumference about 30 leagues. It is not intersected by large inlets of the seas, as many others, both of the larger and lesser of our own, and the French West-Indian islands are, and of course contains the more land. Some have judged it near twice as large as Barbadoes, and the French esteem it near half the size of Martinico. The climate in general is reputed wholesome. After this isle becomes thoroughly cleared, it will be more healthy and agreeable to European constitutions. The face of the country is rough and mountainous towards the sea side especially, and within land, there are many rich and fine vallies, and some spacious and fair plains. The declivities of the hills are commonly gentle, so as to facilitate their cultivation, and the soil in general a deep black mould, and commended for its fertility, by the Spanish and French, as well as the English. It is well watered, by at least 30 rivers, some of which are spacious and navigable for several miles, the rest commodious for planting, and variety of fish. It abounds in all kinds of timber, that are customary in the West-India isles. Their fruits are superior to those in Martinico and Guadeloupe. Hogs both wild and tame are in plenty, as well as most sorts of fowl. Ground provisions in general are here as good as in any of the other isles; such as bananas, potatoes, maniac, from which the cassada is made, the common bread of the Indians, Negroes, and even Europeans: their pine apples are reputed large and fine flavoured. The settlements made by the French upon the coast, were esteemed equal, if not superior in produce, to those in their own isles. The Spanish writers, particularly Oviedo, say, there are several safe ports and convenient creeks. On the north-west end of the island, there is a deep, sandy, large bay, well defended by the adjacent mountains from most winds, which from prince Rupert's anchoring in it, when in those parts, has received his name, where our armament under the late lord Cathcart, lay very commodiously, and which was of great service to our squadron in the course of the late war. There is a good anchoring ground along all the LEEWARD COAST.—The French have acknowledged, that sugar, cotton coffee, cocoa, and indeed every thing, that either they or we have been able to raise, in any of the other islands, may be produced in large quantities as well as in great perfection here.

The Indians may, without prejudice to our people, have convenient districts of land allotted them; in which by good management and mild treatment, they may be rendered very useful to our new colony, in raising stock, and other things, as they have been for a century, to the French in Martinico. It may be proper on our first establishment to allot small plantations to such soldiers, and larger to such officers as have families, and are inclined to settle upon the island, and to offer them every kind of encouragement that may increase their number, as those people would then be able to defend their property. Numbers of our countrymen settled in St. Eustatia, St. Croix, and Cape Isaquepe, might be invited to return upon advantageous terms into the territories of their natural sovereign. A form of government upon those of our other islands, guarded against the acquisition by all grasping individuals, of large quantities of unsettled and uncultivated land, with the restrictions, that take place in Barbadoes, for the constant maintenance of a numerous and well disciplined militia, &c. cannot fail of drawing thither a sufficient number of inhabitants, and with the help of regular fortifications, would render the island secure, and they would make it flourishing. This would induce to the discovery of that mine, for which this island has been always famous, which the English believe from tradition to be silver, but what the French well know to be gold; and though it should not be judged expedient to open it, yet the certain knowledge of it could do us no injury, and the very fame of it might invite numbers there, and prove of great benefit.

Nor need apprehension of insecurity intimidate the resort of people thither. Besides the immediate assistance this isle might receive from Barbadoes, while we retain our maritime superiority, a respectable squadron on the first appearance of a rupture might be sent to Prince Rupert's bay, with a force sufficient to quiet the fear of the inhabitants. But if such an event be at any distance, the island in that time may be fully settled, and from its extent and fortifications, exempt from the danger of any sudden invasion; and in that state would serve as a place of arms, and the rendezvous of our forces, from all parts of the WEST INDIES; when from the nature of its situation the whole of the French commerce in these parts must instantly become precarious, and all their settlements be at our mercy.

The island of ST. VINCENT lies between five and six leagues south-west from ST. LUCIA, 23 south-west from Martinico, 36 south from DOMINICA, 30 west by south from Barbadoes, and 17 north-east from GRANADA. Being thus situated directly

reſly to the leeward of Barbadoes, it may in a few hours be reached from thence, and is at the ſame time ſo ſeated, as to cover and connect the ſmall iſlands that lie between it and GRANADA. It is from ſouth to north, about 24 of our miles in length, and about half as many in breadth, fixty, or thereabouts in circumference.—It is rather bigger than Antigua, and if not larger, at leaſt as large as Barbadoes, ſomewhat ſmaller than ST. LUCIA, and much about 2 thirds of the bignefs of DOMINICA. The warmth of the climate is ſo tempered with ſea breezes, that it is looked upon as very healthful and agreeable, and on the eminencies that are numerous, the air is rather cool.

The ſoil in general is extraordinary fertile, tho' the country is hilly, and in ſome places mountainous. Amongſt the former, there are pleaſant vallies; at the bottom of the latter, ſome large and luxuriant plains. No iſland of the like extent is better watered; from the mountains there deſcend rivers, and leſſer ſtreams run on both ſides from almoſt every hill. There are ſeveral fine ſprings at a ſmall diſtance from the ſea, and the ſlopes ſo eaſy and regular, that there are hardly any marſhes, and no ſtanding waters on the iſle. There are here large quantities of valuable timber, as well as good fruit-trees, ſome peculiar to this iſle. It abounds with wild ſugar-canes, from which the natives make a very pleaſant liquor; corn, rice, and all ſorts of ground proviſions, are raiſed in plenty, and without great trouble. In the ſouth part of the iſland, where the French have raiſed ſome large and flouriſhing ſettlements, they have coffee, indigo, cocoa, anatto, and very fine tobacco.—They have plenty of cattle and poultry, and ſend ſome lignum vitæ, and ſome timber to Martinico, where the latter is employed in building houſes, and in their fortifications. The rivers are ſtored with divers ſorts of freſh fiſh, and the ſea contiguous to it's coaſts abounds with thoſe proper to it's element, and the general nature of the climate. Both land and water fowl are in plenty.

From the ſpecimens above given, we may collect, that when this country comes to be duly well cultivated, according to the invitation it gives, it would, in reſpect to it's produce, be little, if at all inferior, to any for extent, of the iſlands we have poſſeſſed; eſpecially if we conſider that it has many commodious bays, on the north-weſt and ſouth-weſt ſides, with abundance of convenient creeks, and good anchoring ground on every ſide. At the ſouthern extremity there is a deep, ſpacious, ſandy bay, called St. Antonio, where ſhips of large ſize may lie ſafely and commodiouſly; and when the whole comes to be further known, there is little doubt, but other advantages will be experienced, notwithstanding the French have been ſolicitous to repreſent the iſland heretofore, as an insignificant diſagreeable deſert, when they had a view of engroſſing it to themſelves.—The French have for ſeveral years gone on ſettling, planting, cutting timber, and raiſing every kind of Weſt India commodities, except ſugar, and carrying on a very lucrative trade to their other iſlands, in which a number of ſloops have been employed.

In relation to the ſecurity of this iſland, there is no doubt, that a competent military force muſt be ſent to protect our firſt eſtabliſhments; and as aſſiſtance may be derived from Barbadoes, at any time in the ſpace of a few hours, the French can take no advantage of this iſland, provided care is taken to pacify all miſunderſtandings between the native Indians and the Negroes, as they ſhall happen.

From the foregoing brief deſcription of this iſle, it appears to be a fine fruitful one; all the ancient, and of courſe unbiaſſed relations we have of it by authors of credit of every nation, Spaniſh, French, and Dutch, as well as our own, concur in this representation. By depriving the French of all the ſettlements they had made at this iſland, of the produce thereof, and of the advantages ariſing from the trade, which was regularly ſettled between this and their other iſlands, and throwing them into the Britiſh ſcale of general commerce, may be conſidered as no deſpicable acquiſition to this nation. It ſhould not be forgot that all our former diſputes, too numerous to ſpecify relative hereunto, are by the peace of 1763, brought to a concluſion; this iſland is now become perpetually and incontestibly ours, we having given an equivalent for this and others, and the French have no colour or pretence for reviving any ſort of claim thereto.

By this acquiſition of ST. VINCENT, Great-Britain has likewiſe gained an additional check upon the French inland colonies in general, and particularly on that of ST. LUCIA, which is ceded to that nation. There can be no meaſure taken there, of which we may not have immediate notice; and if we conſider the ſituation of this iſland in reſpect to that and the reſt of the French iſlands, now that GRANADA and all its dependencies are become Britiſh, it ſeems pretty apparent, we may from thence eſtabliſh a cruize, by which they may be effectually blocked up, or at leaſt deprived of all commerce, in caſe of a future war.

Should it be objected, that the bays in this iſland may not be convenient for a large ſquadron, ſince our ſquadrons avoid as much as poſſible coming into or continuing long in bays however commodious; nor does experience evince that our naval armament have hitherto ſuffered much from the want of ſuch conveniencies in the hurricane months, in which they

are chiefly neceſſary; but from their dangerous ſtorms, they will have now a conſtant and ſafe retreat in the port of GRANADA. It may likewiſe ſerve us for a place of arms, by which forces may be tranſplanted from the other iſlands, and embarked very conveniently for our future expeditions in this part of the world. It alſo contributes to cover and connect all our other poſſeſſions, that together with it have been acquired by the peace; and from thence, reinforcements and ſupplies may be ſent with equal eaſe and expedition to DOMINICA.

TOBAGO, the moſt remote of all our new acquired iſlands in America, lies near 40 leagues ſouth by weſt from BARBADOES, about 35 leagues ſouth-eaſt from ST. VINCENT, 40 leagues eaſt from GRANADA, 12 leagues north-eaſt from TRINIDAD, and between 30 and 40 leagues north-eaſt from the Spaniſh main. It is 32 of our miles from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, which is the greateſt length; and where broadest, may be about nine miles, from eaſt to weſt, ſomewhat more than 70 miles in circumference. It differs not a great deal in bignefs from the iſland of St. VINCENT, is rather larger than Barbadoes, and of conſequence than any of our leeward iſlands. Near the north eaſt extremity, there lies a ſmall iſland called LITTLE TOBAGO, which is near two miles in length, and full half a mile broad. The rocks of St. Giles lie to the north, and there are many ſmall rocky iſlets on the north-weſt ſide of it, which though uſeleſs, are not however dangerous. The climate, though it lies only 11 degrees and ten minutes north from the equator, is not near ſo hot as might be expected, the force of the ſun's rays being happily tempered by the coolneſs of the ſea breezes. Another favourable circumſtance, which may ſerve to recommend this climate, is, that this iſland lies out of the track of the HURRICANES, to which our own iſlands as well as thoſe of the French are expoſed, and from which their plantations and ſhipping ſuffer frequently very ſeverely.

There are many riſing grounds over all the iſland, but it cannot be properly ſtiled mountainous, except, perhaps, in the north-weſt extremity; and even there, they are far from being rugged or impaſſable. The ſoil is well diverſified, being in ſome places light and ſandy, in others mixed with gravel and ſmall flints, but in general it is a deep, rich, black mould. From the extraordinary ſize of the ſame ſort of trees that grow in the other iſlands, and from the trials made by the Courlanders and the Dutch, this iſland is eſteemed to be luxuriantly fertile; well ſuited to the different productions that are raiſed in the WEST-INDIES, and from the concurrence of various favourable circumſtances, may be wrought with eaſe, and is not liable to the blaſt, and other accidents, which are ſo fatal to the moſt promiſing crops in ſome of our LEEWARD ISLANDS.

It is generally agreed, that hardly any country can be better watered than this is. Beſides ſprings that are found in plenty all over the iſland, there are not fewer than 18 rivulets, that run from the hills into the ſea, ſome on the eaſt, ſome on the weſt ſide. Some of thoſe take a ſerpentine courſe through the meadows; others pent up by rocky channels, roll with ſuch rapidity, as renders them very fit for driving mills; but there are very few or no morafles or marſhes, or lakes, pools, or collections of ſtanding waters, which of courſe muſt render it more healthy, and in all parts of it alike habitable; and from the happy diſpoſition of the running ſtreams and numerous ſprings, it is almoſt every where habitable, with the like convenience.

Yet this diſtribution of freſh water, is not more commodious, than the diſpoſition of the bays and creeks of the ſea upon it's coaſts. At the ſouth end lies the bay of La Guira, and at a ſmall diſtance, the leſſer and the great Rockley bays. The latter of theſe, may, with propriety, be ſtiled a harbour, for it is land-locked on every ſide, and is very ſecure. It was in this bay the Dutch and French fleets engaged in 1677, and in which engagement the count d'Eſtree's ſhip, called the Glorieux of 70 guns, was blown up; which ſhews that it is capable of receiving as conſiderable ſquadrons, and thoſe of as large ſhips, as are uſually ſent into thoſe ſeas. To the northward of theſe lies Cochon Gras, or Fat Hog bay, and beyond that Grand Rivier bay, Great Hog bay, little Hog bay, L'Ancre Batteau, covered by the iſland of Little Tobago; and therefore in the Dutch maps called Little Tobago bay. Oppoſite to this, on the other ſide of the iſland, is what the Dutch called John Moore's bay, now Man of War bay, very deep and ſpacious, with ten fathom water cloſe to the ſhore, with two fine rivulets running into the bay, where our ſhips may therefore careen, with the utmoſt conveniency, as well as with the greateſt ſafety; it being ſurrounded by high hills, that come down cloſe to the ſhore, by which the veſſels lying there, will be effectually ſheltered from both wind and weather. There are alſo ſeveral little commodious bays, between this and Great Courland bay, and Sandy Point bay, which brings us again to the ſouthern extremity of the iſland. Whence it appears, that it is in all reſpects moſt convenient for commerce; and though it be true, that having ſo many places that admit of eaſy landing, and lying in the neighbourhood of warlike Indians, it muſt of neceſſity require proper fortifications; and when this iſland ſhall be once well ſettled,

the many obvious and extraordinary advantages thereby afforded to trade, will amply compensate the expence, that may be found necessary to provide for, and to preserve it's security.

This island is covered with all that vast variety of valuable **TIMBER**, that is to be found in most countries in the **WEST-INDIES**, and many of these as extraordinary in their size, as excellent in their nature. The same may be said, with respect to fruit trees, and amongst these, there are some that are peculiar to Tobago. Such for instance as the true **NUTMEG-TREE**, which the Dutch, who of all nations could not in that respect be deceived, affirm to have found here. They indeed say, it is a wild nutmeg, that the mace is less florid, and the taste of the nut it self more pungent, though larger and fairer to the eye, than the spice of the same kind brought from the East-Indies by them. The **CINNAMON-TREE** grows likewise in this island, though the bark is said to have a taste of cloves as well as cinnamon. Here also grows that tree which produces the true **GUM COPAL**, resembling that brought from the continent of America, and very different from what goes by the same name in the rest of the West-Indian islands.

All ground provisions are produced here in great abundance, as well as perfection. Here likewise is plenty of wild hogs and other animals, together with great quantities of fowl, and an amazing variety both of sea and river fish. In the time the Dutch were in possession of this island, which was not many years, they exported large quantities of **TOBACCO**, **SUGAR**, **CASSIA**, **GINGER**, **CINNAMON**, **SASSAFRAS**, **GUM COPAL**, **CACAO**, **ROCOU**, **INDICO**, and **COTTON**; besides rich **WOODS**, materials for **DYEING**, **DRUGS** of different kinds, and several sorts of delicious sweetmeats. Thus, we have not only the probability, arising from the climate, soil, and situation; but likewise the certainty, that all the valuable commodities which the **WEST-INDIAN ISLANDS** produce have been actually, and may consequently be again unquestionably raised in **TOBAGO**.

We may add to what has been said, that tho' the Dutch boasted much of their settlements in, and the valuable cargoes they annually brought from them, yet Sir Josiah Child, within that very period, mentions the defect in their improvement of Tobago, in support of his doctrine, that the Dutch, as a nation, were less successful in **PLANTING** than **COMMERCE**; which is enough to convince us, that in his time, this was considered as an island capable of being made at least as valuable, as any of it's size in the possession of Europeans.

As this island in the state it now is, abounds, as before observed, with a vast variety of different sorts of **TIMBER**, all of them allowed to be excellent in their respective kinds; it may deserve consideration in the first settling it, whether proper officers might not be appointed to secure to the public these advantages. It is by no means intended, that the first planters should be deprived of the necessary use of all kinds of timber for buildings and utensils, but that it should be cut in a proper method, and with discretion; because nothing has been more loudly exclaimed against by the sensible men in all our other islands, than the undistinguishing and destructive havock made amongst the **WOODS**, without any regard to the general interest, or the least respect paid to posterity.

By such a method, the country may be properly and regularly cleared and opened; and as from the nature of the soil and climate, vegetation is extremely quick, a succession of useful trees may be constantly maintained. By this means valuable cargoes will be furnished of **FINE WOODS** for the use of **JOINERS**, **CABINET-MAKERS**, and **TURNERS**; the necessary materials for **DYEING CLOTH**, **SILK**, and **LINEN**, obtained in great perfection, and a prodigious variety of **GUMS**, **BALSAMS**, and other costly and efficacious medicinal **DRUGS** may be procured in their genuine state. By this precaution, very large sums which we now pay to foreigners, will be saved to the nation; the improvement of our manufactures facilitated, and the exportation of these bulky commodities prove a great benefit to our navigation. By putting the direction of these things into skilful hands, new lights will continually arise from experience; and new acquisitions may be here made of valuable plants from the continent of South America, Africa, and even from the East-Indies. The subordinate care of these woods, might furnish employment to the Indians; and the profits arising from the exportation to Europe, might constitute a public revenue for the support of the fortifications and other expences of government; which would be a great ease to the industrious planters, and thereby procure a constant attention in their assemblies to promote a design equally serviceable to their mother-country and themselves: and considered in this light, it might become a useful precedent in the establishment of something of the like kind in other colonies, and could be attended with no inconveniences whatever.

Nor is there any sort of improbability of our being able to produce a great part, if not all the variety of **SPICES** of the **EAST-INDIES**, in this very island. **CINNAMON** is said to grow in some of the other **WEST-INDIAN ISLANDS**; and general Codrington had once an intention to try how much it might be improved, by a regular cultivation in the island of

Barbuda. It is universally allowed, that the bark of what is called the **WILD CINNAMON-TREE** in Tobago, is beyond comparison the best in the **WEST-INDIES**, and even in its present state may be made a commercial article of value. The bark, when cured with care, differs from that in the East-Indies, by being stronger and more acrid while it is fresh, and when kept for some time, it loses that pungency, and acquires the flavour of **CLOVES**. This is precisely the **SPICE** which the Portuguese call **CRAVA DE MARANAHON**, the French **CANELLE GEROFFLEE**, and the Italians **CANELLA GAROFONATA**. There is a very considerable sale of this at **LISBON**, **PARIS**, and over all **ITALY**. This kind of spice, at present, is drawn chiefly from Brazil; and the Portuguese believe that their cinnamon-trees were originally brought from Ceylon, while it was in their possession, but that through the alteration of soil and clime they are degenerated into this sort of spice, and this may probably be true. However, from their size and number it seems to admit of no doubt, that the **CINNAMON-TREES** actually growing in **TOBAGO**, are the natural production of that island; and the point with us is, to know what improvements may be made with respect to these.

It may seem a little new, but we hope to render it highly probable, that the sole difference in cinnamon arises from culture. In the first place it is allowed, both by the Dutch and Portuguese, that there are no less than ten different kinds in the island of **CEYLON**; which is the clearest evidence, that this tree is every where subject to variation from the circumstances of soil and exposition. It is secondly allowed, that even the best, finest, and first sort of cinnamon-tree, does not preserve it's high qualities beyond 17, 18, or at most 20 years. The reason assigned for this by the Dutch, is that the **CAMPHIRE**, as the tree grows older, rises in such quantities as to penetrate the bark, and thereby alter its flavour; which accounts very well for the different trade of the Brazil and Tobago cinnamons, as the trees must be at least five times more than the proper age. It is thirdly allowed, that the fairest and finest cinnamon grows upon young trees, planted in vallies near the sea side, naturally covered with white sand, where they are perfectly unshaded and exposed to the hottest sun; that at five years old they begin to bark the branches; and, that the tree continues to produce fine-flavoured cinnamon for the number of years already mentioned. — They then cut it down to the root, from whence in a year or two it spreads again, and in five or six they begin to bark the young plants. There is one circumstance more necessary to be observed; the true cinnamon is in the inner bark of the branches grown to a proper size, and when taken off and exposed to bedried is of a green colour and has no smell, but as the watery particles are exhaled, and the bark curls in the manner we receive it, the colour changes, and the odour of the cinnamon gradually increases. What then is there to hinder our attempting the cultivation of cinnamon, which nature seems to have produced in as much perfection in **TOBAGO** as in **CEYLON**?

We have mentioned, that the **NUTMEG** as well as the **CINNAMON-TREE**, is a native of **TOBAGO**; and as we have likewise observed, is reported to be defective and inferior in its kind, to the same sort of spice in, or at least as it is brought us from the East-Indies. That the **NUTMEG** naturally grows here, we cannot doubt of the fact; because we find it asserted, in a book addressed to Mr. de Beveren, then governor of **TOBAGO**. The nutmeg tree that naturally grows in Tobago is wild, and may by due care and pains be rendered as valuable a nutmeg as those that grow any where else; for the fact really is, that wherever there are nutmegs, they are wild nutmegs, or as some stile them mountain-nutmegs, which are longer and larger, but much inferior in flavour to the best nutmeg, and are liable to be worm-eaten: the point is, to know how these defects may be remedied, or in other words, wherein the difference consists, between the wild tasteless nutmeg, and that which is the genuine aromatic, and of course a valuable spice.

The nutmegs which the Dutch bring into Europe, grow in the islands of **Bande**, which are six in number; but the Dutch long ago confined the nutmeg plantations to three of them only, and took all the precautions imaginable, to hinder their being cultivated any where else, that they might the better confine the profits arising from this fine spice to their own company. See our article **DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY**. The true nutmeg, is of the size and height of a pear-tree; the wild or mountain nutmeg is a large tree, not so well furnished with branches, but the leaves are broader and longer. The nutmegs are planted in **CLOSES** or **PARKS**, in a regular order, and with much labour and industry are carefully kept free from all weeds and plants that may exhaust their nourishment, and are attended with the same diligence as a cacao walk. Besides this, they are defended on the outside, by one or two rows of trees, taller in size, which secure them from sudden gusts of winds and from the sea air, by both of which they would be otherwise prejudiced.

They afford three harvests in the year, the first is towards the latter end of March and the beginning of April; the product then is but small, consisting only of such as are full ripe or fallen;

fallen; but then these are the finest, both with respect to the true nut and to the mace. The second is the great harvest; in the latter end of July and the beginning of August, when all are gathered that are ripe. The third is in November, and is properly the gleanings, for then they take all that are left upon the tree. When they are thus gathered, they are stripped with a knife of their outer husks, which resemble those of walnuts; the inner coat, which is the MACE, is next taken off, with great care and as whole as it is possible; it is then of a bright crimson colour, but when cautiously dried, becomes of a yellow brown, thin, brittle, shining, oily, and of a pleasing aromatic fragrance. The nut thus despoiled of both coats is exposed to the sun for a day to dry, and this operation is finished in three or four days more, by exposing them though at a convenient distance to the heat of fire. Then the shell, which is thin, and has a very slight pellicle adhering to it, is removed, and the kernel or nutmeg taken out. This is likewise very carefully dried, and when that is done, the nuts are put by small parcels into wicker baskets, in which they are dipped in a strong solution of lime, made with calcined shells, mixed with sea water. The great secret lies in thus curing of them, by which they are hindered from corrupting, from softening by the warm, or losing their virtue by the humidity of the sea air when transported to Europe.

We may reasonably conclude from this account, that the nutmeg-tree being a delicate plant, owes its high aromatic flavour, to its being industriously cultivated, with great caution, and all this in a proper soil. It must be also observed, that even amongst the trees in the nutmeg parks, there are some that produce long and ill shaped nuts, with very little flavour, which are stiled male nutmegs; whereas the round aromatic fruit, which is brought to Europe, is called the female nutmeg. The smallest of the nutmeg parks or closes, does not contain above an English rood of land, but the largest contains three, four, or five times as much. The whole quantity collected in the three harvests, and in a favourable season, seldom amounts to more than three hundred tons of nutmegs, and from seventy to eighty tons of mace.

From this succinct account of the nature and method of cultivating and curing this valuable spice, it will appear, that it may prove successful to make the experiment in our new island of TOBAGO, that we may judge, whether by the same method, the wild nutmeg-tree, as it is called there, may not be reclaimed and improved as gradually to acquire all the virtue and odour of that true spice. There may no doubt many difficulties occur, both with the cultivation and in the curing; but the vigour, the sagacity, the indefatigable diligence of British planters will very probably overcome all these.

We have no account of the tree that produces CLOVES, growing either in this, or in any other island in America. It is not, however, impossible, that when the productions of TOBAGO shall be more attentively examined, by capable persons, we may possibly find, that nature has produced this spice here, as well as the rest. No weight, indeed, at all ought this supposition to have, which is mentioned only, that an enquiry may be made. But if we take it for granted, that the clove does not grow here, we may nevertheless venture to assert, that the nature of the soil and climate considered, together with the size and situation of the isle, the natural production of other spices, and the flavour of cloves, that is said to predominate in these, make it not at all improbable, that if the clove was introduced, it would thrive here. That it may be introduced, and without much difficulty, will appear no unreasonable assertion, when we consider that this plant may be obtained from BORNEO, CERAM, and MINDANAO, without the leave of the Dutch.

The Dutch are at present in the sole possession of the SPICE-TRADE, and this they owe to a very commendable care, indefatigable industry, and constant circumspection. For as on the one hand, they have taken inexpressible pains, in procuring and preserving the perfection of these estimable commodities, by a skilful cultivation; so on the other hand, they have not been less careful to extirpate them, where nature had produced them, where they found it extremely difficult if not impossible to confine their production solely to their own profit. There seems to be no just cause therefore, why we should not imitate them, as far as it is fit, if we are able to do it, for our own benefit.

Those who would have an ample account of this spice, may have recourse to botanical writers, particularly to a work lately published in Holland, where they may meet with every thing they can desire, and be from thence more effectually convinced, that what has been asserted is strictly agreeable to truth.

The clove like the nutmeg-trees, are planted in small closes, and there cultivated with all possible care and attention. The soil and climate are chosen with great skill, and all the ground is kept continually clear of weeds, plants, and bushes. There is no other vegetable suffered to grow in the closes destined for the cloves, because this would deprive them of their due nutriment, and diminish the strength and perfection of the spice, which tho' it derives its form and texture from nature, owes much of its delicate fragrance and flavour, as

all other spices do, to cultivation and art; and to that assiduous attention that is employed in the planting, preserving, gathering, and curing them, without which they would neither have gained or preserved that degree of excellence which has now subsisted for ages.

The harvest of this fruit is annually, notwithstanding what some have otherwise said. They are sometimes very plentiful, and at others not, according as the monsoons set in wet or dry. In the best years, they may produce about 2000 bahars, which is about 550 tons. In a very bad year, not half so much, but as the magazines are always kept well supplied, there comes usually the same quantity to the Europe market, where the Dutch sales, and indeed over all India, the price of spice very rarely alters. The clove retains its vigour, longer than either the cinnamon or the nutmeg, for it continues to bear plentifully, in a good season, for 50 or 60 years, and in the Moluccas they did not reckon a tree old, in less than a 100. The number of bearing trees, in all closes, are computed at 250,000, exclusive of the young plants, that are intended to replace the old trees when they are become past bearing.

We have dwelt a little on this point, by reason of the probable importance that might attend it, though it is not entirely new, for the thought of raising the spices of the East in the West-Indies occurred to us and the French long ago, though it was never attempted, or indeed could be attempted with so fair a prospect of success, as in this island.

In this, if in any of our island colonies, a free port may be opened, with as many apparant advantages, and perhaps fewer inconveniencies than any where else in America. Here is great choice of ports on both sides the island, some that are by nature very secure, others that may be so at a small expence. The fertility of the isle is such, as that with benefit instead of prejudice to its inhabitants, they will always have it in their power, to relieve the wants of those on board ships, resorting thither for a supply of fresh provisions. In one or more settlements here might be erected spacious magazines for the reception of East-India, European, and North-American commodities; all of which would not fail of finding a vent, and thereby producing an advantageous circulation of commerce and money.

The situation of this island is an another advantage, whether we consider its nearness to the Spanish main, or its convenient distance from some other islands, both of which ought to be regarded, in the choice of a FREE PORT. It may also be peculiarly advantageous upon the settling of the island, as by the hopes of immediate profit, it might attract people, create an instantaneous intercourse, and thereby a lucrative commerce with different parts of the world, which must otherwise prove a work of time. It might also open to us a correspondence with the free Indians, who live upon the continent, and who would be glad of having access to a country so near them, to which they might go, and from which they might return at pleasure, without danger to their liberty. On the other hand, our people would be attentive enough to their own interest; and tho' at first they might find it expedient to make them presents of such things as they saw most pleasing to them, yet in a little time they would make them sensible, that in order to obtain a continuance of supplies they must be content to render them useful in return, either by finding goods to barter, or by undertaking themselves some easy kind of labour; which proposition, if made with address, and prosecuted with humanity and justice, would hardly fail of making an impression upon them; and thereby open the means of having at least some kind of cultivation carried on there, by freemen, which would be an acquisition of people, as well as of country. An acquisition not at all the more impracticable, because that hitherto it has never been made. Our planters when they first went to the WEST-INDIES, had as little idea of negroes slaves, as they now have of Indians. In time they may profit as much by the one as by the other. This point has been cautiously spoken to, because some, not without reason, have doubted, whether it might be expedient for us to follow the example of our neighbours in the opening, as they have done, FREE PORTS in America. Certain it is, that the Dutch are very great gainers by those of St. Eustatia and Curaçoa. Should we succeed in the raising of spices, and making other improvements in this island, hitherto introduced into any other; the trade of a FREE PORT therein may become very beneficial to its inhabitants, without detriment to the mother-country. On the contrary, great cargoes exported from hence, may be disposed of there, and produce suitable returns. At all events, a free port in this island might be easily settled, and as easily kept, under proper regulations, by which the experiment, which is of no little importance, might be effectually made. If when it is made, the inconveniencies should be found to out-weigh the advantages, or any unforeseen mischief should from thence arise, either to the trade of the other colonies, or that of Great-Britain; such a port might be with facility suppressed.

The definitive treaty of 1763 having also annexed the island of GRANADA to the crown of Great-Britain, we shall now briefly consider what benefits may accrue to us from this possession. It lies south west from ST. VINCENT, 17 or 18 leagues;

leagues; south-west from ST. LUCIA, about 35 leagues; west-south-west from BARBADOES, 50 leagues; south-south-west from MARTINICO, 50 leagues; south-south-west from DOMINICA, somewhat more than 60 leagues; west-north-west from TOBAGO, 35 leagues, or according to some charts, 40 leagues; south from ST. CHRISTOPHERS, 100 leagues; and north from the SPANISH MAIN, about 30 leagues.

It lies in the latitude of 11 degrees, 30 minutes north, the farthest to the south of any of the ANTILLES. We are not able to give it's dimensions with any degree of exactness, as not only authors but maps differ very much in regard thereto. We may, however, without fear of erring much, assert that it is upwards of 30 English miles in length. De Lisle's map makes it near 40; and 15 or 16 in breadth, in some places, though in others much less, and about 25 leagues in circumference.

It appears from hence to be twice as big as BARBADOES, larger than ST. LUCIA, ST. VINCENT, or TOBAGO; and if we may take the words of some French memoir writers, contains of cultivatable land, near $\frac{2}{3}$ of what is to be found in MARTINICO. These are circumstances of some consequence, though we cannot speak of them as yet with precision.

The situation of this island leaves us no room to doubt, that the climate is very warm, which, however, the French writers assure us, is very much moderated by the regular returns of the sea breeze, by which the air is rendered cool and pleasant. We may from the same authority assert, that it is wholesome; for though strangers especially are still liable to what is called the GRANADA fever, yet this is at present far from being so terrible, as it formerly was; proves very rarely mortal, and as it chiefly proceeds from the humidity of the air, occasioned by the thickness of the woods, it will very probably be entirely removed, whenever the country is brought into a thorough state of cultivation; and this we may predict, as the same thing has constantly happened, in our own and in the French islands.

Besides, the climate has some, and those too very peculiar advantages. The seasons, as they are styled in the West-Indies, are remarkably regular, the blast is not hitherto known in this island; the inhabitants are not liable to many diseases, that are epidemic in Martinico and Guadaloupe; and, which is the happiest circumstance of all, it lies out of the track of the hurricanes, which with respect to the safety of the settlements on shore, and the security of navigation is an inestimable benefit in this part of the world.

There are in GRANADA some very high mountains, but the number is small, and the eminencies scattered through it are in general rather hills, or as the French writers stile them MORNES, gentle in their ascent, of no great height, fertile, and very capable of cultivation. Exclusive of these, there are on both sides the island, large tracts of level ground, very fit for improvement, the soil being almost every where deep, rich, mellow, and fertile in the highest degree, so as to be equal in all respects, if not superior to that of any of the islands in the West-Indies, if the concurrent testimony both of French and British planters may be relied on. The former, indeed, have constantly in their applications to the French ministry insisted, that this might be very easily made one of the most valuable colonies belonging to France. This we find asserted at the very opening of the current century, in the memorials addressed to the council of state, confirmed some years afterwards by father Labat, and insisted upon with great zeal and vehemency, in representations drawn up by very capable judges, the last year that it continued to be a French island.

It is perfectly well watered by divers streams of different sizes, and running in different directions, flowing from a large lake on the summit of a high mountain situated very near the center of the isle. There are smaller brooks, running from most of the hills, and very fine springs almost every where, at a small distance from the shore. All these rivers abound with variety of good fish, and are resorted to by multitudes of water fowl. There are likewise in Granada several SALT-PONDS, which have their uses and their value.

The great produce of this country, in its present condition, is a prodigious variety of most sorts of TIMBER that are to be met with in any of the West-India islands; so that whenever this island comes to be tolerably cleared, considerable profits will arise from the timber that may be cut down. There are likewise many rich fruits, valuable gums, dying woods, and several vegetable products, such as oils, resins, balsams, &c. which have always borne a high price here. All the different kinds of ground provisions, which are so requisite to the subsistence of West-India plantations, are here in great quantities, and some kinds of grain ripen very kindly in this, which are not raised at all, or are raised with difficulty in other islands. River and sea fish in great abundance, and in respect to the latter, turtle of the largest size and lamentins, which drew vessels from the other French islands for the sake of fishing. They have plenty of all sorts of fowl, and prodigious quantities of game, ortolans, and a kind of red partridges especially. Besides these, the woods are well furnished with many wild animals, that afford excellent food, and are very rarely met with in the other islands. They have

likewise much cattle, and as their hills yield excellent pasture, if the country was better peopled, might have many more.

But the distinguishing excellency of GRANADA, does not lie simply in its great fertility, or in its fitness for a vast variety of estimable commodities, but in the peculiar quality of its soil, which gives a surprising and incontestable perfection to all its productions. The SUGAR of Granada is of a fine grain, and of course more valuable, than that either of Martinico or Guadaloupe. The INDIGO is the finest in all the WEST-INDIES. While TOBACCO remained the STAPLE commodity, as once it was, of these islands, one pound of GRANADA tobacco was worth two or three that grew in any of the rest. The CACAO and COTTON have an equal degree of pre-eminence; nor is this founded simply in the opinion of the French, but is equally known and allowed by the English and Dutch; and in regard to the last mentioned commodity, we may appeal to some of the merchants of this city, on whose authority we may more safely rely.

If credit be due to the memorials of the French officers, who have visited Granada, true CINNAMON, and some NUTMEGS are found there; which, if future experience should verify, all that has been said in respect to TOBAGO, may be as justly applied to GRANADA; and the only reason for insisting on the subject there, was, because we thought the fact better established, from the authority of the Dutch, who, of all nations, are the best acquainted with spices. In respect to situation, and those expositions that are essentially requisite, to the proper culture of those valuable productions, the islands are every way equal, or, if upon making the experiment, GRANADA should be found preferable in TOBAGO, which may probably prove the case, it ought no doubt to be preferred accordingly.

All the writers of our own, as well as of the French nation, have agreed, that there is in general good anchoring ground on all the coasts, and many commodious creeks and bays, both on the east and west sides, which would be infinitely advantageous to commerce, if this country was fully peopled and completely cultivated. But besides these small, there are also two large ports of great excellence, and which deserve particular notice. The first of these is the harbour of CALIVENIE, at the south-east extremity of the island, and is singularly safe and spacious. It consists of an outward and inward port. The former is three quarters of a mile broad at its entrance, but widens as you advance, and becomes above a mile in extent within. As to the entrance of the interior port, it is above a quarter of a mile broad, but presently expands itself on both sides, so as to be very capacious, and has about seven fathom of water, with a soft muddy bottom, from whence seamen will easily judge of its utility. Ships lying here in the utmost safety, may from warehouses take in their lading very conveniently, and may then, with great ease be hauled into the outer port, which has this peculiar advantage, that ships may either come into, or go out of it with the ordinary trade wind. This port, supposing there was no other, is in an island thus situated, and so very capable of being improved, would, in a trading nation, like ours, render it a valuable acquisition.

But the worth of GRANADA must be highly enhanced, when we consider the other harbour, which lies at the north-west end of the island, and is called the CARENAGE, the harbour of PORT ROYAL, or the OLD PORT, which has been always esteemed one of the best harbours in the WEST-INDIES, as possessing almost every advantage that can be desired. It is a full quarter of a mile broad at its entrance, and, when once entered, it is so capacious, as to hold with ease a squadron of twenty-five ships of the line, where they may ride in perfect safety, in respect either to wind or weather. There lies also, at a small distance from this port, a lake of a considerable size, very deep, the water brackish, and which, by cutting through a sand-bank, might be easily joined to the port, and would then be one of the finest basons in the world, and afford all the conveniencies that could well be wished, for careening the largest squadron of the largest ships, that are ever employed in this part of the world. The mouth of this port is securable by a tolerable fortress, called FORT ROYAL, where the governor resides, but the situation of it has been censured; and indeed there is no doubt, that by the help of two good fortifications, erected on the promontories, which make the entrance of the harbour, it might be rendered inaccessible, since in case of an attack, ships must warp in, under the fire of both fortresses. The benefits that may be justly expected from such a port as this, in an island so well situated, and producing such a diversity of valuable commodities, are so obvious, that it is needless to enter into a detail of them. In time of war it would give us inexpressible advantages against the Spaniards as well as the French; and if it should happen, that by a multiplicity of services, our naval force should be so divided, as to leave us only an inferior squadron in these ports, the CARENAGE would afford us a safe retreat, without obliging our ships to quit that station. A circumstance certainly worthy of being regarded; and of which, the French availed themselves often, so long as this island remained in their possession.

The ingenious father Labat was here in 1705, and made some curious and pertinent remarks. He speaks of the planters as easy in their circumstances, though not very polished in their manners. He clearly discerned, that great improvements might be made in so pleasant and fruitful a country, and regretted that the French refugees from their ruined colony of St. Christophers were not sent hither, where they would quickly have repaired their own losses, and have rendered this colony much more useful to France. He made other judicious reflections. 'If, says he, Barbadoes had a port, as safe, as capacious, as commodious, and as easy to be fortified, it would be indeed an incomparable island; the English know much better than we, how to turn every natural advantage in their islands to the utmost; and if GRANADA had belonged to them, it had before now changed its appearance, it had been long ago a rich and powerful colony; instead of which, we have hitherto reaped little, from those beneficial circumstances from which vast profits might have arisen, since after so many years possession, the country is yet in a manner desert, thinly peopled, without commodities, having little commerce, their habitations or rather cabins mean, ill built, worse furnished; and to say all in a word, in a very little better state, than when Mr. du Parquet bought it from the savages.'

We must admit, that within the half century that has since passed, somewhat more attention has been paid to this island, and its productions have turned within this period much more to the account of France. They had sent thither for some years before it came into our hands, 12,000 hogheads of SUGAR annually, besides COFFEE, CACAO, and a large quantity of excellent COTTON. Yet it is generally allowed, that never one half of the country was settled, nor half the profit drawn from what was settled, that might have been obtained, if the inhabitants had been better planters, and had been better supplied with slaves. The representations made to the French court treat all the improvements made there as very imperfect, as demonstrative rather of the fertility of the soil, and the excellence of the climate, than of the industry of the inhabitants. These representations likewise suggest, that many improvements might have been introduced, and that some lucrative branches of commerce might have been opened from thence. By the accounts of our own people, who have resided there, and the captains of men of war who have visited it; the French have not been extravagant in their accounts, or visionary in their speculations. An English gentleman who had great opportunities of knowing, thinks a much greater quantity of sugar was raised there than found a regular passage to France.

Exclusive of these productions, this island was of great utility to the French, during the course of the last war, when the single ships of force they sent to the West-Indies, with the transports under their care, came regularly hither, with little danger of falling into the hands of cruizers. Here they remained in safety, and from hence they sent supplies of men, ammunition, and provisions, in small vessels, which creeping along the Granadillos, St. Vincent, and St. Lucia, arrived generally speaking safely in the harbour of St. Peter's in Martinico. In this respect, as well as many others, the French will very sensibly feel the loss of this island, as we shall the advantage arising from the possession of it. A British squadron stationed here will be, as before hinted, a severe check upon the Spaniards as well as the French.

There runs from the southern extremity of the isle of Granada, in the direction of north by east, a long range of little ISLETS, extending about 20 leagues. These are of different sizes, but all of them, except the round island, very small. The number of these isles is very uncertain; according to our best information, there are about 23 of them, capable of cultivation. The soil being remarkably rich, the climate pleasant, and all the necessities of life, whenever they shall be settled, will be easily obtained. According to the sentiments of the best judges, large quantities of INDIGO, COFFEE, and COTTON, may be raised upon them, nor are they at all unfit for sugars. In their present situation, they abound with excellent TIMBER. In former times, they were very servicable to the planters of Barbadoes, who cut great quantities of MILL-TIMBER, which were a great conveniency. But for many years past, the French have not only prevented this, as injurious to their property, but by stationing guard-ships upon the coast, made prizes in time of full peace, of all English vessels they found at anchor there, and even of such as appeared in sight of them, which was a great detriment to our navigation. For, if vessels bound to Barbadoes, either through thick weather, or being disabled, missed that island, and ran down the south of it, which was the common rout, they come of course upon these islands, and fell into the hands of the guard-ships; the apprehension of which, made them so cautious, as to render their voyages to that British island longer and more tedious than in former times. But as all these difficulties will be removed for the future, and as the clearing of these isles in order to their cultivation, will be an immediate and considerable advantage to the inhabitants of Barbadoes, these circumstances enhance the value of this acquisition.

There are besides these 5 larger islands. The first of these nearest the line of islets before-mentioned, retains the Indian name of Carrouacou, of a circular figure, about 6 or 7 leagues in compass, lies 5 leagues east from Granada; 14 south west from St. Vincent, and about 40 leagues west-south-west from Barbadoes. This little isle, is represented by the French, as one of the finest and most fruitful spots in America; and from being pervaded by the sea breeze, the climate equally wholesome and pleasant. It is covered with valuable timber, interspersed with rich fruit-trees, and when settled and cultivated, is capable of more kinds of West-Indian improvements.

But the circumstance by which it is most distinguished, is its having as deep, capacious, and commodious an harbour, as any in these Indies, and on this account has often been recommended to the French government, as a place capable of being made of much superior utility, to islands of far greater extent; and even allowing these to have equal merit, in regard to the value and the variety of their productions.

About a league north east from Carrouacou, lies L'ISLE DE L'UNION, though in truth there are two, the larger three leagues, the lesser two leagues in length. At the distance of two leagues from these, lies CANNOEN, so called from the great resort thither of the kind of tortoises, or sea-turtle, which bear that name. This isle is 3 leagues in length, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad, and has a small islet at the west of it. At the distance of 2 leagues from this, lies the ISLE DE MOUSTIQUES, or MOSKITO ISLAND; 3 leagues in breadth, and 1 in length. All these islands, are allowed to be pleasant, wholesome, and exceeding fruitful. They are, at present, overgrown with different kinds of TIMBER; some of which are become exceedingly scarce in the other isles, and some also, which bear at present a very high price in Europe.

At the distance of a league from Moskito island, lies Becovya, Bequia, or Bekia, which is but two leagues south-west from St. VINCENT. This is the largest of all the islands dependent upon GRANADA, being about 12 leagues in circumference, and consequently somewhat larger than MONSERRAT. The soil is equal if not superior to any of the rest; it has likewise a very safe and convenient port, which is land-locked on every side, easy in its entrance, and very deep and capacious, and in which their small armaments frequently took shelter, during the last war, in proceeding as before intimated, from Granada to port St. Peter's in the island of Martinico; and this circumstance hereafter may possibly merit for it more attention.

The consideration of these islands dependent upon that of GRANADA, led to the question, whether they might not be, all circumstances considered, more proper for the introduction of SPICES, than even that of TOBAGO? The 5 islands of the MOLUCCAS, which are TERNATE, TYDOR, MOTIER, MAQUIEN and BACHAM, were so many separate kingdoms, rich and full of inhabitants, before they were known to the Europeans, lie all in a line like these, and are none of them larger than CARROUACOU. They have small straits of the sea between them like the Granadines, bear the same TREES, HERBS, and ROOTS, are some of them, like these, deficient in fresh water, and produced originally, CINNAMON and NUTMEGS, as well as CLOVES, the uses as well as the method of CULTIVATING and CURING of what were taught them by the CHINESE, as Dr. Angersola, who wrote an excellent history of the MOLUCCA islands, informs us. BANDA, where the NUTMEGS originally grew, is not above half the size of BEQUIA; and AMBOYNA, to which the Dutch seem at present inclined to confine both NUTMEGS and CLOVES, is rather inferior in point of extent to the island of GRANADA.

It should not be forgot that our island of GRANADA, and its DEPENDENCIES the GRANADILLOS, are free from HURRICANES; to which also our island of St. VINCENT is seldom exposed. To judge of the true value, and to ascertain the real importance of these islands, that are altogether now become ours, we must view and contemplate them in their different lights, from which they may every one of them become more or less, immediately or remotely, directly or indirectly, assisting to the interests, increasing the power and the commerce, extending the navigation, and thereby promoting the welfare of Great-Britain; or, in other words, conducing to the industry, the independency, and the happiness, of their fellow citizens, and fellow subjects, who are the inhabitants of this their MOTHER-COUNTRY.

To judge to what degree our new acquisitions in the WEST-INDIES may be likely to answer these desirable purposes, it will be requisite to observe that general arrangement of things, which has since the peace of 1763, taken place in this part of the world. There is not now an island small or great in the West-Indies, the right to as well as the possession of which, is not, pretty clearly ascertained, and this without introducing any new powers into America, which might have proved prejudicial to our interests. By thus adjusting the settlements of different states, an end is put, at least as far as human foresight reaches, to their ambitious views.

In virtue of this adjustment, many of our old plantations will avail themselves of those supplies of TIMBER, from which they

they have been for many years precluded. The run-away Negroes will not be able to shelter themselves any more in uninhabited islands, and those impediments to, and embarrassments of our navigation, which have been often severely felt, and in consequence of which so many frequent and loud complaints have been made to almost every government in our colonies, will be now removed, by the taking away of the causes.

By this means, illicit commerce will be greatly lessened. It will be a great encouragement to industry, by taking away those temptations to persons of unsettled tempers of roving into islands of no settled government, where of course men were at liberty to pursue their private advantage, at the expense of the public interest. From the same reasons, we may expect that PIRACY, which has so often afflicted the honest planters, mariners, and fair traders in the West-Indies, will not easily revive, as all the ports and places to which these lawless people were wont to resort, will no longer exist, at least in the manner they did; and this as it will be an advantage in common to the colonies of all nations; so it will to our own in particular, from the value and extent of our commerce, which rendered it more frequently a prey to those enemies of mankind.

In virtue of this regulation, we shall have a new and a very considerable province in the West-Indies, composed of islands well situated as well for their correspondence with each other, as for their general intercourse with Great-Britain. Those in their infancy, will be sheltered by the force that there is at present in Barbadoes, and in proportion as they become better settled, they will in their turns be enabled to send assistance to that island, or as that is the usual rendezvous of our expeditions, will be in a condition to furnish their respective quotas, when necessary in succeeding times: thus these islands will add mutual strength and benefit to each other. Our old settlements also may gradually disburthen their supernumerary inhabitants on territories belonging to their mother-country, instead of resorting, as it is too notorious that great numbers have done, to DANISH and DUTCH settlements.

By this new distribution of property, we are brought much nearer to the Spanish main; and this in time of peace, may enable us to furnish them with supplies of Negroes and other necessities, which they have long received from the French and Dutch. In time of war again, we have from these islands, such evident and such effectual means of keeping their fleets in awe, interrupting all correspondence between their settlements, and making descents upon their coasts, as with the experience of their past losses, will very probably discourage that very nation from breaking hastily again, with those who have so much more in their power, and may easily embarrass and interrupt their commerce.

If we advert to the alteration this new distribution has made, in regard to the French in those parts, it appears plain enough from what has been already said, that they will lose the convenience of raising vast quantities of fresh provisions, as well as considerable supplies of valuable commodities, which they constantly received from those that were then styled neutral, but so far as this went, were really French islands. They will likewise lose the advantage of felling TIMBER, and building SLOOPS, and even larger vessels in DOMINICA and ST. VINCENT, as they were accustomed to do. Besides, they will be deprived of their communication with the Indians in the one, and with the Indians and free Negroes in the other of these islands, from whence they derived by their own confession, such services as were productive of various advantages, exclusive of the check they kept upon us. They will no longer enjoy the turtle and lamentein fishing round the coasts of TOBAGO, which was their annual resort, but will for the future be confined within the bounds, and to the coasts of their own islands.

These consequences, when taken together, will bring very sensible difficulties upon the French planters, by constraining them to employ greater pains, and a larger number of hands for procuring those necessary supplies, which they formerly received in great abundance, with little trouble and very small expense. It will also follow, as all who are acquainted with these countries must know, that from being thus streightened, they will be compelled to the employing more Negroes; and yet even with this increase of slaves, less will be done in their sugar plantations than formerly, when almost all their wants with respect to subsistence, and even with regard to buildings, were supplied upon such easy terms. In this situation likewise as many vessels of different sizes were continually occupied in their intercourse with these isles, with which they can now have no further connection, their navigation must be diminished, and will of course decline.

By parting with GRANADA and its DEPENDENCIES, they have not only lost the produce in sugar, coffee, cotton, &c. of that island, which was not inconsiderable; with all title to those improvements, which as appears from their own authors, they were fully convinced might be made therein; and the advantage of those safe and commodious ports, which have been described, but likewise the facility which they derived from thence, of succouring all their islands, even when

we had superior squadrons in those seas; to which for the future, they must in case of war be inevitably exposed. By the same step, they have deprived themselves, on that side at least, of the intercourse they had with the Spaniards, and must hereafter run much greater hazards than formerly, in receiving, when their necessities require them, supplies of provisions and military stores from the Dutch.

The island of ST. LUCIA left to France by the late definitive treaty, is situated 24 leagues west-north-west from BARBADOES; 8 leagues south from MARTINICO; something more than 7 leagues, north-east from ST. VINCENT; 27 leagues, south from DOMINICA; 70 leagues, south-east from ST. CHRISTOPHERS; 45 north-west from TOBAGO, and about 35 north from GRANADA. Thus we see at one view, how this island is disposed, as well with regard to our own as to the French islands, upon which its importance is justly supposed to depend.

By the best accounts we have, and particularly that of Captain Uring, who was very attentive in his examination of this island, when appointed by the late duke of Montague, it is 22 English miles in length, 11 in breadth, and somewhat more than 20 leagues in circumference. It appears, therefore, to be in point of size, somewhat larger than our island of ST. VINCENT; but is inferior in that respect to DOMINICA and to GRANADA. Captain Uring, who landed a considerable number of men, says that the heat being tempered by the breeze from the sea, renders it equally wholesome and pleasant; but then he acknowledges, that in a fortnight's time, his people grew so weak and sickly, as to put it absolutely out of his power to defend himself against the French, even if they had not invaded the island, as they did, with great superiority of numbers. It is also owned by us, as well as all the French writers, that it is as much, or more infested with venomous serpents than Martinico. The appearance of this isle is rugged and mountainous; towards the south-west extremity, there are two high sugar-loaf hills, by which the island is easily known. They are very steep, and the air on their summits very cold. There runs also a long range of mountains, some of which are of great height, along the windward side of the island, but at the bottom of these, there is a fine plain; near 15 miles long, and between 2 and 3 broad; the soil of which is very rich and fruitful. There are besides these already mentioned, several other mountains, with pleasant vallies between them. The soil in general, is much of the same nature, and held to be very little, if at all inferior to that of Martinico; so that there is no doubt if it was equally cultivated, it would yield extraordinary profit, more especially, when the country is effectually cleared, which, a few spots excepted near the sea coast, is at present overgrown with wood. The French have a tradition, which, however, is generally believed that there is a very rich silver mine upon this island, which some even of the inhabitants of our isles think has a foundation in truth, and others apprehend to have been thrown out on political motives.

There are few islands in America, better watered in all respects than this. Many rivulets run from the mountains into the sea on both sides, and in all of them, there is plenty of different kinds of fish. There are others that take a serpentine course through the meadows, and render them very luxurious. Springs of fresh water are common almost every where, and towards the north-west end of the island, there is a large pond or small lake. In some of the vallies, the country is marshy; but, if once fully inhabited, these might be easily drained, which would add to the salubrity of the air.

The produce of this island in its present condition, is chiefly TIMBER of all sorts, in vast plenty and great perfection. There are likewise all kinds of ground provisions, raised wherever there are people. The country abounds with wild hogs, with fowl of all kinds, tame as well as wild; a vast variety of different sorts of fish, and of these also there are a surprising quantity upon the coast. The French many years ago resorted thither chiefly on that account; they then fell to the cutting of timber, for the use of the inhabitants of MARTINICO; after this they began to build boats, barks, and at length ships, inviting and encouraging English and Dutch carpenters to come hither for that purpose; for in those times there were no regular settlers, but the French from Martinico, sent hitherto occasionally such sort of people as were troublesome in that colony, and unwilling to bear the restraint of laws. By degrees a better sort of people chose to try their fortunes there, began to clear considerable spots of ground, on which they gradually raised very profitable plantations. The chief commodities they raised, were Cacao, COTTON and INDIGO, in which they were very successful. This naturally increased their numbers, and the trade between St. Lucia and Martinico, has been for many years, though now and then interrupted, of great value.

The British nation had long entertained an earnest desire of adding St. Lucia to the rest of her possessions in the West-Indies, for which some just, and many plausible reasons were assigned; at the time more especially, when the duke of Montague obtained his grant. It was then alledged, that the island was wonderfully fertile, that it abounded in TIM-

BER, which was much wanted in our islands; that it was excellently watered, had many convenient bays, and at least one very fine port. The object then principally in view, was the planting of CACAO; and it was asserted that this island would produce enough of that commodity to furnish all Europe. All these considerations respected its value; but there were besides these some other, from which it was held to be of still greater consequence. It was judged an advantageous thing, to interpose one of ours between Barbadoes and the French islands; it was thought from the known advantages of its bays and ports to be very commodious for our squadrons, and it is believed that it might in many respects, prove a great check upon the French. It lay to the windward of Martinico, and so near it, that nothing could be done there, without our having immediate intelligence. Descents upon that, and upon the rest of the French islands might have been facilitated thereby, and all their naval operations must have been embarrassed at least, if not totally frustrated, if we were once masters of that isle. All these ideas being placed in the strongest point of light, heightened by the most advantageous representations, and nobody undertaking, what indeed would have been thought an invidious task, to call them to a critical examination, a general opinion from thence prevailed, that among the neutral islands, there was not one comparable to St. Lucia.

Some objections, however, have since started, and those too of a nature, that may possibly render them worthy our notice. We now know from experience, that the country is very far from being healthy. It is so full of venomous creatures of different sizes, that the French settled there, were never able to stir abroad but in boots. It is not only very mountainous, but even the flat country is full of marshes. It lies so immediately within the view, and under the power of the well-settled colony of Martinico, that without being at a great expence in fortifications, and keeping a constant military force there for its defence, we could scarce hope, that it would ever have been thoroughly settled. If even with the assistance of fortifications and a regular force, it had been settled, it might have been found impracticable to secure it, as there are so many landing places in different parts of the island; and as in case of a war, this small settlement would have been immediately exposed to the whole strength of the French islands, so that the inhabitants might have been ruined, before any assistance could have been sent them; and this, if the country had been recovered, or quitted by the enemy, would certainly have discouraged our people from settling it again. As the case now stands, the French are liable to all these inconveniencies; and whoever considers the situation of this island, and of those belonging to us in its neighbourhood, and reflects at the same time, on the superiority of our maritime force, will see, that in time of war, it must be a very precarious possession; more especially, if so thoroughly settled, as to make the conquest of it a matter of much consequence to us.

The French judged Martinico could not be secure without St. Lucia; but they were strangely prepossessed with the notion of ST. LUCIA, not to discern that we possess in DOMINICA, much more than we could possibly have had, if we had kept St. Lucia. For DOMINICA lies in the very middle of the channel, between MARTINICO and GUADALOUPE; to windward of the last of these islands, and not so much to leeward of the former; but the vessels can easily fetch the road of ST. PETER, which is its principal town and port from DOMINICA. We have in that island also to leeward PRINCE RUPERT'S BAY, and to windward, the GREAT BAY; so that having Barbadoes to the windward of all, and ANTIGUA to leeward of GUADALOUPE, it is impossible in time of war, that either trade or supplies should get into those French islands. We have before remarked, that DOMINICA is an island of large extent, very fertile, and of great natural strength; and being once effectually settled, which ought to be, may be defended against any force whatever. Whereas ST. LUCIA is so accessible on every side, that it must of necessity fall to a superior maritime force. It was in this sense that it has been suggested, that the want of PORTS, with which DOMINICA is reproached, is, its situation in the midst of all the French islands considered, so far from being a defect, that it is in reality a convenience; for two ports may be easily fortified and defended; whereas it would be endless, to attempt the securing twenty.

Father LABAT who was not only a very intelligent person, an inquisitive and strict observer, and an eye-witness of all he wrote, but also an engineer, and in that capacity, relied on, for fortifying several places in the French islands, in the first year of the current century.

This ingenious person, after giving us an account of DOMINICA, which he very carefully examined; and according to the custom of the French, in respect to all places not in their possession, having done his utmost to put it in as low and depreciating a light as possible, proceeds thus: 'Though after all, this is an isle of very little importance; the English have notwithstanding made many attempts to establish themselves therein, founded upon certain pretensions which the French have always opposed, not only because they

'were in themselves void of any reasonable foundation, but the rather, BECAUSE IF THIS ISLAND SHOULD BE ONCE IN THEIR HANDS, IT WOULD SERVE TO CUT OFF THE COMMUNICATION BETWEEN MARTINICO AND GUADALOUPE, IN A TIME OF WAR, AND REDUCE THE INHABITANTS OF BOTH ISLES TO THE LAST EXTREMITY.'

The proportion between the property, and consequently between the power of Great-Britain and France in the WEST-INDIES, is now extremely altered to what it was before and since the conclusion of the last peace of 1763. Our property in the former period, compared to theirs; was no more than as ONE TO FIVE; whereas it is now almost as TEN TO FIFTEEN, or nearly as TWO TO THREE. If therefore, when we were in so much a weaker state, we were still able to protect even the smallest of our islands, during all the late wars between the two crowns, and in a condition to conquer almost all theirs; shall we have any reason to fear what may hereafter happen, when in consequence of settling our new acquisitions, we shall have acquired, as we necessarily must; so large an accession of force?

Moreover, the situation and disposition of our islands give us, in respect to France, still greater advantages. Our northern islands will remain what they always have been, a perpetual check to them on that side. DOMINICA lies, as shewn, in the very center of their possessions, so as to command and distress the navigation equally of MARTINICO and GUADALOUPE. At the southern extremity again, we have GRANADA, and all the islands belonging to it, connected with ST. VINCENT; from whence we have an easy correspondence with Barbadoes, and a number of safe and commodious ports; to which our FLEETS may at all times resort; all which considerations, taken with their united force, may banish the apprehensions of danger to our old or new colonies, in case of a future rupture with France.

Relative to those benefits that will probably result from these new acquisitions to the present and future ages, it will be necessary to observe, that upon the first view an objection may arise from the smallness of those islands, which are very diminutive, if put in ballance with the French; and still more so, if they should be compared with those that the Spaniards possess in the West-Indies. It does not however, follow from thence, that they are either insignificant or inconsiderable. When we come to examine this matter more attentively, we shall find, that this very circumstance which strikes superficial observers in one light, will appear to competent judges in quite another.

In the first place then, they enjoy a purer air; from the sea breeze passing constantly over them, and when cleared of superfluous wood, as they will be for cultivation, continually pervading them. This is a natural effect arising from their size, and must render the climate at once more temperate and more wholesome. The soil too, in these small islands, is more fertile, more capable of being manured, and in many respects more easily cultivated, than in larger islands; they are therefore, capable of being more easily, more speedily, and more compleatly settled, than if their extent was larger: all of which are incontestible advantages.

Besides, from the vicinity of the sea on every side, and the facility of fishing round the coasts, the inhabitants of such islands derive the means of constantly supplying themselves with a considerable part of their subsistence, with little labour and at an easy expence; with this additional benefit, that the advantages arising from thence, which could not be the case in a large country, are alike common to all the inhabitants. This extent of coast in proportion to that of territory, is also very favourable to commerce, as might be shewn in variety of instances, if it were not too obvious to need animadversion. It is no less apparent, that such islands for the same reason that makes them easier settled, are also easier defended, which is another point of no little consequence to the colony and to the mother country.

The islands of which we are speaking, have besides these general advantages some that are peculiar to themselves, and which also are of no small importance. They are, as appears from the description of each of them; exceedingly well watered, and this by running streams; which will afford their inhabitants the conveniency of erecting water-mills, machines that are more useful and less expensive, than either wind-mills, or those in which cattle are employed. The ridges of hills from which these rivulets run, render the seasons more regular in these islands; and there is at least a strong probability, will exempt them, if not totally, yet in a great degree, from short crops, the heaviest of all misfortunes to a planter, and to which the French as well as our islands are very frequently subject.

As these natural benefits of small islands are thus capable of being demonstrated by reason, so the effects that might be expected from them, are justified likewise from experience. If we consider the larger islands in the hands of the French, we shall find that their produce however considerable, is not in proportion to the extent of country, as the French writers themselves acknowledge, and as our countrymen, who have been upon those islands, and who have carefully attended to this particular, likewise admit. The same thing is yet

more visible, in regard to the Spaniards, who possess at once islands the largest and the least profitable in the West-Indies. The Dutch on the other hand, have found means to render the smallest, and in point of soil and climate, the worst island in the West-Indies, by dint of skill and of industry, wonderful flourishing, exceeding populous, and of course highly beneficial.

Yet in this respect, the experience arising from the skill and success of our own planters, goes beyond that of all other nations; and if we consider their early improvements, and the vast extent to which they have been carried; and at the same time reflect, that these have been owing to no one circumstance more than to the smallness of their islands, which for the reasons already given, enabled them to get the start and to keep it so long from the French, will abundantly satisfy every judicious and impartial enquirer, that what we have been laying down, is not more consistent in speculation, than evident from the light of facts.

The new islands taken all together, contain upon the most moderate computation, twice the quantity of ground capable of cultivation, or at least very near it, that there is in Barbadoes, and the rest are all considerably larger. In respect to their soil and climate, they are indisputably to the full as capable of improvement, as any of those that have been improved by our industrious countrymen in so high a degree. Why therefore in a reasonable space of time, may not we, or our posterity at least, expect to derive twice as much from them?

These new colonies, like our old ones in that part of the world, must depend entirely upon us, and draw from hence every necessary, every convenience that they want, either for their own subsistence, or for carrying on their plantations; and how extremely beneficial this is, and so considerable an increase will it be to the mother country, has been explained. It is requisite only to mark, that we shall not be obliged to wait for all, or even the greater parts of the benefits of this commerce, till such time as these islands are fully and completely settled, so as to vie in their productions with our old islands; but on the contrary, our exports to them, and of consequence the profits upon those exports, will very soon commence, and of course we shall immediately reap great advantages from them. The reason of this is obvious; for tho' our old colonies require annually many things, our new ones will require all; and 'tis easy to distinguish the difference that there must be, in supplying the vast variety of things requisite for settling new colonies, and the furnishing the annual subsistence, together with the wear and tear in the old ones.

Nor is there any room to fear, that these new settlers will not find wherewithal to make considerable returns; for though this cannot be at first done in SUGAR, yet in MAHOGANY, COTTON, and a great variety of other articles it may; and the very balance remaining a DEBT, will be a most effectual spur to industry, and compel the new planters to work hard and to live frugally, as the original settlers in our other islands did, in order to procure new supplies with that view, and to maintain and extend their credit.

The intercourse between the new colonies and their mother country, as it must from the causes before-mentioned begin early, so the advantages arising from it will diffuse themselves generally over the whole island of Great-Britain; indeed thro' the whole sphere of the British dominions in Europe, since very large quantities of linen and salt provisions, will be exported for the use of the new settlers and their servants, from Ireland; and in process of time, as they shall become more numerous, we may with great probability hope, their increased demands will, in a great measure, absorb those supplies with which the inhabitants of that island have hitherto furnished the French and Spanish ships, and contributed thereby to their navigation much cheaper than otherwise they could have done.

But it is requisite farther to observe, that exclusive of the benefits flowing from their direct trade with us, they will bring us likewise considerable advantages, by the encouragement they will afford to other branches of our commerce. The African trade, more especially at the beginning, will receive a new spring from their demands, since all that they can do either at present or in future, must arise from the labour of negroes. The supplying them with slaves, therefore, will be both an instantaneous and a continual source of wealth, to such as are employed in that lucrative trade; more especially to those who have the largest share therein, the merchants of London, Bristol, and Liverpool.

We have before seen, how this trade comes to be of such importance to Great-Britain, as it is carried on principally with our own manufactures, and more especially with woollen goods of different kinds, to a large amount; and in all the incidental profits, exclusive of what is produced by slaves, which arise from our correspondence with AFRICA, whether obtained by the purchase of elephants teeth and gold dust, upon the coasts of that country, or from the sale of commodities to foreigners in the West-Indies, finds its way hither. On the winding up of the account, therefore, as the sale of the negroes centers in the West-Indies, the profits arising

from them, and every other accession of gain, centers ultimately here, and becomes the property of the inhabitants of Britain.

This will appear with greater degree of evidence, when we reflect, that more than the moiety of that part of the cargo for the African trade, which is not made up of our own goods, consists of the manufactures of the East-Indies. Besides the quantity of India goods employed on the coast of Africa, there is likewise no small demand for the same commodities in our old SUGAR COLONIES, and of course there will be the like demand in our NEW. We see from hence, how the comprehensive chain of commerce is united, and how the different products of the most distant parts of the world, are carried to and brought from these distant countries in British shipping; and that all the emoluments arising from this extensive navigation, is in the end the reward of the consummate skill, the indefatigable industry, and the perpetual application, of the traders in this happy isle, and how it is to be augmented and supported by our new accession of territory. The prodigious compass of this commercial circulation, would after all be defectively represented, if we should omit mentioning the constant correspondence that subsists between the SUGAR ISLANDS and the NORTHERN COLONIES. A correspondence equally necessary, and reciprocally advantageous to those of our countrymen who are settled in both; and a correspondence, therefore, which will be always maintained, and by which the numerous subjects of Britain who are seated on the continent of America, and those settled in the WEST-INDIAN ISLANDS, in pursuing their own immediate interests, contribute effectually to each of their support.

This is a circumstance, that must fill the breast of every well-meaning man with the highest and most rational pleasure; and engage him to contemplate this subject, with a satisfaction which warms the heart of a parent, when he sees his children assiduous in their application to those methods of providing for their welfare, which have a tendency to promote their common interests, by which their commercial harmony doubles the effects of their mutual industry.

The northern colonies supply the SUGAR-ISLANDS chiefly with lumber and provisions. These are the fruits in a great measure of their indefatigable industry, to the rendering their labour subservient to their prosperity. By this means, they dispose of numerous bulky commodities, derive immense advantages from their fisheries, support an extensive navigation; which is so much the more profitable to them, as it is entirely carried on in ships of their own building; circumstances which, to the eye of a judicious reader, will place this trade, and all its beneficial consequences that attend it, in a very conspicuous and interesting point of view; and convince him, that nothing can be either more convenient for these people, or more to their profit.

On the other hand, the benefits that result to the inhabitants of the SUGAR COLONIES, are not less considerable. They draw all these necessary supplies from the nearest, and consequently from the cheapest markets; markets inexhaustible, and upon which they can always depend. These are brought them by their countrymen to their own doors; which is a circumstance exceedingly suitable to their situation, as it spares them the pains and labour requisite to provide them, which would otherwise be a great drawback on their industry in their own plantations. These supplies they pay for in their own manufactures, which is another great advantage; from all which circumstances taken together, it clearly appears, that the convenience of this correspondence, and the benefits resulting from it, are equally on both sides, and exactly suited to the genius, temper, and situation of the people, by whom it is thus carried on.

By considering attentively this conjunction of interests, we cannot but plainly discern, that by these NEW ACQUISITIONS IN THE WEST-INDIES, new markets are opened, to which our NEW SUBJECTS on the continent may resort. These islands will certainly in time more than replace to the people of CANADA, the trade they formerly carried on to the FRENCH COLONIES; and will at the same time, enable our other settlements upon the CONTINENT, to find new customers for all their commodities, without leaving them that colour of necessity, which was the only excuse they had to plead, for supplying our rivals with the materials essentially requisite to their manufactures, and of course detrimental in the same degree, to those of our fellow-subjects. Besides, as the increase of our SUGAR ISLANDS affords them the increase of commerce, so from their situation they will be a great bar to that ILLICIT TRADE with the FRENCH, which cannot for the future be carried on with the same facility as before.

As the inhabitants of the SUGAR COLONIES are continual purchasers from such as are settled upon the continent of America, the amount of their purchases constitutes a balance from them in the favour of all those who dispose of them. But on the other hand, the inhabitants of the NORTHERN COLONIES, drawing large and constant supplies of commodities and manufactures from hence, we for the same reason have a like BALANCE in our favour against them. It is evident, therefore, from this deduction, that by their transferring the BALANCE due to them, in satisfaction for that which

which is due from them to us, the whole accumulated profits of these transactions ultimately centers with the inhabitants of Great-Britain. Such are the certain, the perpetual, the prodigious benefits that accrue to us from our PLANTATIONS.

There will be room in these new islands, for attempting many things, and improving more. The planting CACAO walks cannot be considered as impracticable, since we see the French have succeeded in it; and so no doubt might we, at least in a degree sufficient to furnish our own consumption. We have COFFEE already in our islands, but it would certainly turn to more account, if the culture of it was better understood; in order to which, pains should be taken to be thoroughly informed of the manner in which it is managed in ARABIA; since it is not at all improbable, that the FLAVOUR, in which only our coffee is deficient, depends upon the culture, and the method of curing it. TEA, if we may believe the French, is a native of the West as well as of the East-Indies; in respect to which it would be certainly right to make some enquiries, and in consequence of them some experiments; and if from thence it should, if it is not already there, it might easily be carried thither, and a trial made whether it might not be cultivated to advantage.

It has been no difficult matter to introduce black PEPPER. RHUBARB, SENNA, and several other valuable DRUGS, are said to have been raised by curious people in great perfection. If the culture of these and other medicinal plants, were once understood, they might be rendered profitable articles in commerce. The laudable society for promoting arts and manufactures, have given several premiums with respect to SARSAPARILLA, and other things; and it is to be wished, that these endeavours, so well intended, may have good effects; for the increasing the number of our commodities, appears to be a thing of consequence.

The success attending these, or any other experiments of the like kind, might become the means of improving many spots of ground, that would otherwise prove useless; as it is well known, that either lands worn out, or which are utterly unfit for either SUGAR or COTTON, might be employed for COCHINEAL. The raising a variety of commodities, would prevent the losses that ensue from short crops; as seasons unfavourable for some things, might be advantageous to others. Besides, in respect to many things that have been mentioned, the cultivation of them might be carried on with fewer negroes, and yet afford a comfortable subsistence to white families, the increase of which in our colonies, is an object of great importance, and is a matter entirely and constantly attended to by the French. Add to this, that though TEA, COFFEE, and CHOCOLATE, are at present not improperly considered as articles of luxury, they would be much less so, if they only, or even if they principally, came from our own plantations; and the consumption of them, should it become greater than it now is, would likewise promote and increase the consumption of our great staple commodity, SUGAR. In these, and in various other lights, such improvements would be found of great consequence, and are, therefore, extremely well worthy of consideration.

The settlement of these new islands, will be no detriment to our old colonies. It has been generally allowed, that there was a want of more sugar land in the West-Indies; and this being admitted, it is certain that Britain is a great gainer by those acquisitions, which put so large a quantity of land fit for the cultivation of SUGAR into our possession. This was not only an opinion, in respect to the truth of which the best judges agreed, but it was a point also decided from matter of fact; because it is known, that numbers of British subjects resorted to countries in the possession of other powers. No one will deny, that many English subjects are settled in the Danish settlement of ST. CRUZ; that there are many resident in EUSTATIA, and that many more are interested in the Dutch settlements upon the continent of America. It became, therefore, highly necessary to remove this evil, by giving such adventurers an opportunity of exercising their industry, in countries belonging to their mother country; and to these it is reasonable to presume, this opportunity being given them, they will return. Besides, as from these facts it appears, that our old colonies began to be over-stocked, so as to afford little encouragement to new planters, it was incumbent on us to have an eye to this circumstance, to prevent such enterprising people, who were determined to seek their fortunes in those parts, from being driven into foreign settlements; where their labour and industry, instead of benefitting us, would continue to turn to the advantage of our rivals; and foreign markets would have been supplied, for the profit of foreigners, by commodities raised by the skill and pains of British subjects.

We cannot but observe from what has already happened, that people who are indigent here, would go in search of subsistence elsewhere; and we must also be sensible, that by providing countries for such people to resort to, their industry, though not their persons, will still be preserved to Britain. By that increase of trade which their labours abroad will gradually produce at home, the number of our necessitous people here will be greatly lessened. There will be

larger quantities of our commodities and manufactures wanted; that are requisite in our plantations; and to supply these, numbers must be set to work, who are either now idle for want of it, and are subsisted by the poor's rate; or take methods of subsisting them, more injurious to the public, and much less to their own advantage and comfort, than if they betook themselves to honest labour here, or even went abroad to these new islands. See SUGAR COLONIES.

LEICESTERSHIRE, is an inland county in England, having Lincolnshire and Rutlandshire on the east; Northamptonshire on the south, Warwickshire on the west; and Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire on the north; and is in circumference about 100 miles.

The air is very sweet and wholesome, but the soil is very different, according to the several parts, being in some places very rich and fruitful, producing wheat, barley, and oats; in others barren and rocky. It's most natural and plentiful crops are beans, which, in some places, are so luxuriant, that, towards harvest-time, they look like a forest.

There are no manufactures in this county, except it be stockings, which has been of late greatly encouraged.

The great want of fuel, in the inland counties especially, is supplied by a very rich coal-mine, at a place called Cole-Orton, from whence it is sold at good rates to the neighbouring counties.

LEICESTER, the shire-town, is a large and populous place. The inhabitants have greatly improved the manufacture of stockings, vast quantities of which are wove by frames, in this and many other neighbouring towns and villages; and in some years it has returned 60,000 l.

ASHBY DE LA ZOUCH, a very pleasant town, has a plentiful market; and it's fairs, which are held on Whit-Tuesday, the 24th of August, the 18th of October, and on St. Simon and Jude, are famous for being well stocked with young horses of the large breed.

MELTON MOWBRAY, a large well-built town, has a market the most considerable for cattle of any in this part of England.

LEINSTER, a province in Ireland. This province is washed on the south and east by the sea; has Munster and Connaught on the west and south-west; and Ulster on the north; and is about 360 miles in circumference.

It has a temperate clear air, a soil fruitful in corn and pasture, and, though in some parts woody, abounds in general with cattle, fowls, milk, butter, cheese, fish, &c.

It's principal rivers are, the Barrow, Boyne, Liffy, Neur, Slane, and May.

It is divided into the twelve following counties, viz.

I. LOUTH COUNTY, which has St. George's Channel on the east; Monaghan and East Meath on the west; Armagh and Carlingford Bay on the north; and West Meath on the south-east. It is the least county in the kingdom.

CARLINGFORD is one of the best harbours in Ireland, at the mouth of the Neur; but, the town being a little out of the way for business, the trade is not equal to the extent of the harbour. They use the coal trade to Whitehaven, as also the fishing in the season, which is the life of trade on all this side of Ireland, especially north.

DUNDALK is the shire-town, and has a good market, but little or no trade.

DROGHEDA, which stands on a bay of it's own name, has a good harbour, but of difficult entrance. The town is populous, and has some trade to the north parts of England, and is supplied with coals from Whitehaven, which they send to all the country round.

II. The county of EAST MEATH has those of Cavan and Louth on the north and north-east; Kildare on the south-west; West Meath on the west; with Dublin county and the ocean on the east.

TRIM is it's chief, if not only town of note, but is not a place of any trade.

III. WEST MEATH, so called in respect of it's situation from the former, lies between King's county on the south, and Longford on the north and runs west to the Shannon, which parts it from Roscommon. It is well watered with rivers and lakes, but intermixed with bogs.

MOLINGAR, which lies in the center, is the head of the county by act of parliament, and a market-town of considerable note and strength.

IV. The county of LONGFORD has West Meath on the east and south; Cavan on the north; and Roscommon on the west.

V. DUBLIN COUNTY is washed on the east by the Irish Sea; has the county of Kildare on the west; East Meath on the north; and Wicklow on the south.

DUBLIN, the metropolis of the whole kingdom, is pleasantly seated on the Liffy, and is the grand mart, and the center of commerce for Ireland, especially for the communication of trade with England; and though Cork is the chief port for trade to foreign parts, and for exportation of provision to the West-Indies, a trade of great importance to Ireland; yet that of Dublin is greatly superior in this particular, viz. that, by it's great import of all kinds of merchandize from all parts, either directly, or by way of England, it has the chief part of the inland trade. The only misfortune of this city is, the deficiency

deficiency of it's harbour, occasioned by the bar, where such heaps of sand are brought in by the tides, that it is difficult of entrance for loaden ships, except at spring-tides, and even then ships of great burthen dare not venture in; nor, when they are in the haven, can any ship come to the kay that draws above seven or eight feet water.

The city is supplied with coals from Whitehaven in Cumber-land, and Swansey in Wales, in such great fleets, that it is common to see 200 sail of colliers in the road at a time.

VI. The county of KILDARE has those of Dublin and Wick-low on the east; King's and Queen's counties on the west; Catherlagh on the south; and East Meath on the north.

NAAS is the shire-town, but KILDARE the capital of the county.

VII. KING'S COUNTY has a part of Tipperary on the west; by which, and Queen's county, it is bounded on the south; by Kildare on the east; and West Meath on the north.

BALLY BAY, in this county, is a well-situated thriving plan-tation, near the center of it.

VIII. QUEEN'S COUNTY has King's county on the north and west; part of Kildare and Catherlagh on the east; and Kil-kenny and Catherlagh on the south.

PORT-ARLINGTON, a small town in the north part of the county, on the river Barrow, is reckoned a thriving planta-tion. But

MOUNTMELICK, a well-improved town, is said to be the best market in the county.

IX. The county of WICKLOW has St. George's Channel on the east; Kildare and Catherlagh counties on the west; that of Dublin, and part of Kildare, on the north; and Wexford county on the south. A copper mine was discovered here not many years ago, at the expence of Mr. Wayne, and other gentlemen of Bristol, which is like to bring them great profit for their undertaking.

The shire-town is WICKLOW, at the mouth of the river Le-trim; but it has not any trade, except what is managed in small vessels, and chiefly to carry provisions to Dublin, for the haven is good for nothing. It is famous for the best ale in Ireland.

DUNLAVIN is a fine English plantation, and a good market.

X. The county of CATHERLAGH has Wexford on the south; part of Queen's county and Kilkenny on the west; part of Kildare and Wicklow on the north; and part of Wicklow and Wexford on the east.

XI. The county of KILKENNY, is bounded on the west with Tipperary; on the east with Wexford and Catherlagh; on the south with Waterford; and, on the north, with Queen's county. This county is adorned with more towns and castles than any other in the kingdom.

KILKENNY is a large, strong, populous, and wealthy city, with as good a trade as any inland town of that kingdom.

XII. The county of WEXFORD has St George's Channel on the south and south-west; part of Catherlagh and Kilkenny on the west; and Wicklow on the north.

Ross, on the borders of Kilkenny, is a town of good trade, by means of it's river, formed by the conjunction of the Neur and Barrow, which brings up ships of very considerable burthen to it's kay.

WEXFORD stands at the mouth of the river Slane: it is a large corporation, as well as the shire town, and has a very good harbour.

LETTER of CREDIT, is where a merchant, or corre-spondent, writes a letter to another, requesting him to credit the bearer with a certain sum of money.

Form of a LETTER of CREDIT.

Mr. E. F.

S I R,

London, May 10, 1753.

My last to you was of the 15th of March, wherein I wrote what was needful, in answer to your's of the 10th of the same month; and this serves chiefly to desire you to furnish and pay unto Mr. C. D. English gentleman, to the value of two thou-sand crowns, at one or more times, according as he shall have occasion for it, and request the same of you, taking his re-ceipt, or bills of exchange, for the monies which you shall so furnish him with, and put it to my account; and this my letter of credit shall be your sufficient warrant for so doing.

To Mr. E. F. merchant
at Madrid.

Your's, &c. A. B.

LETTER-FOUNDER. He casts types, or letters, for printers: there are but two in London; 'till very lately we had types from Holland; but that excellent artist Mr. Casson, having excelled all foreign founders, not only furnishes us at home, but sends great quantities abroad.

LETTER of LICENCE, is an instrument, or writing, made by creditors to a man that hath failed in his trade, allowing him longer time for the payment of his debts, and protecting him from arrests in going about his affairs. These letters of li-cence give leave to the party to whom granted, to resort freely to his creditors, or any others, and to compound debts, &c. and the creditors covenant, that, if the debtor shall receive any molestation or hindrance from any of them,

he shall be acquitted and discharged of his debt against such creditor, &c.

The form of a LETTER of LICENCE.

To all people to whom this present writing shall come, we whole names are here underscribed, and seals affixed, cre-ditors of A. B. of London, merchant, send greeting: where-as the said A. B. on the day of the date of these presents, is indebted unto us, severally, in divers considerable sums of money, which at present he is not able to satisfy unto us, without respite and time to be given unto him for the pay-ment thereof: know ye, therefore, that we the said creditors, for divers good causes and considerations us thereunto mov-ing, have given and granted, and by these presents do give and grant, unto the said A. B. our sure and safe conduct, and free licence, that he the said A. B. shall and may safely come and go, and resort unto us, and every one of us, his said creditors, to compound, and take order with us, and every one of us, for all and every of our said debts, and to go about any other business to any other person or persons what-soever, without any trouble, suit, arrest, attachment, or other molestation to be offered or done unto him the said A. B. his wares, goods, monies, or other merchandizes whatsoever, by us, or any of us, or by the heirs, executors, administrators, partners, or assigns, or by our, or any of our means and pro-curement, to be sought or procured to be done, from the day of the date hereof, unto the full end or term of one whole year next ensuing: and we the said creditors, whose names are here underwritten, do hereby covenant and grant, and every one of us, for his own part, his executors and admini-strators, covenanteth and granteth to and with the said A. B. that if any trouble, wrong, damage, or injury, shall be done unto him the said A. B. either in his body, goods, or chattels, or any of them, within the said term of one year, next com-ing after the date hereof, by us, or any of us, his said credi-tors, or by any other person or persons, by or through the procurement, consent, or knowledge of us, or any of us, contrary to the true intent and meaning of this our present writing of safe conduct, that then the said A. B. by virtue of these presents, shall be discharged and acquitted for ever, to-wards and against him and them, of us, his, and their heirs, executors, administrators, partners, or assigns, and every one of them, by whom, and by whose means, he shall be arrest-ed, troubled, and attached, or damnified of all manner of actions, suits, quarrels, debts and demands, either in law or equity, from the beginning of the world to the day of the date hereof. In witness whereof we have hereunto set our hands and seals, the, &c.

LETTERS of MARQUE, are extraordinary powers, or com-missions for reparation to merchants taken and despoiled by strangers at sea, grantable by the secretaries of state, with the approbation of the king and council, and usually in time of war, &c. *Lex Mercat. Malin. 173.* If a letter of marque wilfully and knowingly take a ship and goods belonging to another nation, not of that state against whom the commis-sion is awarded, but of some other in amity, this amounts to a downright piracy. *Roll. Abr. 530.*

The goods of others may be taken at sea by letters of marque, but not by any private authority, nor to be granted but where the party damaged has justice denied him, or illegally de-layed. This law, or custom, was established by consent of nations; and, without it, licence would be given to commit depredations, especially if only the goods of rulers were liable, who seldom possess any thing the injured can come at for sa-tisfaction.

But princes, by the laws of nations, are answerable for inju-ries public, and should, by the most prudent ways, prevent those that are private, not suffering even foreigners to receive wrongs; nor should the prince, or person injured, value his misfortune so low, as to deny him letters of request; and, if justice be denied on such request, it is reasonable to arm him with power, to take satisfaction by reprimand. Usually two or three letters of request are sent, before reprimand is awarded, and generally assign a time for reparation. King Charles I. after the massacre at Amboyna, granted letters of request to the states of Holland, for satisfaction within eight months, or letters of reprimand were to follow. King Charles II. on pe-tition of Mess. Goulor and Canham, granted one Lee, letters to the great duke of Tuscany, for redress against the govern-ment of Leghorn. In the year 1674, the same prince issued letters of request to the king of Spain, for satisfaction for the depredation committed on the ship and goods of Mr. Stampe, who was robbed and murdered at the Havanna. He also pub-lished a proclamation, promising a reward for apprehending the offenders, dead or alive.

In the prosecution of letters of request and reprimand, there must be,

1. The oath of the party injured, or other good proof of the injury, and of the loss thereby sustained.
2. A proof of due solicitation for redress, in a legal way.
3. The deferring or denial of justice.
4. A complaint to his own prince or state.
5. Requisition of justice by him or them, to the supreme state, where justice in the ordinary course was denied.
6. Persistence in denial of justice. And, after all, letters of re-primand,

prizal, under legal restrictions, and as the special case requires, may issue, both by the civil and by the ancient municipal laws of this kingdom: and the prince of the country must repair the damage out of their effects who caused it, or, if that prove deficient, it should fall as a common debt on his country.

Legal reprizals are of two sorts, ordinary and extraordinary: the first are either within or without the realm, and granted to English merchants that have any wife suffered in their persons or goods, and upon suit, or the king's demanding justice by his ambassadors, &c. cannot obtain redress: who in such case shall have a writ out of chancery, to arrest the merchant strangers of that nation, or their goods, here in England: and the lord chancellor has always approbation of the king and council, or both, for so doing.

Those without the realm are always by patent, and not ordinarily revokable, as they immediately vest a national debt in the grantee, to be satisfied as the patents direct, out of the effects of that prince's subjects who refused, or illegally delayed justice. But, if the peace of both states seem to be endangered by attempting the execution of them, it may be respited 'till a more convenient time; and princes, in granting such letters, are careful to have them made so as they may not be reckoned a breach of the peace; but granting them for particular satisfaction does not, in the ordinary way, amount to a breach.

As to the extraordinary reprizals, they are by letters of marque, for reparation at sea, or out of the kingdom, granted by the secretaries of state, with like approbation of the king and council, but only during the king's pleasure, and generally in war-time.

In king Henry the IVth's reign, on the grievous complaint of the commons for wrongs at sea, contrary to leagues, &c. which were broken by the subjects of other nations, a law was made, that, upon application to the keeper of the privy-seal, he shall sign letters of request for restitution; which, if not made in due time, the lord chancellor shall grant letters of reprizal: and this confirmed by stat 4. Hen. V. cap. 7. and other statutes.

But letters of reprizal were granted long before these statutes, by the kings, nor was their prerogative diminished by them, but remained at common law, to judge when expedient to grant them; nor does the beforementioned act restrain the king's prerogative therein.

The cases where reprizals will or will not lie, are thus stated: on wrong judgment given in prosecution abroad, in matters not doubtful, that might have been redressed, and was perverted or denied, reprizal may be granted: if the matter be doubtful, it is otherwise; for, in such, there is presumption justice was duly administered. If an Englishman prosecutes a person in any legal court beyond sea, and the military governor opposes the suit, and, by his means, the debtor and his goods are conveyed away, but a judgment is obtained, by this the execution is frustrated, and letters of reprizal shall be had.

And yet if a merchant of England commence a suit in the courts of law beyond sea, and judgment pass against him, and is confirmed by the supreme court to which he appeals, though the complainant hath received a judgment contrary to the right of the cause, here he shall not have letters of reprizal; but it may, according to the case, occasion letters of request, to have a rehearing.

If any person be killed, wounded, or any ways damaged in the territories of any potentate to whom letters of request are sent, and no redress be made, letters of reprizal may be issued; but are not to be granted for damages to the goods or persons of those residing in foreign countries in time of war: in this case they must sit down with the loss, for they may relinquish the place on the enemies approach.

It is not the place of any man's nativity, but of his habitation, that subjects him to reprize: if, therefore, letters of reprizal be awarded against the subjects of the duke of Tuscany, and a native of Florence, but living in England, should have a ship on a voyage to Leghorn, it cannot lawfully be made a prize: and certain persons, as well as ships and goods, are exempted, as ambassadors, and their retinue, coming from him who awarded the prize, travellers, ecclesiastical persons, &c. and a merchant of another place than against which reprizals are granted, though his factor be of that place, is not subject to reprizals. Molloy Jur. Mar. 21.

Ships forced into port by stress of weather, are exempted, by common right; but the laws of England say otherwise, unless expressly provided for in the writ: and such ship flying his own country for some fault, and forced in by storm, is lawful prize: but ships may not be seized in any ports but of the prince who awarded the reprizals, or against whom they are issued.

If a ship, having letters of marque or reprizal, carry those she hath legally taken into a neuter port, the owners may there claim and seize her, or the admiral may restore the ship and goods to the owners, and set the captives at liberty. Trin. 17 Car. I. in B. R. Marsh's Rep.

If any ship that hath letters of reprize attack a vessel, and she refuse to yield, she may be boarded; and, if any happen to

be slain, the fault is their own, for hindering execution of a legal authority: but if it be those of another nation, against whom commission is not awarded, this is downright piracy, and punishable accordingly. Rol. Abr. 530.

Though, if such letters of marque be assigned over to another person, who takes any such ship or goods, on a violent presumption that it belonged to the right of him against whom reprizals are granted, here, if the sufferers recover ship and goods, yet the captors are not to be punished criminally, nor the grantees of the patents civilly; the captors are answerable for damages, but the grantees are entirely excusable, unless privy to the caption: it is like the case of an officer arresting a wrong person; he is answerable to the person arrested, but not the person that employed him. Stat. 4. Hen. V. cap. 14. Sea Laws, 470.

A person who had letters of marque in the Dutch war, took, by mistake, an Ostender, and brought her into harbour, and was prosecuted for damages, &c. Another, having taken a French ship, carried her into Africa, and the admiralty there condemned her as prize: having sold her, and, coming into England, he was sued in the admiralty, and sentence given against him, though he appealed for a prohibition, but was denied. 1 Lev. 243. 1 Salk. 32.

A ship being lawfully taken, and brought into port, the captor must exhibit all his ship-papers, and captive mariners, to be examined; and, 'till the goods are legally condemned, bulk ought not to be broken, nor may the captain permit embezzlement of the lading, or dispose of any part, without commission, for the king hath a share in all prizes: and the common profits are to be equally divided among all the ships present; so that if letters are granted to two ships, and both of them meet a prize, which one of them takes, although the other did nothing, he hath right to an equal share, for the presence of that vessel is a terror, and causes a ship to strike sooner. 3 Eliz. cap. 5. 2 Leon. Rep. 182.

If the caption of any ship be by men of war, the property will be in the captors, except it be lost again, and recovered by the persons from whom taken, or regained in battle. And, by the law of nations, the dominion of things taken with letters of marque becomes the captors, 'till the original damage, and subsequent charges, are satisfied; which done, the residue is to be restored: and so the Venetians used their equity, having taken the ships of Genoa, they carefully preserved the lading, 'till the debt was paid, and then made intire restitution. Molloy, 20.

If, during a war between England and Holland, a Dutch man of war take an English merchant-man, which is afterwards retaken; in such case, restitution is commonly made, the owners paying salvage; so where the prize is recovered by a friend, or comes into his ports: and the taking ships and goods by force is so odious, that restitution, where possible, is granted. Ibid. 6, 7.

Where for the fault, perhaps, of a few, a debt becomes national, the goods of the guiltless become liable, if taken, for satisfaction; but such should have contribution, by the law of England. Though, when depredations have happened here to foreign merchants, and complaint hath been made concerning them, our kings have often granted commissions to inquire and award satisfaction: and, on the petition of some merchants of Genoa, against the inhabitants of Guernsey, for detaining goods to a considerable value, out of a ship wrecked near the said isle, a commission was granted to punish the offenders, and make restitution: for, as the English subjects may have their goods as reprize, for satisfaction of a debt from foreigners, so they may have benefit of these commissions, to make themselves whole out of the estates of offenders. Pat. 26 Ed. III. See stat. 31 Hen. VI. cap. 4.

But he that will sue to have restitution in England for goods taken at sea, must prove that the sovereign of the party was in amity with England, &c. and letters of reprizal make no war between nations. 22 Ed. III.

A copy of letters patent for especial reprizals, from the king of Great-Britain (under the great seal of England) against the States of Holland, and their subjects. Inrolled in the high court of Chancery, 19 May, 15 Car. II.

CHARLES the Second, &c. Whereas our loving subjects Sir William Courteen, Knt. deceased, and his partners, anno 1643, by the depredation and hostile act of one Gailand, commander in chief of two ships belonging to the East-India company of the Netherlands, was, between Goa and Maccas, in the Streights of Malacca, deprived, and most injuriously spoiled, of a certain ship called the Bona Esperanza, and of her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and all the goods and lading in her, upon a very hopeful trading voyage to China, which were carried to Batavia, and there, without any legal process, confiscated: and also, in the same year, another laden ship of our said subject, called the Henry Bonaventure, being come on ground near the island of Mauritius, was there, both ship and goods, seized upon by some of the officers and ministers, and others, under the command of the said East-India company, and utterly detained from the right owners: and whereas the said Sir William Cour-

teen, and his assigns, in his life-time, used all possible endeavours to recover the said ships and goods, and to procure further justice against the malefactors, and yet could obtain no restitution or satisfaction, whereby they came to be much distressed, and utterly undone in their estate and credit: and thereupon, and upon the most humble supplication, and addresses of Francis earl of Shrewsbury, and William Courteen, Esq; grandson and heir of the said Sir William deceased, Sir John Ayton and Sir William Turner, Knts. and George Carew and Charles Whitaker, Esqrs. (on the behalf of themselves, and divers others interested in the said two ships, Bona Esperanza and Henry Bonadventure, and in the estates of the said Sir William Courteen deceased) Sir Edward Littleton, Bart. and Sir Paul Pindar, Knt. that we would take their case into princely consideration: we, out of a just sense we then had, and still have of their unjust sufferings in that business, both by our own letters, under our sign manual, to the States-General of the United Provinces, and by Sir George Downing, Knt. and Bart. our envoy extraordinary, to whom we gave special command so to do, required satisfaction to be made, according to the rules of justice, and the amity and good correspondence which we then desired to conserve with them firm and inviolable: and whereas, after several addresses made to the States-General by our said envoy, and nothing granted effectual for relief of our said subjects (whom we take ourselves in honour and justice concerned to see satisfied and repaid) we lately commanded the said Sir George Downing to intimate and signify to the said states, that we expected their final answer concerning satisfaction to be made for the said ships and goods, by a time then prefixed, and since elapsed; that we might so govern ourselves thereupon, that our aforesaid subjects might be relieved according to right and justice, and yet no satisfactory answer hath been given; so that we cannot but apprehend it to be not only a fruitless endeavour, but a prostituting our honour and dignity to make a farther application, after so many denials and slights. And whereas John Exton, doctor of laws, judge of our high admiralty court of England, upon our command to certify to us the value of the losses and damages sustained by the said Sir William Courteen and partners, whose interest is now vested in our loving subjects Sir Edmund Turner Knt. and George Carew, Esq; and partners, hath, upon full examination and proof thereof, made by witnesses in our high court of admiralty, reported and certified under his hand, that the same do amount to the sum of one hundred fifty-one thousand six hundred and twelve pounds.

Now know ye, that, for a full restitution to be made to them for their ships, goods, and merchandize, of which the said Sir William Courteen, Knt. and partners, were so despoiled as aforesaid, with all such costs and charges as they shall be at for the recovery of the same: we, by the advice of our privy-council, have thought fit, and by these presents do grant licence and authority, under our great seal of England, unto our said subjects, Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, administrators, and assigns, for and on the behalf of themselves, and other persons interested as aforesaid, to equip, victual, furnish, and to set to sea, from time to time, such and so many ships and pinnaces as they shall think fit; provided always, that there be an entry made and recorded, in the admiralty courts, of the names of all ships and vessels, and of their burden and ammunition, and for how long time they are victualled, and also the names of the commanders, before the same or any of them be set forth to sea; and with the said ships and pinnaces by force of arms to set upon, take, and apprehend any of the ships, goods, money, and merchandizes belonging to the states-general, or any of the subjects inhabiting within any of their dominions or territories, where-soever the same shall be found, and not in any port or harbour in England or Ireland, unless it be the ships and goods of the parties that did the wrong: and the said ships, goods, money, and merchandizes being so taken, and brought into some port of our realms and dominions, an inventory thereof shall be taken, by authority of our court of admiralty, by the judge or judges thereof for the time being, upon proofs made before him or them that the said ships, goods, wares, merchandizes, and money, did belong to the states-general, or any of their subjects as aforesaid, that they shall be lawful prize to the said Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, administrators, and assigns, as aforesaid, to retain and keep in their, or any of their possessions, and to make sale and dispose thereof in open market, or howsoever else, to their and every of their best advantage and benefit, in as ample manner as any time heretofore hath been accustomed, by way of reprisal, and to have and enjoy the same as lawful prize, and as their own proper goods: so that neither any captain, master, nor any of their company, that shall serve in person, or shall promote and advance the said enterprize, in manner and form aforesaid, shall, in any manner of wise, be reputed or challenged as an offender against any of our laws: and that it shall be lawful for all manner of persons, as well our subjects as any others, to buy the said ships, goods, and merchandizes, so taken and apprehended by the said captains, masters, and others, and adjudged as aforesaid, without any damage, loss, hindrance, trouble, molestation, or

incumbrance, to besal the said buyer, or any of them, in as ample and lawful manner as if the ships, goods, wares, and merchandizes had been come and gotten by lawful traffic of merchants, or of just prizes in time of war: provided always, that all ships, goods, and merchandize, taken by virtue of this our commission, shall be kept in safety, and no part of them wasted, spoiled, or diminished, or the bulk thereof broken, until judgment hath first passed as aforesaid, that they are the ships and merchandize of the states general, or some of their subjects as aforesaid: and if, by colour of this our commission, there shall be taken any ships, goods, or merchandizes, of any of our loving subjects, or the subjects of any prince or state in good league or amity with us (except the states-general, or their subjects, as aforesaid) and the goods therein laden sold and embezzled, or diminished, or the bulk thereof broken in any place, before they shall be adjudged to belong to the states-general, or some of their subjects, as aforesaid: that then this commission shall not be of sufficient authority to take the said ships, goods, and merchandizes, or to warrant or save harmless such as shall receive, buy, or intermeddle therein, but that both the prizes so taken, and the said ships of war, shall be confiscated to our use.

And further we do hereby declare, that it is our will and pleasure, that this our commission shall remain in full force and power, to all intents and purposes, until the said Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, administrators, and assigns, as aforesaid, shall, by virtue thereof, have by force of arms apprehended, taken, seized, recovered, and received, from the said states-general, or their subjects, one hundred and fifty-one thousand six hundred twelve pounds, according to the appraisement to be made by appraisers upon oath, nominated and authorized in our said court of admiralty, of such ships, goods, wares, or merchandizes, as shall be taken from the said states general, or any of their subjects, by virtue of this commission, or shall otherwise receive satisfaction of the debt aforesaid, by composition to be made between those of the East-India company of the Netherlands and the said Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, administrators, and assigns, as aforesaid: notwithstanding the present difference between us and the said states-general, depending upon general reprises, may be agreed and composed; and that, in the interim, a good correspondence may be renewed between us and the said states-general, but only in case of resistance; and that, after, in cold blood, the subjects of the states-general, if hurt or wounded, shall be used with all convenient offices of humanity and kindness, &c.

A proclamation for revoking the foregoing letters of marque and reprisals, published August 3, 1680.

Whereas George Carew, Esq; had formerly granted to him letters of marque against the States-General of the United Provinces, for satisfaction of a certain demand which Sir William Courteen and others had against the said States, and to which the said George Carew was intitled; which said demand has since, by treaty of peace between his Majesty and the said States, been totally abolished and extinguished, and all letters of marque and reprisal by the same treaty discharged accordingly: and whereas his Majesty has since recalled and superseded the said letters of marque: to the end that no person may be misled, under pretence of any letters of marque and reprisal heretofore granted to the said George Carew, and thereby incur the danger of the law, as pirates: his Majesty is pleased, by this, his proclamation, to declare, That the said George Carew has now no authority and commission, by virtue of any such letters of marque, to equip or set out any vessel whatsoever, and that all persons that shall presume to be aiding to him in setting forth any such ship, or serve under him, by colour of any such pretended authority, shall be proceeded against as pirates, according to the utmost severity of the law.

LETTERS PATENT, LITERÆ PATENTES, sometimes called LETTERS OVERT, are writings of the King, sealed with the great seal of England, whereby a person is enabled to do or enjoy that which otherwise he could not, and so called, because they are open, with the seal affixed, and ready to be shewn for the confirmation of the authority thereby given. 19 Hen. VII. cap. 7. And we read of letters patent to make denizens, &c. 32 Hen. VI. cap. 16. 9 Hen. III. cap. 18. Letters patent may be granted by common persons; but, in such case, they are properly patents; yet, for distinction, the king's letters patent have been called letters patent royal. Anno 2 Hen. VI. cap. 10. Letters patent conclude with Teste me ipso, &c. 2 Inst. 78. See PATENTS.

LEVANT TRADE.

Of the first establishment of the Christian nations in the ports of the Levant*, and of their convention and treaties with the Ottoman Port.

* Levant signifies, in geography, any country situated to the east of us, or on the eastern side of any continent or country, or that on which the sun rises.—In matters of commerce,

merce, it is generally restrained to the Mediterranean Sea, or, rather, to the country on the eastern part of it.—Hence our trade thither is called the Levant trade; and a wind that blows from thence out of the Straights mouth, is called a Levant wind.

France was the first nation that made treaties of commerce with the Port. The Sieur de la Foret signed them in 1535, in the name of Francis I. and thereby obtained many privileges in favour of that kingdom, which they alone enjoyed, 'till the Venetians, the English, the Hollanders, and at length the Genoese, likewise obtained particular privileges to themselves.

The chief privileges granted the French, by the conventions made by the Sieur de la Foret, were :

I. The establishment of a court of justice, under the appellation of the consularship, in all the parts or places where the French merchants should reside, in order to do justice between the French merchants, among themselves, and between them and the Turks, with regard both to civil and criminal matters; with prohibition to the officers of the Grand Seignior to take cognizance thereof, without consent being first had and obtained from the French themselves.

II. The privileges in respect to the consul himself, and other officers of the consularship, were, that they might not be judged in criminal matters by the officers of the places where they shall reside, but be sent to the Port, or to the nearest lieutenant of the Grand Seignior.

III. That the liberty of their religion shall be granted to the French.

IV. That the permission of trade in all the Grand Seignior's dominions be granted to the French alone, and that all other nations be prohibited coming thither to trade, but under the French banner.

The Venetians were the first in favour of whom the Port deviated from this last article, which was, says our author, as honourable as beneficial to the French; and when Henry III, in 1580, sent James de Germigny, baron de Gernelles, to renew the convention, the subjects of the republic of Venice were expressly excepted from the list of those nations who were obliged to navigate under French colours.

In the treaties of 1604, obtained from the sultan Achmet by Mons. Savary de Breves, ambassador from France to the Port, the English were also excepted from the said list.

These last conventions of the French not being renewed 'till 1673, by reason of the succours which his most Christian majesty sent into Hungary and Candia, the Hollanders, and afterwards the Genoese, availing themselves by this misunderstanding between France and the Port, obtained more favourable treaties; which although, says our author, expressed in terms less honourable than those were with regard to France; (wherein the king is always treated as an emperor, and as the most ancient ally of the Port) yet they contained the most essential article in relation to their commerce; which consists in the liberty of having consuls, and trading in all places of the Levant upon their own footing, independent of France.

It may also be said, that, in a very material point, other nations were more favourably treated than the French, because the duties on importation, and exportation of these other nations were reduced to 3 per cent. while those, which regarded the commodities of the French merchants, continued to pay 5 per cent. as they had always done: but this difference was reduced by the capitulation of 1673.

Of the regulations and polity of France with respect to the trade of the Levant.

As long as the commerce of the Levant remained intirely in the hands of the French, it was so considerable, that the duties thereof, upon the importation and exportation of merchandizes, paid by the French at the custom-house of the Grand Seignior, amounted to several millions of livres per annum.

The face of things is much changed since that time; the treaties of commerce made between the Port and several other nations, and the civil wars of France in the reigns of Henry II, and his successors, which diverted the administration from pursuing the commercial interests of France, gave the Venetians, and afterwards the English, a favourable occasion to secure to themselves this navigation, upon their own bottom. Certain it is, that the bad conduct of the nation in other respects also reduced it's trade to a deplorable state, 'till the time of Lewis XIV, who resolved, in 1665, to support and encourage it, and recommended to Mons. Colbert, his minister and secretary of state, to restore the commerce of the Levant, in some measure, to it's former splendor, if it was not possible to oblige other nations to trade again under the French banner.

The first step this patriot minister took to restore this branch of commerce, was to establish a company, constituted of 20 of the most opulent merchants of Paris, Lyons, and Marseilles. Another point, which then appeared to be no less requisite, was, to put an effectual stop to the complaints of the Turks, respecting the bad quality of the merchandizes which the Marseillians imported there, and to provide against abuses

that had happened in the consularship; and which had greatly discredited the French nation.

In relation to manufactures, that minister made various regulations concerning the fabric of woollen goods destined for the Levant trade, which we shall see under the articles FRANCE, and WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES of France.

The French pieces of money of five sols* being introduced into the trade of the Levant, the Turks were so greatly taken with the beautiful appearance thereof, that they very earnestly coveted them, and gave their merchandizes in exchange for half the price, on condition that they were paid for them in this French specie; which, at length occasioned the Genoese also to introduce them into the Levant trade: but, not satisfied even with the great profit which they thereby experienced, they diminished the standard, or intrinsic value of this coin more than one half, and carried so great a quantity of this counterfeit money to the Levant (and the French also imitating their example, by having the like fabricated at Morgues) that the eyes of the Turks became, at length, opened, and they accused the French of this roguery; against whom they made great complaints, and laid that nation deservedly under great difficulties in it's traffic. To put an end to these complaints, the French ambassador had orders to stem the torrent of such discredit at the Port, by endeavouring to throw a part of the loss upon others, who also were the cause of the deceit.

* This small silver money, whose commerce made so great noise in all parts of the Levant, towards the middle of the seventeenth century, was called by the Turks timmins, or temins.—The impression was so beautiful and elegant, that the Turks would take no other money but this. From the merchants, the infatuation spread itself even among the ladies, whose head-dresses and habits were adorned with them. The French, taking advantage of this frenzy, passed these timmins at first, for 10 sols, which was gaining cent. per cent.: afterwards they lowered them to 7 sols 6 deniers; and at last, in 1670, they were absolutely cried down.

The avarice of the European merchants (for the Hollanders, the Genoese, and some other Christian nations, had a share in this traffic as well as the French) was the cause of this disgrace brought upon this species of the French money. Not contented with the immense gain made by passing of good coin, they resolved to counterfeit the same, and carried Louis of 5 sols to the Levant, that were only copper silvered over. Orange, Avignon, Monaco, Florence, and several castles in the states of Genoa, were the places where this infamous merchandize was fabricated, for the last thirteen years that this unjust traffic continued.

To put a stop to this disorder, at least to prevent the French from taking further part therein, the parliament of Provence issued an arrêt, the 22d of December, 1667, forbidding the Levant trade to be carried on otherwise than with the money of France, Spain, Morgues, and Dombes; and under pain of death to transport any Louis of 5 sols to Genoa or Leghorn, or any other places on that coast.—This arrêt put a stop to such detestable traffic in Turkey, which had put the whole empire into great confusion.

The prosperity of the French commerce depending, in a great measure, on the good conduct of the consuls established in the ports of the Levant, and his majesty being informed that the greatest part of those who then filled these places, were either foreigners or obscure persons, in whom it was not safe for his subjects to confide; it was ordained, by an arrêt of council of the 29th of March, 1669, that all the French consuls should directly transmit to Mons. Colbert their letters of authority whereby they held their consularships.

In consequence of this arrêt it was, that fresh instructions and powers were delivered in the two succeeding years to the ancient consuls, and a number of new ones created in divers other ports of the Levant, where there had been none before.

By a declaration of the same year, registered in the parliament of Provence, it was ordained, that all the oppressions which happened in the ports of the Levant, should be discharged by the ships that should be found in the ports and havens where such oppression had been made; for which purpose there should be an assessment upon the ship's merchandizes.

The 12th of June, in the following year 1670, the execution of the declaration relative to the oppressions was appointed by a new ordonnance; in consequence whereof, all consuls established in the Levant were expressly forbidden to convoke, for the future, any assembly of the body of the nation, under any pretext whatsoever, and this under the penalty of losing their place, and to answer the same in their own persons, the sums that the said assemblies should have attempted to lay upon the whole nation; his majesty injoining his ambassador at the Port to cause these ordonnances to be duly put in execution.

At the same time Mons. Colbert wrote a circular letter to all the consuls in the ports of the Levant, which consisted of four principal articles of polity.

By the first they were ordered to maintain a regular correspondence with the Marquis of Nointel, the king's ambassador at the Port, in relation to what regarded the commerce of their various ports. The second enjoined them to transmit to him constantly a memorial of whatever they should judge requisite

requisite to the advantage of commerce in their respective places of residence; as also another memorial, attested by the principal merchants of the said ports, containing all the oppressions that the Turks made upon the French. The third article obliged them to send, every six months, to the court, as well as to the ambassador, a list of the French actually inhabiting their several ports; and likewise to give a faithful account of those persons of credit, probity, and good behaviour, as well as of those whose conduct might give the Turks reasons for any contempt towards their nation*.

* Was not this laying a good foundation for constant future esteem towards the French?

The instructions sent to the marquis of Nointel contained also several articles of regulations.

I. The suppression of all the imposts of the consulship, which had been made 'till then by his Catholic majesty's ministers at Constantinople, as well as all those which were allotted to their secretaries and interpreters.

II. That, under any pretence of oppression, no duties in future should be raised, or any thing taken, by way of fee or bribe, upon the commerce of the nation in general.

III. To that end, every kind of assembly that used to be held on these occasions was abolished; and that every one should avoid borrowing money of the Jews, and paying them monthly interest.

IV. That the debts, as well those of the city of Marseilles (for the payment whereof the duty of *Cotimo** had been established) as those of the ports of the Levant, should be examined and liquidated, in order to be discharged with the greater ease to trade.

* A term in marine commerce, used in the ports of the Levant.—It is an imposition, or duty, which the consuls lay, either by order of the court, or the consent of the merchants, of so much per cent. upon shipping, either for the payment of some *avanies* (a), or for some other common affairs of the nation.

The arrêt of the council of 1684 ordains, that a *cotimo* should be settled, at the rate of 2 per cent. upon the first ships that returned from the port of Alexandria, for an indemnification adjudged to the Levant company.

(a) *Avanie* signifies an insult, affront, imposition, a quarrel bred with design, and without cause. This is particularly used in the Levant, and in all the dominions of the Grand Seignior, to signify the presents, or the fines, that the Turkish bashaws, and the officers of the custom-house, unjustly extort from the Christian merchants under false pretences.—When these *avanies* relate to a particular nation, the ambassador and consuls of the nation regulate them, and appoint the method of levying them among the merchants, and others of such nation; which is commonly done with the advice of the chief persons among them.

V. That no French should inhabit in the ports of the Levant without express permission from the king's minister at the Port.

It was likewise ordained, by an arrêt of council of November 1669, that, in future, the interpreters in the ports of the Levant, residing at Constantinople, Smyrna, and other places, should not act in that city, unless they were natives of France, and appointed by an assembly of the body of the nation in every port, and deposited their oath with the consuls.

In order to be secure of the fidelity of these interpreters, the same arrêt regulates, that there should be sent to the ports of Constantinople and Smyrna, every three years, six young men, to be there instructed in the languages, and to act afterwards in the capacity of interpreters.—To add to the advantage which the nation might derive from this establishment, his majesty ordained, by a second arrêt of October 1670, that six young men should be sent for the three first years, for the purpose of becoming interpreters*.

* An interpreter, or druggerman, or drogman, as they are called in the Levant, is a person whom the ambassadors of the Christian countries, residing at the Port, have near their persons, to assist them in point of language in treating of public affairs. The consuls likewise make use of these druggermen, as well for their private use, as for that of the merchants of their country who traffic in the ports of the Levant, or foreigners who come to trade under the banner of their princes. The assistance of these interpreters being absolutely necessary in the commerce of the Levant, and the good success therein partly depending on their fidelity and ingenuity, induced Lewis the XIVth of France to issue an arrêt of council to provide a number of the natives of France, who were well educated in the language, to officiate in that useful capacity, that the ambassadors and consuls of France should never be liable to imposition by strangers, who might have no attachment to their country.—A wise measure certainly!

The ambassador of France, predecessor to the marquis de Nointel, having greatly loaded commerce with unwarrantable impositions; his majesty, in order to prevent these abuses, strictly forbid the marquis from following their example, under any pretext whatsoever; without first communicating the matter to the merchants and captains who should be in the several ports, for their votes, with all imaginable freedom. The convoys which the king granted for the safety of the commerce of his subjects, more particularly of those who traded to the Levant, not having the success expected, by the

misconduct of those who commanded them, in not joining the merchants in due time, or leaving them before arrival in their intended ports: his majesty issued an ordonnance in May 1671, whereby he commands all chiefs of the squadron, captains, and other officers of the marine, ordered to convoy merchants ships, either in meeting them on the high seas, or departing from the ports of the kingdom, to convoy them safe to the ports whither they were bound, and on their return into the ports of the kingdom; expressly forbidding them, at the peril of their lives, to abandon them, under any pretence whatever, if not prevented by the violence of the winds; upon condition, notwithstanding, that the masters of such merchantmen shall be ready to sail upon the day appointed by the captains, consuls, and principal merchants interested in the trade.

Before the court had obliged the consuls to lay before them the powers whereby they enjoyed their posts, they were granted during life: some had even obtained the succession for their children, or relations, and there were some made hereditary, and reckoned amongst the patrimonial effects of families. In the new reform of consuls, they were, for the most part, reduced to six years continuance, but they might be continued, and are so in effect.

The rights of consulship are not equal in all the Levant ports, they being in some places 2 per cent. in others 3.

It was by these first regulations that Monsi. Colbert began to give another face to the French commerce in the Levant, by thus providing at once for the correction of the chief abuses which were therein committed.

There was afterwards prepared a general regulation of the polity of the consulship, in regard to whatever concerns the assemblies and the trade of the kingdom; to which, from time to time, and almost to the death of Lewis XIV, there were added new articles, as the circumstances of things required. See the article *CONSULS*.

That the reader may make a right judgment of the polity of the French in regard to the regulation of this branch of trade, we shall give the substance of the principal royal ordinances and arrêts relating thereunto: we shall begin with that of the 18th of March, 1693, which follows, viz.

His majesty judged it requisite to suppress the duties of consulship in the ports of the Levant, for the benefit of his subjects, and having excepted therefrom foreigners who trade under the banner of France, and ordained that those duties in regard to their merchandizes should continue in the accustomed manner, and be appropriated to the chamber of commerce at Marseilles [see the article *CHAMBER of COMMERCE*] his majesty being informed that the greatest part of the foreigners, and particularly the Jews, daily make false declarations of the merchandizes which they embark in French bottoms, and oftentimes do not embark any at all, and that the captains and cap-merchants [see *CAP-MERCHANTS*] of ships, favour foreigners by night in shipping their merchandizes on Turkish bottoms, or even in French vessels, to the prejudice of the French merchants, who lade goods in the same vessels, and who are thereby obliged to bear a more considerable duty than they ought, if the merchandizes of foreigners were faithfully declared: against which grievance it being necessary to provide, his majesty has ordained, that the merchandizes of foreigners, laden on French bottoms, which shall not be justly and truly reported in the Chancery of the said ports of the Levant, with respect both to the quality and quantity thereof, shall be confiscated: that is to say, one half shall go to the benefit of the informer, and the other to the chamber of commerce; which nevertheless shall be appropriated to the public service, with the consent of the intendant charged with the care of the trade. His majesty expressly forbids all captains, masters, and cap-merchants of French ships, to receive by night any merchandizes from any place from whence they may be transported on the penalty of 1500 livres fine, nor to receive any declarations, nor sign any bills of lading of foreigners, which are not conformable to the reports made in the said Chanceries, on pain of the like fine of 1500 livres. His majesty further ordains, that all cap-merchants shall sign a manifesto, conformable to that deposited in the Chancery, and to send a copy thereof to the consuls of those places whither the vessel is bound, that they may testify to the unlading, whether all the merchandizes of foreigners have been faithfully declared. His majesty enjoins all consuls and vice-consuls of the French nation in the ports of the Levant, to see that the present ordonnance be duly executed, &c.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

An arrêt of the king's council of state, ordaining that the French ships trading to the ports of the Levant shall not be liable to those averages [see *AVERAGES*] which may be necessary to be laid on for the payment of the debts and other charges of the nation, but in proportion to the value of the merchandizes wherewith they shall be loaded, and not according to the tonnage and strength of the shipping. Extracted from the registers of the council of state.

* According to what has been represented to the king in council, that the repartition of the averages laid upon the French

French shipping which navigate in the ports of the Levant, for the payment of the debts, and other charges of the nation, is made, at present, with relation to the strength and kind of the shipping only; which has occasioned a great prejudice, to those whose loadings are not judged of by the value of the merchandizes, whereby those whose cargoes pay as much as others of smaller value, whose freight and profits are widely different: which inequality may, in its consequences, lessen the navigation of shipping in the Levant commerce: his majesty, desirous to prevent these evils, and to procure every advantage to his subjects, by extending and rendering this traffic more considerable; and his majesty, being now in council, hath ordained, and doth ordain, that, for the future, all French ships trading to the ports of the Levant, shall not be liable to any average that may be necessary to be imposed for the payment of the debts, and other charges of the nation, but in proportion to the value of the cargoes therein contained, according to the bills of lading, and manifestoes of the loading; which shall be sent to the consuls and vice-consuls of the kingdom in the said ports, by the captains and cap merchants of the said vessels, &c.—Done at the royal council of state, the 6th of October, 1698.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.*

Then follows a proclamation, of the same date, to enforce the said arrêt,

Signed LEWIS.

The next arrêt of the royal council, of any consequence, was of March 1705, in the time of the war, which ordains, That, upon the merchandizes of the Levant arising by the prizes made during the present war, and carried into the port of Toulon, there shall be levied 10 per cent. on the value of the said merchandizes, over and above the ordinary duties paid on importation.—Extracted from the registers of the royal council.

By reason of the representations made by the mayor, sheriffs, and deputies of the commerce of the city of Marseilles, that the king's ships appointed to cruise from the port of Toulon, on the merchantmen belonging to the enemy, and also the privateers from the same port, frequently bring in prizes, whereby the magazines of the said city are filled with the merchandizes of all ports of the Levant; which hinders the sale of those goods brought in by the trade of the merchants: in order to put all merchandizes of the same sort upon an equality with each other, it would be necessary to impose a duty of 20 per cent. upon the merchandizes of the Levant taken as prize, as well as upon merchandizes which do not come into the kingdom by a direct commerce carried on in the Levant by his majesty's subjects; or at least a duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem of the said merchandizes taken as prize, as was practised in the preceding war: to which his majesty giving attention, and considering the report of the Sieur Chamillart, counsellor in ordinary to the royal council, and comptroller-general of the finances, and being present in council, hath ordained, and doth hereby ordain, that, upon the merchandizes of the Levant taken as prizes during the present war, and brought into the port of Toulon, there shall be raised 10 per cent. ad valorem thereupon, over and above the ordinary duties of importation.—Done at the royal council of state, his majesty being present, held at Versailles the 10th day of March, 1705.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.*

This arrêt was enforced by a declaration of the same day,

Signed LEWIS.

See the article PRIZES.

A royal ordonnance, permitting the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, to deliver certificates of residence to the children and relations of the merchants of the province, who chuse to settle in the Levant, provided they were 18 years of age; and also to such women and girls whose husbands or fathers are established in the said ports, to live there with them. Of March 1716.—By the king.

Upon being represented to the king, that the families of merchants trading to the Levant are greatly prejudiced by the ordonnance of November 3, 1700, which forbids the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce established at Marseilles, to deliver certificates of embarkation, or of residence, to the children or relations of the said merchants, nor to others who would willingly settle themselves in the Levant, before 25 years of age; that, on the contrary, it seemeth necessary that these young people go thither betimes in order to learn the language, customs, and usages of the Turks, and to form themselves to those rules and maxims necessary to the benefit and advantage of commerce; otherwise, those men from the age of 18 to 20 are compelled to apply themselves to professions other than those to which they seem to be born, and bred up by their parents: his majesty being informed, that as well the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, as the French

consuls in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, make a difficulty in consenting to the passage and residence in Turkey of the wives and daughters whose husbands and fathers are established there, no ordonnance or regulation being made for that purpose: his majesty having considered the deliberations of the sheriffs and deputies of commerce of Marseilles, of the 5th of this month, held in the presence of the Sieur Arnoul, inspector of the said commerce: his majesty, with the advice of Monsr. the duke of Orleans, regent, hath ordained, and doth hereby ordain, that, from the day of the publication of the present ordonnance, it shall be permitted to the said sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, to grant certificates of residence to the children or relations of such merchants of the province, and others, who would settle in the ports of the Levant; it appearing, by a certificate of their baptism, that they are full 18 years of age; it being understood, nevertheless, that they shall not be admitted into the assembly of the French nation in Turkey, 'till they are 24 years old, nor to have a vote therein 'till 25 years of age: his majesty desiring, that, if any of these young people, so admitted to reside in Turkey for the benefit of trade, shall commit any acts of libertinism, or acts of reproach and scandal, that may bring any dishonour upon the French nation, or draw upon it's subjects any oppression on the part of the Turks: if there are any such, they are hereby ordered to be sent back into France, by the first shipping that shall depart from the port, provided it shall be so resolved by the deliberation of the body of merchants, which shall be assembled on these occasions by the consul; to whom his majesty enjoins the due execution of the resolutions taken in these cases. His majesty permits the wives and daughters whose husbands and fathers are established in the ports of the Levant, to go thither and reside in taking leave of the deputies of the chamber of commerce, &c. notwithstanding the prohibitions heretofore issued to the contrary, &c.—Given at Paris the 17th of March, 1716.

Signed LEWIS,

And underneath PHELYPEAUX.*

The next royal ordonnance that took place was that of August 1716, which excludes from all public trust of administration, and from the assemblies of the body of the French nation in the ports of the Levant, such French merchants who shall there marry maids or widows born in the dominions of the Grand Seignior; and excludes, likewise, all those who are under 30 years of age, from all public trusts of administration, who shall marry, without the consent of the parents, even any French young woman.

His majesty being informed that the children of merchants who are permitted to reside in the Levant, in order to train them betimes to the arts of commerce, generally contract improper marriages, either with maids or widows born subjects of the Grand Seignior, or even with the French, the consequence whereof commonly proves disadvantageous to the families of these young people, as well as to the dishonour of the French nation: which his majesty being desirous to prevent, and considering the deliberation of the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce of Marseilles, of July last, approved by the Sieur Arnoul, inspector of the said commerce: his majesty, with the advice of Monsr. the duke of Orleans, regent, hath ordained, and doth hereby ordain, that, from the day of the publication of this present ordonnance, the French merchants established in the ports of the Levant, who shall contract marriage with maidens or widows born in the dominions of the Grand Seignior, shall be rendered incapable of every public trust and administration of the body of the French nation, even from the privilege of admission into their assemblies. His majesty ordains, also, that those of the said merchants who are not 30 years of age, and shall marry, without the consent of their parents, even any French maiden, shall likewise be excluded from all public trusts. His majesty commands the Sieur marquis de Bonnac, his ambassador extraordinary at the Ottoman Port, and the French consuls and vice-consuls in the port of the Levant, duly to observe the execution of the present ordonnance, and that it may be made public, and registered among the archives of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, and in the Chancery of the several ports of the Levant and Barbary; that no one may be ignorant thereof. Given at Paris the 11th of August, 1716.

Signed LEWIS,

And underneath PHELYPEAUX.*

A royal ordonnance, forbidding all the subjects of France, and others, trading in Turkey under their protection, to purchase any thing taken from the Turks by the Maltese corsairs, or by any other. March 1718.

His majesty being informed that the Maltese corsairs, and others who are at war with the Grand Seignior, frequently sell the prizes which they have taken from the Turks to French traders and navigators in the ports of the Levant, and to the end that this kind of traffic may not prove highly injurious in its consequences, by bringing oppressions upon the body of

merchants of the French nation settled in the Turkish ports: all which his majesty being desirous to prevent, doth thereby, with the advice of the duke of Orleans, his uncle regent, expressly forbid all his subjects, and all other merchants in Turkey under his protection, from buying of the said corsairs, directly or indirectly, any of the effects taken by them from the Turks, on pain of confiscation of the said effects, and a fine of 3000 livres: his majesty commands the Sieur marquis de Bonnac, his ambassador extraordinary at the Ottoman Port, and all consuls of the French nation in the Levant, to make public the present ordonnance, that no one may be ignorant thereof, and to have all due regard to its execution. Given at Paris the 22d of March, 1718.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, forbidding all captains of French ships and vessels to embark in the Levant any Frenchman or foreigner, without permission first had and obtained in writing, from the king's ambassador at Constantinople, or the consuls of the ports.—October 24, 1719.

His Majesty being informed that the captains of French ships and vessels which navigate in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, receive on board Frenchmen and foreigners, who sometimes embark, to avoid the consequences of bankruptcy, or other misconduct of which they may have been guilty in the said ports, which might draw grievances on the French nation, and molest its commerce: his majesty, judging proper to provide against such-like inconveniencies, doth, by and with the advice of the duke of Orleans, regent, expressly forbid all captains, and masters of French ships and vessels, which navigate to the ports of the Levant and Barbary, to embark on board any persons, under pretence of passage, be they either Frenchmen, or of any other nation, without the consent first had and obtained in writing, from his ambassador at Constantinople, or the consuls of the ports from whence they shall embark, on the penalty of a fine of 500 livres, and also to answer personally for the consequences of such embarkation; desiring that, if any one unknown to them, and without their privity, should get on board while they are under sail, they should be obliged, under the same penalties, to put such person on shore, and send him to the consul of the place where he might the soonest land; and such consul shall be obliged to apprise him at the port where the escape shall have been made.—His majesty orders his said ambassador and consuls not to grant those permissions except to persons not suspected of the circumstances beforementioned, but not to refuse the same to the French, nor foreigners, without good reasons, whereof they shall inform the council of the marine, and deliver dispatches with charges.—His majesty enjoins and commands the Sieur Bonnac, his ambassador at the Ottoman Port, and the consuls at the ports of the Levant and Barbary, to publish and register the present ordonnance wherever needful, &c. Given at Paris the 24th of October, 1719.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath FLEURIAU.'

An arrêt of the royal council of state, in relation to the establishment of a duty in favour of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, laid upon merchandizes coming from the Levant, charged with the payment of the appointments of the consuls.—September 2, 1721.

The king, being in council, ordains, that the consuls of the ports of the Levant and of Barbary should receive the duties granted to them by the arrêts of the 10th of January, 1718, in the same manner, and as they had enjoyed them before the arrêts of the 21st and 24th of April, 1720; by means of which duties the consuls should be charged with the same expences wherewith they were charged before the said arrêts: his majesty having considered the deliberations of the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce of Marseilles, in their assembly of the 9th of April, 1721, by which they agreed to petition his majesty to permit them to take upon themselves the government of the consulships, upon the following conditions: That the merchandizes which shall be laden in the ports of the Levant, Morea, and Barbary, for France, and which paid 3 per cent. in some ports, and 2 per cent. in others, shall pay no more after the 1st of May; viz. the first 2 per cent. and the others 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. which duties of 2 per cent. and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. shall be paid in Marseilles, at the chamber of commerce, by the ships and vessels which shall arrive there, according to the value of the said merchandizes, at the time of their arrival.—That the merchandizes for the account of foreigners designed for Italy, and other countries, shall pay the ancient duties of consulage.—That the value shall be ascertained of the merchandizes, by the deputies and French merchants, in presence of the consuls and vice-consuls of every port in the Levant, which shall be loaded there for the account of foreigners designed for the ports of Italy, and other countries, in order to settle the said duty of consulage, paid in the port of departure, into the hands of the proper officers, according to

the form prescribed by the arrêts of the council of the 24th of November, 1691, the 27th of January, and 8th of September, 1694.—The chamber of commerce in every port of the Levant shall keep necessary funds, for the payment of the appointments of the consuls, and other officers, from the 1st of May 1721, and also for the other expences of the consulship; which funds shall be sent to the deputies of each port, and by them converted into current money in the said ports; in which money the appointments shall be paid to the said consuls, and other officers, upon the footing of 156,463 livres per annum.—And, in order to raise the funds requisite for the current expences of the consulships, his majesty permits the chamber of commerce to borrow at Marseilles to the amount of 100,000 livres, at the rate of 5 or 6 per cent. interest at most, with intent to avoid the engagements which might be made in the Levant at a higher rate, the least of which are commonly at 1 per cent. per month: his majesty, judging the said demands and offers of the chamber of commerce of Marseilles consistent with the benefit and prosperity of commerce, and desiring to procure whatever might contribute thereunto; and, being in council, hath ordained, and doth ordain, the following articles, with the advice of Mons. the duke of Orleans, regent, without any regard to the arrêt of the 21st of January, 1721, or to the demands and offers of the chamber of commerce of Marseilles, resolved on in their deliberations of the 9th of April following:

ARTICLE I.

That the merchandizes which shall be laden for France in the ports of the Levant, Morea, and Barbary, and which paid 3 per cent. in some places, and 2 per cent. in others, shall pay no more for the time to come, after the 1st day of January, 1722, than the duties of 2 per cent. in the ports where they paid 3 per cent. and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in those where they paid 2 per cent. which duties shall be paid in Marseilles, at the chamber of commerce, by the vessels which shall arrive there, according to the value of the merchandizes at the time the vessels arrive.

II.

That the same duties shall be paid upon all the merchandizes of the vessels which shall finish their voyages in Italy, or elsewhere, into the hands of the deputies of the nation residing in the ports of the Levant, and according to the value of the merchandize, at the time of their departure.

III.

That the merchandize for the account of foreigners, designed for Italy and other countries, shall pay the ancient duty of consulage.

IV.

That there shall be made, by the deputies and French merchants, in the presence of the consul or vice-consul of each port, an estimation of the merchandizes which shall be laden for the account of foreigners, and designed for the ports of Italy, and other countries, in order to lay the duties of consulage paid in the port at the departure of the vessel, as prescribed by the arrêts of council of the 24th of November, 1691, 27th of January, and 8th of September, 1694.

V.

That the chamber of commerce shall always have in each port competent funds, for the payment of the appointments of consuls, and other officers, from the said 1st of January, 1722, as well as for other expences of the consulage; which funds shall be sent to the deputies of each port, and by them converted into the current money of the said port; in which money they shall pay the said appointments to the consuls, and other officers, by making the computation according to livres Tournois of France: so that, by reason of the equality of the monies, they may receive neither more or less than what is appropriated to them: to which end his majesty revoketh the arrêt of his council, of the 21st of January last.

VI.

His majesty ordains, that, on the said first day of January, 1722, the consuls of the Levant, Morea, and Barbary, shall cease to receive the duties of consulage, as they did from the 1st of May, 1721, and forbids them to demand any till after the said day, on penalty of restoring the sums so received, and of losing their places.

VII.

And, to the end that the said chamber of commerce at Marseilles may be enabled to raise the funds necessary for the expences of the consulship, his majesty permits them to borrow, in the said city of Marseilles, to the amount of 100,000 livres, at the rate of 5 per cent. interest at most, deviating, in this respect, from the former regulation: and all bills necessary to this purpose shall be expedited, in order to avoid engagements in the Levant at a greater rate.—Given at the royal council, his majesty being present, held at Paris the 2d of September, 1721.

Signed FLEURIAU.'

The due execution of this arrêt was enforced the same day, by a proclamation signed by the king.

An arrêt of the royal council of state, of May 1722, laying a penalty upon the captains and owners of ships coming from the Levant to Marseilles, who should misrepresent the weight and quality of the merchandizes wherewith they are loaded, or should not represent them at all.

‘ It being represented to the king, that the arrêts of council of the 2d of September, and the 28th of April, 1721, by the former of which, to commence the 1st of January last, it is ordained, that the merchandizes which shall be laden in the ports of the Levant, Morea, and Barbary, for France, on the vessels that may arrive at Marseilles, should pay to the chamber of commerce 2 per cent. for those coming from some of the said ports of the Levant, and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent for those coming from others, &c.—And by the other arrêt, to commence the 1st of June next, his majesty hath also ordained, that the said merchandizes should pay 3 per cent. for those coming from the said ports, which ought to pay 2 only, and 2 per cent. for those coming from the other ports, that ought to pay but 1 $\frac{1}{2}$; and his majesty understanding that the receipt of the first duties were insufficient to support the expence of the commerce, that the chamber of Marseilles had obliged themselves to pay: his majesty observing, also, that by the said arrêts, there are no penalties inflicted against the captains and owners of the said merchandizes, who shall conceal the quality or the weight, or who should not report them, hath judged it necessary, to prevent the like abuses, to ordain, and doth hereby ordain, that the captains and owners of the merchandize shipped in those vessels coming from the ports of the Levant to Marseilles, who shall have disguised the quality or quantity of their merchandizes, or not reported them, shall pay to the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, instead of the duty of 3 per cent. or 2 per cent. as shall be due, 20 per cent. on the merchandize so misrepresented, and not reported, upon the foot of the valuation that the duty of 3 or 2 per cent. should have been paid, &c.—Given in the council of state, his majesty being present, the 3d of May, 1722, and

Signed FLEURIAU.’

This arret was enforced by a royal declaration of the same date,

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath FLEURIAU.’

A royal ordonnance, regulating the appointments that the first deputies of the French nation are intitled to in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, if, in case of death or absence of the consuls, they perform the offices of the consular power.—April 1723.

‘ His majesty having regulated, by his ordonnance of 1681, concerning the marine, the consuls of the French nation in foreign countries, that, the consulship being vacant, the senior of the deputies of the nation who officiates, shall exercise the functions of the consul, according to the provision made for that purpose; and intending to settle the salaries for the first deputy, while he exercises the said office: his majesty doth will and ordain, that the most ancient of the deputies of the nation in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, who executes the consular office in case of the death or absence of the consul, shall enjoy, during that time, two-thirds of the appointments appropriated to the consul of the said port, being subject to the same expence as the consul himself is; and that the other one-third of the appointments shall remain in cash in the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, in order to be employed in the ordinary expences of the said chamber, &c. Given at Versailles the 27th of April, 1723.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath FLEURIAU.’

A royal ordonnance, revoking those of the years 1789, 1613, and 1719, and the prohibitions therein contained; in consequence whereof it permits all Frenchmen residing in the ports of the Levant, Barbary, and Italy, to load merchandizes for their account upon FOREIGN BOTTOMS.—January 1727.

‘ His majesty causing to be laid before him the ordonnances made the 7th of January, 1689, the 5th of April, 1713, and the 10th of July, 1719, by which he forbids the French residing in the ports of the Levant, Barbary, and ports of Italy, to lade any merchandizes, either for their own account, or that of other nations, upon foreign shipping, which do not carry French colours, under the penalties therein mentioned: and being informed that the execution of the said ordonnances has occasioned many incidents injurious to the welfare of the commerce of his subjects in the said ports of the Levant; against which judging it requisite to provide, his majesty hereby revoketh the said ordonnances of the 7th of January, 1689, and of the 5th of April, 1713, and of the 10th of July, 1719, and the prohibitions contained therein: and, in consequence thereof, hath permitted, and doth by these presents permit all Frenchmen, his subjects, re-

sident in the ports of the Levant, Barbary, and ports of Italy, to lade merchandizes, either for their own account, or that of other nations, upon foreign bottoms, as they did, or might have done, before the said ordonnances were enacted; which ordonnances shall remain void, and of no effect or authority, after the 1st day of March next ensuing. His majesty enjoins and commands the Sieur viscount D’Andrezel, his ambassador at the Ottoman Port, and the several consuls of the said ports of the Levant, Barbary, and ports of Italy, to make public, and register the present ordonnance, wherever it may be needful. He commands also the officers of the admiralty to make the same public, and register it, and have due regard to it’s execution.—Done at Marly the 7th of January, 1727.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.’

A royal ordonnance, regulating what should be regarded in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, on the part of the Jews, and other foreigners, who shall enjoy there the protection of France.—February 4, 1727.

‘ His majesty being informed of the abuses committed in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, to the prejudice of his subjects, by the different manner in which the consuls grant the Jews, and other foreigners, his protection, judges it necessary to make certain and plain regulation for such protection; and, to that end, ordaineth as follows:

ARTICLE I.

That no Jew, or other foreigner, a subject of the Grand Seigneur, or resident in his dominions, shall be received under the protection of France, until he hath requested and obtained the same from the consul, and the body of the French nation assembled with him; which consul shall not deliver his letter of protection to the petitioners, but in consequence of the resolutions taken for that intent.

II.

Those who shall solicit such protection, shall give responsible security to answer for their conduct; and the security received by the consul of the nation shall be recorded in the Chancery of the consulship.

III.

The Jews, and other foreigners, so protected, shall carry on no commerce whatsoever of the Levant into France, either directly or indirectly, on pain of confiscation of their ships and merchandize, and a fine of 3000 livres against the captain.

IV.

His majesty forbids all traders, passengers, captains, and masters of French ships and vessels, to lend their names to the protected and other foreigners, in order to carry on the commerce of the Levant and Barbary in France, under the like pains and penalties, and a fine of 3000 livres.

V.

His majesty likewise forbids all Frenchmen and foreigners residing in the kingdom to receive any merchandize, provisions, or other effects belonging to foreigners residing in the Levant and Barbary, and coming from the said countries, under the penalties before inflicted.

VI.

His majesty also forbids all persons residing in France to send any effects or merchandize to foreigners protected, who reside in the Levant and Barbary, either for their own account or for that of the protected, under the same penalties above inflicted.

VII.

No Jew, or other foreigner, resident in the Levant and Barbary under the protection of France, shall receive the consignments nor commissions of ships and merchandizes coming from France into the Levant, or into Barbary, on pain to such who are not subjects of the Grand Seigneur, but protected by France, of being sent back into their own countries by the consul of France, in virtue of the resolutions of the nation assembled; and in relation to the rajas, or subjects of the Grand Seigneur, of being for ever excluded protection; and, in both cases, the penalty is confiscation of the merchandizes that shall be proved to be so sent and consigned, as aforesaid.

VIII.

The captains, masters, officers, and passengers of marine shipping sent from France to the Levant, or Barbary, shall not be addressed or consigned to the person so protected as aforesaid, resident in the said ports of the Levant, for the commission, barter, or exchange of their merchandize and effects, under a fine of 1500 livres penalty for every such-like contravention.

IX.

His majesty, nevertheless, permits the captains, officers, and passengers of shipping sent from France, to sell to the said protected persons the merchandizes which they have carried for their account, and to purchase or take, in barter or exchange, such other merchandizes as they shall judge proper; on condition, however, that for these sales, barters, or purchases, the said captains, officers, and passengers, shall be obliged to make use of, at their own option, the mediation of a French

French merchant, as their factor, which factor cannot act for them before he has duly informed the consul and the deputies of the nation, nor pretend but to one half of the ordinary commission.

X.

All captains, and masters of ships, who shall go to the Levant or Barbary, and shall not have the commission of the cargo of imports or exports, nor any peculiar address, shall be obliged to apply to a French merchant, who is of the body of the nation, and who shall regard what is prescribed by the preceding article.

XI.

His majesty wills and ordains, that all the confiscations and fines which may happen shall be applied as follow, viz. those incurred in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, one-third to the informer, another third to the redemption of French slaves, and the remaining third to the national expences of the Levant port; and, as to those fines and confiscations which happen in France, one-third shall go to the informer, one-third to the hospital of St. Esprit of Marseilles, and the other to the profit of the chamber of commerce of the said city.

XII.

His majesty permits Jews and foreigners in the Levant and Barbary to continue, as usual, to send and consign their merchandizes into Italy, and other foreign countries, either in their own name, for their own proper account, to their French or foreign friends residing in the said countries, and to make use of the ships carrying his majesty's colours; whereon the neutral states of Italy, and other foreigners, may also load, in their respective countries, such merchandizes as they think proper, and address them to their correspondents, be they either French, Jews, or other foreigners, established in the Levant or Barbary, under the protection of France.

XIII.

His majesty further wills and ordains, that there shall be no alteration in the peculiar customs and usages which have been observed in certain ports, with respect to the ceremonial, the police, and method of paying the duties to the Grand Seigneur, by the foreigners protected by France. His majesty enjoins and commands the Sieur le Bret, counsellor in his councils, first president and intendant of justice, police, and of the finances in Provence, and of the commerce of the Levant; and also the Sieur viscount D'Andrezel, his ambassador at the Ottoman Port, and all the consuls of the ports of the Levant and Barbary, to cause the present ordonnance to be published and registered, wherever needful, and to have due regard to the due execution thereof.—Done at Marly the 4th of February, 1727.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, excluding from the liberty of trading in France, and from the privilege of the body of the nation, such French who shall marry in the ports of the Levant, and the sons of Frenchmen born in the said ports, whose mothers are foreigners.—August 1728.

His majesty causing to be laid before him his ordonnances of the 11th of August, 1716, and the 20th of July, 1726, by the former of which it is ordained, that the French merchants established in the ports of the Levant, who should marry with the girls or widows born in the dominions of the Grand Seigneur, shall be excluded from all public trust and administration of the body of the nation; and, by the second, they are prohibited from marrying, without his majesty's permission, with foreigners, subjects or not subjects of the Grand Seigneur, or the states of Barbary, not even with French by extraction, or those born in the said ports, on pain of being sent back to France, with their said wives: it having been found that the penalties inflicted by the said ordonnances have not been sufficient to prevent such marriages of the French in the Levant, nor to remedy those inconveniencies which arise therefrom, to the prejudice of the nation and its commerce: his majesty being informed that those in particular who are born of Frenchmen and the women of the country, continue to marry, without submitting to the regulations which forbid the same; that these same Frenchmen, knowing no other parents than those which they have in that country, take their advice, associate with the protected foreigners, and others, when their fathers are dead; lend their names frequently to the said foreigners to trade in France, and thereby furnish them with the means of evading the prohibitions made by divers regulations, and especially by that of the 4th of February, 1727, of carrying on trade, either directly or indirectly, from the ports of the Levant, into the ports of the kingdom: against which his majesty judging necessary to provide, after having seen the resolution of the chamber of commerce of Marseilles, and the sentiments of the Sieur Le Bret, inspector of the commerce of the Levant, his majesty hath ordained, and doth will and ordain as follows:

ARTICLE I.

His majesty expressly forbids all Frenchmen, of what quality or condition soever, who shall contract marriage for the future

in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, in violation of his ordonnances, to carry on any commerce in France, either directly or indirectly, on pain of confiscation of their merchandize, and a fine of 3000 livres for every such violation, in case of repetition of the same.

II.

His majesty enjoins the same prohibitions and penalties on the sons of Frenchmen born in the said ports of the Levant or Barbary, whose fathers are deceased, and whose mothers are foreigners, not to trade, directly or indirectly, in France, unless they have resided from thence six years; after which they may return to the ports of the Levant, and reside there on the same conditions as the French born in the kingdom.

III.

His majesty ordains that the said French who should marry in future in the said ports of the Levant, in violation of the said ordonnances, and the sons of Frenchmen whose fathers are dead, and mothers are foreigners, and who shall not have resided six years in the kingdom of France, shall be excluded the liberty of assisting at the national assemblies, and shall not enjoy any privilege belonging to the body of the nation.—His majesty enjoins and commands that the Sieur marquis De Villeneuve, his ambassadeur extraordinary at the Ottoman Port, also the French consuls, and vice-consuls in the said ports of the Levant and Barbary, and the sheriffs and deputies of the commerce of Marseilles, have due regard, every one in his peculiar province, to the execution of the present ordonnance: and that the same may be made public, and registered in the Chanceries of the said ports, and among the archives of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, that no one may be unacquainted therewith.—Done at Fointainbleau, the 25th of August, 1728.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

A royal ordonnance, concerning the patent of health that the captains and masters of ships should take, who traffic in the ports of the Levant and Barbary.—September 1730.

His majesty being informed that the captains and owners of ships who traffic in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, instead of having duly inspected, in every port where they arrive, the patent of health, which they should take in the first of the said ports where they began their loading, conformably to the ordonnance of the 26th of February, 1702, take several patents of health in the different ports into which they put, and do not present to the intendant of health at Marseilles and Toulon, when they return, only those patents which occasion them to be treated more favourably with respect to their quarantine; which prevents the said intendants from having knowledge of the true state of health in the ports wherein the said ships have had communication, and may thereby bring the plague into the kingdom: to prevent which calamity, his majesty, judging it necessary to extend the regulations of the ordonnance of the 26th of February, 1702, hath ordained, and doth ordain as follows:

ARTICLE I.

All captains and masters of ships, who shall depart from one port of the Levant and Barbary, wherein they have begun to take in their loading of merchandize or provisions, embark passengers, or receive their ballast, in order to load elsewhere, shall take their patent of health from the consul or vice-consul, who shall signify the true state and condition of the said port, with respect to its healthfulness.

II.

The said captains and masters of ships shall not part with the first patent till their arrival in the ports of Marseilles or Toulon, where they shall be obliged to represent the same to the intendants of health, on pain of six months imprisonment, and being deprived for ever of their freedom and privileges: to which end they shall be blotted out of the registers of captains and masters, and shall not, for the future, serve again in the said capacity, under any pretence whatever.

III.

If, in the course of their voyage, they touch at one or more ports in the Levant, or others of the Mediterranean, they shall return this first patent to the consuls or vice-consuls in the said ports, to be examined, and afterwards given to the said captains and masters, without the said consuls and vice-consuls retaining the same, and oblige them to take out a new one, under any pretence whatever, on pain of their being recalled.

IV.

The patents of health shall be examined by the said consuls and vice-consuls, as soon as ever required by the captains and masters of ships, that their voyage may not be retarded.

V.

The consuls and vice-consuls shall declare, in their visa, the real state and condition of health in the places of their residence, and shall insert therein the intelligence which they have of the distempers that prevail in the other neighbouring places, on pain of being deprived of their post of trust.

VI.

His majesty forbids, under the same penalty, the said consuls and vice-consuls, and their Chanceries, to demand any duties,

ties, or fees, for the visa of the patents of health of those ships which shall be involuntarily obliged to touch at the ports of the Levant and Barbary, without loading there: and with respect to those who, having made a part of their loading in one port, shall touch at other ports, to take in merchandize, provision, or passengers, the captains and masters of ships shall be obliged, in that case only, to pay 30 sols for the visa of their patent of health.

VII.

If after a captain or master of ship, having his patent examined in one port, shall be necessitated to stay there, either by being wind-bound, or from other unforeseen cause, he shall be obliged before his departure, to present his patent of health again to the consul or vice-consul, of the said port, to signify upon the spot, and without expence, the accidents which have happened in the interval with regard to health.

VIII.

His majesty expressly forbids the said captains and masters of ships to present, on their arrival in the ports of Provence, any other patent than that which has been delivered to them at the place of their first departure; on the back of which shall be the visa, which has been endorsed at the places where they have touched during their voyage, under the same penalty of degradation, and six months imprisonment beside.

His majesty enjoins and commands Monf. the count of Toulouse, admiral of France, to have a strict regard to the execution of the present ordonnance, to cause it to be read, published, and registered, wherever needful; and likewise the Sieur le Bret, counsellor of state, intendants of justice, police, and of the finances, in Provence, and of the commerce of the Levant, and also the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, and the intendant of health, to pay due regard hereunto.—The consuls and vice-consuls of the Levant and Barbary are also enjoined to conform to the same.—Done at Versailles, the 6th of September, 1730.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

' The count of Toulouse, admiral of France, having duly attended to the king's ordonnance above addressed to us, with orders to see the same duly executed: we order and command all under our authority to conform thereunto, every one according to his station; and also the officers of the admiralty of Provence to register them among their records.—Done at Rambouillet, the 8th of September, 1730.

Signed L. A. DE BOURBON,
And underneath by his royal highness L'ENFANT.

The king's declaration, signifying that no cabin-boy * shall be left in the ports of the Levant and Barbary.—October the 12th, 1730.

' LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France, to all whom these presents concern, &c. We having been informed that many cabin-boys, employed in the commerce of the Mediterranean, remain in the Levant and Barbary, by reason of the bad treatment which they have received on board those ships wherein they have been embarked, and that the Musselmens, having found it very easy to seduce them, by reason of their infancy, and to influence them to the religion of the country: his majesty desiring to remedy a grievance that our zeal for religion, and regard to our subjects, do not permit us to suffer: for these and other causes us hereunto moving, of our certain knowledge, full power, and royal authority, we have made, and do make by these presents, signed by our hand, express prohibition to all captains and masters of ships, to maltreat, or suffer to be maltreated by the ship's crew, the cabin-boys who shall have embarked on board the ships which they command, on pain of being punished, according to the exigency of the case: we allow only that these cabin-boys shall submit to the ordinary and usual punishment: we also forbid the said captains and masters to suffer any of the said boys, when in the ports of the Levant, to go on shore, without the guard of an officer or sailor, in whom confidence may be reposed, on the penalty of 300 livres fine for every such boy, who, for want of this precaution, shall be stopped in the said ports. We enjoin and command the consuls, vice-consuls, and other persons charged with our affairs in the said ports of the Levant and Barbary, to signify, among the list of the ship's crew, the cabin-boys who shall be there detained, and what occasioned the same, and whether they have been demanded by the said captains and masters, and whether, by the neglect of the said captains and masters in reporting the same in the list of the ship's crew, any have been detained: we will and ordain, that such shall be censured and reputed as having suffered the said boys to go on shore without a person of trust to attend them; and therefore they shall be liable to the said fine of 300 livres penalty: we ordain, likewise, that violations against the present declaration shall be prosecuted at the request of our solicitor of the admiralty, &c.'

* Our reason for taking notice of this declaration is, to give an idea how minutely this rival nation watches the meanest
VOL. II.

thing that tends to the security of their commerce, and the brood of their seamen.

A royal ordonnance, concerning the deposits in the Chanceries of the consulships of the Levant and Barbary.—September 11, 1731.

' His majesty being informed that there are deposits in trust in the Chanceries of the consulships of the Levant and Barbary, of different natures, which are not always reclaimed, either by those who have made them, or by their creditors or their heirs; and that some consuls have disposed of their said deposits, instead of keeping them in the manner required by the ordonnance of the 4th of December, 1691.—His majesty, resolving to establish a better order in regard hereunto, ordains as follows:

ARTICLE I.

All sums of money, merchandize, or other effects, which shall be deposited in the Chanceries of the consulships of the Levant and Barbary, shall, conformably to their ordonnance of the 4th of December, 1691, be kept in a place of the consular house, appointed for that purpose, locked up with three different keys, one of which shall remain in the hands of the chancellor, another with the consul, and a third with the principal deputy of the nation, to the end that the said effects shall not be drawn out from the place of deposit, excepting in their presence.

II.

The consuls shall signify, at the end of every year, to the secretary of state for the department of their marine, a state of the deposits which shall remain in their Chanceries, mentioning, in the said state, the day and year when they were so deposited.

III.

His majesty ordains, that all the deposits that shall be found in the chanceries of the consulships of the Levant and Barbary, and which have been there deposited for 10 years, shall be drawn out in one year, reckoning from the day of the publication of the present ordonnance in the several ports of the Levant.

IV.

His majesty also ordains, that those of the said deposits made less than 10 years, and those that shall be afterwards made, shall be also drawn out in 10 years, reckoning from the day that they were deposited.

V.

His majesty ordains that the deposits which shall not have been reclaimed, according to the 3d and 4th articles of the present ordonnance, shall be sent by the consuls of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, in order to be remitted and divided by the said chamber, one half to the hospitals of St. Esprit and De La Charité, of the city, for the benefit of the poor, upon condition, nevertheless, to deliver up the value thereof to such persons who have a right to reclaim them.

His majesty commands the Sieur Bret, counsellor of state, first president of the parliament of Aix, intendant of justice, of the police, and the finances of Provence, and of the commerce of the Levant, to have strict regard to the execution of the present ordonnance, which shall be read, published, and fixed up wherever needful, that no one may pretend ignorance thereof.—His majesty also commands the Sieur marquis De Villeneuve, counsellor of state, his ambassador at the Ottoman Port, to have strict regard also to the execution of the same.—He enjoins the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, and the consuls of the several ports of the Levant, to conform hereunto.—Done at Marseilles, the 11th of September, 1731.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.'

Regulations for the imposts of consuls and vice-consuls of the ports of Negropont, Cavalle, Rhodes, Meteline, Scio, Milo, Tine, and Micone.—Of February the 28th, 1732.

' His majesty being informed of the different imposts of the consuls and vice-consuls of the French nation, established in the ports of Negropont, Cavalle, Rhodes, Meteline, Scio, Milo, Tine, and Micone, laid upon the shipping which traffic under his flag; and having been informed that this revenue has not only little proportion to the attendants and expences of the said consuls and vice consuls (some having thereby too great an advantage, and others not sufficiently indemnified) but also that the power of the said consuls and vice consuls to receive such revenue is not sufficient to authorize them, nor intelligible enough for their direction, whereby differences frequently arise from the consuls and vice-consuls, and the captains and merchants of ships liable to such imposts: his majesty, judging necessary to provide against the same, ordains as follows:

NEGROPONT.

The consuls of the French nation established at Negropont shall be intitled to a duty of 2 per cent. consulage on all merchandizes

chandizes and provisions of the growth of the said country, which shall be laden for the account of Frenchmen, or for that of foreigners, upon all ships carrying French colours, let the said merchandize and provisions be destined either for France or any foreign country in Christendom.

All French ships going on any expedition freighted by the subjects of the Grand Seigneur, or other foreigners, if they be laden for the account of the captain or master, shall pay to the said consul a duty of two piaſtres for anchorage, when they embark or debark merchandizes, provisions, or passengers in the ports depending on the said consulship; or when they bring provision of any kind whatsoever, his majesty, forbidding the action of the said duty in any other case whatsoever.

His majesty intends that all the ports, roads, and coasts situated within the extent of the government of the pacha of Negropont, shall be reckoned to belong to the department of the said consul, and that all French ships which shall traffic there shall pay the duties before mentioned.

CAVALLE.

The consul of the French nation established at Cavalle shall also be intitled to a consulage duty of 2 per cent. upon all merchandizes and provisions of the product of the country which shall be laden there for the French account, or for that of foreigners upon ships carrying his majesty's colours, let the said merchandizes and provisions be intended for France, or any foreign country in Christendom.

All ships going on an expedition, which shall embark or debark, in the ports dependent on the said consulship, merchandizes, provisions, or passengers, shall pay also two piaſtres to the consul as a duty for anchorage, whether they are freighted by the subjects of the Grand Seigneur, or other foreigners, or laden for the account of captains or masters.

RHODES.

Ships carrying French colours, which shall go directly from the ports of France to Rhodes, and which shall unlade their merchandizes, or provisions, so which shall embark to carry them to France, or any foreign country of Christendom, shall pay to the consul of the said port a duty of anchorage only; which shall be of seven piaſtres and one half for the ships and vessels with square sails and of five piaſtres for barks, and all other vessels with sinack or triangular sails.

The cruizers which shall load or unload in the ports dependent on the said consulship, as before represented, and those which shall carry provisions thither, shall pay to the said consul five piaſtres, without distinction of vessels.

His majesty intends that the said consuls shall receive the same duties on all ships that shall traffic at Stanchio and other ports dependent on the consulships.

METELINE.

French ships which shall load in the isle of Meteline, and its dependencies, merchandizes and provisions, to carry either into France, or into the foreign countries of Christendom, shall pay to the vice-consul of the said port, viz. for the vessels 12 piaſtres, and barks 8 piaſtres.

Cruizers freighted by the subjects of the Grand Seigneur, and other foreigners, or loaded for the account of the captain or master, shall pay to the said vice-consul four piaſtres, without distinction of vessel, when they embark or debark merchandizes, provisions, or passengers in the ports dependent on the said vice-consulship, and when they carry provisions thither.

SCIO.

The duty of anchorage for the ships which, going from the ports of France to Scio, shall unlade there, and those which shall load in their return to France, or the foreign countries of Christendom, shall be paid to the vice-consul of the said port, at the rate of seven piaſtres and a half per vessel, and five piaſtres per bark.

Cruizers freighted by foreigners, or laden at the risque of the captains and masters, as before shewn, shall pay to the said vice-consul five piaſtres, all without distinction of vessel, when they load or unload merchandizes, passengers, or provisions, and not otherwise.

The vice-consul shall continue to have 400 piaſtres paid him annually, by the French nation at the port of Smyrna, to bear those expences with which he is charged.

MILLO.

Vessels coming from France, which shall unlade in the ports dependent on the said consulship, and those which shall load there for the ports of France, or others of Christendom; and those cruizers which shall load or unload merchandizes, passengers, or provisions, shall pay to the consul of the said port three piaſtres for all duties, without distinction of vessel.

TINE and MICONE.

The consul of Tine and Micone shall receive also three piaſtres for the whole duty, as well of ships which, coming from France, shall unload in the ports of the department, and those which shall load to return to France, or other countries of Christendom, as of cruizers, which shall take in merchandizes, passengers, or provisions.

GENERAL REGULATIONS for all the said ports.

All the duties before regulated in favour of the consuls and vice-consuls, named in the present regulation, shall be paid once only in the same voyage, even when the vessel shall

load in several ports, in the department of the same consul or vice-consul.

The said consuls and vice-consuls shall enjoy moreover the duties of Chancery, on the foot whereon they have been regulated in July 1692, on condition of providing those with reasonable salaries who shall devote themselves to the business of the Chancery, &c.

In consequence whereof, his majesty forbids the said consuls and vice-consuls, under pain of extortion, and of being deprived of their office, to demand any duty of anchorage, or other, of ships which do not arrive at the ports and roads of their department but by force, and only to touch there, and do not lade or unlade any merchandize or passengers, nor carry thither provisions.

In like manner, and under the same penalties, he forbids the said consuls and vice-consuls to demand any other duties whatever.

His majesty also forbids all captains and masters of French ships, their traders and freighters, to deprive the said consuls and vice-consuls of the duties appropriated by the present regulation; enjoining them to bring with them their acquittal for the same, under pain of four times the sum, and three months imprisonment.

The captains and masters of ships shall continue to pay the Turks the duties established by custom in favour of the officers, and others of the country; of which duties the said consuls and vice-consuls shall keep a table in the said Chanceries. His majesty enjoins and commands Mons^r. the count of Toulouse, admiral of France, to have strict regard to the execution of the present regulation, and cause the same to be read, published, and registered, wherever needful, &c.—Done at Marly, the 28th of February, 1732.

Signed LEWIS,

And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

The ordonnance of December, 1732, regulates the rank and place that the chancellors of the consulship of the ports of the Levant shall have in the public ceremonies; which we shall pass over.

An arrêt of the council of state, relating to the merchandizes in pacotilles*, as the French term them, which the captains, supercargoes, and passengers carry into the Levant, as well for their own account as for that of the freighters, &c. March 1733.

It having been represented to the king in council, that the French merchants established in the ports of the Levant continue to complain of the infinite prejudice done to the trade of the nation in the ports of the Levant, for the custom of the captains, supercargoes, and passengers carrying merchandizes in pacotilles, either for their account, or that of their freighters to their addres: his majesty has judged necessary to cause those memorials to be laid before him that have been sent on this matter, as well by the Sieur marquis de Villeneuve, his ambassador at the Ottoman Port, as by the consuls of the said ports, and the chamber of commerce at Marfeilles: among the various methods that have been proposed to his majesty, nothing has appeared more reasonable than to take for the future such precautions, which, without depriving the said captains, supercargoes, and passengers, of the liberty they have of carrying merchandizes in pacotilles into the Levant, may nevertheless prevent the abuses arising therefrom, and put a stop to those complaints that have been long made, and, being willing to explain his intentions upon this occasion, the king being in council hath ordained as follows:

* This is a term in the French marine commerce, signifying a certain weight, or quantity of merchandizes, which the officers and sailors are permitted to carry in their chests, to trade in for their own account.—It pays no freight, either in carrying out or in the returns made. It is rarely mentioned in the contract, it being a particular and verbal agreement, made between the sailors and owners of merchantmen, particularly those designed for foreign trade in long voyages.

ARTICLE I.

The captains, masters, supercargoes, and passengers of French ships, carrying into the ports of the Levant merchandizes, either for their own account, or that of their freighters, shall be obliged for the future, from the day of the publication of the present arrêt, to sell them to the French nation established in the said ports, and to purchase of them the merchandizes which they shall want in return; his majesty expressly prohibits them from buying or selling any kind of merchandizes in the said ports where there are French merchants established, making a body of the nation, on pain of confiscation of the said merchandizes, and a fine of 500 livres, for every one who shall violate this arrêt: the said captains and masters shall also be disqualified for ever acting in the said capacity again.

II.

The French nation of the several said ports shall be obliged to take for their account, at 10 per cent. under the current price, merchandizes of the said captains and masters, supercargoes, and passengers, and to supply them with the value thereof, either in money or such merchandizes, as they shall require in return, at 4 per cent. above the current price in the said port: his majesty wills and ordains that the profit arising

as well from the diminution of the 10 per cent. on the price of goods imported, as on the augmentation of 4 per cent. upon those merchandizes exported, shall be added to the national cash, to discharge the expences of the port.

III.

Since the merchandizes carried by the said captains, masters, supercargoes, and passengers, shall be paid for by the nation charged therewith, either in money or merchandize, and that, among the said imported merchandizes, there are some who sell them at a distant time, a discount being allowed for prompt payment: his majesty ordains, that, upon the merchandizes imported and so sold, the nation shall retain the usual discount, independent of the 10 per cent. mentioned in the preceding article.

IV.

His majesty also wills and ordains, that, if any one of the said captains, masters, supercargoes, and passengers, buys or sells merchandizes, in violating of the present regulation, the consuls and vice-consuls of the said ports shall cause the said merchandizes to be seized, and order the confiscation thereof, together with the fines to be placed to the national cash, for the use of the port.

V.

His majesty nevertheless ordains, that the said captains, masters, supercargoes, and passengers, shall buy and sell themselves merchandizes, in those ports where there are no French merchants established, making a body of the nation.

VI.

His majesty moreover wills that the chamber of commerce at Marseilles doth continue to take cognizance of all the merchandizes which shall come from the Levant for the account of the captains, masters, supercargoes, and passengers, also of the ordinary duties; even those of the averages of the port, if they have not been discharged, as likewise in the case where the said captains, masters, supercargoes, and passengers, shall carry the merchandizes which they have brought in violation thereof, and unknown to the consuls in the said ports; and where there are French merchants established as a body of the nation, the said chamber of commerce shall have a strict eye upon the violators, to cause them to be condemned in the pains and penalties hereby enacted.

His majesty orders and commands that all officers any way concerned herein have due regard to the execution of this arrêt, &c.—Done at the king's council of state, his majesty being present, held at Versailles the 17th of March, 1733.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

A royal ordonnance, concerning the duties of the consuls and vice-consuls of the ports of Negropont, Cavalle, Rhodes, Meteline, Scio, Milo, Tine, and Micone.—Of May 1733.

‘ The regulations of the 28th of February, 1732, being represented to his majesty, whereby the duties of the consuls and vice-consuls are settled in the ports of Negropont, Cavalle, Rhodes, Meteline, Scio, Milo, Tine, and Micone, without mentioning that which the consuls and vice-consuls usually require at the rate of 4 per cent. on the price of the freight which the captains and masters of French ships make in their ports: and judging that the reduction of this duty, the foundation whereof is the care of the consuls and vice-consuls have with regard to the said freights, and the advantage thereby reaped by the said captains and masters, the receipt thereof shall be made for the mutual advantage of the several parties: his majesty ordains that the consuls and vice-consuls of the said ports, who have not appointments paid them by the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, shall receive for the future 2 per cent. only upon the price of the freights which the captains and masters of the French ships shall make in their respective ports; forbidding the said consuls and vice-consuls to exact the said duty to a higher rate, and the said captains and masters not to defraud the said consuls and vice-consuls thereof, under the pains and penalties enacted in the regulation of the 28th of February, 1732; which his majesty requires shall be executed according to the form and tenor thereof.—His majesty commands all officers concerned herein to see to the due execution hereof.—Done at Versailles, the 27th of May 1733.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

A royal ordonnance, forbidding the French merchants to consign, directly or indirectly, merchandizes, fruits, or provisions, to foreigners established in the ports of the Levant.—Of February 1735.

‘ His majesty being informed that the French merchants trading to the Levant make use of the names of strangers established at Marseilles; or in other ports of the kingdom, to cause their merchandizes to be consigned to other strangers settled in the ports of the Levant, who shall be ordered to sell them for the account of the said French merchants, and make the returns to them: his majesty, desirous to prevent an abuse equally prejudicial to the interests of his subjects and to the advantage of the commerce of the Levant, his majesty ex-

pressly forbids all French merchants, and other his subjects trading there, to consign, either directly or indirectly, either by themselves or others, any sort of merchandizes, fruits, or provisions, even in pacotilles, to the commissioners, or foreign merchants, established in the said ports of the Levant, on pain of confiscation of the same, and a fine of 10,000 livres, one half to go to the informer; and, even for the first default, the said French merchants shall be for ever after rendered incapable of following the said commerce of the Levant, and punished also according to the exigencies of the case.

His majesty commands all persons in office to have due regard to the execution hereof.—Done at Versailles, the 2d of February, 1735.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

An arrêt of the council of state, concerning the imposition of a duty of average of 1 per cent. for three years, upon the merchandizes which shall be carried to the ports of the Levant.—Of February, 1736.

‘ The king having permitted the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of the commerce at Marseilles to borrow, for the term of three years, the sum of 180,000 livres, with stipulations of interest at 5 per cent. to discharge all the debts contracted by the nation at the ports of the Levant, for which the said nation pays a considerable interest, which is a burthen upon commerce: and his majesty desiring to put the said chamber in a condition to reimburse the said sum of 180,000 livres, in the same term of three years, by means of a moderate average-duty on importation, which has been proposed to be laid upon merchandizes which are carried into the ports of the Levant: his majesty having seen the resolution of the assembly held upon that subject by the said chamber, the 23d of January last, and the sentiments of the Sieur Icard, inspector of that commerce; having heard the report, and considered the whole, his majesty, being in council, has ordained as follows:

A R T I C L E I.

There shall be raised in every port of the Levant, during the space of three years, reckoning from the day of publication of the present arrêt, 1 per cent. average at importation upon all the merchandizes which shall be carried thither from France and foreign countries, by French ships, or others that carry on that trade under the protection of France.

II.

The ports of Morea and Barbary, and those of the Archipelago.—[see ARCHIPELAGO] of Satalia, and others where there are no French merchants established, making a body of the nation, shall be excepted from the said imposition.

III.

His majesty wills and ordains, that the piafties, sequins, and other foreign species, shall not be liable to the same duty of average at importation; which shall be received on our merchandizes, in conformity to the tariff of the settlement of the price thereof, which shall be raised by the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, and sent by the deputies of the nation for this purpose into the said ports.

IV.

His majesty ordains that the said deputies shall receive the said duty of average at importation, in the same manner as the duty of average is at exportation, and appropriated to the chamber of commerce; and they shall keep a separate account of the product of the said duty, which shall be balanced every six months, in the presence of the consul.

V.

His majesty enjoins all captains and masters of French ships, or foreigners which shall be under the protection of France in the ports of the Levant, to present, within 24 hours after arrival, the policies and manifestoes of their loading, to the consuls and deputies of the nation; and justly and faithfully to declare the quantity of merchandizes with which their vessels are laden, under pain of confiscation of those not so declared, and a fine of 1000 livres.

VI.

If any merchant is found to evade the said duty, be it either in supplying counterfeit manifestoes, or otherwise, his majesty wills and ordains, that, besides the confiscation of the merchandizes, he shall be compelled to pay a fine of 3000 livres; and, if he is a trader resident in the Levant, he shall be sent back into France: the whole to be applied, viz. one-third to the informer, one-third to the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, and the remainder to the hospital of the said city of Marseilles.

VII.

His majesty means and intends that the said duty shall cease before the expiration of the term of three years, for which it is established, if it produce, before that time, wherewith to discharge the sum of 180,000 livres, borrowed by the said chamber of commerce, and the interest of the same, which likewise must be discharged out of the said duty: for which purpose it is ordained, that the said chamber and the consuls shall

shall render an exact account of the receipt which shall be made in the ports of the Levant.

VIII.

His majesty wills and ordains, that the said chamber of commerce shall keep a separate account of the product and application of the said duty; which account shall be annually balanced by the sieur Icard, inspector of this commerce, whom his majesty enjoins to have due regard to the execution of the present arrêt.—Done at the council of state, his majesty being present, held at Versailles the 25th of February, 1736.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

A royal ordonnance, permitting French ships to be consigned to merchant-strangers established in the ports of the Levant, in case they are entirely freighted by foreigners.—Of April 1737.

His majesty being informed that the merchants of different nations who are settled in the ports of the Levant, would be more induced, than they really are, to freight French ships, by their correspondents in the ports of Italy and other foreign countries, where they find them, if the said ships might be directed and consigned to them: and his majesty's ambassador at Constantinople having also informed him, that such consignment made to foreign merchants, of French ships freighted by foreigners, would not be detrimental to the French merchants established in the said ports of the Levant: his majesty, considering the 31st article of the declaration of the 21st of October, 1727, hath permitted, and doth permit, that the ships of his subjects may be addressed and consigned to foreign merchants established in the ports of the Levant, in the case only when the said ships shall be wholly freighted by foreigners.—His majesty orders and commands Monsr. the count of Toulouze, admiral of France, and the Sieur marquis De Villeneuve, ambassador at Constantinople, to have due regard to the execution of the present ordonnance, which shall be registered in the rolls of the admiralty of Provence and Languedoc, and read, published, and fixed up wherever needful.—Done at Versailles, the 23d of April, 1737.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

An arrêt of the council of state, establishing, to commence the 1st of April, 1739, that the duty of average at importation, the raising of which was ordained by the arrêt of the 25th of February, 1736, shall be suppressed in all the ports of the Levant.—Of December 1738.

The arrêt of council of the 25th of February, 1736, being laid before the king in his council of state, by which his majesty ordained that there should be raised, in each of the ports of the Levant, during the term of three years, reckoning from the day that the said arrêt should be received and made public, a duty of 1 per cent. average of importation upon all merchandizes which shall be carried thither from France and foreign countries, by French ships, or others carrying on trade under the protection of France: and his majesty having caused the accounts to be examined, which, since the establishment of the said duty, have been given in by the deputies of the nation in the ports of the Levant, and by the chamber of commerce, and settled by the Sieur Icard, inspector of the commerce of the Levant, in conformity to the 7th and 8th articles of the said arrêt: and having found that, the said duty being received 'till the 31st of March, 1739, ensuing, the product thereof will be sufficient to reimburse the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles to borrow, for the said term of three years, in order to discharge all the debts contracted by the nation in the ports of the Levant: his majesty, conformable to the 7th article of the said arrêt, ordaining that the said duty should cease, for the easement of his subjects trading to the Levant, although the said three years, reckoning from the day such receipt of duty commenced, should not be absolutely expired:—Having seen the representation of the Sieur Icard, the king, being in council, hath ordained, and doth ordain, that, on the first day of April, in the year ensuing, 1739, the duty of average on importation shall be suppressed in all the ports of the Levant; that the merchandizes which shall be exported thither from France and foreign countries, shall be disencumbered from the payment of the said imposition: his majesty prohibits the consuls and deputies of the nation in the said ports, and all others, from demanding the said duty; and ordains, that the total of the amount of the receipt of the said duty, which shall be made during the six last months of the present year, and 'till the said 31st day of the month of March next, there shall be delivered, by the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, a definitive account of the produce and appropriation of the said duty, which shall be balanced by the said Sieur Icard.—His majesty commands the Sieur marquis de Villeneuve, counsellor of state, his ambassador at the Port, also the Sieur Icard, inspector of the commerce of the Levant, and the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, to have a strict regard to the execution of the present arrêt: he also enjoins the consuls of the nation, in the ports of the

Levant, to cause the same to be made public, and registered in their Chanceries, and to see the same executed.—Done at the king's council of state, his majesty being present, held at Versailles the 12th of December, 1738.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

On the 18th of January, 1749, an arrêt was issued for the regulation of policies of assurance passed before the signing the preliminaries of peace, with regard to ships employed in the commerce of the ports of the Levant, and regulating the premiums to be allowed to the insurers, in those cases mentioned in the arrêt of the 12th of July, 1748.—But, this * being too long to insert here, we shall defer it to the article POLICY of ASSURANCE.

* This arrêt also shews what extraordinary care the French have taken of this branch of trade, in the most minute circumstance.

A royal ordonnance, forbidding all subjects who reside in the ports of the Levant and Barbary to possess themselves of any real estates.—July 1749.

His majesty being informed that, notwithstanding the prohibitions made, none of his subjects resident in the ports of the Levant and Barbary should possess themselves of real estates, many of them are actually in possession of houses, lands, and gardens, which they pretend to have been obliged to accept in payment for debts due to them by the subjects of the Grand Seignior: and experience having manifested that this kind of property influences their residence in Turkey, prolongs their return into the kingdom at the term fixed for their residence, and gives room to litigations dangerous to the safety and tranquility of the nation: his majesty judges necessary to declare more precisely his intentions upon this subject, and, in consequence thereof, hath ordained, and doth ordain, as follows, viz.

ARTICLE I.

The consuls, chancellors, interpreters, merchants, artisans, and all other subjects of the king residing in Turkey and Barbary, shall be incapable, for the future, under any pretence whatsoever, to acquire real estate, by the way of purchase, cession, gift, or legacy, either lands, houses, gardens, rents, and other immoveables, under pain of being sent back without delay into France, and the loss of the said properties; which shall be appropriated to the body of the nation, in order to be sold, according to the laws of the country, and the amount to be remitted to the national cash of the port, to be applied to their expences ordinary and extraordinary.

II.

His majesty orders those of his subjects who possess real estates, to get rid of them as soon as possible; and, in order to prevent loss in the sale thereof, his majesty grants them 'till the 1st of January, 1751, after which term the said proprietors, or possessors, shall be liable to the penalties inflicted in the preceding article.

III.

His majesty declares that, in the present prohibition, the dwelling-house of his ambassador residing at Constantinople shall not be included, nor the dwelling-houses of the consuls, the chapels, church-yards, nor the hospital for missionaries; which the nation and the said missionaries shall continue to enjoy as heretofore, in conforming themselves, nevertheless, to what is prescribed, in respect hereunto, by the capitulations made with the Ottoman Port, and the particular orders of his majesty.

IV.

His majesty, notwithstanding, permits the French residing in Turkey and Barbary, in case of death, flight, bankruptcy of their debtors, and in default of payment, to enter their action against the immoveables, and to pursue the sale thereof 'till the absolute payment of their debts; expressly forbidding them to accept and keep such effects by way of mortgage, in order to enjoy their revenues.

V.

His majesty, in like manner, forbids all his subjects from taking a farm, or the administration of lands, houses, or duties of custom belonging to the Grand Seignior, or his subjects, under any pretext whatsoever: ordaining that those who are encumbered therewith, may rather recede from their agreement, under pain of being sent back, and rigorously punished in France.

VI.

His majesty, however, permits his subjects, but only in case of absolute necessity, to take in payment the harvest, or the produce of one or several years, provided that they do not exceed the number of those fixed for the time of their residence in the Levant.

VII.

His majesty most expressly forbids all religious missionaries, French or foreigners, residing in Turkey under his protection, from making any acquisition or augmentation of house or chapel, without having first obtained the consent of his majesty,

majesty, and the approbation of the Ottoman Port, which shall not be solicited but through the interposition of his ambassador at Constantinople.

His majesty enjoins the Sieur Desalleurs, his ambassador at the Ottoman Port, the Sieur Pignon, inspector of the commerce of the Levant, the sheriffs and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, and all the consuls of the French nation residing in Turkey and Barbary, to have all due regard to the execution of the present ordonnance, which shall be read, published, fixed up, and registered wherever needful.

—Done at Compeigne, the 6th of July, 1749.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath ROUILLE.

REMARKS.

These are the principal royal arrêts, edicts, ordonnances, and declarations, issued from the year 1665, by authority, for the regulation of the Levant trade belonging to the kingdom of France: whence a good judgment may be made from FACTS, to what causes the present flourishing state and condition of that trade may be justly attributed: and, without a distinct and minute knowledge of these measures, it is not possible for any one to have a true idea of the policy of that nation in this respect. A general superficial knowledge that the French take this or that measure alone for the regulation of their Turkey trade, will give no satisfactory idea of that series of policy which they have observed for near this century past; and, without that, we can, perhaps, make no right judgment of the regulations necessary for our own Turkey trade, for want of a true knowledge of the wisdom of France and other nations in managing theirs.

From the tenor of these regulations, the judicious reader will easily discern the necessity of consulting the articles CONSUL, CHAMBER of COMMERCE, and MARSEILLES; to which latter place we more particularly refer under the article PROVENCE in France, that being the capital city, where the French Levant trade is carried on, and where the regulations are made of the several species of merchandizes for that commerce.

Of the regulations of the Dutch, in regard to their commerce of the Levant.

Smyrna is the principal factory of the Hollanders in the dominions of the Grand Seignior.

The Hollanders have at Smyrna a consul, a treasurer, three assistant judges, and a chancellor. The consul and treasurer may not continue in place above three years; they are, nevertheless, very often continued, when their administration gives content; but they must obtain their confirmation by a new patent.

With respect to the assistant judges, their employ is annual; they are proposed by the three assistants in office, the consul and the treasurer, to the directors of the commerce of the Levant established at Amsterdam, which commonly approve of them, and make choice of one of the three ancients to continue for the following year: he is called the first assistant, and the other two the new assistants.

The ordonnances, regulations, and the instructions of the direction of Amsterdam, which are sent to the Levant, as well as the dispatches of the ambassador of the republic residing at the Port, are always directed to the consul, treasurer, and assistants, but cannot be opened but by the consul in full assembly, and in presence of the other officers, or at least of two assistants, if the third and the treasurer happen to be absent: the same is observed also when any public expence becomes necessary for deliberation, or to subscribe other resolutions taken in relation to commerce, which are thereby authenticated and executed, when they are signed by the consul and two of the said five officers.

When it is requisite to have an assembly of the body of the nation, the chancellor and a druggerman [see DRUGGERMAN] apprise the merchants of it: when assembled, the consul communicates the occasion of their meeting, and the chancellor reads, with a loud voice, the memorials concerning the same; after which, the matter is decided by the plurality of votes; but the execution is referred to the consul and the assistants.

The treasurer should always be present at the assemblies when any disbursements of money are required; and whatever is resolved on this head without him, may not be executed, but is declared null and void.

The differences between merchants are laid before the consul, and are judged of by the plurality of voices, as well by him as by his assistants. Appeals from their judgment are carried before the ambassador residing at Constantinople, from the ambassador to the directors of the commerce of the Levant established at Amsterdam, and from the directors to the states-general; so that there are four degrees of jurisdiction in regard to these commercial decisions.

Ordonnances made by the consul, without the interposition of the assistants, are invalid.

When the consul is called before the cadi, the officers of the customs, the captain-pacha, or other Turkish ministers, be-

fore they go, they must assemble the nation to deliberate upon the matter in agitation, and take suitable resolutions: afterwards the consul negotiates the affair, 'till it's conclusion. If the consul is cited before the adjudicatory of the country, he goes accompanied with his whole nation, and requires a copy of the demands, in order previously to deliberate thereupon in their assembly.

In case of the consul's death, the ambassador nominates one, but only provisionally. With respect to the employs of the Treasury and Chancery, it is left to the consul and his assistants, to appoint others; but this is in like manner, according to the pleasure of the directors at Amsterdam.

The duty of consulage is due for whatever is laden or unladen, either in merchandizes or ready money; the latter at the rate of 1 per cent. at importation or exportation, the other upon the footing of 2 per cent.

When there is a great deal of money in cash, the duty of consulage is reduced to one half, that is to say, to $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for the money, and 1 per cent. for the merchandizes; but that can be done only with the permission of the directors of Amsterdam, according to the representation of the consul, the Treasury, and the assistants, in the name of the whole nation, certifying that the demand of the merchants, in such case, is just. If, on the contrary, the cash is exhausted by the avanies of the Turks [see the beginning of this article] or by extraordinary expences, which sometimes happen, the duties of consulage are doubled; whereby ready money pays 2 per cent. and the merchandizes 4 per cent.

Foreigners who trade under the banner of Holland, never pay more or less than 2 per cent.

The treasurer, or his deputy, are charged with the recovery of the duty of consulage, which is required in the following manner:

Foreigners pay in white money, viz. in lion-piastres, the duty on merchandizes imported: in relation to ready money, the duty is taken in the same specie.

The quantity of ready money is verified on board the ships, before unladen. The consul, treasurer, and assistants examine the same, bag by bag, whence they take some of the specie, which being found of good standard, they are again put into the bags, that are sealed with the seal of the chancery, and afterwards the debarkation is allowed, which for the money, must be done all at one time. If there is any counterfeit species, it is sequestered in the chancery.

Foreigners, after the departure of convoy, pay the duty of consulage according to the tariff and bills of lading; copies whereof, after being signed by the captain, must be carried to the Treasury.

The Dutch merchants are obliged, eight days after the departure of the convoy, to give a declaration of the quantity and quality of the merchandizes which they have received and loaded, and pay the consulage-duty thereof in white money. They are generally allowed a discount of 6 per cent. by which they pay 94 only for 100; but, if they do not pay at the time when it is due, that is, in the month, or later, there is added to the 94 one per cent. for as many months as they postpone the payment: they are, however, not permitted to defer payment longer than six months, after which the consul may prosecute, and oblige them to pay, or imprison their persons.

When the duties of consulage are paid at Constantinople, Smyrna, and Chio, there is liberty to send the merchandizes where you will; but, when they go to other places, or come from them, the consulage is due.

The Hollanders, and those under their protection must pay the consulage according to the money there is in cash, as before observed; but they do not pay double, either for exports or imports, on those ships which trade under the protection of other countries, which is called the foreign consulage: they are, nevertheless, obliged to pay, in the same manner, and under the same penalties, as for the merchandizes which are laden upon Dutch ships.

Once a year, the treasurer, his deputy, and the whole nation, go in ceremony to church, where, after sermon and psalm-singing, they all take an oath, according to the formulary, read aloud in the congregation by the chancellor, which is, not to defraud the consular power, either directly or indirectly, of any of the duties of consulage, nor of any thing relating thereunto, on pain of a fine of 1000 crowns, and to be sent away, if found perjured, and even to suffer other pains and penalties, if the states judge proper.

Those who reveal the secrets of the national assembly, are subject to a like chastisement.

Captains, pilots, and cap-merchants, on their arrival at Smyrna, and before their departure, and before they have delivered their manifestoes and declarations to the consul, are obliged to take the same oath, under the same penalties: and, moreover, the captains, found violating, are disqualified for commanding any vessel for six years.

The treasurer keeps possession, in the chancery, of all the money with which he is charged, reserving some for common expences. The chest wherein the cash is kept is of iron, with three keys, one of which is kept by the consul, another by the assistants, and the third by the treasurer.

No one but the treasurer knows what money there is, for which he is not obliged to give account but to the directors of the Levant established at Amsterdam. The assistants of Smyrna examine, nevertheless, all the receipts and expences made, and ascertain the same according to the declarations of the merchants, the manifestoes of captains, and by what has been received or charged by foreigners by every convoy, or otherwise.

The treasurer pays every three months, in money of due weight, with an agio of 10 per cent. viz.

	Piaſtres.
To the ambaffador per annum, for his maintenance	10,000
To the conſul, ditto	4,000
To the treaſurer, retained in his hands	1,400
	15,400
Which ſum of 15,400 piaſtres, with an agio of 10 per cent. makes, in white money, that is to ſay, in lion or aſſani piaſtres [ſee ASLANI] which are of the current money of the country	16,940
More to the firſt druggerman [ſee DRUGGERMAN]	300
To the ſecond, ditto	300
To the third, ditto	150
To the chancellor	200
To three janiffaries, beſides three veſts of London cloth	240
To the ſame every new year's-day	36
To the druggermen alſo for new year's gifts	36
In the whole	18,202

The treaſurer pays all the expences made at the port and at Conſtantinople, as well for preſents as for the voyages of Adrianople and others, which he reimburses to the ambaffador, and at Smyrna to the conſul.

The vice-treaſurer, who reſides at Conſtantinople, ſends to the treaſurer at Smyrna an account of expences that he has made, which he reimburses, after having the ſame examined and approved by the aſſiſtants and the nation aſſembled: this aſſembly is called the aſſembly of the aſſiſtants.

The ambaffador is obliged to pay the rent of his houſe, where he gives a room to hold the national caſh. He is alſo obliged to pay the chancellor, the druggermen, and the janiffaries of Conſtantinople, and all other expences that regard the maintenance of his houſe and domeſtics.

The conſul of Smyrna is obliged to the ſame things, with reſerve to the appointments of the chancellor, the miniſter, the druggermen, and janiffaries, who are paid by the treaſurer, out of the money in caſh.

The directors of the Levant trade ariſing at Amſterdam are to the number of 17. According to their inſtitution, there ſhould be three from every province; but cuſtom has made it common for ſome to have only two, and others but one. They hold the quality of miniſters, or counſellors, to the States-General, in regard to the commercial affairs of the Levant; and their power is next of kin to ſovereign in that caſe, and yet under the authority of the States. It is a place of honour, but of no profit; and the States-General chuſe only the moſt ſkilful and honourable merchants into it.

The treaſurer of Smyrna ſends every year, to the directors, an account of all expences incurred, and another of the receipt of the duties of conſulage, with the balance of the caſh-account. The firſt account contains the appointments, the avanies, the preſents, the expence of meſſengers; in fine, generally ſpeaking, it contains whatever has been expended for the ſervice of the nation, and utility of it's commerce. They ſend alſo, to the directors, the copy of the manifeſtoes, or declarations of all the ſhips, and accounts in particular of the duties of conſulage, the whole being examined, and certified by the aſſiſtant; and, if they find any error to the diſadvantage of the caſh-account, the treaſurer is reſponſible for the ſame.

All the money in caſh, the expences firſt acquitted, remains in the hands of the treaſurer. The directors have ſometimes cauſed the money to be ſent to Amſterdam, and would have eſtabliſhed this cuſtom for a conſtancy; but the body of the merchants in the Levant complaining to the States-General, and remonſtrating that the ſurpluſage of the caſh ought to be appropriated to their advantage, in leſſening the duty of conſulage, ſince they were to make the augmentation, when it fell ſhort: the States ordered, that, for the future, the ſurpluſage of the funds ſhould remain in the Levant, to be applied to eaſe the national expence.

There are at Smyrna eight or ten conſiderable houſes of trade, of which the Dutch factory is conſtituted, and who uphold the whole traffic.

All the ſubjects of the United Provinces are permitted to export merchandizes for the Levant, whether the armateurs put themſelves under the protection of convoy, or chuſe to purſue the voyage alone. The chief thing which they are obliged to obſerve is, that the ſhips carry 28 pieces of cannon, and 50 men, as well in time of peace as war.

For the due execution of this regulation, there is a commiſſary eſtabliſhed in the Texel, to viſit all ſhips intended for the Le-

vant trade; and, if their armament is not agreeable to the aboveſaid regulation, the captain, who commands the ſhip, is mulct in the penalty of 2000 crowns for the firſt time; and, in caſe of repetition of the like violation, beſides the ſaid fine, the captain is caſhiered, and the ſhip is ſequeſtered till a new captain is provided.

When a convoy departs, the directors of the Levant trade require of the commiſſioners of the admiralty the number of men of war neceſſary to convoy the merchantmen, which is always granted, the armament being at the expence of the admiralty, by reaſon of the duty of 1 per cent. on the value of the loading of the veſſels, that they receive from all thoſe who enter into the ports of the State, either under convoy or otherwiſe.

The convoys that go to the Levant, commonly touch in all the ports of Spain, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, and Meſſina, and ſtay as many days as are neceſſary to load and unload, which is alſo regulated.

They follow the ſame orders when they are at Smyrna; but, if it happens that the merchantmen cannot be ready by the time appointed, which is generally of 90 days in time of peace, in this caſe the merchants of Smyrna, and the captains of their ſhips, preſent a petition to the conſul, the treaſurer, and the aſſiſtants, to prevail on the commandant of the convoy to ſtay till they are ready; to which he agrees if he thinks proper; though he is ſometimes permitted to fail, if he has reaſons for ſo doing.

When the commanding officer of the convoy makes a difficulty of ſtaying for the merchantmen, by reaſon of the preſcribed orders which he has received from the admiralty, all the nation oblige themſelves to indemnify the expence of his extraordinary ſtay; which otherwiſe may be thrown upon him, beſides the reproach that he may be liable to, on his return to Holland, for diſobeying his orders.

At the return of the convoys to Holland, the commandants give the journal of their voyage to the ſollicitor-general of the admiralty; who, diſapproving the days extraordinary of his ſtay, throws all the expence upon that officer, who is obliged to pay it, provided, as before hinted, he is not indemnified by the body of the nation in the Levant.

It is likewiſe the buſineſs of the ſollicitor-general of the admiralty to inform againſt the captains of men of war who have carried on contraband trade; and it is at his requiſition that they are condemned in a fine for the violation of the regulations in this reſpect, which ſtrictly forbid and puniſh a conduct of this kind. They are, indeed, allowed to lade money, either in ſpecie or bars, becauſe that does not encumber the ſhip in caſe of an engagement.

As it may happen that the men of war may be ſeparated from the merchantmen, the admiralty have a cuſtom of chuſing, among the captains who command the latter, firſt and ſecond commandants, whom the others are obliged to obey.

Ships of convoy, and generally all thoſe that come to Smyrna under the banner of Holland, pay 80 aſſani dollars anchorage, which are diſtributed partly to the cadi and governor of the caſtle, and partly among the druggermen and janiffaries of the nation. There are alſo ſome reſerved for the ſlaves, and ſupport of a ſermon and church-yard. This diſtribution is made according to the pleaſure of the conſul.

The body of the nation forbid the lending of ſhips to the Turks; and, when they demand them, the captains excuſe themſelves under ſome pretext, which frequently diſguſts the Turks. It nevertheleſs ſometimes happens, that they take them by force; which muſt be ſubmitted to, leſt greater avanies ſhould follow.

Of the general nature of the Turkey trade in the Levant.

Though the Turks are no traders, but rather diſcouragers and deſtroyers of trade, yet, as they poſſeſs ſo great a part of the world, and ſome of the moſt fruitful, and productive of the beſt and choiceſt merchandizes, it will always induce the European parts of the world to ſend their merchants amongſt the Turks, to traffic with them.

The Turks themſelves, by their indolence and haughtineſs, deſpiſing manufacturing, and not improving the product which they enjoy, in many places, muſt neceſſarily be obliged to purchaſe of other nations the things that they ſtand in need of; which naturally encourages the merchants of other nations to come among them.

Thoſe that ſettle among them from the eaſtern part of the world, are generally Greeks, Jews, Armenians, and Georgians; thoſe from the weſtern parts are chiefly Venetians, Engliſh, French, and Dutch, with ſome Jews alſo, chiefly Italian.

The principal places of trade, on this ſide the Turkiſh dominions, reſpecting Europe, where the ſaid merchants reſide, are Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Aleppo, Alexandretta, or Scanderoon, Alexandria, Tripoli, Antioch, and the iſlands on the coaſt.

There are ſome Chriſtian merchants in moſt of the iſlands belonging to the Turks, viz. at Cyprus, Candia, Rhodes, Zant, Cephalonia, and in moſt of the inhabited iſlands of the Ægean Sea, or Archipelago. [See ARCHIPELAGO]—Theſe merchants are generally French, though there are ſome Jews.

This commercial establishment, by the way of factories, among the Turks, take the same altogether, is, in one general acceptation, called with us the Turkey trade: the manner of which trade is this, viz.

The merchants of England, France, and Holland, chiefly furnish the Turks with fine woollen cloths, dyed scarlet, crimson, purple, blue, and green; the first three in grain, and as rich in colour as possible, which raises their value.

The English, besides their cloth, send block-tin, lead, clock-work and watch-work, both in gold and silver; and, all put together, the value was formerly for upwards of 300,000l. sterling, one year with another.

The returns which the Franks (for so the European Christian merchants are called in Turkey) make from the Turks, and which are the product of the Turkish and Persian dominions, are as follow, viz.

Raw silk: this, though the chief return of the whole trade, is not all the immediate produce of the Grand Seignior's dominions, but of the Persians also. [See PERSIA.] It is brought from the country where it is produced to Aleppo, and from thence to Scanderoon, where the merchants trade for it.

The silk, thus brought raw in bales from Persia, is sherbaff, the Persian word for raw silk, or, perhaps, for silk in general. When this sherbaff silk is landed here, and comes into the hands of our manufacturers, it is called by a name of their own, legee. Besides this, the Levant or Turkey merchants import another sort of raw silk, which they call white silk, and our workmen belladine. This is shipped either at Cyprus or Scanderoon, on board the same Turkey ships that bring the other sort of silk, but is produced in several distant parts of the Turkish dominions, as at Cyprus, at Antioch, and at Tripoli; that is, in the country adjacent to the ancient Syria, and in several of the islands of the Arches. The same sort of silk is also shipped off at Smyrna.

This island silk is generally the product of the islands of Andros, Naxos, Zea, Thermia, Syra, Santorini, &c.

The quantity of silk imported formerly from these places, and as comprehended under the denomination of the Turkey trade, has been calculated at between 3 and 400,000lb. weight, one year with another. That we may not speak without book, the reader may take the following account, drawn from our Custom-House books.

Turkey silk imported in the port of London, in the several years 1720, 1722, and 1723.

Anno 1720	- - - - -	399,688 lb.
Anno 1721	{ None imported, the plague being that year in Turkey and France.	lb.
1722	- - - - -	374,401
1723	- - - - -	329,983

Note. Every pound weight in this account contains 24 ounces. The importations for some years after corresponded pretty much with this proportion, except that, upon some occasion, the trade met with an interruption, as in the time of the plague, and on occasion of war. What is the state of the Turkey trade at present, compared with what it has been, we have not room to shew under this head; and, therefore, shall be obliged to refer to the articles ORIENTAL TRADE, and TURKEY TRADE; under which two heads, with what we have here said, will be comprehended whatever is needful, in order to form a right judgment of this commerce, and of what may be further requisite to render it more beneficial to this nation in particular. To proceed.

The other importations are,

2. Wool and yarn. { Carmania wool, and wool of the islands,
Grogam yarn, } that is, goat's hair, spun or
Mohair yarn, } twisted,
Cotton wool, } from almost all the islands of
Cotton yarn, } the Ægean Sea.
3. Gums, such as gum { Dragant,
Sandrac,
Seneca,
Arabic,
Sarcocolla.
4. Manufactures. { Persian silks,
Carpets,
Burdets,
Callicoes, from the islands of Siphanto, Paros, &c.
Cordevans,
Shagreen-skins.
Galls from Syria,
Coffee from Mocha, by Alexandria,
Balm,
Natural balsam
Rhubarb, from Persia,
Sal ammoniac,
Turmeric from Persia,
Incense,
Pumices from Santorini,
Storax { Calamita } from Samos,
 { Liquida }
Scammony,
5. Drugs, dye-stuffs, earths, &c. { Myrrh,
Manna,
Galbanum,
Sena,
Aloes hepatica,
Olibanum,
Zedoary,
Esquinetes,
Hypoastris,
Aceatrice,
Oker,
Emery-stone, } all at Samos,
Bolus, an earth, }
Adrachne, }
Valonia, or velani, from the island of Zea,
Coloquintida,
Euphorbium,
Mirabolans,
Hypococuan, } from Persia and Egypt,
Frankincense, }
Mastic, from Scio and Naxos,
Opium, cum aliis.

5. Drugs, dye-stuffs, earths, &c.

6. Liquids.

7. Seeds.

8. Fruits.

9. Woods.

- Arac,
- Jallap,
- Orange flower-water,
- Vermececeli,
- Turpentine.
- Worm-feed,
- Clover-feed,
- Garden-seeds,
- Rice.
- Figs,
- Pistachas,
- Raisins of Smyrna,
- Pomegranates.
- Box-wood,
- Cypress-wood,
- Fustic,
- Ebony,
- Walnut-tree.

These are the principal productions with which the merchants of Europe trade among the Turks in this part of Asia: the number of drugs may, perhaps, be greater than what are here mentioned, but these are the most considerable.

The chief articles are the silk, which comes from Georgia and Persia, the wool, the hair, and the galls.

The cotton, as well in wool as in yarn, and also most of the goat's hair, is the product of the islands on the Asian side of the Archipelago, and those also of the European side. Some of the silk likewise comes that way to us, from Zea, Andros, Timor, Paros, Argenter, Naxos, Santorini, Syra, Thermia, and many others. Also from the island of Mycone come some goat's-hair and cordevans.

These serve for the bulk of the trade; the others, perhaps, are equally useful in their kind, but not of equal value in general commerce.

As the Turks have little or no trade but what is, as it were, forced by the Europeans and others, so they have but few ships, compared to the extent of their naval dominions: the chiefest of their shipping is among the Grecian islands, and these are such as belong to the Greeks of those islands, not to the Turks. Also in the Morea and in the Black Sea they have some shipping: but, for the traffic between Egypt and the Port, they generally hire English, Dutch, or Venetian ships upon freight.

The Venetians, indeed, trade with the Turks in Morea, and in the gulph of Thessalonica, and to some of the islands; and, as those countries are full of Greeks, and other Christian inhabitants, they carry them proper manufactures, such as wrought silks, fine linen, bone lace, and all sorts of haberdashery for the women, who delight to go gay, especially in the isles. They carry back in return according to the productions of the place, such as currants, raisins, figs, drugs, rice, corn, oil, wine, cotton, silk, &c.—This is the reason, perhaps, why Venice is the magazine for the scarlet drugs, from whence they are sent over the whole Christian world.

The produce of the islands is exceeding great, and assists the Turks in making returns for the goods they buy of the European merchants: for the Turks are either such strangers to correspondence, or such enemies to all the world but themselves, that they have no such things as exchange; so that, to balance their trade, they are frequently at a great loss, if the balance runs against them. It is true, it may be in their favour in one place, and the contrary in another; whereby they may sometimes bring one part to make good another; but they cultivate no epistolary correspondence, no regular posts going from one place to another, to adjust these things; so that most trade and business is executed by messengers and expresses, such as charoux for the government, or by shipping; and, as for money returned from place to place, it must be carried all in specie.

Much

Much less have they any assurances for the risque of trade, or any of the usual conveniencies of commerce that other nations have. But, as we shall have occasion to speak more largely to this hereafter, we are under the necessity of referring to the articles **ORIENTAL TRADE**, **PROVENCE**, for the trade of **Marfeilles**, and **TURKEY TRADE**, in order to consider the state of our own branch in particular. See also the article **ARCHIPELAGO**.

R E M A R K S.

From what we have here laid before the reader, in relation to this branch of trade, and what we shall further add, we shall be enabled to make a right judgment, whether our Turkey trade is at present put upon a right footing, and whatever else it may stand in need of further than the late act of parliament, in order to render it of greater emolument to the kingdom in general.

LIEGE, the principality and bishopric thereof. This country is bounded on the west by Brabant; Namur, and part of Hainault on the south; by the forest of Ardennes, and part of Luxemburg, on the east; by Luxemburg also, by Limburg, part of the duchy of Juliers, and by Prussian Guelderland; and, on the north, by Dutch Brabant and part of Guelderland.

The air is very temperate, and the country fruitful; and it's mountains have quarries of marble, and mines of lead, iron, and brimstone, besides pit coal in abundance. It's chief rivers are the Maes, Demer, Jecker and Wesier.

DINANT is seated between a steep rock and the Maes, which makes it enjoy a pretty good trade, particularly in manufactures of brass and iron.

MALMEDI is a small town, mostly inhabited by leather-dressers or woollen-drapers.

STAVELO is another small town, the inhabitants of which drive a pretty good trade in woollen cloth, and other stuffs, and chiefly in a great quantity of leather curried here.

SPAW, or **SPA**, is situated on the little river Wese, so surrounded with mountains that you cannot see it 'till you are almost in it. It is from the Pouxhon, or Pohon spring, in the market-place here, that they draw that prodigious quantity of water that is transported into foreign countries, especially into England and Holland, sealed up in bottles with the town seal. The people of the town employ themselves in making boxes for ladies toilets, snuff and other boxes, varnished after the manner of China wares, which they sell to the company, as they go from the wells.

VERVIERS, on the same river, has a very flourishing manufactory of woollen cloths, said to be nothing inferior to those made in England or Holland; so that their trade extends all over Germany, and even into the north of Europe, Italy, and Turkey.

Near this town stands the borough of **HODIMONT**, where they also make a great quantity of woollen cloths.

LIGHT-HOUSES and **SEA-MARKS**. A light-house, or beacon by sea, erected in any place where required, is of great use to direct and keep mariners in the right course they ought to take to avoid danger: and these are very necessary in those parts where there are bars, or entrances into harbours, that there must be high tide to carry ships over them.

Light-houses and sea-marks of various kinds, as sometimes large trees, or buoys, must be allowed to be proper cautions to strangers and others, that they may not precipitately run on rocks or sands, to their ruin and destruction: and, in the reign of king Charles II, care was taken for erecting light-houses and lanthorns, and other special sea-marks; but more especially for the building that most excellent light-house near Goldston by Yarmouth, which, for it's height, curiosity, and form, was then reckoned not inferior to any, but rather excelling all or most in any country whatsoever.

In the fourth and fifth years of queen Anne an act passed for the rebuilding of a light-house on the Edistone, by the master, wardens, and assistants of the Trinity-house of Deptford Strond; and, after the same is rebuilt, and a useful light put therein, there shall be paid to them, by the masters and owners of English ships and barks passing by the said light-house, except coasting vessels, one penny per ton inward, and one penny a ton if outward bound; of which the merchant is to pay a moiety, and the owner of any ship the other moiety: and, by strangers, two-pence per ton of the burden of the ship or vessel; and every coaster two shillings only, for each time they pass by the said light-house.

The said duties to be received by such person or persons as the said master, wardens, and assistants of the Trinity-House shall appoint, and where such ships, barks, or other vessels shall arrive, load, or unload; and on non-payment, to be recovered in any of the courts at Westminster. Stat. 4 and 5 Ann. cap. 20.

By 3 Geo. II. cap. 36. all the powers, liberties, privileges, and authorities granted in letters patent of her majesty queen Anne, bearing date the 13th day of July, in the 13th year of her reign, to William French, Esq; for erecting a light-house on the island or rock called Skerries, lying in the sea near Holyhead, in the county of Anglesea; and the said light-house, with it's rights, members, and appurtenances, shall be valid and effectual, and continue for ever vested in Sutton Morgan,

his heirs and assigns: to the intent that he and they shall keep the light-house in good repair, and, in the night-season, maintain a proper fire therein, so as the trade and navigation in the Channel may be effectually preserved.

And the said Sutton Morgan may demand and receive from the masters and owners of every ship, hoy, bark, catch, vessel, or bottom, passing, crossing, or sailing in or through St. George's Channel, by Holyhead or Wicklow, to or from any foreign port or place, or which shall pass or cross the said Channel, to or from any port, creek, or place in Great-Britain southward of Holyhead from or to Wicklow, or any ports or place northward thereof in the kingdom of Ireland, or that shall pass, cross, or sail from any port, creek, or place northward of Holyhead, either from any foreign or other port, and sail between Holyhead and the Calf of Man, or any way in St. George's Channel, to the southward of Dublin; and likewise from all coasters passing to and from any port, creek, or place in Great-Britain, north of Holyhead, from or to any port, &c. south thereof; one penny per ton coming into, and the like sum going out of the said ports, places, creeks, or harbours, in Great-Britain or Ireland; and double such duties for any foreign ship or vessel, &c. passing, crossing, or sailing in like manner, according to their burthens. But ships loaded with coals, or the greatest part of their loading being coals, passing from England to Ireland, shall only pay one voyage in every year.

And if any master, or other persons, having the command of any ship, &c. shall refuse to pay the duties, the said Sutton Morgan, his heirs, &c. may seize any of the goods, guns, tackle, &c. of any such ship or vessel, and keep the same 'till the duties aforesaid are paid; and, in case of any delay in payment, for the space of three days after such seizing, he may cause the same to be appraised by two sworn appraisers, and afterwards sell the goods, and therewith satisfy himself for the duties, together with the charge of seizure, &c. rendering the overplus to the owner.

And, in consideration of the frequent and constant benefit the packet-boats sailing between Holyhead and Dublin receive by this light-house, the postmaster-general, or the commissioners for executing that office, shall pay to the said Sutton Morgan the annual sum of 50l. by quarterly payment, without any office fees, or deductions. This statute extendeth not to charge any ships of war with the duties before-mentioned.

There are large lanthorns ordered by the statute, with duties payable for maintaining them, to be erected at the head of some keys, such as at the harbour of Minehead in Somersetshire, on the river Severn, &c. See 10 Ann. cap. 24.

LIMBURG, in the Austrian Netherlands. This province is bounded on the north and east by the duchy of Juliers; on the south by a small part of the duchy of Luxemburg, and by the country and bishopric of Liege, which surrounds it also on the west.

It has excellent mines of iron, and one of copper; the soil is very fruitful in wheat, fruits and fuel.

The chief rivers are the Maes, Gueule, Wese, and Bowine.

NEAU, called **EUPIN** by the inhabitants, though but a borough, is more considerable than many cities, both for the number of it's inhabitants, which amount to about 4000, and for it's trade. They make here woollen cloths, which are said to be as good and fine as those made in England, especially the scarlet, blue, and black. They have a considerable trade of them throughout the country, and especially in Germany.

LINCOLNSHIRE, is a maritime country, and one of the largest in England, and is bounded on the south by Northamptonshire; on the north by Yorkshire; has the German Ocean on the east; and is bounded on the west with some parts of Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, and Rutlandshire; and is computed to be about 180 miles in compass. It is usually divided into three parts, viz. Holland, Kesteven, and Lindsey.

I. HOLLAND is bounded on the south with part of Cambridgeshire; and on the east with the washes, which are passable at ebb, but overflowed by every tide. The soil of this division produces much more grass than corn.

BOSTON stands on the river Witham, which is navigable to Lincoln, and inclosed here with artificial banks. It is, and long has been, a famous and flourishing town: it is now in a thriving state, with considerable merchants for foreign trade, besides a good inland trade; and others of the inhabitants apply much to grazing.

DUNNINGTON has a port for barges, and is remarkable for large quantities of hemp and hemp-seed bought here, but for nothing else, though it is reckoned a good market-town.

CROWLAND is situated among fens. The people of this place, which is pretty well inhabited, subsist chiefly upon the profit of their fish and wild ducks, which in the month of August are so numerous, being brought hither by decoy-ducks, that they drive 3000 into a net at a time, by dogs trained up to the business.

SPALDING is a neater town, and more populous than would be expected in a place encompassed with lakes, canals, and rivers; for the drains of Boston and Langtoft center, as it were,

were, upon it, and the Welland almost incloses it. Vessels of 50 or 60 tons may come up to it.

II. KESTIVEN is bounded on the south-east with Holland division, and on the north with that of Lindsey.

STAMFORD stands upon the river Welland, which is navigable to it by barges: the chief trade of this town is in malt, sea-coal, and free-stone.

SLEAFORD, in a pleasant valley, near the head of a river of it's own name, has a considerable trade in corn and cattle, a large market-place, and the markets on the Monday after Epiphany, Easter, and Whitsuntide, are equal to great fairs.

III. LINDSEY. This, which is the third and largest division of the county, runs out with a large front into the sea, which washes it's shores on the east and north; it is separated from Yorkshire and Nottinghamshire, on the west, by the rivers Trent and Dun; and, on the south, is bounded by Kesteven and the Fosse-Dyke, cut between the Witham and Trent, for the conveniency of carriage to and from Lincoln; and is parted from the Holland division by Horncastle wapentake.

LINCOLN CITY is in this division; it is built on the side of a hill, at the bottom of which runs the river Witham. It was formerly a very large and flourishing place, and made a staple or mart for wooll, leather, lead, &c. but it's trade is gone to decay.

GREAT GRIMBSY, half a mile from the Humber, was also a place of very great trade, before it's harbour was choaked up: it's chief trade now is in coals and salt, brought by the Humber.

GAINSBOROUGH is a well-built town, of good trade upon the Trent.

LINLITHGOWSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the north with the Forth; with part of Clydesdale on the west; and it is divided from Mid-Lothian on the south and west; and by the waters of Almond and Brick-Water on the east. It abounds with coal, lime-stone, and white salt, besides corn and pasturage.

LINLITHGOW is the chief or shire-town, and is so named from it's situation on the side of a lake, which is a mile in length, and a quarter of a mile over, and abounds with perch, and other sorts of fish.

This town has a face of great business, with a good harbour, where there is a large Custom-House built; with other houses for the use of merchants.

Here is a great manufacture for linen, which the water of the lake is reckoned so extraordinary for bleaching, that great quantities are brought hither from other parts of the country for the purpose.

BURROWSTOWNNESS, on the coast, had the greatest trade with Holland of any in Scotland, before the Union, which is now much decayed, though it has still a good export of coals and salt, and the greatest traffic both to Holland and France, except Leith. It is said they have the most shipping, and the best seamen in the Firth, who are very good pilots for the coasts of Norway and the Baltic, as well as Holland.

QUEEN'S-FERRY, at the point of St. Margaret's Bay, is the common passage at all times of tide from Lothian to Fife, to which it is about two miles over, and it is the surest way from all parts of the north to Edinburgh.

LINEN. What linen is needs no definition, it being so well known. There are variety of sorts, the chief materials of which are cotton, flax, and hemp.

It is difficult to say with certainty to whom the invention of this manufacture is owing; perhaps the original idea proceeded from that admiral phenomenon of the spider's-web. To describe the divers sorts, would be as needless as tedious, and would oblige us to leave out matter, which, we apprehend, may be more useful and acceptable.

As introductory to what we would offer in regard to this article, we desire the reader would consult what is said under the articles BLEACHING, CAMBRICS, COTTON-TREE, FLAX, HEMP, LINT, YARN, IRELAND, and SCOTLAND, all which heads contain something tendering to the national advancement of this manufacture.

REMARKS.

We shall now consider this matter in some other lights, not less interesting to Great-Britain than what has been said under those heads beforementioned.

Linen is a commodity of universal use, from the prince to the meanest subject, and a commodity that cannot be supplanted by any thing else near so commodious and agreeable for those uses to which it is applied. The use of the Indian cotton-cloth has been often attempted for shirting, but to no purpose; and muslins for women's head-cloths and ruffles, &c. in place of cambric, but without success. Some ascribe this to a fondness of the English nation for French fashions; a conceit which, in too many instances, is most highly detrimental to the trading prosperity of this nation, and which ought, by all possible means, to be discouraged; but there is found, by long experience, to be a substance and firmness in cambric which gives it a preference to muslins, for variety of uses.

The linen trade of Europe is chiefly in the hands of the Russians, Germans, Swiss, Flemings, Hollanders, and French.

A nation may be drained of it's wealth, and undone by foreign trade, if it takes more goods from other nations for home-consumption than it sends out, and pays balances in gold and silver [see BALANCE of TRADE;] and therefore every wise administration will watch carefully over those branches of commerce where the balance is against them, and encourage those where the balance is on their side.

The balance of trade and money transactions between England and those foreign linen countries is against England; and, by reason of the high duties imposed by them upon English woollen goods, and other incumbrances on the importation and sale of them, the balance of trade is greatly in their favour, more especially if the total balances of those linen countries be considered in a conjunctive and aggregate light; because we have not diminished in our imports of foreign linens in the like proportion as those nations have diminished in their imports of our woollen and other merchandizes; and the attempts to establish more and more new manufactures of their own, among the European powers, must inevitably increase the evil upon us, provided we do not take every measure to promote an adequate compensation for the losses in trade with which we are daily threatened, by almost every power of Europe in their turn, as demonstrably appears throughout this work.

It is high time to look into our state of the trade to the North; for it is certain in our own power, by the effectual assistance of our fellow-subjects in our settlements in America, and by the industry of our own people at home (if both were properly employed) to bring the balance of trade with all those countries on our side; not only those linen countries, but also with those which serve us with the bulky trade and naval stores.—See NAVAL STORES.

The soil of many parts of Virginia and Maryland is exceeding rich, and fit for raising of hemp and flax. The same hands which hough and dress their tobacco-grounds, and cut and cure their plants, may be employed all the winter in breaking and dressing hemp and flax. These commodities, being imported rough, may be manufactured at home, into cordage, sail-duck, and linen of several sorts, and will serve so far to lessen our demands from Russia and Germany of these goods. Great quantities of hemp and flax, to supply what we cannot produce at home, may also be raised in Pennsylvania, North Carolina, and in several other of our own plantations; and all so near navigable rivers, that, by saving the expence of a long carriage by land, to which those commodities are liable in Muscovy, they may be imported cheaper than they can be had from thence, and possibly too, of a better quality, if once a becoming emulation for that purpose is raised between ourselves and them.

Several parts of these colonies lie in the latitude of Egypt; and as their soil, in some places, is equally fine and rich with the soil of Egypt, where the finest flax in the world is produced, what hinders but our British plantations may be brought to produce such that is no way inferior in quality?

With regard to watering the flax, the dews in those parts are exceedingly rich, and, when the flax is lying on the grass, it is thereby brought to an excellent colour, without impairing it's strength in the least, wherein the great art of bleaching consists. See BLEACHING.

Effectual measures of this kind would secure the dependence of our plantations upon their mother-country, when they shall be thus closely united to us, by the irrefragable tie of their own interest, and their friendship and affection for their mother-country, cherished by this profitable intercourse, when we thus work, as it were, to each other's hands, and mutually support and enrich one another: for, wherever obligations are reciprocal, the consequences will be so likewise.

We are at present enabled to serve our plantations with all the manufactured goods they use, except linen; and the present situation of our trade with the foreign linen countries calls loudly upon us to improve and extend the manufacture of home-made linen.

Every county, and almost every town in England, is supported, and their poor employed, by some one particular branch of trade. This greatly contributes to bring every article of manufacture to it's utmost perfection, to increase the inland commerce, and the dependency of one part of the country on another, and thereby to advance the common interest and wealth of the whole. The coal-trade is the chief business of Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmorland; and, as this employs their men only, the linen-trade might also be set on foot in those countries, to employ their women and children.

At Darlington some linen is made for inland sale; but it lies too near Leeds, and the other cloth making towns of Yorkshire. Many inconveniencies attend the interfering of manufactures: if the same hands come to be employed in linen and woollen, or in any part of both, both must inevitably suffer, by being in danger of falling into discredit, and becoming ruined thereby: wherefore all regard should be had to prevent such interfering.

In Lancashire the linen-trade may be safely carried on, because it does not interfere with the cotton, and that the warp

Of all their fustians, and several other cotton goods, is made of linen-yarn.

Linen is the staple of Scotland; but it was long neglected. The Scots at present are not, however, in so bad a situation in respect to this trade, as the French were in the reign of king Henry IV, or the Irish at the Revolution, where, by the force of public encouragement, it has arrived to an extraordinary pitch, and, it is to be hoped, will daily advance; the Scots have it not to begin, they want only to improve and extend it to the height it will admit.

The linen manufacture may be brought to as great an extent in value as any other business now carried on in Britain, except the woollen; it may employ near as many hands as the woollen does; and the linen-trade of North Britain is of as great consequence to the nation in general, as the woollen in the south, and equally deserves the same care, countenance, and encouragement from the public.

The parliament has, from time to time, upon proper application, passed acts, and given suitable encouragement for the advancing, and preventing the decay of the manufactures of wooll, silk, cotton, mohair, &c. all which have been attended with some good effects.

The act of parliament made in the year 1727, for regulating the linen manufacture of Scotland, and even the small funds then appropriated by parliament for its encouragement, did that nation very important service in this respect: the linen-trade was, in some measure, thereby retrieved, and improved beyond expectation. This enabled the Scots to conquer one of their greatest difficulties; and, when they came to understand the defects, faults, and imperfections under which this manufacture laboured, and the ways and means to cure, correct, and amend them, they have brought this manufacture to a very great excellency and perfection.

In a nation so populous and extensive as this island of Britain is, branches of business might be carried on in different parts, which might lay a foundation for division and strife, through an interfering of different interests. But it is happily otherwise with us; it is no less the interest of England to promote and advance the linen manufacture of Scotland, than it is the interest of Scotland to encourage, by their consumption, &c. the woollen manufacture of England.

England is served with fine linen from Holland, and countries adjacent to it, and with cambrics, and other sorts of linen from Holland and France; and the balance of trade and money transactions with both those countries is against England. England and the British plantations, are served with great quantities of middling and low-priced linens of divers sorts, from Silesia, and other parts in the upper and lower circle of Saxony. Formerly those countries took large quantities of woollen goods from England, and then that trade was profitable to England; but now they have manufactures of woollen in several places of their own, as before intimated, which serves a great part of their consumption of low-priced cloths, and lessens their demands for woollen goods from England, whereby the balance of trade with them is now against us.

The balance of trade betwixt England and Scotland, and England and Ireland, is on the English side; and, so far as England and the plantations can be served with linen from Scotland and Ireland, instead of Holland, France, Germany, and Russia, so far will England be a gainer by this change in the course of trade. The more linen the Scots and Irish can sell in England, the more of the English commodities will they be enabled to purchase; and it may be reasonably supposed, that their demands from England will always increase in proportion to the increase of their people and linen manufactures. It is then evidently the interest of England to promote and advance the manufacture of linen in Scotland and Ireland, and to give them all reasonable advantages in the trade, in preference to foreigners, where the balance of trade is against us; and this seems to be the sense of the nation, since all foreign linen for home consumption pays a duty.

Foreign linen, indeed, exported to the British plantations, draws back the whole duty to a trifle; and this was a necessary measure, when our linen trade was reduced to so low an ebb, and the Irish manufacture but in its infancy; so that neither Scotch nor Irish were able to furnish them with any large quantity: but now that those countries have, in some measure, retrieved that branch, and that the Irish, as well as the Scotch, are daily increasing our quantities of linen goods, they both ought to have all the advantages in the trade, that the interest of England, as well as the interest of Scotland and of Ireland, plainly requires. This may in a great measure be effected, if all foreign linen, when exported to the plantations, should not be allowed to drawback the duty it pays on importation, or such a proportion of it, as may be thought reasonable, to give us a preference in the trade.

When the foreign linen countries took off our woollen and other manufactures, something proportionate in value to the linens we had from them, it might not avail us to think of supplying our own plantations with British-made linen: good policy then dictated the advancing no further in this

manufacture, than an endeavour to supply our own European domestic consumption: but, as the scene is now changed, as those linen countries have established woollen, and other manufactures of their own, and are daily establishing more, that will interfere with the manufactures of these kingdoms, is it not time to retaliate upon them by a similar policy? Had we taken off the drawback on foreign linens upon their exportation to the British plantations, before we were capable, or even likely to supply ourselves and plantations with our home-made linens, and before the foreign linen countries had sent up woollen and other manufactures which interfere with ours, it might and would have been impolitic, and all these apprehensions of the consequences attending such measure, that we had twenty years ago, might be justly grounded. Among other things, it was then urged, 'That, if we should be capable of producing and manufacturing every thing, so that we had no occasion to import any one thing, what should we be gainers of? This would destroy the great band and ligament of all foreign commerce, and in the end the whole nation.'—But this is arguing upon the extreme, and I may as well ask, if we took all our produce and manufactures from foreign nations, how long should we be able to trade at all?

By the industry of England, Scotland, and Ireland, we are now in a condition to supply ourselves and our plantations with linens of our own manufacture; and, if I am rightly informed, several species of them as cheap as we can have foreign linens.—But supposing, not granting, that, as yet, our linen manufacturers have not arrived at every art in making linens so cheap as foreigners, or so good in quality, what then? Are we to give them no encouragement, 'till they are capable of so doing? Is that the way to rouse and animate them to emulate the foreign linen countries? Is discouragement the best policy to enable them to vie with other nations in this universal manufacture? When Lewis the XIVth was informed by his great minister Colbert, that his subjects would eat herrings, and expended great sums annually therein—Then answered that monarch, They shall catch them themselves or go without; and they have ever since supplied themselves.—So if Britons, either in Europe or America, will wear linens, or use them in any shape, let it be the voice of Great-Britain, that we may manufacture them ourselves or go without.

But, say some, if the drawback is taken off on the exportation of foreign linens to our plantations, will not the foreign linen countries some how avail themselves of such a measure? They have already anticipated us in this respect, by settling woollen and other manufactures of their own, and consequently taking less from us than heretofore; and is it not politic in our turn to retaliate upon them in manner something similar to their own policy? Let us then make our own linens, as the linen countries have begun to make their own woollens, &c. and take off the drawback allowed on the exportation of foreign linens to the plantations, that our's may come as cheap to our own plantations as foreign linens there will. Ah! but, says somebody, that cannot relish this policy, Will not the British plantations, in such case, make their own linens? What inducement can they have to do this, when the linens we shall sell them, may be made of the very materials [HEMP and FLAX] that we shall purchase from these plantations? for that is the footing whereon I have put the matter, to which the reader will please to attend. That tiffing attempts have been made in some of our northern colonies upon the linen manufacture, we are no strangers to; but, if our plantations were effectually encouraged in the raising of all raw materials for this manufacture to be carried on in their mother-country, they would cease to go greater lengths in a manufacture, which requires so long time to bring to tolerable perfection; nor would they then scruple to give the preference to British linens, though they came something dearer at first than foreign linens, when they knew such British linens were made of the produce of their own plantations.

Nothing is more common than for us to complain, that our northern colonies begin to interfere with us in our British manufactures, and may in time supply our sugar islands therewith. If this should ever come to pass, may we not thank ourselves? For, if we in time give them such effectual encouragement in planting as we may, and as the state of our commerce apparently requires, they will not easily turn from planting to manufacturing. Planting and agriculture are best understood there, and, if any thing stimulates our colonies to lay this aside for what they do not yet understand to any degree of perfection, it will be the supineness and discouragement of the mother-country to rouse them to the former.

Is it more politic to encourage the importation of foreign linens into our plantations, than to encourage those plantations in the production of such materials, as will enable Great-Britain and Ireland to supply them with home-made linens, as cheap as they can have foreign now? And why should not that be the case, when our plantations can supply us cheaply and plentifully with the materials for that purpose?

Would

Would not due encouragement given to our plantations, in this respect, take away the temptation from our colonies to supply themselves by smuggling foreign linens *? When the mother-country took off immense quantities of their planting productions for the linen manufactures, would it not prove unspeakably more for their interest to discourage all smuggling trade of this kind, than to sacrifice their planting interest? In such case, can we imagine them to be so little acquainted with their own happiness and prosperity, as not to make laws every way adequate to the prevention of so destructive an evil, and also vigilantly see to their execution?

* It has been said, in opposition to the taking off the bounty on foreign linen, on their being exported to our British plantations, 'That the harbour of Curaçoa, the island of St. Eustatia, the ports of Surinam, and the Berbices, belonging to the Dutch, are always open and free for the English to trade to.' The duties on what the English import and sell there, seldom amount to above 5 per cent. I remember but one instance when they exceeded, and that was just upon the peace of Utrecht, when Monsr. Carfar, after having plundered Nevis and Montserrat, made the garrison of Curaçoa ransom themselves for 1,200,000 pieces of eight or Spanish dollars, as I have been informed the sum was: and, indeed, for two or three years, they made all foreigners pay 10 per cent. on all the goods they imported and sold there: but, during that time and occasion, which might have, in some measure, excused a tax on their merchandize at exportation, they were not so weak as to do it, well knowing, that nobody would buy goods and merchandize of them that knew where to buy cheaper; nor did they ever, in any instance that I know of, demand any duties on any goods that any one purchased in their harbours, but let him carry them where he would or could, well knowing whatever draws shipping, draws trade, and that draws profit or money, which all trading people want. There is not a port in the world out of Europe, where all sorts of European goods are to be seen in greater plenty than there, in Curaçoa; and, I believe, there has not been a day these twenty years, when there were no English ships to be seen in that harbour, but this is only one port: Surinam and the Berbices lie to windward of Barbadoes, and not above three days sail from it; so that the people of Barbadoes might be supplied from thence very conveniently, and with small risk.

St. Eustatia lies in sight of our Leeward islands; and, as I will not put all on my own single authority on this occasion, I will transcribe a passage out of a book published some years ago, intitled, *The Importance of the British Plantations in America to this kingdom*, printed for J. Peele, p. 32, 33. where the author says,

'I shall take leave, in this place, to mention an affair, for which, if a remedy could be found, it would be of some advantage to us. The island of St. Eustace, which is inhabited by the Dutch, is not above three leagues distant from St. Christopher's; and, with regard to its extent and produce, very considerable: but its road is the place where Dutch interlopers from the coast of Africa seldom fail to call at. In a few days all our Leeward islands are informed of this. In places, such as our islands are, it is not much to be wondered at, if there are persons who run some hazard for the hope of a considerable gain; so that all the ready money which they can advance at any rate, is carried by them on board these ships, where negroes are sold to them frequently 20 per cent. cheaper than our own ships do afford them. This ready money is a great temptation to some planters, who sell their sugars to them at less than the current price; and, under pretence of sending it in sloops to our own shipping, it is sent on board these interlopers, who, by these means get laden at less expence than our own ships, and carry off more money than a great number of our own ships which trade for three times the value. By this it is evident, that we have really employed a Dutch ship, and have paid her whole freight, out and home, in money, which is just so much lost to the nation: nor is that the only damage; for on board these ships are often great quantities of fine and coarse LINENS, which are sold for ready money only.'

See *Reflections and Considerations*, occasioned by the petition presented to the honourable House of Commons, for taking off the drawback on foreign linens, printed for T. Cooper, 1738.

So far, then, it seems pretty clear, 'till I hear reasons to change sentiments, that it is for the mutual interest of Great-Britain and her plantations, to promote the manufacture of linens in general; the former in the making them, and the latter in producing the requisites of nature for that purpose.

It has been suggested also, 'That, if we take the drawback off foreign linen, to make them dearer to our plantations, in order to introduce our own linens, we must be obliged to take off the same on the exportation of all foreign linens; which will bring them so dear to foreign markets, especially to those of the Spanish West-Indies, that we shall thereby run the hazard of losing that trade, because that those foreign linens make one of the essential assortments of a saleable cargo for Spanish America.—That the productions of many nations and countries are become absolutely necessary to this

end; and that often much more gain and advantage will accrue to the merchant, and consequently to this kingdom, by trading in goods of foreign manufacture than in those of our own.—That in such case, if the British merchant is not at liberty to fort his cargo with such wares as the markets he sends to require, and at as low a rate as others can, who trade to the same market, he must be beaten out by the others, and leave the trade wholly to them,' &c.

This argument, like all of the extreme and general kind, has the fate to prove too much; for, if this is allowed conclusive, it will follow, that we must never presume to think of such an advancement to our linen manufacture, as to come in for any share whatever in the supply for foreign markets.—Had such like policy prevailed in France, would they ever have had resolution to have attempted to supplant us in the woollen, or any other manufacture, wherein we had the start of them, as they have done? But they would not be lulled to a lethargy by such specious reasoning; that it is in vain for us to think of supplying the Spanish West Indies, or any other foreign country, with any of our home-made woollen, or linen manufactures; we cannot make up saleable assortments, without the woollen manufactures of England, and the linens of Germany; and therefore, if we presumptuously attempt to make woollens or linens of our own to the taste of the Spaniards, we shall, instead of increasing, lose that share of the Spanish West-India trade we have already obtained! With what contempt would a Colbert have treated such argument? Had he been influenced by it, would it not have prevented every wise measure that he so successfully took for the advancement of manufactures of every kind, in order to force a trade with foreign countries? Hath not the lucrative experience of France, to the unspeakable detriment of England, proved such reasoning frivolous and delusory? Yet this was the principal, if not the only colourable argument urged, some years since, against a petition presented to the honourable House of Commons, setting forth, 'That the manufactures of linen now labour under several discouragements, but more particularly on account of the drawbacks allowed on exportation of foreign linens, threads, and tapes; by means whereof, considerable quantities have been, and still are sent from hence to parts beyond the seas, to the GREAT HINDRANCE of the consumption of our own produce and manufactures; and therefore praying the House to give such relief, as to the House shall seem meet.'

When France first attempted the establishment of the woollen manufactures, they had every difficulty to struggle with, having neither the material, nor the manufactures; yet a resolute perseverance and sound policy dissipated every difficulty and discouragement [see the article FRANCE]. The first step they took was to supply themselves with woollen goods of their own fabrication, and to stop the importation of the English woollen manufacture, in proportion as they advanced in their own: and although, at their first enterprize, their manufacture was but very indifferent, yet, as the king himself encouraged the wear, the whole nation followed the example. This laid the first foundation for their prosperity in this great manufacture. After which, they exerted every politic art, in the power of human nature to suggest, in order to imitate the English in that perfection to which they had long before arrived.—Thus the most skilful and experienced manufactures in England and Holland were allured by honours and rewards irresistible; and thus the groundwork was laid to vie with the English at foreign markets, in the staple manufacture of the kingdom. But, as the reputation of the English woollen goods was established throughout the whole world, the difficulty lay in convincing foreigners, that they had arrived at as great a perfection in this art as the English; which they did, by propagating that they had the English and Irish wool to work with, and English manufacturers to fabricate it; and what hindered, said the French, but we may make goods in France, equal in quality with those made in England? Whether they have even yet arrived to the perfection of the English, is greatly to be doubted. However, they made their cloths *façon d'Angleterre*; they imitated their lengths, breadths, and thickness, and counterfeited the English seals affixed to the same, and thereby craftily insinuated their woollen fabric among foreign nations; and, as they have been able to afford them cheaper, they have gradually made their way, and now share the woollen trade with us in all parts of the world. And, while this was accomplishing, they found ways and means to make up their saleable assortments for the Spanish West-Indies, as well as other foreign markets; whereby the merchant and nation both gained, though not at first to the degree they have been able to do since they have arrived at a greater perfection in these fabrics.

And what hinders that Great-Britain and Ireland should not be able to imitate the perfection of foreign linens, to as great a degree as the French have the English woollen goods? That our people want ingenuity to carry any manufactural art to the last perfection, will not be said; that they wonderfully excel in the linen manufacture in particular, is indisputably true; and that to such a degree, it has been affirmed

firmed, that foreign linen manufacturers have been themselves deceived, by taking the British and Irish linens for some of their own. Certain it is, that a very extraordinary progress is now made in this universal manufacture; and, if we pursue the like measure that France has done, in relation to the establishment of their woollen manufactories, why may we not first be able amply to supply ourselves with home-made linen, and then attempt a competition therein with foreign nations? If we cannot raise hemp and flax sufficient for our demands in Great-Britain and Ireland, will not our plantations most amply supply us, with effectual encouragement?

Neither the banks of the Nile, nor the most fruitful plains of Egypt, were ever more capable of producing fine flax (though formerly esteemed the best in the world) than the banks of the Susquehannah, Delawar, Hudson's river, and the rich and fat vallies of the English North America are.—The climate of North America, with regard to the production of most vegetables, particularly as to HEMP and FLAX, is inferior to none in quality in the known world: they have so many sorts of soil, that no place in any climate can shew more than may be seen there in one day's riding.

Notwithstanding those apparent advantages, which may accrue to the public weal from the advancement of this manufacture to it's last perfection; and notwithstanding the reasonableness of taking off the drawback upon foreign linen; yet we well know, that courts cannot at every point of time, at every crisis, do what is right and just for their own country, and what they would wish to do. The circumstances of public affairs must be attended to; there is, in the concerns of state, as well as in those of private persons, a season for all things, as the wise man has long since reminded us of; and the wise and upright statesman will watch those seasons, and take the advantage of favourable opportunities.

When we, therefore, occasionally in this work, take the liberty humbly to suggest any measure, which we apprehend may turn to the commercial emolument of the state, we would, by no means, presume to dictate to our superiors the PROPER TIME for the execution of any thing, because that depends upon the real state of public affairs both at home and abroad; and what may be wise and prudent to be done at one time, and may be attended with great national honour and advantage, may be the reverse at other times.—These reflections should make the bulk of the people modest, and less censorious of the public measures in all nations, because in most they cannot know the great wheels and springs of government.—In this happy land of liberty, indeed, we can as little bear with the mysteries of state as of religion; and yet some politicians have told us, that there is a necessity for them in both.—But these things we leave to the divine and the statesman; while we submit to consideration such general principles only, as are deducible from facts, leaving their application to be made, as the exigencies of state may occasionally require.

That nothing may discourage and intimidate Great-Britain and Ireland from carrying the linen manufacture to the perfection that England has done the woollen*, it may be useful to give some calculations relating to the quantity of linen manufactured in Ireland, and of the proportion that the material of flax bears to the manufactured merchandize, by Thomas Prior, Esq; of Dublin: which calculations may in some measure be applied to England and Scotland.

* The reader will please to observe, that, at the beginning of this article, the utmost national care is recommended to prevent any injurious interfering between those staple manufactures, the woollen and the linen; that is to say, our manufacturers engaged in the former must not be drawn off to the latter; nor should the situation of the one be in places too near that of the other, lest the workmen, engaged in the one, should be diverted to the other, and grow less expert and skilful in both, to the detriment of our grand staple the woollen branch, and to the obstruction of the promotion of that of the linen. For, although we have powerful competitors in the woollen, yet we should by no means abate that ardor and zeal, necessary to support that share of this inestimable branch which we still preserve. Times may change; Great-Britain still maintains her weight and dignity at foreign courts; and if her manufactural artists maintain their spirit of industry and ingenuity, and if once the studies of commerce and it's dependent arts, considered in all relations become as fashionable as those of the belles lettres and polemical and physiological studies, we may have opportunities of making such treaties of commerce with other nations, as may one day give us full employment in both these general manufactures: new channels of trade may likewise offer themselves to us, which at present, perhaps, can be as little foreseen, as the discovery of the new world was before it happened. See the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, and MECHANICS.

* It is computed, says this judicious gentleman, that the value of linen, made in Ireland yearly, amounts to a million sterling; and that half thereof is yearly exported, and that the remaining half is consumed at home; reckoning five shillings a-head for two millions of people one with another, for all their consumptions in linen.

It is also computed, that the following quantities of rough flax, such as we have from Riga, worth forty shillings the hundred weight, will give employment for a whole year to the following number of persons, one with another, including spinners, hecklers, weavers, bleachers, &c. viz. a hundred weight of flax will employ for a year two hands. A ton, or twenty hundred weight, will employ forty hands. A hundred tons will employ four thousand hands. A thousand tons will employ forty thousand hands. And three thousand one hundred and twenty-five tons will employ one hundred and twenty-five thousand hands.

It is also computed that the following quantities of rough flax, worth forty shillings the hundred weight, when fully manufactured into linen, will, at a medium of coarse and fine, be worth the following sums annexed to them, viz. A hundred weight of flax, when manufactured into linen, will be worth sixteen pounds. A ton, or twenty hundred weight, will be worth three hundred and twenty pounds. A hundred tons will yield thirty-two thousand pounds. And three thousand one hundred and twenty-five tons weight will yield a million sterling.

It is also estimated, that a good acre of flax will produce three, four, five, or six hundred weight of flax; and if we allow four hundred weight, or thirty-two stone, to be raised from every acre one with another in a year, which is a reasonable allowance; on that supposition, the aforesaid three thousand one hundred and twenty-five tons of flax, which are all that are at present supposed to be made use of in our linen manufacture, before estimated to be of the value of a million sterling yearly, may be raised from fifteen thousand six hundred and twenty-five acres only; and if we allow but three hundred weight or twenty-four stone to be raised from every acre one with another, which is a low computation, then it will require about twenty thousand eight hundred and thirty-two acres, to raise the aforesaid quantity of three thousand one hundred and twenty-five tons of flax.

If these computations and estimates are true, or near the truth, as we may reasonably suppose them to be, since they come from persons well skilled in the linen manufacture, they will afford grounds for making the following observations.

It appears from these computations, that we have two millions of people in Ireland, yet no more than a sixteenth part of them, viz. a hundred and twenty-five thousand, are fully employed in the linen manufacture, our staple commodity; that number being sufficient, if employed the whole year round, to make linens to the value of a million sterling, which is computed to be the value of all the linen yearly made at present, allowing eight pounds sterling to each person one with another yearly for their work.

Though Ireland, which contains eleven millions of acres, hath several millions in it fit for the growth of flax, yet we see that there are not above thirteen thousand acres in it employed that way: for, though sixteen thousand acres may be sufficient to supply the three thousand one hundred and twenty-five tons of flax employed in our manufactures, yet, as we import yearly from foreign countries five hundred tons of flax, a deduction ought to be made; and, as it will be found, that we do not raise above two thousand six hundred tons of flax of our own growth yearly, the rest being imported, therefore thirteen thousand acres will be sufficient to produce that quantity, allowing four hundred weight of flax to be raised from each acre.

From hence it evidently follows, that, as we neither want hands nor lands, and may command and employ what number and quantity we please, and yet have a great deal still to spare, it is in our power to double the quantity and value of our linen manufactures, by employing double the quantity of land in raising flax, and double the number of hands in working it up into linen, which would yield a million sterling yearly profit to the nation, more than we make at present; with a great prospect of it's continuing still to increase, since we have no reason to apprehend that we shall ever want a vent for all the linens we can make.

It appears from the foregoing calculations, that the nation would receive an additional profit of sixty-four thousand pounds yearly for every thousand acres that should be employed, more than are at present, in raising of flax and working up the same into linen, and thereby employ eight thousand hands more.

This is a motive sufficient to engage our attention, to push forward this improvement as far as it will go, and to lose no time in accomplishing it. And, though it may be practicable to enlarge our linen manufacture to the extent and value before-mentioned, yet will it take a considerable time before we can make any progress, unless we can, by proper encouragements and premiums, give a new and greater spirit to our industry and endeavours.

OBSERVATIONS on the raising of flax, for the effectual establishment of the linen manufacture in Great-Britain and Ireland.

We find, by experience, that all our flax, either of our own growth or imported from abroad, is spun into yarn; that all our yarn is either exported or worked up into cloth at home, and that all our cloth is either consumed at home, or sold at a good market abroad.

It is more advantage to the kingdom to raise the flax ourselves * which we make use of, than to import it from abroad: for thereby we save the price of the material imported, and do not depend on other countries for the primum of our staple commodity.

* Herein we include the British plantations as a part of ourselves, and what is said in relation to the raising of good flax may be applied to that of hemp; so that we may stand in need of importing no material from any foreign country, in order to carry this extensive and important manufacture to the height it will admit of.

No manufacture can be increased, beyond what the material of which it is made will allow; but must increase or decrease, in proportion to the plenty or scarcity of the material.

There can be no increase of the linen manufacture without an increase of yarn, nor of yarn without an increase of spinners, nor of spinners without an increase of flax.

We import great quantities of flax yearly from foreign countries, which shews that we do not raise flax enough of our own growth to supply our manufactures. Our chief attention, therefore, should be to increase the number of spinners, and the quantity of flax.

There are as many women and children in this kingdom that do not spin flax, as there are that do; and many of those that are now unemployed, would work, if they could procure the materials.

If we should double the number of our spinners, as it is certainly in our power, and supply them with flax and wheels, we might then make double the value in linen: it is, therefore, our interest to provide sufficient stores of flax to keep our spinners at work.

We find, by experience, that in the best seasons we never raise flax enough for our manufactures, and that, in bad seasons, we greatly fall short of the requisite quantity; we should, therefore, until we can raise flax enough ourselves, import large quantities of foreign flax, that our spinners may be still kept at work, who must otherwise be idle for want of the material.

Though by bad seasons, or other accidents, we should happen to raise but little flax of our own growth, yet in such a case, if we take proper measures to import large quantities of flax from abroad, we should still be able to make great profit by our manufacture, by gaining seven parts in eight of the value of the linen, by the labour employed on the flax.

Good flax-seed sowed on poor, ill-cultivated ground, and bad seed sowed on good, well prepared ground, seldom yield good flax. A due cultivation of proper soil, and good seed, must concur to produce good flax.

One acre of rich, well cultivated, land, sowed with good seed, will produce more and better flax, than two, three, or four acres of poor land, ill cultivated, sowed with bad seed, though the expence by the acre, to the sower, may be nearly equal to both.

Since flax-seed of our own growth sometimes degenerates, by reason of bad seasons and bad husbandry, it would be highly proper, in order to be furnished with good seed, to give some premiums [see the articles MANUFACTURES and PREMIUMS] to merchants who shall, for one or two years to come, import large quantities of flax-seed from the Baltic, or North America.

By this expedient, every person who should be willing to sow good seed, in order to raise good flax and seed, may have it in his choice to make use of the best foreign or home seed he can meet with.

It is found, by experience, that, in all manufactures consisting of different parts, they succeed best, who have particular workmen for every part: each operator, being confined to his own branch, can afford his work cheaper and in greater perfection; by this method, watches and Birmingham ware are offered so cheap, every part being a separate and distinct trade, and confined to a particular sett of workmen; and the master who employs them, puts all their work together, and finishes the whole; whereas one who undertakes several distinct branches at once, will hardly succeed in any to perfection.

In like manner, to succeed in the linen manufacture, one sett of people should be employed, either at home or in our plantations, and confined to the plowing and preparing of the soil, sowing and covering the seed, to the weeding, pulling, rippling, taking care of the new seed, and watering and grassing the flax, until it is lodged at home; others should be concerned in the drying, breaking, scutching, and heckling the flax, to fit it for the spinners; and others at home, in spinning and reeling the same to fit it for the weaver; others should be concerned in taking due care of the weaving, bleaching, beetling, and finishing the cloth for the market. It is reasonable to believe, that, if these several branches of the manufacture were carried on by distinct dealers, the

several parts would be better executed, and the whole could be afforded cheaper and with greater profit.

Since we find, by experience, that all our flax, yarn, and linen, find a vent, it should therefore be our chief endeavour to increase the quantity of our flax, not only as it is necessary to keep our present spinners fully employed, but as it will be a means of employing many hands, that are now useless for want of it.

We find a general disposition and readiness in all our poor women to get a livelihood by spinning, if they could get flax and wheels to work with.

It would be a great benefit to the whole kingdom, and to every gentleman possessed of lands in particular, if all the labouring women and children on his estate were furnished with flax and wheels; and, though this should be attended with some small expence at first, yet this would be soon made good, by the profit those women and children would make by their yarn, which never fails of a market; and which would enable them to repay, with gratitude, the first expence their kind landlords were at, in putting them in a way of getting an honest livelihood.

Besides the several other articles referred to at the beginning of this, we also refer to those of SCOTLAND and IRELAND.

A SUMMARY of the chief LAWS of ENGLAND, relating to LINENS in general.

I. Stat. 28 Hen. VIII. cap. 4. §. 2. No person, English nor stranger, shall put to sale any whole piece or half piece of dowlas and lockeram, unless there be expressed upon the piece the number of yards or ells contained in such piece, upon pain of forfeiture of the same, not containing the number of yards or ells mentioned upon the piece; one half of such forfeiture to be to the king, and the other half to him that shall seize and will sue for the same by action of debt, &c.

II. Stat. 1 Eliz. cap. 12. §. 1. If any person shall willingly use any means with linen cloth, whereby the same shall be deceitful or worse for use, the cloth shall be forfeited, and the offender punished by one month's imprisonment, and shall pay such fines as shall be assessed for his offence, by the justices before whom he shall be condemned.

III. §. 2. The justices of oyer and terminer, and justices of assizes, and justices of peace, or three of them, whereof one to be of the quorum, shall have power to enquire, hear, and determine, the offences aforesaid in their sessions, by information or indictment.

IV. §. 3. If any person shall seize any such deceitful linen cloth, he shall at the next sessions of the peace, or before two justices of the peace, whereof one to be of the quorum, make information of the offence, and of the seizure of the cloth, or procure the offenders to be indicted; and shall be bound before the justices, to the use of the queen, in such form as the justices shall think meet, to pursue the same matter with effect, and to give evidence, and also to pay the moiety of all that he shall recover, to the sheriff, or other accountant, to the use of the queen; the one half of all the forfeitures and fines to be to the queen, and the other moiety to him that shall make information, or procure indictments of the premises, and follow the same with effect.

V. §. 4. The justices before whom any such offence shall be tried, shall certify the same by their estreat into the Exchequer, yearly, at Michaelmas, and the barons of the Exchequer shall have power to make process for so much as shall appertain to the queen.

VI. Stat. 1 Ann. stat. 2. cap. 8. §. 2. All sorts of hemp or flax, and the production thereof, as thread, yarn, and linen, imported into England directly from Ireland, by any natives of England or Ireland, being of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, upon producing such certificates, and making such oath, as in the act 7 Will. III. cap. 39. is required, shall be free from the additional subsidy of poundage, and all customs whatsoever.

VII. Stat. 3 Ann. cap. 8. §. 1. It shall be lawful for any natives of England or Ireland to ship in any port of Ireland in English built shipping, whereof the master and three fourths of the mariners to be English or Irish, any white or brown linen cloth of the manufacture of Ireland, and the same to transport into any of the plantations, the act 15 Car. II. cap. 7. notwithstanding.

VIII. §. 2. Provided that no ship coming to the plantations from Ireland shall break bulk, until the master shall have made known to the governor, or to such officer as shall be by him appointed, the arrival of the said ship, with her name and the name of the master, and shall have delivered a true inventory or invoice of the lading, together with a certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland, where such ship shall be laden, expressing the particulars of such lading, with the names and abodes of the exporters, and of two persons, who shall have made oath before such chief officer, that the said goods and linen are, bona fide, of the manufacture of Ireland; and, until the master shall have made oath before such governor or officer, that the said goods are the same that he took on board by virtue of such certificate,

certificate, nor until such ship shall have been searched by an officer; and, in case the commander of such ship shall break bulk before such notice given and certificate produced, and such oath made, or before such search, or if any goods of woollen manufacture not laden in England (necessary apparel of the commander and mariners excepted) or any linen goods not laden in England, nor of the manufacture of Ireland, shall be found, such ship shall be forfeited, together with all goods imported or found in such ship; one third part to her majesty, one third part to the governor of such plantation, if the ship be there seized or sued for (or otherwise that third part also to her majesty) and the other third part to him who shall sue for the same in her majesty's court in the plantations where the offence shall be committed, or in any of her majesty's courts at Westminster.

IX. §. 3. All ships coming from Ireland to any such plantation, shall be subject to the same rules to which ships coming from England are subject.

X. §. 8. Any person for any seizure made in pursuance of this act may plead the general issue, and shall have double costs.

XI. §. 9. All informations and suits for any offence against this act shall be commenced within twelve months after the discovery of such offence.

XII. §. 10. If any ship laden with goods in England, Wales, or Berwick, for any of the plantations, shall put into any port in Ireland, and shall there take in any white or brown Irish linen, the like certificate and oaths shall be made, that the said linen is of the manufacture of Ireland, as is before directed; and if upon the arrival of such ship in the plantations such certificate be produced, and oaths made, such ship, &c. shall be subject to such rules as they were subject to before the passing of this act, and no other.

XIII. §. 11. This act shall continue eleven years.

Continued by 3 Geo. I. cap. 21.

XIV. Stat. 7 Ann. cap. 7. §. 24. European linens, sisters threads, and tapes or incle, linseed and flax, shall be exempted from the duties called the two third subsidies.

XV. Stat. 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 66. There shall be paid to her majesty upon all chequered and striped linens, and upon all linens printed, painted, stained, or dyed, after the manufacture, or in the thread or yarn before the manufacture, in foreign parts, which during 32 years shall be imported into Great-Britain, and may lawfully be used there (over and above all other customs) a duty of 15l. for every 100l. value.

XVI. §. 67. The said duty shall be managed and brought into the Exchequer, in the same manner as the duties upon paper.

XVII. §. 68. After the said duties upon chequered, &c. linens imported shall be paid, the commissioners and officers of the customs shall cause every piece to be stamped with a seal, to denote the payment of the duties.

XVIII. §. 69. There shall be paid to her majesty upon all silks, calicoes, linens, and stuffs, which during 32 years shall be printed, stained, painted, or dyed, in Great-Britain (such calicoes, linens, and fustians, as shall be dyed throughout of one colour only, and stuffs made of woollen, or whereof the greatest part in value shall be woollen, excepted) the duties herein after expressed (over and above the duties payable upon importation) viz. For all silks so printed, stained, or painted, in Great-Britain (silk handkerchiefs excepted) 6d. for every yard in length, reckoning half a yard for the breadth; and for all silk handkerchiefs so printed, &c. in Great-Britain, 3d. for every yard square; upon all calicoes so printed, stained, painted, or dyed, in Great-Britain, 3d. for every yard in length, one yard wide; and upon all linen and stuffs printed, &c. in Great-Britain, three halfpence for every yard in length yard wide.

XIX. §. 70. Such commissioners, as her majesty or the commissioners of the treasury appoint, shall be her majesty's commissioners for the receipt and management of the said duties, who shall have power to appoint receivers-general, collectors, comptrollers, surveyors, and other officers; and the commissioners shall cause all the monies to arise by the same duties to be paid into the receipt of Exchequer in England.

XX. §. 71. Every person who shall print, paint, stain, or dye, any such goods, shall give notice of their names and places of abode, and the rooms where they shall work or dry any such goods, upon pain to forfeit 30l.

XXI. §. 72. All persons who shall print, &c. any silks, &c. shall once in six weeks make entry at the next office of all such silks, &c. printed, &c. within such six weeks; and, if such printer, &c. be not the owner of such goods, he shall specify the names and places of abode of the owners, on pain to forfeit 50l. which entry shall be made upon the oath of the printer, &c. or of his chief workman, to the best of his knowledge or belief, unless a Quaker, and then on his solemn affirmation; and the said oaths and affirmations may be administered by the collector or supervisor, without fee.

XXII. §. 73. Provided that no person, for the making of such entries, be obliged to send further than the next market-town.

XXIII. §. 74. Every person who shall print, &c. any silks, &c. shall, within six weeks after he ought to have made such entry, clear off all the duties, upon pain of forfeiting double the duties; and no such person, after such default in payment, shall deliver or carry out any such printed, &c. goods, until he hath paid his duty, on pain to forfeit double the value of the goods.

XXIV. §. 75. The officers of the said duties shall at all times, by day or by night, and, if in the night, in presence of a constable or other officer of the peace, be permitted, upon request, to enter into the house, or other place belonging to, or used by, any person who shall print, &c. any silks, &c. and to take account thereof, and shall thereof make return in writing to the commissioners, leaving a copy (if demanded) with the printer, &c. and such return shall be a charge upon such printer, &c. and, if the officer neglect to leave a copy of his report, being demanded, he shall forfeit 40s. to such printer, &c.

XXV. §. 76. Every officer, empowered to make such charge, shall first be sworn for the due and faithful execution of his office; and the oath may be administered by the commissioners for the duties, or by any of her majesty's justices of the peace, who shall give such officer a certificate thereof.

XXVI. §. 77. The officers shall be permitted to take account of the quantities of silks, &c. in the custody of any printer, &c. to be printed, &c. and in case such officer shall miss any quantity of such silk, &c. and shall not upon demand receive satisfaction for what is become of the same, it shall be lawful for such officer to charge such printer, &c. with the duties of such silks, &c. as if the same were printed, &c.

XXVII. §. 78. If any person who shall print, &c. any the goods aforesaid, shall obstruct the officers, the offenders shall forfeit 20l.

XXVIII. §. 79. No person shall remove any the silks, &c. by him printed, &c. until the officer shall have taken account of every quantity of such goods, and until every piece be marked with a stamp, denoting the charging of the duty, upon pain of forfeiting 20l. and all the printed, &c. silks, &c. carried away without being marked, and found in the possession of any draper or other trader therein for sale, may be seized, or the value thereof recovered, one moiety for the use of her majesty, and the other moiety to the seizer or informer.

XXIX. §. 80. Upon payment of the duties for any quantity of the said goods, the collector shall give a receipt gratis.

XXX. §. 81. The said printers, &c. shall keep the goods not surveyed by the officers apart from all others of the same kinds, which shall have been surveyed, on pain to forfeit 5l.

XXXI. §. 82. If any of the said printers, &c. shall fraudulently conceal any silk, &c. with intent to deceive her majesty of her duties, the party offending shall forfeit 20l. and all the silks, &c. found in any private place, whereof no notice shall have been given, or the value thereof may be seized and recovered, one moiety to the use of her majesty, and the other moiety to the use of the seizer or informer.

XXXII. §. 83. All utensils and instruments for printing, &c. of such goods, in custody of any such printer, &c. shall be liable to the debts and duties, and also to all penalties incurred by such person, as if the debtor or offender were the true owner.

XXXIII. §. 90. No fee shall be taken by the officers from the said printers or others, for any entries, receipts, or marks, in this act mentioned, under the penalty of 5l. to the party grieved.

XXXIV. §. 91. The powers in 12 Car. II. cap. 24. or any other law of excise, shall be used in levying the duties hereby granted.

XXXV. §. 92. All penalties in relation to the said duties upon silks, &c. printed, &c. in Great-Britain, shall be levied or mitigated, as any penalty by any law of excise, or by action of debt, &c. in her majesty's courts at Westminster, or in the court of session, judiciary, or exchequer, in Scotland; and one moiety of every such penalty (not otherwise appointed by this act) shall be to her majesty, and the other moiety to him that shall sue for the same.

XXXVI. §. 93. The commissioners for the said duties on silks, &c. printed, &c. in England, Wales, and Berwick, shall have the same power as the commissioners of excise.

XXXVII. §. 94. It shall be lawful for any person who shall have paid her majesty's duties for any the said imported linens, or for any silks, &c. printed, &c. in Great-Britain, and any other person who shall be intitled to any such goods from the person who paid her majesty's duties, to export such goods for any foreign parts, giving security that the quantities to be exported shall not be reloaded in Great-Britain; which security the customer or collector of the port of exportation shall take in her majesty's name.

XXXVIII. §. 95. If, after the shipping of any such goods and the giving such security, the same shall be reloaded in Great-Britain, the said goods, or the value thereof, shall be forfeited.

XXXIX. §. 96. Any person who shall export such chequered, striped, printed, painted, stained, or dyed goods, may make proof upon oath, that the duties have been paid or secured (which oath the customer or collector is to administer) and thereupon the customer or collector shall give to the exporter a debenture, expressing the kinds and quantities of the chequered and striped linens, and of the printed, painted, stained, and dyed goods, so exported; and, the exportation thereof being certified by the searcher upon the debenture, the collector of the duties upon such goods, in the place where such exportation was, shall pay the duties received to the persons or agents exporting the same; and, if such collector shall not have money in his hands, the commissioners shall pay the said debenture out of any duties upon chequered and striped linens, printed, painted, stained, and dyed goods; or, if the duty of the goods exported were only secured, the same shall be discharged.

XL. §. 97. The commissioners of the customs shall provide seals, with which the imported linens shall be marked, and the commissioners for the said duties shall provide seals (of another kind) for marking the said silks, &c. printed, &c. in Great Britain; and the officers are required in using the same to do no damage to the goods; and, if any person shall counterfeit any seal provided in pursuance of this act, or the impression of the same, to defraud her majesty of the duties, such person, being thereof convicted, shall be judged a felon without benefit of clergy; and, if any person shall sell any printed, &c. silks, &c. with a counterfeit stamp, knowing the same to be counterfeited, and with an intent to defraud her majesty, such offenders, their aiders, abettors, and assistants (being convicted) shall forfeit to her majesty 100l. and stand in the pillory two hours.

XLI. §. 98. Upon oath made by any credible persons, that they have reason to suspect that any printed, &c. silks, &c. are in the custody of any draper, or other person dealing therein, for sale, without having such marks as are required, it shall be lawful for the commissioners within the bills of mortality, or any two justices of peace in other parts of the kingdom, to issue their warrants, requiring any officer for the same duties (with the assistance of a constable or other officers of the peace) in the day time, to search for the same, and to open doors, chests, and package, and to seize such goods, and bring them to the office next the place where they shall be seized.

XLII. §. 99. All calicoes printed, painted, or stained, which shall be within one eighth of a yard of yard broad, or not exceeding one eighth of a yard of yard broad, shall pay as yard broad.

XLIII. Stat. 12 Ann. stat 2. cap. 9. §. 6. There shall be paid to her majesty upon all chequered and striped linens, and upon all linens printed, painted, stained, or dyed, after the manufacture, or in the thread and yarn before the manufacture, in any foreign parts (except buckrams, lawns, canvas, barras and Silesia neckcloths) which during 32 years shall be imported into Great-Britain, and may lawfully be used there (over and above all other duties) 15l. for every 100l. value, to be paid by the importers.

XLIV. §. 7. There shall be paid to her majesty upon all silks, calicoes, linens, and stuffs, which during 32 years shall be printed, stained, painted, or dyed in Great-Britain (such calicoes, linens, and stuffs, as shall be dyed throughout of one colour, and stuffs made of woollen, or whereof the greatest part in value shall be woollen, excepted) the duties herein after expressed (over and above all other duties) viz. upon all silks so printed, stained, or painted (silk handkerchiefs excepted) 6d. for every yard in length, reckoning half a yard for the breadth; and for all silk handkerchiefs so printed, &c. 1d. for every yard square; upon all calicoes so printed, stained, painted, or dyed, 3d. for every yard in length, one yard wide; and upon all linen and stuffs printed, stained, painted, or dyed in Great-Britain, 1d. $\frac{1}{2}$ for every yard in length, yard wide, as by 10 Ann. c. 19. The duties upon imported goods to be under the management of the commissioners of the customs.

These duties are made perpetual by 6 Geo. I. cap. 4. and great part of them are subscribed into the South-Sea stock, and the residue is mortgaged to the Bank, by 2 Geo. II. cap. 3.

XLV. §. 15. Every person that shall export any silks, calicoes, or linens, that are printed, painted, stained, or dyed, for which a drawback is to be allowed, shall give notice to the officer, appointed by the commissioners of the customs, when and where he will pack up the goods to be exported; and the commissioners of the customs are directed to cause such officer to see that the seals be taken off from every piece to be exported, and the officer shall take account of the kinds and quantities of the goods to be exported, and make a return thereof to the officer appointed to receive the same without fee.

XLVI. Stat. 12 Ann. stat. 2. cap. 19. Lawns, and striped or chequered linens, being all white, and neckcloths striped at the end only, and also barras and packing canvas or buckrams, were not intended to be charged by the act 10 Ann. cap. 19. upon importation, with the duties by the same act granted.

XLVII. Stat. 12 Ann. stat. 2. cap. 21. The exception in the act 7 Ann. cap 7. in relation to tapes or incles, shall extend to exempt European unwrought incle called short spinnal, as well as wrought incle, from the payment of the two third subsidies.

XLVIII. Stat. 1 Geo I. cap. 36. §. 21. All persons who shall print, paint, stain, or dye any silks, calicoes, linens, or stuffs, at any other place than the usual place of their residence or exercise of their trade, shall first make a particular entry thereof with the proper officer, and pay down the duties, on forfeiture of 50l. to be recovered as by the laws of excise or action of debt, &c. and such silks, &c. so printed, &c. without entry and payment of the duty, may be seized immediately by such officer; one moiety of such forfeitures to the crown, the other to the prosecutor or informer.

XLIX. Stat. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 38. It shall be lawful to import linseed without paying any duty.

L. §. 39. It shall be lawful to export all sorts of linen cloth of the manufacture of this kingdom, made of flax or hemp, free from all duties.

LI. Stat. 3 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 1. The act 3 and 4 Ann cap. 8. to permit the exportation of Irish linen cloth to the plantations, &c. so far as the same relates to the exportation of Irish linen cloths to the British plantations, shall continue in force so long as the merchants, &c. of Great-Britain are permitted to import into Ireland, free of duties, white and brown British linen cloth made in Great-Britain.

LII. §. 2. All linens made in Ireland, and imported into this kingdom, may be shipped off again for any of his majesty's plantations in America, without paying any duty.

LIII. Stat. 4 Geo. II. cap. 16. §. 1. All persons who shall feloniously steal, or hire any other feloniously to steal, out of any whitening or bleaching croft, or place made use of by any whitster, crofter, bowker, or bleacher, for whitening, bowking, bleaching, or drying any linen, fustian, or cotton cloth, or any thread, linen, or cotton yarn, tape, incle, filleting, laces or goods, exposed to be whitened, bowked, bleached, or dried, to the value of 10s. or who shall buy or receive any such goods, knowing the same to be stolen, shall be adjudged felons without benefit of clergy, unless the court shall think it reasonable that the party offending, instead of suffering death, should be transported to some of his majesty's plantations for seven years.

LIV. §. 2. If any person, ordered to be transported in pursuance of this act, shall refuse so to be, or shall break prison, escape, come on shore, or return into this realm, before the term expired, he shall, being convicted, suffer death.

REMARKS.

The following authentic papers being annexed to the report from the committee appointed to examine and state to the house of commons the matters of fact in the several petitions of the manufacturers of, and traders and dealers in, the LINEN MANUFACTORY; we have thought them useful, to give the reader an insight into the real state and progress of this manufacture in Ireland and Scotland.

PREMIUMS given by the linen-board of Ireland, for the encouragement of that manufactory.

LINEN-B O A R D.

The trustees of the linen manufacture are resolved to continue premiums on coarse linens, with some alterations suited to the present state of that growing manufacture.

They therefore propose to give to such person or persons as shall, after the 1st day of November next, manufacture, or cause to be manufactured, the greatest quantities of sound merchantable linen cloth, of the breadth of 26 inches or upwards, made of cleaned yarn, and not less in value than 6d. by the yard, being such as is fit for the use of the servants and negroes in the British colonies and plantations, and shall cause the same to be exported to Great-Britain, or to any other part of his majesty's dominion in Europe or America, on or before the 25th day of December in the year 1750, the following premiums, on the following conditions; provided that the quantities, so manufactured and exported, be not less than those which correspond to each premium, according to the following table:

	Sums.	No. of yards.
One premium - - -	1. 300	60,000
One premium - - -	250	50,000
One premium - - -	200	40,000
One premium - - -	150	30,000
Two premiums, each - -	100	20,000
Four premiums, each - -	50	10,000
Eight premiums, each - -	25	5,000
Ten premiums, each - -	20	4,000
Twenty premiums, each - -	10	2,000
Twenty premiums, each - -	5	1,000

C O N D I T I O N S.

I. All cloths for these premiums must be proved, upon oath, to have been made entirely of yarn spun in this kingdom, and,

and, all other things being equal, the preference shall be given to cloths, the yarn of which shall be spun from flax growing in this kingdom.

II. Strong well wrought cloths shall have a preference before a greater quantity of lighter, and not so well wrought cloths, provided that the lesser quantity of better cloths be sufficient to entitle the manufacturers to the premium applied for, according to the above table.

III. All cloths manufactured, in order to obtain any of the above premiums, shall be viewed, examined, and stamped, by an officer appointed by the board, publickly in the Linen-Hall in Dublin, or in some public place in the port towns from whence they are to be exported; and they shall be presented to the said officer, not lapped, but in folds.

IV. All persons who have large quantities of linen to be viewed, shall give 15 days notice to the trustees, or their secretary, of their intention to export any quantity of such linen, not less than 4000 yards, to the end that an officer may be sent to view, examine, and stamp the same, as aforesaid, at that port from whence such linens are to be exported, as aforesaid; and they who have smaller quantities must give the like notice, to the end that their cloths may be viewed, examined, and stamped, at the same time, otherwise they must bring their cloths to the Linen-Hall in Dublin.

V. Indented patterns shall be sent up to the secretary of the linen-board of each piece, and the full breadth of the cloth, marked and numbered in the piece and pattern alike, before any officer be sent to any port whatsoever, to view, examine, and stamp linens.

VI. No person shall be entitled to more than one premium on those coarse linens; and, therefore,

N. B. All candidates shall be strictly examined upon oath, as to their having really and bona fide manufactured, or caused to be manufactured, the linens by them entered and exported, as aforesaid; particularly, whether any other person be at all concerned or interested in the said cloths; and if, upon such examination, it shall appear, that the said cloths, or any part of them, were manufactured covertly, by or for the use of such person or persons as in their own, or in any other name, have applied for any other premium, all such persons, as well they to whom such cloths are found to belong, as they in whose names they are entered, shall be for that time absolutely incapable of any premium, although, before the discovery of such fraud, they may have appeared or be entitled to it.

VII. Any number of manufacturers, joined in fair partnership previous to the manufacturing these linens, are to be taken as one person.

VIII. Authentic certificates of the exportation must be produced from the collectors of the respective ports, at which the several cloths have been exported.

IX. No person is to be admitted a candidate for any of these premiums, who is under a contract with the linen-board, to make and export any quantity of those cloths, for which these premiums are designed.

All persons may be furnished with samples of cloths which are fit for the use of negroes, &c. at the Linen-Office in the castle of Dublin.

Dublin-Castle, the
7th of April, 1749.

Signed by order,

ARTHUR NEWBURGH.

L I N E N - B O A R D .

The trustees of the linen manufacture, to encourage the raising and manufacturing of flax, the produce of this kingdom, have agreed to give the following premiums, viz.

I. That all persons who shall, from the date hereof to the 1st of October, 1752, lodge, in the stores of the trustees of the linen manufacture, any quantity of scutched flax, not less than 800 weight, shall receive 10s. for every 100 of flax so lodged, provided the officers appointed by the trustees shall estimate the said flax to be worth not less than 35s. per 100, and provided the said person produce proper certificates, that he had, under the culture of flax, a quantity of ground, not less than two acres, and provided he makes oath, that the said flax is the produce of the land so certified, and that he has never received the premium for it.

II. That all persons who shall, from and to the time aforesaid, lodge in the stores any quantity not less than the weight aforesaid, shall receive 8s. for every 100 weight so lodged, provided the officers shall estimate the said flax to be worth not less than 30s. per 100, and provided the certificate and oath above-mentioned be also complied with.

III. That all persons who shall, from and to the time aforesaid, lodge, in the stores aforesaid, any quantity not less than the weight aforesaid, shall receive 6s. for every 100 so lodged, provided the officers shall estimate the said flax to be worth not less than 25s. per 100, and provided the certificate and oath above-mentioned be also complied with.

Note, It is required that the quantity of ground on which the flax grew, shall be certified by two credible persons in the neighbourhood, who have viewed the same whilst

the flax was growing thereon; and that the name of the townland, barony, and county, in which the said land lies, shall be specified in the certificate; which certificate shall be signed in the presence of some neighbouring justice of the peace.

That the owner of the flax shall make oath, before two neighbouring justices of the peace, that the said flax is his own property, and is the produce of the land certified and described as above; and that the land was in his own occupation at the time of sowing the flax.

That the person who delivers the flax at the stores shall make oath, that he received the same from the person who has made the above-mentioned oath.

N. B. Such persons who intend to apply for the above premiums, may be supplied with the proper form of the oath and certificate by addressing for the same to Arthur Newburgh, Esq; in the castle of Dublin.

Dublin-Castle, the
7th of April, 1749.

Signed by order,

ARTH. NEWBURGH.

L I N E N - B O A R D .

The trustees of the linen manufacture, finding the good effects of the premiums granted upon coarse linens, have resolved to extend them further: they therefore propose to give such persons as shall, after the 1st day of May next, manufacture, or cause to be manufactured, the greatest quantity of sound, strong, thick linen cloth, of both, or either of the kinds herein after described, made of high white flaxen yarn, without any mixture of tow-yarn, and thoroughly well bleached, and shall cause the same to be exported to Great-Britain, or any part of his majesty's dominions in Europe or America, between the 1st day of May aforesaid, and the 1st day of November, 1750, the following premiums, on the following conditions, provided that the quantities of each kind, so exported by the respective candidates, be not less than the number of yards corresponding to each premium in the following tables:

Premiums on coarse sheeting, which must be a cloth of 800, or upwards, and of the full breadth of 40 inches and an half, or upwards when bleached.

	Sums.	No. of yards.
One premium - - -	1. 300	30,000
One premium - - -	250	25,000
One premium - - -	200	20,000
Two premiums, each - - -	150	15,000
Two premiums, each - - -	100	10,000
Five premiums, each - - -	50	5,000

Premiums on finer sheeting, which must be a cloth of 1200, or upwards, and of the full breadth of one ell, or upwards, when bleached.

	Sums.	No. of yards.
One premium - - -	1. 300	18,000
One premium - - -	250	15,000
One premium - - -	200	12,000
Two premiums, each - - -	150	9,000
Two premiums, each - - -	100	6,000
Five premiums, each - - -	50	3,000

C O N D I T I O N S .

I. All cloths entered and exported, in order to entitle the persons entering and exporting to any of the above premiums, must be thoroughly bleached, without using rubbing-boards or rubbing-milns: and, to this and every other point that shall be thought necessary, the respective candidates shall be examined strictly upon oath.

II. All cloths, as aforesaid, must be brought to the Linen-Hall in Dublin (not lapped, but in the folds) to be there viewed, examined, and stamped, by an officer appointed by the trustees for that purpose; and this view, examination, and stamping, shall be public in the Linen-Hall.

III. All thin, ill woven, or ill bleached goods, and all that shall be found deficient in breadth, or to have the least mixture of tow-yarn, shall be absolutely rejected.

IV. Thick, strong, close, well wrought cloths, shall entitle the candidate to a premium preferably to a greater quantity of cloth, less thick and strong, and not so well woven, provided the smaller quantity of better cloth be such as intitles the candidate to the premium applied for, according to the above tables.

V. The same person may entitle himself to one premium on the coarser sheeting, and to another on the finer: but no person shall be qualified to demand or receive more than one premium on a manufacture of the same kind: and therefore

N. B. All candidates shall be strictly examined upon oath, as to their having, really and bona fide, manufactured, or caused to be manufactured, the linens by them entered and exported, as above, particularly whether any other person be at all concerned or interested in the said cloths; and if, upon examination, it shall appear that the said cloths, or any part of them, were manufactured covertly, by or for the use of such person or persons, as in

in their own or any other name have applied for any other premium, all such persons, as well they to whom such cloths are found to belong, as they in whose names they are entered, shall be, for that time, absolutely incapable of any premium, although, before the discovery of such fraud, they may have appeared entitled to it.

VI. Any number of manufacturers joined in fair partnership previous to the manufacturing these linens, are to be taken as one person.

VII. It is expected that all candidates shall mark, in the weaving, the hundreds and beares in each piece.

VIII. Authentic certificates of the exportation must be produced from the collectors of the respective ports, at which the several cloths have been exported. Such persons as intend to apply for any of the above premiums, may be furnished at the Linen-Office, in the castle of Dublin, with samples of the several sorts of cloths which are fit for sheeting of either kind, and for which sorts only the above premiums are intended.

Dublin-Castle, the
7th of April, 1749.

Signed by order,
ARTH. NEWBURGH.

An account of the quantity and duty of statutable and unstatutable linen-yarn, exported out of Ireland to Great-Britain, for twenty years, ending the 25th of March, 1750, each year distinguished.

	Linen-yarn.						Duty.		
	Statutable.			Unstatutable.					
1731	13,734	3	28	11	0	8	3,439	5	7
1732	15,309	1	22	34	0	24	3,844	9	2
1733	13,339	0	3	18	2	18	3,344	1	7 ¹ / ₂
1734	18,101	0	19	21	0	10	4,535	16	7 ¹ / ₂
1735	15,181	1	28	19	1	22	3,980	1	9
1736	14,695	1	5	48	2	8	3,698	2	1 ¹ / ₂
1737	14,680	3	5	14	3	6	3,677	11	11 ¹ / ₂
1738	15,944	2	3	1	1	0	3,986	15	1 ¹ / ₂
1739	18,182	2	16	17	3	0	4,554	10	8
1740	18,519	0	4	23	3	4	4,641	13	0
1741	21,640	0	2	16	3	12	5,418	8	7
1742	16,329	2	28	00	3	24	4,082	18	2
1743	14,130	2	13	38	2	27	3,552	0	3 ¹ / ₂
1744	17,816	0	17	194	3	14	4,551	9	4 ¹ / ₂
1745	21,687	0	3	379	1	22	5,611	9	5 ¹ / ₂
1746	27,624	0	12	117	3	8	6,964	18	8
1747	28,900	2	22	09	3	28	7,230	3	3
1748	19,399	0	14	18	3	16	4,859	4	5
1749	21,579	2	23	114	1	27	5,452	3	2 ¹ / ₂
1750	22,231	1	20	141	2	15	5,628	13	4

The value chargeable by the Book of Rates is, 5l. for statutable, and 10l. a hundred for unstatutable, at 120lb. to the hundred weight.

The ports from whence linen-yarn is chiefly exported, are, Londonderry, Belfast, Newry, Drogheda, and, in a less degree, Dublin, Dundalk, and Colerain.—The port to which such yarn is exported is Liverpool.

The 5l. per cent. is by the act of customs, anno 1661.—The additional 5l. per cent. by an act of 2 George I. 1717. T. Lill. Ex^t. Cust.

An account of the nett quantities of cotton-wool imported into Great-Britain for seven years, after a deduction of the quantities exported; drawn from the accounts produced before the committee.

	Pounds weight.	
1743	1,100,841 } Imported.	
	31,447 }	
	1,132,288	
	40,870 } Exported.	
	1,091,418	
1744	1,280,804 } Imported.	
	602,069 }	
	1,882,873	
	182,765 } Exported.	
	1,700,108	
1745	954,137 } Imported.	
	515,386 }	
	1,469,523	
	73,172 } Exported.	
	1,396,351	

Which, on a medium of these three years, amounts to 1,372,624l. per annum.

	Pounds weight.	
1746	729,525 } Imported.	
	1,535,283 }	
	2,264,808	
	73,279 } Exported.	
	2,191,529	
1747	841,781 } Imported.	
	1,383,088 }	
	2,224,869	
	29,438 } Exported.	
	2,195,431	
1748	3,145,250 } Imported.	
	1,707,716 }	
	4,852,966	
	291,717 } Exported.	
	4,561,249	
1749	1,493,300 } Imported.	
	165,065 }	
	1,658,365	
	330,998 } Exported.	
	1,327,367	

Which, on a medium of these last four years, amounts to 2,568,894l. per annum.

The report for the year 1734.

It cannot escape your majesty's observation, that the increase in the number of yards is not in this last year so considerable as in the former: but then your trustees apprehend, that is, in a great measure, to be imputed to a very large exportation of linen-yarn, which bears hard upon the weavers: but as, according to your trustees information, 40 or 50,000l. worth of the yarn, so carried from this part of the kingdom, is brought into England, and employed in the manufactures that are carried on there, they cannot suffer themselves to think of any expedient for preventing it, especially since the demand for their yarn increases the spinning, though it is some mortification to them, that parcels of their yarn are bought up, and exported beyond the seas.

Report for 1736.

The chief cause of the decrease they impute to the great export of their linen-yarn to Manchester, and other parts of the north of England, to be wrought up with cottons there; which they can hardly complain of, because it encourages their spinning, and is a benefit to the united kingdom, by preventing the purchasing of linen-yarn from abroad.

Report for 1738.

One, and indeed the principal cause why the making of linen-cloth for sale is not more rapidly extended, is, that very great quantities of linen-yarn are bought up every year in Scotland, to be wrought up with cotton, and other ways in England, which produces a scarcity of the very materials out of which linen is made in this country; inasmuch that the quantity of yarn, which was usually purchased in Scotland for about 2s. 4d. two or three years ago, cannot be now bought under 2s. 7d. or 2s. 8d. and this proves so great a drawback on the manufacture of cloth in this country, that, did not the benefit of it redound to the other part of this your majesty's kingdom, your trustees would find themselves under a necessity of applying to your majesty for a remedy, by act of parliament, to this inconveniency. But, as the finding yarn fit for their purpose in this part of the island, may be a convenience to your majesty's subjects in the other, and as the demand for yarn from hence must tend to propagate spinning here, your trustees have laid aside all thought of asking for any such remedy.

Another cause why the manufacturing yarn into linen does not make such progress as were to be wished, is, that great quantities of yarn, especially of the finer sort, are converted into thread for foreign, as well as for our own markets: and, as the thread manufacture of this country gains considerable reputation, your trustees humbly think it ought rather to be promoted than discouraged.

It being therefore, in your trustees apprehension, improper to attempt to remove any of those causes which drain our mercats of yarn, and raise the price of it, whereby the working up larger quantities of linen is prevented, the only thing remains for them to do, is, to try to increase the quantity of yarn, so as, if possible, to answer all demands, by encouraging the spinning of flax, where that art is least known, and consequently most neglected.

Royal Sign Manual.

GEORGE R.

Trusty and well-beloved, we greet you well. Having taken under our royal consideration your report made to us last Christmas, and the proposition therein contained of publishing and establishing for three years, from the said Christmas, a plan for distributing the monies applicable to improvements, in manner following, viz.

Item, For premiums, after the rate of 15s. per acre, for 2000 acres of ground to be sown with lint-seed and hemp-seed, according to rules and conditions to be established	1500	0	0
For a salary to a foreign-flax raiser, at 30l. per annum	30	0	0
For defraying the maintenance of four young men, instructing to raise and break flax, at Mr. Hope of Rankeiller's lint-mill	50	0	0
For salaries to 12 young men instructed, or to be instructed in raising flax, to be stationed in different parts of the country, at 7l. 10s. per annum	90	0	0
For erecting two heckleries, for heckling flax, at 20l. per annum each	40	0	0
For instructing four young men in the art of heckling, at 4l. per annum each	16	0	0
For purchasing four sets of heckles, to be given to these young men when instructed, at 6l. 10s. each set	26	0	0
For a salary to a person skilled in the raising, dressing, and heckling of flax, for surveying and examining the raisers, dressers, and hecklers, at the places where they shall be stationed	60	0	0
For encouraging spinning-schools, for teaching the spinning of flax	46	0	0
For prizes to those that shall spin the best yarn	50	0	0
For encouraging four Dutch weavers, to perfect journeymen-weavers, at 40l. per annum each	160	0	0
For purchasing Dutch looms, with complete tackle, to be given to such journeymen completed	190	0	0
For salaries to 55 lappers and stamp-masters, at 10l. per annum each	550	0	0
For prizes to be given at such stations as the trustees shall appoint, to such persons as shall work the best webs of coarse linen-cloth, of the qualities and sizes by the trustees to be limited	212	0	0
For salaries to two general riding-officers, at 125l. per annum each	250	0	0
For a salary to a skilful person, who shall visit the several manufacturing counties, and there instruct the stamp-masters, as well as the weavers, in the best method of washing, sorting, slaying, and weaving of their yarn	130	0	0
For a salary to the warehouse-keeper of the cambric	100	0	0
For defraying the expence of carrying on prosecutions against such as transgress the laws concerning the linen and hempen manufactures	100	0	0
For procuring models of the best looms, and other instruments, for improving the linen and hempen manufactures	50	0	0

Making, in the whole, for the linen and hempen manufacture 3650 0 0

We are graciously pleased to approve of your purpose of publishing the aforesaid plan for distribution of the monies intended for improvements, to continue and endure for three years from Christmas last: and we are also graciously pleased to approve of the propositions aforesaid, for employing 1205 l. part of the savings in your cashier's hands: and do hereby authorize and empower you to issue your precepts to your cashier, to pay, out of the monies in his hands, the several sums above-mentioned, to the several uses and purposes aforesaid: and this, together with your precepts to follow there-

upon, and the receipts of the persons to whom the precepts shall severally be made payable, shall be to you, and your cashier, a sufficient authority and exoneration. And we do further will and direct, that, in your next annual report, you do lay before us a particular account of the monies that shall be so issued by you for these services. Severally given at our court at St. James's the 12th day of May, 1740, in the 13th year of our reign.

By his MAJESTY's Command.

So signed, R. WALPOLE,

GEO. DODDINGTON,

SUNDON.

Prices of raw linen-yarn in Germany, as imported by De Ponthieu and Egerton, for twelve years last past, exclusive of charges and duty here.

1739.	6lb. a bundle, at 10d.	1/2 alb.
7	ditto	9
8	ditto	8
9	ditto	7
1740.	6	ditto
7	ditto	9
8	ditto	8
9	ditto	7
1741.	6	ditto
7	ditto	9
8	ditto	8
9	ditto	7
1742.	6	ditto
7	ditto	9
8	ditto	8
9	ditto	7
1743.	6	ditto
7	ditto	9
8	ditto	8
9	ditto	7
1744.	6	ditto
7	ditto	11
8	ditto	10
9	ditto	9
1745.	6	ditto
7	ditto	11
8	ditto	10
9	ditto	9
1746.	6	ditto
7	ditto	10
8	ditto	9
9	ditto	8
1747.	6	ditto
7	ditto	11
8	ditto	10
9	ditto	9
1748.	6	ditto
7	ditto	11
8	ditto	10
9	ditto	9
1749.	6	ditto
7	ditto	11
8	ditto	10
9	ditto	9
1750.	6	ditto
7	ditto	11
8	ditto	10
9	ditto	9

The duty upon yarn here, from 1739 to 1747, was 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per pound weight: and, from 1748 to 1750, 2d. $\frac{2}{3}$, besides charges and freight, which, on coarse linen-yarn, comes to near $\frac{1}{4}$ per pound.

Irish premiums, as published in the Daily Gazetteer of Tuesday, February 25, 1746.

I R E L A N D.

A bounty of 1d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per yard being granted by the British parliament on all British or Irish linens, made of flax or hemp of the value of 6d. per yard, and not exceeding 12d. per yard, that shall be exported out of Great-Britain to the plantations, &c.—The Linen Board have agreed to give the following premiums, viz.

1st. 500l. To such person or persons as shall manufacture, or cause to be manufactured, the greatest quantity

tity of sound merchantable linen-cloth, of 26 inches breadth, or upwards, made of cleaned yarn, not less in value than 6 d. per yard, nor more than 10 d. being such as is fit for the use of the servants and negroes in the British colonies and plantations; and shall cause the same to be exported to Great-Britain between the 1st of May, 1746, and the 1st of May, 1747, provided the quantity so exported be not less than 50,000 yards.

- 2d. 400l. On the like conditions, to such as have not obtained the first premium, and to export not less than 40,000 yards.
- 3d. 300l. On the like conditions, to such as have not obtained the first or second premiums, and to export not less than 30,000 yards.
- 4th. 200l. To such as have not obtained the first, second, or third premiums, and to export not less than 20,000 yards.
- 5th. 100l. To such as have not obtained the first, second, third, and fourth premiums, and to export not less than 10,000 yards.

For exporting 150,000 yards is 2d. $\frac{4}{5}$ of a penny each yard, over-and-above 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per yard, given by the English parliament.

N. B. The Irish give all utensils for the linen manufactory, as looms, reeds, hatchels, wheels, reels, and salaries to a foreman and a whistler, besides seed to sow hemp and flax.

Dublin Castle, March 7, 1745.

The trustees of the linen manufacture of Ireland give notice, that they will give considerable encouragement to such flax-dressers (to be approved of by the trustees) as shall come from any parts beyond the seas, into, and settle and carry on their trade in that kingdom. Proposals to be addressed to Arthur Newburgh, Esq; at the castle of Dublin.

Signed by order,

ARTHUR NEWBURGH.

Premiums given by the Linen-Board of Ireland, for manufacturing, or causing to be manufactured, great quantities of coarse linen, between the 1st of May, 1747, and the 1st of August, 1748, fit for the use of servants and negroes in the British colonies and plantations.

	Yards.	l.
Messieurs Jebb, who manufactured	275,643	500
Mr. William Lefanu	253,606	400
Mr. Ellis Price	135,011	300
Mr. Lewis Laurent	71,504	200
Mr. John Pemberton	53,882	100
Mr. Thomas Reed	37,475	50
Mr. Jonah Tanner	31,604	50
Mr. Daniel Dickenson	19,236	25
Mr. William Willan	11,165	25
Mr. John Starkey	9,271	25
Mr. Henry Dempsey	3,777	20
Mr. Thomas Gamble	2,146	20
Mr. John Crofs	1,902	10
Mr. George Holmes	1,538	10
Mr. Richard Dillon	869	5
Mr. John Newett	621	5

1745

Extracted from the Gentleman and Citizen's Almanac, for the year 1751.

Premiums on coarse Linens, for the year ending the 1st of November, 1749, were paid by the Linen-Board to the following persons, viz.

Mr. Richard Jebb, who caused to be manufactured and exported the greatest quantity, viz.	Yards.	l.
Mr. William Lefanu	208,873	500
Mr. Ellis Price	186,345	400
Mr. Lewis Laurent	142,140	300
Mr. Abraham Cheborn	62,406	200
Messieurs Jonathan Tanner and John Starkey each 50l.	37,817	100
Richard Difton, Thomas Gamble, Dan. Dickinson, George Holmes, each 25l.		100
Thomas Read, Henry Dempsey, John Newett, Benjamin Robertson, Frank Taylor, each 20l.		100
John Duff, Samuel Greenwood, George Booth, John Pemberton, Richard Bryington, James White, Jonathan Newett, John Holmes, Andrew Hartford, each 10l.		90

Jonathan Tanner of Bandon, who distinguished himself as a useful manufacturer in that part of the kingdom, had an additional premium of ———— 40

In all 1,930

The other premiums promised by the Linen-Board were not due in October 1750.

REMARKS on the LINEN MANUFACTURE in general.

From the state of the case of the linen manufacture, as before given, the necessity of it's utmost advancement manifestly appears; and that not only amply to supply ourselves and our plantations, but to put ourselves in a condition to participate in the supply of foreign countries. And what weighty and conclusive objections can be made against the probability of so doing? Is not Great-Britain, in conjunction with Ireland, and the aid of her plantations, as capable of supplying themselves with all flaxes and hempen linens, as France heretofore was to supply themselves with the woollen manufactures? Do we not labour under far less difficulties and discouragements in the one respect, than that nation did in the other? If we are once arrived to the pitch of being able fully to furnish ourselves, what hinders that we cannot exclude the wear of foreign linens, as France has that of foreign woollen goods? There was a time, when it might, perhaps, be our interest, in some degree, to import foreign linen; it was so when those foreign linen countries took an equal value, or more, of our woollen, or any other manufactures, than we did of their linens: but no one, I believe, will undertake to demonstrate that the case is so at present.

On the contrary, the balance of trade is greatly in our disfavour with the foreign linen countries in general; and, before the evil further increases, is it not prudential to think of a remedy? When disadvantages of this kind grow to a certain height, they frequently become irremediable, without coming to an open rupture with such foreign countries wherewith we are so circumstanced: but, if we are wise enough gradually to decline purchasing of their produce and manufacture, in the like proportion as they do ours, we shall not only save the national treasure, but preserve peace and tranquillity with those very nations.—And, when this general manufacture shall be brought to a height sufficient to supply ourselves and plantations with a commodity as cheap and good in quality as foreign linens, what hinders but we may cast about for foreign markets for the vent of our linens, as the French have done for their woollens? But, if we never put ourselves into a condition of supplying ourselves, how can we ever expect to have any share in the supply of other nations?

Should it be said, as has been, that the ineffectuality of the late cambric act shews the improbability, if not the impossibility of preventing the smuggling importation of foreign linens, and, therefore, it is in vain to attempt the advancement of our linen trade.—That the resemblance between cambrics and other fine linens, both foreign and British, is such, that very few, and those only of the greatest experience, can pretend to distinguish them.—That, this distinction being principally grounded on circumstances capable of being easily varied or disguised, such as length, breadth, bleach, dress, and package, the most experienced dealer cannot determine with any degree of certainty, because he can never be sure that he sees the goods in their original or customary form: and upon this principle it is, that the most skilful give up all remnants and washed linens, as utterly undistinguishable.—Whence it follows, say these objectors to the prohibition of foreign linens, that it can never be made to affect the wearer thereof; and, if so, it may from experience in other instances be concluded, that no penalties will be found sufficient to deter the seller, though it should be much easier to detect and convict him than from the nature of the thing is possible.—Should this, and much more, be urged in the like strain, ought this to discourage us from attempting to go greater lengths in this lucrative manufacture? Does not the successful example of France in the woollen manufacture shew the experimental invalidity of all arguments of this kind?

In relation to the resemblance between foreign linens imported into this kingdom of the favoured nations, and that whose linens are intended to be excluded, it is to be feared that the latter can never be effected without the former is so too; and since our British and Irish linens do, in many respects, nearly resemble the foreign linens at present, and are so daily improving, that no doubt can be made of their arriving at the like degree of perfection, if due encouragement is not wanting among ourselves: since this is the case, our own linens can never take general place in the kingdom, till all foreign linens whatever are absolutely excluded, because those of the favoured foreign nations cover, conceal, and increase the smuggling of the other. To lay the axe to the root of the evil, therefore, what expedient can be more natural and effectual than to prevent the importation of either, as we become capable to supply ourselves? These were the measures which the French successfully took with regard to the establishment of their woollen manufactory; for, when they ceased to take

take the English woollen goods, Holland attempted to supply them, but they were resolute, and excluded all foreign woollen manufacture, and contented themselves with the wear of their own, though very coarse and indifferent at their first attempt, rather than not gain the victory in trade which they so wisely aimed at.

If this, on impartial examination, should be found the best policy that Great-Britain and Ireland can pursue, in order to the successful establishment of the linen manufacture in general, what can be a more natural introduction to this desirable end, than to take off the drawback upon foreign linens, and to encourage the production of flax and hemp in our own plantations to the utmost? And, when once these general manufactories, by our own consumption and that of our plantations, are brought to a pitch of perfection no way inferior to those of the foreign linen countries, have we not as good chance to partake of the supply of such foreign nations as want them, as the French had in the woollen manufactory? Cannot the British and Irish linen manufactures imitate the lengths, breadths, bleach, drefs, and package of foreign linens, as well as the French did with respect to the English woollen goods? See the article FRANCE.

If then, upon the whole, it shall appear to be right commercial policy to advance our linen manufactories to their full extent, upon those principles which we have humbly suggested, can it be wrong policy to use every endeavour to prevent the importation of French cambrics, which swept away 200,000 l. a year of our ready * cash? If the end has not hitherto been so effectually answered as could be wished by every true friend to his country, is it prudential to slacken in our endeavours? Does it not more become the wisdom of the nation to try every expedient, 'till the great end shall be answered, than to give up a point of such national importance? Can any thing be insuperable to the superlative wisdom and resolution of a British parliament? The unspeakable advantage which Scotland and Ireland have already received from the linen manufacture, should fill every Briton with the warmest zeal for it's utmost encouragement in these kingdoms.—What immortal honour is deservedly due to the great earl of Strafford, who first introduced the linen manufacture into Ireland, by sowing great quantities of flax-seed, and setting up several looms at his own expence, to invite the Irish to follow that trade, without prejudice to England, which has proved, and is, at this day, their greatest benefit and support†? Is there not infinitely more glory in being the founder of a manufacture which has given bread to millions, than to have been the greatest conqueror upon earth? See SCOTLAND and IRELAND, and the several other articles before referred to under this.

- While the French, at the beginning of the war, in 1742, were secretly assisting the Spaniards, before hostilities commenced between the English and French, alderman Janßen most zealously endeavoured to put the nation upon distressing the latter, by preventing the importation of their cambrics.—Among other measures taken by this gentleman, he was, as I am informed, at the expence of inserting, for several months together, in the Daily Advertiser, which contributed not a little to open the eyes of the kingdom, 'That two hundred thousand pounds sterling, paid annually to France for it's CAMBRICS, amount (from the time of the peace of Utrecht) to above SIX MILLIONS.'—To this the author thereof subjoined the following very natural query,—'Whether our having furnished the French with so immense a sum may not have greatly forwarded their destructive schemes, and partly have been the occasion of this expensive war, which we, consequently, are the less able (by the above-mentioned sum of six millions) to carry on, &c.'—Though the judicious efforts of this worthy gentleman have not hitherto answered the national expectation, yet it may prove a good step towards it, if measures adequate to the evil are taken by the parliament.—If one expedient will not do, should we ever cease trying 'till we fall upon what will?

Though this gentleman's good intentions to serve his country, in this respect, have not hitherto so effectually answered as could be wished, yet many of his endeavours have been successful.—He attacked smuggling in general, and particularly that of teas and French brandies, as being the chief basis of this detestable practice. He published several judicious pieces on this occasion, and particularly a PLAN for reducing the excise on teas; which being afterwards adopted by the honourable House of Commons, an act passed in 1745, which took place at Midsummer the same year; whereby the excise upon tea was reduced from 4s. to 2s. per pound, to prevent smuggling: by which wise measure the revenue was immediately doubled, and has continued to encrease ever since.—See our article TEA. In consequence of the eyes of the nation being opened, an act passed in the year 1743-4 for prohibiting the wear of FRENCH CAMBRICS, which not proving effectual, several other acts passed afterwards to enforce this prohibition, which at length, had the desired effect; insomuch that at this day 1764, the manufacture of cambric in FRANCE is almost entirely broke up; and the ladies here wear nothing but plain flowered, and striped MUSLINS, from the EAST-INDIES, with GAUSES, BLONDS, &c. &c. of BRITISH FABRIC. He was elected member of parliament for the city of London in the year 1747; and this worthy representative has also been success-

ful in various other of his public-spirited attempts. At the breaking out of the late war, a memorial was drawn up, in order for it's being presented to the duke of Newcastle, setting forth reasons for the packets being continued between Dover and Calais; which memorial was begun to be signed by some merchants. Of this the alderman getting early intelligence, he drew up a counter memorial to his grace, to which, in three days time, he obtained the signature of near 300 of the principal merchants of the city of London. This had so good an effect, that the injurious correspondence by that channel was interrupted during the whole war.—Mr. Janßen was likewise principally concerned at a most critical point of time (that of the rebellion 1745) in that capital measure for preserving the public credit of the kingdom, by obtaining a subscription of the principal merchants and traders of the city of London, to take bank-notes in payment; for which the alderman had the thanks of his late royal highness the prince of Wales, together with his picture, and those likewise of the then prime minister.—He first set on foot, at a great expence, the revival of the herring fishery in these kingdoms, in the year 1750, by which 20,000 persons, at one time, have been employed in it's different branches; and it is to be hoped, that it will prove as inexhaustible a mine of treasure to Britain as it has done to a neighbouring nation.—These things I mention in honour to this meritorious gentleman, not only to the end that such virtues may never be forgot, but to inspire others with the like public spirited principles; for, the more examples we have of this kind, the more will our commercial prosperity be advanced.—This is my only motive, having never exchanged a single expression with that gentleman in my life.

† See the earl of Strafford's Letters and Dispatches, &c.—By the Rev. Mr. Knowler.—Dedication to the earl of Malton.

L I N T, in regard to the linen manufacture. This manufactory can never arrive in England, Scotland, and Ireland, to that perfection it has done in foreign countries, unless every part of the whole operation, from the raising the flax to the completion of the intire manufacture, be vigilantly attended to.—The best flax-dresser [see FLAX] when he does his utmost, cannot finish of the best lint (for bad and unripe lint, or lint not fully watered, or spoiled in the watering, will not bear the expence of dressing, and is indeed not worth dressing, nor ought it to be dressed) above 12 pounds weight in a day; and a well contrived lint-mill will dress, at the rate of every hand employed in it, 16 pounds in a day. The cheapest that good lint can be dressed by the hand, is at least one third more than it costs by the mill.—A farmer where our linen manufactures are established, and who is in the practice of summer-fallowing his ground, cannot, perhaps, do a thing more for his advantage than to send in an able-bodied young man to be bred to the Flanders way of flax-dressing, and to sow annually an acre or more, of the richest fallow ground with lint, to keep this servant constantly employed in managing and dressing it; if his farm lies within a few miles of a lint-mill, he may raise as much flax as can be dressed by this servant, and the help of the mill, and send it, from time to time, to the market in small parcels for sale, so soon as it is ready for the first heckle.

There must be at every such lint-mill, besides the boys that attend the breaking and the scutching of the mill, at least two or three skilful flax-dressers, to finish the flax by the hand, and to pull and draw it in, in which they are careful never to put the root and seed-end together, as is too often done, through inadvertency, in Scotland and Ireland, but keep it always carefully in the same way it grew, to the very last operation, whether it be heckled or dressed for spinning by brushes, as the fine lint is; and, in spinning, the thread is always drawn from the root-end, and not by the bucht from the middle, according to the practice of some ordinary spinners. There is a lint-mill in Scotland, upon the water of Eden, a little above Cowpar in Fife, which is said to be brought to the greatest perfection, and is a compleat pattern to be followed by all who intend to erect lint-mills, and to follow this useful and beneficial trade.—At the same mill the proprietor carries on another branch also, viz. the keeping heckles and skilful hecklers, for dressing the lint for spinning.

R E M A R K S.

The woollen manufacture of England never came to it's perfection 'till the business of the woollstapler came to be a trade; and it must be the same with the linen.—Here is a fine branch of business for any gentleman who has the conveniency of water for erecting a lint-mill; he may either raise lint himself, or buy it in the boon from others, and dress it by his mill for the heckle; he may have his heckles in a convenient house near to it, for dressing and stapling the lint by proper heckles, into fine dressed flax, fine dressed tow, common tow, backings and beards, for the service of the country spinners.

L I T H U A N I A, the great duchy, in Poland. This large country has Greater Poland and Prussia on the west; part of Muscovy on the east; Livonia, the Baltic Sea, and part of Muscovy, on the north; Red Russia, Volhinia, and Podolia, on the south; and the Ukrain on the south-east. It's chief rivers are the Borysthenes, or Nieper, Dwina, and Niemen.

The air is generally thick and foggy, because of it's many woods and lakes; that it is not near so fruitful as Poland, yet has plenty of wax, honey, mead, pitch, tar, and timber, and abounds with black cattle, sheep, ermins, fables, and all manner of furs. But their greatest trade of export is to Holland, &c. with their pitch, tar, and timber, for which they receive woollen cloth, salt, and wines.

VILNA, the capital of a palatinate so called, is a large populous town, with a good trade, but chiefly carried on by foreigners, the natives being poor and lazy.

GRODNO stands partly on a hill, by the river Niemen. Some reckon it the metropolis of Lithuania. The houses are generally of wood and very mean; but it has a good trade, the merchandizes of several parts of Lithuania being transported from hence to Dantzic.

KOWNO, near the influx of the river Niemen into the Wilna, is a well-built town, and much frequented by German merchants.

MOHILOW, seated on the Nieper, is a large, well-built, and populous city: it's market is much frequented by the Muscovites, who transmit their furs from hence into Poland and Germany.

LIVES [ANNUITIES upon LIVES.] Under the article **LEASES** we were obliged to enter into the doctrine of annuities upon lives, which are computed upon the principles of the learned Dr. Halley and Mr. Abraham De Moivre, and tables formed therefrom by Mr. Richards, applicable to great variety of cases. But, since the time that these great men wrote, there have been other ingenious gentlemen, who have entered into the rationale of their principles, and have made such objections thereto that deserve attention; for, when the intelligent reader has the substance impartially laid before him that has been urged on all sides, he will be the better able to discern where the truth lies. This I shall do with all the brevity and perspicuity that I can. See the article **ANNUITIES**. The principal gentleman that dissented from those eminent mathematicians, with any sort of reputation, is Weyman Lee, Esq;—‘I am sensible, says this ingenious author, that a man ought to go on good grounds when he presumes to attack calculations made by so great a master of those things as Dr. Halley, &c.’—With much more in the gentleman-like strain, which becomes all men of science. ‘The chief exception, continues he, which I take to the doctor's table, is, that, where the value of an annuity for a life in one period of it is computed with the value of an annuity for a life in another period of it, the term to which such value in one period is equal, does not vary by a proportional degree of decrease from the term to which such value in another period is equal.—In consequence whereof, the chance of the duration of the annuity does not sink by the same degrees as the chance of vitality decreases: nor does the value of the annuity itself, could it be considered even abstractedly from the dependent life, decrease, from one period of life to another, in a just proportion.

The meaning hereof will best appear by the following tables. An example, however, may be useful.—An annuity for the life of a person between the age of 15 and 20, is in value 13—33, which is equal to a term of 26—2—61; and an annuity for the life of a person between the age of 20 and 25, is in value 12—78, which is equal to a term of 25—0—00 according to the doctor's table; and, if we deduct 12—78 out of 13—33, the remainder will be 00—55, and this is the decrease in the value; and, if we deduct 25—0—00 out of 27—2—61, the remainder will be 2—2—61, and this is the difference in the term in those two periods.

This will be more obvious if expressed thus: a person of the age between 15 and 20 has a chance to live 27 years, 2 quarters and 61 days; and one of the age between 20 and 25 has a chance to live 25 years; that is, less than a person of the precedent age 2 years, 2 quarters, and 61 days: this is what is called the difference of the term of years from one period of life to another: and, since the decrease in value will always correspond to the difference in the term, the value of the annuity in the second period is less than that in the first period by 00—15 in decimals, which is equal to a term of 2—2—61 in reversion, after a term of 25—0—00.—So that the doctor's table does not preserve a just proportion in this instance; that is, such a proportion as can be justified by any bills of mortality, or be accounted for by any **FACTS** that ever happen in nature.

To shew this defect the clearer, I have inserted the doctor's table in No. III. following; and, since the same exception lies against Mr. Hayes's, Mr. Richards's, and Mr. Morris's tables for the value of annuities on a life, I have inserted a part of them likewise, in the tables No. IV, V, and VI; and to each of them I have added three calculations of my own: the first column of which contains an account of the term of years, and parts of a year, to which every life is equal, as it corresponds to the value on the tables respectively: the second gives the several differences in the term of years, and the third the decreases in the value of the annuity, from one period of life to another, as they come out on the several tables respectively.—In my own table, No. II. I have inserted solely the term to which a life is equal, because the value of the annuity will

VOL. II.

of course attend on, and be equal to the term; and to this a third column is added, which gives this difference in the term according to such tables, and the decrease in the value will be in the very same proportion: from whence, and by an inspection into the several tables, and a comparison of them together, we may discern which of them best preserves that proportional difference in the term and decrease in the value which ought to be observed in this case.

Since then these tables are all of them more or less defective in this material point, I shall confine my reflections solely to Dr. Halley's tables, though my reasoning in general is applicable to all of them equally.

The particular periods of life, which are defective in this respect, are 20 and 40: in the first of which the difference in the term is much too great, and in the latter too small. In the first column of this table, which contains the ages of persons, we have 20, which is the period including the lives from 20 to 25; and against it, in the fourth column, which gives the difference between the term in that period, and the term in the preceding, we find the difference to be 2—2—61: and, in the same fourth column, we see the difference for the preceding period to be 00—2—30, and that of the subsequent one to be 2—0—46: and this difference 2—2—61, compared with such the precedent and subsequent difference, is such a proportion as cannot be maintained by any bills of mortality, at least any that ever I saw, or by any reason in the nature of the thing.

If we consult the modern bills of mortality for London, where the ages of persons dying are distinguished in periods from 10 years to 10 years; and, in the extract added in the following tables, it appears that the number of persons dying in the period between 20 and 30 is less than the number dying between 30 and 40; and, if we should suppose, of those dying between 20 and 30, one half were of the age between 20 and 25, and the other half between 25 and 30, which is a more favourable supposition than there are just grounds to make, yet, since the difference in the intermediate period, viz. between 20 and 25, ought to bear a proportion to the precedent and subsequent one, it should therefore be something greater than the precedent, and something less than the subsequent one: whereas, in this intermediate period, the difference is 2—0—31 more than in the precedent one, which is an extravagant decrease; and it is also more than the subsequent one by 00—2—15, when the subsequent difference, if there were any variation, ought undoubtedly to be the greater, for that fewer persons, out of an equal number, die between 20 and 25, than between 25 and 30; and if we should suppose, as before, that the number of persons dying of the age between 20 and 25, and between 25 and 30, was the same; yet the number co-existing in the first of the two periods must be greater than in the second, and, consequently, the chance of mortality in the latter period must be greater than in the former, the same number dying out of a less number living: and, therefore, the difference in the latter ought to be greater.

At the time, indeed, when the doctor composed this table, the bills of mortality for London were not published with the distinction of the ages of the several persons dying, so that these bills could be no guide to him. But then the Breslaw table was before him when he wrote; and if this be the standard, whereby to try this table for the value of annuities for life, my objection of the want of a proportionable difference in the term and decrease in the value is stronger upon an inspection into that table, than in any other light whatever. If then we consult the Breslaw table, which we have inserted among the following, it will appear that the number of persons dying in a year between 15 and 20 is 30, the number between 20 and 25 is 31, and between 25 and 30 is 36. Upon which it may be observed, though the number co-existing in the first of these periods is greater than that in the second; yet that the number dying in the first is less than the number in the second, and the same observation holds good in comparing the second with the third period: whence it follows, that the difference in the term ought to be in proportion correspondent, or, in other words, such difference in the term ought to bear a proportion answering to the increase in the chance of mortality: and, if the Breslaw table be a rule for the increase of the chance of mortality, it must be a rule for the difference in the term, and yet, for this difference in the term, we see that the proper proportion is directly contradicted, or unpreserved.

Many have a notion, that the age of 30 is the best age on which to have an annuity depending, for that those under this age are exposed to more casualties than those arrived to some maturity of age and discretion; and, therefore, that the chance of vitality in the younger part of life is more uncertain than at the age of 30, or thereabouts. But Dr. Halley discovered no such thing in the bills of mortality for Breslaw, nor can any one discover it in the Breslaw tables, which he formed from thence; for there the number of persons dying in the period from 10 to 20 is 63, from 20 to 30 is 67, and from 30 to 40 is 86. If we look into the modern bills of mortality for London, and my extract from thence, there we find the case to be the same in the main, though not in the same proportion, and that the number of those dying in

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the older period of life greatly exceeds the number in the younger: and the account there stands thus. Out of every 1000 persons dying, there die of the age between 10 and 20, 30; of the age between 20 and 30, 72: and, of the age between 30 and 40, 93: and from hence it appears evidently, that this notion of the best age of life is not a just one.

But, if there was a better foundation for the notion than there appears to be, and if there was room for a latitude in the calculation of the chances of mortality for the age between 10 and 30, this can avail nothing in the age of 40 or thereabouts; and yet in the period of 40 we have an improper proportion in the difference of the term, for that it is too small, when compared with the difference in the periods on both sides of it. In this instance, indeed, the deviation is not great; but, if any difference were made, it should have been greater in this than in the precedent, and less than in the subsequent period; that is, it should grow greater and greater gradually, as the age of life advances: whereas the difference is less in this period, than in the periods on either side. And, since all that has been urged against the want of proportion by an over-difference, is equally applicable to this case of an under-difference; I shall only add, that I believe no bills of mortality whatever or any thing in nature do, and that I am very sure the bills of mortality for Breslaw or for London do not, warrant the one or the other.

These are the single articles in this table which are most exceptionable; but, in truth, this defect goes through the whole performance, which I will shew by an instance that demonstrates the defect. The doctor, on the bills of mortality for Breslaw, observes, and I believe all mankind will agree it to be true in the rest of the world as well as there, that, out of a certain number of persons in the decline of life, more die in a year, or any determinate number of years, than those do out of an equal number of persons in the youth and vigour of life: and he has himself given us the Breslaw table, as a scheme of the increase of mortality, according to the advance in age. Now, if the chance of mortality increases, and the chance of vitality decreases, in proportion to the advance in age; and, if the value of an annuity for a life, or the number of years to which a life is equal, which differs in nothing but the manner of expression, does depend on the chance of the vitality of the life, and on nothing else, as most certainly it does, it evidently follows, that the value of an annuity for a life, or the number of years to which a life is equal, must decrease faster, and by greater degrees in the older than in the younger stages of life, and in the same proportion as the chance of vitality decreases.

Let us see now how this difference or decrease in the term will stand, if we put together the whole of the decreases for the four periods of younger life, of middle life, and of the oldest life. The whole then for the first set is a term of 7—1—46, for the second 7—0—15, and for the third 7—1—00: which, we see, is directly contrary to the rule laid down, and almost inverts the proportion. If we would know what is the right and just proportion to be observed, and might depend on the Breslaw tables as giving us such proportion, and this author's table for the value of annuities was framed from those tables; on a computation from thence, the case, as between the persons of the youngest and the oldest period of life, stands thus. The number of persons co-existing above the age of 10, and under 30, which contains the four periods of younger life, consisting of 20 years, is in all 11875; and the number of persons dying out of them in one year is 130; that is, one in 91, or thereabouts. The number of persons existing above the age of 55, and under 75, which contains the four periods of older life, consisting likewise of 20 years, in all 3726; and the number of persons dying out of them is 204, that is one in 18, or thereabouts. The proportion here then is plainly five to one: that is, of an equal number of persons of each stage of life, the number of the older stage of life dying a year will be five, and of the younger stage one only: or, if one person only be nominated of each stage of life, the chance of mortality on the side of the person of the older stage of life against the person of the younger stage is five to one.

Whether this proportion of the increase of mortality, as it arises from a computation on the Breslaw table, be a just one, I neither affirm nor deny; but, be it right or wrong, this author's table for the value of annuities for a life was framed from thence; and, therefore, the difference or decrease in the term, from one period of life to another, and between the periods of younger and elder life, should bear such a proportion to one another on the table for the value of annuities, as the increase of the chance of vitality in one period of life bears to that increase in another period, according to the Breslaw table: and I may appeal to the doctor's own calculation, whether the decreases given in one table are conformable to the decreases in the other table, or are agreeable to any rule, which arises from the nature of the life of man.

I might rest the matter here; but since it may be urged, although the proportional decrease contended for is not pre-

served, when we compare it, as we have hitherto done, with the scheme of the difference of the term; yet if we compare it with a scheme of the decrease of the value, and the table of annuities is framed by a computation from the value and not from the term, there possibly the proper proportion may be well enough preserved. For this reason I made the calculation inserted in the fifth column of the table No. III. which contains an account of the decrease of the value of an annuity from one period of life to another, computed by the values only; and we find the very same defects here as we had before, and in the very same instances: and, indeed, it must of necessity so come out, since the value and the term do always reciprocally correspond.

The single periods of life which we found fault with, according to the scheme in the terms, were 20 and 40; and in these two articles the same error occurs upon this scheme as we met with on the former. On the period 20 we objected, that the decrease, when compared with the precedent and subsequent one, was too great; and here the several decreases of these three periods being, as stated decimally, 11,55,51, it appears plainly on the face of them that the middle one, viz. that for the period 20, is greater than the precedent one by a difference much too large, and also greater than the subsequent one, when undoubtedly it ought to be something less. And as for the period 40, to avoid repetitions, I would refer you to the scheme itself; an inspection into which does plainly enough discover the defect; for the decrease in that period is less than in either of those on each side, and therefore cannot possibly be in a proper proportion to both of them.

These, indeed, are not very great mistakes, or however, by a small variation might be rectified; but, if they were set right, yet the grand error will still remain, viz. want of proportion through the whole scheme. The decrease in the four first stages of life is, indeed, in value, computed by way of decimals, 1—7; and in the latter stages is 3—91; notwithstanding which, in reality, there is no great difference in these two decreases, and what difference there is lies on the wrong side, viz. on the side of 1—72, that being the greater decrease of the two. To say that 1—72 value in decimals, is something greater than 3—91 value in decimals, seems to be a paradox, and, if said of them simply and singly taken, is manifestly a contradiction: but then they may be so placed with reference to something else, or may be considered as part of, or taken out of, something else in such a manner, as that the first shall be a value greater than the second. For instance, 1, simply taken and by itself is certainly not so much as 2 so taken, but 1 considered as part of 10, or as drawn out of 10, is something greater than 2, considered as part of 40, or as drawn out of 40; for the one is a tenth, and the other a twentieth part only of the thing to which it stands related: and that this is the case here will appear from hence.

A term for 90 years, interest computed at 6 per cent. is in value 16—58; and the proportion inverted is a true one; 16—58 in value is equal to a term of 90 years: now, if out of 16—58 we draw 41 decimals, the remainder will be 16—17, and 16—17 is equal to a term of 60 years, and no more; so that a subtraction of 41 decimals only lessens the term here 30 years. A term for 21 years, at the same rate of interest, is in value 11—76; and, if we draw out of this 41 decimals, the remainder will be 11—35, and 11—35 is equal to a term of 12—2—30: so that the subtraction of 41 decimals out of the shorter term lessens that term only one year and an half, or little more; whereas a subtraction of 41 decimals out of the longer term lessens that term 30 years. From hence it is plainly seen, that one and the same value in decimals, drawn out of a greater given value in decimals, and out of the longer term to which such given value is equal, lessens the term out of which it is subtracted in a much greater degree, than the same value in decimals, drawn out of a less given value in decimals, and out of the shorter term to which such given value is equal, lessens the term out of which that is subtracted. Therefore it may be true, that 1—72 value in decimals, though not half so great a value as 3—91, drawn out of one value, shall lessen the term out of which it is subtracted as much, or more, than 3—91 value in decimals, though more than double the value of the other, drawn out of another value, shall lessen the term out of which that is subtracted.

If we examine out of what these two values 1—72, and 3—91, are respectively drawn, it appears that 1—72 is drawn out of the value 13—44, which is equal to a term of 28—1—00; that is, out of the greater given value, and the longer term corresponding: and 3—91 is drawn out of the value 9—21, which is equal to a term of 13—3—30, that is, out of the less given value and the shorter term corresponding. If we proceed in the computation, and apply this, it stands thus. The value 1—72, subtracted from 13—44, leaves a value 11—72: the value 11—72 is equal to a term of 20—3—45: a term of 20—3—45 subtracted from a term of 28—1—00 leaves a term of 7—1—46; and this is the decrease in the term for the four periods of younger life. The value 3—91, subtracted from 9—27, leaves a value

lue 5—30; the value 5—30 is equal to a term of 6—2—30; a term of 6—2—30, subtracted from a term of 13—3—30, leaves a term of 7—1—00; and this is the decrease in the term for the four periods of older life. Therefore, upon the whole, whether the decrease here be taken immediately from the term, or be computed from the value, and so to the term, this decrease in the term comes out to be one and the same; that is, the decrease of the term in the stages of younger life is greater than in the stages of older life: and, consequently, the gradual decrease of the chance of vitality, in proportion to the increase of age, is not preserved: which was the thing to be demonstrated, and I think is fully done. Again:

By Dr. Halley's table for the value of annuities for lives, the life of a person aged 10 is equal to a term of 28—1—00; the life of the same person, when aged 30, is equal to a term of 20—3—45: the difference between these two terms is evidently 7—1—46: that is, in 20 years time the life of this person, whilst in the younger periods of life, is decreased or grown less in computation a term of 7—1—46. The life of this person, when aged 30, is equal, as noted before, to a term of 20—3—45: the life of the same person, when aged 50, is equal to a term of 13—3—30; the difference between these two terms is 7—0—15; that is, in these 20 years time the life of this person, in these middle periods of life, is impaired or grown less, upon an estimate, a term of 7—0—15. The life of this person, when aged 50, is equal, as noted before, to a term 13—3—30; the life of the same person, when aged 70, is equal to a term of 6—2—30; the difference between these two terms is 7—1—00; that is, in 20 years time in the oldest periods of life, the life of this person is grown worse and diminished, upon the chance, a term of 7—1—00: so that the difference or decreases in the term will stand thus; for the 20 years in youngest life 7—1—46, for the 20 years in middle life 7—0—15, and in the oldest of all 7—1—00.

Now, since this table for the value of annuities is constructed on the foundation of the table of mortality for Breslaw, it ought to agree with, and be conformable to that table, or there is a defect in the structure; but, on looking into this latter table, it appears that the number of persons dying in the first period, that is, between 10 and 31, is 138; in the second period, between 30 and 51, the number is 196; and in the last period, between 50 and 71, the number is 215; and yet the number of persons co-existing is greater in the younger than in the older period of life, and gradually decreases as age increases: from whence it is plainly seen in this calculation, as well as in the former, that the table of annuities has no sort of conformity with the table of mortality, though the one be built, in the main, on the foundation of the other. And, as this want of conformity between these two tables, in a proportionable decrease, runs through the whole, so I cannot forbear observing the foul error that it makes in one particular instance, such as most certainly overthrows the justice of this table for annuities, and of the rule too by which it was framed.

The value of an annuity for a life of 10 years of age is by this table 13—44, which is equal to a term of 28—1—00: and the value of an annuity for a life of 70 is 5—32, which is equal to a term of six years and two thirds. If we consult the Breslaw table, the even chance of the duration of the life of 10 years of age is 41 years and over, and the chance of the duration of the life of 70 is six years, and about two-thirds of a year. Now, that an annuity for the life of a person aged 10 years should be in value 13—44, that is, should be equal only to a term of 28—1—00, when his life, on the even chance, is equal only to six years and two thirds: I say, that the chance of the duration of the annuity in one case should fall short of the chance of the duration of the life, and so much as thirteen years; and in the other case, that the chance of the duration of the annuity and of the life should be so near an equality, or the very same, has something in it so much of the absurd, that I cannot reconcile it to my understanding. And yet, if we compute the value of an annuity for a life of 80, and make use of the rule which the doctor prescribes and made use of in framing his table for such value, we shall discover something still more extraordinary, viz. that an annuity for such a life will be in value 3—84, which is equal to a term of four years and an half, when on the Breslaw table, the even chance of the duration of such a life is not full four years; which I think is so palpable a contradiction to common sense, that nothing can maintain the rule by which it was produced.

A second objection lies against Mr. Hayes's and Mr. Richards's tables, viz. that, being computed for the several rates of 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent. they give us such a value of an annuity for a life, as that one and the same life is equal to different terms for each rate of interest. There is no room for this defect in Dr. Halley's or Mr. Morris's tables, they being computed for a single rate of interest only; but, in truth, the objection does lie against the doctor's rule for forming these tables; for that any table drawn by this rule, and for more rates of interest than one, will have the same defect. This appears plainly enough by Mr. Richards's tables, which were constructed by this rule; and that this of necessity must be

the case in all tables for variety of interests drawn by the rule, will appear, when I come to speak to the rule itself.

As to Mr. Hayes's and Mr. Richards's tables, that these two tables for every rate of interest gives us such a value of an annuity for a life, as does in fact make one and the same life equal to a different term of years, and what that variance is on each of them, may be best and most plainly seen by the short schemes in tables No. VII. and No. VIII. The first of these gives us the value of an annuity for a life of 30 years of age, and the term to which such value is equal at the several rates of interest, as stated by Mr. Hayes himself; and it is marvellous to me how he could make the computation, and not see the absurdity of the supposition on which it must be grounded: and the other gives the value of an annuity for a life of 12 years of age, at the like several rates of interest, as stated by Mr. Richards, and the term to which such value is equal, as I compute the same.

Now I say, that the values stated in these two tables, thus corresponding to, and producing a different term of years to which one and the same life is equal, according to the several rates of interest at which the calculation are made, undoubtedly are, and necessarily must be wrong for that reason, because they produce such different terms. This being the case on both these tables, and since Mr. Hayes has not acquainted us what rule he made use of in forming his table, and Mr. Richards informs us that he built on Dr. Halley's hypothesis, and it is evident he did so: and, since one and the same defect goes through both tables, I shall apply myself chiefly to Mr. Richards's table, and the rule by which that was constructed: only I take notice here, that my observations on one of them, in most instances, and especially in that which I have before-mentioned, will equally affect and be applicable to the other, whatever was the rule by which it was framed.

I suppose no one will controvert those points: that he who has an annuity for the life of a person, has an annuity for such a term of years as such a person in fact shall live; and when he buys it, the term of years to which any person's life shall be prolonged being uncertain, that he buys it for such a time as there is a chance or reasonable probability that the person may live whose life is nominated: and I am sure it is possible, that five several annuities, at the five several rates of interest in these tables, may be granted on one and the same life, as well as on different ones. To say then, that in case of one annuity there is a chance or probability that the person on whose life the annuity depends may live for 30 years, or near it; in case of a second annuity, that he may live for 29 years, or thereabouts; and on a third, on a fourth, and on a fifth annuity, or each of them, that he can, and probably may, live for a different term of years, IS RIDICULOUS AND ABSURD TO THE LAST DEGREE*.

* Nor does the learned Mr. Lee stand alone in judgment upon this occasion; the ingenious Mr. Hardy, who very lately wrote a tract, entitled, *A complete System of Interest and Annuities*; founded upon new, easy, and rational principles, &c. says in his preface, 'That having occasion, some years ago, to compute the value of annuities on lives, I had recourse to the rules delivered by Dr. Halley and Mr. De Moivre; when observing, that the purchaseable term to be paid for, or the probable time that the same person should live, was made to depend upon, and varied according to the RATE OF INTEREST, which, having no connection with the probability of living, put me upon considering those purchases in an intire new light, and upon considering to find easy and universal rules for approximating their values.'—What this gentleman's rules are, and the foundation of them, we cannot enter into under this head, but refer what he and the judicious Mr. Simpson have said upon this occasion, to the article MORTALITY [BILLS of MORTALITY], and such other articles to which we have referred.

And, if we take a particular instance, and suppose two annuities only, at the two different rates of 4 and 8 l. per cent. to be granted to two distinct persons on the life of one and the same nominee; to say, with regard to the annuitant who purchases at 8 per cent. that the nominee, on whose life the annuity depends, may or has an even chance to die in 25 years; but, with regard to the annuitant who purchases at 4 per cent. that the same individual person may probably live, or has a chance to live 30 years, is a flat contradiction; and is, in effect, to assert, either that one of the annuities will continue after the nominee is dead on whose life it depends, or that the other will cease whilst the nominee is living for whose life it is to continue; when the annuities must both determine at one and the same time, on the death of the nominee.

Now, if Mr. Richards's tables were the result of Dr. Halley's observations, and were calculated by the method preferred by him, or by Mr. De Moivre, as I believe they were; yet if the error I have mentioned proceeds from the foundation or the method, as most certainly it does, I apprehend it will prove, that the one or the other of them is wrong, much more strongly, than the foundation or the method will prove that the calculations are right, notwithstanding the great authority of the inventors of them: and, therefore, since

the operations upon them have produced such absurd effects, I don't see they are of any significance, except to have demonstrated that the instructions are wrong. I must confess I do not know any method, and very much question whether there be any, to adjust the value of an annuity for a life, but by computing for what term there is a chance or probability such life shall continue; and, when that is done, the common tables, which give us the value of any term of years at a stated interest, give us at the same time the value of an annuity for the life sought after at that rate of interest. But, since Dr. Halley has found out and published another rule for this purpose, we will consider it.

The rule then which he prescribes, and which he and Mr. Richards made use of, to form these their tables for the value of annuities on a single life, is grounded on the Breslaw table, and some propositions deduced from thence. The Breslaw table exhibits the whole number of people supposed to be living in that city at a certain time, and the supposed current age of them all, from the birth to the age of 84: and at present I will suppose, though I do by no means grant, that this table gives a true account of the persons living there, and their several ages. To ascertain the different degrees of vitality in all ages of life, this author advances this proposition: 'If the number of persons of any age remaining after one year, be divided by the difference between that and the number of the age proposed, it shows the odds that there is, that a person of that age does not die in one year. For instance, a person of 25 years of age has the odds of 560 to 7, or 80 to 1, that he does not die in a year: because that of 567 living, of 25 years of age, there do die no more than 7 in a year, leaving 560 of 26 years old.'

Here I have given the author's proposition and instance in his own words; but, if I may beg leave to express my meaning of them in my way, which, perhaps, may tend to explain and illustrate them, I should say: That the number of persons living of any age proposed was the number of chances belonging to a person of that age; that the number of persons living of any subsequent age, suppose at one year's, at ten years, or at twenty years distance, was the number of chances with him, or the number of chances that he had to live to such subsequent age; and that the difference between the number of persons living of the age proposed, and the number of persons living of the subsequent age, that is, the number of persons dying in that time was the number of chances against him, as the chances that he would die within that time, or before he arrived at such subsequent age.—In the instance here given, a person of the age of 25 has 567 chances, so many persons being living of that age; of the age of 26, which is the next year, there are 560 persons living, and within the compass of that year, there have died seven persons, so that, on the life of a person of 25, there are 560 chances with him that he lives to the end of one year, so many being living at the end of that year, and there are seven chances against him that he dies within that time, so many being dead in that time.—This method, if pursued, gives the chances for him and against him in like manner, for any other subsequent year. For instance; the number of persons living of the said age of 25 is 567, the number of persons living at ten years end, or of the age of 35, is 490; the difference between these two numbers, or the number of persons dying in that time, is 77; therefore the chances with him, or the chances that the person lives to ten years end, are 490; and the chances against him, or the chances that he dies within that time, are 77.

I have here avoided the use of the word odds, because it is an equivocal term, and may mean the odds in the number of chances, or the odds in the value of these chances; and instead thereof I make use of the expression, chances with him, or chances against him, and shall do so hereafter. And, I am afraid, we shall find that the doctor, or Mr. de Moivre, or both, in the computation of the value of annuities for lives, have, in some instances, brought to account more chances of vitality on lives than belong to them; in other instances, have inserted such chances as do not and cannot belong to them; and in some cases have assigned wrong values to right chances: and, where any of these mistakes are committed, all the algebra in the universe will never prove that the sum total of the values arising on such computations will be the true value of the annuities enquired after.

The doctor having deduced his proposition from the Breslaw table, and asserted, that the valuation of annuities for lives depends on it; and having laid it down for a maxim, that a purchaser of an annuity on a life ought to pay for such parts only of the value of the annuity as he has chances that his nominee is living, which is undoubtedly true; and having told us how the present value of a sum of money, payable at any future time, and at any rate of interest, may be known: and given us a scheme for that purpose, at the rate of 6 per cent. interest; he assumes, from the foregoing proposition, 'That, as the number of persons living after a year, or after any number of years, are to the number of persons dead within that time, so are the number of chances with him to the number of chances against him, that the per-

son nominated is then living:' in consequence of which, the rule for ascertaining the value of an annuity for a given life will be this: 'As a number of persons living of an age proposed is to the number living after one year, or after any number of years; so the present value of the sum payable at the end of one year, or at the end of the given number of years, is to the sum which ought to be paid for the chance which the person has to enjoy his annuity for that one year, or the given number of years.' And, in the conclusion he adds: 'If this operation be repeated for every year of the person's life, that the sum of all the present values of these chances is the true value of an annuity for such person's life:' and that by this rule he framed the table he gives us, which is for the value of annuities on a single life at 6 per cent. interest.

I will not positively say, that the author, in forming his table, did not himself observe his own rule, because he says he used some compendia in forming it; and in seeking a shorter way he might possibly miss the right way.—The rule, in short, is this: we are, in the first place, to compute what is the value of an annuity for one year of the life, beginning at the age of the person nominated, looking upon it is an absolute annuity for one year, allowing out of it a value proportionate to the chance of mortality arising in that year, and this is done by the first part of the rule: and then we are to proceed in the same manner for every year of such nominee's life; and it is asserted, that all these values, put together, are the value of the annuity on such a life. But then the latter part of the rule, where it directs that this operation must be repeated for every year of the nominee's life, does not expressly say for what number of years this computation must be made: but I cannot find out that it is capable of any other meaning than one of these two; either that it must be made for so many years as the nominee has an even chance to live, or for so many years as he has any chance at all, or a possibility to live. However, let the computation be made, in which way of the two he pleases, it produces a value different from what this table gives; one of them a value much under, and the other a value little over, the value exhibited in the table, and this is the case in more instances than one.

The value exhibited in the table for an annuity on a life of ten years old, interest computed at 6 per cent. is 13—44; and, if an annuity be granted for 10,000l. per ann. suppose on the life of A of ten years old, the total value of it will be 130: 400l. To show that this is not the true value of such an annuity, even on a computation made according to the rule here laid down, I have made a calculation pursuant to that rule, for every year of such a person's life, from the age of his life when nominated, that is, from ten years old, to the extremity of old age, that is, to 100 years old, and have set it forth in table No. IX. following. In this table, and in the second column, we have the present value of such an annuity, payable at the end of each year for 90 years on an absolute term, transcribed from this author; and, in the sixth and last column, we have the present value of such an annuity, payable at the end of each year for 90 years, on the chance of mortality on the life of a person of ten years of age, formed exactly, I think, by the rule given. And, because the chance of mortality is calculated by the Breslaw table, I have inserted that likewise in table No. X. with an additional computation for 16 years, from the age eighty-four to the age of an hundred, omitted in the former table.

R E M A R K S.

We have judged it necessary to enter so far into this delicate subject, and the objections made to the long embraced hypothesis of the learned Dr. Halley, and the foundation built thereupon by Mr. De Moivre and others (for the objections against the latter are not less weighty than those against the former, though we have not room fully to consider them here) in order to shew the reader, who is desirous to go to the root of this matter, that the works of the learned Weyman Lee, Esq; are well deserving his attentive perusal.—There have, indeed, been some objections made to Mr. Lee's essay, but whoever compares them candidly and impartially with the reply that he has made to them, will hardly think, I am at present inclined to believe, that the fundamentals of his reasoning are at all invalidated. However, those who may still be of opinion, that what Dr. Halley, Mr. De Moivre, and Mr. Richards have said, will stand the test, will find the substance thereof in this work, under the articles ANNUITIES and LEASES; and the chief objections that have been made against them, under the articles LIVES, and MORTALITY [BILLS of MORTALITY.]

For the reader's further satisfaction, the following is the connected substance that Mr. Lee endeavours to prove, in opposition to Dr. Halley, Mr. De Moivre, Mr. Richards, and others, on LEASES and LIFE-ANNUITIES.

P A R T I.

That there is no sure rule extant before his for valuing leases.—The method of valuing leases for lives by much the most erroneous

erroneous.—A variety in the value of these estates, arises from the difference of the land-tax, and in the quantity and quality of the buildings on them.—To ascertain the value of leases, that they be reduced to annuities free from all reprises, and that money be computed at 1 per cent. above the legal rate.—To do this, the rent, and all payments certain, to be deducted.—As also the land-tax, repairs, and incidental charges.—The author of a treatise called, *The Value of Church and College Leases* considered, charges these articles to the lessee's account.—His reason for this assertion invalid.—His insinuations that leaseholders, in purchasing and renewing their estates, make 6 per cent. of their money, not true.—Of the great difference between the value of lands of inheritance and leaseholds, in the purchase, on any variation of the interest of money.—A rise in the purchase of lands, of no service to owners of leases, or of fee-simple lands, any farther than they have power to sell their estates.—The reverend author, in stating his case, kept a reserve of some money, to raise his tenant's fine for renewing; and therein acted cunningly, but not very fairly.—This fund will do very little, if any thing, more than raise the fine, and make the income of each purchaser the same.—If interest of money sinks, and fines are raised, the income of the leaseholder must sink in proportion to both of them.—The true state of the comparison between the purchasers of one estate and the other, is, What is the natural produce of each, and how it will arise?—If the land-tax, repairs, and incidental charges, are to come out of the lessee's estate; the owner, though the interest of his money reserved comes in aid, will have only 3l. 10s. per cent. for his money.—Mr. Richards, in his treatise on this subject, admits a tenant to be considered for the two last articles; but not for the land-tax, for a reason very singular.—The author contends, that he ought to be considered on all the articles.—This assertion proved, from the case given by the reverend author, otherwise such a purchaser will not have 3 per cent. for his money so laid out.—The same proved from the reason and the justice of the thing.—The way to adjust the quantum of the land-tax for a term, stated at 10 per cent. per ann. at a medium.—The same on repairs, and stated at the same sum in common cases.—On this article, many exceptions to be made out of the general rule.—On houses in particular, 20 per cent. might be little enough.—The common method, in case of houses, viz. to compute the money laid out at a higher rate of interest, not a safe one, and compared with the author's in an instance.—The article for charges and accidental losses the author divides into two; one for managing the estate, the other for assuring it, and paying the rent in all events; and states each at 5 per cent.—The deductions, the same as supposed by the reverend author, to be going out of a fee-simple estate, viz. 30 per cent.—Instead of these two allowances of 5 per cent, Mr. Richards, in stating the value of leases, computes the tenant's annuity at one rate of interest, and the outgoings in rent at another.—The method not right; the reasons why not, and the absurd consequences shewn.—The objections of no weight, that tenants, especially in public leases, covenant to pay their rents free from taxes and reprises.—Money, laid out in these estate, to be computed at 6 per cent.—That a purchaser, so valuing his money, will make 6 per cent. a vulgar error.—Shown, how money laid out in such purchases is to be reimbursed, and computed what part is to arise from the surplusage of the rents, what from the simple, and what from the compound interest of such surplusage.—This computation demonstrates, that the lessee is not to be charged with the land-tax, &c.—Though these estates are reduced to absolute annuities, yet not so valuable as such.—The author's method of computing the fine to be paid on renewals.—This compared with the common one, and a new one by Mr. Richards, and the difference shewn by instances.—A particular absurdity following from Mr. Richards's method.—Where one year's rent only may be a just fine for renewing seven.—Mr. Richards states the fine on such renewal higher than his own rule admits.—He professes here to have no consideration of the land tax; and yet in some cases, in effect, he does, or must consider it.—The author doubts the truth of the fact alledged, that the laity, in renewing 7 years, generally take $2\frac{1}{2}$ years value.—The reason for raising fines above the old price of one year's value, considered; with observations on *Æcroid's* tables.—The censure of tenants as imposing on landlords in their fines, and landlords as submitting to them, not well grounded.—Where churchmen and colleges can't get fines to the value of their estates, the remedy proposed, by letting the leases expired, considered, and the success of it doubted.—Such a procedure not an act of prudence, and a law to oblige them to it unreasonable.—That they are not obliged to do it, either as a point of duty or justice to their successors, as the law now stands.—Churchmen and colleges, now and then, to sink a fine and augment the small livings in their gift; a better project for promoting the interest of the Church of England and the universities, than taking their estates into their own hands.—What influence the decrease in the value of money, and the increase in the price of the

necessaries of life, have in this matter, considered.—Of the nature and use of the tables for purchasing annuities or leases, for years, or in renewing them.

P A R T II.

To estimate the chance of the duration of a life, and to ascertain the value of leases and annuities for life, &c.—Leases for life, as well as for years, must be reduced to absolute annuities.—The necessity of making such computation, to put a right value on such interests.—The author's table exhibits the term to which any single life, therein mentioned, is equal.—Dr. Halley's table, for the value of annuities for a life, which were constructed by a different rule, not a right one.—The author's exception to it, viz. that it does not preserve a proper decrease in the value of an annuity, or in the terms to which such value is equal, from one period of life to another.—The same exception lies against Mr. Hayes's, Mr. Richards's, and Mr. Morris's tables, for the like annuities.—The author confines himself to Dr. Halley's table, and shows the defect in two remarkable instances, quoad the decrease in the term.—The age of 30 not the best age of life whereon to have an annuity, occasionally shown.—This defect goes through the whole table.—This shown to be the case in the decrease of the value of the annuity, as well as in the term, in single instances, and through the whole table.—The table, in this particular, in no sort conformable to the Breslaw table, though said to be constructed from thence.—Objections to Mr. Hayes's and Mr. Richards's tables, that the value of the annuities there given is such, that one and the same life is equal to a different term as the RATE OF INTEREST varies.—Dr. Halley's rule for valuing these annuities considered.—The value of an annuity for a life of 10 years of age, given in his table, not the true value, as it arises on a calculation made by this rule, and the calculus set forth.—That the value of such an annuity, where rightly computed by the rule, is not the true one, proved by positions of the doctor's.—The falsity of the rule shown from hence, for that it produces such sums as cannot be the value of such annuities, proved by instances.—Shown wherein the error of the rule lies.—These proofs destroy the foundations of Dr. Halley's and Mr. De Moivre's rule.—The chance of the duration of a life, the sole measure of the value of the annuity depending thereon.—The author's method of forming his tables of the chances of vitality.—This table drawn chiefly from the bills of mortality of London.—Observations on a treatise, called, *A true Estimate of the Value of Leasehold Estates*; in which a life of 30 years of age is stated as the best, and equal only to a term of 14 years, and other lives in proportion.—Observations on the bills of mortality for London; also on a certain society known to the author, and on the nominees in the government annuities on survivorship.

P A R T III.

To estimate the chance of the duration of two or more lives, and to ascertain the value of annuities and leases for such lives, &c.—This the most difficult part of the work, and most weakly performed by all writers on this subject.—The method of computing the value of these annuities prescribed by the author, to whose tables Sir Isaac Newton's name is prefixed, a very bad one.—Mr. Hayes's method worse than the former.—Mr. Morris's the same with Mr. De Moivre's, and considered with it.—Mr. Richards's tables, formed by Mr. de Moivre's rule, do not give the true value of these annuities.—These tables wrong, because his tables for the value of annuities for a single life are wrong.—A case stated by the author, which shews these tables to be false throughout.—Mr. de Moivre's rule for valuing these annuities considered, and shown to be false.—The doctor's, and Mr. de Moivre's method, for ascertaining the value of annuities for two or for three lives and the survivor, not the same.—The doctor's hypothesis, for adjusting the chance of the duration of two lives, not right, shown by lines and figures.—The error of this hypothesis, and Mr. De Moivre's method, shown by Mr. Richards's tables constructed from thence.—Mr. Richards's tables for the value of annuities for three lives, proved erroneous.—That the term, to which the value of annuities for one or more lives is equal, should vary as the RATE OF INTEREST varies, which is a necessary consequence of the hypothesis, greatly absurd.—Mr. De Moivre's rule for valuing these annuities shown to be false.—That his rule does not agree with the doctor's rule for calculating the value of annuities either for two or three lives.—The author's rule for valuing annuities for two or more lives, by computing the chance of the duration of the given lives.—Compared with Mr. De Moivre's rule.—The justice of the author's method shown, and proved from Dr. Halley's own way of reasoning.—A comparison of the chance of the duration of two or three lives, where the computation is made in Dr. Halley's or Mr. De Moivre's method, and when in the author's.—The author's tables.

TABLE I.

Shewing the value of annuities for the term, and at the interest in the table, in years, quarters, and days, and the centesimal parts of a year, corresponding to the quarters and days.

Term of years.	3 per cent.			C.P.	4 per cent.			C.P.	5 per cent.			C.P.	6 per cent.			C.P.	7 per cent.			C.P.	8 per cent.			C.P.	Term of years.
	Y.	Q.	D.		Y.	Q.	D.		Y.	Q.	D.		Y.	Q.	D.		Y.	Q.	D.		Y.	Q.	D.		
1	—	3	80	97	—	3	77	96	—	3	69	95	—	3	69	94	—	3	60	93	—	3	62	92	1
2	01	3	58	91	01	3	47	88	01	3	40	86	01	3	29	83	01	3	22	81	01	3	11	78	2
3	02	3	29	83	02	3	11	78	02	2	80	72	02	2	62	67	02	2	44	62	02	2	29	58	3
4	03	2	77	71	03	2	44	62	03	2	14	54	03	1	77	46	03	1	51	39	03	1	22	31	4
5	04	2	29	58	04	1	69	44	04	1	29	33	04	0	77	21	04	0	36	10	03	3	87	09	5
6	05	1	62	42	05	0	84	23	05	0	25	07	04	3	62	92	04	3	07	77	04	2	44	02	6
7	06	0	87	24	05	3	87	99	05	3	14	79	05	2	29	58	05	1	51	39	05	0	77	21	7
8	07	0	11	03	06	2	80	72	06	1	77	46	06	0	77	21	05	3	80	97	05	3	—	75	8
9	07	3	22	81	07	1	62	42	07	0	40	11	06	3	18	80	06	2	03	51	06	1	—	25	9
10	08	2	22	56	08	0	35	10	07	2	80	71	07	1	40	36	07	0	07	02	06	2	77	71	10
11	09	1	14	29	08	3	—	75	08	1	22	31	07	3	47	88	07	2	—	50	07	0	51	14	11
12	09	3	87	99	09	1	44	37	08	3	44	87	08	1	47	38	07	3	69	94	07	2	14	54	12
13	10	2	62	67	09	3	80	97	09	3	51	39	08	3	36	85	08	1	40	36	07	3	55	90	13
14	11	1	29	33	10	2	18	55	09	3	51	89	09	1	14	29	08	2	87	74	08	0	87	24	14
15	11	3	80	97	11	0	36	10	10	1	47	38	09	2	77	71	09	0	40	11	08	2	22	56	15
16	12	2	33	59	11	2	51	64	10	3	33	84	10	0	36	10	09	1	73	45	08	3	36	85	16
17	13	0	69	19	12	0	55	15	11	1	07	27	10	1	80	47	09	3	03	76	09	0	44	12	17
18	13	3	11	78	12	2	51	64	11	2	66	68	10	3	29	83	10	0	22	06	09	1	44	37	18
19	14	1	36	35	13	0	44	12	12	0	29	08	11	0	58	16	10	1	29	33	09	2	36	60	19
20	14	3	51	89	13	2	33	59	12	1	77	46	11	1	80	47	10	2	33	59	09	3	25	82	20
21	15	1	62	42	14	0	03	01	12	3	25	82	11	3	03	76	10	3	29	83	10	0	07	02	21
22	15	3	69	94	14	1	69	46	13	0	58	16	12	0	11	03	11	0	22	06	10	0	73	20	22
23	16	1	69	44	14	3	33	84	13	1	84	48	12	1	18	30	11	1	07	27	10	1	44	37	23
24	16	3	62	92	15	1	—	25	13	3	14	79	12	2	18	55	11	1	80	47	10	2	11	03	24
25	17	1	55	40	15	2	40	61	14	0	33	09	12	3	11	78	11	2	55	65	10	2	62	67	25
26	17	3	40	86	15	3	80	97	14	1	44	37	13	0	—	—	11	3	29	83	10	3	22	81	26
27	18	1	22	31	16	1	22	31	14	2	51	64	13	0	77	21	11	3	87	99	10	3	66	93	27
28	18	3	—	75	16	2	51	64	14	3	51	89	13	1	55	40	12	0	51	14	11	0	18	05	28
29	19	0	62	17	16	3	80	97	15	0	47	13	13	2	29	58	12	1	11	28	11	0	58	16	29
30	19	2	29	58	17	1	14	29	15	1	40	36	13	2	03	76	12	1	51	58	11	1	03	26	30
31	19	3	84	98	17	2	25	57	15	2	33	59	13	3	66	93	12	2	18	55	11	1	36	35	31
32	20	1	44	37	17	3	36	85	15	3	18	80	14	0	33	09	12	2	66	68	11	1	66	43	32
33	20	3	—	75	18	0	40	11	16	0	—	—	14	0	84	23	12	3	18	80	11	2	—	50	33
34	21	0	44	12	18	1	44	37	16	0	69	19	14	1	47	38	12	3	58	91	11	2	22	56	34
35	21	1	84	48	18	2	44	62	16	1	44	37	14	2	03	51	13	0	03	01	11	2	44	62	35
36	21	3	29	83	18	3	40	86	16	2	14	54	14	2	47	63	13	0	36	10	11	2	66	68	36
37	22	0	62	17	19	0	36	10	16	2	73	70	14	2	87	74	13	0	66	18	11	2	87	74	37
38	22	1	87	49	19	1	29	33	16	3	40	86	14	3	33	84	13	1	—	25	11	3	18	80	38
39	22	3	14	79	19	2	22	56	17	0	03	01	14	3	69	94	13	1	25	32	11	3	40	86	39
40	23	0	40	11	19	3	11	78	17	0	55	15	15	0	11	03	13	1	47	38	11	3	62	92	40
41	23	1	62	42	20	0	—	—	17	1	18	30	15	0	44	12	13	1	66	43	11	3	80	97	41
42	23	2	77	71	20	0	73	20	17	1	66	43	15	0	73	20	13	1	84	48	12	0	03	01	42
43	24	0	—	—	20	1	51	39	17	2	11	53	15	1	11	28	13	2	11	53	12	0	18	05	43
44	24	1	07	27	20	2	25	57	17	2	55	65	15	1	40	36	13	2	29	58	12	0	29	08	44
45	24	2	11	53	20	2	84	73	17	3	07	77	15	1	66	43	13	2	44	62	12	0	40	11	45
46	24	3	11	78	20	3	55	90	17	3	47	88	15	2	—	50	13	2	58	66	12	0	47	13	46
47	25	0	07	02	21	0	18	05	17	3	84	98	15	2	22	56	13	2	73	70	12	0	55	15	47
48	25	1	—	25	21	0	73	20	18	0	29	08	15	2	44	62	13	2	87	74	12	0	62	17	48
49	25	1	80	47	21	1	33	34	18	0	62	17	15	2	66	68	13	3	07	77	12	0	69	19	49
50	25	2	62	67	21	1	80	47	18	1	—	25	15	2	87	74	13	3	18	80	12	0	77	21	50
51	25	3	40	86	21	2	36	60	18	1	29	33	15	3	14	79	13	3	29	83	12	0	84	23	51
60	27	2	66	68	22	2	40	61	18	3	66	93	16	0	62	17	14	0	—	—	12	1	40	36	60
70	29	0	44	12	23	1	51	39	19	1	33	34	16	1	5	39	14	0	40	11	12	1	69	44	70
80	30	0	77	21	23	3	55	90	19	2	33	59	16	2	—	50	14	0	55	15	12	1	80	47	80
90	31	0	—	—	24	1	03	26	19	3	—	75	16	2	29	58	14	0	66	18	12	1	84	48	90
100	31	2	36	60	24	2	—	50	19	3	36	85	16	2	40	61	14	0	73	20	12	1	87	49	100
Fee	33	1	29	33	25	0	—	—	20	0	—	—	16	2	61	67	14	1	14	29	12	2	—	50	Fee

TABLE II.

Shewing, in the first column, the age of persons; in the second the term of years and quarters to which any given life in those periods is computed to be equal, according to my way of making the estimate; to which I have added, in the third column, the difference or decrease in the term, from one period to another.

Ages of persons from	Term to which such lives are equal.	Decrease in the term.
10 to 15	28 0	—
15 — 20	27 2	0 2
20 — 25	26 3	0 3
25 — 30	25 3	1 0
30 — 35	24 2	1 1
35 — 40	23 0	1 2
40 — 45	21 1	1 3
45 — 50	19 1	2 0
50 — 55	17 0	2 1
55 — 60	14 2	2 2
60 — 65	11 2	3 0
65 — 70	8 0	3 2
70 — 75	4 0	4 0
75 — 80	2 —	—
80, &c. —	1 —	—

From this, and the precedent table, is readily seen the value of an annuity for any life, given at any rate of interest: for this table gives the term to which the life is equal, and the

precedent table gives the value, or years purchase, to which such term is equal, that is the value of the annuity.

TABLE III.

Shewing, in the first column, the age of persons; in the second, the value of annuities for every fifth year of age, from the 10th to the 70th year of man's life, as stated by Dr. Halley, interest computed at 6 per cent.: to which I have added, in the third column, the years, quarters, and days, to which such value corresponds; in the fourth column the difference, or decrease in the term, from one period to another; and, in the fifth, the difference or decrease in the value, in the same manner.

Ages of persons.	Years value, or purchase.	Term to which such value is equal.	Decrease in the term.	Decrease in the value.
10	13 44	28 1 —	0 0 —	— —
15	13 33	27 2 61	0 2 30	— 11
20	12 78	25 0 —	2 2 61	— 55
25	12 27	22 3 45	2 0 46	— 51
30	11 72	20 3 45	2 0 —	— 55
35	11 12	18 3 45	2 0 —	— 60
40	10 57	17 1 10	1 2 35	— 55
45	09 91	15 2 —	1 3 10	— 66
50	09 21	13 3 30	1 2 61	— 70
55	08 51	12 1 12	1 2 18	— 70
60	07 60	10 2 —	1 3 12	— 91
65	06 54	08 2 —	3 0 —	01 06
70	05 30	06 2 30	1 3 51	01 24

TABLE IV.

Shewing the value of annuities for life, at the ages mentioned, interest computed at 4 per cent, as stated in Mr. Hayes's tables; with the same additions as in the precedent tables.

Ages of persons.	Years value, or purchase.	Term to which such value is equal.	Decrease in the term.	Decrease in the value.
30	15 54	24 3 23	0 0 —	0 —
35	14 51	22 0 55	2 2 68	1 03
40	13 49	19 3 28	2 1 27	1 02
45	12 41	17 2 22	2 1 06	1 08
50	11 28	15 1 45	2 0 77	1 13
55	10 10	13 0 84	2 0 61	1 18
60	08 80	11 0 33	2 0 51	1 30
65	07 16	08 3 07	2 0 26	1 54
70	05 54	06 1 84	2 1 13	1 72

TABLE V.

Shewing the value of annuities for a life, at the ages mentioned, interest computed at 6 per cent. as stated by Mr. Richards; with the same additions as in the precedent table.

Ages of persons.	Years value, or purchase.	Term to which such value is equal.	Decrease in the term.	Decrease in the value.
7	13 42	28 0 39	0 0 —	0 —
12	13 36	27 3 —	0 1 36	0 06
17	12 99	25 3 74	1 3 17	0 37
22	12 54	23 3 76	1 3 89	0 45
27	11 97	21 3 —	2 0 76	0 57
32	11 47	20 0 —	1 3 —	0 50
37	10 90	18 0 77	1 3 14	0 57
42	10 24	16 1 10	1 3 67	0 66
47	09 58	14 2 74	1 2 27	0 66
52	08 91	13 0 50	1 2 24	0 67
57	08 11	11 1 76	1 2 65	0 80
62	07 08	09 2 —	1 3 76	1 03
67	05 90	07 2 —	2 0 —	1 18
72	04 78	05 3 11	1 2 80	1 12
77	03 29	03 3 11	2 0 —	1 49
82	01 36	01 1 80	2 1 22	1 93

TABLE VI.

Shewing the value of annuities for a life, at the ages mentioned, interest computed at 4 per cent. as stated by Mr. Morris: with the same additions as in the precedent tables.

Ages of persons.	Years value, or purchase.	Term to which such value is equal.	Decrease in the term.	Decrease in the value.
10	16 72	28 0 68	0 0 —	0 —
15	16 53	27 2 68	0 2 —	0 19
20	15 62	25 0 22	2 2 46	0 91
25	14 80	22 3 68	2 0 45	0 82
30	13 96	20 3 45	2 0 23	0 84
35	13 08	18 3 60	1 3 75	0 88
40	12 29	17 1 15	1 2 45	0 76
45	11 39	15 2 30	1 2 75	0 90
50	10 45	13 3 15	1 3 15	0 94
55	09 55	12 1 18	1 1 88	0 90
60	08 40	10 2 —	1 3 18	1 15
65	07 12	08 2 50	1 3 31	1 28
70	05 70	06 2 45	2 0 05	1 42

TABLE VII.

Shewing, in the first column, the rate of interest; in the second, the value of an annuity for a life of 12 years of age transcribed from Mr. Richards's, tables: to which I have added, in the third column, the term of years to which such value corresponds, as I calculate the same.

Interest.	Value.	Term of years.
4	17 20	29 3 —
5	15 23	29 1 44
6	13 36	27 3 —
7	11 72	25 1 23
8	10 67	25 0 —

TABLE VIII.

Shewing, in the first column, the rate of interest; in the second, the value of an annuity for a life of 30 years of age, extracted from Mr. Hayes's tables: to which I have added, in the third column, the term of years to which such value corresponds, as stated by Mr. Hayes himself.

Interest.	Value.	Term of years.
4	15 54	25
5	13 12	22
6	11 27	20
7	09 83	18
8	08 68	16

Mr. Hayes seems to me, in this table, first to have stated to what term of life of 30, or any other age, is equal, and from thence to have computed the values: now, in what way of thinking, or on what grounds, he could, in the first instance suppose that one and the same life could be equal only to a term of 16 years, and, at the same time, be equal to a term of 25 years, I confess exceeds my comprehension.

TABLE IX.

Exhibiting a computus of the value of an annuity of 10,000l. per annum, for a life of ten years of age, made according to Dr. Halley's rule, for every year of life to an hundred years of age.

Age	Multi-plied	By	Produces.	Integrals. Fract.
1	9 434	152	6 100 402	9 319—543
2	8 900	646	5 749 400	8 698—022
3	8 396	640	5 373 440	8 129—171
4	7 921	634	5 021 914	7 597—297
5	7 473	628	4 693 044	7 099—605
6	7 050	622	4 385 100	6 634—026
7	6 650	616	4 096 400	6 197—183
8	6 274	610	3 827 140	5 789—611
9	5 919	604	3 575 076	5 408—388
10	5 584	598	3 339 232	5 051—521
11	5 268	592	3 118 656	4 718—058
12	4 970	586	2 912 420	4 406—054
13	4 688	579	2 714 352	4 106—286
14	4 423	573	2 534 379	3 834—105
15	4 173	567	2 366 091	3 579—372
16	3 936	560	2 204 160	3 334—386
17	3 714	553	2 053 842	3 107—115
18	3 503	546	1 912 638	2 893—365
19	3 305	539	1 781 395	2 695—000
20	3 118	531	1 655 658	2 504—514
21	2 941	523	1 538 143	2 326—657
22	2 775	515	1 429 125	2 162—043
23	2 618	507	1 327 320	2 008—038
24	2 470	499	1 232 530	1 864—426
25	2 330	490	1 141 700	1 727—153
26	2 198	481	1 057 238	1 599—299
27	2 074	472	978 928	1 480—648
28	1 956	463	905 628	1 370—058
29	1 845	454	837 630	1 267—143
30	1 741	445	774 745	1 017—053
31	1 643	430	716 348	1 083—485
32	1 550	427	661 850	1 001—189
33	1 462	417	609 654	922—212
34	1 379	407	561 233	849—064
35	1 301	397	516 497	781—256
36	1 227	387	474 849	718—251
37	1 158	377	436 566	660—306
38	1 092	367	400 764	606—198
39	1 031	357	368 067	556—551
40	972	346	336 312	508—524
41	912	335	305 620	462—408
42	857	324	276 928	417—292
43	802	313	250 236	373—176
44	747	302	225 544	329—060
45	692	292	201 852	286—472
46	637	282	179 160	244—383
47	582	272	158 468	203—294
48	527	262	138 776	163—205
49	472	252	119 084	124—116
50	417	242	100 392	85—028
51	362	232	82 700	47—140
52	307	222	67 008	9—052
53	252	212	53 316	—064
54	197	202	39 624	—176
55	142	192	26 932	—288
56	87	182	14 240	—400
57	32	172	2 548	—512
58	—	162	—660	—624
59	—	152	—772	—736
60	—	142	—884	—848
61	—	131	—996	—960
62	—	120	—1108	—1072
63	—	109	—1220	—1184
64	—	98	—1332	—1296
65	—	88	—1444	—1408
66	—	78	—1556	—1520
67	—	68	—1668	—1632
68	—	58	—1780	—1744
69	—	49	—1892	—1856
70	—	41	—2004	—1968
71	—	34	—2116	—2080
72	—	28	—2228	—2192
73	—	23	—2340	—2304
74	—	20	—2452	—2416
75	—	18	—2564	—2528
76	—	16	—2676	—2640
77	—	14	—2788	—2752
78	—	12	—2900	—2864
79	—	10	—3012	—2976
80	—	8	—3124	—3088

This last sum, divided by 661, leaves a remainder.

TABLE IX. continued.

Age.	Multi- plied.	By	Produces.	Integrals. Fractions.
81	94	7	658	—658
82	94	6	564	—564
83	94	5	470	—470
84	94	4	376	—376
85	71	3	213	—213
86	71	2	142	—142
87	71	1	71	—071
88	71	$\frac{1}{2}$	35	—035
89	71	$\frac{1}{4}$	17	—017
90	53	$\frac{1}{4}$	13	—013
Totals	167 728		89 253 482	135 027—635

N. B. Where this computation is carried on for 41 years only, the produce is } 130—265—347
 Where carried on for 58 years, the produce is } 134—486—512
 Where carried on for 90 years, the produce, as above, is } 135—027—635
 That is, in the first case, the value is - 13—02
 In the second case, the value is - - 13—44
 In the last case, the value is - - 13—50

From whence it is apparent, where the value of such an annuity is stated at 13—44 only, as in Dr. Halley's table, that there is an omission of 32 years in making the calculation.

TABLE X.

Shewing the number of persons living in the city of Breslau in Silesia, and their ages current respectively, from 1 to 84 years of age.

Age current.	Persons living.	Age current.	Persons living.
1	1000	6	710
2	855	7	692
3	798	8	680
4	760	9	670
5	732	10	661

The rest of this table is inserted in the third column of the precedent table, and need not be here repeated: and I have there added the age current, and persons living from 84, where Dr. Halley breaks off, to age an hundred; and the table, with these additions, makes the total number of persons there living to be the same as supposed by the doctor, viz. 34,000.

TABLE XI.

An extract of, and some calculations on, the BILLS of MORTALITY for LONDON, including only those born alive.

The several years.	1730.	1731.	1732.	1733.	1734.	1735.	Totals.	Medium.	in 1000
Under two years of age	9734	9234	8865	11082	10091	9082	58088	9681	387
Between two and five -	2448	2096	1517	2409	2830	1963	13263	2210	88
Five and ten - -	1092	932	716	957	1228	755	5680	946	38
Ten and twenty - -	901	806	611	754	829	691	4592	765	30
Twenty and thirty - -	2048	1916	1627	1857	1718	1605	10771	1795	72
Thirty and forty - -	2471	2351	2175	2564	2212	2158	13931	2325	93
Forty and fifty - -	2373	2261	2121	2685	2154	2138	13732	2288	91
Fifty and sixty - -	1713	1839	1741	2196	1668	1684	10841	1806	72
Sixty and seventy - -	1577	1500	1581	1871	1324	1339	9192	1532	61
Seventy and eighty - -	1001	913	974	1188	793	872	5741	956	38
Eighty and ninety - -	622	628	660	804	484	565	3753	625	25
Ninety and an hundred -	138	108	121	198	66	84	715	119	5
An hundred and upwards	9	5	12	12	4	12	54	9	in 2786—1
Under ten years of age -	13274	12262	11098	14448	14149	11800	77031	12837	
Above ten - - -	12853	12327	11623	14129	11252	11148	73322	12220	
Totals - - -	26127	24589	22721	28577	25401	22948	150353	25057	

LIVONIA, in Sweden, has the gulph of Finland on the north, that of Riga on the west, Muscovy and Ingria on the east, and part of Lithuania on the south. Though in some parts it is marshy, yet it is very fruitful, generally speaking, yielding corn, pasture, and honey in abundance. It is divided into two parts, viz.

I. ESTONIA, the most northern part of this country, bounded on the south by Letten, on the east by Muscovy; on the north it has the gulph of Finland, and on the west the gulph Riga, or of Livonia.

REVEL, the capital of this division, stands on the coast of the gulph of Finland, 225 miles east from Stockholm.

It was not reckoned a town of great trade till about 1477, when it could easily preserve its commerce with Muscovy, and other places, on account of its advantageous situation and commodious harbour. It broke off its union with the Hanse-towns in 1550, and its trade was removed to Narva by the Czar: but the Muscovites, having taken it in 1711, have restored its trade, which they now are very careful to preserve. See HANSE-TOWNS.

NARVA, stands on a river of the same. This city enjoyed for a long time the privilege of the Hanse-Towns; but the wars between Sweden and Muscovy had so ruined its trade, that it could not recover it in many years, nor did it last, but at the expence of Revel. The war between the English and Dutch proved advantageous to it, the Archangel trade being then interrupted.

PARNAW, on the gulph of Riga, is a small city, but a place of good trade, a great quantity of corn, especially, being shipped hence for the Netherlands.

II. LETTEN, has the Baltic on the west, Estonia on the north, Muscovy on the east, and the river Dwina on the south and south-west.

RIGA, the capital, not only of Letten, but of all Livonia, is situated in a large plain on the western bank of the river Dwina, 6 miles from the mouth of it, which makes a commodious harbour called the gulph of Riga.

The trade which this city drives with England, Holland, Muscovy, and the towns of the Baltic, renders it extremely populous and very considerable. There are in the town almost as many shops as houses. Above a thousand vessels arrive here yearly laden with corn, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, planks, furs, and skins of all sorts. Russian leather, ashes to make soap and glass, &c. all which are transported to England, France, Germany, Holland, and other countries, and exchanged for the commodities of the more southern climates. They reckon that above 200 merchantmen arrive every year in the port of Riga.

LOADMANAGE, is the hire, sometimes so called, which the pilot of a ship receives of the master, for conducting the ship up the river, or into port.

PETTY-LOADMANAGE, and primage is due, to the master and mariners for the use of his cables and ropes to discharge the goods, and to the mariners for loading and unloading of the ship or vessel; it is commonly about 12 d. per ton. 32 Hen. VIII. 14.

If the ropes break in hoisting of goods out of the ship into the lighter or boat, the master must answer if the goods be damaged or lost. Leg. Oleron. cap. 10. See OLERON'S LAWS.

But, if the ropes break at the crane in taking them out of the lighter (although, till they are landed, they are not out of the master's custody) yet the wharfinger shall answer.

LODESMAN, a kind of pilot established for the safe-conduct of vessels in and out of harbour, or up and down navigable rivers.

With

With regard to France, in places where it is found necessary to establish pilots and lodemen to conduct vessels into, and out of the entries of ports and navigable rivers, their number shall be regulated by the officers of the admiralty, with the advice of the aldermen and most eminent merchants of the place.

II. No person shall exercise that function 'till he is arrived to the age of 25, and received before the officers of the admiralty, after having been examined in their presence, and in that of two aldermen, or eminent merchants, and two ancient pilots, with the like number of ancient masters of ships.

III. The pilots, lodemen, shall be examined in the knowledge and experience they ought to have of the fabric and working of ships, and of the courses of the tide, of the sand banks, currents, shelves, rocks, and other impediments, that may render difficult the entry of the rivers, ports, and harbours, in which they are established.

IV. They shall be obliged to have their shallops always provided with anchors and oars, and to be in a condition to go to succour ships upon the first order or signal, under pain of ten livres, and a greater penalty, according to the exigency of the case.

V. We forbid, under pain of corporal punishment, all mariners, not being received pilots, lodemen, to offer themselves to conduct ships into, or out of ports or rivers.

VI. However, the masters of ships, for want of pilots, may make use of fishermen to conduct them.

VII. If a pilot comes aboard a ship, where there is already a fisherman, before she be past the dangerous places, the pilot shall be received, but the fisherman's hire shall be deducted from his.

VIII. A pilot, undertaking to conduct a vessel while he is drunk, shall be fined in five livres, and shall not exert the function of pilot during one month.

IX. We enjoin the pilots to conduct first the ships that first require their service; and we forbid them to prefer the most remote to the nearest, under pain of 25 livres.

X. We likewise forbid them to go farther than to the roads, to meet vessels coming into ports or harbours, to go aboard of ships without the master's consent, and to leave the ships they bring in, 'till they are come to an anchor and moored in the port; and those they carry out, 'till they are in the high sea, under pain of the loss of their wages, and a fine of 30 livres.

XI. The master of the ship shall be obliged, as soon as the pilot gets aboard, to tell him how much his vessel draws, under pain of 25 livres fine, to the benefit of the pilot, for every foot concealed.

XII. In every port shall be made, at the suit of our attorney, with the advice of the magistrates or two eminent merchants, a regulation for the wages of pilots; which shall be inserted in a public writing, and a copy of which shall be left in the admiralty-office, and another affixed upon the key.

XIII. The pilots and mariners shall not exact greater sums than those specified by the regulation, under pain of corporal punishment, except in time of a storm and imminent danger; in which case the officers of the admiralty, with the advice of two merchants, may tax their wages higher, having regard to the work they have done, and the danger they have run.

XIV. We declare null all promises made to pilots and mariners while in danger of shipwreck.

XV. We enjoin the pilots daily to view the roads of the places where they are established, to hoist the anchors left there, and, within 24 hours afterwards, to make their declarations to the officers of the admiralty.

XVI. If they discover any alteration in the channel, and ordinary passage of ships, or that the buoys and sea-marks are not right placed, they shall be obliged, under pain of ten livres, to acquaint the officers of the admiralty, and the master of the key therewith.

XVII. It shall be free for the masters and captains of French or foreign ships to take such pilots as they please to conduct them into the ports and harbours, without being obliged to make use of the same to conduct them out again.

XVIII. A pilot that ignorantly runs a ship aground, shall be whipped by the hand of the hangman, and for ever deprived of his employment; and as for such as maliciously and designedly run a ship upon a rock, bank, or shore, he shall be punished with death, and his body hung up upon a mast planted near the place of the shipwreck.

For the laws by which pilots are regulated, see the article PILOTS.

LOGWOOD, or CAMPEACHY-WOOD, as some call it, is called also BRASILETTO, or JAMAICA-WOOD; and is, says Pomet, the heart of the trunk of a large tree, which grows plentifully in Campeachy and Jamaica, and in Santa Cruz in America, where there are whole forests of it. And, according to Lemery, it grows in several other parts of the West-Indies.

The tree is bigger or less, according to the soil that produces it; it rises with a trunk thick and straight, covered with a thin

bark plain and smooth, of a silver grey or yellowish colour; the leaves are like those of the bay, and, held in the mouth, afford a scent like the clove, which has made it to be oftener taken for the clove-tree than any other, by reason of the delicate flavour, which has given it the name of the Indian aromatic laurel. Among the leaves comes a small fruit, adhering to the branches by a little stalk like the cubeb, and has at the other end a small crown; the fruit is of a dun colour, the taste sharp and piquant, but agreeable enough, tasting like a clove, and therefore called mostly clove-berry; it contains three small kernels like musk-seed.

We may observe here, that it affords three sorts of commodities very good and saleable; the first is the wood, which should be chosen firm and undecayed; and cut, not sawed at the ends. This wood chiefly employs the dyers, who use it to dye blue and black. The second commodity is the leaf, which may be used instead of malabathrum, where that is ordered, as this leaf has more virtues than that; the Americans use them for fomentations, to cure the palsy, and other diseases proceeding from cold causes. The third is the fruit, which the French use in imitation of the English, as being a very strong aromatic, and proper on several occasions: as this has been known but of late years, the French have had but little commerce therein, besides what their privateers of St. Maloes in time of war have taken from England. The grocers in France call it clove-berry, from it's likeness to that spice in smell and taste, and it is called with us all-spice, as having analogy to cinnamon, cloves, mace, and nutmegs, and is very much used in all sauces. Lemery thinks it possesses all the several properties, qualities, and virtues of those spices, though possibly not in so large a measure, in respect to it's body; for that it consists of more earthy parts than any of them, except cinnamon; but the tincture, or oil of it, extracted from it's feculent part, are not much inferior to what may be extracted from those: so that we must allow this drug to be stomachic, cephalic, cardiac, uterine, nephritic, and arthritic; it is alexipharmic and diuretic, comforts the brain and nervous parts, refreshes and strengthens the whole animal economy, and restores the natural functions of life where weakened.

It has been long known among the dyers, for the dyeing of blacks and blues, as intimated, but it is only of late that it has been introduced into medicine: it is found to be chiefly an excellent astringent, and is given in form of an extract in diarrhoeas with great success.

A representation from the honourable board of trade to his late majesty king George I. asserting and proving the right of the subjects of Great-Britain to cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, September 25, 1717.

To the king's most excellent majesty.

May it please your majesty,

The right honourable Paul Methuen, Esq; one of your majesty's principal secretaries of state, having transmitted to us on the 15th of November last, by order of his royal highness, a letter or memorial he had received from the marquis de Monteleone, ambassador extraordinary from his Catholic majesty, relating to the trade carrying on in the West-Indies, and to the settlement made by your majesty's subjects on the island of Trist, and on or near the lake or marsh de Terminos, in the province of Jucatan: in which parts he represents, ' That they employ themselves in cutting of logwood, or (as the Spaniards call it) Campeachy-wood; and ' that the Spanish viceroy and governor had proposed to ' dislodge them from thence, but that his said Catholic majesty would not send his orders before he had given your ' majesty notice of it, not doubting, but that according to ' all the treaties of peace, and particularly that made at ' Utrecht, your majesty would oblige your said subjects to ' leave the aforesaid lake de Terminos, and give positive orders to your governors at Jamaica, and of the other islands, ' not to suffer the least trade to be carried on for Campeachy-wood, and to declare, that if, in the space of eight months, ' they do not leave the said place, they shall be looked upon ' and deemed as pirates.'

We beg leave to represent to your majesty, that, although we did humbly propose such methods as we esteemed proper and necessary to support the cutting of logwood in the West-Indies, when the said Mr. Methuen was on his departure for Madrid; yet on this occasion, when a trade of so great importance to our navigation and the American colonies is in danger of being lost, we have again carefully perused the books and papers in our office, and received from the merchants and others the fullest information we can hope to obtain, which hath taken up much time: and we do now humbly crave leave to lay before your majesty the past and present state of this trade, with the arguments that formerly engaged your majesty's royal predecessors to protect and support the same; to which we shall add some observations, and the reasons that induce us to conclude your majesty's subjects have now as full and ample right to this trade, as to any other liberty or privilege that has been allowed by the crown of

Spain, and enjoyed by them, by virtue of any treaty whatsoever.

In the first place, therefore, it must be observed, that logwood is one of the products of the province of Yucatan, which extends itself into the north sea in form of a peninsula, about 100 leagues in length. The Spaniards are possessed of San Francisco de Campeachy, its capital town and port, which has been thrice taken by the English; and, besides, they have two other inland towns, Merida and Valladolid, of no great importance, having few inhabitants; but the rest of the province, before the logwood-cutters were settled, was in a manner wholly desolate and uninhabited.

Nevertheless, it must be allowed, that the Spaniards had, from time to time, cut wood in several places near their own settlements; but, during the hostilities that were committed in the West-Indies before the year 1667, they deserted that employment, being frequently interrupted by the privateers, both by sea and land, who by degrees became acquainted with the coast, and with those parts where the wood grew, that were most remote from the Spaniards, they at last fell into the trade, and laid the foundation of their future establishment.

Their first settlements were near to Cape Gatoche: but upon (if not before) the publication of the treaty concluded at Madrid in 1667, by the earl of Sandwich, they likewise settled near Suma Sunta, adjacent to the Laguna de Terminos, and to Trist and Beef Islands, which being the most convenient place for cutting of wood, and a tolerable harbour for their ships and vessels, the whole trade soon centered there. For, notwithstanding the aforesaid treaty was principally intended to settle and adjust our commerce with his Catholic majesty's dominions in Europe, yet, 'a general, firm, and perfect amity, confederation, and peace, being thereby agreed and concluded (as in the first article) between the two crowns, to be observed inviolably, as well by land as by sea and fresh waters, and between the countries, kingdoms, dominions, and territories belonging unto, or under the obedience of either of them, &c.' It was concluded, that the peace extended to America as well as Europe; whereupon many of the British privateers that had before used those seas, to the great interruption of commerce, were then induced to quit their former course, and to settle with the logwood-cutters in the Laguna de Terminos; so that, in the year 1669, their numbers were considerably increased, and great quantities of wood were transported both to Jamaica and New England.

The American treaty for restraining depredations in those parts, being afterwards concluded by Sir William Godolphin in July 1670, added to their strength, by encouraging several others of the privateers, or seamen, to fall in with this employment of cutting wood, to which it was now generally supposed they had a right by the said treaty.

And, as the logwood-trade was of the greatest importance to Jamaica, on the 10th of March 1671, Sir Thomas Lynch, then governor of that island, not having received any orders how to govern himself in this affair, transmitted to the lords of the council the reasons that induced him to encourage the same under proper regulations.

- 1st, That the English had done so divers years.
- 2dly, It was in desolate and uninhabited places.
- 3dly, That this seems a possession granted by the American treaty.
- 4thly, It might give a right to seclude the Dutch and the French, if we should break with Spain.
- 5thly, The Spaniards had not, to that time, made any complaints of it.
- 6thly, This employ makes the reducing of the privateers more easy. And,
- 7thly, That it will employ 100 sail annually, and bring in more to his majesty's customs and the nation's trade, than any colony the king hath.

While these arguments were under consideration, the earl of Arlington laid, before the lords of the committee, a letter from Sir Thomas Modyford, the late governor of Jamaica, dated the 16th of May 1672, wherein, after he had given an account of the great extent or compass of the country, in which the logwood grows; how meanly the Spanish towns on the foresaid tract of land were peopled, and of the places frequented by the English; he adds,

That they have used this trade for three years past, at first finding it by the sea side, but afterwards, being forced to go four or five miles up into the country for their refreshment, they had planted Indian provisions, and built houses there to keep themselves and their provisions from the sun and rain: that, in general, they had affirmed to him, never to have seen any Spaniards or other person, in all the time of their working, although they had gone six or seven miles farther into the country to kill deer, &c. This possession, he says, in the West Indies, is held the strongest that can be, viz. selling of wood, building of houses, and clearing and planting the ground.

Sir Thomas Lynch, to confirm what he had before asserted, and to justify his proceedings, in November 1672, sends home the copies of several depositions he had taken from the

masters of ships, and others concerned in the logwood-trade, and a proclamation he had issued out for the better regulation and security thereof, importing,

That whereas he was informed, by the oaths of many credible witnesses, that his majesty's subjects have used to hunt, fish, and cut wood in divers bays, islands, and parts of the continent, not frequented or possessed by any of the subjects of his Catholic majesty, and had, for some years, peaceably done the same without any molestation; nevertheless, divers vessels having been seized at anchor and under sail, by some pirates and fugitives of this island, and being in danger of being so surprized again, therefore he orders and appoints all vessels sailing out of Port Royal, for the aforesaid lawful employments, to go out together in small squadrons, four at least in company, and to give bond to keep company with, and to obey him, whom he should make commander for the voyage, and their mutual defence, and what they should lawfully do in their own defence, and for the preservation of his majesty's subjects, their ships and goods, be authorized and warranted, &c.

In January following, the secretary to the lords of the committee, by their order, advises the said Sir Thomas Lynch, that he had acquainted him with their lordship's pleasure fully, concerning cutting of logwood, and that they did altogether allow of the same, provided those rules were observed, which they had formerly directed, and which were agreeable to what the said governor himself had already mentioned.

This allowance of carrying on the trade, as aforesaid, gave fresh vigour to those engaged in it, though about this time the Spaniards began to interrupt them in the prosecution thereof, and to dispute their right to that liberty they had so long quietly enjoyed.

For we must insist on it, as an undoubted and uncontested fact, that from the publication of the treaty of 1667, until about two years after the conclusion of the American treaty, the logwood-cutters had never been in the least disturbed or molested in their employment, either directly or indirectly; nor does it appear that the Spanish governors took any umbrage at it, or made any complaint about it; much less did they pretend to an exclusive right, or that it was contrary to the laws of their commerce.

Nay, so far were they from expressing any resentment on this account, or making it a pretence to justify the first hostilities they committed, in violation of the treaties both of 1667 and 1670; that when Sir Thomas Lynch sent to Don Fernando Francisco Descavedo, the governor of St. Francisco de Campeachy, to demand satisfaction for two English ships, which had logwood on board, and were taken by some Spanish men of war; in his answer to that charge on the 6th of April 1672, he takes no notice of our cutting logwood, or that those ships had any on board, or that we had settled on the Laguna de Terminos; nor had he any other complaint to make by way of retaliation, save that an English vessel had taken a Spanish bark at the Laguna de Terminos bound to Tobasco; which is the more remarkable, because the said Laguna was, at that time, and had been several years actually in our possession.

It must likewise be farther urged, that before the queen-regent of Spain had published a royal cedula, bearing date the 22d of June 1672, which orders, 'That such as should make invasion, or trade without licence in the ports of the Indies, should be proceeded against as pirates, &c.' It does not appear that cutting of logwood was esteemed by the Spaniards to be an invasion, and trading without licence; but, by virtue of this cedula, it was at length carried to that height, that, if our ships had but any logwood on board, they were confiscated without remedy.

Upon this subject, the earl of Arlington, on the 19th of March 1674, wrote to Sir William Godolphin, then ambassador at Madrid, as follows:

'In a word, his majesty is so sensible of the sufferings of his subjects in this particular, that you must endeavour, by all the skill you have, to procure some liberty for the cutting of logwood, in those remote parts, where the Spaniards have none, and his majesty's subjects have had long abode and residence; and the rather, for that we find, by all the replies we have seen, they justify themselves by that single point of cutting logwood, nay, even of finding it on board, our vessels, which to us appears very unreasonable.'

And Sir Lionel Jenkins, the judge of the admiralty, in his report to his late majesty king Charles II. of the 8th of October 1675, intimated, 'That the American treaty does require a farther elucidation and adjustment between your majesty and the crown of Spain; for it appears by the judgment of the queen in the matter of Campeachy, and by their cedulas reales, that they affix a new interpretation upon that treaty, in declaring what shall be private or not private, prize or not prize, without communicating, it seems, with your majesty, and without publication, that may reach your majesty's subjects.'

Thus by a Spanish auto, or a decree of that court, which was inconsistent with, and made (ex post facto) after the ratifications of a public and solemn treaty, it was manifestly intended, not only to debar the British subjects of that liberty

berty they enjoyed before the said treaty was made, but, in some measure, to deprive them of their common right of all nations; whereas, if your majesty's subjects did actually hold and possess the Laguna de Terminos, and the parts adjacent, at the time of the conclusion of the American treaty, as hath been already proved, the last clause of the 7th article will determine to whom the same belongs, viz.

Moreover it is agreed, that the most serene king of Great-Britain, his heirs and successors, shall have, hold, and keep, and always possess, in full right of sovereignty, seigniority, possession, and propriety, all the lands, countries, islands, colonies, and other places, be they what they will, lying and situate in the West-Indies, or in any part of America, which the said king of Great-Britain and his subjects now hold and possess, inasmuch that they neither can nor ought hereafter to be contested or called in question for them, upon any account, or under any pretence whatsoever.

And, as long as the 8th article of the same treaty subsists, it will appear very extraordinary, that the Spaniards should pretend to any dominion or power in the ports or havens where they neither had fortifications nor magazines, or in those places which were not possessed by them, because these descriptions are undoubtedly laid down by the treaty, as the sole and distinguishing marks of the sovereignty of the crown of Spain in those parts and places, which only we were to forbear failing to and trafficking in, while all other ports and places were left open and free.

But, notwithstanding the said treaty was so strong in our favour, the Spaniards having thereby compassed the two main ends they proposed to themselves, viz.

1st, The securing their West-India trade to themselves, by excluding us, and consequently all other nations, from trafficking with them: a point which could never be before obtained, though it was strenuously insisted on in the reign of king James I. and afterwards in 1630.

2dly, The dispersion of the privateers, who had long miserably harassed and distressed the Spaniard's settlements, and notably checked the increase both of their power and trade in those parts, but are now entirely reduced, by the great care of the English governors, and by their entering into the logwood-trade.

Yet the only advantages Great-Britain aimed at by the treaty, viz. that her subjects might carry on their trade without interruption, and peaceably enjoy those places they then held and possessed, were, in a great measure, absolutely defeated.

For, after the publication of the aforesaid royal cedula, many of our ships were made prizes under that pretence, sometimes by Spanish men of war, at other times by English pirates, seduced by the governors into the service of Spain, and afterwards by the Biscayneers, that were sent to cruize on those seas.

And, upon the same pretence, in April 1680, several ships under the command of Don Philip de Vareda Villegas, arrived at the island of Trist and the Laguna de Terminos, attacked our logwood-cutters, while separated from one another, and dislodged them from thence.

Moreover, the Spanish governors encouraged by this success, and little regarding the just right of your majesty, or your subjects, even to plantations still more distant from their dominions, did soon resolve upon another expedition, and, in 1682, surprized New Providence, one of the Bahama Islands.

But these places were again soon re-peopled, and the trade from Trist and the Laguna, in 1682, was greater than ever. The rise and progress of the logwood-trade, from about the year 1667 to the year 1682, being thus stated, and laid before your majesty, we presume it would be too tedious, and not very material to the point in question, to enter into the particulars, how, and in what manner, it was afterwards constantly carried on; and how it has been from time to time interrupted and supported until the year 1713, when the adjustment and settlement thereof was again under consideration, both at Madrid and Utrecht.

But since the Spanish ambassador insists on it, that by the treaty of peace made at Utrecht, in which (he says) it is stipulated, 'That the lands or other places, which had been taken in the Indies during the war, should be evacuated; your majesty is engaged to oblige your subjects who are come to the lake de Terminos, to leave it immediately.'

We most humbly take leave to represent farther to your majesty:

That if his excellency would hereby insinuate, that your majesty's subjects are but lately, and during the war, come to the Laguna de Terminos, that is a mistake in fact; for it appears by the aforementioned depositions, sent by Sir Thomas Lynch and Sir Thomas Modyford, that they were there in 1669, and for some time, or years before; and it is well known to the Spaniards, that they have been ever since possessed of that part of the country, except for two or three months after the aforesaid assault in 1680.

Neither will what the said ambassador asserts from the treaty, answer the end for which it was produced.

By the 8th article it is, indeed, agreed by his Catholic ma-

jefty, 'not to alienate any of his territories in the West-Indies, to the French or any other nation; and upon this condition her late majesty engages, that she will endeavour and give assistance to the Spaniards, that the ancient limits of their dominions in America be restored, &c. if it shall appear that they have in any manner been broken into, and lessened in any part, since the death of king Charles II.'

But to argue from hence, that the Laguna de Terminos, in possession of the English before the year 1670, must be evacuated, when this treaty has only reference to what has passed since the demise of the said king Charles II. is very extraordinary.

But, if the ambassador refers to the memorial on the affairs of commerce, that was signed at Madrid the 13th of July 1713, by the lord Lexington and the marquis de Bedmar, we must confess, that the article relating to the logwood-trade, proposed therein by his lordship, had not then its effect: but we are assured it was from thence, among other things, referred to the discussion of the plenipotentiaries at Utrecht.

What passed particularly on this affair at Utrecht, doth not appear to us; but by the treaty of commerce concluded the 28th of November following (of which the said ambassador takes no notice in this memorial) and wherein the several interests of the two crowns and their subjects, with respect to commerce, were more particularly under consideration, it is manifest, that the rights and liberties, insisted on by the British subjects in the West-Indies, were adjusted by the lords plenipotentiaries; and that a clause in the treaty, which determines this contest relating to the cutting of logwood, beyond all possibility of dispute for the future, was then agreed upon and concluded; it being expressly stipulated in the first article after the confirmation and ratification of the American treaty in 1670, as follows: 'Without any prejudice, however, to any LIBERTY, or POWER, which the subjects of Great-Britain enjoyed before, either through RIGHT, SUFFERANCE, or INDULGENCE.'

If therefore this comprehensive clause (which relates only to the West-Indies) confirms, secures, and re-establishes those liberties, which the subjects of Great-Britain enjoyed in America before the treaty in 1670, it necessarily follows:

That they having then enjoyed the liberty of cutting logwood, without any interruption (as hath been fully proved) either through RIGHT, SUFFERANCE, or INDULGENCE, they are again entitled by this treaty, to the same liberty, in as plain and express words as can be used or imagined.

And, that your majesty may be more fully apprized of the importance of this trade, the same will be effectually demonstrated by the following account of the quantities of logwood imported since the war, viz.

	T.	C.	Q.	lb.
In 1713 - - - -	2189	15	3	22
1714 - - - -	4878	14	3	24
1715 - - - -	5863	12	1	14
1716 - - - -	2032	17	2	9

In four years, 14965 00 3 9

That is, communibus annis, tons 3741, which cannot be computed at less than 60,000 l. per ann. though the price is at present reduced from 40 l. to 16 l. per ton, whereas, before your majesty's subject were settled there, it was worth 100 l. the ton.

Nor is this trade less necessary than beneficial to your majesty's dominions, by reason of the great encouragement it gives to our seamen and shipping, which at all times require a particular attention, but now especially, when it is daily observed, that very many British mariners, either through defect of the laws, for want of employment at home, or in hopes of greater advantage abroad, enter themselves into foreign service.

Upon the whole, therefore, we are humbly of opinion,

That the subjects of this your majesty's kingdom, for some years before, as well as after the conclusion of the American treaty in 1670, did enjoy an uninterrupted liberty of cutting logwood in the Laguna de Terminos, and in other places not inhabited by the Spaniards in the province of Yucatan, either through right, sufferance, or indulgence.

That the said American treaty did establish a right in the crown of Great-Britain to the Laguna de Terminos and the parts adjacent, those places at the time of the treaty, and for some years before, being actually in the possession of the British subjects.

That the royal cedula, issued out by the court of Spain, was a violation of the aforesaid treaty, inasmuch as the carrying on the trade to the Laguna de Terminos was thereby interpreted an invasion, and the logwood-cutters accounted pirates.

And that your majesty's subjects having been (at least) suffered to enjoy the liberty of cutting logwood as aforesaid, before the conclusion of the American treaty (although your majesty should not insist on your said right to the Laguna de Terminos) yet that the same liberty is absolutely granted and confirmed by the treaty of commerce made at Utrecht.

And

And we do further think it our duty to represent to your majesty, that, although the said Spanish ambassador seems to declare, in his memorial, that no attempt should be made to dislodge your subjects settled on the Laguna de Terminos, in a less time than eight months from the date of his said memorial; yet they were dislodged and taken prisoners in the same month the memorial was delivered, as appears by several affidavits sent to this board by general Hamilton, your majesty's governor of the Leeward Islands. All which is most humbly submitted.

Whitehall, Sept.
25, 1717.

SUFFOLK,
J. CHETWYND,
CHARLES COOKE,
J. MOLESWORTH,
D. PULTENEY,
M. BLADEN.

R E M A R K S.

We find, by the foregoing representation, that the logwood-trade, as carried on by us in the bay of Campeachy, came to be considered with the utmost care and circumspection by the Board of Trade and Plantations, in the year 1717, who solemnly reported to his late majesty George I. that we had an undoubted right to that trade, in which the subjects of the crown of England had been maintained and supported by former kings, his majesty's predecessors.

This logwood-trade having been a bone of contention between England and Spain, ever since the American treaty of 1670, and the principal, if not the only cause of the late war with Spain, which hath cost the two nations so much blood and treasure, and being not yet settled, may possibly be the cause of another war between us and Spain, wherein all Europe may be involved; I shall take leave, with all humble submission, to suggest an expedient, in the sequel, to public consideration, which may probably prove happily instrumental to prevent the calamities and miseries of war, in future, upon the like occasion. Previous to which, I shall briefly state the origin and nature of this commerce, as it has been carried on by the English in the bay of Campeachy; which may serve to elucidate some parts of the foregoing representation made by the lords of trade to the late king.

Campeachy is situated within the great bay of Mexico; yet the bay of Campeachy itself is a pretty large bay: it extends from Cape Condesedo, on the east point, to St. Martin's, on the west, which is about 120 leagues: it bends into the southward something in the form of an half-moon. The east part of this bay is in the province of Yucatan. Campeachy is the only sea-port of this province, and is situate on the south-east of the bay; Merida is the capital, and many other towns lie further up the country. The land hereabouts is sandy, and not very fruitful; the inhabitants make a coarse sort of cotton cloth, and gather salt-petre and salt, with which they supply the neighbouring places.

Near the bottom of this bay is a tract of land that was long in possession of the subjects of the crown of England, who carried on the logwood trade from thence to Jamaica, and our northern colonies. This tract of land includes the islands called Port-Royal, Trist, and Beef-Island; which form a sound between them and the main land, about three or four leagues wide. Into this sound stream various rivers and creeks, which run far into the country; and, upon the banks of these rivers and creeks, are produced groves of logwood-trees. These three islands, and the land within them, comprehend all that the English possessed after the conquest of Jamaica, and are in length no more than about 20 leagues, but not quite so much in breadth, including the space of water in the harbours and sound. The chief town and harbour where the English resided, was Trist, in latitude 18° north, and longitude 101° west of London.

The origin of this logwood-settlement was thus: after the conquest of Jamaica, the privateers frequently cruized in the bay of Campeachy for prizes, which they often met with: and some of these, having logwood only on board, the privateers destroyed, as being ignorant of it's value at that time of day. At length one Capt. James brought a Spanish capture laden with this wood to England; which, proving a good prize, first taught the worth of this commodity; and, before the war was over, the privateer's men, having learned where this wood grew, settled themselves in the before-said places, and employed their time in cutting of this wood honestly, and preparing it for sale, and carrying the same to Jamaica and New England; from whence the logwood-traders imported supplies of what they wanted. At length the knowledge of this trade reaching England, upwards of 200 sail of ships were employed in it in a season: so considerable a trade was once carried on by the English in the bay of Campeachy; and the same might have been continued uninterruptedly to this day, had it not been for an unpardonable neglect in the government of England at that time. For had advantage been taken to have established the English government at this settlement, when there were above 1700 of the subjects of the crown of England then; and had proper fortifications been raised for

the security of this trade and settlers, we should have had no disputes, perhaps, at this time of day with Spain, about our right of trade and possession.

At the time we are speaking of, others of the British logwood-cutters and traders had settled themselves within the bay of Honduras, upon a large river, called the river Bellese, which abounds also with logwood, and where the bulk of the logwood that has come to England for several years past has been cut: and this river has been uninterruptedly, to this day, in the possession of the British logwood-cutters and traders, and their slaves. And, about 42 miles up this river, the subjects of the crown of England have built a large town, with palmeta and osnabrigs, and hoisted English colours, as a testimony of their dependency on these kingdoms, and of their trading under the banner of Great-Britain.

During the possession of this settlement by the subjects of the crown of England, they have cut and exported large quantities of logwood to Europe, and imported whatever they had occasion for; and this sometimes in British bottoms, and sometimes in ships belonging to the inhabitants, many of whom have been men of worth, even from 10 to 30,000 l. sterling. By a letter which I received, dated March 20, 1740-1, from a merchant of South Carolina, a man of known veracity, who had himself, as a captain of a merchantman, used the logwood-trade to this river for above twenty years, and thereby acquired a fortune competent to commence merchant; I was informed that the logwood-traders had, at their own expence, fortified, in some measure, the mouth of this river; and, as the British government had not been pleased to take such notice of them as they judged the importance of the trade required, they had also constituted a kind of government among themselves, and established a governor to their fort, whose name was——Sharpe, and him also they made the factor-general for their logwood, allowing him good commission for acting in this capacity, as also a handsome salary as governor of the fortress: all which, I have good reason to believe, was done at the instigation, and by the advice and direction of my correspondent, who was not a little beloved by the logwood-traders at this river.

At the first settlement of this logwood colony in the river Bellese, which was at the time when that of Campeachy was, the English were assisted by the Mosketoe Indians, who acknowledge the sovereignty of the crown of Great-Britain, and pay homage, and take the oaths to every new governor of Jamaica, on his first arrival: and these Indians have ever since been steady and faithful friends and allies to those traders, in the support and preservation of this colony. In 1718, the Spaniards of Patent attempted to dispossess the British logwood traders from the town and river of Bellese; but his excellency governor Shute, of the province of Massachusetts, having commissioned to their protection Capt. William Wier, of the ship King George, together with the assistance of their old friends and allies, the Mosketoe Indians, they repulsed the Spaniards; and the English have remained in possession of this logwood settlement ever since; and, from a possession equal in time to that of the bay of Campeachy, from the felling of wood, clearing and planting the ground, and building of houses where no Spaniards were ever known to inhabit, they judge they have as good a right to this colony as any of the British planters have to their estates in America; such acts as these being deemed, in the West-Indies, to give the strongest right and title to such plantations. Moreover, this river, and the land circumadjacent thereto, has been claimed, from time immemorial, by the Mosketoe Indians, who being the original natives of this place, and of the lands hereabouts, and having never been conquered by the Spaniards, nor submitted to their dominion, but have long been faithful friends and allies to the English nation; they have, by virtue of submitting to the sovereignty of the crown of England, and that crown's acceptance of such their submission, put themselves and all their lands and territories under the dominion of the British government; and, therefore, in consequence hereof, this river, and land adjoining thereto, claimed by the British logwood-cutters and traders, became annexed to the crown of England, from our first possession of the same. This gives England even a much stronger right and title to this logwood colony, than the lords commissioners of Trade and Plantations assert, in the preceding representation to his late majesty, we have to that of Campeachy. And although this identical river, and lands adjoining thereto, are not expressly mentioned by the lords of Trade and Plantations; yet they are necessary implied in the UTI POSSIDETIS, and also under these express terms, where their lordships say, 'Whereas, if your majesty's subjects did actually hold and possess the Laguna de Terminos, and the PARTS ADJACENT, at the time of the conclusion of the American treaty, as hath been already proved, the last clause of the seventh article will determine to whom the same belongs, &c.'—For this river Bellese, and the lands adjoining thereto, inhabited by the British logwood traders, are the parts adjacent to the Laguna de Terminos, this river, though in the bay of Honduras, stretching itself to the Laguna de Terminos within a few leagues, through morafs and impassable land, and therefore, may as justly be said to be PARTS ADJACENT to the said

said Laguna de Terminos, as Trist and Beef-Island in the bay of Campeachy may. And, when the Spaniards dispossessed the subjects of the crown of England from the Laguna de Terminos, and Trist and Beef-Island in the bay of Campeachy, many of those logwood-traders joined their brethren on this river Bellese, by the way of Honduras Bay, they not being able to come at the same by the way of the Laguna de Terminos in the bay of Campeachy.

When we hear of ships being taken in the bay of Honduras with logwood, I do not ever remember to have heard, in any of our public accounts, the particular place specified from whence the subjects of the crown of England got their logwood; which has occasioned an egregious mistake, many imagining that no British vessel has any right to go into the bay of Honduras at all, and, therefore, that whatever ships are found there must certainly have been engaged in the illicit trade, and, consequently, such ships are legal captures to the Spaniards: whereas the case may be, and generally is, quite otherwise; for those vessels go from Jamaica to this British logwood colony that has been so long settled on the river Bellese, and which, to the best of my recollection, lies near to Ascension Bay*; about two degrees and a quarter to the northward of the gulph of Honduras; for I never yet saw it in any map whatever.

* From the minute intelligence which I received from the beforementioned captain of a merchantman, who had used the logwood-trade to this river above twenty years, I drew two maps of this river, upon a large sheet of vellum; the one I presented to Sir Robert Walpole, late lord Orford, in the year 1738, and the other I have somehow lost; but, as that which I presented to the late Orford, may very probably be still in the hands of some body belonging to that noble family; I shall be greatly obliged if they would be pleased to favour me with the same, in order to have it engraved for this work, and the original shall be returned. If they should be so kind, let them please to send the map to Messrs. John and Paul Knapton, booksellers in Ludgate-Street, or to my house at Brompton, near Kensington.

The island of Ratan, in the bay of Honduras, was taken possession of in order to secure the logwood-trade of the river Bellese; and I have some reason to believe, in consequence of what I did myself the honour to lay before Sir Robert Walpole, in relation thereto; for the possession of this island, and the aid of the Mosketoe Indians, would have always protected the logwood-trade of this part.

But as this logwood colony, as well as that in the bay of Campeachy, gives such umbrage and jealousy to the Spaniards, that this trade is carried on chiefly to cover and promote an illicit commerce with their colonies, where we have no more right to trade directly to, than other nations have to the British colonies: as the situation of these colonies are likely ever to create misunderstandings and heart-burnings between the crowns of England and Spain, it would be happy for both nations if some reasonable and moderate expedient could be thought of, to prevent any future rupture, upon this occasion, between the two kingdoms. To which end I crave leave, with all humble submission, to suggest the following measures, viz.

1. That although it is apparent we have an undoubted right to the logwood-trade in the bay of Campeachy, as represented by the honourable the lords of Trade and Plantations; and also the same right to this trade in the aforesaid river Bellese, in the bay of Honduras; yet, in order to convince his Catholic majesty, and the whole world, that the British nation is desirous to maintain a strict and inviolable amity with Spain, let the crown of Great-Britain absolutely give up and renounce their right to the logwood-trade in the one or the other of these places; and let the renunciation of the one, and the right of the other, be ratified and confirmed by a new and explicit convention, as shall be agreed upon between the two crowns.—And as the absolute right to the whole of the Campeachy settlement may be judged by the court of Spain to be of more consequence to them, and the logwood-trade carried on there by the British nation more likely to cover an illicit trade than the settlement on the river Bellese, in the bay of Honduras; let Great-Britain absolutely give up and renounce, by such convention, her right to the logwood-trade in the bay of Campeachy, upon express condition only, that her absolute right to the logwood-trade upon the said river Bellese be also ratified and confirmed by the said logwood convention.

2. That all the logwood, cut by the Spaniards in the bay of Campeachy, shall be carried in Spanish bottoms to Jamaica, and there sold to the British subjects, at such a fixed price as shall be stipulated in the said new convention.

3. That the subjects of all other powers whatsoever shall be excluded from the cutting of logwood in the bay of Campeachy, or the purchase of logwood at first hand of the Spaniards, in any part of the said bay of Campeachy.

4. That the subjects of the crown of England shall have the free and uninterrupted liberty of trade and navigation to the said river Bellese, in the bay of Honduras, and to fortify the same in such a manner as they shall judge proper for their security.

5. That logwood on board of any British ship shall not be deemed contraband goods, nor shall any British ship whatever be searched by the Spaniards upon the high seas.

VOL. II.

6. That all British ships caught in the ports of New Spain, save in the logwood port at Bellese river, and except drove thither by stress of weather, &c. as agreed by subsisting treaties, shall be liable to be taken, with their cargoes, and confiscated by the Spaniards to their sole use.

These are the outlines of what I would humbly submit to public consideration, in order to prevent any future broils between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, in regard to this branch of commerce; leaving such additions and alterations to be made as shall be judged requisite to answer the end proposed.—If the Spaniards should not acquiesce to some measures of this, or some other kind, in order to regulate the logwood-trade, it is apparent that they have no intention to keep friendship with this nation.

Further REMARKS, on the unreasonableness of the Spaniards to insist upon the search of British ships upon the high seas of America.

That Great-Britain does not insist upon this point of No SEARCH of their ships upon the open seas, from any chicaning motive or view, to cover an illicit trade to the Spanish colonies in America, but from an upright and honourable intention, to secure and maintain an uninterrupted freedom of navigation to and from her own colonies in America; will appear, it is humbly presumed, from the clearest evidence and conviction, that the court of Spain can reasonably desire or expect. For,

1. The course of the winds in those seas between the tropics, it must be observed, is generally between the east and north-east, which are distinguished commonly by the name of trade-winds; and, close to the coasts of the great islands of Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Porto-Rico, there are also alternate land and sea-winds. The land-winds blow right off from the islands, on which side soever you are; they begin about sun-set, and blow sometimes 'till eight or nine o'clock in the morning, and are succeeded by sea-breezes.

2. There is likewise a strong rapid current to the westward, along the south side of all these beforementioned islands; and this is occasioned by the trade-winds blowing from the Canary islands over all the Atlantic Ocean. This current forces the sea very violently upon the coast of Guiana, which turns it through between the islands of Trinidad and Barbadoes: this rapid current is confined between the continent and the islands of Porto-Rico, Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Cuba, and continues its force to Cape Gracias Dios, being all the way accelerated in its violent rapidity by the wind that still follows it.

3. At Cape Gracias Dios the same current bends its course to the northward; and, as it passes between Cape Catoche, on the isthmus of Yucatan and the west end of Cuba, becomes still far more rapid and violent than any where else. These things premised, the necessity, the absolute and indispensable necessity British ships are under, for security of their navigation only, of keeping as close as they possibly can to the Spanish coast, will appear obvious and indisputable. For, The nearest course of our ships from Great-Britain, or from our northern colonies to Jamaica, is, either along the south side of Porto-Rico and Hispaniola, or directly between those two islands, or between Hispaniola and the island of Cuba. It is very true, indeed, upon a bare survey of the map, it does not appear, to the theorist and unexperienced land-man, that British ships are under the absolute necessity of approaching very near to the Spanish coasts; but those who have been experienced in the navigation of those seas, well know, that, even in the greatest calms, they are continually forced extremely near; nay, so near as within pistol-shot of the Spanish coasts, and are sometimes forced full upon the Spanish shore, to the immediate destruction of their vessels: and this is occasioned by the incessant rapidity of the beforementioned current, and the chopping seas our ships meet with between these islands, even after a calm; for it must be observed, that the dying winds, after any thing of tempestuous weather, always leave a strong sea running to the westward: so that our outward-bound ships, not from any view to an illicit trade, are necessitated, for the security of their navigation only, to keep as near to the Spanish shore as they possibly can, with safety from the shore itself, for the benefit of the land-winds, and to avoid the dangerous and often fatal effects of the rapid current, and the chopping seas.

And, with regard to those ships which are homeward-bound from Jamaica, there is still a far greater necessity for their sailing as close to the Spanish coast as, with safety, they possibly can. For those ships which load at King's-Town or Spanish-Town in Jamaica, or any where to the eastward thereof, frequently attempt to return to England and our northern colonies thro' the Windward Passage, between Cuba and Hispaniola, where they are always certain of meeting with the wind and current against them from the eastward, except they haul close over upon the coast of Cuba, for the benefit of a land-wind, as before observed, and to avoid the violence of the current, which runs against them.

Without our ships keeping thus close to the Spanish coast, it is absolutely impossible to sail to the eastward at all, through

the Windward Passage: and, notwithstanding they do keep as close to the shore as they can, and take all imaginable advantage of the shelter of the land, and of the land-winds; yet, in spite of all the assistance they can thus receive, they frequently lie beating there for several weeks together; and, after all their endeavours, are at last too frequently compelled to bear away round cape St. Anthony, at the west end of the island of Cuba, from whence they steer their course through the gulph of Florida: and this course most of our ships which load to the westward of King's-Town, or Port-Royal, chuse, as being the quickest passage.

And, in the passage of British ships from Jamaica, through the gulph, we are also under the same necessity of keeping as close to the south-west part of Cuba, and as close to the west and north-west part, as the shoal of the Collarado will, with security, admit: for, if our ships do not keep close to the land in this critical place, the north-west current is here so excessively strong, violent, and rapid, that it forces our ships often 50 or 60 leagues, or more, to the westward; and, when they are at such a distance from the land in this place, it is with the greatest difficulty they are able to recover it again; but, if they do, it may be several months first, which is certainly no little injury to our trade and navigation.

We have a memorable instance of the danger of this north-west current, in the late confederate war of queen Anne. A considerable fleet of merchantmen, under the convoy of a large squadron of men of war, made this mistake of keeping too wide of the land, upon doubling the west end of Cuba, and stretched so far to the north that they judged themselves out of the sight of Cuba, and plied the wind in that latitude 'till they thought themselves the height of the gulph of Florida; then stood to the northward accordingly, 'till they imagined themselves quite clear of the gulph, and congratulated the admiral upon the occasion, whose name at present I do not recollect, but I think it was admiral Benbow. After which, crowding full sail with a brisk gale of wind in the night, to their great astonishment, saw the land right a-head, which proved to be in the very bottom of the bay of Apalache. This was occasioned by the rapidity of the north-west current; and, had not the whole fleet immediately changed their course, this mistake would certainly have proved fatal to them. There are numberless instances of merchantmen, which, by not keeping as close to the Spanish coast as they possibly could, with safety from the shore, in this place have met with this current; which has either proved the loss of their vessels, or several months retarded their voyage.

Should it be objected, by the Spanish ministry, that the current, all the way taken notice of, does not always set strong to the westward, but that it sometimes changes, and sets to the eastward. To this it is answered, That, although, it is certain the main current does sometimes set to the eastward; yet this is but very seldom, and never of any long continuance on that point: besides, the time of such changes is altogether uncertain, and, therefore, our ships cannot take the advantage of setting out when the current should happen to favour them.

Unless, therefore, the English nation can make the winds and the currents to obey them in the seas of America, they cannot, consistent with their natural rights of navigation, submit to have their ships searched, under any colour or pretence whatsoever; nor can they submit to any limitation of course or distance whatever, in sailing by the Spanish coasts, so as to preserve and maintain a freedom and safety of navigation to and from their own plantations.

I have dwelt the longer upon this point, judging it of the last importance to our navigation in America; and never having heard this point, in all the debates that have been, for above these 20 years about it, stated in its clear and full light, I hope it will not prove an unacceptable service to my country to make this public, having had the same confirmed to me for several years past, by a great number of skilful and experienced captains of merchantmen, who, I am persuaded, could have no view to deceive me in my enquiries.

Of the illicit, or contraband trade, said by the Spaniards to be carried on by the English, and other nations, in Spanish America.

The subject on which I am at present engaged, naturally leading to the consideration of that part of the trade of the Spanish West-Indies which is commonly called illicit, or contraband, it may not be useless to take some notice of it, in this place; and, first, it may be necessary to be informed of the sentiments of the Spaniards themselves in relation to this matter; which we find in the works of the learned Spaniard Don Geronymo de Uztariz*.

* See vol. I. cap. 29.

In a treatise already mentioned, says this great statesman, entitled, *The Interest of England ill understood*; in the war which was carried on in the year 1704, we have a detail of the various sorts of merchandize brought from England to Spain and Portugal, of which the principal is fish, with a remark that three parts are for Spain, and the fourth for Portugal; but that the profits are very different. The returns from

Portugal are made in commodities and fruits exported, such as tobacco, wine, sugar, spices, and salt; while those of Spain are much more advantageous to the English, as they principally consist of bullion, and bars of silver: for the wine, wooll, and other commodities they take back, are far from being a balance for the goods brought into Spain.

In the same book it is also said, That one of the principal branches of commerce which the English possess in America, consists of an illicit traffic with his majesty's provinces, by introducing their merchandize by way of Jamaica; and the return is usually in bullion, wood, and cocheneal; and they estimate their gain by this single traffic at six millions of dollars yearly, and draw even more money from the Spanish dominions by way of Jamaica than Cadiz: nor ought this to be strange, since, in the month of August 1722, there arrived in England 30 vessels freighted from Jamaica; and, if we consider the barrenness of that island, one must be convinced that a principal part of their loading had been drawn from Spanish America: and the case is the same with the other numerous and frequent convoys that pass backwards and forwards from England to Jamaica, where, for the reason given above, and the few inhabitants of that island, a small part of the numerous goods carried over will be consumed there; and, therefore, they dispose of the rest to the Spaniards, as the English themselves confess. Moreover, the same book mentions the danger this branch of their commerce will be exposed to in the course of a war*, they had unjustly declared against us, since we could put a stop to it with six frigates, stationed to scour those seas.

* However good an opinion the learned Spaniard may entertain of this English writer, yet the advantage reaped in the late war, as well as in that of queen Anne, in Jamaica, by means of the Spanish West-India trade carried on from thence, shews that this author was much out in that foresight to which he pretended. Some years since I met with this author, translated into French; and, if I remember right, the original was reputed to have been wrote by a noted English Jesuit, who resided in the city of London, and who, of course, was no friend to the Protestant interest; and, therefore, wished success to the Popish confederacy at that time, and wrote that treatise then to spirit up the Spaniards and French against England and her allies. But if foreigners form their judgment of the commerce and power of this kingdom, from the party writings of either side, with which we abound, it is not to be admired that they are frequently misled in regard to some very essential points.—And some of those writers, who would be thought very zealous in their country's interest, have been the instruments of doing her the greatest mischief. We would by no means be understood to restrain the liberty of the press in any degree, while a becoming decency, and the character of the gentleman is preserved, that privilege being the great palladium of all our liberties: but I would observe, that our own people at home, as well as foreigners abroad, are too often egregiously imposed upon by the party writings of all sides. This many wise and good men have lamented; and, I am willing to flatter myself, that this work wherein I am engaged will, in relation to commercial affairs, prevent evils of this nature; for party artifice has too often a great share in those concerns; having endeavoured, to the utmost of my ability, to guard against every thing of that kind; for the grand pole-star by which I have endeavoured to conduct myself, is the general prosperity and happiness of Great-Britain in particular; and that without any intention whatever to injure any other nation, unless the rousing of my countrymen to beat them in honest industry, art, and ingenuity, will be said to be so.

That an illicit and contraband trade hath sometimes been carried on by the subjects of the crown of England, from Jamaica to the Spanish West-Indies, will hardly be denied; and so it hath been, and daily is, by the subjects of other nations. This, however, is no palliation of what is wrong in itself. Such is the ineffectuality both of divine and human laws, that no trading nation can absolutely prevent the smuggling and contraband trade, even within their own dominions, much less are they able to prevent their subjects from practising the like in foreign countries. No nation is more sensible of these things than that of Spain; for, although their laws are very rigorous and severe against smuggling in Spanish America: though they erected a gallows at Panama, to put a stop to it: yet they have not hitherto been able to do it. And, while their own subjects will carry on an illicit trade with foreigners, it is no wonder that the latter will run the hazard likewise.

Every nation has a right to enact what laws they judge proper for the regulation, as well of the trade and navigation of their respective colonies and plantations, as of the mother-state. But these laws and regulations should never interfere with subsisting public treaties, nor with the laws of nations, which give every state a right and freedom of navigation to and from their several colonies and plantations: for such laws and regulations which interfere with public treaties, and the laws of nations, must tend to destroy all amity with such nations who make them.

If the ships of Spain, in their navigation to and from their American colonies, sail near to any of the English or French colonies, would not the Spaniards highly resent it, if the English

lish or French should detain and search their ships on the high seas, upon the pretence of their having been concerned in an illicit and contraband trade? But if the English or the French, or any other nation, caught the ships of Spain in the ports of any of their colonies and plantations, carrying on an illicit and contraband trade, Spain neither could or would complain, if such of their ships and cargoes were seized and confiscated: Spain would not think this any infraction of treaties, or any violation of the law of nations; it would be using smugglers as they deserve.—So whenever the Spanish officers in America have really caught either the English, French, or Dutch ships or vessels, in any of the Spanish ports, carrying on an illicit and contraband traffic, those courts never have, or ever will complain, if the Spaniards seize and confiscate such ships and vessels; nor will the captives themselves ever have the confidence to complain, whenever this is the case: all states, on these occasions, must submit to the laws of nations for the reciprocal security of their commerce and their revenues.

This seems to be the natural and right light wherein the Spaniards, if unbiassed by self-partiality, should consider this matter; they should, as England, and every wise trading nation must and will, enact the most salutary laws for the government of their colonies and plantations, to prevent evils of this nature; and have such upright governors and active and vigilant officers, as will suppress, instead of promote and encourage, for private interest, this infamous traffic. What difficulties has not the government of England had to suppress smuggling, and yet has not been able to eradicate it; though it is certain, that, from the vigilance, vigour, and resolution of the administration, the knot is broke of the most notorious and enormous villains of this stamp; whereby this detestable commerce is greatly decreased. But every trading nation has these mal-practices to bear with more or less: and, would the court of Spain take the like measures that England has been obliged to do, and hang up those of their own subjects, whom they find any way concerned in, and in any respect encouraging a contraband trade, they might soon, perhaps, put a stop to it, notwithstanding the great extent of their coasts; and, in such case, the subjects of England, France, and Holland, must of course cease to be concerned therein.

But, if the Spaniards are really in earnest to suppress this illicit traffic in their American dominions, and do not suffer the same to be countenanced with a view to make a handle of; should they not let their subjects in those parts have a constant and full supply of such assortments of merchandizes, by the legal way of Old Spain, wherein they know they stand in need? If this is not regularly and effectually done, how can it be expected that the subjects of the crown of Spain, in any part of America, will want such merchandizes wherein they stand in need, if there is a possibility of coming at them in any shape? If then the principal cause of the illicit and contraband trade carried on in Spanish America by the subjects of the several other states of Europe, as well as by the subjects of the crown of Great-Britain, may be ascribed to the deficiency of the laws of Spain, or to the bad execution of their laws in New Spain; if the commerce from Old Spain to New is not so wisely regulated by the due sailing of their galleons and register-ships, &c. as it might be, to afford their subjects in America such a constant supply of merchandize as they must and will have, does not the fault in this respect lie in the court of Spain itself?

When the South Sea company possessed and exercised the Asiento contract, Spain was incessantly complaining of the illicit commerce carried on by the means, and under the cover of the exercise of that contract: that is now at an end; and, if there was any truth in these suggestions of the crown of Spain, all illicit trade occasioned thereby has ceased with the Asiento itself.

There may be probably enough still some degree of illicit trade carried on as well by the subjects of the crown of England in Spanish America, as by the subjects of other powers: but, will a mere suspicion of this in the crown of Spain, justify their detention and search of British or any other ships, indeed, upon the high seas? We have seen the apparent and inevitable necessity under which our British ships in particular lie, to sail as near as possibly they can, with safety, to the Spanish coasts, in their lawful navigation to and from the British colonies and plantations; without which, our people are frequently liable either to lose their lives and ships, by reason of the winds and currents, or to have their voyage some months retarded: we have seen likewise the foundation of our right, by treaties, to the logwood-trade in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras; and the unreasonableness of the Spaniards, in presuming to detain and search our ships upon the high seas, in their navigation to and from our logwood or other colonies, under the pretext of having been engaged in illicit trade: we have also seen, that logwood, the produce of those places which have been particularized in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, is as much a British commodity, as sugar, rice, and tobacco are British commodities, in any of our other colonies; and that the Spaniards have not the least foundation to condemn any British

vessel for having logwood on board; for that such conduct is an apparent violation of subsisting treaties.

With respect to the article of cacao-nuts, that may be on board British ships, it is well known that they likewise are the product of our own settlements in America; so that all the dispute between Great-Britain and Spain is reduced to the simple point of pieces of eight, which is the current coin of the Spanish West-Indies. To which we would observe, this is a specie, that all the European nations which trade in a lawful manner by way of Old Spain to New, have in return together with other commodities from Spanish America, for the merchandizes which they send thither; and it is well known, that Spanish pieces of eight are looked upon in the light of a commodity, by all those nations who traffic with Spain, and is accordingly bought and sold among them; and, indeed, so are the foreign coins, more or less, of the principal trading nations of Europe: nay, the chief current coins of Europe are, in some degree, in a perpetual circulation over the whole traffickable world. And these pieces of eight, which the other European nations receive from Old Spain, are again carried back to America, and disseminated among all the colonies and plantations belonging to the several potentates therein interested: in the French, Dutch, and Portuguese colonies, there are Spanish pieces of eight to be seen in the way of traffic, and so there are guineas and louis d'ors, &c. Our northern colonies trade with the French islands, and our islands frequently trade with the Dutch in America, whereby, in the currency of trade, Spanish pieces of eight, as well as divers other foreign coins, are constantly passing from colony to colony; but this will not prove that, when such Spanish pieces of eight are found on board British, or any other vessels belonging to these European nations who have settlements in America, these vessels have been carrying on an illicit and contraband trade with the Spaniards in the Spanish West-Indies; these identical pieces of eight might come into their hands, in consequence of the legal commerce of Old Spain; and, if they are afterwards carried to circulate among all the colonies in America, which is frequently the case; will this justify the Spaniards in searching, much less in taking or condemning the ships of any European power, for having such specie on board, who have any right to trade in America? This will justify them the least of any, in taking British ships on the high seas of America; because these ships often take out this specie with them, wherewith to facilitate their commerce among the British colonies in general; and are obliged, as we have seen, to navigate even within gun-shot of the Spanish coast, merely for security of their lives, their ships, and their cargoes.

Such was the situation of the English and Spanish interests in America, before the year 1667, that the latter attempted an express prohibition of trade to all other nations, to the Spanish West-Indies; this they laboured long but ineffectually to procure; they met with constant opposition to any stipulation of this kind in their favour, in the reigns both of queen Elizabeth and king James; and this was thought to be one of the principal causes that brought the brave Sir Walter Raleigh to the block.

In the reign of Charles the First, the Spaniards renewed their solicitations for a clause of this nature in the treaty, then concluded between Spain and England, and offered a considerable sum of money to procure it, but they were still unsuccessful; nor could all the honours and favour they heaped upon Charles II. during his exile, prevail with him to grant them any promise for that purpose, in case he was restored to the crown. In consequence of this being the state of the case, at the time we are speaking of, between England and Spain, the Spanish governors were absolutely restrained, by orders from the court of Madrid, from permitting any other nation to trade with the Spanish West-Indies. Nay, we endeavoured to have this liberty explicitly confirmed by treaty to us; but this being contrary to maxims, which, by long usage, had acquired the strength of fundamental laws in that monarchy, we could never obtain it. This was the intent of the embassy of Sir Richard Fanshawe in the year 1664. However, in later days we have been more moderate: Great-Britain seems, at present, to require nothing of the crown of Spain, in order to preserve an inviolable friendship with that nation, but what is her indisputable right; and that she certainly has to the cutting of logwood in such parts of the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, as have been before represented. She also has an indisputable right to a free and uninterrupted navigation to and from her own colonies in America, as well as the Spaniards have to theirs; and that without any detention or search of their ships whatsoever upon the high seas, by Spanish guarda costas or others, under pretence of suspecting them to have contraband goods on board.

REMARKS upon the whole of this article of LOGWOOD, before the last war.

It is too notorious to need proof, that the late war was occasioned by the depredations, which were committed by the Spaniards upon British ships trading to and from our logwood and other British colonies in America; and it is well enough

enough known to the whole world, that the long forbearance of the court of Great-Britain to come to an open rupture with the crown of Spain, upon this occasion, is scarce to be paralleled in history: and, if the accounts we have of late received from Jamaica and the northern colonies be true, there is too much reason to believe, that the Spaniards are about to act the like scene over again, that occasioned the war. If this should be the case, as I hope it will not, I have humbly submitted an expedient to public consideration, to prevent those evils with regard to the logwood-trade, that is as much calculated for the interest of Spain as that of Great-Britain. In what has been urged in relation to that point, and the search of British ships upon the high seas of America, I have not shewed the least partiality towards my own country; I have stated only the naked facts without exaggeration, which generally eclipses the truth.

It is to be wished, that our logwood settlements were situated elsewhere, that might give no umbrage or jealousy to the Spaniards; it is therefore I have proposed the ascertaining our right to that colony in the RIVER BELLESE; in sailing to and from which, our British traders can give no cause of suspicion that they intend an illicit and contraband trade, under colour of the logwood-trade: and every impartial Spaniard must allow, that it is condescension enough in the crown of England to give up their right to the logwood-trade, in Campeachy, upon the conditions suggested, in case the British right is explicitly ascertained, by treaty, to that small river Bellese. But, if the court of Spain should not acquiesce in so fair and equitable a proposition, which I have done myself the honour humbly to submit to consideration; it will demonstrate that the crown of Spain is determined to break with Great-Britain at all events, if they should continue to take our ships in the manner they did before the late war, in 1741. And, if this should prove to be the real disposition of that court, if we were even to give up the whole logwood-trade, they would nevertheless take our ships in sailing to and from our other colonies; so that there would be no end of concession upon concession.

If this should ever come to be the case, the regulations of the logwood-trade, proposed by Sir Thomas Lynch governor of Jamaica, may, perhaps, be first necessary to be settled, viz. that all ships trading to our logwood colonies should sail together in small squadrons, as is taken notice of in the representation of the lords commissioners of trade before quoted. In a word, every prudential measure should be tried to settle this point in an amicable manner between the two crowns, if there is a possibility of so doing.—But the most effectual pacific measures to be taken, we humbly apprehend, should be in such a commercial way, as would pinch the Spaniard in the most tender point.—Whatever could be thought of in this shape should be essayed, before the sword is again drawn upon the like occasion; and, if every endeavour of this kind in the court of Great-Britain proves fruitless, then all imaginable weight and dignity should be given to the administration by unanimity at home, that such alliances with foreign powers might be made, and such effectual measures taken by the parliament, as would bring the Spaniards to terms of reason and justice with a nation, by which they gain more than by any other whatsoever, and in whose power it may one day be to do them more mischief than another state whatever*.—But nothing can be a greater folly, we conceive, than for a trading nation to go to war, till every measure, possible to be thought of, is tried to prevent it; and yet every wise measure taken previously to prepare for it, before we ever attempt to strike the blow again, that, when do strike, we may do it with such secrecy and effectuality, as may make the Spaniards repent their maltreatment of a nation that has bore so much to preserve peace with them: and, if once, as I heard a great man say; previously to a declaration of war with Spain, it was the sense of a British parliament to address the throne, that they would grant supplies to carry on a war against Spain, upon condition only that Great-Britain should HOLD WHAT POSSESSIONS THEY GOT IN THE WAR, this would be no ill-judged step to prevent one; but, if we had one, it would occasion our whole strength to be levelled, where it would be most sensibly felt.

* Did not the Spaniards experience this, by our taking the Havannah in the last war?

REMARKS.

The foregoing was the state of our LOGWOOD article, before the last war; but by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, that point is settled as follows, in the XVIIth article of the said treaty, "His Britannic majesty shall cause to be demolished all the FORTIFICATIONS which his subjects shall have erected in the BAY OF HONDURAS, and OTHER PLACES of the territory of Spain in that part of the world, four months after the ratification of the present treaty: And his Catholic majesty shall not permit his Britannic majesty's subjects, or their workmen, to be disturbed, or molested, under any pretence whatsoever, in the SAID PLACES, in their occupation of CUTTING, LOADING, and CARRYING AWAY LOGWOOD. And for this purpose,

"they may build without hindrance, and occupy without interruption, the houses and magazines which are necessary for them, for their families, and for their effects: And his Catholic majesty assures to them, by this article, the full enjoyment of those advantages and powers on the Spanish coasts and territories, as above stipulated, immediately after the ratifications of the present treaty."

We find that, at length, this long contested point, respecting the LOGWOOD TRADE, is settled by treaty, which it never was explicitly before. For the Spaniards would never before acknowledge, that we had any right to cut logwood in the BAY OF HONDURAS; but by the said article, the subjects of his Britannic majesty are permitted to CUT, LOAD, and CARRY AWAY logwood from the said bay, and wherever else they had erected fortifications, upon condition only of their demolishing such fortifications.

But since the said DEFINITIVE TREATY has been made between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, the following accounts having been reported to be transmitted to the court of London, it will be necessary to record the same in this work; though we are willing to hope, that the court of Spain will disavow what follows, or it may possibly be attended with a fresh war; for the consequences of which, see our article NEW MEXICO.

Philadelphia, May 10. By the Olive Branch, captain Robinson, from Honduras bay, we have advice, that the Spaniards had forbid the English from cutting wood in the bay; upon which they had sent an express to Jamaica for assistance. The following is a translation of a letter from the Spanish general to the commanding officer in the bay.

SIR,

The king, my master, having appointed me to the employment of governor and captain-general of this province, with especial order to comply entirely with what his majesty granted to the crown of England, and stipulated in the 17th article of the definitive treaty of peace, signed at Paris the 10th day of February, this year, commanding me likewise that with all possible dispatch, I should proceed on my voyage, which I could not do so soon as I desired, for various disappointments which happened. I arrived at Campeachy the 7th instant, and having taken possession the 24th, I was informed of your arrival at Balis in the month of April, also five vessels, and that immediately the people were dispersed as far as Rio Hondo, practising from that time the cutting of logwood, by virtue of the treaty of peace. You did not present the royal schedule that my sovereign expedited for this end, nor the licence of the king of England for the aforesaid effect.

This being granted, I am obliged by the king, my lord, in his royal confidence of the government of this province, and to comply entirely with the said 17th article of the definitive treaty of peace, as I said before, to dispatch the commandant of the fort of Bacalar, don Joseph Rosado, with this, requiring you, that in consideration of the want of instruments for your introduction, and having extended yourselves, gathering fruits as in your own country, without waiting to settle the limits with the necessary solemnity that should have secured your establishment, you will be pleased, with all speed, to give the necessary advice to all your community that are in Rio Hondo, to retire to Balis; and I expect you will present me with the royal schedule, that the king, my master, dispatched to this end, or with orders from the king of Great-Britain for this effect; and there is no doubt but I shall then attend to it with that care and equity I am commanded; issuing for that purpose the necessary orders to all the commandants, cabos, military and judiciary of all the districts in their jurisdiction; by which means the suspicion of the fatal consequences will cease, which will be inevitable if such conduct is continued, sufficient to destroy the good harmony between the two nations, and happy tranquillity we enjoy, if the remedy is not occurred to in time, and our sovereign will manifestly see how we interest ourselves, that their just and laudable intentions take effect, for which I am so ready on my part, as is manifest by my toleration, that you and all your nation remain at Balis, and I promise myself the same on your parts, protesting always that for the result of what may happen by such irregular introduction and excess of cutting logwood, those who commit, or do not remedy them, will be responsible after all. I hope you will favour me with an answer by hand of the said commandant of Bacalar, and other commands most to your satisfaction, to manifest to you the desire I have to serve you. God guard you many years, as he can, and I desire. Your most humble servant, kisses your hands,

PHILIPPE REMIRES DE ESTINOS.

Marida, in Jucatan, 29th of December, 1763.

Seir Don JOSEPH MAUD.

Don Joseph Rosado, lieutenant of infantry in the battalion of Castillia, and commandant of this garrison and royal fort of St Philip, of Bacalar, and it's jurisdictions.

Notwithstanding that the serjeant Dionisius Chavaria, who is detached to the look-out of St. Anthony, has the necessary

fary orders, that the English logwood-cutters of Rio Hondo, do retreat to Balis, without permitting them to make any demur, because that since the 4th instant, when the order of the governor and captain-general was by me intimated to them, they have had competent time to evacuate the river, carrying away the utensils of their houses. I order and command the said serjeant, that he receive eleven soldiers of this garrison, well armed, which, with four there before, completes the number of fifteen, to remain at the said look-out; that with them he is not to permit any English vessel, under any pretext, to enter the mouth of this river; on the contrary, if any flats remain in the river, they are to go out, with the utensils of their houses, with so much brevity, as not to permit them to stop any where, but retire totally; as likewise those from the New River; because in the order intimated to them, it is expressed, that the retreat shall be to Balis, and no other part; and to act on the contrary, they expose themselves to evident danger, as by their disobedience they lose their negroes, and find themselves under a violent arrest. This order he shall manifest to as many as are not yet gone out, that by this means it arrive at the notice of all the baymen, and at no time they may plead ignorance. And all that is done on the subject by the said serjeant, he shall give me punctual advice; as also of what may occur, to advise his excellency the governor and captain-general, from whom I have orders to execute what may be needful;—in case of contumacy, disobedience, or rebellion, laying to the charge of the baymen, all the results that may happen between the sovereigns, for not executing what they are ordered, and that it appear to the said serjeant what is hereby ordered; and that he fulfil his obligation with that zeal, love and conduct he ought. This order is given in this garrison and royal fort of St. Philip, Bacalar, this 22d of February, 1764.

JOSEPH ROSADO.

I, the serjeant Dionisius Chavaria, certify, that the above is a true copy of the order I received this day from the commandant don Joseph Rosado,

JO. MAUD,
JA. GRANT,
STEPHEN ARCHHOLD.

DIONISIUS CHAVARIA.

To his excellency William Henry Littleton, Esq; governor and captain-general of the island of Jamaica, and other the territories thereunto belonging, chancellor and vice-admiral of the same, &c. the humble petition of the principal settlers on the Bay of Honduras, for cutting of logwood, and the commanders of vessels now lying there to load,

Humbly sheweth,

That your petitioners by virtue of the preliminary treaty of peace (in the 17th article whereof it is stipulated, that the subjects of his Britannic majesty shall have the privilege of cutting and carrying away logwood in the Bay of Honduras; with liberty to build houses and magazines, necessary for themselves and families) in the month of April 1763, came down here for the aforesaid purpose of cutting logwood; and on their first arrival, dispatched a letter to the commandant of Bacalar, being the nearest Spanish settlement; who returned for answer, that he would transmit it to the governor and captain-general of the province of Yucatan; whose orders on the subject, he, the said commandant, communicated to your petitioners, which was to comply entirely with the 16th article of the preliminary treaty of peace.

That afterwards, by virtue of a letter from the said governor of Yucatan, No. 1, in the answer to a letter from Joseph Maud, one of your petitioners, a copy of which is No. 2, several of your petitioners went into Rio Hondo, to cut logwood; and from that time unmolested followed their occupations, till the 4th of this instant February, in good harmony and correspondence with the Spaniards, by frequent letters from the governor of Yucatan, and answers by Joseph Maud, one of your petitioners, all hereunto annexed, at which time don Joseph Rosado, commandant of Bacalar, delivered the said Joseph Maud, one of your petitioners, the letter from the governor of Yucatan aforesaid, No. 3, ordering your petitioners to retreat to Balis, 'till they produce either a schedule from his Catholic majesty, or orders from the king of Great-Britain, to authorize them to cut logwood. In consequence whereof, your petitioners, with all possible dispatch, endeavoured to withdraw their effects to the New River and Balis, in both which rivers your petitioners had formerly settlements. But on the 23d instant they were again disturbed, by an order from the commandant of Bacalar, directed to the serjeant of the guard at the mouth of Rio Hondo, an authentic copy of which is likewise annexed, No. 4, by which your petitioners are ordered to evacuate every river except Balis, where it is admitted them to stay a little while, but, as your petitioners believe, not to have the privilege of cutting logwood even there; that your petitioners are hereby driven to the greatest distress, not having any plantations to maintain themselves and families; that by means of so total a stagnation of business,

VOL. II.

many of your petitioners, and commanders of vessels, that have lain for some time here, are in the greatest danger of wanting provisions; that they have disposed of their cargoes to your petitioners, the settlers, who, by reason of being driven from their occupations, are incapable of paying for them; and that the vessels lately arrived, not seeing any prospect of immediate payment, refuse to sell their provisions. These are the miseries your petitioners experience from the inhumanity of the Spaniards.

And your petitioners likewise humbly represent to your excellency, that not having any legal authority for settling disputes with each other, they find themselves reduced to a state of anarchy and confusion, nor have the injured any method to seek redress; that your petitioners humbly apprehend, that without order it is impossible for any community long to subsist.

Your petitioners therefore humbly pray, that your excellency will be pleased to grant them such relief as their own distressed circumstances require, and your great wisdom shall direct; and your petitioners shall ever pray.

Further REMARKS.

In answer to the said petition of the logwood-cutters to governor Littleton, it has been observed, that it is evident, from the said petition, that from the month of April 1763, to the 4th day of February 1764, the logwood-cutters had remained undisturbed in the occupation and possession of all that had been stipulated by the treaty of peace; and that the suspension of their logwood cutting, had been in consequence of a letter of the 29th of December 1763, written to Joseph Maud, by Philippe Remires de Estinos, captain-general of Yucatan, who had arrived at Campeachy the 7th of the same month. Before the arrival of this Spaniard, the letter of the 17th article had been strictly observed on the part of his countrymen in America: but as something relative to securing this trade to the English, and preventing the Spaniards from being imposed on by PRETENDERS TO THE RIGHTS OF BRITISH SUBJECTS, had been foreseen to be absolutely necessary to be established, that stipulation had been agreed on between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, and, according to don Remires's words, it consisted in obliging the logwood-cutters, either to be furnished with the ROYAL SCHEDULE WHICH SPAIN HAD EXPEDITED TO THIS END, OR WITH THE LICENCE OF THE KING OF ENGLAND, FOR THE AFORESAID EFFECT, and which was unknown before his arrival.

It appears, that it had been foreseen by the contracting parties, that the merchants of Holland, France, and of all the maritime powers, would discern the advantages that might be derived from the above article of the treaty of peace; and from such view, that ships would be fitted out in those countries, and navigated by English seamen, would undoubtedly be sent to the BAY OF HONDURAS, to possess themselves of those advantageous stipulations, which were intended for Great-Britain only.

And the late war having destined such numbers of the English to the sea-service, more than peace can employ, and by that means forced the English sailors into foreign service, sailors for the above purpose could not be wanting. Whence it should seem, it became absolutely necessary, that either the above-mentioned SCHEDULE or LICENCE should be found in the hands of those who were cutting logwood, as the best preservative both of THE ENGLISH AND SPANISH RIGHTS, from the invasion of others by fallacious means, and a mutual benefit to both nations.

That the want of those authorities is the chief reason for the suspension of the logwood-cutting, seems evident from the words of don Philip Remires, that in consideration of the want of instruments for your introduction, &c. "And I expect you will present me with the royal schedule that the king my master dispatched to this end, or orders from the king of Great-Britain for this effect; and there is no doubt but I shall then attend to it with the care and equity I am commanded, issuing for that purpose the necessary orders to all the commanders, cabos, military and judiciary of all the districts of their jurisdiction, &c."

By the 17th article of the treaty, the English are entitled to the cutting of logwood only: but it seems by the words of Remires, uncontradicted by the petitioners to governor Littleton, that they had extended themselves, gathering fruits as in their own country, and without waiting to settle the limits with the necessary solemnity that should have secured their establishment.

That some proper measures are necessary to restrain the privilege of cutting, loading, and carrying away logwood from the Bay of Honduras, to the subjects of Great-Britain only, and to preclude the subjects of all other states and empires from the like privileges, was certainly what was intended by their Britannic and Catholic majesties: but if foreign merchants, by the means of English sailors in their service, shall invade the rights of British subjects, and reap in part, or in whole, those advantages that were intended for the subjects of Great-Britain only, this is an injury to the mercantile subjects of England, as well as detrimental to Spain; and ought to be prevented for their mutual benefit.

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And

And it seeming by DON REMIRES's conduct, that a SCHEDULE or a LICENCE is to be the touchstone signifying such British right and privilege, by both courts, it should be complied with: and it is a pity that this point was not explicitly stipulated by the treaty; but if the disadvantages on both sides were not foreseen till experienced, and the matter has since the treaty took effect, been agreed on by both crowns as Don Remires has represented, it shews that a good harmony subsists between them, and that the expedient intimated is to be exercised in future to strengthen that desirable harmony. And certain it is, that the indiscriminate permission of all who shall call themselves Englishmen, to this beneficial right of cutting logwood, would, in a great measure, defeat the advantages which are fixed by treaty to the subjects and merchants of this island: and if the resident logwood-cutters at Honduras, and the British merchants who send ships thither to trade with British logwood-cutters, are both duly authorized by schedule or royal licence, it will prevent foreign interlopers from partaking of those British rights, under the mark of being English merchants, because they have a few English sailors on ship-board to countenance them in their unjustifiable logwood traffic.—And if the measures mentioned, or any other that may prove still more effectual to answer the end proposed should do so, then England will enjoy the exclusive right and privilege of cutting, loading, and carrying away logwood, which may prove a greater benefit to us, than was perhaps apprehended to arise from the logwood article in the DEFINITIVE TREATY.

To this it has been observed, that if a schedule from the court of Spain, or a licence from the court of England had been agreed on, or known to be necessary for our logwood-cutters to have carried with them to the coast of Honduras, why has this nation been kept so long in ignorance thereof? Why were not the governors of our colonies, and particularly of Jamaica, duly furnished with them, in order to give the requisite authority to those who engaged in that business? But it appears, our governors were no way apprized that such authorities were needful, and therefore were furnished with no such to distribute, nor knew how to act upon discovery of the conduct of Spain towards the logwood-cutters; they could only transmit accounts thereof to the court of England, while the poor people were ruining, by expences and loss of time, occasioned by Spanish chicanery.

But if the care of our logwood-trade might not have been entrusted to our self-interested traders, who would hardly fail to discover all illicit intruders, for the sake of not being interfered with in what so nearly concerns themselves; it was certainly necessary to prevent any misunderstanding between the contracting crowns, to have had it EXPRESSLY STIPULATED IN THE DEFINITIVE TREATY, that such royal schedules and licences were the authorities required by treaty to entitle British subjects to their right in the logwood-trade in the Bay of Honduras; and then none, we may presume, would have attempted the trade, without being furnished with such: and if this has been an oversight in the treaty, it may easily be supplied, without drawing the sword again upon this account, provided the Spaniards are not insincere; if they are, they may soon rue it, perhaps. See our article MEXICO, our last REMARKS thereon.

While this work is printing, we find the following paragraph in the LONDON GAZETTE. ST. JAMES'S, July 21, 1764.—‘In answer to the representations made by his majesty's ambassador at the court of Madrid, upon the late transactions of the governor of Yucatan, and his proceedings towards the British subjects employed in cutting LOGWOOD in the BAY OF HONDURAS, the Spanish ministry have replied, That they have not received any advices from that governor relative to this affair; but that it is certain the Catholic king has given positive orders to the governor of Yucatan to abide by, and observe the XVIIth article of the last treaty of peace, and that he will not approve of the conduct of his subjects who act in contravention to it. That it is the intention of his Catholic majesty, that no one shall impede the English in their cutting LOGWOOD in the stipulated places; and he will disapprove of the governors and ministers whenever they act to the contrary, and renew the most strict orders to that effect.’

LONGITUDE, as it regards navigation, to which our work has an affinity, is the distance of a ship or place, east or west from another, computed in degrees of the equator. This distance being reckoned in leagues or miles, or in degrees of the meridian, and not in those proper to the parallel of latitude, is usually called departure*.

* Departure, in navigation, signifies the easting or westing of a ship, with respect to the meridian (a) it departed or sailed from. Or, it is the difference of longitude, either east or west, between the present meridian the ship is under, and that where the last reckoning or observation was made.—This departure any where, but under the equator, must be accounted according to the number of miles in a degree, proper to the parallel the ship is under.

(a) The meridian is an imaginary circle supposed to pass through the poles of the earth, and any given place. So that the plane of the terrestrial meridian is in the plane of the celestial one. Hence,

1. As the meridian inverts the whole earth, there are several places situated under the same meridian. 2. As it is noon-tide whenever the center of the sun is in the meridian of the heavens, and as the meridian of the earth is in the plane of the former, it follows, that it is noon at the same time, in all places situate under the same meridian. 3. There are as many meridians on the earth, as there are points conceived in the equator. In effect, the meridians always change, as you change the longitude of the place; and may be said to be infinite, each place from east to west having it's several meridians.

To discover the longitude at sea is a problem that has hitherto perplexed all mathematicians; although, for the solution thereof, great rewards have been publicly offered by the English, French, Dutch, Spaniards, and other nations: this being the only thing wanting to render navigation perfect. Various are the attempts that authors have made for this purpose, and various the methods they have proposed, but without success, so that the palm is still unascertained. The methods taken to arrive at this point are different. What most of them aim at, is a method of determining the difference of time between any two points on the earth: for every 15 degrees of the equator answering to an hour, i. e. one degree to 4 minutes of time, and one minute of a degree to 15 seconds of time; the difference of time being known, and turned into degrees, will give the longitude, and vice versa. This some have pretended to effect, by chronometers and automata of various kinds, but always in vain; no time-keeper, excepting a pendulum (which cannot be applied at sea) being sufficiently exact for the purpose.

Others search for a means to find the longitude in the heavens: for, if the exact times of any celestial appearance be known for two places, the difference for those times gives that of the longitude of those places. Now, in the ephemerides*, we have the motions of the planets, and the times of the celestial phenomena; as the beginning and ending of eclipses, conjunctions of the moon with other planets, it's entrance into the ecliptic, &c. accurately calculated for some one place. Therefore, if the hour and minute be known, wherein any of the same phenomena are observed in an unknown place, the difference between the hour and minute of that place, and that other to which the tables are computed, and consequently the difference of their meridians and their longitude from each other, are known also.

* Ephemerides in astronomy, signifies tables calculated by astronomers, shewing the present state of the heavens for every day at noon; that is, the place wherein all the planets are found at that time.—It is from these tables, that the eclipses, conjunctions, and aspects of the planets are determined, and horoscopes, or celestial schemes, constructed, &c.

The difficulty here, does not consist in the exact finding of the time, which is easily had from the sun's altitude or azimuth, but the defect lies in the fewness of proper celestial appearances capable of being thus observed: for all slow motions (v. gr. that of Saturn) are excluded, as shewing but a little difference in a considerable space of time; and it being required in this case, that the phenomenon be sensibly varied in two minutes time, an error of two minutes in time produces another of thirty miles in the longitude.—Now there are no phenomena in the heavens that have these requisites, excepting the several stages of an eclipse of the moon, her longitude, or place in the zodiac; her distance from the fixed stars, or appulse to them; her ingress into the ecliptic, or the points of her orbit, where that cuts the ecliptic; and the conjunction, distance, and eclipses of Jupiter's satellites.

1. The method by the eclipses of the moon is easy, and sufficiently accurate, were these eclipses every night. At the moment wherein we see the beginning or middle of a lunar eclipse by a telescope, we have nothing to do but take the altitude or azimuth of some fixed star, from which the hour and minute are easily found; or without the altitude, if the star be in the meridian.—This hour and minute, therefore, thus found, and compared with that expressed in the tables, gives the longitude.

2. The moon's place in the zodiac is a phenomenon more frequent than that of her eclipses; but then the observation thereof is difficult, the calculus complicated, by reason of two parallaxes, so that it is scarce practicable at sea, in general, to any tolerable degree of accuracy.—Indeed, by waiting 'till the moon comes into the meridian of the place, and then taking the altitude of some remarkable star (the altitude being supposed to be first known) from this altitude and the latitude, we shall be able to find the time pretty accurately, though it will be better to do it by some star in the meridian.

—Now, the time being found, it will be easy to find what point of the ecliptic is then in the meridians or mid heaven.—Thus we shall have the moon's place in the zodiac, corresponding to the time of our place.—Then, in the ephemeris, we find what hour it is in the meridian of the ephemeris, when the moon is in that part of the zodiac: thus we shall have the hour and minute of the two places for the same time, the difference of which will give the difference of longitude.

3. In regard there are many times when the moon cannot be observed in the meridian, there is therefore another still more frequent

frequent phenomenon, from which the longitude is sought, viz. the moon's appulse and recess from the fixed stars: for from thence the moon's true place may be investigated for the given time of observation.—But this method, by reason of the parallaxes, and the solution of oblique spherical triangles, and the various cases, is so difficult and perplexed, that mariners will scarce ever be able to make use of it.

4. To find the longitude by the moon's ingress into the ecliptic, observe the moment of that ingress: then, in the ephemeris, see what hour it is in the meridian of the ephemeris, when that ingress happens.—The difference between these times gives the difference of longitude.

5. The phenomena of Jupiter's satellites are generally preferred to those of the moon, for finding the longitude; by reason the former are less liable to parallaxes, and do further afford a very commodious observation, in every situation of that planet above the horizon.—Their motion is very swift, and must be calculated for every hour, and for that reason are not found in the common ephemerides.—Now, to find the longitude by means of these satellites, with a good telescope, observe a conjunction of two of them, or of one of them with Jupiter, or any other the like appearance: and, at the same time find the hour and minute from the meridian altitude of some star; then, consulting tables of the satellites, observe the hour and minute wherein such appearance happens in the meridian of the place to which the tables are calculated.—This difference of time, as before, will give the longitude.

All methods, which depend on the phenomena of the heavens having this one defect, that they cannot be observed at all times; and being, besides, difficult of application at sea, by reason of the motion of the ship; there are some, who leaving the moon and the satellites, have recourse to clocks, and other automata; which, could they be made perfectly just and regular, so as to move with the sun, without either gaining or losing, and without being affected with the change of air and of climates, the longitude would be had with all the ease and accuracy imaginable: nothing more being required, but to set the machine by the sun at the time of departure, and when the longitude of any place is desired, to find the hour and minute from the heavens (which is done at night by the stars, and in the day by the sun;) for the difference between the time thus observed, and that of the machine, gives the longitude.—But no such machine has been yet discovered, wherefore recourse has been still further had to other methods.

Mr. Whiston and Mr. Ditton have proposed a method of determining the longitude by the flash and report of great guns.—Sounds, it is known, move pretty equally in all their stages: if then a mortar or great gun be exploded at a place whose longitude is known, the difference, it was judged, between the time wherein the flash (which moves, as it were, instantaneously) is seen, and the sound, which moves at the rate of four seconds in a mile, is heard, will give the distance of those places from each other; whence, if their latitudes be known, the difference of longitude will be likewise known. Moreover,

If the hour and minute of the explosion be known, say they, (for the place where it is made) by observing the hour and minute from the sun and stars, at the place whose longitude is required; the difference between those times will give the difference of longitude. And,

If the said mortar be loaded with an iron-shell full of combustible matter, and hoisted perpendicularly, it will carry the same a mile high, which will be seen near an hundred miles; if therefore neither the sound should be heard, nor the flash seen, the distance of any remote place from that of the mortar may be determined from the altitude of the shell above the horizon of the place unknown: and, the distance and latitude known, the longitude is easily found.

According to this scheme, it was proposed to have such mortars fixed at proper distances and at known stations, on all the frequented coasts, islands, capes, &c. and to be exploded at certain hours, for the observation of mariners.

This method, however, plausible in theory, has the fate of all the rest, and is found useless in the practice, as being extremely troublesome, and yet precarious.—It supposes that sounds may be heard 40, 50, or 60 miles: of which, it is true, we have instances, but they are very rare: and, ordinarily, the report of a cannon is not heard above half so far, and sometimes much less.—It supposes sound to move always with equal velocity; whereas, in fact, it's velocity is increased or diminished as it moves with or against the wind.—It supposes also, the strength of powder uniform, and that the same quantity carries the same range: the contrary whereof is known to every gunner.—We say nothing of thick cloudy nights, when no lights can be seen; nor of stormy nights, when no sound can be heard, even at inconsiderable distances.

We have another method of finding the longitude, proposed by the same Mr. Whiston, viz. by the inclinatory, or DIPPING-NEEDLE. This dipping, or inclinatory-needle, is a magnetical needle so hung, as that, instead of playing horizontally, and pointing out north and south, one end dips, or inclines to the horizon, and the other points to a certain degree of elevation above it. Or,

A dipping-needle may be defined to be a long straight piece of steel, every way equally poised on it's center, and afterwards touched with a load-stone, but so contrived, as not to play on the point of a pin, as does the common horizontal needle, but to swing in a vertical plane, about an axis parallel to the horizon: and this in order to discover the exact tendency of the power of magnetism.

The inventor of the dipping-needle was an Englishman, Robert Norman, a compass-maker for mariners, in Wapping, near the city of London, about the year 1576. The occasion of the discovery he himself relates, viz. that it being his custom to finish and hang the needles of his compasses, before he touched them, he always found that, immediately after the touch, the north point would bend, or decline downwards, under the horizon: insomuch that, to balance the needle again, he was always forced to put a piece of wax on the south end, as a counterpoise.

The constancy of this effect led him, at length, to observe the precise quantity of the Dips, or to measure the greatest angle which the needle would make with the horizon. This, in the year 1576, he found at London to be $71^{\circ} 50'$; but the dip varies, as well as the horizontal direction.

Burrows, Gilbert, Ridley, Bond, &c. endeavoured to apply this discovery to the finding of the latitude; and the last author, going farther, proposed likewise the finding of the longitude thereby: but, for want of observations and experiments, he could go no length.

Mr. Whiston, being furnished with the further observations of Col. Windham, Dr. Halley, Mr. Pound, Mr. Cunningham, Pere Noel, Pere Feuillee, and his own, has improved greatly on the doctrine and use of this needle, brought it to more certain rules, and endeavoured to find the longitude thereby.

In order to this he observes, 1st, That the true tendency of the north or south ends of every magnetic needle is not to that point in the horizon to which the horizontal needle points, but towards another directly under it, in the same vertical, and in different degrees under it, in different ages, and at different places.

2dly, That the power by which a horizontal needle is governed, and all our navigation ordinarily directed, is proved to be but one quarter of the power, by which the dipping-needle is moved; which should render the latter far the more effectual and accurate instrument.

3dly, That a dipping-needle, a foot long, will plainly shew an alteration of the angle of inclination, in these parts of the world, in half a quarter of a degree, or $7\frac{1}{2}$ geographical miles; i. e. supposing that distance taken along, or near a meridian; and a needle of four feet, in two or three miles.

4thly, A dipping-needle, four feet long, in these parts of the world, will shew an equal alteration along a parallel; as one of a foot long will shew along a meridian, i. e. this will, with equal exactness, shew the longitude, as that the latitude.

This depends on the position of the lines of equal dip, in these parts of the world, which are found to lie about 14 or 15 degrees from the parallels.

Hence he argues, that, as we can have needles of 5, 6, 7, 8, or more feet long, which will move with strength sufficient for exact observation; and since microscopes may be applied to the viewing of the smallest divisions of degrees on the limb of the instrument; it is evident the longitude at land may be found thereby, to less than four miles.

And, as there have been many observations made at sea with the same instrument, by Noel, Feuillee, &c. which have determined the dip usually within a degree; sometimes within half, or a third of a degree, and this with small needles of five or six, or, at the most, nine inches long; it is evident, the longitude may be found even at sea, to less than half a quarter of a degree. Thus much premised, the observation itself follows:

To find the longitude or latitude by the dipping-needle.—If the lines of equal dip below the horizon be drawn on maps, or sea-charts, for good observations, it will be easy, from the longitude known, to find the latitude; and, from the latitude known to find the longitude, either at sea or land.

Suppose, e. gr. you were travelling, or sailing, along the meridian of London, and found the angle of dip, with a needle of one foot, to be 75° ; the chart will shew, that this meridian; and the time of dip, meet in the latitude of $50^{\circ} 11'$; which, therefore, is the latitude sought. Or,

Suppose you was travelling, or sailing, along the parallel of London, i. e. in $51^{\circ} 32'$ north latitude, and you found the angle of the dip to be 74° ; this parallel, and the line of this dip, will meet in the map in $1^{\circ} 46'$ of east longitude from London; which is, therefore, the longitude sought: yet this scheme also, has proved impracticable and unsuccessful in it's application.

Since every method which hath been hitherto attempted, hath proved abortive, and the discovery of the longitude at sea remains still the great desideratum in navigation; it is imprudent to depend longer upon any one of those methods which have been yet tried; the difficulties in each being palpable, and, perhaps, absolutely insuperable.

Another

Another method, lately started, whereby this important discovery has been attempted, is, by A NEW AND UNIVERSAL PROBLEM, BY WHICH THE LONGITUDE AT SEA, IN THE DEAD-RECKONING, AND THE DISTANCE OF THE SHIP'S RUN, ARE SAID TO BE CORRECTED BY THE SAME OBSERVATION THAT THE LATITUDE IS, AND TO THE SAME CERTAINTY, WITHOUT ANY REGARD TO LEE-WAY, CURRENT OF THE SEA, OR VARIATION OF THE COMPASS. By the Rev. Richard Locke, an Englishman.

As this is a problem, said by the reverend author to be entirely new, and the truth thereof to be not only founded upon geometrical demonstration, but experimental practice at sea, where he affirms he has tried the same; it seems to deserve due public notice and attention.

That the public might be informed of this discovery, the author first printed and published the fact, as he declares, the 24th of January, 1751, in the London Evening-Post. After which he was advised to publish the problem, and the demonstration thereof, in a pamphlet; which he has done, within the compass of 14 pages, addressed to the honourable the COMMISSIONERS appointed to inspect the longitude, and to the PUBLIC in general. Which being sent to me the last year, and recommended by several worthy gentlemen, as a matter consistent with a Dictionary of Commerce, and necessary to be published therein; I was prevailed upon to give the same a place in this work, under the first head that occurred, where I could do it with any sort of propriety: and the reader will find the whole under the article COMMANDERS OF SHIPS; with an address to them, as requested to try the same experimentally at sea. But,

As those gentlemen, without disparagement to their high importance and utility to the state, are, in the general, better acquainted with the ordinary practical rules of navigation*, as they are commonly taught them by rote, and not by reason and demonstration, they may be presumed not to be competent judges of the demonstrative part, which, Mr. Locke says, he has given, and, therefore, may not as yet be attentive to the experimental trial and practice of what that gentleman has offered for their service: wherefore, the author has thought proper to reduce his discovery, for the benefit of all practical navigators, to the few following plain rules and precepts; which, he says, are the result of his demonstration. See the article COMMANDERS OF SHIPS, for the whole of what he has communicated.

* An objection that some have made against the study of mathematical learning is, that we see, in the ordinary business of life, these affairs are carried on and managed by such as are no great mathematicians, as sea-men, ship-wrights, engineers, mill-wrights, surveyors, gaugers, clock-makers, glass-grinders, &c. and that the mathematicians are commonly speculative, retired, studious men, that are not for an active life and business, but content themselves to sit in their studies, and pore over a scheme or a calculation. To which there is this plain and easy answer: The mathematicians have not only invented and ordered all the arts above-mentioned, and most others by which these grand affairs are managed, but have laid down precepts, contrived instruments and abridgments so plainly, that common artificers are capable of practising by them, though they understand not a tittle of the grounds on which the precepts are built: and in this they have consulted the good and necessities of mankind.

Those affairs demand so great a number of people to manage them, that it is impossible to breed so many good, or even tolerable mathematicians. The only thing then to be done was, to make their precepts so plain, that they might be understood and practised by a multitude of men. This will best appear by examples. Nothing is more ordinary than dispatch of business by common arithmetic, by the tables of simple and compound interest, annuities, &c. yet how few men of business understand the reasons of the rules given in common arithmetic, or the construction of those tables that are made, but securely rely on them as true. They were the good and the thorough mathematicians, that gave these precepts so plain, and calculated these tables, that facilitate the practice so much. Nothing is more universally necessary than the measuring of planes and solids: and it is impossible to breed so many good mathematicians, as that there may be one that understands all the geometry requisite for surveying, and measuring of prisms and pyramids, and their parts, and measuring frustums of conoids and spheroids, in every market-town, where such work is necessary.

The mathematicians, therefore, have inscribed such lines on their common rulers, and sliding-rules, and adapted so plain precepts to them, that every country carpenter and gauger can do the business accurately enough, though he knows no more of the rationale of those instruments, tables, and precepts he makes use of, than a hobby-horse. So, in navigation, it is impossible to breed so many good mathematicians as would be necessary to sail the hundredth part of the ships of the nation. But the mathematicians have laid down so plain and distinct precepts, calculated necessary tables, and contrived convenient instruments, so that a seaman, that knows not the truths on which his precepts and tables depend, may practise safely by them. They resolve triangles every day, that know not the reason of any one of their operations. Seamen, in their calculations, make

use of artificial numbers, or logarithms, that know nothing of their contrivance: and, indeed, all those great inventions of the most famous mathematicians had been almost useless for those common and great affairs, had not the practice of them been made easy to those who cannot understand them. From hence it is plain, that it is to those speculative retired men we owe the rules, the instruments, the precepts for using them, and the tables which facilitate the dispatch of so many great affairs, and supply mankind with so many conveniences of life. They were the men that taught the world to apply arithmetic, astronomy, and geometry to sailing, without which the needle would be still useless. Just the same way, in the other parts of mathematics, the precepts that are practised by multitudes, without being understood, were contrived by some few great mathematicians.

The rules as given by Mr. Locke, for the use of practical navigators, are as follow: which I am requested to add to what has been said under the preceding article of COMMANDERS OF SHIPS; and, if they should prove to be true, it will be very extraordinary that the most essential part of the practical art of navigation should be reducible to a quarter of a sheet of paper.

TO ALL GENTLEMEN SEAMEN, MARINERS, AND OTHERS, OF ALL NATIONS, WHO ARE ANY WAY CONCERNED IN PRACTICAL NAVIGATION:

A plain, easy, and practical method to discover the LONGITUDE AT SEA, for the safety and preservation of shipping. By RICHARD LOCKE, an ENGLISHMAN.

The two principal things to be regarded, to obtain the true longitude at sea, are, to measure as exactly a distance of the ship's run as can be, by the half-minute glass and log-line, and to make a true observation of latitude.

And, when you cast up the day's work, or traverse, to find the longitude and latitude in the common way, take their courses as entered on the log-board, without making any allowance for lee-way, variation, or currents; and, if you find the latitude in the traverse to be more than the latitude in the observation, take, or subtract, the difference from the latitude in the traverse, and add it to the longitude.—But, if you find it less in the traverse than in the observation, take the difference from the longitude, and add it to the latitude; always remembering, that the latitude in the traverse must be made equal to the latitude in the observation; and, what is more or less, to add to, or subtract from the longitude.—This is to be done every time you make an observation; and when you have got the miles of easting or westing, if they are in the same latitude, divide them by the miles of one degree in that latitude.—If of different latitudes, divide them by the miles of the middle latitude, between the two observations.—And this will give the longitude in degrees, as mentioned in my book, or it may be found by the following easy table.

By these instructions, carefully observed, any island or place, whose longitude and latitude are known, may be hit upon a meridian, as near as you can make your observation of latitude.

A TABLE of the geometrical miles of one degree of LONGITUDE for every degree of latitude.

Lat.	Miles.	Lat.	Miles.	Lat.	Miles.
1	59,8	31	51,0	61	29
2	59,6	32	50,5	62	28
3	59,4	33	50,0	63	27
4	59,2	34	49,5	64	26
5	59,0	35	49,0	65	25
6	58,8	36	48,5	66	24
7	58,6	37	48,0	67	23
8	58,4	38	47,5	68	22
9	58,2	39	47,0	69	21
10	58,0	40	46,5	70	20
11	57,8	41	46,0	71	19
12	57,6	42	45,5	72	18
13	57,4	43	45,0	73	17
14	57,2	44	44,5	74	16
15	57,0	45	44,0	75	15
16	56,6	46	43,5	76	14
17	56,3	47	43,0	77	13
18	56,0	48	42	78	12
19	55,6	49	41	79	11
20	55,3	50	40	80	10
21	55,0	51	39	81	9
22	54,6	52	38	82	8
23	54,3	53	37	83	7
24	54,0	54	36	84	6
25	53,6	55	35	85	5
26	53,3	56	34	86	4
27	53,0	57	33	87	3
28	52,5	58	32	88	2
29	52,0	59	31	89	1
30	51,5	60	30	90	0

N. B. To find the middle latitude by this table, add the miles of the two observed latitudes together, and divide the sum by 2, which gives the middle latitude.

RICHARD LOCKE.
RE-

This gentleman, Mr. Locke, appears to be very sanguine with regard to the truth of his discovery; and therefore has, in his before-mentioned book, given a general challenge to all the mathematicians in the world to confute it, or shew any other method of discovering the longitude at sea, that may be depended upon.—The cause of this challenge, it seems, was, if I am rightly informed, by reason of some personal maltreatment that the author thinks he met with, from some mathematicians in England, upon the publication of the first edition of his pamphlet.—How this matter stands between those gentlemen, I am no otherwise acquainted than by hearsay.—It is pity that men of science should have any rancour towards each other — Time and experience will shew whether the problem is true or false, in the application made of it to the discovery of the longitude at sea.

There is one thing I would beg leave to observe, before I dismit this matter; that, as Mr. Locke has generously communicated his problem to the public, so that every body now may be masters of it, and put the same in practice at sea, without any difficulty or expence; it is necessary that the public should be put upon their guard, and not be imposed upon by granting rewards to such who may pretend to discover the longitude at sea, by other ways and means, when they really make use of Mr. Locke's discovery for that purpose.

OBSERVATIONS, since the above, upon the article LONGITUDE.

Under the article of COMMANDERS OF MERCHANTS SHIPS, is contained the whole of Mr. Locke's new problem for the discovery of the LONGITUDE AT SEA; which the author was requested to insert several years ago, in the first edition of this work, as a record, (if the demonstration therein said to be given, should be found to be true, as well from experience as theory) to ascertain Mr. Locke's right to the reward promised, to the discoverer of a matter of such importance. The same was also inserted in the second edition of this work; and the same is requested to be continued in this the third edition of this work, made in the present year 1765, by the executors of Mr. Locke, who has several years since been dead, in going to America, to make a further trial of the truth of his new problem; of which he had often declared he was thoroughly convinced, by what he had experienced at sea: but, he was desirous to have repeated and incontestible evidence and conviction thereof, before he made proper application to the British parliament, as was his intention.

In consequence of the death of Mr. Locke, it is requested that ALL GENTLEMEN, who are thorough judges of the said new problem, and are of opinion that the same is demonstrably true, and is actually the discovery of THE LONGITUDE AT SEA; or has been any way conducive to the discovery thereof; and any COMMANDERS OR MASTERS OF SHIPS, who shall have tried and experienced the truth of Mr. Locke's discovery, would apply to MR. POSTLETHWAYT, the author of this Dictionary, AT HIS HOUSE IN PINNERS-COURT, NEAR THE PAY-OFFICE, IN BROAD-STREET, NEAR THE ROYAL-EXCHANGE, LONDON; and if they prove any way instrumental to obtain any public reward for Mr. Locke's discovery, Mr. Postlethwayt is authorized by the executors of Mr. Locke, to treat with them upon the occasion.

The ACTS of PARLIAMENT relating to the discovery of the LONGITUDE at SEA.

An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea, in the 12th of queen Anne.

Whereas it is well known, by all that are acquainted with the art of navigation, that nothing is so much wanted and desired at sea, as the discovery of the longitude, for the safety and quickness of voyages, the preservation of ships, and the lives of men: and whereas, in the judgment of able mathematicians and navigators, several methods have already been discovered, true in theory, though very difficult in practice, some of which (there is reason to expect) may be capable of improvement, some already discovered may be proposed to the public, and others may be invented hereafter: and whereas such a discovery would be of particular advantage to the trade of Great-Britain, and very much for the honour of this kingdom; but, besides the great difficulty of the thing itself, partly for the want of some public reward, to be settled as an encouragement for so useful and beneficial a work, and partly for want of money for trials and experiments necessary thereto, no such inventions or proposals, hitherto made, have been brought to perfection: be it therefore enacted, by the queen's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That the lord high admiral of Great Britain, or the first commissioner of the admiralty, the speaker of the honourable house of commons, the first commissioner of the navy, the first

VOL. II.

commissioner of trade, the admirals of the red, white, and blue squadrons, the master of the Trinity-House, the president of the Royal Society, the royal astronomer of Greenwich, the Savilian, Lucasian, and Plumian professors of the mathematics in Oxford and Cambridge, all for the time being; the right honourable Thomas earl of Pembroke and Montgomery, Philip lord bishop of Hereford, George lord bishop of Bristol, Thomas lord Trevor, the honourable Sir Thomas Hanmer, Bart. speaker of the honourable house of commons, the honourable Francis Robarts, Esq; James Stanhope, Esq; William Clayton, Esq; and William Lowndes, Esq; be constituted, and they are hereby constituted commissioners for the discovery of the longitude at sea, and for examining, trying, and judging of all proposals, experiments, and improvements relating to the same; and that the said commissioners, or any five or more of them, have full power to hear and receive any proposal or proposals that shall be made to them for discovering the said longitude; and in case the said commissioners, or any five or more of them, shall be so far satisfied of the probability of any such discovery, as to think it proper to make experiments thereof, they shall certify the same, under their hands and seals, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the persons names who are the authors of such proposals; and, upon producing such certificate, the said commissioners are hereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for any such sum or sums of money, not exceeding two thousand pounds, as the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, or any five or more of them, shall think necessary for making the experiments, payable by the treasurer of the navy: which sum or sums the treasurer of the navy is hereby required to pay immediately to such person or persons as shall be appointed by the commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, to make those experiments, out of any money that shall be in his hands, unapplied for the use of the navy.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That, after experiments made of any proposal or proposals for the discovery of the said longitude, the commissioners appointed by this act, or the major part of them, shall declare and determine how far the same is found practicable, and to what degree of exactness.

And, for a due and sufficient encouragement to any such person or persons as shall discover a proper method for finding the said longitude, be it enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That the first author or authors, discoverer or discoverers, of any such method, his or their executors, administrators, or assigns, shall be intitled to, and have such reward as herein after is mentioned; that is to say, to a reward, or sum of ten thousand pounds, if it determines the said longitude to one degree of a great circle, or sixty geographical miles; to fifteen thousand pounds, if it determines the same to two thirds of that distance; and to twenty thousand pounds, if it determines the same to one half of the same distance; and that one moiety, or half-part of such reward, or sum, shall be due and paid, when the said commissioners, or the major part of them, do agree that any such method extends to the security of ships within eighty geographical miles of the shores, which are places of the greatest danger; and the other moiety, or half part, when a ship, by the appointment of the said commissioners, or the major part of them, shall thereby actually sail over the ocean, from Great Britain to any such port of the West-Indies, as those commissioners, or the major part of them, shall chuse or nominate for the experiment, without losing their longitude beyond the limits before mentioned.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That, as soon as such method for the discovery of the said longitude shall have been tried and found practicable and useful at sea, within any of the degrees aforesaid, that the said commissioners, or the major part of them, shall certify the same accordingly, under their hands and seals, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the person or persons names who are the authors of such proposal; and, upon such certificate, the said commissioners are hereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for the respective sum or sums of money, to which the author or authors of such proposal, their executors, administrators, or assigns, shall be intitled, by virtue of this act; which sum or sums the treasurer of the navy is hereby required to pay to the said author or authors, their executors, administrators, or assigns, out of any money that shall be in his hands, unapplied to the use of the navy, according to the true intent and meaning of this act.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any such proposal shall not, on trial, be found of so great use as afore-mentioned, yet if the same, on trial, in the judgment of the said commissioners, or the major part of them, be found of considerable use to the public, that then, in such case, the said author or authors, their executors, administrators, or assigns, shall have and receive such less reward therefore, as the said commissioners, or the major part of them, shall think reasonable, to be paid by the treasurer of the navy on such certificate, as aforesaid.

An act to render more effectual an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intituled, An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea; with regard to the making experiments of proposals made for discovering the longitude; and to enlarge the number of commissioners for putting in execution the said act, in the 26th of George II.

Whereas by an act of parliament made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intituled, An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea; the commissioners therein and thereby named and constituted, or any five or more of them, have full power to hear and receive any proposal or proposals that shall be made to them for discovering the said longitude; and, in case the said commissioners, or any five or more of them, shall be so far satisfied of the probability of any such discovery, as to think it proper to make experiment thereof, they shall certify the same, under their hands and seals, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the persons names who are authors of such proposals; and, upon producing such certificate, the said commissioners are thereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for any such sum or sums of money not exceeding two thousand pounds, as the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, or any five or more of them, shall think necessary for making the experiments, payable by the treasurer of the navy; which sum or sums the treasurer of the navy is, by the said act, required to pay immediately to such person or persons as shall be appointed by the commissioners for discovery of the said longitude to make those experiments, out of any money that shall be in his hands unapplied for the use of the navy: and whereas, for a due and sufficient encouragement to any such person or persons as shall discover a proper method for finding the said longitude, it is likewise enacted by the said act, That the first author or authors, discoverer or discoverers, of any such method, his or their executors, administrators, or assigns, shall be intituled to and have such reward, as in the said act is particularly mentioned: and whereas, by another act of parliament made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his present majesty, intituled, An act for surveying the chief ports and head-lands on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging, in order to the more exact determination of the longitude and latitude thereof; reciting in part of the said act of parliament, made in the twelfth year of the reign of her said late majesty queen Anne; and also reciting that it was absolutely necessary, for making the discovery useful at sea, and for the security of ships approaching near the shores, that the chief ports and head-lands on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging, should be first surveyed, and the longitude and latitude of such places determined more exactly than had then been done; and likewise reciting that some doubts had arisen, whether, by the words of the said act of parliament made in the twelfth year of queen Anne, the said sum of two thousand pounds appointed for making such experiments, or any part thereof, could be applied for such survey, or fixing the longitude or latitude of such places, it was enacted by the said act made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his present majesty, That the said commissioners for discovering the longitude, or any five or more of them, should have full power to apply such part of the said sum of two thousand pounds, mentioned in the said first recited act, as had not then been laid out in experiments, as they shall think necessary for the making such survey, and determining the longitude and latitude of the chief ports and head-lands, on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging; and that such sum or sums, part of the said two thousand pounds, which the said commissioners, or any five or more of them, should think necessary, should be paid immediately by the treasurer of the navy, to such person or persons as should be appointed by the said commissioners for the discovery of the longitude, to make such survey, and determine such longitude and latitude, out of the money that should be in the hands of such treasurer unapplied for the use of the navy; and whereas a competent number of the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, have (by virtue of the powers vested in them, by the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of queen Anne) heard and received several proposals made to them at different times, for discovering the said longitude, and were so far satisfied of the probabilities of such discoveries, that they thought it proper to make experiments thereof, and accordingly certified the same, from time to time, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the names of master John Harrison, who was author of the said proposals; whereupon bills were made out for several sums of money, amounting in the whole to one thousand two hundred and fifty pounds, all which respective sums were paid to the said John Harrison by the treasurer of the navy, pursuant to the directions of the said last mentioned act of parliament, as parts of the said two thousand pounds therein mentioned; which the said commissioners for discovering

the said longitude thought necessary for making the said experiment: and whereas a like competent number of the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude did (by virtue and in pursuance of the powers vested in them by the said several above-mentioned acts of parliament) appoint master William Whiston to survey and determine the longitude and latitude of the chief ports and head-lands on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging; and did also apply the further sum of five hundred pounds (other part of the said sum of two thousand pounds mentioned in the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of queen Anne (which they thought necessary for the making such survey, and determining the said last mentioned longitude and latitude, and which said sum of five hundred pounds was paid to the said William Whiston accordingly by the treasurer of the navy: and whereas by reason of the several payments made by the treasurer of the navy to the said John Harrison and William Whiston respectively, as aforesaid, amounting in the whole to one thousand seven hundred and fifty pounds, the said commissioners for discovering the said longitude have at present, by virtue of the said acts of parliament, power only to apply the sum of two hundred and fifty pounds and no more (being the remainder of the said two thousand pounds) towards making any further experiments which they may think proper and necessary to be made, in order to discover the longitude: and whereas, from the experiments which have already been made in pursuance of the powers vested in the said commissioners as aforesaid, there is great reason to expect, that by continuing to encourage ingenious persons to invent and make further improvements and experiments, in order to discover the said longitude, such discoveries may at length be produced as will effectually answer that end, and thereby contribute very much to the advantage of the trade and honour of this kingdom: therefore, for enabling the said commissioners to cause such further experiments to be made as they shall think proper for the purposes aforesaid, be it enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That the said commissioners constituted by the said act of parliament made in the twelfth year of the reign of the late queen Anne, for the discovery of the longitude at sea, and for examining, trying, and judging of all proposals, experiments, and improvements, relating to the same, or any five or more of them, have full power to hear and receive any proposal or proposals that have been or shall hereafter be made to them for discovering the longitude at sea; and in case the said commissioners, or any five or more of them, shall be so far satisfied of the probability of any such proposal or discovery, as to think it proper to make experiment thereof, they shall certify the same under their hands and seals to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the persons names who shall be the authors of such proposals; and, upon producing such certificate, the said commissioners of the navy are hereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for any such sum or sums of money, not exceeding two thousand pounds, over and above the aforesaid sum of two hundred and fifty pounds, being the remainder of the two thousand pounds mentioned in the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of the late queen Anne, as the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, or any five or more of them, shall think necessary for making any experiments in pursuance of this act, or either of the said former acts above-mentioned, payable by the treasurer of the navy; which sum or sums the treasurer of the navy for the time being is hereby required to pay immediately to such person or persons as shall be appointed by the commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude to make those experiments, out of any money that shall be in his the said treasurer's hands unapplied for the use of the navy.

And whereas many of the commissioners, appointed by the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, are deceased; be it therefore enacted by the authority aforesaid, That the governor of the royal hospital for seamen at Greenwich for the time being, the judge of the high court of admiralty for the time being, the secretaries of the treasury for the time being, the secretary of the admiralty for the time being, and the comptroller of the navy for the time being, shall be, and they are hereby added to, and joined with, such of the commissioners appointed by the said act for discovering the longitude, as are surviving; and the said persons, hereby appointed commissioners, shall and may act, to all intents and purposes, for putting in execution the said former acts, and this present act, as fully and effectually, as if they had been appointed commissioners by the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne.

Anno Secundo Georgii III. Regis. C A P. XVIII.

An act for rendering more effectual an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intituled,

intituled, An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea, with regard to the making experiments of propofals made for discovering the longitude.

Whereas by an act of parliament made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intituled, An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea, the commissioners therein named, or any five or more of them, have full power to hear and receive any propofal or propofals that shall be made to them for discovering the said longitude; and in case the said commissioners, or any five or more of them, shall be so far satisfied of the probability of any such discovery, as to think it proper to make experiment thereof, they shall certify the same, under their hands and seals, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the persons names who are authors of such propofals; and upon producing such certificate, the said commissioners are thereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for any such sum or sums of money, not exceeding two thousand pounds, as the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, or any five or more of them, shall think necessary, for making the experiments, payable by the treasurer of the navy; which sum or sums the treasurer of the navy is, by the said act, required to pay immediately to such person or persons as shall be appointed by the said commissioners to make those experiments, out of any money that shall be in his hands unapplied, for the use of the navy. And whereas, for a due and sufficient encouragement to any such person or persons as shall discover a proper method for finding the said longitude, it is likewise enacted by the said act, That the first author or authors, discoverer or discoverers, of any such method, his or their executors, administrators, or assigns, shall be intituled to, and have, such reward as in the said act is particularly mentioned: and whereas by another act of parliament made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his late majesty king George the second, intituled, An act for surveying the chief ports and head-lands on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging, in order to the more exact determination of the longitude and latitude thereof, it was enacted, That the said commissioners for discovering the said longitude, or any five or more of them, should have full power to apply such part of the said sum of two thousand pounds, mentioned in the said first recited act, as had not then been laid out in experiments, as they should think necessary for the making such survey, and determining the longitude and latitude of the chief ports and head-lands on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands and plantations thereto belonging; and that such sum or sums, part of the said two thousand pounds, which the said commissioners, or any five, or more of them, should think necessary, should be paid immediately by the treasurer of the navy, to such person or persons as should be appointed by the said commissioners to make such survey, and determine such longitude and latitude, out of the money that should be in the hands of such treasurer unapplied, for the use of the navy: and whereas by an act made in the twenty-sixth year of the reign of his late majesty king George the second, intituled, An act to render more effectual an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intituled, An act for providing a public reward for such person or persons as shall discover the longitude at sea, with regard to the making experiments of propofals made for discovering the longitude, and to enlarge the number of commissioners for putting in execution the said act, the further sum of two thousand pounds was directed to be applied in such manner as the commissioners for the discovery of the longitude should think necessary, for making further experiments: and whereas the said commissioners have, by virtue of the powers vested in them by the said several acts before-mentioned, heard and received several propofals made to them, at different times, for discovering the said longitude, and have, accordingly, certified the same, from time to time, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, whereupon, bills have been made out for several sums of money, amounting in the whole to four thousand pounds: all which respective sums have been paid to several persons, by the treasurer of the navy, pursuant to the directions of the said acts of parliament; which the said commissioners, for discovering the longitude, thought necessary for making the said experiments: and whereas, by reason of the several payments made by the treasurer of the navy to the several persons as aforesaid, the said commissioners have, by virtue of the said acts of parliament, expended the whole of the sums thereby granted for the purposes aforesaid: and whereas, from the experiments which have already been made in pursuance of the powers vested in the said commissioners as aforesaid, there is great reason to expect that, by continuing to encourage ingenious persons to invent and make further improvements and experiments, in order to discover the said longitude, such discoveries may at length be produced as will effectually answer that end, and thereby contribute very much to the advantage of the trade and honour of this kingdom: there-

fore, for enabling the said commissioners to cause such further experiments to be made as they shall think proper for the purposes aforesaid, be it enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That the said commissioners, constituted by the said several acts of parliament before-mentioned, for the discovery of the longitude at sea, and for examining, trying, and judging, of all propofals, experiments, and improvements, relating to the same; or any five or more of them, shall have full power to hear and receive any propofal or propofals that have been, or shall hereafter be, made to them for discovering the said longitude at sea; and in case the said commissioners, or any five, or more of them, shall be so far satisfied of the probability of any such propofal or discovery, as to think it proper to make experiment thereof, they shall certify the same, under their hands and seals, to the commissioners of the navy for the time being, together with the persons names who shall be the authors of such propofals; and, upon producing such certificate, the said commissioners of the navy are hereby authorized and required to make out a bill or bills for any such sum or sums of money, not exceeding two thousand pounds, as the said commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, or any five, or more of them, shall think necessary for making any experiments in pursuance of this act, or any of the said former acts above-mentioned, payable by the treasurer of the navy; which sum, or sums, the treasurer of the navy, for the time being, is hereby required to pay immediately to such person or persons as shall be appointed by the commissioners for the discovery of the said longitude, to make those experiments, out of any money that shall be in his the said treasurer's hands, unapplied for the use of the navy.

LORINERS, bridle-smiths, or bit-makers. They make all the metallie appurtenances belonging to bridles, harness, &c.

LORRAIN and **BAR**, belonging to France, is bounded on the north by Luxemburg and the palatinate of the Rhine, on the east by Alsace, on the south by Franche Comté, and on the west by Champagne. It's length from north to south is about 110 English miles, and it's greatest breadth from east to west about 100.

This country is divided into three parts, viz. I. The dutchy of Lorrain. II. The dutchy of Bar. And III. The three bishopricks.

The air in general is very temperate and wholesome, and the soil fruitful in corn, wine, hemp, and pastures: there are a great many mines of iron, lead, and some of silver and copper.

Their salt-springs are so numerous, that they yield 200,000 l. per ann. The chief rivers are the Maese, the Moselle, and the Sarre, which rise in the south of Lorrain, and run north through this country. In the last war between France and the emperor Charles VI. which ended in a peace concluded in the year 1735, one of the articles was, That the duke of Lorrain should yield his country to France; at least that king Stanislaus, father of the present queen of France, should have the dominion of Lorrain, with the title of duke during his life; and that, after his decease, Lorrain should be united to the crown of France; and that the duke of Lorrain, in consequence thereof, should be constituted grand duke of Tuscany in Italy, after the death of the then reigning grand duke; which happening anno 1737, the duke of Lorrain took possession of Tuscany, and yet remains sovereign of it, and is since elected emperor. See FRANCE, in regard to LORRAIN.

LOTTERY, a kind of public game at hazard, frequent in England, France, and Holland, in order to raise money for the service of the state, which is appointed with us by the authority of parliament, and managed by commissioners appointed by the lords of the treasury for that purpose.

It consists of a certain number of blanks and prizes, which are drawn out of wheels, one of which contains the numbers, and the other the corresponding blanks or prizes.

The LAWS of ENGLAND relating thereto.

I. Stat. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 17. §. 1. All lotteries are public nuisances, and all patents for lotteries are void and against the law.

II. §. 2. No person shall keep open or draw, or throw at, any lottery, either by dice, lots, cards, balls, numbers, figures, or any other way whatsoever; and every person that shall open or shew, to be played or drawn at, any lottery, shall forfeit 500 l. one third part to his majesty, one other third part to the poor of the parish, and the other third, with double costs, to the party that shall sue for the same; and the parties offending shall likewise be prosecuted as common rogues.

III. §. 3. Every person that shall play, throw, or draw at, any lottery, shall forfeit 200 l. one third part to his majesty, one third to the poor of the parish, and the other third with double costs, to the person that shall sue for the same.

IV. Stat. 9 Ann. cap. 6. §. 56. Justices of peace, mayors, bailiffs, head officers, constables, and other her majesty's civil officers,

officers, are required to use their utmost endeavours to prevent the drawing of any such unlawful lottery; and every person who shall set up, or publish the setting up, any unlawful lottery, with intent to have such lottery drawn, shall forfeit 100*l.* one third part to her majesty, one other third to the poor of the parish, and the other third with costs, to the party who shall sue for the same.

V. Stat. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 109. Every person who shall keep any office for making insurances on marriages, births, christenings or service, or any office under the denominations of sales of gloves, of fans, of cards, of numbers, of the queen's picture, for the improvement of small sums, or the like offices, under the pretence of improving small sums, shall forfeit 500*l.* one third part to her majesty, one other third to the poor of the parish, and the other third, with costs, to the person who shall sue for the same; and every printer or other person, who shall publish the keeping any such office, shall forfeit 100*l.* to be distributed as the penalty last mentioned; and every person who in any office, before the 24th of June 1712, set up for making insurances on marriages, &c. or under any other the denominations aforesaid, or any like denominations, for improvement of small sums, shall make, or suffer to be made, any new insurances on marriages, births, christenings, or service, or receive any payments for improvement of small sums, shall forfeit 100*l.* to be distributed in like manner.

VI. Stat. 5 Geo. I. cap. 9. §. 43. All subscriptions for sale of the chances, or part of the chances, to arise on the tickets issued by virtue of the act of this session; and all such kind of undertaking, shall be within the meaning of the acts against private lotteries, and the persons buying, selling, subscribing, or taking subscriptions for the purchase of such chances of any tickets made out in pursuance of any act for a public lottery, or on the numbers of such tickets, without having the original tickets in their custody and right, shall be liable to the penalties inflicted on such as shall be concerned in private lotteries; and every such offender shall for every chance, so sold or subscribed for, forfeit 100*l.* over and above any former penalties; one moiety to the crown, the other to such person as in his own right shall, at the commencement of the drawing of such lottery, be possessed of the ticket on which such chance shall be sold or subscribed for.

VII. Stat. 8 Geo. I. cap. 2. §. 36. Every person who shall set up or keep any office or place under the denomination of sales of houses, lands, advowsons, presentations to livings, plate, jewels, ships, goods, or other things, for the improvement of small sums of money; or shall sell or expose to sale any houses, &c. by way of lottery, or by lots, tickets, numbers, or figures; or shall make, print, advertise, or publish, proposals or schemes for advancing small sums of money by several persons, amounting in the whole to large sums, to be divided amongst them by the chances of the prizes in any public lottery; or shall deliver out tickets to persons advancing such sums, to intitle them to a share of the money, according to such proposals or schemes; or shall make, print, or publish any proposal or scheme of the like kind, and shall be thereof convicted on the oath of one witness by two justices of peace where such offence shall be committed or the offender found, the person so convicted shall (over and above any former penalties) forfeit 500*l.* one third to the crown, one other third to the informer, and the remaining third to the poor of the parish where the offence shall be committed, to be levied by distress and sale of goods by warrant of the justices, and shall also be committed to the county gaol for one year, and till the 500*l.* be paid; persons aggrieved may appeal to the next quarter sessions.

VIII. §. 37. All persons who shall be adventures in such sales or lotteries, or shall contribute to such sales or lotteries, shall forfeit double the sum contributed, to be recovered with costs; one moiety to the crown, the other to the informer.

IX. Stat. 9 Geo. I. cap. 16. §. 4. If any persons shall, by colour of any authority from any foreign prince or state, set up or keep any lottery, or undertaking in the nature of a lottery, or shall make, print, or publish, any proposals or scheme for such lottery, and shall within this kingdom sell or dispose of any tickets in any foreign lottery, and shall be convicted on the oath of one witness before two justices, &c. where such offence shall be committed, or the offender found, such offender shall (over and above any former penalties) forfeit 200*l.* one third to the crown, one other third to the informer, and the remaining third to the poor of the parish, to be levied by distress and sale of goods by warrant of the justices, and shall also be committed to the county gaol for one year, and till the said sum be satisfied.

X. §. 5. Persons, aggrieved by the judgment of the justices may appeal to the next quarter sessions.

XI. Stat. 4 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 12. A yearly sum of 24,000*l.* out of the additional duties on stamped vellum, parchment, and paper (granted by 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 25.) shall be a fund for annuities of three per cent. to contributors in a lottery, until redemption by parliament, and shall be paid half-yearly at Christmas and Midsummer to the cashier of the bank.

XII. §. 13. It shall be lawful for any persons to contribute

sums of 10*l.* and for every such sum of 10*l.* they shall be interested in such lot in the said yearly fund, as is herein directed.

XIII. §. 31. The said annuities of three per cent. shall be free from taxes.

XIV. §. 32. The bank of England shall employ one to be their chief cashier, and one other to be their accountant-general; and the said cashier, to whom the said monies shall be issued for payment of the said annuities, shall without delay apply the same accordingly, and render his account thereof according to the course of the Exchequer; and the said accountant-general shall inspect all receipts and payments of the said cashier, and the vouchers relating thereunto; and all persons who shall be intitled to any of the same annuities shall be possessed thereof as a personal estate, and the same shall not be descendable to the heir, and shall not be liable to foreign attachment.

XV. §. 33. The said annuities of three per cent. shall be of one capital or joint stock, on which the same annuities shall be attending, and shall be called the joint stock of lottery annuities for the year 1731; and all persons, in proportion to their respective annuities, shall have a share in such stock; and such shares shall be transferrable and deviseable in the same manner as is prescribed by act of parliament in the first year of his late majesty's reign, touching the annuities after the rate of 5 per cent. and no stamp duties shall be chargeable on such transfers, and the governor and company of the bank of England shall continue a corporation till the same shall be redeemed.

XVI. §. 34. No fee shall be taken for paying the said annuities of three per cent. by the said cashier; and no fee shall be taken for any transfer, upon pain that any officer offending shall forfeit 20*l.* to the party aggrieved.

XVII. §. 35. These additional duties upon stamped vellum, &c. shall be applied (charges excepted) to pay the annuities of 3*l.* 10*s.* per cent. and then to pay the said annuities of three per cent.

XVIII. §. 36. Deficiencies shall be made good out of supplies to be granted by parliament, or out of the sinking fund.

XIX. §. 37. Monies issued out of the sinking fund shall be replaced out of the first supplies to be granted in parliament.

XX. §. 38. The surplus of the additional stamp duties shall be reserved for the disposition of parliament.

XXI. §. 39. Upon one year's notice in the London Gazette, and upon the Royal Exchange, by authority of parliament, at any of the half-yearly days for payment, and upon repayment of the principal sum and all arrearages, the said annuities shall cease; and the said additional duties upon stamped vellum, &c. shall be redeemed. And any vote of the house of commons to be signified by the speaker in writing shall be sufficient notice.

XXII. Stat. 6. Geo. II. cap. 35. If any person shall sell or deliver any ticket in any foreign lottery, and shall be convicted upon action or information, or upon oath or affirmation of one witness before two justices of peace where such offence shall be committed or the offender found, the person so convicted shall forfeit 200*l.* one third to his majesty, one third to him who shall make information of the offence, and the remaining third to the poor of the parish, to be levied by distress and sale of goods, and also shall be committed to the county gaol for one year, and from thence till the sum of 200*l.* be paid.

XXIII. §. 30. Any persons aggrieved by the judgment of such justices, shall have liberty to appeal to the next quarter sessions.

REMARKS.

In France there have been several lotteries, in favour of hospitals.

M. Le Clerc has composed a treatise of lotteries, wherein is shewn what is laudable, and what blameable in them.—Gregory Leti has also a book on the subject of lotteries.—Father Menestrier has a treatise on the same, published in 1700, where he shews their origin and use among the Romans.—He distinguishes several kinds of lotteries, and speaks of chances, and resolves several cases of conscience relating thereto.

The present lottery in England, established by authority, may be judged very useful; the motive thereto being for the purchase of the MUSEUM, or collection of Sir Hans Sloane, and of the Harleian collection of manuscripts; and for providing one general repository for the better reception and more convenient use of the said collection, and also of the Cottonian library, and of the additions thereto. See the article MUSEUM.

Among the several mistakes that are committed about chance, says the ingenious Mr. de Moivre, one of the most common, and least suspected, is that which relates to lotteries. Thus, supposing a lottery, wherein the proportion of the blanks to the prizes is as five to one, it is very natural to conclude, that therefore five tickets are requisite for the chance of a prize; and yet it may be proved demonstratively, that four tickets are more than sufficient for that purpose, which will be confirmed by often repeated experience.

In the like manner supposing a lottery, wherein the proportion of the blanks to the prizes is as 59 to 1 (such as was the lottery in England of 1710), it may be proved, that, in 28 tickets,

tickets, a prize is as likely to be taken as not; which, though it may seem to contradict the common notions, is nevertheless grounded upon infallible demonstration.

When the play of the royal oak was in use, some persons who lost considerably by it, had their losses chiefly occasioned by an argument of which they could not perceive the fallacy. The odds against any particular point of the ball were 31 to 1, which intitled the adventurers, in case they were winners, to have 32 stakes returned, including their own; instead of which they having but 28, it was very plain, that, on the single account of the disadvantage of the play, they lost $\frac{4}{31}$ of all the money they played for. But the master of the ball maintained that they had no reason to complain, since he would undertake that any particular point of the ball should come up in 22 throws; of this he would offer to lay a wager, and actually laid it when required. The seeming contradiction between the odds of 31 to 1, and 22 throws for any chance to come up, so perplexed the adventurers, that they began to think the advantage was on their side, for which reason they played on and continued to lose.

The principles whereon a knowledge in the doctrine of chances is founded, are as follow, viz.

1. The probability of an event is greater or less, according to the number of chances by which it may happen, compared with the whole number of chances by which it may either happen or fail.

2. Wherefore, if we constitute a fraction whereof the numerator is the number of chances whereby an event may happen, and the denominator and number of all the chances whereby it may either happen or fail, that fraction will be a proper designation of the probability of happening. Thus, if an event has 3 chances to happen and 2 to fail, the fraction $\frac{3}{5}$ will fitly represent the probability of it's happening, and may be taken to be the measure of it.

The same thing may be said of the probability of failing, which will likewise be measured by a fraction, whose numerator is the number of chances whereby it may fail, and the denominator the whole number of chances, both for it's happening and failing: thus the probability of the failing of that event, which has 2 chances to fail and 3 to happen,

will be measured by the fraction $\frac{2}{5}$.

3. The fractions, which represent the probabilities of happening and failing, being added together, their sum will always be equal to unity, since the sum of their numerators will be equal to their common denominator: now, it being a certainty that an event will either happen or fail, it follows, that certainty, which may be conceived under the notion of an infinitely great degree of probability, is fitly represented by unity.

These things will easily be apprehended, if it be considered that the word probability includes a double idea; first, of the number of chances whereby an event may happen; secondly, of the number of chances whereby it may either happen or fail.

If I say that I have three chances to win any sum of money, it is impossible from that bare assertion, to judge whether I am like to obtain it; but if I add that the number of chances either to obtain it or to miss it, is 5 in all, from hence will ensue a comparison between the chances that favour me, and the whole number of chances that are for or against me, whereby a true judgment will be formed of my probability of success: whence it necessarily follows, that it is the comparative magnitude of the number of chances to happen, in respect to the whole number of chances either to happen or to fail, which is the true measure of probability.

4. If, upon the happening of an event, I be intitled to a sum of money, my expectation of obtaining that sum has a determinate value before the happening of the event.

Thus, if I am to have 10l. in case of the happening of an event which has an equal probability of happening and failing, my expectation before the happening of the event is worth 5l. for I am precisely in the same circumstances as he who at equal play ventures 5l. either to have 10l. or to lose his 5l. Now he who ventures 5l. in an equal play, is possessor of 5l. before the decision of the play; therefore my expectation, in the case above-mentioned, must also be worth 5l.

5. In all cases, the expectation of obtaining any sum is estimated by multiplying the value of the sum expected by the fraction which represents the probability of obtaining it.

Thus, if I have 3 chances in 5 to obtain 100l. I say that the present value of my expectation is the product of 100l. by the fraction $\frac{3}{5}$, and consequently that my expectation is worth 60l. For,

Supposing that an event may equally happen to any one of 5 different persons, and that the person to whom it happens, should, in consequence of it, obtain the sum of 100l. it is plain, that the right which each of them in particular has upon the sum expected is $\frac{1}{5}$ of 100l. which right is founded in this; that if the 5 persons, concerned in the happening of the event, should agree not to stand the chance of it, but to divide the sum expected among themselves, then each of them must have $\frac{1}{5}$ of 100l. for his pretension.

Now, whether they agree to divide that sum equally among themselves, or rather chuse to stand the chance of the event, no one has thereby any advantage or disadvantage, since they are all upon an equal foot, and consequently each person's expectation is worth $\frac{1}{5}$ of 100l. Let us suppose farther, that 2 of the 5 persons concerned in the happening of the event, should be willing to resign their chance to one of the other three, then the person to whom these two chances are thus resigned, has now three chances that favour him, and consequently has now a right triple of that which he had before, and therefore his expectation is now worth $\frac{3}{5}$ of 100l.

Now, if we consider that the fraction $\frac{3}{5}$ expresses the probability of obtaining the sum of 100l. and that $\frac{3}{5}$ of 100 is the same thing as $\frac{3}{5}$ multiplied by 100, we must naturally fall into this conclusion, which has been laid down as a principle, that the value of the expectation of any sum is determined by multiplying the sum expected by the probability of obtaining it.

This manner of reasoning, though deduced from a particular case, will easily be perceived to be general, and applicable to any other case.

COROLLARY.

From what precedes it necessarily follows, that if the value of an expectation be given, as also the value of the thing expected, then dividing the first value by the second, the quotient will express the probability of obtaining the sum expected; thus if I have an expectation worth 60l. and that the sum which I may obtain be worth 100l. the probability of obtaining it will be expressed by the quotient of 60 divided by 100, that is, by the fraction $\frac{60}{100}$, or $\frac{3}{5}$.

6. The risk of losing any sum is the reverse of expectation, and the true measure of it is the product of the sum adventured, multiplied by the probability of the loss.

7. Advantage or disadvantage, in play, results from the combination of the several expectations of the gamesters, and of their several risks.

Thus supposing that A and B play together, that A has deposited 5l. and B 3l. that the number of chances which A has to win is 4, and the number of chances which B has to win is 2, and that it were required in this circumstance to determine the advantage or disadvantage of the adventurers, we may reason in this manner: since the whole sum deposited is 8, and that the probability which A has of getting it is $\frac{4}{6}$, it follows, that the expectation of A, upon the whole sum deposited, is $8 \times \frac{4}{6} = 5 \frac{1}{3}$, and for the same reason the ex-

pectation of B, upon that whole sum deposited, is $8 \times \frac{2}{6} = 2 \frac{2}{3}$.

Now, if, from the respective expectations which the adventurers have upon the whole sum deposited, be subtracted the particular sums which they deposit, that is, their own stakes, there will remain the advantage or disadvantage of either, according as the difference is positive or negative.

And therefore, if from $5 \frac{1}{3}$, which is the expectation of A upon the whole sum deposited, 5, which is his own stake, be subtracted, there will remain $\frac{1}{3}$ for his advantage; likewise, if from $2 \frac{2}{3}$, which is the expectation of B, 3, which is his own stake, be subtracted, there will remain $\frac{1}{3}$, which, being negative, shews that his disadvantage is $\frac{1}{3}$.

These conclusions may also be derived from another consideration; for if from the expectation, which either adventurer has upon the sum deposited by his adversary, be subtracted the risk of what he himself deposits, there will likewise remain his advantage or disadvantage, according as the difference is positive or negative.

Thus in the preceding case, the stake of B being 3, and the probability which A has of winning it, being $\frac{4}{6}$, the expectation of A upon that stake is $3 \times \frac{4}{6} = 2$; moreover, the stake of A being 5, and the probability of losing it being $\frac{2}{6}$, his risk ought to be estimated by $5 \times \frac{2}{6} = 1 \frac{2}{3}$; wherefore, if

from the expectation 2 the risk $1 \frac{2}{3}$ be subtracted, there will remain $\frac{1}{3}$ as before for the advantage of A; and, by the same way of proceeding, the disadvantage of B will be found to be $\frac{1}{3}$. It is very carefully to be observed, that what is here called advantage or disadvantage, and which may properly be called gain or loss, is always estimated before the event is come to pass; and, although it be not customary to call that gain or loss, which is to be derived from an event not yet determined, nevertheless, in the doctrine of chances, that appellation is equivalent to what in common discourse is called gain or loss.

For in the same manner as that he who ventures a guinea in an equal game, may, before the determination of the play, be said to be possessor of that guinea, and may, in consideration of that sum, resign his place to another; so he may be said to be a gainer or loser who would get some profit, or suffer some loss, if he would sell his expectation upon equi-

table terms, and secure his own stake for a sum equal to the risk of losing it.

8. If the obtaining of any sum requires the happening of several events that are independent on each other, then the value of the expectation of that sum is found, by multiplying together the several probabilities of happening, and again multiplying the product by the value of the sum expected.

Thus supposing, that in order to obtain 90l. two events must happen, the first whereof has 3 chances to happen and 2 to fail, the second has 4 chances to happen and 5 to fail, and I would know the value of that expectation; I say,

The probability of the first's happening is $\frac{3}{5}$, the probability of the second's happening is $\frac{4}{9}$; now, multiplying these two probabilities together, the product will be $\frac{12}{45}$, or $\frac{4}{15}$, and this product being again multiplied by 90, the new product will be $\frac{360}{15}$ or 24, therefore that expectation is worth 24l.

The demonstration of this will be very easy, if it be considered, that, supposing the first event had happened, then that expectation, depending now entirely upon the second, would, before the determination of the second, be found to be

exactly worth $\frac{4}{9} \times 90$ l. or 40l. (by art. 5.) We may therefore look upon the happening of the first, as a condition of obtaining an expectation worth 40l. but the probability of the first happening has been supposed $\frac{3}{5}$, wherefore the expectation sought for is to be estimated by $\frac{3}{5} \times 40$ or by $\frac{3}{5}$

$\times \frac{4}{9} \times 90$, that is, by the product of the two probabilities of happening multiplied by the sum expected.

And likewise, if an expectation depends on the happening of one event, and the failing of another, then it's value will be the product of the probability of the first happening, by the probability of the second's failing, and of that again by the value of the sum expected.

And again, if an expectation depends on the failing of two events, the rule will be the same, for that expectation will be found by multiplying together the two probabilities of failing, and multiplying that again by the value of the sum expected.

And the same rule is applicable to the happening or failing of as many events as may be assigned.

C O R O L L A R Y.

If we make abstraction of the value of the sum to be obtained, the bare probability of obtaining it will be the product of the several probabilities of happening, which evidently appears from this 8th article, and from the corollary to the 4th. Hitherto I have confined myself to the consideration of events independent; but for fear that, in what is to be said afterwards, the terms independent or dependent might occasion some obscurity, it will be necessary, before I proceed any farther, to settle entirely the notion of these terms.

Two events are independent, when they have no connection one with the other, and that the happening of one neither forwards nor obstructs the happening of the other.

Two events are dependent, when they are so connected together, as that the probability of either's happening is altered by the happening of the other.

In order to illustrate this, it will not be amiss to propose the two following easy problems.

1. Suppose there is a heap of 13 cards of one colour, and another heap of 13 cards of another colour, what is the probability of taking two cards at a venture out of each heap, I shall take the two aces?

The probability of taking the ace out of the first heap is $\frac{1}{13}$; now it being very plain, that the taking or not taking the ace out of the first heap has no influence in the taking or not taking the ace out of the second, it follows, that, supposing that ace taken out, the probability of taking the ace out of the second will also be $\frac{1}{13}$; and therefore those two events being independent, the probability of these both happening will be $\frac{1}{13} \times \frac{1}{13} = \frac{1}{169}$.

2. Suppose that, out of one single heap of 13 cards of one colour, it should be designed to take out the ace in the first place, and then the deuce; and that it were required to assign the probability of doing it; we are to consider, that although the probability of the ace's being in the first place be $\frac{1}{13}$, and that the probability of the deuce's being in the second place would also be $\frac{1}{13}$, if that second event were considered in itself without any relation to the first; yet that, the ace being supposed as taken out at first, there will remain but 12 cards in the heap, and therefore that, upon the supposition of the ace being taken out at first, the probability of the deuce's being next taken will be altered, and become $\frac{1}{12}$; and therefore we may conclude, that those two events are dependent, and that the probability of their both happening will be $\frac{1}{13} \times \frac{1}{12} = \frac{1}{156}$.

From whence it may be inferred, that the probability of the happening of two events dependent is the product of the

probability of the happening of one of them, by the probability which the other will have of happening, when the first shall have been considered as having happened; and the same rule will extend to the happening of as many events as may be assigned.

9. But to determine in the easiest manner possible, the probability of the happening of several events dependent, it will be convenient to distinguish, by thought, the order of those events, and to suppose one of them to be the first, another to be the second, and so on: which being done, the probability of the happening of the first may be looked upon as independent; the probability of the happening of the second is to be determined from the supposition of the first's having happened; the probability of the third's happening is to be determined from the supposition of the first's and second's having happened, and so on: then the probability of the happening of them all will be the product of the multiplication of the several probabilities, which have been determined in the manner prescribed.

We have seen before how to determine the probability of the happening or failing of as many events independent, as may be assigned; we have seen, likewise, in the preceding article, how to determine the probability of the happening of as many events dependent, as may be assigned; but, in the case of events dependent, how to determine the probability of the happening of some of them, and, at the same time, the probability of the failing of some others, is a disquisition of a greater degree of difficulty; which, for that reason, will be more conveniently transferred to another place.

10. If I have several expectations upon several sums, it is very evident that my expectation upon the whole is the sum of the expectations I have upon the particulars.

Thus suppose two events such, that the first may have three chances to happen, and two to fail; and the second four chances to happen, and five to fail; and that I be intitled to 90l. in case the first happens, and to another like sum of 90l. in case the second happens also, and that I would know the value of my expectation upon the whole: I say, the sum expected in the first case being 90l. and the probability of

obtaining it being $\frac{3}{5}$, it follows that my expectation, on that

account is worth $90 \times \frac{3}{5} = 54$; and again, the sum expected

in the second case being 90, and the probability of obtaining it being $\frac{4}{9}$, it follows that my expectation of that second sum

is worth $90 \times \frac{4}{9} = 40$; and, therefore, my expectation upon the whole is worth $54 + 40 = 94$ l.

But if I am to have 90l. once for all, for the happening of one or the other of the two aforementioned events, the method of process, in determining the value of my expectation, will be somewhat altered; for, although my expectation of the first event be worth 54l. as it was in the preceding example, yet I consider that my expectation of the second will cease upon the happening of the first, and that, therefore, this expectation takes place only in case the first does happen

to fail. Now the probability of the first's failing is $\frac{2}{5}$; and, supposing it has failed, then my expectation will be 40;

wherefore $\frac{2}{5}$ being the measure of the probability of my obtaining an expectation worth 40l. it follows, that this expectation (to estimate it before the time of the first's being

determined) will be worth $40 \times \frac{2}{5} = 16$, and, therefore, my

expectation upon the whole is worth $54 + 16 = 70$ l.

If that which was called the second event, be now considered as the first, and that which was called the first, be now considered as the second, the conclusion will be the same as before.

For the application of these principles to the doctrine of chances in general, and, among the rest, to the article of lotteries. But, to understand the rationale of the theorems raised by Mr. De Moivre, for this and other purposes of play, I would refer the reader to that ingenious writer himself; but the reader should be prepared with a competent knowledge of algebra, and then the steps which that gentleman has taken to come at the solution of the various problems he gives, will be easily followed.

In a lottery, whereof the number of blanks is to the number of prizes as 39 to 1 (such as was the lottery in 1710) to find how many tickets one must take to make it an equal chance for prizes.

Multiply 39 by 0,7*, and the product, 27,3, will shew that the number of tickets requisite to that effect will be 27, or 28 at most. Likewise in a lottery, whereof the number of blanks is to the number of prizes as 5 to 1, multiply 5 by 0,7, and the product, 3,5, will shew that there is more than equality

LOT

equality of chance in four tickets, for one or more prizes, but less than equality in three.

* For the reason of this and the following rules, as applied to lotteries, see De Moivre's Introduction to the Doctrine of Chances.

REMARK.

In a lottery, whereof the blanks are to the prizes as 39 to 1, if the number of tickets in all were but 40, the proportion abovementioned would be altered, for 20 tickets would be a sufficient number for the just expectation of the single prize, it being evident that the prize may be as well among the tickets which are taken, as among those that are left behind.

Again: if the number of tickets in all were 80, still preserving the proportion of 39 blanks to one prize, and, consequently, supposing 78 blanks to two prizes, this proportion would still be altered; for, by the doctrine of combinations, it will appear that the probability of taking one prize or both, in 20 tickets, would be but $\frac{139}{361}$, and the probability of taking none would be $\frac{177}{316}$; wherefore the odds against taking any prize would be as 177 to 139, or very near as 9 to 7.

And, by the same doctrine of combinations, it will be found that 23 tickets would not be quite sufficient for the expectation of a prize in this lottery, but that 24 would rather be too many; so that one might with advantage lay an even wager of taking a prize in 24 tickets.

If the proportion of 39 to 1 be oftener repeated, the number of tickets requisite for the equal chance of a prize will still increase with that repetition; yet let the proportion of 39 to 1 be repeated never so many times, nay an infinite number of times, the number of tickets requisite for the equal chance of a prize would never exceed $\frac{7}{10}$ of 39, that is, about 27 or 28.

Wherefore, if the proportion of the blanks to the prizes is often repeated, as it usually is in lotteries, the number of tickets requisite for a prize will always be found, by taking $\frac{7}{10}$ of the proportion of the blanks to the prizes.

In a lottery, consisting of 40,000 tickets, among which are three particular benefits, what is the probability that, taking 8000 of them, one or more of the particular benefits shall be amongst them?

SOLUTION.

First, In the theorem belonging to the remark in Mr. De Moivre's Doctrine of Chances, page 76, second edition, there being substituted respectively 8,000, 40,000, 32,000 3, and 1, in the room of c , n , d , a , and p , it will appear that the probability of taking one precisely of the three particular benefits, will be $\frac{8000 \cdot 32000 \cdot 31999 \cdot 3}{40000 \cdot 39999 \cdot 39998} = \frac{48}{125}$ nearly.

Secondly, c , n , d , a , being interpreted as before, let us suppose $p=2$, hence the probability of taking precisely two of the particular benefits will be found to be $\frac{8000 \cdot 7999 \cdot 32000 \cdot 3}{40000 \cdot 39999 \cdot 39998} = \frac{12}{125}$ nearly.

Thirdly, Making $p=3$, the probability of taking all the three particular benefits will be found to be $\frac{8000 \cdot 7000 \cdot 7008}{40000 \cdot 39999 \cdot 39998} = \frac{1}{125}$, very near.

Wherefore, the probability of taking one or more of the three particular benefits will be $\frac{48 + 12 + 1}{125}$, or $\frac{61}{125}$, very near.

It is to be observed, that those three operations might have been contracted into one, by inquiring the probability of not taking any of three particular benefits, which will be found to be $\frac{32000 \cdot 31000 \cdot 31008}{40000 \cdot 39999 \cdot 39998} = \frac{64}{125}$, nearly; which being

subtracted from unity, the remainder, $1 - \frac{64}{125}$, or $\frac{61}{125}$, will shew the probability required, and, therefore, the odds against taking any of three particular benefits will be 64 to 61 nearly.

To find how many tickets ought to be taken, in a lottery consisting of 40,000, among which are three particular benefits, to make it as probable that one or more of those three may be taken as not.

SOLUTION.

Let the number of tickets requisite to be taken be $=x$, it will follow, therefore, from the remark belonging to the XXth problem in De Moivre, page 76, that the probability

LOT

of not taking any of the particular benefits will be $\frac{n-x}{n} \times \frac{n-x-1}{n-1} \times \frac{n-x-2}{n-2}$; but this probability is equal to

$\frac{1}{2}$; since, by hypothesis, the probability of taking one or

more of them is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$, from whence we shall have the

equation $\frac{n-x}{n} \times \frac{n-x-1}{n-1} \times \frac{n-x-2}{n-2} = \frac{1}{2}$; which equation being solved, the value of x will be found to be nearly 8252.

N. B. The factors whereof both the numerator and denominator are composed, being but few, and in arithmetic progression, and besides, the difference being very small in respect of n , those terms may be considered as being in geometric progression: wherefore, the cube of the middle term, $\frac{n-x-1}{n-1}$, may be supposed equal to the product of the

multiplication of those terms; from whence will arise the equation $\frac{(n-x-1)^3}{(n-1)^3} = \frac{1}{2}$, or, neglecting unity in both

numerator and denominator, $\frac{n-x}{n} = \frac{1}{2}$, and, consequently, x will be found to be $=n \times 1 - \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}}$, or $n \times$

$1 - \frac{1}{2} \sqrt[3]{4}$, but $n=40,000$, and $1 - \frac{1}{2} \sqrt[3]{4} = 0.2063$; wherefore $x=8252$.

In the remark belonging to the second problem, a rule was given for finding the number of tickets that were to be taken to make it as probable that one or more of the benefits would be taken as not; but in that rule it was supposed, that the proportion of the blanks to the prizes was often repeated, as it usually is in lotteries: now, in the case of the present problem, the particular benefits being but three in all, the remaining tickets are to be considered as blanks in respect of them; from whence it follows, that the proportion of the number of blanks to one prize being very near as 13332 to 1, and that proportion being repeated but three times in the whole number of tickets, the rule there given would not have been sufficiently exact; for which reason it was thought necessary to give another rule in this place.

Supposing a lottery of 100,000 tickets, whereof 90,000 are blanks, and 10,000 are benefits, to determine accurately what the odds are of taking or not taking a benefit in any number of tickets assigned.

SOLUTION.

Suppose the number of tickets to be six; then let us inquire into the probability of taking no prize in six tickets: which to find, let us make use of the theorem set down in the corollary of the XIXth problem [see De Moivre, page 75 and 76] wherein it will appear that the number of chances for taking no prize in 6 tickets, making $a=10,000$, $b=90,000$, $c=6$, $p=0$, $n=100,000$, will be $\frac{90000}{1} \times \frac{89999}{2} \times \frac{89998}{3} \times \frac{89997}{4} \times \frac{89996}{5} \times \frac{89995}{6}$, and that the whole number of chances will be $\frac{100000}{1} \times$

$\frac{99999}{2} \times \frac{99998}{3} \times \frac{99997}{4} \times \frac{99996}{5} \times \frac{99995}{6}$; then dividing the first number of chances by the second, which may easily be done by logarithms, the quotient will be 0.53143; and this shews the probability of taking no prize in 6 tickets; and, this decimal fraction being subtracted from unity, the remainder, 0.46857, shews the probability of taking one or more prize in 6 tickets; wherefore the odds against taking any prize in 6 tickets will be 53143 to 46857.

If we suppose now, that the number of tickets taken is 7; then carrying each number of chances above written one step farther, we shall find that the probability of taking no prize in 7 tickets is 0.47828, which fraction being subtracted from unity, the remainder will be 0.52172; which shews the odds of taking one prize, or more, in 7 tickets, to be 52172 to 47828.

REMARK.

When the number of tickets taken bear a very inconsiderable proportion to the whole number of tickets, as it happens in the case of this problem, the question may be resolved as a problem depending on the cast of a die; we may, therefore, suppose a die of 10 faces, having one of it's faces such as the ace, representing a benefit, and all the other nine representing blanks, and inquire into the probability of missing the ace six times

times together, which, by the rules given in the Introduction *, will be found to be $\frac{9^6}{10^6} = 0.53144$, differing from what we had found before but one unit in the fifth place of decimals: now, if we inquire into the probability of missing the ace seven times, we shall find it 0.47829, differing also but one unit in the fifth of decimals, from what had been found before; and, therefore, in such cases as this, we may use both methods indifferently, but the first will be exact, if we actually multiply the numbers together; the second is only an approximation.

* See De Moivre's Introduction to the Doctrine of Chances, page 9, 10, 11, &c.

But both methods confirm the truth of the practical rule given in the third problem [in De Moivre's Introduction] about finding what number of tickets is necessary for the equal chance of a prize; for multiplying as it is there directed, the number 9 representing the blanks, by 0.7, the product, 6.3, will shew that the number requisite is between 6 and 7. The same things being given as in the before-mentioned problem, suppose the price of each ticket to be 10l. and that, after the lottery is drawn, 7l. 10s. be returned to the blanks, to find in this lottery the value of the chance of a prize.

SOLUTION.

There being 90,000 blanks, to every one of which 7l. 10s. is returned, the total value of the blanks is 675,000l. and, consequently, the total value of the benefits is 325,000l. which being divided by 10,000, the number of the benefits, the quotient is 32l. 10s. and therefore one might, for the sum of 32l. 10s. be intitled to have a benefit certain, taken at random, out of the whole number of benefits: the purchaser of a chance has, therefore, one chance in ten for the sum of 32l. 10s. and nine chances in ten for losing his money; from whence it follows, that the value of his chance is the tenth part of 32l. 10s. that is, 3l. 5s. and, therefore, the purchaser of a chance, by giving the seller 3l. 5s. is intitled to the chance of a benefit, and ought not to return any thing to the seller, although he should have a prize; for the seller having 3l. 5s. sure, and nine chances in ten for 7l. 10s. the value of which chances is 6l. 15s. it follows that he has his 10l.

Supposing still the same lottery as has been mentioned in the two preceding problems of De Moivre, let A engage to furnish B with a chance, on condition that, whenever the ticket on which the chance depends, shall happen to be drawn, whether it proves a blank or a prize, A shall furnish B with a new chance, and so on, as often as there is occasion, 'till the whole lottery be drawn; to find what consideration B ought to give A, before the lottery begins to be drawn, for the chance or chances of one or more prizes, admitting that the lottery will be 40 days in drawing.

SOLUTION.

Let 3l. 5s. which is the absolute value of a chance, be called s .

1. A, who is the seller, ought to consider, that the first day he furnishes necessarily a chance, whose value is s .

2. That the second day he does not necessarily furnish a chance, but conditionally, viz. if it so happen that the ticket on which the chance depends, should be drawn on the first day; but the probability of it's being drawn on the first day is $\frac{1}{40}$; and, therefore, he ought to take $\frac{1}{40}s$ for the consideration of the second day.

3. That, in the same manner, he does not necessarily furnish a chance on the third day, but conditionally, in case the only ticket depending (for there can be but one) should happen to be drawn on the second day, of which the probability being $\frac{1}{39}$, by reason of the remaining 39 days, from the second inclusive to the last, it follows, that the value of that chance is $\frac{1}{39}s$.

4. And, for the same reason, the value of the next is $\frac{1}{38}s$, and so on.

The purchaser ought therefore to give the seller $1 + \frac{1}{40} +$

$\frac{1}{39} + \frac{1}{38} + \frac{1}{37} \dots \dots + \frac{1}{2}$, the whole multiplied by s ,

or $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} \dots \dots + \frac{1}{40}$, the

whole multiplied by s . Now, it being pretty laborious to sum up those 40 terms, we have here made use of a rule which Mr. De Moivre has given in the supplement to his Miscellanea Analytica, whereby may be summed up, in a very short time, as many of those terms as one pleases, though they were 10,000 or more; and, by that rule, the sum of those 40 terms will be found to be 4.2785 very near, which being multiplied by s , which in this case is 3.25, the product is 13.9. will shew that the purchaser ought to give the seller about 13l. 18s.

COROLLARY.

The value of the chance for one single day that shall be fixed upon, is the value of that chance divided by the number of days intercepted between that day inclusive, and the number of days remaining to the end of the lottery: which, however, must be understood with that restriction, that the day fixed upon must be chose before the lottery begins, or that, if it be done on any other day, the state of the lottery must be known, and a new calculation made accordingly for the value of s .

REMARKS.

A knowledge in the doctrine of chances is not only applicable to all kinds of hazards of this nature, but may likewise be a help to cure a kind of superstition, which has been of long standing in the world, viz. that there is in play such a thing as luck, good or bad. I own there are a great many judicious people, who, without any other assistance than that of their own reason, are satisfied, that the notion of luck is merely chimerical; yet I conceive, that the ground they have to look upon it as such, may still be farther enforced from some of the following considerations.

If, by saying that a man has good luck, nothing more was meant, than that he has been generally a gainer at play, the expression might be allowed as very proper in a short way of speaking: but, if the word good luck be understood to signify a certain predominant quality, so inherent in a man, that he must win whenever he plays, or at least win oftener than lose, it may be denied, that there is any such thing in nature.

The assertors of luck are very sure, from their own experience, that at some times they have been very lucky, and that at other times they have had a prodigious run of ill luck against them, which, whilst it continued, obliged them to be very cautious in engaging with the fortunate; but how chance should produce these extraordinary events, is what they cannot conceive: they would be glad, for instance, to be satisfied, how they could lose fifteen games together at piquet, if ill luck had not strangely prevailed against them. But, if they will be pleased to consider the rules given by Mr. De Moivre, they will see, that though the odds against their losing so many times together be very great, viz. 32767 to 1, yet that the possibility of it is not destroyed by the greatness of the odds, there being one chance in 32768 that it may so happen; from whence it follows, that it was still possible to come to pass, without the intervention of what they call ill luck.

Besides, this accident of losing fifteen times together at piquet is no more to be imputed to ill luck, than the winning with one single ticket the highest prize in a lottery of 32768 tickets is to be imputed to good luck, since the chances in both cases are perfectly equal. But if it be said, that luck has been concerned in this latter case, the answer will be easy; for let us suppose luck not existing, or, at least, let us suppose it's influence to be suspended, yet the highest prize must fall into some hand or other, not by luck (for by the hypothesis that has been laid aside) but from the mere necessity of it's falling somewhere.

Those who contend for luck, may, if they please, alledge other cases at play, much more unlikely to happen than the winning or losing fifteen games together, yet still their opinion will never receive any addition of strength from such supposition. For, by the rules of chance, a time may be computed, in which those cases may as probably happen as not; nay, not only so, but a time may be computed in which there may be any proportion of odds for their so happening. But supposing that gain and loss were so fluctuating, as always to be distributed equally, whereby luck would certainly be annihilated, would it be reasonable in this case to attribute the events of play to chance alone? I think, on the contrary, it would be quite otherwise, for then there would be more reason to suspect that some unaccountable fatality did rule in it: thus, if two persons play at cross and pile, and chance alone be supposed to be concerned in regulating the fall of the piece, is it probable that there should be an equality of heads and crosses?

It is 5 to 3 that in 4 times there will be an inequality; it is 11 to 5 in 6, 93 to 35 in 8, and about 12 to 1 in 100 times: wherefore, chance alone by it's nature constitutes the inequalities of play; and there is no need to have recourse to luck to explain them.

Further, the same arguments which explode the notion of luck, may, on the other side, be useful in some cases to establish a due comparison between chance and design: we may imagine chance and design to be, as it were, in competition with each other, for the production of some sorts of events, and may calculate what probability there is, that those events should be rather owing to one than to the other. To give a familiar instance of this; let us suppose that, two packs of piquet cards being sent for, it should be perceived that there is, from top to bottom, the same disposition of the cards in both packs; let us likewise suppose that, some doubt arising about this disposition of the cards, it should be questioned,

tioned, whether it ought to be attributed to chance, or to the maker's design: in this case, the doctrine of combinations decides the question, since it may be proved by it's rules, that there are the odds of above 26,313,083 millions of millions, of millions of millions, to one, that the cards were designedly set in the order in which they were found.

From this last consideration we may learn, in many cases, how to distinguish the events, which are the effect of chance, from those which are produced by design: the very doctrine, that finds chance where it really is, being able to prove by a gradual increase of probability, 'till it arrive at demonstration; that where uniformity, order, and constancy reside, there also reside choice and design.

Lastly, one of the principal uses to which this doctrine of chances may be applied, is the discovering of some truths, which cannot fail of pleasing the mind, by their generality and simplicity; the admirable connection of it's consequences will increase the pleasure of the discovery; and the seeming paradoxes wherewith it abounds, will afford very great matter of surprize and entertainment to the inquisitive. A very remarkable instance of this nature may be seen in the prodigious advantage which the repetition of odds will amount to; thus, supposing I play with an adversary who allows me the odds of 43 to 40, and agrees with me to play 'till 100 stakes are won or lost on either side, on condition that I gave him an equivalent for the gain I am intitled to by the advantage of my odds; the question is, what I am to give him, on supposing we play a guinea a stake? The answer is 99 guineas, and above eighteen shillings*, which will seem almost incredible, considering the smallness of the odds of 43 to 40. Now, let the odds be in any proportion given, and let the number of stakes played for be never so great, yet one general conclusion will include all the possible cases, and the application of it to numbers may be wrought in less than a minute's time.

* Guineas were then at 21 s. 6 d.

I have explained, in my introduction to the Doctrine of Chances, says Mr. De Moivre, the chief rules on which the whole art of chances depends; I have done it in the plainest manner that I could think of, to the end it might be (as much as possible) of general use. I flatter myself that those who are acquainted with arithmetical operations, will, by the help of the introduction alone, be able to solve a great variety of questions depending on chance; I wish, for the sake of some gentlemen who have been pleased to subscribe to the printing of my book, that I could every where have been as plain as in the introduction; but this was hardly practicable, the invention of the greatest part of the rules being entirely owing to algebra; yet I have, as much as possible, endeavoured to deduce from the algebraical calculation several practical rules, the truth of which may be depended upon, and which may be very useful to those who have contented themselves to learn only common arithmetic.

On this occasion, I must take notice to such of my readers as are well versed in vulgar arithmetic, that it would not be difficult for them to make themselves masters, not only of all the practical rules in this book, but also of more useful discoveries, if they would take the small pains of being acquainted with the bare notation of algebra, that might be done in the hundredth part of the time that is spent in learning to write short-hand.

On the abuse of LOTTERIES.

At the beginning of this article we have touched upon the ordinary use that is made of lotteries; it may be likewise necessary to take notice of the ill consequences that attend them; which will be more briefly done from the few following queries.

1. Whether public or state lotteries have not a tendency to uphold the spirit of gaming among the people in general; and whether this does not so corrupt and vitiate the minds of the mass of the people, as to draw them from honest labour and industry in their trading employments, thereby render them poor and indigent, and occasion a general depravity of morals.

2. Whether experience has not shewn, that even the fortunate who become suddenly rich by this means, are more generally unhappy than otherwise they would be?

3. Whether the wisest and best intentioned acts of parliament, in relation to lotteries, are not too often shamefully and scandalously evaded, and give room to lottery jobbing and public imposition; and whether there have not been some late instances of this, in open defiance and violation of the best laws for the regulation of a lottery, which has given a general disgust to the nation?

4. Whether ways and means, far more eligible than those of lotteries, may not always be fell upon, to raise money for any public exigency; and whether lotteries ought not to be the last resource upon these occasions?

LOUISIANA, the extent, as well as the natural history of this country has been variously represented. In relation to the former, father Hennipin and Mr. Sale have extended it at

an extravagant rate; nor have the French, who have assumed a right to this part of America, thought proper yet to ascertain it's boundaries at all, for by their accounts it remains boundless. See our first map of NORTH AMERICA, in opposition to that of the Sieur D'Anville, which was executed under the patronage of Louis duke of Orleans, first prince of the blood. See also our article MAPS.

The more modest of their geographers, who are ashamed to assert that this province is without any limitation at all, say it is bounded on the south by the gulph of Mexico, on the north by the Illinois, and by the territories of the Paniasus, Paoducas, Osages, Tionontecagas, Chavanons, and other wild nations, on the east by the part of Florida, Georgia, and Carolina, and on the west by New Mexico and New Spain. They say further, it extends itself from north to south about 15 degrees, that is, from 25 to the 40th of north latitude, and from east to west about 10 or 11, that is, from 86 to 96, or 97, for the boundaries are nothing less than certain, according to father Charlevoix: And,

The maps of Mr. De Lisle give those boundaries at a much greater extent, especially on the north side, where they make it contiguous to Canada, so that part of it is bounded, according to him, by New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, &c. and on the west by the rivers called Rio Bravo and Salado. Other French maps published at Amsterdam, anno 1720, extend it's northern boundaries still farther on the authority of Monf. Le Sueur, who sailed up the river of St. Lewis or Mississippi above 706 leagues from it's mouth, and adds, that the river is known to flow 100 leagues still higher; so that, according to him, the northern boundaries of Louisiana may reach as far as the northern pole.

Neither are those on the north-west less uncertain, the Mississippi, a great river, which gives name to a vast tract of land, flowing from that point into the Mississippi, more than 400 leagues above it's mouth; so that if we except the south, where the sea bounds it, all the rest must be left to uncertainty, and so it is like to remain 'till these boundaries are settled on the east with the English, and on the west with Spain: 'till then, they will be still liable to disputes, and, perhaps, to a continual fluctuation, according as either of the three nations shall have opportunity to enlarge their conquests in this part of America.

Certain, however, it is, that Louisiana contains the greatest part of those new discovered lands east and west of the Mississippi river, which, at first, had the name of Florida given to them by Sebastian Cabot, a Portugueze, who was sent upon this design by our Henry VII. See the article FLORIDA.

The Spaniards, indeed, lay claim, if not to the first discovery, at least to the first settlement on this continent, anno 1512, when John Pontio de Leon first unsuccessfully landed and built a fort there. The Spaniards, since then, made several attempts upon this country, but the adventurers were massacred by the Indians, so that it was not 'till the reign of Charles X. of France, that his subjects attempted a settlement on this coast, yet they were defeated by the Spaniards. These last, however, were soon after punished in the same kind by the French, but nevertheless these could not obtain sufficient help to settle a colony there, 'till anno 1684, when Monf. de la Sale discovered, with great difficulty, the mouth of the Mississippi, and built fort St. Lewis on that bay; and, he being assassinated, the place was again abandoned 'till anno 1698, when Capt. Iberville discovered the river Mississippi, and christened the whole country Louisiana, and made several settlements, which have been since very much improved, especially from the year 1720.

For 'till that time the Spaniards had some forts on the coast, particularly that of Pensacola, about 14 leagues east of the isle of Dauphin, the most considerable settlement belonging to the French, where they were ever opposing the French from settling in that country, and disputing their title to it; so that they cannot be properly said to have been rightly fixed in those possessions 'till then: of so late date is their establishment there.

Authors and travellers give variety of accounts in relation to the natural history of Louisiana. With respect to it's being extravagantly extolled about the year 1720, as the Frenchmen's paradise, great allowances must be made for all that was said at that time, by reason of the use that was intended to be made thereof, in order to countenance the system, as it was called in France, which was partly bottomed on the Mississippi scheme. See MISSISSIPPI COMPANY.

Certain it is, that several of their rivers, which overflow at certain seasons, render the country very fertile and pleasant. Nothing is said to be more delightful than their meadows, which are fit for the reception of any seed. In some parts, the soil yields three or four crops in a year, for the winter consists of heavy rains, without nipping frosts. We find there not only all the variety of trees, in great quantities, which Europe affords, but divers others unknown to the Europeans, some of them very valuable, such as their tall and excellent cedars, a tree which distils a gum, said to exceed our noblest perfumes; and the cotton-trees, which are here of a prodigious height. The whole country abounds with no little

variety of game, fowl, cattle, and every thing that life can desire.

The chief rivers wherewith Louisiana abounds, besides those before-mentioned, are the St. Francis, St. Anthony, Tombau, River of Oxen, the Black River, the Oviscouing, Illinois, Sabloniere, and many more; but the most considerable is the Mobile, by reason of the fine country it waters on both sides, and the settlement of the Chicachas, Cattas, Nanibas, Mobilans, and other nations that inhabit on each side of it, but more especially for it's fine bay, and the French settlement upon it. It descends from the mountains in the country of the Illinois, about 20 leagues, or more, north of the Chicachas, and, after a course of above 200 leagues southward, through some fine fertile plains and rich meadows, empties itself into the gulph of Mexico. The bay of this river is reckoned 30 leagues broad, and receives two others, viz. that of the Alibamons, which comes from the east, and that of the Chicachas, which flows from the north. It is on the west coast of this bay that the French have settled the most considerable colony they have in all Louisiana, which is likewise inhabited by several nations, such as the Tomez, Apachi, Mobilans, Chattas, &c. who traffic with them at Fort Lewis, on the same bay. They are none of them considerable, except that their vicinity to Georgia, Carolina, and Florida, makes their friendship so valuable, that they are much courted on all sides, especially by the English, who leave no means untried to gain them over to their interest. In regard to the other rivers of Louisiana, their names, courses, lengths, mouths, &c. we refer the reader to our map of North America, they being too many in number to admit of a particular description in a work of this nature.

The chief bays of this country, besides those of the Mississippi and that of the Mobile, are those of St. Rose, Pensacola, St. Andrew, or Sandy Bay, St. Joseph and St. Bernard, or St. Lewis. That of St. Rose is guarded by an island of the same name, which is very long, and extends itself quite to the bay of Pensacola. The channel between it and the land is wide and deep enough for any ships to sail from one to the other of those bays. The island is well wooded, and abounds with variety of game. The tides here are more regular, according to Charlevoix, than in other parts of the Mexican gulph; and the tide flows in 12 hours regularly. Pensacola hath often passed from the Spaniards to the French, and been fortified and dismantled by turns, but was, at length, yielded by the latter to the former, and is now part of Florida.

The bay of St. Lewis, called by the Spaniards St. Bernard, is most western on all this coast, is large and commodious. It was discovered, according to the French, by Monf. de la Salle, a French gentleman, anno 1685, who landed and made a settlement, and built a fort there, and called it St. Lewis. This bay, however, must not be confounded with another small one of the same name, which lies more eastward of this, over-against Pont-Chartrain. This settlement proved but of short duration.

The places of note in Louisiana, besides those we have already had occasion to mention, are New Orleans, Pont-Chartrain, and Maurepas, about 10 or 12 leagues above the country of the Oumas, and 18 from the sea, which yet may be sailed, with a good wind, in 20 hours. The soil about it is rich and fertile, and the climate, in general, excellent.

Pont-Chartrain is chiefly noted for the lake of it's name, by which the French have found out a more safe and expeditious communication with the river Mississippi, to avoid the danger and difficulty of sailing up that river by it's principal mouth. From this lake they enter into that of Maurepas, from which they go on, by means of the canal or river Iberville, into that of Mississippi. When that cannot be easily done, they carry their merchandizes by land from the bay, into the lake Pont-Chartrain, which discharges itself quite to the country of the Oumas, who are seated on the banks of the Mississippi, a little above New Orleans, and thence pursue their journey up that river, according to La Martiniere. If this be the case, it shews that this mouth and bay is not of so easy and quick passage to that town as father Charlevoix would insinuate.

REMARKS ON LOUISIANA before the last war.

Under the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, and FLORIDA, we have shewed the nature and extent of those colonies, and also of the dangers that may one day attend the vicinity of the two latter to the British colonies in North America.

That the boundaries of Louisiana and Canada are very great, and yet very uncertain, is manifest from all the accounts the French have given of them. To what end can the limits of so extensive a country, close upon the back of all our colonies in North America, be left in such a state of uncertainty by the French, but with a view that, when the occasion offers, they may become as near neighbours as they please to the British colonies, in order to take such advantage therefrom as may best quadrate with their grand system of commercial dominion in America? See BRITISH AMERICA. Is it not necessary, therefore, that the boundaries of the French, as well as those of the Spaniards at Florida, should

be so justly settled and ascertained, that no misunderstandings may thereby be occasioned between the said crowns? Have not the Spaniards, as well as the English, experienced what unjustifiable incroachments have been made by the other power in this part of America? Should not the late accounts which we have had from America, in relation to a very considerable illicit commerce said to be carried on by the French, from the Mississippi to Mexico, alarm the Spaniards infinitely more than a little logwood-trade being carried on by the English in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, where the English have so apparent a right of trade? See the article LOGWOOD. Will not a large contraband trade, carried on by the French from hence to Spanish America, proportionably injure the lawful trade carried on by the English and Dutch, by the way of Old Spain to New Spain? Is the neighbourhood of the French to the Spaniards upon the Mississippi less dangerous to the latter than to the British colonies? If the before-mentioned accounts from America should prove true, does not an opportunity offer itself to the English and Dutch, to make some advantage of with the court of Madrid?

Is it not notorious, that the French, by virtue of their Louisianian and Canadian settlements, have gained, and are still endeavouring more and more to gain, such an ascendancy over the Indian nations in general, that may one day prove unspeakably injurious, if not absolutely destructive of the very being of the British colonies; provided the Indian affairs are not made as much the study of the English as of their politic competitors?

Nothing more manifests the wisdom of the French measures pursued in North America than that, although there is hardly any single neighbouring colony but what might soon become a match for all CANADA alone, yet the French, by a proper management of their INDIAN ALLIES, keep ALL the British northern colonies, both in time of peace and war, in a constant alarm, dread, and apprehension of danger. But it is to be feared, that those affairs have not been so clearly and faithfully represented in England as could be desired by every true friend to the interests of this kingdom; for, had that been the case, it is not to be doubted but the most effectual measures would have been taken by the crown of Great-Britain, to prevent every kind of danger that might be reasonably apprehended to attend those colonies, which England has nursed with so much tenderness, and with so great prosperity to those colonies themselves, as well as emolument to herself. And that the reciprocal ties of interests may be the more and more cemented between this kingdom and her American colonies in general, is a point which I have sincerely laboured throughout this work; and, as the article before us affords me a fresh opportunity to pursue the same principles, I shall, with what brevity I can, submit a summary of the best intelligence I have been able to collect in relation to the further secure possession and the commercial prosperity of those colonies. The crown of England, it is certain, has not hitherto been sparing in expence to cherish those important plantations, in order to raise them to the pitch of splendor wherein we at present behold them; and, therefore, those plantations themselves should not, nor do I believe they will, be at all lukewarm, now it is in their power, in regard to their own maintenance, safety, and felicity: they have, indeed, given testimony to the contrary, and the crown and parliament have not shewed any insensibility to their late laudable zeal; nor will they ever shew, we may presume, any indifference towards their trading interests, when they are not repugnant to those of their mother-state.

The people of England are already sufficiently incumbered with taxes, though it must be allowed that many wise measures have been taken to render the burden light and easy; and it is to be hoped, that the like consistency of public measures will prevail, to render it lighter and lighter. The colonies themselves, therefore, jointly, should cheerfully contribute towards whatever expence may attend the more effectual regulation of their trade and frontiers; for it is full time that they should look to their security, and most unnatural to expect ever to hang on the breast of their mother-country.

Whatever pretences may be made, it is most certainly true, that the preservation of the whole range of British colonies upon the continent of America depends in a great measure upon a proper regulation of the SIX INDIAN NATIONS, and the security of the frontiers of NEW YORK, both to the northward and southward. It has been, therefore, proposed by those who seem to be well acquainted with the interest of those colonies, and to have their welfare and prosperity at heart, 1. That a good strong regular fortification is absolutely necessary to be erected, without delay, at WOOD CREEK, or near it, because it is not impossible to bring great guns to bear against it from CROWN-POINT; from whence the French always pour in their parties upon our more northern colonies, in time of war. Here, also, it will be necessary to have a magazine of all kinds of warlike stores, both for the offensive and defensive, with snow shoes, small hatchets, &c.—This will, in a great measure, protect the British possessions; and from thence a descent upon Canada, when occasion shall require, may not be impracticable.

2. That

2. That such fort be able to contain 500 men in time of war, and never less than 100 in time of peace.
3. That there be an addition of 200 independent companies, to the four already established here, from the Highlands of Scotland; the wilder the better for a common garrison there.
4. That all the lands from FORT NICHOLSON to FORT ANNE, that is, all the lands upon the CARRYING-PLACE, and those adjacent, be set apart for the use of such Highlanders only as will settle there, and to be properly assisted in their settling for the first two or three years: to each man and his wife 100 acres, and to each single person 50 acres, without fee or reward, to them and their heirs for ever.
5. That near this fort, at a proper distance, there be erected a small BLOCK-HOUSE, sufficient for 30 Indians, to be maintained there on constant pay, during a war, viz. five from each of the Six Nations, to be relieved and regulated in such manner as the Six Nations themselves think most proper.
6. That commissioners from all the colonies be appointed to meet annually at NEW YORK, or ALBANY, in order to settle their respective quota's towards the general expence, and for the erecting such other forts and block-houses as may be thought necessary.
7. That those commissioners jointly be empowered to lay out lands (not already granted) most conveniently situated for a good frontier; and that these lands be laid out in townships, after the NEW ENGLAND manner, for a competent number of families, to be granted to them and their heirs, ten years at least, clear of all taxes and quit-rents.
8. That in each township there be erected a good strong church, with loop holes, and a few field pieces, which may serve for a retreat upon occasion.—That these townships should not consist wholly of Germans, or other foreigners*.

* 'Philadelphia may one day repent,' says our author, who seems to be a worthy, honest, old British soldier, 'the vast importation of those people among them; they are most of them old soldiers. I have reason to know something of their spirit, having had some hand in disarming 600 of them, upon account of a mutiny in this province; and it was my fortune to command some of them upon the expedition against Canada, in 1711. A society of free-men, as the Philadelphians are, absolutely disclaiming the use of arms, and, at the same time, encouraging the introduction of great numbers of old foreign soldiers, who hardly know what the word Liberty means, is a contrast which they only can account for.' See the Importance of gaining and preserving the Friendship of the Indians to the British interest considered.

9. That a string of block-houses be erected, so as to make the communication, or an alarm, from one garrison, or block-house, to another, easy, by smoaks, properly disposed, in the day-time; or by throwing up a number of rockets, or firing great guns in the night-time*.—Such an expedient would be of great use during the war, as the Indians never attack but by surprize, and would greatly discourage the parties of the Indian enemies, as it would keep our own garrisons upon the watch, and our out-scouts strictly to their duty.

* I do not think it at all impracticable to convey an alarm from Albany to New York in one night, if rockets or great guns were properly disposed and attended. Let us suppose, for example, a party of French and Indians abroad, which seldom happens without being discovered by some out-scout or other: upon discovery, if in the day-time, let there be one great smook, and one great gun fired; which, if taken up by the other garrisons, I am confident that party would hardly proceed. In order to discover what course the party may take, let there be three smoaks, two pretty near to one another, and the third at a proper distance, either to the eastward or westward, &c. which will point out the course taken.—This may be improved.

10. That in each of the SIX NATIONS there be built a fort of some kind or other, where, and in what manner, that particular nation shall best approve.

11. That in the ONONDAGO country, where their general councils are held, and the archives of the Six Nations are preserved, something more than common be erected: this will do honour to the British nation, and greatly encourage the Indians, especially in time of war; and while their old men, women, and children, are secure in a fort, with a small party of Christians, their excursions will be more free and frequent: but this security ought to be left altogether to their own choice; whether by erecting one single fortification for the retreat of the whole (the SENECA I should chuse, being a fine country, where great encouragement ought to be given to settlers, and where the Indians are less tainted with Christian vices) or whether each nation should have their proper retreat, or security.

What has hitherto prevented our Indians in their excursions against the enemy is, in my humble opinion, in a great measure owing to the apprehensions of having their cattle cut off in their absence; they have been often threatened, and, indeed, at present, they have nothing to trust to but their heels. And nothing has prevented the attempt, but the resolutions of the CACHNAWAGES, their principal fighters (but deserters from our MOHAWKS) not to spill the blood of their relations and countrymen.

And the same natural affection has prevented our Indians from doing, what I am confident they would have done, had they been sure not to have met with their friends and countrymen, the CACHNAWAGES. Proper methods, therefore, ought to be taken to recover those Indians; which, I conceive, is very far from impracticable.

The villainous treatment those people have met with at ALBANY, from the handlers, was the original cause of that desertion: and undoubtedly, for the same reasons, many more do, and will desert, if proper remedies are not speedily applied. For this purpose it is requisite to observe, that, without a proper REGULATION OF THE TRADE BETWEEN THE INDIANS AND THE ENGLISH, ALL OTHER ENDEAVOURS ON THE SIDE OF THE LATTER, TO GAIN AND PRESERVE THE FRIENDSHIP OF THE FORMER, WILL AVAIL BUT LITTLE. I shall not, at present, enter into a detail of the GREAT INJURIES DONE BY THE ENGLISH TO THE INDIANS, IN THEIR INTERCOURSE OF COMMERCE: certain it is, that these poor people have, for many years, been under the direction of the people of ALBANY, whose interest it was TO DECEIVE AND DEFRAUD THEM; and, that they have been deceived and defrauded, is too notorious to be gainsaid: instances in abundance might be produced, but they are really too shocking to relate. Nor is this any new thing, as appears from the following preamble to an act of parliament of the 13th of queen Anne.—But I have not heard of any act of the like kind since, though the mischief has been daily increasing.

'Whereas great endeavours have, from time to time, been used by her majesty's governors and commanders in chief of this colony, to settle a trade, and to have commerce with such Indian nations as live beyond our five confederated nations; which, in process of time, might not only be very advantageous, but also of great security to the frontiers of this colony, at or near Albany, in time of war; and several of the said Indians being lately come to the city of Albany, in order to trade with the inhabitants thereof; but several private persons, not regarding the safety of this colony, but only designing their own private lucre, have, and do daily, use many indirect means to ENGROSS THE TRADE INTO THEIR HANDS, by their contrivance with those who are employed by the said Indians to carry them in their waggons to Albany; and, having once gotten the peltry, beavers, or other furs of the said Indians, in their possession, hinder them to make the best of their market, to the ruin of the said trade, and the ALIENATION OF THE AFFECTIONS OF THE SAID INDIANS FROM THIS COLONY; and, instead of securing the friendship of the said Indians, will, if not prevented, cause them to be our enemies, &c.' This act to continue for two years.

The chief principles to be laid down in the management of our Indians are, first, by all means to endeavour to undersell the French: and the next is to do justice to the Indians in those sales. For which reason, I should advise that this trade, instead of being wholly under the direction of the people of Albany, who are most of them, if not altogether, traders or handlers, and whose interest it is to take all advantages of those poor people, and that with impunity, as they have no body to complain to, the principal directors being all traders themselves, and, of course, Socii criminis.

2. That it be put under the direction of one single person of capacity and integrity, of his majesty's appointment, during good behaviour, with a handsome allowance, in the nature of a SUPERINTENDENT OF INDIAN AFFAIRS, with full powers to do summary justice upon all occasions.
3. That he be debarred trading directly or indirectly, upon the severest penalties.
4. That he take his instructions from the governor and council; and report to them, at least twice a year, a state of our Indian affairs, in order to be laid before his majesty or the board of trade.
5. That he be obliged to make a tour through the SIX NATIONS, once a year at least, with a proper equipage, and some small presents for the chief men; when and where he may receive complaints, and redress grievances.
6. In order to save the crown the expence of such an officer, it may be advisable, that, as there are two surveyors-general of the customs upon this continent, at an allowance of a guinea a day, and 60 l. sterling yearly, each of them, for a clerk, upon the demise of either, that officer be set apart for this use: one surveyor-general being sufficient here for all the purposes of the customs, those officers being rather in the nature of preventive officers, that is, their chief business is to prevent any European goods being imported from any part but from Great-Britain and Ireland, and to prevent the exportation of any of the enumerated commodities to any parts but to Great-Britain, &c. There are no revenues collected by the officers here, nor no accounts worth mentioning to comptroll: so that it seems, that one of those officers at least, may be very well spared for the above purposes, and much better employed.
7. That there be a handsome allowance made for two interpreters at least; one, indeed, for each nation, I should not think too much, and one of them always to attend the principal officer.
8. That

8. That there be a smith * appointed by the principal officer, with a proper allowance, in each nation, with two apprentices, in order to multiply interpreters; for want of which, I doubt, we have often been misled and imposed on; and, if those smiths were obliged to teach one or two Indian youths of the best capacities to read and write English, it might be of no small service, as nothing is more wanted than honest interpreters.

* This is the most useful mechanic than can be among the Indians, especially a gunsmith to keep their arms constantly in good order, their whole subsistence and traffic depending on hunting and shooting.

9. That every person, employed by the public in this service be prohibited trading, directly or indirectly, under severe penalties, and give security for the due execution of his duty; and to be on oath obliged to represent faithfully, every grievance which, he conceives, the Indians meet with from the traders. As monopolies in general are the bane of trade, this commerce should be open and free for all his majesty's subjects; by which means a number of bush-lopers, as the Dutch call them, and the French, who are indefatigable in this point, *coureurs de bois*, are created; a set of men, who, from their acquaintance with the woods and Indians, are importantly useful upon many occasions, especially, in time of war.

10. That there be lodged in the hands of every smith, or agent for that purpose, Indian goods, to the value of £1. always by them, which they are to dispose of for the use of the public, according to invoices from New York, fixing the prices of the goods, as well as of the furs and skins, and by no means to exact further upon the Indians. This is the method, and the only method, I humbly conceive, by which we can undersell the French, and will prove a means to regulate the whole Indian trade: and this is the method taken in the government of New-England, which is in the following manner, viz.

By an act of 12 Geo. I. it is enacted, ' That provisions, ' cloathing, &c. suitable for carrying on a trade with the ' Indians, not exceeding the value of 4000l. be procured ' at the cost and charge of the province, and the produce applied for supplying the Indians, by such persons as shall be ' annually chosen, &c. and likewise annually produce fair accounts of their proceedings; which supplies shall be lodged ' to the eastward, at, &c.

' That a suitable person be chosen annually at each of the ' places where any of the goods, &c. are lodged, which ' truck-masters shall be under oath, and give sufficient security for the faithful discharge of that trust, and such instructions as they shall receive from time to time: and ' shall keep fair accounts of their trade, and dealings with ' the Indians, and shall return the same, together with the ' produce, to the person or persons who shall be appointed to ' supply them with goods. And they shall not trade with ' the Indians, directly or indirectly. That the truck-masters sell to the Indians at the price set in the invoices sent ' them from time to time, without any advance thereon; ' and shall allow the Indians for their furs, and other goods, ' as the markets shall be at Boston, according to the latest ' advices from the person or persons that shall supply them ' for the same commodities of equal goodness.

' Rum to be given to the Indians in moderate quantities, by ' the truck-masters only.

' No person whatsoever, other than the truck-masters, and ' they only as such, shall or may presume by themselves, or ' any other for them, directly or indirectly, to sell, truck, ' barter, or exchange, with any Indian or Indians, any wares, ' merchandizes, or provisions, within six miles of any ' truck-house, &c. on penalty of forfeiting 50l. or six ' months imprisonment.'

From hence I have only to observe, that, had our Indian trade been under such a regulation, or indeed any regulation at all, we should have less to apprehend at this time of day; and it is certainly high time to make a beginning.

11. A grand fair yearly established in the Six Nations, to be kept alternately, would be extremely useful; to begin first in the ONONDAGO country, the next year in the SENECA country, &c. of which all the nations, far and near, may have due notice; and where the superintendant, or inspector-general before humbly proposed, should always attend: and, the prices of goods being fixed from the latest invoices from New York, it would be a great inducement to the distant nations of Indians, as well as our own, to purchase, and would at the same time be a check upon the handlers at OSWEGO, as well as elsewhere.

One essential article in our trade with the Indians, and upon which, in a great measure, the whole depends, has been hitherto much neglected on our part; and that is, from us they have the cheapest English arms and ammunition, and of course the worst upon the face of the earth: the French take the utmost care to supply them with what is really good, and at a cheaper rate than we can afford the best of ours: by which means, I doubt, they will ever be able to undersell us in that essential article, unless some effectual methods are

fallen upon to prevent it. The French purchase Indian goods both in Holland and in England for those very Indians. Or, why might not those colonies manufacture their own powder in the MOHAWK's country, where saltpetre may be had in abundance, from those vast beds of pigeon's-dung? In short, the Indians must have good powder and arms; and, where the best is, there they will go; and, according to the present situation of things, they will depend upon the French for it. Could we get the better of this one article, all that attachment and intercourse our Indians have at present with CANADA, would, I am confident, soon be at an end.— This is a matter well deserving consideration.

12. That instead of supporting this trade by way of licence, which has hitherto been but oddly managed, there be a duty, applicable only to Indian affairs, and thrown into the joint stock, upon all Indian goods exported hither by land or water; and likewise upon all furs and skins imported, under the direction of the officers of his majesty's customs; those, appointed by the country, have generally more regard to their friends than their duty. This has been formerly practised, and, it is humbly conceived, will answer every purpose much better.

As this affair will create a yearly expence, such as no one colony can well bear, let there be a scheme prepared for each colony's paying their proportion. Most certain it is, as before observed, that, if ever NEW YORK, ALBANY, and HUDSON'S river, should get into other hands, every other colony would soon follow; and, while that is secure, all the more northern colonies will be so too. If what has been said should appear true, is it possible to doubt but that they will readily comply? In answer to that trite objection, viz. as we have all the trade to this part [meaning NEW YORK and ALBANY] we ought to be at all the expence: in God's name, let each contributing colony have it's township upon the frontiers, with proper magazines, and one or more trading houses, and a sloop, and make the most of it.

The names of the provinces that form the republic of Holland, with their several rates towards the yearly expence of the government, according to the proportion of 100 guilders, and the order in which their deputies to the states general vote, are as follows:

	Guil.	Stiv.	Den.
Guelderland, with the county of Zutphen	5	12	3
Holland, with West Friesland or North Holland	58	6	2½
Zealand	9	3	8
Utrecht	5	16	5
Friesland	11	13	2
Overijssel	3	11	5
Groningen, with the Omlands	5	16	7½

100 00 0

(This may serve for something of a model.)

The people of New York have been at an infinite expence upon the whole, from the beginning, in fortifying, and in presents to the Indians, with very little assistance from their neighbour colonies; a charge which that province is hardly able to bear, and most unreasonable, as every other colony upon the continent is, in some degree or other, concerned in the preservation of the friendship of the Indians, and the security of our frontiers. This, however, has been but palliating matters, and doing things by halves: whenever the colonies think fit to join, the Indian affairs will wear quite another aspect. The very name of such an happy confederacy will greatly encourage our Indians, strike terror into the French, and be a means to prevent their insupportable insults and incroachments, which they daily make with impunity.

A long series of ill usage from the traders has given the Indians but a very indifferent opinion of our morals; and of late, from several abortive expeditions, they begin, I doubt, to suspect our courage; than which, nothing can more affect our interest with them. They of themselves are honest, such at least as have not been debauched by the Christians, and brave in their way, and despise knaves and cowards. It will, therefore, require some address, and not a little expence to recover our character.

If all this is to no purpose, and that they will stand out, let us not despair, but that, upon a proper representation to his majesty, of the absolute impossibility for this colony alone to bear the expence of settling and preserving our Indian affairs upon such a footing as they really ought to be, his majesty, from his wonted goodness, will undoubtedly, not only assist them himself, but oblige the other colonies to assist them; in proof of which paternal care, give me leave here to insert some of his instructions to the late governor Montgomerie in 1727, upon this very occasion.

Instruction 83. ' Whereas it has been thought requisite, that ' the general security of our plantations upon the continent ' of America be provided for by a contribution, in proportion ' to the respective abilities of each plantation: and whereas ' the northern frontiers of the province of New York, being ' most exposed to an enemy, do require an extraordinary ' charge

charge for the erecting and maintaining of forts necessary for the defence thereof: and whereas orders were given by king William III. for the advancing 500l. sterling, towards a fort in the ONONDAGO country, and of 2000l. sterling, towards building the forts at ALBANY and SCHENECTADY; and likewise by letters under his royal sign manual, directed to the governors of divers of the plantations, to recommend to the councils and general assemblies of the said plantations, that they respectively furnish a proportionable sum towards the fortifications on the northern frontiers of our said province of New York, viz.

RHODE ISLAND and PROVIDENCE.

	Plantations l.	150
CONNECTICUT	- - - - -	450
PENNSYLVANIA	- - - - -	350
MARYLAND	- - - - -	650
VIRGINIA	- - - - -	900

Making together 2500

And whereas we have thought fit to direct, that you also signify to our province of NOVA CÆSAREA, or NEW JERSEY, that the sums which we have at present thought fit to be contributed by them, if not already done, in proportion to what has been directed, to be supplied by our other plantations as aforesaid, are 250l. sterling for the division of EAST NEW JERSEY, and 250l. sterling for the division of WEST NEW JERSEY: you are, therefore, to inform yourself what has been done therein, and what remains further to be done, and to send an account thereof to us, and to our commissioners for trade and plantations, as aforesaid.

84. And you are also, in our name, instantly to recommend to our council, and the general assembly of our said province of NEW YORK, that they exert the utmost of their power, in providing, without delay, what further shall be requisite for preparing, erecting, and maintaining of such forts in all parts of that province, as you and they shall agree upon.

85. And you are likewise to signify to our said council, and the said general assembly, that for further encouragement, that besides the contributions to be made towards the raising and maintaining of forts and fortifications on that frontier as above-mentioned, it is our will and pleasure, in case the said frontier be at any time invaded by an enemy, the neighbouring colonies and plantations upon the continent shall make good, in men, or money in lieu thereof, their quota of assistance, according to the following repartition, viz.

	Men.
MASSACHUSET'S BAY	350
NEW HAMPSHIRE	40
RHODE ISLAND	48
CONNECTICUT	120
NEW YORK	200
EAST NEW JERSEY	60
WEST NEW JERSEY	60
PENNSYLVANIA	80
MARYLAND	160
VIRGINIA	240

Making together 1358

Pursuant whereunto you are, as occasion requires, to call for the same; and, in case of any invasion upon the neighbouring plantations, you are, upon application of the respective governors thereof, to be aiding and assisting to them in the best manner you, and as the condition of your government will permit.

As to this instruction, his majesty, I doubt, has not been thoroughly informed, because, upon an invasion, considering the distance and dilatoriness of assemblies, the mischief, in all probability, would be over before we could have any assistance. I should, therefore, think it advisable, that those proportions be immediately detached to the frontiers, upon the first news of a war; there to remain, and to be recruited during the war, at the expence of the said colonies. I shudder, continues the author, to think what would have been the fate of ALBANY, had not these troops, designed against CANADA, been accidentally there; more especially as the people of ALBANY, at that time, where afflicted with an epidemical distemper, which carried off great numbers.

From hence his majesty's care is apparent; and why those instructions have not been hitherto duly observed, is what I shall not take upon me to determine: I cannot, however, help thinking, that, from upwards of forty years observations upon the conduct of our colony assemblies, and the little regard paid by them to the royal instructions; if it is left altogether to them, the whole will end in words and altercation only. By the above instructions it appears, that his majesty has been fully apprized of the consequences of leaving this colony unguarded, as well as of its inability to answer his most gracious intentions.

I should therefore advise, that the quotas be doubled, which they can now very well bear, and both the CAROLINA's added, and the whole enforced by an act of the British legislature.

In that case, if this scheme, or something similar to it (as I am very far from thinking but that it will admit of many improvements, and for that purpose it is offered) is duly executed; I will venture to prophesy, that, in a few years, the whole furr-trade will be in British hands, and that the furr-trade company in CANADA will sink, upon which the very being of that company depends.

I have only further, adds this honest gentleman, with great submission to advise, that the meeting of the Indians be alternate, one year at New York, which will add but very little to the expence, and where the commissioners from those contributing colonies may more conveniently attend; and where, it is to be hoped, the Indians may receive some better impressions of our people than they have hitherto done at ALBANY; the next year any where but at ALBANY or SCHENECTADY: that the presents made to the Indians upon those occasions, as soon as viewed, and divided by the particular nations, be packed up again, in such manner as may make the carriage the easiest, of which they themselves will be the best judges, and locked up, and the keys to be delivered to the principal SACHEM of each nation, and not to be opened till they arrive in their own country: for I believe I may venture to affirm, that the greatest part of those presents, made them upon these solemn occasions, seldom go further than ALBANY or SCHENECTADY, but are bought up by the handlers for rum, and afterwards sold to the Indians, when drunk, at an exorbitant rate: I would propose this method, being well assured there is no law can be contrived, or oath framed, to bind a handler.

As to our southern frontiers, the city, &c. I mean of NEW YORK, let those be altogether under the direction, and at the expence of the colony of NEW YORK, hoping withal, his majesty will be graciously pleased to favour them with a small detachment of gunners, and one engineer, for a time at least, together with some artillery and ammunition. Large sums have been expended, or rather squandered away, on this account, by the country, to very little purpose. Let there be two batteries erected at the NARROWS, one on each side, in proper places, and with breast-works only; any fortifications there may fall into the enemy's hands, and have bad consequences. These batteries should be under the care of the adjoining counties; that on the east side under the care of the regiment of King's County, and that on the west side under the care of the regiment of Richmond County.

Our utmost endeavours must be, in the first place, to prevent the enemy's landing; and also, in the next place, to prevent a bombardment. For this purpose it may be necessary to view the coast below the two first batteries. Should an enemy land at or near NEW UTRECHT, the march is easy, even with cannon, from thence to the ferry, of which we should soon feel the effects. Low batteries, as I would have all those to be, even with the water if possible, at RED or YELLOW HOOK, will be a means to prevent a bombardment, and the enemy's landing upon LONG ISLAND. A small battery upon KENEDY'S ISLAND may be of use. Let there be several small batteries fixed round NUTTEN ISLAND, of heavy cannon, and it were to be wished they were all such; and one strong intrenchment in the middle, for a number of troops.

At the east end of the town a good battery will be necessary, as well as several along HUDSON'S RIVER.

I would not have any of those batteries exceed five guns, but to be placed the thicker: ships generally aim at one battery at a time; besides, it is impossible to know where a ship may lie: in this case, it is odds but some of our batteries may take her up. Breast-works, with block-houses, instead of stockadoes, would answer all purposes much better, be of much less expence, and last longer.

As to the fort, and the lower batteries, they are altogether ill designed, and as badly executed; but as our late engineer has reported, to his excellency the governor, the failures, and the improvements that may be made, so as to resist any sudden attack, we hope a matter of this consequence will be no longer disregarded.

It is a constant rule, that every detached work, however insignificant in itself, should have its ammunition at hand, to be come at without difficulty or danger; one hundred weight at least of powder to each gun.

The regiments of Suffolk, Queen's, and King's Counties, Richmond, and Westchester, will be force sufficient to defend the city, if they can be brought together with regularity and certainty: to which, however, may be added the militia of Connecticut and Essex County. Let all the other counties bend their force towards the frontiers.

Beacons, or rather smokes, in the day-time, and rockets, or great guns, in the night, for this purpose, will be absolutely necessary. It will be no great difficulty to carry an alarm to the east end of Long Island, to Richmond County, and Westchester, at the same time, in a very few hours; upon which, every man that keeps a horse ought to make the best of his way to the city, and not to wait the forming into

companies, 'till they arrive at the city; where I will suppose the colonel, or lieutenant-colonel, to be executing, while the other, who may have full power to press horses, is bringing up the rear; where transportation is necessary, the city to take care to have boats at the proper landings.

During a war, let there be one stout sloop of war provided, at the expence of the governments of Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; one other at the expence of North and South Carolina's, Virginia, and Maryland; and one at the expence of the Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Halifax, and Nova Scotia; which, if under proper regulations, together with the station-ships, will be sufficient to protect our trade.

Give me leave to prophesy again, that, in case of a war, we shall sorely repent it, if timely provision is not made against the efforts of the people of Cape Breton, and upon our settlements from Crown-Point.

If these things, or something of this kind, perhaps, from an abler hand, be duly considered and executed, during the calm of a peace, we shall have little to apprehend from an enemy.

Wherefore let our general assemblies, with whom we have intrusted the care of our lives and liberties, answer, if they can, either to God or man, a neglect of their duty, in a matter of so high concernment to themselves, their fellow-subjects, and their posterity. Dulce est pro patria mori, is an old Roman maxim: and, though I have not at present any thoughts of dying for my country, yet I have a real satisfaction in imagining, whether in reality or not I cannot say, that I have pointed out some things, which, if observed, may prevent a great deal of blood-shed, &c. of which I wash my hands, and leave it at the door of those whose proper business it is to look out in time.

REMARKS on the whole of LOUISIANA, as they stood before the last war.

We have seen the sentiments of a worthy, well-intentioned, British old soldier, not only in regard to the proper military measures which he judges requisite to be taken for the safety and preservation of our northern colonies, but also for their trading prosperity in general: and having been informed that what this worthy officer has suggested, in his plain honest way, has really met with the approbation of those abroad who are good judges of what he has submitted, I thought it might prove useful to take due notice of it; for many a good design has been overlooked or neglected, for want of being properly represented and patronized. Whether what has been proposed, in respect to the point of security, cannot be so well judged of but by those who are on the spot, and skilled in the principles of engineering; it looks with a very rational aspect, and may deserve attention, in order to be rectified, if it should, in any respect, be defective.

Our reasons for taking notice of this matter under the article LOUISIANA are, (1.) Because this French province, together with that of Canada, and the alliances and great influence which the French have with various Indian nations, by virtue of these extensive settlements, upon the back of the British colonies, even from Georgia to Hudson's-bay, may one day put it in the power of France to surprize those colonies; unless they are well secured by proper fortifications, and by an inviolable friendship cemented with our Indians, by means of a fair and honourable commerce, and good treatment from the English. (2.) Because what we have here urged is consonant to, and proper to be considered conjunctively with what we have said under the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, and FLORIDA. See also the articles MISSISSIPPI and FRANCE.

REMARKS on this article LOUISIANA, since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE of 1763; wherein a succinct sketch of the disadvantages we laboured under before the war, and the benefits we may receive by the last peace, are considered.

It has been generally suspected, that this nation has suffered much from the want of a due knowledge of her dominions in America, which we should endeavour to prevent for the future. If that may be said of any part of America, it certainly may of those countries, which have been called by the French LOUISIANA. They have not only included under that name all the western parts of VIRGINIA and CAROLINA, and thereby imagined, that they had, from this NOMINAL TITLE, a just right to those ancient dominions of the crown of ENGLAND: but what is of worse consequence, perhaps, they have equally deceived and imposed upon many, by the extravagant hopes and unreasonable expectations they had formed to themselves, of the vast advantages they were to reap from those countries, as soon as they had usurped them. See our article MISSISSIPPI.

But when they came to be disappointed, they ran from one extreme to the other, and condemned the country as good for nothing, because it did not answer the chimerical hopes they conceived of it; and indeed, we seem to be misled by

their prejudices, and be drawn into mistakes by their artifice, not their folly, they knowing better. Because their bubbling MISSISSIPPI SCHEME failed in 1719, some people would persuade us, that every other reasonable design of improving that country, and of reaping any advantage from it, must do the same, especially now since all parts east of the Mississippi are ceded to Great-Britain by the DEFINITIVE TREATY. To remove those prepossessions, the following account of these countries may contribute; they appearing both just and reasonable, and agreeable to every thing we know of America.

We have been long told by J. Charlevoix, from whence it is, that many people have formed a contemptible opinion of this country, that lies on and about the Mississippi. They are misled, says he, by the relations of some seafaring people, and others, who are no manner of judges of such things, and have never seen any part of the country, but the coast-side, about MOBILE and the mouths of the Mississippi; which they tell is as dismal to the appearance, the only thing those people judge by, as the interior parts of the country, which they never saw, are delightful, fruitful, and inviting. They tell us besides, that the country is unhealthy; because there happens to be a marsh at the mouth of the Mississippi, (and what river is there without one?) which they imagine must be unhealthy, rather than that they know it to be so; not considering, that all the coast, both of North and South America is the same; and not knowing, that the whole continent, above this single part of the coast, is the most likely, from its situation, and has been found, by all the experience that has been had of it, to be the most healthy part of NORTH AMERICA in the same climates, as will abundantly appear from the following and other accounts.

That a fair general view of those countries may be taken, we should consider them as they are naturally divided into four parts; (1.) The sea-coast; (2.) The Lower Louisiana, or western part of Carolina; (3.) The Upper Louisiana, or western part of Virginia; and, (4.) The river Mississippi.

The sea-coast is the same with the rest of the coast of North America to the southward of New York, and indeed from thence to Mexico, as far as we are acquainted with. The soil for twenty or thirty miles distant from the shore, more or less, is a sandy desert, with few good ports or harbours on the coast, especially from Chesapeek-bay to Mexico. However barren this coast is in other respects, it is covered with tall pines, which afford a great store of pitch, tar, and turpentine. These pines make good masts for ships, which have lasted for upwards of twenty years; when 'tis well known, that our common masts of the New England white pine will often decay in three or four years. There is great plenty of cypress in the swamps on this coast, which is not less serviceable, both for masts, of which it would afford the largest of any tree that we know, and for ship-building. And ships might be built of both these timbers for half the price, perhaps, of any other, as well on account of their vast plenty, as being so easily worked.

In most parts of these coasts, especially about the Mississippi, there is great plenty of cedars, and ever-green oaks, which make the best ships of any that are built in North-America; and we have reason to believe, that the Spaniards built their ships of war at the Havannah of these cedars. Of these there is very great plenty, immediately to the westward of the mouth of the Mississippi; 'where large vessels can go to the lake of the Chetmias, and nothing hinders them to go and cut the finest oaks in the world, with which all that coast is covered,' says Charlevoix, Tom. iii. p. 444. Which moreover, is a sure sign of a very good, instead of a bad soil; and accordingly we see the French have settled their tobacco plantations thereabouts. It is not then without reason that Mons. Le Page Du Pratz assures us, that the LARGEST NAVIES MIGHT BE BUILT IN THAT COUNTRY, AT A VERY SMALL EXPENCE.

From this it appears, that even the sea-coast, barren as it is, from which the whole country has been so much depreciated, is not without its advantages, and those peculiarly adapted to a trading and maritime nation.

And all along the Mississippi on both sides, Dumont*, says, 'the lands, which are all free from inundations, are excellent for culture, particularly those about Baton-Rouge, Cut-Point, Arkansas, Natches, and Yafons, which produce Indian corn, tobacco, indigo, &c. and all kinds of provisions and esculent plants, with little or no care or labour, and almost without culture, the soil being in all those places a black mould of an excellent quality.'

* Memoires, l. 16.

These accounts are confirmed by our own people, who were sent by the government of Virginia in 1742, to view the western parts of that province; and although they only went down the OHIO and MISSISSIPPI to NEW ORLEANS, they reported, that they saw more good land on the MISSISSIPPI, and its many large branches, than they judge is in all the English colonies, as far as they are inhabited; as appears from the report of that government to the board of trade.

What makes this fertile country more eligible and valuable, is, that it appears, both from its situation and from the experience the French have had of it, to be far the most healthful, says Du Pratz, of any in all these southern parts of NORTH AMERICA; a thing of the last consequence in settling colonies, especially in those southern parts of America. All the sea-coasts of our colonies, to the southward of Chesapeake bay, or even of New York, are low and flat, marshy and swampy, and very unhealthful on that account: and those on and about the bay of Mexico, and in Florida, are very hot; but those lands on the Mississippi are, on the contrary, high, dry, hilly, no great distance from the river, besides the ridges of the Apalachean mountains, that lie to the northward of them; which must greatly refresh and cool the air over all the country, especially in comparison of what it is on the low and flat, sandy and parched, sea-coasts of our old colonies. These high lands begin immediately above the Delta, or drowned lands, at the mouth of the Mississippi; above which the banks of that river are from 100 to 200 feet high, without any marshes about them; and continue such for 900 miles to the river OHIO, especially on the east side of the river. See DU PRATZ, vol. i. chap. iv. p. 262.

Such a situation on rich fertile lands in that climate, and on a navigable river, must appear to be of the utmost consequence. It is only from the rich lands on river-sides (which are, indeed, the only lands that can generally be called rich in all countries, and especially in NORTH AMERICA) that GREAT-BRITAIN can reap any thing of value from all the colonies she has in that part of the world. How ought we then to esteem such rich and healthful lands on the Mississippi? As much surely as some would depreciate them.

It may be observed, that all the countries in AMERICA, are only populous in the inland parts, and generally at a distance from navigation; as the sea-coasts both of North and South America are generally low, damp, and excessively hot; at least all the southern parts, from which we can expect any considerable returns. Instances of this may be seen in the adjacent provinces of Mexico, New Mexico, Terra Firma, Peru, Quito, &c. and far more in our southern colonies, which never became populous, till the people removed to the inland parts, at a distance from the sea. This we are in a manner prevented to do in our ancient colonies, by the mountains which surround them, and confine our people to the coast; whereas on the MISSISSIPPI the whole continent is open to them, and they have, besides, this healthy situation on the lower parts of that river, at a small distance from the sea.

Those things being duly considered, it will appear, that they who are possessed of the navigation of the MISSISSIPPI, and have a competent maritime power to defend that liberty, will, in time, command that whole continent.

The low and drowned lands, indeed, about the mouth of the MISSISSIPPI must, no doubt, be more or less unhealthful; but they are far from being so pernicious as many would represent them. The waters there are fresh, we know by long experience in America, are much less prejudicial to health than the offensive fetid marshes, that are to be found every where else on the salt waters.

The UPPER LOUISIANA we call that part of the continent, which lies to the northward of the mountains above-mentioned, in latitude 35°. This country is in many places hilly and mountainous, for which reason we cannot expect it to be so fertile as the plains below, which will breed and maintain the most people considerably.

One of the most important places in North America, is at the FORKS of the MISSISSIPPI, where the OHIO falls into that river; which, like another ocean, is the general receptacle of all the rivers that water the interior parts of that vast continent. Here those large and navigable rivers the OHIO, river of the CHEROKEES, WEBACHE, ILLINOIS, MISSOURI, and MISSISSIPPI, besides many others, which spread over that whole continent, from the APALACHEAN mountains, even to the mountains of NEW MEXICO, upwards of 1000 miles, both north, south, east, and west, all meet together at this spot; and that in the best climate, and one of the most fruitful countries, of any in all that part of the world, in the latitude 37°, the latitude of the capes of Virginia, and of Santa Fe, the capital of New Mexico. By that means there is a convenient navigation to this place from our present settlements to NEW MEXICO, and from all the inland parts of NORTH AMERICA, farther than we are acquainted with: and all the natives of that continent, those old friends of the FRENCH, have by that means a free access to this place; nigh to which the French formed a settlement, to secure their interest on the frontiers of all our southern colonies: in short, this place is the CENTRE OF THAT PRODIGIOUS CONTINENT, and of all the Indian nations on it, and seems to be intended by nature to COMMAND THEM BOTH; for which reason it ought not longer to be neglected by BRITAIN. And if the settlements at this place had been made, as they were proposed, about twenty years ago, they might have prevented or frustrated the late attempts to wrest that

country, and the territories of the OHIO, out of the hands of the ENGLISH; and they may do the same again.

For these reasons, the first settlements we make beyond the mountains we are now possessed of, should be upon the MISSISSIPPI, convenient to the navigation of that river; and in time, those new settlements may come to join to our present plantations; and we may by that means reap the benefit of all those inland parts of NORTH AMERICA, by means of the navigation of the MISSISSIPPI, which will be secured by the port at the FORKS. If that is not done, we cannot see how any of those INLAND PARTS of AMERICA, and the TERRITORIES of the OHIO, which were the great objects of the last war, can ever be of any lasting use to Britain, as the inhabitants of all those countries can otherwise have very little correspondence with it.

This famous river, the MISSISSIPPI, is navigable upwards of 2000 miles, to the fall of St. Anthony, in latitude 45°, the only fall we know in it, which is 16 degrees of latitude above its mouth; and even above that fall, Du Pratz tells us, there is thirty fathom of water in the river, with a proportionable breadth. About 1000 miles from its mouth, it receives the river OHIO, which is navigable 1000 miles farther, some say 1500, nigh to its source, not far from LAKE ONTARIO in NEW YORK; in all which space there is but one fall or rapid in the OHIO; and that navigable both up and down, at least in canoes. The other large branches of the OHIO, the river of the CHEROKEES and WEBACHE, afford a like navigation from LAKE ERIE in the north, to the CHEROKEES in the south, and from thence to the bay of MEXICO by the MISSISSIPPI; not to mention the great river MISSOURI, which runs to the north-west parts of NEW MEXICO, much farther than we have any good accounts of that continent.

From hence it evidently appears, that the MISSISSIPPI affords the most extensive navigation of any river we know; so that it may be justly compared to an INLAND SEA, which spreads over nine tenths of all the continent of NORTH AMERICA; all which the FRENCH pretended to lay claim to, for no other reason, but because they were possessed of a paucity settlement at the mouth of this river.

If those things are considered, the real importance of the navigation of the MISSISSIPPI, and of a port at the mouth of it, will abundantly appear. And this is the only navigation for all the INTERIOR PARTS of NORTH AMERICA, which are as large as a great part of Europe; nor could any of those interior parts of North America be of any service to Britain, with the navigation of the MISSISSIPPI, and the settlements upon it. It is not without reason then, that we say, whoever are possessed of this river, and are masters of a competent maritime power to maintain that navigation, and of the vast tracts of fertile lands upon it, must in time command that continent, and the trade of it, as well as all the natives in it, by the supplies which this navigation will enable them to furnish those people, as well as to awe them upon emergencies.—By those means, if the French, or any other maritime power, had been left in possession of the MISSISSIPPI, while we neglected it, they must have commanded all that continent beyond the APALACHEAN mountains, and had it in their power to have disturbed our settlements much more than they ever did, or were able to do; the very thing the French engaged in the last war to accomplish, and we to prevent.

The MISSISSIPPI, indeed, is rapid for 1200 miles, as far as to the MISSOURI, which makes it difficult to go up the river by water. For that reason, the French have been used to quit the Mississippi at the river ST. FRANCIS, from which they have a nigher way to the FORKS of the Mississippi by land. But however difficult it may be to ascend the river, it is, notwithstanding, often done; and its rapidity facilitates a descent upon it, and a ready conveyance for those gross commodities, which are the chief staple of North America, from the most remote places of the continent: and as for lighter European goods, they are more easily carried by land, as our Indian traders do, over great part of the continent, on their horses, of which this country abounds with great plenty.

The worst part of the navigation, as well as of the country, is reckoned to be at the mouth of the river; which, however, Du Pratz tells us, is from 17 to 18 feet deep, and will admit of ships of 500 tons, the largest generally used in the plantation trade. And even this navigation might be easily mended, not only by clearing the river of a narrow bar in the passes, which Charlevoix, and others, think might be easily done; but likewise by means of a bay, described by Mr. Coxe, from the actual survey of his people, lying to the westward of the south pass of the river; which, he says, has from 25 to 26 fathom water in it, close to the shore, and not above a mile from the Mississippi, above all the shoals and difficult passes in it, and where the river has 100 feet of water. By cutting through that ONE MILE then, it would appear, that a PORT might be made there for ships of any burden; the importance of which is evident, from its commanding all the INLAND PARTS of NORTH AMERICA on one side, and the pass from MEXICO on the other.

Our ancient possessions in North America, between the sea and mountains, appear from many surveys, as well as from all the maps and other accounts we have of them, to be, at a medium, about three degrees of longitude, or 140 miles broad, in a strait line: and they extend from GEORGIA, in latitude 32°, to the BAY OF FUNDY, in latitude 45°, (which is much farther, both north and south, than the lands appear to be of any great value) which makes 13 degrees difference of latitude, or 780 miles: this length, multiplied by the breadth 140, makes 109,200 square miles. This is not above as much land as is contained in Britain and Ireland; which, by Templeman's survey, make 105,634 square miles. Instead of being as large as a great part of Europe, as we are commonly told, all the lands we possess in North America, between the sea and mountains, do not amount to much more than these two islands. This appears farther, from the particular surveys of each of our colonies, as well as from this general estimate of the whole.

Of the extremity of these lands, both north and south, which we possess, are very poor and barren, and produce little or nothing, at least for Britain. It is only in our middle plantations, Virginia, Maryland, and Carolina, chiefly, where the lands produce any staple commodities for this kingdom. In short, it is only the more rich and fertile lands on and about Chesapeake bay, with the swamps in the Carolina's, &c. like the lands on the Mississippi, that turn to any great account to this nation, in all NORTH AMERICA.

This makes the quantity of lands, that produce any staple commodity for Britain in North America, incredibly small, and vastly less than what is commonly imagined. It is reckoned, that there are more such lands in Virginia, than in all the rest of our colonies; and yet it appeared from the public records, about 26 years ago, that there was not more land patented in that colony, which is the oldest of any in all North America, than is in the county of Yorkshire in England, to wit, 4684 square miles; although the country was then settled to the mountains.

If we examine all our other colonies, there will appear to be as great a scarcity and want of good lands in them; at least to answer the great end of colonies, the making of staple commodities for Britain, and exportation. In a word, our colonies are already settled to the mountains, and have no lands, either to extend their settlements, as they increase and multiply, to keep up their plantations of staple commodities, or to enlarge the British dominions, by the number of foreigners that remove to them, till they pass those mountains and settle on the MISSISSIPPI.

This scarcity of land in our colonies, proceeds from the mountains with which they are surrounded, and by which they are confined to this narrow tract, and a low vale along the sea-side. The breadth of the continent, from the Atlantic ocean to the Mississippi, appears to be above 600 miles (of 60 to a degree) of which there is about 140 at a medium, or 150 at most, that lie between the sea and mountains; and there is such another and rather more fertile tract of level and improveable lands, about the same breadth, between the western parts of those mountains and the Mississippi: so that the mountainous country, which lies between these two, is equal to them both, and makes one half of all the lands between the MISSISSIPPI and ATLANTIC ocean; if we except a small tract of a level champaign country upon the heads of the OHIO, which is possessed by the SIX NATIONS and their dependants. These mountainous and barren deserts, which lie immediately beyond our present settlements, are not only unfit for culture themselves, and so inconvenient to navigation, whether to the ocean or to the Mississippi, that little or no use can be made of them; but they likewise preclude us from any access to those more fertile lands that lie beyond them, which would otherwise have been occupied long ago, but never can be settled, so at least as to turn to any account to BRITAIN, without the navigation of the MISSISSIPPI; WHICH IS, AS IT WERE, THE OCEAN OF ALL THE INLAND PARTS OF NORTH AMERICA, BEYOND THE APALACHEAN MOUNTAINS, WITHOUT WHICH THOSE INLAND PARTS OF THAT CONTINENT CAN NEVER TURN TO ANY ACCOUNT TO THIS NATION.

It is our situation in NORTH AMERICA, that renders all that continent beyond our present settlements, of little or no use to these kingdoms, and makes the possession of the MISSISSIPPI absolutely necessary to reap the benefit of it.

How necessary such settlements on the MISSISSIPPI may be, will farther appear from what we possess on this side of it. The lands in North America are, in the general, very poor and barren; and if any of them are more fertile, the soil is light and shallow, and soon worn out with culture. It is only the virgin fertility of fresh lands, such as those on the MISSISSIPPI, that can render this part of the world permanently advantageous to their mother country. Such lands in our colonies, that have hitherto produced their staple commodities, are now pretty well exhausted and worn out; and when their lands are worn out, neither the value of their commodities, nor the circumstances of the planters,

will admit of manuring them, at least to any great advantage to this nation.

The staple commodities of North America are so gross and bulky, and of so small value, that it generally takes one half of them to pay the freight, and other charges in sending them to England; so that unless our planters have some advantage in making them, such as cheap, rich, and fresh lands, they never can make any; their returns to England are then neglected, and the trade is gained by others who have these advantages, such as those who may be possessed of the Mississippi, or by the Germans, Russians, Turks, &c. who have plenty of lands, and labour cheap: by which means they make more of our staple of North America, TOBACCO, than we do ourselves; while we cannot make their staple of HEMP, FLAX, IRON, POT-ASH, &c. By that means our people are obliged to interfere with their mother-country, for want of the use of those lands, of which there is such plenty in North America, to produce these commodities that are so much wanted from thence.

The consequences of this may be much more prejudicial to this nation, than is commonly apprehended. This trade of North America, whatever may be the income of it, consists in those gross and bulky commodities, that are the chief and principal sources of navigation; which maintain whole countries to make them, whole fleets to transport them, and numbers of people to manufacture them at home; on which account, this trade is more profitable to a nation, than the mines of Mexico and Peru. Though our fishery and sugar trades are of great advantage to us, yet the tobacco trade alone employs more seamen in Britain, than either the fishery or the sugar trade*; and brings in as much money to the nation, as most of the other products of all America at present.

* There were 4000 seamen employed in the tobacco trade in the year 1733, when that trade was under consideration of the legislature; and we may at least reckon them now 4500.

By the same accounts taken by the custom-house officers, it appeared, that the number of British ships employed in all America, including the fishery, was 1400, with 17,000 seamen; besides between 9 and 10,000 seamen belonging to North America, who are all ready to enter into the service of Britain, on any emergency or encouragement. Of these there were but 4000 seamen employed in the fishery from Britain; and about as many, or 3600, in the sugar trade. In short, the trade of North America is the capital nursery for British seamen, and must be rendered more and more so, as the great staples of hemp, flax, iron, pot-ash, silk, wine, indico, timber, pitch and tar, and every species of naval stores, &c. shall increase.

But those commodities that afford these sources of navigation, however valuable they may prove to the public, and this kingdom in particular, are far from being so to individuals: they are cheap, and of small value, either to make or trade in; and for that reason they are neglected by private people, unless the public takes care to give them all due encouragement, and to set them about those employments; for which purpose nothing can be more absolutely necessary, than the provision of good and proper lands, such as those on the Mississippi; without which, our desirable improvements in this part cannot be expected.

The many advantages of such lands that produce a staple for this nation in North America, are with difficulty duly represented. The whole interest of the nation in those colonies depends upon them, if not the colonies themselves. Such lands alone enable the colonies to take their manufactures and other necessities from Great-Britain, to the mutual advantage of both. How necessary that may be, will appear from the state of those colonies in North America, which do not make one with another, as much as is sufficient to supply them only with the necessary article of cloathing; not to mention the numerous other things they stand in need of, and take from their mother-country; and how they are enabled to pay, is some difficulty to reconcile. Our colonies in North America, have found it extremely difficult to make equivalent returns for what they take from us; and they would find it scarce possible to subsist much longer, if at all, in a state of dependance for all their manufactures, and other necessities, unless they are provided with other lands that may enable them to purchase them; and where they will find any such lands, but upon the Mississippi, is more than we can tell.

When their lands are worn out, are poor and barren, or in an improper climate or situation, so that they will produce nothing to send to Britain, such lands can only be converted into corn and pasture grounds; and the people in our colonies are thereby necessarily obliged, for a bare subsistence, to interfere with Britain, not only in manufactures, but the produce of their lands.

By this we may perceive the absurdity of the popular outcry, that we have already LAND ENOUGH, and more than we can make use of in NORTH AMERICA. They who may be of that opinion should shew us, where that land is to be found, and what it will produce, that may turn to any account to

to the nation. Those people derive their opinion from what they see in Europe, where the quantity of land that we possess in NORTH AMERICA will, no doubt, maintain a greater number of people than we have there. But they should consider, that those people in Europe are not maintained by the planting of a bare raw commodity, with such immense charges upon it, but by farming, manufactures, trade, and commerce; which they will soon reduce our colonies to, who would confine them to their present settlements, between the sea-coast and the mountains that surround them.—For more matter, see our article MISSISSIPPI, our REMARKS thereon since the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

LUBECKERS.

As of old time the common councils of the free and imperial city of Lubeck, and several other towns upon the North and East Seas, have been in union with divers towns of the United Provinces, for defence of the liberty of trade, and of the rights belonging thereunto: and as now the States-General of the United Provinces, together with the burgo-masters and common council of Lubeck, have found it convenient, in the present conjuncture, to treat about renewing the aforesaid union and amity, by their respective deputies, who, after several conferences, and reports made, agreed upon the articles following:

I. That this union shall not be offensive, but only for preserving the freedom of commerce, &c. that the respective citizens and subjects of the union may enjoy the same without molestation, and mutually protect each other; so that the manifold difficulties detrimental to their common trade may be removed.

II. The union shall not, however, prejudice the friendship of the emperor, or holy empire, or of France and Great-Britain. And also the town of Lubeck is willing to remain in obedience to the emperor; and none of the leagues, rights, &c. they have together, shall be changed by these presents, but remain in full power, salvo præsentis fœdere.

III. Those of the union shall faithfully observe the articles, and confirm them by oath.

IV. The States-General shall manage this union to the best advantage of the common cause; but so as the common council of Lubeck may have a vote in all the deliberations; for which purpose, a person from that town shall always reside at the Hague, or such other place as the states may meet at. And the States-General may depute some person to reside at Lubeck: provided always, that, if any other of the Hanse-Towns enter into the union, it may be determined, whether it may not be fit the said deputy should reside elsewhere.

V. Those of the union shall contribute to the charges to furnish ships, foot and horse, in such manner as shall be necessary.

VI. And if those who interrupt commerce and navigation, on being amicably required to desist, refuse, those of the union shall defend themselves vigorously against them.

VII. And, if war should follow, those of the union shall recall their subjects from the service of the adverse party, on pain of death and confiscation of estates. Nor shall it be allowable to procure or send to the adverse party money, troops, ships, &c. on pain of corporal punishment.

VIII. And if the adverse party should arrest the subjects persons, ships, &c. of those of the union, or surprize them at sea, orders shall be given to make reprisals, and mutually to assist each other on that occasion.

IX. The ships of those of the union may freely enter each other's harbours, to victual or refit, using no violence, and thankfully paying for what they take.

X. The subjects of the union shall, in all their countries, enjoy the privileges of a citizen, and even the right of succession, without distinction of religion, as that is practised in the holy empire, so they submit to the laws of the place.

XI. None of those of the union shall enter into any treaty, without consent of the others, nor do any thing prejudicial to the others, but mutually endeavour to maintain each other in possession of their liberties and privileges.

XII. So that no truce nor peace shall be made with the enemy, but with common and reciprocal deliberation and consent of all the members.

XIII. This league shall remain in force fifty years; which term, with common consent, may be prolonged; but if, during the same, or when expired, any of the union receive damage by reason of it, they shall mutually assist each other against all persons whatsoever.

XIV. If any potentate, country, or city, especially any of the other Hanse-Towns, desire to enter into this union, they shall be received on reasonable conditions. See HANSE-TOWNS.

In witness whereof, two copies of these presents have been made, and confirmed by oath, and sealed with the seals of the States-General, and town of Lubeck, and signed by their respective clerk and syndic, each party retaining one copy. Done in May 1613, and underwritten,

By order of the States-General,

Signed AERSEN.

And by order of the honourable the common council of the town of Lubeck,

Signed MARTIN NORDAMUS,

Syndic of the Republic of Lubeck.

Duchy of LUXEMBURG, in the Austrian Netherlands.

This province is bounded on the north by the bishopric of Liege, a small part of Limburg, and the territory of Strablo; on the east by the country of Eyffel, and the electorate of Treves; on the south by Lorrain, or rather now by French Luxemburg; and on the west it extends to the river Maes.

The climate here is mild and temperate; but the soil is not equally fruitful every where; but it abounds with game, as stags, deers, hares, &c. There are iron mines here, which furnish almost all Germany with that metal.

Chief rivers are the Moselle, Owitz, Sour, and Semoy.

LUXEMBURG is the capital of this province.

ARLON, situate near the spring-head of the river Semoy, was formerly a considerable place, very well peopled; but having suffered very much by the wars, and been dismantled, it is now only a borough.

BASTOGNE, near the forest of Ardenne, is so well peopled, has such a good trade, and is so well built, that the people of the country call it Paris in Ardenne; though it is considerably decayed from what it once was.

VIANDEN has a considerable trade in woollen cloths, with which they furnish the whole province. There are also here a great many tanners. The adjacent hills produce some wine, pretty much like the Moselle wine.

SAINT VIST has a good trade in cattle, and is the staple town of the whole province, it lying in the great road to Liege, Cologne, Treves, and other cities in Germany.

GRAVE-MACHEREN is a small, but a pretty town, the inhabitants of which have a good trade of Moselle wine, which grows plentifully on the neighbouring hills.

LYONNOIS, in France. This government, or province, is bounded on the north by that part of Burgundy called Maconnois; on the east by the Saone and the Rhône, which part it from Bresse and Dauphiné; on the south by Vivarais and Velay; and, on the west, by the mountains of Auvergne.

This province is pretty fruitful in corn, wine, and fruit; it produces particularly excellent chestnuts.

It's chief rivers are the Rhône, Saone, and Loire, besides several others of less note.

The trade carried on in this government is pretty considerable, and consists chiefly in chestnuts, paper, fine toys, guns, muskets, pistols, and all sorts of iron-works.

The capital city is LYONS, on the conflux of the Saone and the Rhône, and one of the finest and most considerable cities in Europe, for it's situation, extent, and riches, it carrying on a most flourishing trade.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE continued.

THE BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS, WITH RELATION TO THE
FOLLOWING PARTICULARS, viz.

SOME LAWS CONCERNING LINENS. See article LINENS.

LINENS, chekered, striped, printed, painted, stained, or dyed, imported, after payment of the duties, are to be marked or stamped with a seal or mark, to denote the same. 10 Ann. c. 19. §. 67. and 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 14, 16.

———— Stamps or seals to be provided by the commissioners of the customs, which they may alter as occasion requires.

———— Counterfeiting the stamps, felony.

———— People selling linen knowingly with such counterfeit stamps, their aiders, abettors, and assistants, are to forfeit 100l. and to stand in the pillory for two hours, 10 Ann. c. 19. §. 94. and 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 15.

———— If designed to be again exported; before shipping, notice must be given to the proper officer appointed by the commissioners of the customs, when and where they are to be packed up, who is to take off the seals, and return an account of the kinds and quantities to the officer appointed to receive the same. 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 17.

LINENS IRISH, imported into this kingdom, may afterwards be exported to the British plantations in America, DUTY FREE. 3 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 2.

———— In SCOTLAND, exposed to sale, or designed to be exported, not marked with the stamp of a royal burgh, &c. penalty 5 s. per piece. 10 Ann. c. 12. §. 3.

———— Counterfeiting such stamp, penalty 50l. or a year's imprisonment, if the offender prove insolvent. 10 Ann. c. 21. §. 4.

———— Printed, stained, painted or dyed, &c. in Great-Britain, exported, the DRAWBACK and REGULATIONS of exportation. See the END OF LETTER D.

———— British and Irish, the bounty and regulations of exportation. See Ditto.

WITH RESPECT TO LOGWOOD.

LOGWOOD, alias blockwood, may be imported by any persons, and freely used in dyeing. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 26. See the latter end of P. containing an abstract of the laws relative to the PLANTATIONS.

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MACE. In the description of the nutmeg, we have occasionally mentioned this spice, which is the second coat or covering of the kernel of that fruit. It is a thin and flat membranaceous substance, of an oleaginous nature, and of a yellowish colour. We meet with it in flakes of an inch or more in length, which are divided into a multitude of irregular ramifications; it is of an extremely smooth surface, and of a tolerable close texture, yet friable, and very easily cut to pieces. It is of an extremely fragrant, aromatic, and agreeable smell, and of a pleasant, but acrid and oleaginous taste. It is to be chosen new, not dry, and of a fragrant smell, tough, oleaginous, and of a good yellow. The people who collect the nutmeg fruit, cut it open and throw away the pulpy substance or external coat; they then see the mace covering the nutmeg, wrapping itself every way round it's outer woody shell. The mace is at this time of a red colour; they take it carefully off from the nutmeg, and lay it in the sun for the whole day. In this time, it's colour, from a strong blood-red, becomes dusky; it is after this carried to another place where the sun has less power, and there exposed again to it's rays the few hours they reach thither.

By this means it dries gently, and remains tough, and retains it's fragrant and colour in a great degree; if it were dried more hastily, it would be whitish, brittle, and would lose much of it's smell. After this it is slightly sprinkled over with sea-water, and then put up into bales, in which it is pressed down firm and close, by way of preserving it's fragrance and consistence.

There is great caution to be had to the state in which it is packed up, for, if it be too dry, it will be broke and lose much of it's fragrance; and, on the other hand, if too moist, it will be subject to breed worms and other insects.

Mace abounds with the same sort of oil that is found in the nutmeg; but it is thinner in the mace, and is in a greater quantity. If the oil be separated by distillation, what comes first over of it is thin and limpid like water, and is of the most fragrant smell; what follows this is yellowish and somewhat thicker; and, finally, a third kind comes over if the fire be made more violent, which is reddish; and all three of these are so subtle and volatile, that, if they are not kept in vessels very closely stopped, they will in great part evaporate into the air, all their finer parts flying off. An oil may also be drawn from mace in the same manner as from the nutmeg, by expression; it is afforded in a larger quantity this way than from the nutmeg, and is of a somewhat softer consistence.

Mace is carminative, stomachic, and astringent; it possesses all the virtues of the nutmeg, but has it's astringency in a smaller degree. It affects the head in the same manner as the nutmeg, if taken in a large dose, and people have become delirious for some hours, after an immoderate use of it. The oils of mace and nutmeg, whether prepared by distillation or by expression, are so much of the same nature, that they may be indiscriminately used for one another on all occasions. They give ease in cholics, and often in nephritic cases, taken internally from one drop to five or six of the distilled oil, or an equal quantity of the expressed; and, externally, they are of use to rub paralytic limbs; they also assist digestion, and will often stop vomitings and hiccoughs, only by being rubbed on the regions of the stomach. The nurses have a custom of applying oil of mace by expression to children's navels to ease their gripes, and that often with success; and we are assured by authors of credit, that, rubbed on the temples, it promotes sleep. The oils by distillation are very properly added to the stronger cathartics in form of pills, and prove excellent correctives.

MACEDONIA; it's boundaries are Servia and Bulgaria on the north, Bulgaria and the Archipelago on the east, Levidia on the south, and Albania on the west. It is rich in divers mines of gold, abounds with corn, pasture, cattle, venison, and in some parts it produces wine and oil. Here are many rivers and mountains, but none very remarkable, except mount Athos.

The Turks divide it into three parts, viz. JAMBOLI, which extends, from the gulph of Salonichi on the south, to the

borders of Romania on the north-east and north, having Macedonia Proper on the west, and the Archipelago on the east.

MACEDONIA PROPER, has Jamboli on the east, Comenolitari on the south, Albania on the west, and Bulgaria on the north.

COMENOLITARI, is the most western and southern part of Macedonia.

SOLONICHI, or **S**ALONICA, the metropolis of all Macedonia, and the seat of a Turkish præfect, stands at the bottom of a gulph, to which it gives it's name. It is 150 miles distant from Sofia in Bulgaria towards the south, 260 from Constantinople to the west, 160 from the isthmus of Corinth to the north-west, and 140 from the nearest coast of the Adriatic Sea to the east. In the neighbourhood of it, towards the west, runs the river Vardar, which abounds with fish, and the banks of which are adorned with beautiful trees.

MACHINE, in general, signifies any thing that serves to augment, or to regulate moving powers: or it may be defined any body destined to produce motion, so as to save either time or force.

Machines are divided into simple and compound.

Simple machines, are those otherwise called mechanical powers. See **M**ECHANICAL POWERS.

The simple machines are the balance, lever, pulley, wheel, wedge, and screw; the compound are constituted of several simple ones combined together. The latter are innumerable, as well in their form as their application.

R E M A R K S.

The lower branches of manufacture, wherein the price is paid chiefly to labour, contribute most to the increase of labouring hands. The price of art rises above mere labour, in proportion as genius is a scarcer commodity than strength. Commercial states regard an increase of riches as synonymous to an increase of power, though it be only a mark or sign of it, and that not infallible. The following instance may serve to set the worth of ingenuity above bodily strength in a full light, as well as to shew their different effects on numbers and real power.

In Russia, they had no other way of making planks, 'till near the end of the last century, but by hewing or chipping away a whole tree to the necessary thickness; notwithstanding which, they could afford to sell them cheaper than their neighbours. Two Russians might, possibly, with hard labour, finish a plank in a day in this inartificial way, in the same time, two common sawyers could, with ease, cut out 20 good planks.—Without troubling ourselves with the loss of timber, if both are sold at a neighbouring port for the same money, it is plain the Russian must work for $\frac{1}{20}$ part of the sawyer's wages: if a sawyer in Sweden can get ten pence a day, the Russian must be paid with one halfpenny. It is said their renowned Czar, when in London, gave a hundred guineas for the picture of a favourite lady, finished probably in the space of a day. This sum is more than one of his subjects would earn, in the above-mentioned way of hewing planks, by the labour of sixty-nine years and fifteen days, or as much as fifty thousand four hundred of them would gain in one day. Should the returns of two nations be equal, whilst one traded in paintings alone, and the other in planks, hewed in this method, it is evident there must be fifty thousand four hundred subjects in the latter, for every single one in the former.

An increase of wealth may attend a decrease of numbers and real strength, for which reason the balance of money is less to be regarded. The exports of our nation may, at present, exceed a million in the lower branches of bays, ferges, druggets, and flannels, and this may employ a million of hands. In a course of years we will suppose this trade to be changed for that of wrought works, tapestry, painting, and statuary, in which our exports might amount to two millions; for which a thousand hands, full employed, would be more than sufficient.

Here we see it possible that our wealth may be annually increased a million, whilst our real strength is decreased in the proportion

proportion of a thousand to one. There is nothing incompatible in the arts of ingenuity and those of labour, and all the plainer trades may be retained, notwithstanding the higher arts are introduced, in which case we should be both a richer and greater people.

The above instances may bear a farther application; the carpenter, by the contrivance of the long saw, performs as much in a day, as twenty Russians with the axe; but, beyond this, there are in Sweden a kind of mills turned by water, and so contrived, as to take in large trees on the upper side the stream, and deliver them out on the lower, sawed into planks, in a few minutes. One of these mills will, at least, make 500 planks, whilst the poor Russian could hew out a single one, when the way of hewing was practised; so that it performs the business of 1000 Russians, or 50 common sawyers, in a day, with the attendance of a single person.

If these two nations yearly brought to market an equal quantity of planks at the same price, they who used the method most artificial, would be least numerous; but, as there would be a greater plenty of money in proportion to inhabitants here, they would to appearance be richer, in the same proportion as they were fewer. Apparent plenty of money is a strong attractive. The conveniences of life are generally plentiful, where money appears so. Perhaps the smaller nation may make up its numbers equal to the other, by these temptations to invite strangers. Ingenuity in one instance is never single, the same genius will strike out NEW TRADES, which invents compendious methods of performing the old ones, and new employments call for new hands.

The more ingenious nation will likewise stand the best chance to gain the whole market; for, besides that MACHINES generally do the work truer and better than the hand, the labour saved by them is so very great, that, if the materials are equally plentiful, they who use the machine must undersell the others in a vast disproportion. For, as in this instance, both are supposed to work only to live, provisions can be in no part of the world dearer than another, in the proportion of 500 to 1. A larger quantity, wrought in a more compendious manner, may call for as many hands, as a less quantity in a way more laborious. All these considerations tend to make up their numbers, which will be richer, more improved, and more ingenious, either to defend or acquire; for ingenuity is generally an overmatch for strength.

On the other hand it may be argued, that here, as in the mechanics, what we gain in expedition we lose in strength: it can never be that the foreign market, by the use of the MACHINE, or all the consequences of ingenuity, can be so much increased as the home one is lessened, or in the proportion of 500 to 1. Numbers of men are real power: an equal number of labourers are generally stronger than the same number of mechanics. A good writer of the present age explodes the use of machines, even of water-mills for grinding corn, *L'Esp. des Loix*, vol. ii. p. 116, 117. The best constituted states have restrained them by laws; by what appears from authors, the Romans used chiefly hand-mills, and, if we may judge from the silence of Aristotle, Pliny, and Seneca, machines were very few and simple, either amongst the Greeks or Romans. These arguments a little vindicate the absurd policy of the old duke of Muscovy, who, when a person offered him a project for towing up a barge with eighteen hands, which then employed an hundred and ten, ordered him immediately into banishment.

In such a variety of reasons, it is not easy to determine, to what degree the use of machines in general should be admitted. States without commerce regard chiefly the increase of numbers and their home markets; and commercial states are too apt to consider wealth alone, and foreign markets. Without prejudice to either, machines or engines may be allowed in the following cases.

1. When they do such business as cannot be performed by hand at all. Of this kind are pumps, fire-engines, water-engines, looms, wine and oil-presses, hand-mills for grain, and perhaps horse-mills.

2. Where the commodities wrought by them are such as would not be used at all, except they were done by the machine, either being not cheap enough or not good enough for consumption, when prepared by hand. Under this head are the mills for making paper, those for forging, drawing, flitting, iron, copper, fulling of cloth and leather, and making gunpowder.

A people without commerce may safely refuse to admit stocking-looms, sawing-mills, throwing-engines, weaving or spinning-engines, mills for striking files, cutting watch-wheels, making nails, and all the variety of inventions produced by a rivalry amongst nations contending for commerce; and private men for orders.

Commercial states must have their eyes on their neighbours, and, if they design to engross foreign markets, must provide for the cheapness of labour at home; goods must be made cheap to render them of general use abroad and at home. Engines for shortening business ought to be rejected, or not admitted in commercial states; when the commodity is not at all sold abroad, when it affects not the price of labour,

when the machines would lessen our home markets, more than increase our foreign ones. See the article LABOUR.

MADDER, is one of the long and small roots, distinguishable from all the others by its remarkable red colour and firm texture. It is brought to us in pieces of four, five, or more inches in length, but seldom in the thickest part exceeding the bigness of a goose quill. Its surface is wrinkled, with a number of furrows running principally in a longitudinal direction; it is light, though of a firm texture, and, for a root of that small size, not easily cut. Its colour is a strong but somewhat dusky red, both on the outside and within, but somewhat brightest where fresh cut. It has very little smell, but it is of a very remarkable taste, and distinguishes plainly in it a mixture of sweet and bitter, and a very manifest astringency with this.

Madder is to be chosen in long and thick roots found throughout, hard to be broken in any part, and, when cut, of a good colour. It is not subject to adulterations, so that, if it be found and well dried, it is always good, unless it have been kept too long, and this is easily discovered by its wanting taste. Madder is cultivated in vast quantities in several parts of Holland; the Dutch supply all Europe with it, and make a vast advantage of the trade in it; it is very wonderful, that no other nation has attempted the cultivating it; there is no doubt but it would succeed very well in France, Germany, or with us, and much ground might be employed this way, to ten times the advantage that it is at present. What the Dutch send over for medicinal use is in the root, which is only dried and sent over without any preparation; the greatest quantity, however, is used by the dyers: this they usually send in coarse powder, ground in mills; they make two kinds of this ground madder, the one is the whole root ground; just as taken out of the earth and dried; the other is cleaned from the cortical part, which is of a darker colour than the rest, and then ground to powder. This is distinguished from the other, by its being of a paler and more agreeable colour.

The plant which produces the rubia root is of the number of the tetandria monogynia of Linnæus, and one of the herbæ stellatæ of Mr. Ray. It grows to two feet high; its stalks are square and rough; its leaves are oblong and narrow, and stand four at a joint in manner of a star. Its flowers grow in clusters at the upper part of the stalks, and are very small, and of a pale yellowish-green colour; these are followed by a fruit consisting of two seeds. It has been described by all the botanical writers under the name of rubia fativa, and rubia tinctorum.

The root is an attenuant, and has the credit of being a vulnerary of the first rank. It is at present given with success in chronic cases, where there are obstructions of the viscera. It promotes the menses and urine, and is good in jaundices, dropsies, and obstructions of the spleen. Its dose is from five grains to fifteen, but it is seldom given singly. It frequently makes an ingredient in infusions and decoctions, among other medicines of the same intention, and it gives these an elegant colour.

It is also used in great quantities by the dyers, for red and other colours.

MALT, is barley prepared, to fit it for making a potable liquor called beer or ale.

OBSERVATIONS on the manner of MALTING.

This subject is of large extent, and, if duly prosecuted, might tend to the enrichment of the present arts, or the discovery of new ones. For, on regulating the growth, and curing of vegetable productions, depends the perfection of corn, wines, malt, bread, sugar, tobacco, spice, drugs, simples, dyeing stuffs, and the like. And new discoveries, either in vegetation, or curation of vegetables, might easily introduce new trades; as has been the case in sugar, tobacco, wines, spirits, &c.

By experiments in vegetation, we here propose to shew the methods of regulating or conducting this natural power for the service of arts, by directing it to answer particular ends. Thus, by stopping short towards the beginning of vegetation in barley, we procure malt; and, by permitting the grapes to hang 'till they grow not only ripe, but almost dry, upon the vine, we procure rich sweet wines. And thus we may stop vegetation at any period, or continue it longer than ordinary, according as the occasions of different arts require. By experiments in curation of vegetables, we have shewn the methods of collecting, preparing, and securing vegetable commodities, so as that they may long remain sound, perfect, and fit for service. And thus our present design will consist of two parts: the one relating to the ways of growing vegetables, according to the uses for which they are intended; and the other to the gathering and preserving them, so as to have them constantly ready at hand, when they come to be required in use.

The first experiment, therefore, is calculated to shew the method of stopping the natural process of vegetation in the seed, so as to prepare grain, pulse, nuts, malt, and roots, for the making of beer, vinegar, and spirits. The second

is designed to shew the method of curing both fermented and unfermented vegetable juices, so as to make them keep sound and good for several years. The third experiment tends to shew the method of curing vegetable juices by decoction, or inspissation, for the service of brewing and distilling.

A parcel of garden-beans being plucked up, after they had been suffered to lie in the ground about six weeks in the winter season, each bean was found beginning to split, or separate, into it's two lobes; whilst the radicle was shot out some inches downwards, and had begun to take root in the ground; the plume also, which becomes the stalk of the bean, being risen to the height of two inches. In this state a few, being dried over a clear fire, were found turned to a kind of bean-malt, that tasted sweetish, but mealy betwixt the teeth, and dissolved freely in warm water, so as to afford a wort fit for fermenting, with yeast, into a kind of beer or ale.

This experiment instructs us in the ordinary process of malting, which, in the case of barley, is conformable hereto; and, in the case of malting Indian corn, is the process itself.

In making malt from barley, the usual method is to steep the grain in a sufficient quantity of water for two or three days, till it swells, becomes plump, somewhat tender, and tinges the water of a bright brown, or reddish colour. Then, this water being drained away, the barley is removed from the steeping-cistern to the floor, where it is thrown into what they call the wet couch; that is, an even heap, rising to the height of about two feet. In this wet couch the capital part of the operation is performed; for here the barley spontaneously heats and begins to grow, exactly in the same manner as in our present example of beans; shooting out first the radicle, and, if suffered to continue, then the plume, spire, or blade. But the process is to be stopped short at the eruption of the radicle, otherwise the malt would be spoiled. The way of stopping it, is to spread this wet couch thin over a large floor, and keep it turning once in four or five hours, for the space of two days, laying it somewhat thicker each time. After this, the malt is again thrown in a large heap, and there suffered to grow sensibly hot to the hand, as it usually will in twenty or thirty hours time; then, being spread abroad again and cooled, it is thrown upon the kiln, to be dried crisp without scorching.

This is the general process of malting, wherein almost every malster has his secret, or particular way of working. But, to render the operation perfect, the following cautions must be observed: (1.) That the barley be newly thrashed, or at least newly winnowed. (2.) That it be not mixed, or made up of different sorts. (3.) That it be not over-steeped in the cistern, or so long as to make it soft. (4.) That it be well drained. (5.) That it be carefully looked after in the wet couch, so as to stop the first tendency of the blade to shooting. (6.) Another caution is, to turn the wet couch inside outmost, if the barley comes, that it shoots more in the middle than on the sides. (7.) To keep it duly turning after it is out of the wet couch. (8.) To give it the proper heating in the dry heap. (9.) To dry and crisp it thoroughly upon the kiln, but without a fierce fire, so as to be several days in drying a kiln of pale malt. And, if these directions be carefully observed, the malt will always be good. The method of malting Indian corn, or Virginia wheat, is much less laborious. For, if this corn be buried two or three inches deep in the earth, and covered with the loose mould, dug up to make room for it, in ten or twelve days time the corn will sprout, and appear like a green field; at which time being taken up, and washed or fanned from it's dirt, it is immediately committed to the kiln, and by this means it becomes good malt, exactly as beans so treated would do.

It is observable of this corn, that both it's root and blade must shoot to a considerable length, before it will make malt. And, perhaps, this is the case, in all large-bodied grain and nuts.

R E M A R K S.

It might be of service to transfer this easy experiment to the making of malt for barley, rice, and the other small grains and seeds; but the attempt may be attended with difficulties, because, in the making of malt, the barley must only be suffered to grow in it's root, and not in the blade; whence it would be difficult, at first, to hit the exact time for taking it out of the ground. And, again, as the grain is so small, it might prove troublesome to separate it from the earth or mould. However, the thing may deserve to be tried.

It is a consideration of a higher nature to determine the physical effect procured by malting, and whether the end may not be obtained by cheaper and less laborious means. The physical difference betwixt malted and unmalted corn appears to be the production, or extrication of a sweet saccharine substance in the malt, which is wanting under that form in the corn. And it is this sweet substance alone, which we require in malt for the making of beer, ale, vinegar, and inflammable spirits. But even unmalted corn, duly treated, may be made to afford beer, ale, vinegar, and spirits: this, therefore, may intimate to us a way of making such liquors, without the formal extrication of any remarkably sweet sac-

charine substance. And, according to some trials, unmalted corn affords half the quantity of inflammable spirit by fermentation and distillation, as the same corn would do when malted. And, suppose that unmalted corn were to be made into a kind of dough or paste, fermented with yeast, as is usual for bread, and then baked, would not this be a cheap substitute for malting? They are said to brew after this manner in some countries. At least it deserves to be tried, how much beer, ale, vinegar, and spirit, might be procured this way, compared with that other of malting.

On the other hand, if only a sweet saccharine substance be required in malt, are there not cheaper and easier ways of procuring it than by malting? Do not many trees afford such a saccharine juice, by tapping in the spring, without prejudicing the trees? Is not young green corn itself remarkably sweet; and does not this sweet juice enter the composition of the ear, and there remain fixed, or almost lost in a saccharine form, till recovered by malting? Here is a door opened for explaining the nature of sweetness, and deducing the particular history of sugar; which is a work, that, for it's usefulness in trades and ordinary life, deserves to be considered. And, till some considerable progress is made in a work of this kind, the art of malting, and all those that depend upon it, will not arrive at perfection. See the article SUGAR.

Those who are disposed to go upon the enquiry, may please to compare the art of starch-making with that of malting; and particularly try, whether some considerable uses might not be made of the refuse liquors produced in both arts. The high-coloured liquor drained away in the steeping-cistern is a vegetable tincture, that might, if not by itself, yet by being used instead of water to ground malt, be worth fermenting and distilling for spirit; and the starch-makers refuse liquors have been observed to contain a quantity of inflammable spirit.

Our present experiment may in this respect be made general, that it shews us there are different times of stopping, or preventing, the farther growth of vegetables, for the service of arts. And this doctrine may be extended to the forming a set of general rules, for gathering the different parts of plants, at different seasons of the year, for different uses.

Thus roots, for instance, to be had perfect, should be gathered and dried in the spring, before the leaves are formed; leaves should be gathered, when they are fully opened, but before the flowers appear; flowers when they are not fully opened, and some, as red roses, in the bud. Seeds are to be gathered when full ripe, and beginning to dry, before they fall spontaneously; and trees are generally best felled and flaved for their bark in the beginning of the spring. But all this is to be understood of the common uses of the subjects; for there are many particular occasions, which require them immature. Thus buckthorn-berries should be ripe gathered, for making the syrup; but unripe, for making the painter's colour called sap-green.

AN ABSTRACT of the acts of parliament which have been made in relation to MALT.

I. Malt imported from beyond the seas before the 24th of June yearly, forfeited, or the value. See the acts of 13 and 14 of Will. III. cap. 5. §. 27. and 12 Ann. sess. 1. cap. 2. §. 25, 28.—12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 3.—And the malt act yearly.

II. — Made in Scotland, and brought into England, Wales, or Berwick upon Tweed,

By sea,	{	Must be entered with the proper officer of the port, and the 6d. per bushel paid before landing, unless certificates be produced that the 3d. per bushel has been paid in Scotland; in which case only 3d must be paid, on forfeiture, or the value.
By land,		Must pass through Berwick or Carlisle, and be there entered, and the like duty of 6d. or 3d. per bushel paid in ready money, on forfeiture, or the value.

III. — Brought by land beyond the said towns, without entry, or payment of duty, forfeited, or the value. 11 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 6. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 10. And see the malt-act yearly.

IV. — Exported, not to draw back the excise.—9 Geo. I. cap. 3. 11 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 7. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 48. For the bounty and regulations of exportation, see the article CORN.

V. — Barley, oats, or other grain unmalted, mixt therewith for exportation, the forfeiture is 5s. per bushel.—1 Geo. I. cap. 2. §. 13. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 4.

VI. — Entered and made for exportation only, not to be charged with excise. 13 and 14 Will. III. cap. 5. §. 22, 23, 24, 32. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 48.

VII. — Designed to be made for exportation, previous notice must be given to the malt officer, of the quantity of corn intended to be continued in each steeping, and of the hour when it is designed to be taken off the kiln. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 49. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 16, 17.

VIII. — Such corn to be kept separate, upon forfeiture of 5 s. per bushel; and each steeping to be kept separate 'till measured, upon forfeiture of 50 l. — And see the malt-act yearly.

IX. — When fit for exportation, must be measured, in the presence of an officer, and carried directly on ship-board, or else locked up separately, under the joint locks of the proprietor and officer, 'till delivered out for exportation, upon forfeiture of 50 l. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 51. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 17. — And see the malt-act yearly.

X. — Locks or doors opened, or entrance made into the storehouse where secured, or any quantity of the malt conveyed away without the knowledge or consent of the officer, the penalty is 100 l. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 18. — And see the malt-act yearly.

XI. — Storehouses to be cleared, and all the malt therein exported within every nine months after the beginning to make use of them, upon penalty of 50 l. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 57. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 19, 20. — And see the malt-act yearly.

XII. — When designed to be removed for exportation, 40 hours previous notice must be given to the officer, that he may see the same measured and delivered out, and remain on board the vessel 'till it is cleared out. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 5, 53, 55. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4.

XIII. — The officer to give a certificate, directed to the officer at the place of exportation, expressing the quantity, maker's name and place. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 54.

XIV. — Such certificate not delivered, forfeiture 50 l.

XV. — When designed to be shipped, at least 48 hours previous notice must be given to the officers, on forfeiture of 5 s. per bushel. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 6. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 57.

XVI. — During the time of shipping, when goods are not actually putting on board, the hatches must be locked down, with two locks to each hatch, one to be provided at the charge of, and to be kept by the proprietor, and the other by the officer: the hatches to be kept so locked down from the time of being fully loaded, 'till the time of sailing out of port. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 56.

XVII. — Makers, neglecting or refusing to perform the requisites of this act, forfeit 50 l.

XVIII. — Opposing officers, or breaking the hatches locked down, penalty 50 l. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 58.

XIX. — Makers to be allowed 3 d. per quarter, in consideration of the charges of storehouses, measuring, &c. 12 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 59.

An excise certificate for malt made for exportation.

No. 9. — Hants collection. — Southampton division. — January 2, 1730.

These are to certify whom it may concern, that Mr. A. B. of C. maltster, did, between the 29th day of November and the 14th day of December 1730, enter one hundred and five quarters and one bushel of barley [or other grain] and made the same into one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt, for exportation; and that, on exportation thereof, the said A. B. is, by virtue of an act of the 3d of George II. intitled to the bounty, or premium, of 2 s. 6 d. per quarter, upon one hundred fifty-seven quarters and four bushels of malt, being according to the allowance of thirty quarters of malt for every twenty quarters of barley, or other grain, so malted for exportation: which said allowance amounts to the sum of 19 l. 13 s. 9 d.

D. E. Officer.

One of which certificates must be produced for every separate parcel of malt shipped on each vessel, and must be carefully examined by the collector and comptroller, and, if found to be interlined, obliterated, or erased, must not be accepted; but, if regularly made out, must be preserved, in order to be annexed to the debenture, as a voucher for the computation of the bounty.

A debenture for malt.

As to the form of a debenture for malt exported, it will appear, by the following example *, that it is not much different from those before prescribed under the article CORN; but that which is to be particularly noted is, that the bounty for malt is not to be computed on the real quantity shipped off, as for all other corn, but † after the rate of thirty quarters, and no more, for every twenty quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt, as shall appear by a certificate from the officers with whom the corn or grain intended to be made into malt for exportation was entered; although, in the making of such malt, the barley, or other grain, should either be actually run out to a greater, or should

not be run out to so great a quantity, as is in proportion to thirty quarters of malt, for every twenty quarters of corn from which it was made.

* 12 and 13 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 91, &c.

† 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 14, 15.

The form of the debenture.

Port of Southampton.

Jurat A. B. That the maltherein mentioned is not relanded, or intended to be relanded in Great-Britain, or the islands of Guernsey or Jersey.

14^o die Januarii 1730, coram nobis,

B. C. Collector.
D. E. Comptroller.

These are to certify, That I A. B. of Southampton, did, on the 10th day of January, 1730, enter for Rotterdam, on the ship Goodfellow of Hull, a British ship, whereof William Miller the master, and two-thirds of the mariners, are his majesty's subjects, one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt, Winchester measure, and that the price of malt, Winchester measure, in the port of Southampton, the last market-day, did not exceed twenty-four shillings per quarter. Witness my hand, the 10th day of January, 1730.

A. B. —

Juravit A. B. That the contents of the abovementioned certificate are true, coram nobis,

B. C. Collector.
D. E. Comptroller.

By a certificate produced to us from the proper officers of excise (which is hereunto annexed) it appears, that the aforesaid one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt were made from one hundred and five quarters and one bushel of barley, or other grain.

Bond is taken in the penalty of 50 l. that the malt abovementioned (the danger of the seas excepted) shall be exported into parts beyond the seas, and not be again landed in the kingdom of Great-Britain, or the islands of Guernsey or Jersey.

And, by an act of the 3d of Geo. II. the said A. B. is intitled to a bounty, or premium, of two shillings and sixpence per quarter, upon one hundred fifty-seven quarters four bushels of malt, being according to the rate of thirty quarters of malt for every twenty quarters of barley, or other grain, malted for exportation.

B. C. Collector,
C. D. Customer,
D. E. Comptroller.

B. C. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

The one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt abovementioned were shipped in the said ship, the 12th day of January, 1730. Certified the 14th of January, 1730.

E. F. Searcher,
F. G. Surveyor,
G. H. Land-Waiter,

The vessel abovementioned is British-built, the master and two-thirds of the mariners his majesty's subjects.

H. J. Surveyor of the act of navigation.

On the back of the foregoing malt debenture.

The bounty-money to be paid for the malt within mentioned, amounts to nineteen pounds, thirteen shillings, and nine-pence

19	13	9
l.	s.	d.

B. C. Collector, C. D. Customer, D. E. Comptroller.

And, if the collector has not money in his hands sufficient to pay the bounty, it must be certified to the commissioners, in like manner as for other corn.

And to these debentures must be annexed the excise certificate or certificates, from which the bodies of the debentures were filled up, as a voucher for the computation of the bounty.

And when, for want of money, any corn-debentures are not paid at the port, but certified to the commissioners of the customs, before they are delivered to the exporters, they must be entered in a particular book, to be kept for that purpose, after the following form: and from thence must be transcribed a duplicate, in the same form, which must be signed by the collector and comptroller, and transmitted to the commissioners as often as any debentures are made out and certified, in order to be compared with the debentures when produced for payment.

M A L

M A L

Port of Southampton.

Corn-debentures certified to the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs.

When certi- fied.	Date of deben- tures.	Exporter's name.	Ship's name. and place.	Master's name.	Whither bound.	Species of corn.				Bounty, or sums certified.	When duplicates sent to the com- missioners.
						Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Malt.		
						Q. B.	Quart.	Q. B.	Q. B.	l. s. d.	
1730 27 Jan.	1730 8 Jan.	Caleb White	Goodfellow of Hull.	W. Miller	Rotterdam	91 1	49	38 5		36 3 0½	1730. 28 January

A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

A bond for the exportation of malt.

Noverint universi, &c.

Whereas, in pursuance of an act of parliament passed in the 3d year of his majesty's reign, intituled, 'An act for continuing the duties upon malt, mum, cyder, and perry, in that part of Great-Britain called England, and for granting to his majesty certain duties upon malt, mum, cyder, and perry, in that part of Great-Britain called Scotland, for the service of the year 1730; for exempting from the said duties cyder and perry used for distilling; for ascertaining the bounty for malt exported; for the better preventing fraud in the malting corn for exportation; for making good the deficiency of a late malt-act; and for giving further time to clerks and apprentices to pay duties omitted to be paid for their indentures and contracts: the above-bounden Caleb White hath produced, unto the collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Southampton, a certificate from the office of Excise, certifying that the said Caleb White did, between the 29th day of November and the 14th day of December, 1730, enter one hundred and five quarters and one bushel of barley [or other grain] and made the same into one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt, for exportation; and that, on exportation, the said Caleb White is, by virtue of the aforesaid act, intitled to the bounty, or premium, of two shillings and six-pence per quarter, upon one hundred fifty-seven quarters and four bushels of malt, being according to the allowance of thirty quarters of malt for every twenty quarters of barley, or other grain, so malted for exportation: which said allowance amounts to the sum of nineteen pounds, thirteen shillings, and nine-pence.

And whereas the said Caleb White hath entered for exportation the said one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt, on board the Goodfellow of Hull, British-built, whereof William Miller, the master, and two-thirds of the mariners, are British, bound for Rotterdam.

Now the condition of this obligation is such, That, if the said one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt, and every part thereof, shall be exported into parts beyond the seas (the dangers of the seas excepted) and that the said malt, or any part thereof, shall not be again landed in Great-Britain, or the islands of Guernsey or Jersey; then this present obligation to be void, and of none effect, or else to remain in full force and virtue.

But, for the greater ease of the exporters, by preventing any difficulties that they may lie under, by being obliged to give bond at the time of entry; it is thought that the intention of the law will be fully answered, though such bond be not taken 'till after the malt is shipped; and then the bond may be taken in the following form:

A bond for the exportation of malt, to be taken after the shipping.

Noverint universi, &c.

Whereas the above-bounden Caleb White hath this day entered for exportation, with the collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Southampton, to be shipped on board the Goodfellow of Hull, whereof William Miller is master, now riding at an anchor in ———, and bound for Rotterdam, one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt.

Now the condition of this obligation is such, That, if the said one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt, and every part thereof (except so much thereof as shall be endorsed on the back of this bond, by the above-bounden Caleb White, and certified by the searcher not to have been shipped) shall be exported into parts beyond the seas (the danger of the seas excepted) and that the said malt, or any part thereof, shall not be landed again in Great-Britain, or in the islands of Guernsey or Jersey: that then this obligation shall be void and of none effect, or else remain in full force and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

The form of the certificate to be produced, in order to discharge the aforementioned, and all other bonds, and the confirmation of the truth thereof, may be as follows:

We the under-written British merchants, residing at Rotterdam, do certify that there were landed, out of the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller master, ninety-one quarters of wheat, forty-nine quarters of rye, thirty-eight quarters five bushels of barley, for the account of Caleb White, merchant in Southampton. In witness whereof, we have hereunto set our hands and seals. Dated in Rotterdam, the 17th of March, 1730, N. S.

Charles Wells*,
Joseph Farrel*.

I know the above signing to be the hand writing of Mr. Charles Wells of Rotterdam.

George Jones.

I know the above signing to be the hand-writing of Mr. Joseph Farrel of Rotterdam.

Samuel Palmier.

And if, upon a careful and diligent examination, the collector is satisfied of the truth and reality of such certificates, and of the credit of the persons certifying, he may cancel the bonds taken at expiration, and forthwith deliver them up, noting the same on the certificate, as follows:

5th of April, 1731.

Cancelled the bond, by virtue of the above certificate.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

In the 26th year of the reign of his late majesty Geo. II. an act was made for allowing interest upon certain debentures for the bounty granted on the exportation of corn, the substance of which is as follows, viz.

That whereas, by an act in the 1st year of Will. and Mar. for encouraging the exportation of corn, &c. [see the article CORN] every one who shall put on ship-board, in such manner as by the said act directed; any sort of corn therein mentioned, with intent to export the same to parts beyond the sea, and shall duly perform every requisite therein required, as before shewn, shall have and receive of the commissioners, collectors, or other persons appointed to collect the duties of customs, in any port where the same corn shall be so shipped, for every quarter of barley or malt, 2s. 6d. for every quarter of rye, 3s. 6d. for every quarter of wheat, 5s. which sums the said commissioners or collectors are authorized and required to pay to such exporter, on demand: and whereas, by a clause in an act made in the 12th and 13th years of the reign of king William III. for granting an aid to his majesty for defraying the expence of his navy, &c. it is enacted, That, if the collector of the customs of any port wherein corn shall be exported, shall not have sufficient in his hands to pay such sums of money which shall be due to any exporter, by virtue of the said act of Will. and Mar. arising out of the duties out of which it ought to be paid, upon demand, that then such collector shall give the exporter, without fee or reward, a certificate under his hand of what is due to such person for the corn, &c. exported; certifying to the commissioners of the customs at London that he hath not monies in his hands to pay the same; which certificate being annexed to the debenture, and produced at London as aforesaid, the said commissioners of the customs there are authorized and required, on demand by the person that shall bring the same, to cause the monies thereby due to be paid in three months, by the general receiver or cashier of the customs, &c. And

Whereas, by reason of the great quantity of corn which of late hath been exported, the revenue applicable to the payment of such bounties, &c. hath not been sufficient to pay all such monies, and divers debentures for such monies remain unpaid: now, for making a reasonable compensation for such delay of payment, and to the end that the nation may continue to enjoy the benefits designed by the said bounties, be it enacted, &c.

That if, after the 25th day of March, 1753, any debenture for the bounty on corn exported, payable as aforesaid, shall remain unsatisfied more than six months next following the day when the same shall have been produced to the commissioners of the customs at London, then, and in such case, for the forbearance of such money as, after the expiration of the said

aid six months, shall be due on such debenture, interest, after the rate of three pounds per cent. per annum, shall be allowed to the proprietors thereof, his, her, or their executors, administrators, or assigns, such interest money to be computed from the end of the said six months, until the money due on such debenture, together with such interest, shall be paid, or until money sufficient shall be received in the hands of the said general receiver of the customs for that purpose, and proper notice shall be given thereof.

That such to whom such monies may be due, may not avail themselves of their neglect to demand the same, it is further enacted, That, when money sufficient shall be reserved as aforesaid, for payment of the principal and interest due on such debentures, the said general receiver shall give notice in writing, to be fixed on three or more doors of some public place or places in the Custom-House London, and to be advertised in the London Gazette, that, on a certain day, to be limited in the said notice, and on the four days next following such day (so as six days, at the least, intervene between the date of such notice, and the day so limited, and so as Sundays and holidays be not included in the number of such four days) he shall be ready to pay the principal and interest due on such debentures; after the expiration of which five days, if the payment of such principal and interest shall not be demanded pursuant to the said notice, all interest on such debenture shall cease.

Provided always, that the principal monies due thereon, with such interest as shall be likewise due thereupon, before the expiration of the time limited in the said notice, shall be paid on demand, at any time afterwards.

And if there shall be, at any time thereafter, money in hand sufficient to discharge the debentures, and notice be given thereof, the interest thereon shall cease, &c.

Provided nevertheless, that the principal and interest be paid in course, without undue preference to any of the proprietors.

The day of presentment to be indorsed on the certificate of debenture; and an order for the payment and interest to be signed by the commissioners, &c.

The payment to be made of the principal and interest without fee.

Debentures made assignable.

Where there is not money in hand to pay the bounty on corn exported from Scotland, a certificate to be granted. And The debenture to be paid by the receiver-general in three months.

Such debentures, remaining unsatisfied for six months, to carry 3l. per cent. interest.

Notice to be given when the same are ready to be discharged, and interest to cease from thence.

If there shall be, at any time thereafter, money in hand sufficient to pay off the debentures, and notice be given thereof, the interest thereon shall cease, &c.

Debentures in Scotland to be paid by the general receiver, and without undue preference.

MAN, [the ISLE of MAN,] lies between Britain and Ireland. It is, from north to south, twenty-eight miles long, nine broad, and 160 square miles. The soil is very fruitful, and produces such store of barley, wheat, rye, and oats, as does not only furnish the necessary uses of the island, but likewise gives leave for the exportation of great quantities. According to the distinction of north and south it is different; in the first it is healthy and gravelly, and in the other they have good meadow and pasture-ground; and the air in general is esteemed extremely wholesome.

A ridge of mountains runs almost the length of the island, which supply the inhabitants with exceeding good water, and excellent peat for fuel.

The black cattle are generally less than those of England; the gentlemen have good draught and saddle-horses: there is a very small sort bred in the mountains, about three feet three inches high.

They have no coal-mines yet discovered, but good quarries of a black marble, and other stones for building. They have mines of lead, copper, and iron, which have formerly been worked to good advantage.

This island was given by Henry IV. anno 1405, to John lord Stanley; and in this honourable house it has ever since continued, except for 12 years during the civil wars, when it was granted to the lord Fairfax, but returned to its ancient lords at the Restoration.

Upon the death of the late lord Derby without issue male, it devolved to the heirs female; and the present lord of Man and the Isles is the duke of Athol.—They have most of the prerogatives of kings.—The number of inhabitants are about 20,000.

The principal towns are only four, which are all situate near the sea; each of them has its harbour, or a castle or fort to defend it.

CASTLE-TOWN, to the south, about 210 miles from London, longitude 4. 37. latitude 53. 56.—Here the governor and most of the lord's officers reside; and here the courts of justice are held.

PEEL, or HOLM-TOWN, to the west.—Within these few

years several merchants have settled here, and built good houses and noble vaults, &c.

DOUGLAS-TOWN is much the richest, has the best market, and is the most populous of any in the whole island. As it has of late increased in trade, it has done so in buildings. The harbour, for ships of tolerable burthen, is the safest in the island; and, within these few years, they have built a fine mole into the sea, which, when perfected, will be one of the best harbours in any part of the three kingdoms, and will be of great service for ships to find shelter in distress.

RAMSEA, to the north, is the most noted for a spacious bay, in which the greatest fleet may ride at anchor, with safety enough in all winds, but the north-east; and, in that case, they need not be embayed. They have lately made a good harbour, that will bring more trade to the town, which formerly subsisted on fishing.

The trade of this island was very much improved before the year 1726, when foreign merchants found it their interest to touch here, and leave part of their cargoes, either to bring the remainder under the custom of butlerage, or because the duties of the whole would be too great a sum to be paid at once in England; or, lastly, to lie here for a market, the duties and cellarage being so small.—But, the late lord Derby having farmed out his customs to foreigners, the farmers insolence and impudence drew on the just resentment of the government of England, who passed an act, anno 1726, by which the people of the island were cut off from the liberties and privileges of a fair trade with England.

They improve their lands either by lime, by sea-wreck, or by folding their sheep and cattle in the night, and during the heat of the day, in little inclosures, which are removed from place to place every year; and the lands are soon so enriched by the urine and dung of the cattle, that they yield plentiful crops of corn; but oat-cakes are the common bread of the country.

The commodities of this island, besides their black cattle (of which 600 may, by the act of navigation, be imported yearly into England) are lamb's-wool, fine and coarse linen, and coarse woollen cloth, hides, skins, honey, and tallow; but its great and staple commodity heretofore was herrings, of which near 20,000 barrels have been exported in one year.

The herring-fishing season is between July and Allhallows-Tide. The fleet of boats (which are about two tons burthen) is under the government of the water-bailiff on shore, and under one called a vice-admiral at sea, who, by the signal of a flag, directs them when to shoot their nets, &c.

There is due to the lord of the isle, as a royalty, 10s. out of every boat that takes above 10 mease (every mease being 500 herrings) and 1s. to the water bailiff.

Here are mills both for corn and fulling of cloth, which are worked in the summer-time, when there is greatest plenty of water, many of the rivulets not having sufficient to drive a mill the greatest part of the year; which has put them upon inventing a sort of mill, so cheap that it is no great loss, though it should stand still six months in the year.

Notwithstanding the strictness of the laws against offences committed in the island, it is a place of refuge for crimes that are committed out of it, as well as for debts that are not incurred in it.—This island is also a sanctuary for goods, there being no custom paid, nor officers to receive it; so that wine and brandy from France, rum from the West-Indies, and calicoes, and other East-India goods from Holland, are often put ashore here into warehouses, and afterwards run, in small boats, into Ireland, Scotland, and the west of England.

Since the inhabitants, who were formerly chiefly employed in husbandry, have turned their heads to this more gainful trade of smuggling, they have much more shipping than they had, and dwell more upon the sea-coast than they used to do, where, as may be judged of the increase of their port-towns, new buildings, and gay appearance, &c. they grow rich. This coast, except the harbours abovementioned, is rocky and dangerous, and not practicable without good pilots.

REMARKS on the SMUGGLING TRADE carried on at the ISLE of MAN before the last WAR.

Extract of a letter from Newry, dated October 3, 1753, concerning running of goods from the Isle of Man, and published in the principal news-papers in London, and in the country.

Our tea-trade is long since lost, and is likely to be followed by that for spirits and tobacco, such quantities being daily run from the Isle of Man, that, if the commissioners do not soon find some means of effectually preventing it, the fair trader must be obliged either to fall in with the practice, or be ruined. It is computed that his majesty's revenue suffers at least 10,000l. per annum by such clandestine dealings in those parts, as this illicit trade is now most in the hands of persons of property: so that the dealers all around are supplied at home, on much easier terms than they can be from the fair trader here. One great encouragement is, the freight being paid down on shipping the goods, and the wherries, if taken, not only suffered to escape, but the boatmen rewarded with a few anchors, to induce

induce them not to be over-diligent in getting away another time; so that, when a barge is not in sight, they boldly make their port in open day, and thus find their account in this destructive commerce, their freight being two English shillings for an anchor of 10 gallons, which is almost equal to that for goods imported from the West-Indies.

Nor are the smugglers here less daring than numerous; for, notice being lately sent by them to the coast-officers, that such a day they intended to carry a considerable quantity of run goods from the neighbouring mountains, the officers and their assistants, on coming to prevent it, found near 60 persons, mounted and in arms, who divided into parties, and the officers doing the like, and, by this means being prevented from assisting each other, they attacked, disarmed, and grossly abused them. One of the officers having in the engagement fired among them, and shattered a man's leg, examinations have been sworn against him, and all his companions, to take off their evidence: who must now undergo a trial, for having endeavoured to discharge their duty.

These are the effects of a petty independent sovereignty subsisting in the heart of the British dominions, which serves for an asylum to out-laws and bankrupts, and may be considered as a fortress in the hands of our enemies (that trade being principally supported by the French) a constant drain of our cash, and the ruin both of his majesty's revenue, and the fair trade of these kingdoms.

SOME REASONS FOR ANNEXING THE ISLE OF MAN TO THE CROWN OF GREAT BRITAIN.

In the 12th of George I. cap. 28. by an act then passed, the lords of the Treasury were empowered to treat with the earl of Derby, and his heirs, for the purchase of all right to the Isle of Man; and this act was founded upon the almost impossibility of preventing smuggling from that island, while it remained as a petty sovereignty in the hands of a proprietor. The late lord Derby, from some notion he had formed of being able to leave the Isle of Man by will, would not treat with the Treasury. The duke of Athol, the present proprietor, may probably be disposed to part with it, upon good terms, especially when it is considered the most part of his revenues arise from small duties and customs paid the island upon prohibited goods entered, and afterwards smuggled upon the coasts of England, Wales, Ireland, and Scotland, which, though no method has yet been found out to prevent in any degree (not one in an hundred of the boats or vessels concerned in the smuggling trade being taken at sea, or seized afterwards) it cannot therefore be supposed that the legislature will suffer it long to be carried on to such an enormous height, which now calls loudly for the serious attention of every person that wishes well to the trade and welfare of these kingdoms.

The Isle of Man is situated in the midst of the three kingdoms, not above six or seven hours sail from the nearest parts of Scotland, Ireland and England. It is the greatest storehouse, or magazine, for the French, and other nations, to deposit prodigious quantities of wines, brandies, coffee, teas, and other India goods, which are carried off in small boats and wherries, built for that purpose. To ascertain the quantity, the house of commons may order the collectors of the noble proprietor's customs in the island, to lay before them their books of entries, for the last seven years, of goods; 999 parts of which, out of 1000, are smuggled upon our coasts; upon such an examination of these officers, the whole scene would come out.

Of late years, a new and destructive trade has been set up by Irish Papists, who have cheated their creditors, and carried their effects to the Isle of Man; and that is, by importing such quantities of teas, and other India goods, as ought greatly to alarm the India company. Perhaps they do not know to what a height it is come; or else it is hardly possible they should sit still, and not complain of whole ship-loads of teas, and other India goods, brought in for some years past from Denmark, as well as Holland and France; and all smuggled upon our coasts. The captain of a cruiser, did venture to do his duty, and attempted (as he thought he was warranted to do by act of parliament) to seize a Dutch dogger, valued at 12,000*l.* sterling, which run from him ashore upon the island, where she was bound. But the man found himself mistaken. Acts of parliament, and English commissions, could not protect him in that petty principality; they seized his men, who had taken possession of the dogger, threw them into a goal, where 5 of them will lie, perhaps, till their death. The captain himself narrowly escaped, with two men and a boy, to Whitehaven, from which place he wrote his complaints to the commissioners of the customs. If these gentlemen were called upon by the house of commons, not only for these papers, but also for such informations as they have received for some years passed, from the collectors of Whitehaven and Liverpool, and their officer in the Isle of Man, no doubt could remain of the absolute necessity of annexing this island immediately to the crown of Great-Britain.

Query, Whether the officers in the Isle of Man are not guilty of an act of rebellion, in seizing the king's boats and

arms, and detaining them? Another pernicious practice carried on by some Irish fugitive Papists settled in the island, who are countenanced and protected, is this; they enter tobacco in rolls from several ports of Great-Britain for some foreign parts, receive the drawback, then carry it to the Isle of Man, and run it back again from thence to Scotland, England, or Ireland, and Wales. This must always be attended with perjuries, very little regarded by such persons who have first cheated their own creditors, and then rob the public. Here the customs are actually robbed of great sums of money.

The Isle of Man is likewise a great detriment to the British distillery. Most of the ships that now go from Liverpool to Guinea, &c. touch there for their brandies, wines, and India and other goods, &c. not of British manufacture.

These, and many other inconveniencies and mischiefs arise from suffering this island any longer to be in a manner independent of Great-Britain. And a fuller account of the practices carrying on there will be published, if these be not sufficient to awaken all true friends of Great-Britain.

The remedy proposed is, To agree with the present proprietor to relinquish his right to the Isle of Man, and, in lieu of it, to grant him, and his heirs, an annual sum out of the customs of England for ever, or in any other way that shall be deemed more eligible: and such an annuity will be a saving to the government of some thousands a year, expended to very little purpose, in maintaining cruizers and officers, &c. to guard against its illicit and pernicious trade, and ten times the number will never prevent smuggling from that island. This article alone cannot be less than 15 or 20,000*l.* a year, including, in this estimation, the officers in Ireland, who are kept there on the same account; besides the loss to the revenue, upon the most moderate computation, of at least 200,000*l.* a year; and the loss to the fair trader, and particularly the India company, which may be as much more.

The late purchase of the hereditary jurisdictions in Scotland, hath set an excellent example, which deserves imitation. And, indeed, the reasons of annexing this petty royalty to the crown hold stronger than in any of the others: For the detriment which the whole kingdom sustains by the alienation of it, is much greater than that which arose from all the royalties and jurisdictions of Scotland. The loss to the nation, and the gains to the French, are inexpressibly great. And, as all the sums drained from us are employed by them, in time of war, to hire troops, and pay armies to fight against us, it will be no exaggeration of the truth to say, that, since the peace of Utrecht, they have drawn more money from us, by means of their trade with this small island, than was sufficient to maintain 30,000 men with a train of artillery, during the late war in Flanders. Would the French have suffered a like sovereignty of Bellisle, formerly in possession of the family of the famous duke of that name? It plainly shews they would not.

In short, this island may be looked upon as a fortress in the hands of our enemies, draining us of our specie (for all these goods are paid for with English coin): and also continually annoying us in the sensible parts, our trade and commerce. And the whole question is, Whether we ought to dispossess them or not? A question that admits of no dispute, if the public good and welfare of our country are to determine it! —Nor can there be any one good reason assigned, why this island should remain so long in a manner independent of Great-Britain.

If we look back, and consider how many millions of debt the honest part of these kingdoms is burthened with, by submitting for so many years to be plundered by such gangs of thieves, can we possibly call ourselves a civilized people? Have we the least right to complain of groaning under such a load of taxes, without so much as looking back to one of the principal causes of our miseries, or even thinking, as the past is irretrievable, of a preventive remedy, against our absolute future destruction, and against our becoming, if not a prey to one another, certain victims to a power, ever aiming at our ruin? Now then, let that British spirit awaken, with that attention to the national good, it has so often signalized itself for; directed by those calm, serious, and deliberate consultations, which are alone the surest means, to perfect the cure of the greatest evils, without pique or resentment against any set of men, without seeking vengeance for, but rather pardoning all past offences. Thus shall we see the morals of our people, corrupted by the little attention paid to the enforcing the execution of the laws, recover their former soundness, and those innumerable and invaluable lives preserved for our employment, strength, and happiness, which are now suffered to be wasted by spirituous liquors, under the thin pretence of incapacity of redress, lest the revenue should suffer a diminution. See SMUGGLING.

MANUFACTURERS.

The principal LAWS of ENGLAND relating to MANUFACTURERS and ARTIFICERS.

Persons employed in making up the woollen, linen, fustian, cotton, or iron manufactures, embezzling or purloining any

wefts, thrums, or ends of yarn, or any other materials of wool, hemp, flax, cotton, or iron, with which intrusted, or that shall reel false or short yarn, being thereof convicted by oath of one witness, or confession, before one justice, &c. shall forfeit double the value of damages done, for the use of the poor. On neglect or refusal to pay, to be sent to the house of correction 'till satisfaction made; if not able, to be kept there not above fourteen days, publickly whipped, and kept to hard labour. Buyers and receivers of, &c. liable to the same punishment, 1 Ann. c. 18. This act at first was temporal, but by 9 Ann. c. 30. was made perpetual.

By 13 Geo. II. If any person working woollen, linen, fustian, cotton, or iron manufactures, shall embezzle or illegally dispose of the materials, or shall reel short yarn, being convicted as prescribed by 1 Ann. shall forfeit double the damages sustained with costs: and, in case immediate payment shall be neglected, the justice shall commit the offender to the house of correction, to be whipped, and hard labour, not exceeding fourteen days. And, on further conviction for embezzling any of the materials, the persons shall forfeit four times the value (whether the same be or be not made up) sustained, with costs. And, if payment with costs be neglected, such justice shall commit to the house of correction and to hard labour, not exceeding three months, nor less than one, and to be publickly whipped in the market-town, at the market-place or cross, once or oftener. And, by Geo. II. every person who shall buy or take by way of gift, pawn, sale, &c. from any in the act of 1 Ann. mentioned, any woollen, linen, fustian, cotton, or iron manufactures, knowing the same to be embezzled, shall suffer the like forfeiture as the persons purloining the materials; all which forfeitures are by 13 Geo. II. to be applied, one moiety to the use of the party injured, and the other to the poor of the parish, with benefit of appealing. If any person employed in cutting or manufacturing of gloves, breeches, leather, boots, shoes, or other goods, shall fraudulently embezzle any of the said goods or materials, or shall purloin or exchange any gloves, &c. when manufactured, or lessen the value, either before or after made into wares, the person must make a reasonable recompence, not exceeding double the value of the goods; one half thereof to the party aggrieved, and the other to the poor. But if no goods, and shall refuse to pay, the offender shall be for every offence committed to prison, and kept to labour fourteen days, and shall be whipped; and for a second offence shall forfeit four times the value which the owners shall sustain, with costs adjudged by the justice. And, not paid, such justice may commit to the house of correction or prison to labour, not exceeding three, nor less than one month, and shall cause the offenders to be whipped in the market-place or cross once or oftener. And every person, who shall knowingly buy or receive by way of pawn, &c. from any person whatsoever (except of or from the person in whom the property is) such person shall make such suitable recompence, within two days after the fact shall be determined, or else be subject to distress, and, for want thereof, liable to the like punishment as is directed on persons as shall embezzle goods, &c. and so for any subsequent offence. The stat. 13 Geo. II. proving deficient, the 22d of Geo. II. enacts, if any person hired to make any felt or hat, or work up any woollen, linen, fustian, cotton, iron, leather, furr, hemp, flax, mohair, or silk manufactures made up of wool, &c. or any of the said materials mixed, shall, after the 24th of June 1749, purloin or dispose of materials, whether wrought or not into merchantable wares, or shall reel false or short yarn, the justices may commit the person to the house of correction or public prison, to labour, for fourteen days, and to be once publickly whipped at some public place; and, if a further offence, the justices may commit to the house of correction or public prison to labour, not exceeding three, nor less than one month, and may order the persons to be whipped at some public place, &c. twice or oftener.

If persons shall buy, or take in gift, pawn, &c. from any employed to make any felt or hat, to work up the woollen, linen, &c. manufactures made of wool, &c. or silk, or any of the said materials mixed, thrums, or ends of yarn, whether made up or not, knowing the person to be hired, and not having the consent of the person hiring; or shall buy or take, in any manner whatsoever, from any person, any of the said materials, whether wrought or not, knowing the same to be embezzled, the person convicted shall, for the first offence, forfeit 20l. and, if not paid, shall be committed to labour for fourteen days, or 'till payment; and, if within two days before the said fourteen, the same shall not be paid, may order the person to be publickly whipped, once or oftener; and, if a further conviction, shall forfeit 40l. and, in case the same be not immediately paid, the justice shall commit to labour, not exceeding three, nor less than one month, unless forfeitures be sooner paid; and, if not paid within seven days before the time, may order such offenders to be publickly whipped twice, or oftener; and the said forfeitures of 20l. and 40l. after satisfaction to the party injured, with costs, shall be distributed amongst the poor.

If aggrieved, may appeal; and the justices, in the general or quarter-sessions, are finally to determine the appeal, and award

costs; and if, on hearing, the judgment of the justice shall be affirmed, such appellant shall pay the sum adjudged, or, in default, shall suffer the penalties inflicted upon persons who shall neglect to pay.

If any shall be convicted of purloining the materials, or receiving the same, justices may issue a warrant to any person, in the presence of a constable, &c. in the day to search the houses, and other places, and, if there shall be found any materials of wool, &c. to bring such materials before the said justice, to be detained; and, if within 24 days, it shall appear the persons from whose houses, &c. the said materials shall be taken, are the owners, then such materials shall be restored; but, if it shall not appear, the same shall be deemed purloined, and the justices may direct them to be sold, and the money (charges deducted) to be distributed to the poor. The said justices shall, within three days after materials brought, give notice, under hand and seal, to the person convicted, appointing time and place for his proving his property so detained, which shall be within twenty, and not less than eighteen days, after notice is given; and, if the person convicted shall be detained in prison, the justice may cause a copy of the notice to be delivered to the keeper, who is to bring before such justice the person named in such notice; and, if such keeper refuse, he shall forfeit to the person in such notice the value of the materials, to be recovered by distress and sale of the goods of such keeper.

Any aggrieved may appeal to the general or quarter-sessions; and, in the mean time, the disposal of materials shall be postponed. Notice under the hand of the person intending to appeal, signifying his intention, given to the justice before the disposal of such materials. The justices may summon and examine witnesses, and may determine the appeal, and, if the appellant should not prosecute, the judgment of the justice shall be affirmed, and may award costs.

If any persons, intrusted with materials to manufacture, shall not use them, and shall delay, for twenty days after such materials shall be manufactured, to return (if required by the owner) so much as shall not be used, such neglect shall be an embezzling; and, being convicted, shall suffer as persons convicted of embezzling.

Any one justice, upon complaint on oath or affirmation of any offence within the county, may issue his warrant, and may determine the matter.

If any person who, after the 24th of June, 1749, shall work up any of the manufactures for any one master, shall neglect the performance thereof, by procuring himself to be retained by any other, before he shall have completed the work, he shall be sent to hard labour, not exceeding one month.

This act not to repeal any of the provisions in the 13th, 14th, and 20th Car. II. for regulating the trade of silk-throwing, or in 8 and 9 Will. III. for the further encouragement of the manufacture of lustrings.

No person shall, by virtue of the said acts, or of this act, suffer punishments twice for one fact.

By 22 Geo. II. the several clauses in the 12th of Geo. I. and all the provisions and forfeitures shall, after the 24th of June, 1749, extend to journeymen dyers, hot-pressers, and all employed about the woollen manufactures, and journeymen, servants, and labourers, and others, making of felts or hats, or in any of the manufactures of silk, mohair, furr, hemp, flax, linen, cotton, fustian, iron, or leather, or about any manufactures of wool, &c. or of any materials mixed, in as ample manner as the provisions and forfeitures are by the said act to extend to the several persons therein: and the forfeitures incurred against the said act, by any employed about the said manufactures, shall be recovered as the forfeitures contained in the act of 12 Geo. I. are directed to be recovered.

REMARKS on the ENCOURAGEMENT of MANUFACTURES in FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

It is a maxim generally received, that one of the most effectual means to settle and improve commerce, or any other political interest, is the patronage of princes. Dispensing rewards, and exciting emulation, by investing with honours, and other marks of distinction, those persons who, by the force of genius or application, have made new discoveries, or improved upon any thing laudable, and conducive to the interest of the public; more especially such as, upon the strength of their own genius, and at their sole charge, have set up and maintained manufactures, and other works beneficial to the community; and when the introduction of them has been intirely owing to their industry and public spirit.

This point we shall only treat in a general way, as it is not possible to prescribe rules for the conduct of it on particular occasions, since the honours, as well as rewards and encouragements, are always to be dispensed according to the station, and other circumstances of the claimants, and with an eye to the charge they shall have been at, and the benefits that shall result to the public from them.

It is good policy to give yearly pensions, in order to draw over, and engage to stay in any country, able masters in manufactures, fulling, dyeing, and other works, either to introduce

introduce these sorts of businesses, or to improve such as have been already established, by advancing them to a degree of perfection and goodness that is certain to make them esteemed, and procure them a market every where.

As this has been the case of the tapestries of Flanders, the cloths of Abbeville, England and Holland, as also the silks of Lyons in France, so artificers, or workmen, setting up new and profitable manufactories in foreign countries, it is usual also to allow, for a certain term, an immunity from all troublesome offices, houses to live in, workshops, and a dispensation from some duties; numerous instances of which have been produced in divers parts of this work; and, at the same time, for a further encouragement, sums of money have been granted, to enable them to bear the first expence, which usually runs high. But, in respect to this advance of money, or the other encouragements, we are as little able to prescribe stated rules, as there must necessarily be a variety of cases, according to the situation of the projectors, and the benefit that will arise from the undertaking. However, it will be always prudent and necessary, perhaps, for them to give sufficient security to repay, at stated times, all monies that shall be advanced to set up and maintain the manufactories, and other works, which they have laid themselves under an obligation to do, both in respect to the number of looms, the quality of the manufacture, and the time that shall be stipulated with them; all of them circumstances very essential, and for which it behoves trading states to explain and covenant very fully; for, should there be a failure in any one of them, the main purpose would not be attained, all the pains, and all the indulgences that had been dispensed them, thrown away, and the prince have a just right to withhold what had been offered on his side, as also to put their bonds in execution; and, if there be still a deficiency, to call upon their securities immediately to replace the monies that had been advanced, and to return the houses, and other things, in the state and condition they were received.

And yet it will be always reasonable to shew some favour and moderation, and not treat them with the utmost rigour, when it shall appear that the miscarriage arose from accidents that could not be foreseen, and not from villainy, or a deliberate intent to defraud; both because they merit indulgence, as they erred involuntarily, and, for fear of the rigour they shall be treated with, discourage the honest and ingenious from entering into the like covenant and undertakings.

As often as masters or directors of any manufactures faithfully execute what they undertake and covenant, and from the establishment and continuance of their manufactures there will ensue great advantages to the public, it is also customary, and good policy, to remit them a part, or even the whole advance-money: for it may serve as a reward, and a fresh encouragement, and also a means of raising emulation in others, to project such other things that are conducive to the public interests.

It has been usual, also, to grant an exclusive privilege for undertakings of this kind, that, for a certain number of years, no other person manufacture the commodities they are under an obligation to introduce and establish; but, before indulgences of this nature are ever dispensed, we ought to consider the affair thoroughly; and when, for special reasons, it is found absolutely necessary, in order to obtain a national end, they are even then to be limited and guarded with the utmost precaution, lest they be converted into monopolies, that are of great profit to the proprietor, but of the utmost prejudice to the public. Moreover, in dispensing them, though it be with all possible precaution, it ought at least to be attended with the following circumstances; of it's being a new fabric of some kind, and very difficult to be set on foot; that there will ensue an improvement to commerce, and a considerable advantage to the public, as it happened in France, and lately in Spain, in order to revive and establish glass-houses.

To this end was granted an exclusive privilege, for a certain number of years, in consideration of it's being an undertaking of great fatigue and considerable charge; and as the event was uncertain, they put to great risk their pains and money therein employed.

Lewis XIV. king of France, in the year 1665, during the ministry of John Baptist Colbert, granted also an exclusive privilege, and other advantages, in order to settle a tin manufacture in several parts of that kingdom, as it is a very useful commodity, and of great consumption every-where; and, at the expiration of the term covenanted, the patent was renewed, in the year 1695, in favour of Isaac Robelin, engineer, director of the fortifications of Burgundy, and company; to which partnership, it was renewed for another term, in the year 1700, as appears from the patent granted them.

When it shall be found expedient to grant an exclusive privilege, it should be done for as short a time as possible, and under due limitations, in order that the manufacture and traffic thereof may become the more freely and expeditiously extended. But those privileges ought to be the more generally restrained to fabrics that are entirely new, or of an extraordinary improvement upon the old.

Other advantages, of an inferior kind, and attended with less public inconvenience, will prove sufficient for works and inventions of a lower nature. When goods, taken to be manufactured by private hands, are nearly of the same sort as some already made in the country, though they may be of superior quality, as it is from this very superiority that, with a little diligence, they may be imitated in their own manufactures, there will be no reason to grant privileges, indulgences, and other distinguishing encouragements, which some have moved for, as in such cases they ought to be common and general; for any thing singular and exclusive would be a great prejudice to other manufactories of the kingdom; which being of equal moment, or little inferior, may, with equal propriety, claim and enjoy the same advantage; and, if they should not obtain it, the consequence will certainly be, that, favouring a branch, we shall destroy the root.

The sage Spaniard Uztaritz observes, That, by the tariff which Lewis XIV. assisted by the great penetration and skill of his vigilant minister, John Baptist Colbert, published in the years 1664 and 1667, all foreign cloths imported into France paid a duty of above 25 per cent. while those manufactured in his own kingdom were allowed to go abroad, paying only one per cent. and other commodities were exported free of all duty. This appears from the various edicts, and other ordinances, that we have quoted throughout this work; and I may add, that, to encourage the manufactories of that large and plentiful province of Languedoc, the government of France settled a premium, of about 13 shillings sterling, to be given to the masters for every piece of fine cloth measuring 30 French yards, that they should manufacture and send abroad.

In regard to materials, they observe a rule so contrary (but equally advantageous) that they impose heavy duties upon the exportation of them, and sometimes prohibit it entirely, under rigorous penalties, as we do in England with our wool, that our own country may reap the benefit of that large gain which arises from working it up. But they lay very small duties, often none at all, upon the importation of materials which they are in want of, especially for their manufactures. This is practised in Holland with respect to Spanish wool, which is imported free, as appears from their own tariff, published at Amsterdam in the year 1710; for so dextrous are they, and attentive to the general interest of the state, that they have constantly in their eye, and gather the fruits of a piece of experience, that this is a mine more fruitful of gain, riches, and plenty, than those of Potosi; since, by working up into cloth a certain portion of wool, that stands them in 20 shillings, they produce from it the amount of above five times that sum: [see the article Wool:] for they calculate that, in a yard of fine cloth, the wool it is made of amounts to a fifth of it's value, and the rest is labour, dyeing, and other expences: so that there remains, as it were, to the manufacturer, an interest of four fifths; and a million of money in materials he can improve to the value of five millions: and this shews how expedient it is to encourage manufactures, in order to trade, in a great measure at least, without our own commodities.

The present system of Spain to advance in their manufactories of every kind, as published before the last war.

The same author adds, in another place, in order to rouse the Spaniards to trade, that, in regard to manufactories, care must be taken to estimate the advantages of each particular, according to the quality, number of people, materials, fruits, and address of the respective districts: for, in the article of manufactories; success does not entirely depend upon the goodness and plenty of fruits and materials a country produces: these defects and wants may be made up by management and industry. In proof of it, many examples might be produced, were it not sufficient to mention Holland and Genoa, in whose districts, though barren of silk, good wool, and dyeing materials, many and prime manufactories of these and other sorts are flourishing. And, as Spain possesses these and other materials in great plenty and perfection, and is equally furnished with all the necessary provisions for the working hands, which the territories of Holland and Genoa are also destitute of, and the nation is still the same as in former times, there is reason to believe that every thing which has been formerly, may be again, whenever due encouragement shall be given by them in power, especially when those heavy fetters are taken off, which with our own hands we have laid upon the manufactures, and the sale of them both at home and abroad, as well by excessive taxes upon provisions consumed by the working hands, and the materials they make use of, as by the heavy and repeated duty of the alcavala at every sale of them, and the 15 per cent. which manufacturers, by the book of rates, are to pay upon exportation, contrary to the natural and political maxim observed by other nations.

Nor can I forbear dwelling upon these two points, manufactures and a reform of the duties, and frequent mention of them, as they are the root, which, by a prudent cultivation, is to produce the remedy for our misfortunes, and give new life

life to the monarchy: for it is certain, that the excess of these duties is the original cause of the destruction of our manufactures, a necessary consequence of which is the loss of an advantageous commerce (which is now fallen into the hands of foreigners) as also the dispeopling, and present inability of Spain.

For a better illustration of this point, and the happy consequences that depend upon it, suppose there were set on foot, for instance, 60,000 new looms in these kingdoms, which would be replacing a considerable part of those which are said to be in ancient times.

As I am satisfied there are now in the kingdom of Valencia above 2000 looms, of silk and wool; in the principality of Catalonia above 500: and in the kingdom of Granada 1000, including both sorts; and there are also in other provinces manufactures of silk, though not very considerable, and in almost all of them no contemptible number of looms for the several fabrics of wool, such as the middling and coarse cloths, bays, serges, camblets, druggets, &c. one may, I think, without rashness, suppose the silk and woollen looms that are now in Spain, to be 10,000. Now these, with the 60,000 new ones that have been imagined to be set up, would amount to 70,000; and one may reckon 14,000, or about a fifth part of them, to be silk looms, and the remaining 56,000 of fine, middling, and coarse wool, of which last there is no less consumption, &c. See the article CATALONIA.

R E M A R K S.

Throughout the whole of this work, much has been urged for the encouragement of manufactures in general, from representations of what has been done to this end in France and Holland, &c. as well as what is, at present, doing in Spain, for revival of their old manufactures, and the establishment of new of every kind that their country will advantageously admit of. We have likewise endeavoured to animate our artists of every denomination with such a spirit of emulation, not only in relation to each other, but foreigners, as we hope may tend to the advancement of our old, as well as the invention of new arts and manufactures. Some of the articles, under which these particulars may be turned to are, ARTIFICERS, BISCAY, BLEACHING, BLACK, BLUE, CALICO-PRINTING, CANDIDATE, CATALONIA, CHEMISTRY, CLOTH, FLAX, HEMP, FRANCE, FULLER'S-EARTH, GLASS, ROYAL SOCIETY, and divers other heads referred to from these.

We begin to be now convinced, that we are nearly as much enriched by the labours of our fellow-creatures, as by the productions of the earth; and, if we have reason to rejoice at the abundance which nature, from year to year, produces for us, we may reap no less reasonable satisfaction from all the variety of employments in human society, and especially by means of our manufactural arts. The first proofs of this have been taken from the numberless kinds of business, which our servants and the very meanest labourers perform for us; not in our houses only, but from one end of the earth to the other: what they are doing on the banks of Newfoundland, at Potosi, at Mocha, or in the island of Amboyna, concerns us no less than the being decent in our apparel and habitations. Let us consider the reasons we have to esteem artizans of every kind for their industry, and find new motives, from the numberless services they do us, to rectify our way of thinking concerning them.

It is customary for all such as are under no necessity of labouring with their hands, to place themselves at an infinite distance above the working trading people; some affix an idea of meanness to their condition, and their contempt of it is universal. The man who draws up a conveyance, or a bill in Chancery, would think himself disgraced by marrying his daughter to a clothier, a weaver, or a taylor. He may, indeed, be very dextrous, cautious, and judicious, in his draughts and pleadings, and extremely well versed in the forms and precedents of the courts; but these qualifications demand not less the admiration which is due to the industry of a man, who makes us cloth and silk for our apparel.

A person, whose business is to recover certain rights, is treated by us with abundance of ceremony and respect, and yet we scarce vouchsafe to take notice of a labourer or a gardener, to whom our enjoyment of the fruits of the earth is owing. But this mistake is not a new thing: it has constantly made its way into the most polite nations, in proportion as their luxury had introduced a false taste of delicacy. That Scipio*, who had declared war against Jugurtha, standing candidate for the office of curule ædile, when he was a young man, and, (as the custom was) passing through the place where the country tribes, as well as those who resided at Rome, were then assembled, bowed to one, spake obligingly to another, and, amongst the rest, shaking hands with a labouring man whom he knew, and feeling them hard and callous, he could not forbear joking with him upon it. We gentlemen, says he, walk only upon our feet, and shall you bring up a fashion of walking upon your hands also? This jest cost him dear; for it was told immediately from one to another, even thro' the very lowest ranks; and all the tribes, being offended to think they were reproached for their love of labour, unani-

mously rejected this banterer, whom the effeminacy of the city had rendered arrogant and impertinent.

* Scipio Nafica Valer. Maxim. Lib. VII. cap. 5. n. 2.

Most of those who follow a working trade, have been so accustomed, among us, to be set aside, and treated without any sort of civility or regard, that we find them quite confounded, or appearing under an extreme surprize, whenever the magistrates, the clergy, or other persons of distinction, condescend to converse or talk with them as to fellow-citizens and freemen; such they are in reality: our treatment of them is therefore a dishonour to ourselves, and our own haughty airs ought to make us blush.

The laws of subordination have never, in strict justice, authorized any person to talk to manufacturers as if they were slaves. We should inspire them with some sentiments of honour, and encourage their industry, would we only seem to be sensible of their worth, and speak to them with good nature and affability. But we shall be always very far from forming their manners, or attaching them to us, if we entertain a contempt for their persons, or remain so ignorant as we are at present of the excellency of their arts: our very ignorance of their merit in society is the cause of our indifference towards them.

When our reason first begins to open, we are talked to for six years together about the future in rus, and the supine in um, without hearing one word of the perfection and usefulness of the arts, or the industry of people that follow employments by which our lives are supported. When our reason begins to acquire more strength, it is put under the direction of masters, who, after a vast deal of preparation, demonstrate that we have a body, and that there are other bodies round us: or spend whole hours, nay even days in proving, that of two propositions contradictorily laid down, concerning a possible future which may never happen, the one is determinately true, and the other determinately false, and the like metaphysical jargon.

The learning to distinguish rightly the productions of the globe which we inhabit, the ties whereby all the people dwelling on it are united, and the various labours they are employed in, are things the most neglected. Every one of us has seen the sail of a windmill, and the wheel of a water-mill in action: we know also, that these machines grind corn, and reduce the bark of trees to powder: but we know nothing of the structure of them, and can hardly avoid confounding a carpenter with an hewer of wood.

We all carry watches in our pockets, but do we know the mechanism of the fusee round which the chain is wound? Do we understand the use of the spiral line which accompanies the balance? It is just the same as to the most common trades: we know the names of them, and no more. Instead of endeavouring to gain a reasonable knowledge of commerce, manufactures, and mechanics, which are the delight and ornament of that society wherein we are to spend our lives; we pique ourselves on attaining all the niceties of quadrille, or bury ourselves in solitude, upon speculations that have no foundation but in our whimsical imaginations. And, if little judgment is shewn in the choice of our pleasures, a still greater want of it will probably appear in our studies. We run after whatever makes the most noise, and the most sensible people are at last obliged to confess, that they repent more the loss of the time they have employed in studying the subtleties and fooleries of the schools, the arts of pedantry, and the crack-brained altercations of enthusiastic zealots, than of what they have spent in the learning of music, which is sometimes an amusement to them.

The father or mother of a family, the head of a community, a merchant, a lawyer, a justice of peace, or any of those who have the government either of the actions or consciences of others, may be never the worse for not understanding the monades of Leibnitz, or the disputative bombast of the dogmatists. But there is no one of them who would not acquit himself better in his employment, was he to acquire a true knowledge of the arts and trades wherein the common people are busied. This kind of philosophy is a thousand times more to be esteemed, than those systems whose inutility is their least fault.

Some philosophers, considering that diversity which appears in the labours and inclination whereby men are distinguished, have attributed the cause of it to the dispositions alone of certain bodies that govern them, and have from thence drawn objections against the spirituality of the soul; being more forward, as is commonly the case, to decide concerning the nature of such things as God has hid from us, than to make us see and adore that all-wise hand, which, by regulating the differences of our abilities as well as of our wants, has thereby prepared all the links of the great chain of society. Others have been of opinion, that the variety of arts is owing to the discovery philosophy has made of the wants of mankind, and the means of providing for them. The only reason they have not mentioned, is what they should have found out first.

If we are supplied with shoes, linen, and woollen cloths, or candles, &c. it is not because there are pedantic philosophers

in the world. It is not they who have taught us to whiten the wax, or handle the shuttle: they move commonly in spheres very distant from us; and, if they ever do condescend to give their opinion of the instruments we make use of, it is only to inform us, that such and such a thing is wanting, without endeavouring in the least to supply such defects by any better inventions. The chiefs of colonies have assembled workmen, and legislatures have appointed regulations for different professions: but the workmen, as well as peoples wants, were before the colonies were founded; and the legislature, who establishes rules for the exercise of mens talents, is by no means the inventor of them. Human prudence employs what it has received, not what it has created. Most speculative philosophers have nothing to be proud of: they cannot claim any thing as their own, except useless opinions and questions that cannot be answered. We owe every thing to a wise providence, which has made no account of them, as to bearing any part of the labours necessary to society, but which has provided for them effectually by the rich variety it has infused into the minds of men. In a word, we don't invite a man of a very mean capacity to take upon him the conduct of great affairs, nor one of a fine genius to lop the trees in a forest.

The different bias of our minds precedes our wants; and, as God is the author of our wants, he is also the real author of the different dispositions which are found proper to provide for them. He has likewise, by another precaution, rendered his work infallible: for, lest the wants, the interests, or the constitution of each particular should be insufficient to breed up and perpetuate the different kinds of workmen necessary to the bulk of mankind, God has inspired an inclination in all children to imitate whatever hits their fancy.

We regard this as a trifle of no consequence; whereas it is, in truth, something resembling, as it were, an inspiration of the Deity, productive of the greatest good; for it is this that affords us a constant supply of the most useful workmen, and fills the meanest professions as well as the most exalted.

A child conceives an advantageous idea of what he sees his father do: he follows him step by step, and goes on in his profession; or, if he quits it, it is because he is more industrious, and finds himself capable of rising higher. One may truly affirm, that imitation is of much greater service to us than invention; for inventions appear but very seldom, whereas imitation is found in all countries, and at all times.

If, from the first and only original of so many useful trades, we would descend to what is to be found curious in them (and often the most common things deserve our greatest attention) we should find throughout, that the progress we may make in these entertaining and really useful researches, leads the mind equally to emulation and gratitude.

Our countryman Mr. Locke says, in his treatise of Education, 'that I have one thing more to add, which, as soon as I mention, I shall run the danger of being suspected to have forgot what I am about, and what I have above written concerning education, all tending towards a gentleman's calling, with which a trade seems wholly to be inconsistent. And yet, I cannot forbear to say, I would have our young gentlemen learn a trade, a MANUAL TRADE; nay, two or three, but one more particularly.

The busy inclination of children being always to be directed to something that may be useful to them, the advantages, proposed from what they are set about, may be considered in two kinds; 1. Where the skill itself that is got by exercise, is worth the having. Thus skill not only in languages, and learned sciences, but in painting, turning, gardening, tempering, and working in iron, and all other useful arts, is worth the having. 2. Where the exercise itself, without any consideration, is necessary or useful for health. Knowledge in some things is so necessary to be got by children whilst they are young, that some part of their time is to be allotted to their improvement in them, though these employments contribute nothing at all to their health: such are reading and writing, and all other sedentary studies, for the cultivating of the mind, which unavoidably take up a great part of gentlemens time, quite from their cradles.

Other manual arts, which are both got and exercised by labour, do many of them, by that exercise, not only increase our dexterity and skill, but contribute to our health too, especially such as employ us in the open air. In these, then, health and improvement may be joined together, and of these should some fit ones be chosen, to be made the recreation of one, whose chief business is with books and study.

For a country gentleman I should propose one, or rather both these, viz. gardening or husbandry in general, and working in wood, as a carpenter, joiner, or turner, these being fit and healthy recreations for a man of study or business. For, since the mind endures not to be constantly employed in the same thing or way, and sedentary and studious men should have some exercise, that at the same time might divert their minds and employ their bodies; I

know none that could do it better for a country gentleman than these two, the one of them affording him exercise, when the weather or season kept him from the other, &c. The great men among the ancients understood very well how to reconcile manual labour with affairs of state, and thought it no lessening to their dignity, to make the one the recreation of the other. That, indeed, which seems most generally to have employed and diverted their spare hours, was agriculture. Gideon amongst the Jews was taken from threshing, as well as Cincinnatus amongst the Romans, from the plough, to command the armies of their countries against their enemies; and it is plain, their dextrous handling of the flail, or the plough, and being good workmen with these tools, did not hinder their skill in arms, nor make them less able in the arts of war or government. They were great captains and statesmen, as well as husbandmen. Cato Major, who had with great reputation borne all the great offices of the commonwealth, has left us an evidence under his own hand, how much he was versed in country affairs; and, as I remember, Cyrus thought gardening so little beneath the dignity and grandeur of a throne, that he shewed Xenophon a large field of fruit-trees, all of his planting. The records of antiquity, both amongst the Jews and Gentiles, are full of instances of this kind, if it were necessary to recommend useful recreations by examples.

Nor let it be thought that I mistake, when I call these, or the like exercises of manual arts, diversions or recreations: for recreation is not being idle (as every one may observe) but easing the wearied part by change of business: and he that thinks diversion may not lie in hard and painful labour, forgets the early rising, hard riding, heat, cold and hunger of huntsmen, which is yet known to be the constant recreation of men of the greatest condition. Delving, planting, inoculating, or any the like profitable employments, would be no less a diversion, than any of the idle sports in fashion, if men could but be brought to delight in them, which CUSTOM AND SKILL IN A TRADE will quickly bring any one to do. And I doubt not, but there are to be found those, who, being frequently called to cards, or any other play, by those they could not refuse, have been more tired with these recreations, than with any the most serious employment of life; though the play has been such as they have naturally had no aversion to, and with which they could willingly sometimes divert themselves.

Play, wherein persons of condition, especially ladies, waste so much of their time, is a plain instance to me, that men cannot be perfectly idle, they must be doing something. For how else should they fit so many hours toiling at that, which generally gives more vexation than delight to people, whilst they are actually engaged in it? It is certain, GAMING leaves no satisfaction behind it to those who reflect when it is over, and it no way profits either body or mind: as to their estates, if it strikes so deep as to concern them, it is a TRADE then, and not a RECREATION, wherein few, that have any thing else to live on, thrive; and, at best, a thriving gamester has but a poor trade on it, who fills his pockets at the price of his reputation.—Thus far Mr. Locke.

Altho' this recommendation of the exercise of manual trades to the gentry, by so great a man as Mr. Locke, seems to be intended only for health and recreation, yet I cannot help thinking but this remark may be extended still to a greater degree of public utility. For, if the British nobles and gentry were, from their infancy, habituated to the manual exercise of any manufacture, and thereby became so far experimentally knowing in it's nature and operation, as to have a distinct idea of each part, and thence be capable of forming a good judgment of the whole thereof: if our people of distinction in general should, by this means, obtain a relish to pry deeply into the practical nature of the various manufactural and mechanic arts, and, to this recreative knowledge and salubrious exercise, they should add the political study of the commercial and money affairs of the state; is it not reasonable to conceive, that the conjunctive wisdom of the representatives of the nation, in general, could never be liable to deceit and imposition by any distinct order of manufacturers, in opposition to the interest of the whole? Among a numerous gentry, if this once becomes fashionable, there would arise tastes for the exercise of different manual trades and arts; and, from their united knowledge, they would discern not only the true interest of every distinct branch, but the connection and dependency of each upon the other, and be thereby capacitated to judge of the real benefit of the whole, without detriment to any peculiar part: committees of the honourable house of commons would be capable of so prying into the nature of all trades, and every branch of commerce, foreign as well as domestic, that it would be scarce possible to be deceived by those who consulted their own advantage, in opposition to that of the community. Would not manual exercises of this kind tend more to the interest and glory of the nation, as well as the benefit of individuals, than that

itch of gaming which so unhappily prevails, for want of more rational amusements, which contribute to invigorate the body, and instruct the mind in useful practical arts?

Would it not be more honour for a gentleman in parliament to be able to say, when any thing in relation to the woollen, linen, silken, &c. manufactures, came before that great assembly, that I have exercised myself at the loom, and made several pieces of woollen or linen cloth, and silk, &c. and I know the management of the wool from the fleece, and the flax from the seed, and the silk from the worm; and, therefore, in what such manufacturers represent to the house is false and impositions in such respects, &c.—Would not, I say, this redound infinitely more to the glory of such a gentleman, than to have the reputation of the keenest gamester, or the boldest fox-hunter?

Throughout several parts of this work we have shewn the usefulness of many branches of experimental philosophy to the interests of land and trade; and, as gentlemen stand in need of exercise and amusement, here also is another scene, which will for ever delight and inform; a scene that will administer endless improvement to all the manufactural and mechanic arts.

But, lest some persons of honour and quality should still remain unconvinced from what we have already urged throughout this work, in relation to the reciprocal dependency between the interest of land and trade, it may be useful to give a further idea of the national advantages arising from the manufactural arts.

It would certainly be worth the while of any gentleman to understand the whole progress of a manufacture, from it's commencement to it's consumption, and how much it pays to the subsistence of the people. This appears from the supposition of 100 broad cloths sent to Turkey, and the returns of raw silk, that are manufactured for our own consumption, which is as follows:

Suppose a clothier buys at market 50 packs of wool, picked and sorted, at 10l. per pack	l. s. d.
With which wool he makes 100 broad cloths; and the manufacture thereof, in carding, spinning, weaving, milling, dressing, &c. as they are usually brought to, and sold white at Blackwell-Hall, will amount to about the first cost of the wool	500 — —

So that these 100 cloths are sold by the clothier to the merchant at 10l. per cloth	1000 — —
And the merchant pays for dyeing of the said 100 cloths, $\frac{1}{3}$ part in grain colours, at 7l. and two-thirds in ordinary colours, at 30s. per cloth	333 6 8
Also, for setting, drawing, pressing, packing, &c. 15s. per cloth	75 — —

The said 100 cloths will cost the merchant 14l. 1s. 8d. per cloth on board, which amounts to	1408 6 8
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And, to repay him their cost and charges here, and their charges abroad, with a bare allowance for insurance, and the interest of his money, they cannot purchase less, I should think, than 22 great pounds of sherrabfee (or Persia fine raw silk) for every cloth.

Thus he probably receives, for the said 100 cloths, 2200 pounds weight of the said raw silk.

Now, if the half-part of this silk is wrought up into plain coloured tabbies, the manufacturers will receive 13s. 7d. per lb.	747 1 8
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And, if the other half-part is wrought up into rich flowered silks brocaded, the manufacturers will receive 11. 19s. 9d. per lb.	2186 5 —
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And the additional charge of dyeing, suppose but of $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the said silk, into grain colours, at 9s. per lb.	123 15 —
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Then the cost and charges of 100 woollen cloths, shipped from London to Turkey, and the manufacture of the raw silk, brought from thence in return thereof, must amount to	4465 8 4
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The freight of the said 100 cloths, and of the said 2200lb. of raw silk, is computed at	40 12 6
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Customs on the said 2200lb. of raw silk, at	156 15 —
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English factor's commission abroad on the sale of the cloth, and on investing the returns in silk as aforesaid, computed at	100 — —
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It is here clearly represented to the view of the reader, that every 2200lb. weight of raw silk imported from Turkey, and manufac-

tured here for our consumption, without paying any thing to the merchant's or mercer's gain, pays to the landholders, the labourers, and the crown, the sum of — — 4762 15 10

If any thing is to be added for the merchant's and the mercer's gain (and we may depend upon it they will not be at the trouble of driving their trades for nothing) we may very well affirm that the whole cost of this manufacture for consumption cannot be less than 5000l. so that 2200 pounds weight of Turkey raw silk, manufactured here, pays the sum of 5000l. to the subsistence of our own people.

This account takes the return upon 100 cloths exported to Turkey, and makes them pay 5000l. to the subsistence of our people; but we have heretofore exported annually two hundred times as many cloths for Turkey, and received, for about half that quantity of cloth, the same kind of returns in raw silk for our own consumption; and, consequently, our own consumption of Turkey silk paid for the subsistence of our own people the sum of 500,000l. per annum, besides what is paid by the other half of that trade.

But if the consumption of 5000l. value of Turkey silk manufactured pays 5000l. to the landed interest, for the wool that is exported to Turkey in manufacture, then the annual consumption of 500,000l. value of that silk must pay 50,000l. per annum to the landed interest.

And yet this is not all that the landed interest might receive annually by means of this half-part of the Turkey trade; the crown and the subjects, who receive nine times as much for customs and labour, pay, perhaps, a ninth part of what they receive to the landed interest for cloaths and provisions; by which means the consumption of Turkey silk manufactured in England, either directly or indirectly, pays a fifth part of it's whole value to the landed interest; that is, it pays directly one tenth part of the value of the silk by the woollen manufacture exported, and as much more by enabling the people to purchase necessary cloaths and provisions, of which as much more is paid to the landed interest.

It will be objected here, that the 10l. above-mentioned upon a pack of wool is not paid to the landed interest, since a part of it is paid to the shepherd's wages, and a part to the labour of picking and sorting this wool.

It is very true: but then, considering how much of the product of the lands is exported to purchase dyeing goods, and especially cocheneal, for our purchasing of which with English manufactures, the tenth part of the price of the whole silk manufacture may be very well said to be paid for the product to the landed interest.

But what a condition would the lands be in, if it were not for this trade and manufacture? It is evident, that, of every 5000l. value of manufacture from Turkey silk, 500l. is paid for the manufacturing of the English wool that is sent abroad, 333l. 6s. 8d. to the charge and labour of dyeing, 75l. to other labour bestowed on that manufacture, 747l. 1s. 8d. for manufacturing one half of our returns, and 2186l. 5s. of the other, besides 123l. 15s. for dyeing the same in grain colours; add to this the freight of 40l. 12s. 6d. besides the charges to factors abroad, and merchants and mercers at home; and it will appear that near 4000 of every 5000l. value, or that near 400,000 of every 500,000l. value of Turkey silk wrought in England, is paid to the labour of the manufactures and others bestowed upon it.

Now what shall the people do for subsistence, when they are deprived of this 400,000l.? Certainly they must come to the parish and the lands for a maintenance. We are obliged, therefore, to this part of the Turkey trade, this which imports raw silk from that country, that it has payed formerly 100,000l. per annum to our lands, and saved them from maintaining as many people as are now subsisted, at their own charge, to the value of 400,000l. per annum. I think this is enough to shew, that the TURKEY TRADE ought to be the care of every gentleman in England.

Further REMARKS.

The improvement of practical arts and manufactures does greatly depend on the judgment and ingenuity of artizans and manufacturers themselves; I mean, chiefly upon those who are at the head of any manufacture; for the fancies of mankind are soon tired with the same fashion; artists and manufacturers, therefore, must ever be upon the wing of invention: our neighbour nation, we know, is famous for being the grand parent of all modes and fashions in dress, furniture, and almost every thing else. From hence they seem to derive a sort of dominion, in this respect, over the whole world, the consequence of which may, one day, give them the dominion in commerce; for that nation which shall carry the newest and most ornamental modes to foreign countries, in their manufactural and mechanic trafficable inventions, will, at length, carry away the trade.—If our British manufacturers will plod merely in their old-fashioned roads, while our competitors are daily striking into such new ones as please the general taste more, will not the trade of the one gradually grow out of date, whilst that of the other is ever growing young and flourishing?

We are surprized that French fashions should be so prevalent in England, as well as all Europe. Is not this a sign that they have, some-how and by some means, obtained the knack of gaining an ascendancy, in this respect, over all other nations? Our British manufacturers, and other well-meaning Britons, may blame the taste of the world herein, and may be so fond of their own modes, 'till they may only keep them within themselves, and thereby lose all their foreign traffic. The taste of the world must be pleased, and our artists must follow that taste, or the traffic will insensibly leave them.—We may boast of our being the old shop for the woollen manufacture, but the French have cut us out with their new one; we may value ourselves upon the substance, strength, and excellency of our manufactures, but, if foreign nations like rather the slight and tawdry than what we call the solid and substantial, the substance will be converted into shadow, and the shadow into substance: I mean, in plain English, the French slight and showy manufactures, which can be had for two-thirds, perhaps, of the expence of what the English call their solid and substantial, will become the substantial commodities, and the solid the shadowy; for, in this sense, I term that manufacture the substantial, which sells the more universally.

It is not my intention to insinuate any thing to the disparagement of our British manufactories in general, or to depreciate the skill and ingenuity of our artists: on the contrary, I am persuaded their labours, in general, are rather superior, than otherwise, to any nation whatever.—All that I would mean to signify is, that I have observed an over-fondness in our manufacturers to stick too tenaciously to one and the same form of fabrics, whereby they lose the trade, while our rivals, who pursue the contrary measures, gain it out of their hands.—This I take to be the true state of the case; and, therefore, may deserve the most serious attention of the public.

Throughout the course of this work I have shewn, from numerous instances, founded on FACT and REALITY, the wise and vigilant measures that have been, for above half a century, and still are steadily taken, by our most dangerous trading competitor, to bring every branch of their mechanic and manufactural arts to the last perfection.—This is done by bringing up every class of their practical artists to excel in their respective employments.—None are admitted to the freedom of any of their trading corporations, without the actual performance of a master-piece of workmanship, in the real presence of a number of jurats, solemnly sworn for that purpose. See the article CANDIDATE. See also the various manufactural trades and arts described in this performance.—The servitude of their apprentices to the arts and manufactures is longer, and better regulated, than that of other countries.—See the article APPRENTICE.—The art of DESIGNING, which highly tends to the improvement of our capital manufactures, has been long publicly encouraged in FRANCE, and shamefully neglected in England. See the article DESIGN, and the article ENGRAVING.—In short, the men of learning in France have, within these few years, greatly turned their studies to the improvement of the old, and invention of new arts and trades, thinking the value of their old-fashioned studies of infinite less use to their country than what they have adopted.—To such a degree is this spirit now arrived in that kingdom, that, by late accounts from thence, we are informed that they have begun to set on foot SOCIETIES FOR THE PERFECTING OF TRADES AND MANUFACTURES, EXCLUSIVE OF THEIR SEVERAL ACADEMIES, IN HOPES THE FORMER MAY HAVE AS APPARENT AN EFFECT IN PROMOTING THE MECHANIC AND MANUFACTURAL SKILL AND INDUSTRY, AS THE LATTER HAVE VISIBLY CONTRIBUTED TO PROMOTE TRUE SCIENCE, AND A SPIRIT OF ENQUIRY. Would it be any discredit to copy MODES of this kind from our neighbours?

So unspeakably great are the advantages arising to commercial states from manufactures, that it is not to be admired those states should endeavour to decoy the subjects of such importance from each other. Nor will the most rigorous laws and severest penalties prevent it; there seem to be but two things which will prove effectual to this purpose: the one is, a love that such people must have to their native country; the other is, to live comfortably and get money.

In regard to the former of these, nothing can be more conducive thereto than the wisdom of our constitution, both in church and state; yet experience shews that alone will not do; for men will sooner live prosperously under the worst government, than they will starve under the best. The great point, therefore, is to advance our commerce, that they may all live well, and their families prosper, so that we may have a constant race and succession of the most experienced and adroit artists of this kind.

As so much depends upon the art and ingenuity of this class of people, should any wise measure tending thereto be neglected? With respect to apprentices in this employment, we have shewn, throughout this work, what other nations do; but the ordinary methods taken by us, in relation to this great point, are nothing like so wisely calculated to render them ingenious.—Nor, when they are out of this juvenile

state of servitude, the methods taken by us to know, whether they have well or ill spent their time, are not so well adapted as those of our competitors, which we have repeatedly shewn. How, therefore, can we but expect that our own artists should decline in ingenuity, while those of our rival nation are advancing.—This is the case of our common laborious working manufacturers and artizans, when comparatively considered with those of France.—And, in regard to the principal undertakers and conductors of our capital manufactures, who find the fortunes wherewith to carry them on, and who are, or should be, the great instruments to improve our old manufactures, as well as to strike out such new that will hit the taste of foreign countries, they have met with no encouragement in this kingdom like unto what they have met with in France, as hath been made appear in variety of instances.

People are convinced now, that the chief states of Europe are striving for the dominion in commerce; knowing, if they once obtain that, they cannot want the like in empire. And, since it is self-apparent, that the superiority and dominion in commerce so materially depends on our manufactural arts, does it not nearly concern the constant prosperity and happiness of these kingdoms, to think of every measure that may contribute to the advancement of those important arts amongst us?

In the management of the more estimable manufactures, there is required not only an extraordinary dexterity, care, and ingenuity, on the part of the common workmen, to execute their respective parts to the necessary perfection; but there is required also, in the principal undertakers and managers of such manufactures, a judgment and sagacity requisite to conduct and controul every distinct part, in order that the whole may turn to profit and honour.

Too many, perhaps, may imagine, that the meanest capacity and the most awkward wretches are equal to the working and laborious part of our manufactures, and therefore that the ordinary methods whereby those persons are trained up from their infancy, are adequate to their employment. I cannot help differing from such who think so. Where great agility and dexterity of limbs are required in a manufacture, the stature, make, and disposition of youth, should be taken into consideration, in order that a right judgment might be made, whether he is formed by nature for the employment intended. The human species differ as much among themselves as the brute creation; the horse that is fitted by nature for the race or the saddle, will not do for the coach, the waggon, or the plough, &c.

Those children who are brought up at the public expence, either in charity-schools or hospitals, &c. are so much the children of the public, that they have a right to dispose of them. And, as the nation stands in need of a constant supply of the manufactural and mechanical artists, the public have a right to bring up these children who are maintained by charitable benefaction, in such a manner as they shall judge proper, in order to render these children the more skilful and ingenious in those arts. Wherefore, in regard hereunto, the following queries are submitted, viz.

1. Whether the education of the children of the poor, who are maintained by public charity, does not require a general reformation, to the end that they may become more ingenious in the mechanical and manufactural arts, than their present manner of bringing up will admit of?
2. Whether such children of the public should not be duly classed out, from their make and genius, at a suitable age, by proper governors, inspectors, and directors of parishes, &c. and apprenticed out to such manufactural and mechanic business, as they may prove the most fitted for by nature?
3. Whether the sooner they are brought to practise those manual trades, that do not require strength beyond their years or their natural make, the nation is not likely to have a more dextrous and ingenious race of working manufacturers, &c.?
4. Whether such schools should not be constituted, by LAW, WORKING SCHOOLS, and that only two hours of their time in the day should be allotted to learn to read and write, &c.?
5. Whether it may not be expedient to think of proper ways and means to excite an emulation among these manufactural children, to excel in their respective manual trades?
6. Whether those children, being apprenticed out to master-manufacturers 'till they are 24 years of age, might not somewhat contribute to enable our manufacturers so to lower the price of their goods, that the nation might not sustain such injury as we do, from other countries underselling us?
7. Whether master-manufacturers should not be allowed a certain number of those children for apprentices, and no more; and whether those trades, that are in the most declining condition, should not be entitled to more of these children as apprentices, than those which are in a pretty flourishing condition?
8. Whether infant children at two years of age, whose parents cannot maintain them, and therefore are willing to resign them to the public to be brought up to some honest manufacture, should not be duly provided for by the public for that

that purpose; and whether such measures would not prevent many infant children being brought up by their distressed parents, in a scene of theft and iniquity; and whether this would not be making such a useful and happy provision for poor children, as to lay the axe to the root of those immoralities, which might otherwise grow up with them, from the bad example of their parents?

9. Whether it would not greatly conduce to encourage these youths, to excel in their peculiar manual arts, provided they were entitled, after the expiration of their apprenticeship, to a certain premium, proportionate to their ingenuity and good behaviour in their master's service?

If, from the preceding, or such-like measures, the kingdom should be always well supplied with a succession of adroit and ingenious working manufacturers, the master-manufacturers and undertakers will never want hands to execute their most delicate inventions, which will greatly contribute to the national improvement of these arts; for, if those upon whom the inventive arts depend, cannot have a number of proper workmen to execute what they contrive, it is a discouragement to invention.

The next matter that naturally falls under consideration, according to this train of thinking, is, how, and in what manner, the inventive faculty of our master-manufacturers may be so assisted, as to design such a perpetual series of new modes and fashions in their fabrics, as may scarce ever fail to hit the taste of foreign nations.

Having dwelt so long upon this head already, for brevity's sake, what I have further to suggest, may be best done by a few short general propositions.

1. That, in order constantly to please the taste of foreign countries in our British manufactures, it is necessary to consult the climate, the disposition, and way of thinking and judging of the several ranks of people in such countries, what manufacturers they supply themselves with, and what they generally import from other nations.

2. Of these particulars our master-manufacturers should not only inform themselves by reading the best accounts we have of these things, but should consult and advise with our merchants; and, before they put themselves to too great an expence in their inventions, to get such merchants to send over patterns of their new improvements to such foreign countries, in order to have the opinion thereon of the foreign merchants and tradesmen in such countries.

3. That various foreign markets be thus tried with one and the same improved manufactures: for what will suit one, frequently will many.

4. That our master-manufacturers constantly obtain of our merchants, from foreign countries, the patterns of such manufacture as are sent by France, or any other foreign nation, and sell well in other countries, and the price which our merchant exporters can afford to give our master-manufacturers for such goods.

5. That our master-manufacturers think of every kind of materials which the earth, or the brute creation, affords, whereby they might chiefly improve any sort of our old manufactures, or by means thereof might invent any new kind.

6. That our master-manufacturers, from having all sorts of such-like materials always before them, may think of the most natural, cheap, and elegant methods of compounding and working divers materials together, so as always to afford some new improvement.

7. That they make constant enquiry after various sorts of foreign materials, and obtain such small samples of them, as may be compounded and worked strongly and beautifully with some of our own materials, or with our own and the materials of several foreign countries, &c.

8. That our master-manufacturers gain a knowledge of any new invented looms, or other machines, or any kind of inventions, which are used in foreign countries, whereby they make such fabrics that please the taste of foreign nations better than the present British.

9. That, in order to obtain such knowledge, the master-manufacturers concerned in the same branches contribute by a joint purse, to send deputies over to any foreign country, either some one or more of their own body, with intent to get a thorough knowledge of such new invented looms, machines, &c.—Or, that they send a person abroad for that purpose, who is well skilled in mechanics, so as they may be able to bring away such new invention into their own country.

10. That, as some peculiar improvement in divers sorts of fabrics of wool, silk, velvet, tapestry, &c. may frequently depend on new invented machines, &c. it seems necessary that our master-manufacturers should endeavour so to inform themselves of the principles of mechanical powers, as to be able to think for themselves, in what manner any improvements in their fabrics might be made, by means of such new invented looms, machines, &c.—Or, when they have designed any new invention in their mind, which they cannot execute, by means of their ordinary looms and machines, such manufacturers, if they cannot themselves invent a machine suitable to the occasion, should apply to some able practical mechanic, or consult some skilful mathematician, who

may have more particularly turned himself to mechanical inventions, &c.

11. That our master-manufacturers be bred up regularly to the art of DESIGNING; more particularly those in the silk, linen, velvet, and tapestry, &c. fabrics, which will greatly help their invention with what may please the fancies of foreigners. See the articles DESIGN and ENGRAVING.

12. That public rewards be given to all such, although they are not manufacturers, who shall make any capital improvements in any of the old British fabrics which are exported to foreign markets, or shall invent any new ones for the benefit of exportation.

13. That all British master-manufacturers endeavour, to their utmost, to keep their capital discoveries as much as they can a secret from foreigners, who may send their spies over to obtain a knowledge of them.

For more matter that has consonancy herewith, see the several articles referred to at the beginning of this article.

An abstract of an act of parliament for the effectual punishing of persons convicted of seducing artificers in the manufactures of Great-Britain or Ireland, out of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain; and to prevent the exportation of utensils made use of in the woollen and silk manufactures from Great-Britain or Ireland, into foreign parts, and for the more easy and speedy determination of appeals, allowed by another act relating to persons employed in the same manufactures therein mentioned. 23 Geo. II.

Whereas by an act of the 5th of Geo. I. intituled, An act to prevent the inconveniencies arising from seducing artificers in the manufactures of Great-Britain into foreign parts, it is enacted, That if any person or persons shall contract with, or endeavour to entice, any manufacturer or artificer of or in wool, iron, steel, brass, or any other metal, clock-maker, watch-maker, or any other artificer or manufacturer of Great-Britain, to go out of this kingdom, into any foreign country out of his majesty's dominions, and shall be lawfully convicted thereof, in the manner prescribed by the said act, the person or persons, so convicted, shall be fined any sum not exceeding 100l. for such first offence, &c. and shall be imprisoned for the space of three months, 'till such fine shall be paid.—And, if any person or persons, having been once convicted as aforesaid, shall offend again, and be so convicted a second time of the like offence, in such case, the person, so convicted a second time, shall be fined at the discretion of the court, and shall be imprisoned for twelve months, 'till such fine be paid.—And whereas, notwithstanding the penalties to which offenders against the said act are thereby subjected, divers wicked persons have of late seduced into foreign parts several artificers in the woollen and other manufactures; and it is become necessary to make some more effectual provision to prevent evils so destructive to the trade of this kingdom, &c. Therefore, for preventing the said pernicious practice for the future, &c. be it enacted, &c. That if, at any time after the 24th of June 1750, any person or persons shall contract with, entice, persuade, or endeavour to persuade, solicit, or seduce any manufacturer or artificer, of or in wool, mohair, cotton, or silk, or of or in any manufactures made of wool, mohair, cotton, or silk, or any of the said materials mixed one with another, or of or in iron, steel, brass, or any other metal, or any clock-maker, watch-maker, or any other manufacturer, workman, or artificer, of or in any other of the manufactures of Great-Britain or Ireland, of what nature or kind soever, to go out of this kingdom, or out of the kingdom of Ireland, into any foreign country, not within the dominions of, or belonging to, the crown of Great-Britain, and shall be lawfully convicted thereof, &c. the person or persons so convicted shall, for every artificer, workman, or manufacturer, so by him, her, or them, respectively contracted with, enticed, persuaded, solicited, or seduced, severally forfeit the sum of 500l. and shall suffer imprisonment for 12 calendar months without bail or mainprize, and until such forfeiture shall be paid.—And, for a second offence, they shall forfeit 1000l. and be imprisoned for two years.—Prosecution to be commenced within twelve months after the offence committed.

Persons, exporting the utensils made use of in the woollen and silk manufactures from Great-Britain or Ireland into foreign parts, shall forfeit the tools and 200l. penalty.

Officers of the customs and revenue impowered to seize all such tools as shall be found on board ships bound to foreign parts, and the same to be sold after condemnation, and the produce to go to the king and the officer. Captains of vessels, permitting such utensils to be put on board, to forfeit 100l. Captains of his majesty's ships to forfeit 100l. and to be cashiered.

Officers of the custom-house, signing cockets, &c. for the exporting of such tools to forfeit 100l. and his employment. One moiety of the forfeitures to go to the king, the other to the prosecutor.

Prosecutions to commence within six months after the fact committed, and the person so sued may file common bail, and

plead the general issue.—And, if found not guilty, may give this act, and the special matter in evidence.—If the prosecutor become nonsuit, &c. the defendant shall recover treble costs.

MANURE for land. The matters used for this purpose are various, as well in different countries, as in different parts of the same countries. The most ordinary are dung, lime, marle, and peat, sea-shells, such as those of cockles, periwinkles; all which must be applied according to the quality of the soil.

R E M A R K S.

The temperaments of earth in general may be distinguished into three classes, sand, loam, and clay. Sand is a collection of solid, stony, and loose particles, and scarce capable of cohesion alone. The parts of this earth, in proportion to their enlargement and variation from a globular figure, are gradually changed into gravel, or a couch of pebbles. These different stony soils are capable of receiving water, oil, salts, fire, air, and all the principles of vegetation into their interstices; but can never retain them for any considerable time, since the nutrimental mixtures slide through the vacuities as easily as they at first filled them. To prepare this kind of land for cultivation, it must be properly tempered with a suitable loam, clay, or marle.

Pure earth is a mass of little clods, extremely fine, and qualified for an immediate conjunction with each other, and for continuing imbedded in that manner. When the earth is very compact, and its constituent particulars are not separated by any cavities, it forms soils of clay, marle, or chalk, which retain the juices they receive, but are not very tractable to the impressions of water, heat, or air. The fibres of plants can hardly penetrate these soils, and their culture is rendered very difficult; but, if these are duly mixed with a sand that will keep them suitably open, they may be profitably cultivated.

Loam, or that earth which is a medium between sand and clay, is a powder which partakes of the pliancy of sand and the consistency of pure earth, and may be called a composition of minute supple masses, something spongy in their nature, and easily disunited by labour. They readily open to the influences of the air, and are very retentive of what they receive. Plants can shoot their fibres into this soil without obstruction, and are accommodated with a copious nutriment.

The just temperament of the soil, which we call loam, is manifest by the pliancy of the parts that compose it, and by the vigour of its productions. But we too often meet with a disproportion in its qualities, and this earth of an intermediate nature may be sandy in several degrees, without being sand itself; or it may resemble marle, without having any real intermixture of that substance.

When a soil is either too lean or compact, they are corrected with variety of manures, according to the intention. Horse-dung, which is light and dry, is laid to advantage on a soil of mould, where little clods are apt to imbody with each other; and an intermixture of cow-dung, which is fat and binding, is appropriated to a sandy soil. By these expedients consistence is given to the one, and rarefaction to the other, which is a judicious and profitable proceeding.

The more industrious have recourse to a method still more efficacious and durable in its effects, since it strikes at the cause of the evil. They open the ground to a certain depth, either in their garden or some adjoining spot, and endeavour to find a bed of earth entirely different in its qualities from the land they would rectify. They intermix and thicken a dry and sandy soil with a proper quantity of mould, or at least with a marshy earth, which is frequently no more than a black and binding loam. But they open and disunite a marly earth, by mixing it with a large quantity either of river sand, or of that which is found in subterranean veins of gravel. When the earths are thus blended together, they are thrown into heaps, till the different ingredients have had time to incorporate in a proper manner. The beams of the sun, the winds and frosts, together with the constant action of the air, will complete the preparation of the whole, and we may then plant in a soil entirely new.

But, as we acquire knowledge by very imperfect steps and degrees, and may be easily deceived in the choice of a soil, which appeared to us sufficiently qualified to improve our own land; it will be prudent to make the first experiments on a small quantity of earth, till we are satisfied by very apparent success, that our endeavours to meliorate the whole will not prove ineffectual.

The essential particulars to be regarded are, your permitting the blended, or artificial sort, to be fallow, a year at least, before you begin to plant; and your compleating the mixture not in a parsimonious manner, but to the depth of three or four feet: otherwise, whatever you plant will inevitably perish, when their roots begin to penetrate into another vein of earth, which will wound them by its unpliant cohesion, or parch them up by its dryness.

If the soil be gross and difficult to be moved, or spongy to an extreme degree, your lands should be raised towards the

middle, and sunk at the extremities into suitable slopes; by which means the water that would otherwise chill your lands, were it to remain upon them too long, flows off towards the alleys, and may sink into such a drain, as will convey it to the ditch that bounds the fields.

Whatever may be the nature of the soil, we find an excellent effect from clearing the alleys, in the winter-season, of their snow, and throwing it on the beds, where fertility is greatly improved by this method.

Upon estates of any considerable size, where lands lie united, there are often variety of soils, and by a proper mixture and composition of the one with the other, according to the principles before laid down, the one sort of land or soil will contribute, in a great measure, to meliorate the other; so that, with due judgment, grounded upon repeated experimental trials, by small quantities, the proper manures for many lands very frequently lie contiguous to each other, and yet remain unknown to the proprietor or the farmer, for want of a competent knowledge in the proper mixture and compositions of earths, so as reciprocally to aid and assist each other; in order to make a compost soil, which will help to forward, expedite, and increase the general principle of fertility. But,

I fear there is one general mistake, in relation to the nature of manure, that runs through all our practical principles of agriculture; which is, that we are too apt to imagine that the great principle of fertility depends upon the application of certain kinds of gross matter to particular soils: whereas I humbly conceive, that all gross matter, as dung, lime, marle, or any other gross earth whatever, have not inherent and essential to them those great virtues which are generally imagined; but, by the admixture and incorporation of these sorts of earths with others, either to open or shut different soils, suitable to their respective qualities; such compositions of earths contribute to prepare soils only for the more effectual reception of the virtues of fertility; for those augmentative virtues of fertility may, perhaps, upon due experimental trials, be found to exist in the water, the air, the dew, snow, light, and fire; and that soils, or gross earths of any kind, are no more helpful to the great principle of vegetation than as a **MATRIX**, constantly to receive and nourish the incessant influence of fertility.

If then it shall appear, that the nature of vegetation in general, by repeated unerring experience, is grounded upon these plain and obvious principles, it may possibly open an extraordinary door for universal improvements in every branch of vegetation. For, if this be the real case, it will naturally lead us to the mixture of such sorts of earths as will necessarily tend either to loosen or shut others, so that the spongy principle may be the better promoted, in order to receive more copiously the influences of fertility that are inherent and essential to the water, the rain, the dew of heaven, as the sacred oracles of God stile it, light and fire, &c.

We are but too sensible that our reasonings about the wonderful and intricate operations of nature are so full of uncertainty, that, as the wise man truly observes, hardly do we guess aright at the things upon earth, and with labour do we find the things that are before us.

And this observation we find sufficiently verified in vegetable nature, whose abundant productions, though they are most visible and obvious to us, yet are we much in the dark about the nature of them; because the texture of the vessels of plants is so intricate and fine, that we can trace but few of them, though assisted with the best microscopes.

We find, by the chemical analysis of vegetables, that their substance is composed of sulphur, volatile salt, water, and earth; which principles are all endued with mutually attracting powers, and also a large portion of air, which has a wonderful property of strongly attracting in a fixed state, with a power which is superior to vast compressing forces; and it is by the infinite combinations, action, and reaction of these principles, that all the operations in animal, as well as vegetable bodies, are affected.

These short observations may excite to further researches of this nature, which is the chief end of introducing them in a work of this kind. See **AGRICULTURE, CHEMISTRY, EARTH, FARMING, HUSBANDRY.**

On the **MANURING** and **CULTIVATING** the **LANDS** of **GREAT-BRITAIN** and **IRELAND** in general, in order to render **LABOUR** and **COMMODITIES** cheap.

In order to introduce what I have further to say upon the manuring or cultivating of lands, which is, at present, a point arduously laboured in France, with a view to lessen the price of commodities in general, it may be proper to lay down and illustrate some principles relating to money, which may deserve to be regarded as maxims perhaps.

This, indeed, I intended to have done under the article **MONEY**; but, considering that it would not be so properly adapted to what I would urge in relation to lands, and also that I should have matter of a different kind to come under the head of **MONEY**; I judge, upon the whole, it will be best to come in here.

I. Money, i. e. gold and silver, being, by the consent of most nations, become counters for adjusting the value of all things else, and balancing accounts between man and man, and the means by which commodities of all kinds are procured and transferred from one to another, is hence become the sole medium of trade.

II. Money can be brought into a nation that hath no mines, by the means of trade only, i. e. by such nations exporting more goods in value than they import: for, in proportion as the value of the exports exceeds the value of the imports, money, which must balance the account, increaseth faster or slower [see the article *BALANCE OF TRADE*]; and, contrariwise, where the imports exceed the value of the exports, the cash of such nation must proportionably diminish: this is called, and doth constitute, the general balance of the trade of all nations that have not mines.

III. Money will be most plentiful where the mines are: as the quantity of coals will be greater at Newcastle, than at any place that is supplied only with coals from thence: and, consequently, I mean, that gold and silver will as certainly be less valuable where the mines are, than at any other place which is supplied by them with those metals.

IV. That the prices of the produce of manufactures of every nation will be higher or lower, according as the quantity of cash circulating in such nation is greater or less, in proportion to the number of people inhabiting such nation. See the article *CASH*.

To illustrate this, let it be supposed that we have ten millions of cash, and as many people in England; it is evident they have twice as much money amongst them, in proportion to their number, as they would have, if their number were doubled, and the quantity of cash remained just the same. And therefore I think, they could give but half the price for things in general in this case, that they could do when they were but half the number, with the same quantity of money circulating amongst them. Wherefore, if the people increase, and the cash doth not increase in like proportion, the prices of things must fall; for all the people must have necessaries, to procure which they must all have money: this will divide the same quantity of cash into more parts, that is, lessen the parts; and then it is evident they cannot pay so much for their necessaries, as when the same cash, divided into fewer parts, makes the parts greater.

The prices of all things in this kingdom, some centuries ago, were vastly lower than they are now. In the reign of king Henry VIII. it was enacted, that butchers should sell their meat by weight; beef at an halfpenny, and mutton at three farthings per pound: and, if we look back to the reign of king Edward III. we find wheat was sold at two shillings per quarter, a fat ox for a noble, a fat sheep for sixpence, six pigeons for a penny, a fat goose for two pence, a pig for a penny, and other things in proportion. See Baker's Chronicle.

Since the great difference of the prices of these things now, to what they then sold for, is undoubtedly owing to the great quantity of gold and silver, which since that time hath been brought into this kingdom by commerce, it follows, that the prices of things will certainly rise in every nation, as the gold and silver increase among the people; and, consequently, that, where the gold and silver decrease in any nation, the prices of all things must fall proportionably to such decrease of money, or the people must be distressed, unless the number of people decrease in as great proportion, as the cash decreaseth in any such nation.

V. Banking, so far as one is paid with the money of another, that is, where more cash notes are circulated, than all the cash the bankers are really possessed of will immediately answer; so long, we say, as this credit is maintained, it hath the same effect, as if there was so much more cash really circulating amongst the people, and will be attended with those consequences; that, as the price of things will hence be raised, it must and will make us the market, to receive the commodities of every country whose prices of things are cheaper than ours.

And, though we should lay on duties, or prohibit such goods, this will not prevent the mischief, because we shall not be able to carry our commodities thus raised to any nation, where things are cheaper than ours; and because such nations will hence be enabled to set up many of our manufactures, &c. and by their cheapness so interfere in our trade at all other foreign markets, as to turn the balance of trade against us, which will diminish the cash of the nation. The same thing must be understood of all public securities whatever, that operate as money amongst us.—This shews the ill effects to commerce of a large paper circulation, by means of our national debts, stocks, funds, duties, and taxes. See the articles *CIRCULATION*, *DEBTS* [NATIONAL DEBTS], *FUNDS*, *DUTIES*, *BUBBLES*, *TAXES*.

VI. The plenty or scarcity of any particular thing is the sole cause whence any commodity or thing can become higher or lower in price; or, in other words, as the demand is greater or less, in proportion to the quantity of any thing, so will such thing, whatsoever it is, be cheaper or dearer.

Nor can any arts or laws make this otherwise, any more than laws or arts can alter the nature of things.

VII. All things that are in the world, are the produce of the ground originally, and thence must all things be raised. The more land, therefore, shall be improved and cultivated, &c. the greater will the plenty of all things be, and the more people will it also employ. And, as the produce will hence be increased, so will the consumption of all things increase too; and, the greater the plenty becomes this way, the cheaper will every thing be.

And thus will money become plentiful, because less money will purchase everything, in just the same proportion as the plenty of every thing shall reduce the prices, by the increase of every thing in respect of the demand. And, if this method be sufficiently pursued, the plenty may be increased so much, as to make victuals and drink half the price that they are at now; which will make the price of the labour of working people much lower, for the rates of labour are always settled and constituted of the price of victuals and drink: and all manufactures will be vastly cheaper, for the value of all manufactures is chiefly constituted of the price or charge of the labour bestowed thereon. This therefore shews how to make money plentiful, viz.

First, By thus making the necessaries of life cheaper, to such a degree as shall be found effectual to reduce the present rates of labour, and thereby the price of every thing else so much, that the money, now circulating amongst the people, may extend a vast deal further than it now will do.

Secondly, We shall hence be enabled to make and export our manufactures at much lower prices, and this must needs cause us to export abundance more of them to those nations that now take them of us; besides, this will enable us to carry our produce, &c. further and cheaper, to induce other nations to take them of us, who now perhaps do not take any of our goods; whence the cash of the nation will certainly increase, by raising the value of our exports above the value of our imports; that is, the general balance of trade will thus be in our favour, or money will thus be made plentiful.

VIII. Plenty of money never fails to make trade flourish; because, where money is plentiful, the people in general are thereby enabled, and will not fail to be as much greater consumers of every thing, as such plenty of money can make them: therefore trade is always found to flourish, i. e. increase, as money grows more plentiful amongst the people. The year 1720 was a proof in fact of this maxim. And hence the revenue must needs increase likewise, if the duties are always levied on the things which the people consume and use.

IX. Where trade flourishes (we mean where the balance of trade is considerably in favour of any nation) there the people always increase greatly, and become generally happy, whence such nations ever grow potent and formidable. This hath always been found true in fact, and is almost self-evident.

X. It is the strength, honour, and interest of every government, that their subjects be as numerous, as the continent they govern will support in an happy condition; and, as the happiness (i. e. the riches) and numbers of the subjects are greater or less, so will the strength, honour, and revenue of every government be.

XI. A kingdom or state may have more people in it, than the land it contains can well support; that people therefore must be wretched, and that government weak, 'till so many of the poor people, as distress each other by their numbers, are removed where they can have land to support them. The case is the same exactly in every nation, where the land which is cultivated doth not afford enough to make all things very plentiful, for this alone can make people happy.

XII. The quantity of land to be further put to cultivation and tillage, must be so great, as to increase the plenty of every thing to such a degree, that the PRICE of every thing may by that plenty be so greatly lowered, that the rates of labour may also thereby be lowered, 'till MONEY thence come to be plentiful amongst the people in general. 'Till this end be answered, nothing material is effected, nor can trade be effectually enlarged abroad, or relieved at home: for the cultivation of land is the principal natural encouragement which trade can receive; because all things must first come out of the ground, and, according as the produce of the earth is more or less plentiful, so will the consumption of all things be greater or less; that is, so much more or less trade will there be amongst the people. On this the revenue of the nation doth so much depend, that the whole amount of it will be greater or less, as this is, or is not duly encouraged; besides, the same sums will effect more or less accordingly.

XIII. The cash of any nation will always decrease and become scarce, in proportion as the rents are raised, above what the plenty of money, circulating in trade amongst the people, will well enable them to pay; and, where there is not land enough cultivated to keep down the rents, and thereby, to remedy this mischief and support the people, it may go to such an extream, as to leave very little money in the nation. For, where rents are raised, every thing else must and will rise too: whence other nations will be able to supply

supply our market; and, as most of our commodities will hence become too dear to be taken by them in return, so we shall send much less of our goods to other foreign markets; whereby the balance of trade will turn against us, and draw off our money, as long we have any.

XIV. Rents have been advanced, from this principle, which alone can possibly raise the price of any thing, viz. a demand for farms, &c. in greater proportion than they were well to be had.

And, as this hath in a greater measure hindered the people from going on, as such demand for farms shews they naturally would, in cultivating more land as they increased in numbers, so that the surplus or increase of the people have been obliged to employ themselves in TRADES, MANUFACTURES, and PROFESSIONS, 'till they have so much overstocked and embarrassed all these, that their trades, &c. will not answer to support them, whilst at the same time the necessities of life, and rents have been greatly advanced, to what they were formerly.

This, therefore, must be remedied, or multitudes must be ruined: nor can the gentleman escape: for, if money becomes so scarce (as it certainly in a great measure is at present amongst the people) that the fruits of the earth will hardly bring money enough to support the farmers, and pay all charges exclusive of rent; as many gentlemen already find, who, on that account, are obliged to take their farms into their own management: this being the case, the gentlemen, we say, can fare no better than to become skilful industrious farmers themselves, and get their living by that means, 'till money, as it hath heretofore been, becomes plentiful enough to pay all charges, with a surplus to pay rent; which will be done, whenever the rents are lowered enough to make money plentiful amongst the trading part of the people, but not sooner.

XV. If all the gentlemen in the nation would lower their rents at the request of the people, this could not answer the end; because the demand for the fruits of the earth, which the land at present cultivated can produce, is, and will continue to be so great, if the people be not diminished, as necessarily to keep the price higher than the money circulating amongst them will well enable them to pay for; and because, until many more of the people are employed in cultivation, &c. to lessen the number of poor, and make greater plenty, all kinds of trade, manufactures, and professions, must needs continue so overstocked with numbers of people employed in them, as absolutely to spoil them all, as to the profits, which is the sole end of trade. Wherefore, the natural way to lower the rents, can only be, by putting such very great tracts of waste land into cultivation, as may make farms abound; which will lower and make the rents easy, and will employ the people, not in cultivation only, but in every kind of manufacture, trade, and calling. For all this will be the necessary consequence of cultivating such large tracts of waste land, as must be cultivated to make farms abound, and rents easy.

Sensible we are, that propositions of this kind, 'till they are thoroughly examined and scrutinized, will meet with objections at first from gentlemen of landed estates: since, say they, if the plenty of all productions of the land be so greatly increased, that the whole thereof should become a great deal cheaper than at present, the general rental of the kingdom must necessarily be lowered, in proportion thereto: we are so apprehensive of the temporary prevalence of this prejudice against what has been suggested on this head, that it may not be easily removed: but, supposing that the consequence of inclosing and cultivating great quantities of more lands, both in Great-Britain and Ireland, should occasion a fall in the general rental, we conceive it will not prove any real loss to the proprietors. For,

What has been urged is a weighty argument to shew, that the scarcity of money among the people will unavoidably disable the farmers to pay their rents. To this cause, which naturally lessens the consumption of all things, in proportion as the national cash grows scarcer, and thereby keeps the fruits of the earth from rising to a price, that might enable the farmers to pay their rents, it must be ascribed, that corn, &c. frequently scarce fetches money enough to pay all charges, exclusive of rent, and not to the plenty of corn, considered in itself. For, cheap as corn is, the number of poor, as most parishes find, is greatly increased of late years: this is apparent, from the numbers we are continually transporting, and the necessity of erecting workhouses for the poor, and the complaints of tradesmen all over the kingdom, which have been, and are very great, and very just. Now suppose corn, &c. considerably advanced, to enable the farmers to pay their rents, what must become of the trading part of the nation, who already, with justice, complain they can hardly get money to support themselves, at the present rates of things? And how much more would the poor and their calamities increase, by such a rise of necessities, together with the still greater decay of trade it must occasion; since, if the prices of things were to be advanced, the people in general, for want of money, must, if possible, be still less consumers, and consequently occasion

just so much less business amongst them, who have already much too little? Besides, it is always found that as trade lessens (or is divided amongst more particulars, which is much the same thing in effect) the profits of trade lessen in still greater proportion to the business transacted.

But to proceed: To shew that gentlemen will lose nothing by falling the rents, let it be supposed, that all the land in the kingdom were to be raised 20 l. per cent. per ann. since the land would bear no more corn, graze no more cattle, &c. than it now doth, must not the corn and cattle, &c. be considerably advanced? and must not the labourer, whose necessities must then cost more, have more for his labour? and must not timber to make carriages, and for every other use, cost more to fell and hew it, &c. and must not horses, to draw the fruits of the earth, &c. to market, be more valuable; and consequently carriage, and every manufacture cost more too? All things would certainly thus be raised, if money could be found to circulate them at such an advance. And then, since gentlemen are consumers, and must buy every thing as well as others at this advance, what would they be advantaged by receiving 20 per cent. per ann. more, and paying that at least, if not more, for what they want?

But if gentlemen should say, this would be so as to what they spend, yet what they save and lay up, would be more: for instance, Suppose a gentleman of 1000 l. per ann. now spends 500 l. and lays up 500 l. per ann. if estates were thus raised, he would at the same rate spend 600 l. and lay up 600 l. per ann. But how would he be the richer, since, the price of every thing being raised in like proportion at least, which is an unavoidable consequence, his 600 l. would purchase no more than 500 l. did before? Wherefore, gentlemen would, in this case, be not one jot advantaged.

If, therefore, rents should fall 30 per cent. per ann. every thing would certainly fall, in at least the same proportion; so that gentlemen would lose nothing but the name of so much per annum; which, I think, the argument above doth sufficiently evince. But, lest the name of losing so much per annum should be a prejudice, strong enough to prevent the execution of this so necessary proposal, let it be further considered, that empty houses, the number of which at present is very great, and will be greater still, if this method be not taken to fill them; I say, empty houses, if they can be filled, are real estates as well as land. Now, if money be thus made plentiful, as it certainly may, this plenty of money will soon make trade flourish; and a flourishing trade will soon enable the people to occupy more houses, and hereby the NUMBER OF PEOPLE likewise will soon be increased; so that landlords taken in their full extent*, including landlords of houses, as well as of land, will thus certainly be gainers, by falling their estates so much as shall be needful to make money plentiful, which will soon fill their houses.

* Dr. Nichols, in his Conference with a Theist, page 64, says, To consider farther, how mightily this nation of ours hath increased within a century or two; notwithstanding the many civil and external wars, and those vast drains of people that have been made into our plantations, since the discovery of America: how the city of London hath doubled itself within these forty years, notwithstanding the last great plague; and how the country hath increased, though not in the like, yet in a considerable proportion, &c.

But it may be said, if lands must fall 30 per cent. which is near a third, to fill the houses, and but an eighth, or a ninth of the number of houses, as I shall shew, remain to be filled; how are landlords, taken in the full sense of the word, including landlords of houses as well as of land, gainers? To which we answer, that the rents are now raised above their proper value; for the proper value of any thing is really no other than what the money circulating among the people will well enable them to pay; nor can any greater value be long supported, by any means whatsoever.

But it will be asked, How shall we know when the prices of things are at this proper value? I answer, that as the price of labour is always constituted of the price of necessities, and the price of all other things chiefly of the price of labour, whenever the price of necessities is such, that the labouring man's wages will not, suitably to his low rank and station as a labouring man, support such a family, as is commonly the lot of many of them to have, the price of necessities being then evidently so much too high, every thing else is so too, or then may the prices of things justly be said to be above this proper value.

But it will appear, perhaps, that gentlemen will be the richer for falling all the lands in the kingdom 20 or 30 per cent. per ann. provided this fall be effected only by the addition and cultivation of so much more land, as will make farms so plentiful, as to reduce the rents of lands to such degree. For,

If it shall appear that landed gentlemen would be the poorer, if all the lands in the kingdom were raised 20 per cent. per ann. it should seem the reverse must necessarily follow; i. e. that he would be the richer, if all the lands were fallen 20 or 30 per cent. per annum; that is to say, 70 or 80 l. would certainly

certainly purchase more, if all the lands were so fallen, than 100l. would do, if all the lands were so raised: which we shall endeavour to prove.

If all the lands were raised 20 per cent. per ann. it is certain they would not produce more, but, perhaps, less, than they now do, by putting it, in some degree, out of the farmer's power to exercise so much skill and be at so much expence to cultivate them, as they could do before the rents were so raised: we say, since the land could, however, produce no more than it now does, all the produce, whatever it consists of, must be sold, not only for all the 20 pounds more, but there must be profits likewise on all those 20 pounds to enable the farmers to buy whatever they want at higher prices; which every thing must needs be advanced to, from thus raising the produce; which, as it passes through every mechanical and manufactural hand, must still have proportionably increased profits on the thus raised prime cost, before it comes to the consumer; who, therefore, must thus certainly, in the end, not only pay all the advanced 20l. rent, but likewise the necessary profits thereon through all the several hands it must pass: and, since the price of labour [see the articles LABOUR and MANUFACTURERS] which adds the greatest value to every thing, must be enhanced also, it is manifest, the same quantity of produce must be dearer, by all the first advanced 20l. rent, and by suitable profits to all the several hands through which it must pass, together with a greater charge of labour thereon; whence it follows, that if the same quantity of produce must thus cost a great deal more, than all the 20l. rent, by which it was first enhanced, the parts must cost more too in such proportion; so that we need not scruple to assert, that 140l. could not, in this case, purchase what 100l. now doth: whence it appears, that gentlemen, who are consumers in common with others, would thus evidently be much the poorer for so raising their estates; and, therefore, it should seem an undeniable consequence, that they would be the richer by lowering their estates 20 or 30 per cent. per ann. since it must be equally certain, that 70 or 80l. would purchase more, in this case, than 100l. does at present; as it is certain 120l. in the other case, would not purchase so much as 100l. now does.

And this both accounts for, and verifies an observation, which some gentlemen make, and wonder at, viz. that they experience they cannot live so hospitably on the same estates as their ancestors did, who had vastly much less income from them, than their successors now have, who make this observation.

If therefore, gentlemen find themselves straitened, by raising rents above what the circulating money will enable them to pay, how great must the straits and difficulties prove which are brought on the people, out of whom such heavy rents are raised?

It may probably be objected, that this argument concludes too much; since, if 70l. will, in this case, purchase more than 120l. why will not nothing purchase more than something? To which it may be answered, There is a proper point, at which it will stop of itself, which is this: whenever the wages of the labouring man and price of necessaries are made so near equal, that he can, suitably to that low rank in life, maintain such a family as he, in common with all the human kind, may be presumed to raise: when the labouring man's wages will do this, the rent the lands will then bear, is that proper and fit rent, which will enable gentlemen to purchase more of every thing, than any larger rents can enable them to do: which may be proved thus:

Suppose the rents raised so much, as necessarily to carry the price of goods, to consumers in general, to higher rates than the money they can get will enable them to purchase what they really want; this will make a kind of unnatural plenty of goods, presenting themselves for buyers, who, though they really want them, cannot find money wherewith to purchase them, and therefore are compelled to abridge their necessary wants as much as they can: this depresses the value of those goods (which thus in the end must want buyers) below the rates which the rents have made necessary; and this will inevitably keep the produce of the land which the farmers bring to market so low, that they cannot make it answer to bear all charges, and pay their rents; whence gentlemen must find it difficult, if not impossible, to get their rents; whilst, at the time, whatever they buy, as hath been proved, will necessarily be dearer in a greater proportion, than ever the rents can be raised; whereby it seems plain, that such rents of land in general, as will nearest comport with the point above-mentioned, will always purchase most of every thing. There is yet another weighty argument to induce gentlemen to make money plentiful, by an annual additional culture of a due proportion of land; that is, a due regard to the happiness of their own families. For, let it be considered, that men come into this world to raise a new generation, and depart out of it. Now, the term of life, men will be found to have one with another, from the time of marriage to their death, is very little more than 20 years: in which time, one marriage with another, we may suppose, produces about four children, who live to man's estate: suppose a gentle-

man of 2000l. per ann. to make provision for his children, lays up 500l. per ann. which, in 20 years, will be 10,000l. saved for them, and which divided into four parts, including the widow's share, which must often happen, can be but 2500l. for each child's share: and, since this is not only much inferior to the estate it was saved out of, but hardly sufficient, viz. the interest thereof, to maintain a single person handsomely, most of the children must be introduced into trade, to improve their money for their families, or they will soon reduce it to nothing. If trade be languishing and distressed, it cannot be expected but many such will sink in the general difficulties trade lies under: wherefore, if there be any way practicable to make the money plentiful amongst the people in general, which never fails to make trade flourish, it ought to be done, not only from a common principle of affection to the public good, but for the particular benefit of every gentleman's own immediate offspring, many of whom are sure to be affected, as trade prospers or decays.

But the languishing condition of trade is by some ascribed to the luxury of people, concerning which let it be considered: It is expected of every man, that he provide for himself and family a support; but this expectation is unreasonable, if things are not so wisely constituted in their own nature, that every one may attain this end.

The ways men have to attain this support, are the exercise of their several occupations.

These arise solely out of the mutual wants, &c. of mankind. Children, who can do little or nothing towards supplying themselves, make about half the business of the world, since more than half the human race die under 17 years of age.

If the people must retrench in their expence, they must do some or all these things, viz. wear fewer and worse cloaths, &c. eat less and worse victuals, employ fewer or no servants, occupy less house-room, and use less light and fuel, and spend little or no money in any pleasure or diversion; and, instead of wine or strong beer, drink small beer or water, and avoid marriage, as many certainly do, because it creates a greater expence than they can support. Would not this lessen the consumption of every thing, and hinder many from supporting themselves and families, by making so much less business amongst the people, and thereby greatly increase the number of poor; who, if no other way be found to employ them, which tillage alone in this case can do, must become a much greater burthen than they are? Besides, where the poor increase, the profits of trade will be still more and more reduced, through losses, and want of trade, and the efforts of such great numbers of indigent people, as must be striving to support themselves in the reduced quantity of trade that remains. And must not the revenue be greatly diminished likewise, since in this case the consumption of things, on which the revenue entirely depends, must be lessened very much? A beggarly people can neither pay great taxes or great rents.

Instead, therefore, of urging the people to be less consumers, things should be made so plentiful, that they might be greater consumers, that trade and commerce might increase, and not diminish. Hereby luxury would find its natural and proper bounds, which, if any man transgressed in an extraordinary measure, he would be sufficiently whipped with his own rod.

Moreover, with respect to the nature of luxury, those that are not influenced by the natural motives to frugality, will not easily be restrained by any other whatsoever.

The natural motives to frugality are these, present provision for families, and fortunes for children.

They who neglect the former, must soon suffer want; and they who would provide for the latter, must consider what the term of life is, which they may reasonably hope for, and take care that their gains and expences are proportioned to the end designed.

As persons must, generally at least, have tolerable fortunes themselves, who shall be able to provide fortunes for their children, let it be supposed, that a man sets out with 2000l. and by skilful and prudent management he gains, one year with another, about 500l. If men who have such fortunes must not live a little decently, whence can trade, which entirely depends on, and terminates wholly in the consumption of things, arise? How can landlords expect any considerable rents for their houses, &c. and to pay rent and taxes, and all other charges, and maintain a middling family in London, with decency suitable to a reputable tradesman, when 250l. per ann. is nothing superfluous, even where all things are managed with great œconomy?

But suppose, in this case, such a man should lay up, one year with another, 200l. and that for 20 years, which is, I believe, much about the term men have to raise and provide for families, he then would add 4000l. to his first 2000l. which makes 6000l. together, to be divided amongst four children, which I take to be the number one marriage with another raises; this sum, therefore, will be but 1500l. for each child's share, if a like sum be reserved for the widow; and if there should be no widow, but 1500l. for each child, which will not often set them in better circumstances than their pa-

rents set out in: but, if things must be worse than this, families must soon sink into poverty. And, since these things are subject to many and great contingencies, nobody ought to think 25 l. per cent. per ann. even on such a capital employed in trade, too great gain; especially, considering what skill and pains are necessary to reach this end, and to what great risk money employed in trade is always exposed, beside the present and future provision with which families are to be supplied out of it.

Nothing ought to be deemed luxury in a tradesman, whilst he lives at about half the income of his business; yet in prudence he ought not to make too great a figure, because of the uncertain and fluctuating nature of trade, which may happen some time or other, by misfortune, if not otherwise, to turn against him; and because, the more he can lay up for his children, the more will he have done towards raising them to better stations in life.

Nor ought it to be deemed luxury in a tradesman if he spends the whole income of his business, if such expence be unavoidable, when the utmost frugality and good management are exercised in such a man's family.

Peace and plenty comprehend all the felicity mankind were designed to enjoy in this mortal state; and are so well known to constitute the happiness of the world, that they are proverbial terms to express the completest general felicity; which undoubtedly suggests, that they have by experience been found to answer the end.

Wherefore, if there be any difficulty among the people, it must be owing to the defect of one or both of these.

As we are now in peace, it must be owing to the deficiency of plenty that the trade of this nation is in such a languishing condition; the truth of which the numerous complaints to the parliament, and great number of empty houses, abundantly evince.

Where tillage and cultivation of land are not annually to a considerable degree increased, even peace, and the natural increase of mankind, do necessarily produce a general decay of trade.

For peace, which puts an end to the vast business which war necessarily creates, obliges those that were employed, and found their livelihood by the affairs of war, to employ themselves in the trade and business which the peaceable state of affairs produce; and, as hereby there is a much greater number of people to be subsisted on so much less business as the ending a war puts a period to, it is apparent this must divide the remaining business into a great many more parts; whence the profits, which ought to be so much augmented as the business to each particular becomes less (because the expence of living will not be less) are always found by experience to lessen, in a greater proportion than the business to each particular lessens. This is the inevitable consequence of having a greater number of people in any trade, where the business transacted by them all is no greater than when the same trade and business were in so much fewer hands; and hence ruin must happen to many whose trades are thus unhappily circumstanced.

Besides, peace, lowering the interest of money, brings many more people into trade, who either cannot live on the reduced interest of their money, or are not satisfied to do so, and, therefore, enter on trade to improve their money to better advantage; and such, having abundance of money to employ, must needs take a great deal of business from those that had it before, by doing business at much less profit than it was before done, that they may employ the large sums they bring into trade. This must needs make it very difficult for people of much less fortunes to get a living, greatly increase the number of poor, and empty the houses too, by disabling the people to pay such rents as they did before. This state of things will also drive many out of the nation, to get their livings by the arts they have learned here.

The heavy debts and taxes which war hath laid this nation under, sufficiently evince that war is not the natural means to make trade flourish, since the consequences are still so burthensome to us. And, if we look back to the condition France was reduced to by queen Anne's war, which introduced both famine and pestilence amongst them, and occasioned the people to surround the dauphin's coach in crowds, and cry out, Peace and bread! Bread and peace! Surely these things may fully convince us that war is a very great calamity.

Peace, therefore, being the only natural foundation of happiness to any nation, and trade the particular means whereby the people can be employed and subsisted, the promoting and improving trade should be always consulted, and especially in time of peace, which is favourable to such a design.

In general, there should never be any restraints of any kind on trade, nor any greater taxes than are absolutely unavoidable; for if any trade, by this means, be cramped and fettered, those who subsisted by the business, which now hath restraints and burthens laid upon it, will be rendered incapable of pursuing it, and, of consequence, they must be employed some other way, or drove out of the kingdom, or maintained at the public charge; which last is always an additional grievance, and ultimately falls upon trade, and should, if there

be any possible way which might employ them, be prevented.

That there are natural means to subsist all mankind in a happy condition, manifestly appears from the wisdom and goodness of the Supreme Being, who hath taken such ample care of all the creatures below us, that they want no good thing, nor suffer any hardships but what unreasonable men bring upon them. Wherefore, if the Almighty hath so wisely and graciously provided for all the creatures below us, for whose happiness other beings evidently appear to be designed, it must be absurd to imagine he hath disposed things so, that unhappiness in any degree should unavoidably arise to man, whom he hath placed at the head of all his works in this world. Therefore, whatever difficulties mankind meet with must be owing to their own mismanagement, in not looking through the nature of providence with respect to themselves.

One branch of that providence, which men should attend to and consider, is, that mankind as certainly increase as other animals and vegetables, and, therefore, that increase must continually be employed in cultivating proportionably more land: for otherwise, being all consumers, there must continually be greater numbers subsisted on the produce of the same land which was before cultivated; and this will increase the demand for the produce, and enhance the price of it, whilst the increasing people must employ themselves solely in trades, manufactures, &c. to enable them to subsist: whence it must needs come to pass, that trades, manufactures, &c. will soon be overstocked; that all the increase of the people cannot be subsisted this way, seeing the necessities of life, for which they all ultimately work, will all the while be growing dearer, and the people less able to purchase them. And, as I take this to be very much our present case, so this proposition of cultivating proportionably more land, appears to me to be one natural remedy to be applied; the happy effects of which, if sufficiently executed, will soon discover to be an universal benefit, notwithstanding any imaginary appearances to the contrary.

But I think it needful here to observe at what rate mankind increase, because their happiness certainly depends on cultivating still more and more land in such proportion. We will consider this matter upon the principles of Sir William Petty, who has endeavoured to shew that mankind will absolutely double themselves in 360 years, notwithstanding the contingency of wars and plagues; therefore, accordingly, the quantity of land which every year should be taken in and new cultivated, must be at least a 360th part of the quantity at present in cultivation.

Now, if England be 320 miles long, and 290 miles wide, it must, supposing it's length and breadth to be every-where alike, contain 92,800 square miles: but, as England is not so regular a figure, I suppose it will be needful to deduct a third of it's contents for it's irregularity, towns, and rivers, and then there will be about 62,000 square miles contained in it.

Suppose that at present but about half, that is, 31,000 square miles, are cultivated, a 360th part of that, viz. 86 square miles at least, should every year be further added, and taken into cultivation, to hold proportion to the natural increase of mankind: and if a greater part of England be already improved than I have supposed, or if mankind increase much faster than Sir William Petty above asserts, then the addition every year must be greater in such proportion.

But, as nothing like this hath hitherto been done, it is evident to demonstration that hence all trades, occupations, manufactures, and professions, are overstocked with numbers, and embarrassed: and hence rents have been advanced, by the demand which the increase of people hath occasioned for land; consequently living is become much more chargeable than formerly, and the people less able to support themselves: besides, the enhancing the price of necessities hath either advanced our commodities, or made them so much worse in quality, that our neighbour-nations have not taken so many of them as they would otherwise have done; and we probably must have taken more commodities from them for this reason. And thus, it is to be feared, that the general balance of trade and money is against us; that is, the gold and silver of this nation have, by this means, been really diminished, notwithstanding the great increase of paper credit and circulation; and the prodigious exportation of gold and silver, of late years, is a strong indication of it, whatever pretences may be advanced concerning it to the contrary.

And, if our trade goes on so, and our competitors, more or less, supplant us therein, we shall, in time, lose our real cash, and be obliged to carry on our business with paper currency only.

But if, to prevent these evils, we do, as fast as possible, put a very great quantity of land into cultivation more than at present is cultivated, our poor will be employed, the empty houses filled, and our manufactures become much cheaper and better; and this will both increase our exportations to the nations we now trade with, and give rise to other foreign markets to vend our goods at, and prevent the excessive importation of foreign goods amongst ourselves: by which policy,

licy, the general balance of commerce will not only be turned in our favour, pro tempore, but, in conjunction with the other measures we have submitted throughout this work, the same may always be kept so, and money thereby become plentiful enough amongst the people in general, and their happiness be increased in proportion to their steady pursuit of such honest and industrious measures: and, perhaps, there is no other way in nature to compass this end, and effectually to recover the trade of the nation: for those nations that can work cheapest, must have the money, so certain as they always will have the commerce; to which I will add, that the people will always flow into those nations that get the money (i. e. have the general balance of trade in their favour) because trade, which is the means of procuring money and landed estates, is that which employs and subsists them.

And it may deserve consideration, whether these measures, steadily backed and forwarded by such others which we have occasionally submitted, may not prove a more effectual way than some that have been proposed, so to multiply our own people, without giving any disgust or uneasiness to the native-born subjects, that we may have as little scarcity as dearth of labour among ourselves.

And as to the purchase of estates, which is always governed by the interest of money, they will be valued at as many years purchase as they would, if the annual rental had not fallen; and, though the sums they sell for must be less in proportion as the rents shall be lowered, yet the money will have, at least, all the same effects apply it how you please.

The great number of empty houses within the cities of London and Westminster, and places within the bills of mortality*, will certainly, in time, be attended with reducing the rents, perhaps, full one half, if the methods proposed be not applied to prevent it.

* By the bills of mortality of the year 1730, which, by the preceding and succeeding years, appears to be a moderate year, there died in London and Westminster, and the suburbs thereof,

	Persons.	The medium of which age is	One year makes amongst them	Years.
Under 2 years old	10,368	13,908		10,368
Between 2 and 5	2,448	under 10	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	8,568
5 10	1,092	years	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8,190
10 20	901		15	13,515
20 30	2,048		25	51,100
30 40	2,471		35	86,485
40 50	2,373		45	106,785
50 60	1,713		55	94,215
60 70	1,577		65	102,505
70 80	1,601		75	75,075
80 90	622		85	52,870
90 110	138		95	13,110
	2		101	202
	1		102	102
	2		103	206
	3		104	312
	1		105	105

By the no. of deaths, 26,761, div. theyea. they lived, 623,713,

and 23 years, and about one third, according to this bill of mortality, appears to be the par-term of human life; multiply the deaths by this term, shews the number of people living in the bills of mortality to be about 624,423 persons; and, if we suppose the houses, one with another, to contain 10 souls, then the number of houses inhabited will be 62,442.

By a survey taken in the year 1732, 8000 houses appeared to be empty in the cities of London and Westminster, and places within the bills of mortality; most of which lett, at an average, for 20l. per ann. at which rate, there was upwards of 160,000l. rent yearly lost in the bills of mortality, more than a ninth part of the whole building being empty. By this bill of mortality it also appears, that more than half the human race die under 10 years of age: and, if we consider the number of young persons, under and over this age, who live to supply the places of those that die in all the stages of life above this term, there can be no doubt that children make about half the business of the world, as I have asserted. And though it appears, by this bill of mortality, that the term of life, on the par, is about 49 years, excluding all those that die at 20 years and under, yet I cannot imagine the term men have to raise and provide for families in the marriage-state doth much exceed 20 years, since it is pretty certain marriages in general commence a few years at least later than the age of 20 years, and are undoubtedly generally dissolved by the death of one of the parties, before they both reach the term of 49 years.

We are sensible the great number of empty houses is ascribed to the increase of buildings: but, whoever considers that there are not less than 6 or 700,000 people in the bills of mortality, and that, according to the natural increase of mankind, at the lowest computation, of doubling in 360 years, the in-

crease will be near 40,000 people since that time*; he will be necessarily obliged to ascribe the empty houses to other causes, and not to the increase of building solely. However, since they are built, and their being inhabited, or standing empty, will certainly have such an influence on the rents of the kingdom, and the revenue likewise, it behoves us to take the proper methods to fill them; which I am confident will soon be effected by cultivating land enough to make a plenty of money amongst the trading part of the people in general, but not otherwise.

* We are not insensible that Mr. Derham, in his Physico-Theology, shews that the deaths in London, as in most great cities, are greater than the births; whence an objection may seem to arise to the increase above-mentioned; which I think is of no weight, because if a nation will absolutely double itself in about 360 years, notwithstanding wars and plagues, cities must do so too: nay it is plain, by what Dr. Nichols says, London increased at so much greater rate as to double itself in 40 years, notwithstanding the last great plague, which happened in that period.

But further, if the people increased, as Dr. Nichols says they did, so as to double themselves in London in forty years, notwithstanding the last great plague, which happened within the period he wrote of; and the country increased, though not in the like, yet in a considerable proportion (and I hope his authority is sufficient to bear me out) then the buildings since the peace of Utrecht, which hath by no means, I think, been in proportion to one fourth of such an increase of people, cannot be the reason to which the vast number of empty houses can be ascribed.

But the empty houses must be ascribed to such a diminution of trade, and, consequently, of cash amongst the people, which makes it so difficult for the people to get money to support them, that many are become incapable to pay their rents, and many must have forsaken the nation on this account: for the people will diminish where the means of getting a livelihood is not well to be attained suitable to their several ranks and stations; which is a necessary consequence where the general balance of trade becomes against any nation.

For it is evident, such a nation hath amongst them just so much business less than their own several wants create, as the amount of the balance against them is, which lessening their cash, at the same time, in the like proportion, brings a double inconvenience with it, viz. want of money and employment: and, if things are suffered to go on so, the people must disperse and diminish. And therefore this maxim, well known amongst merchants, appears well founded, it being only the reverse of what is shewn above, That the people always increase in whose favour the balance of trade is considerable; as it must needs have been in ours, in that period of time Dr. Nichols wrote of; since, notwithstanding so great an increase of the people, the prices of every thing, as is well known, rather advanced all the time, which they could not have done if the cash of the nation (without the great paper circulation, occasioned since by our public debts and taxes) had not increased in yet greater proportion than the people increased, as I think the illustration of the fourth preceding maxim evinces.

Hence therefore it appears, that every nation ought to keep trade on such a foot, as always, on the whole, to have the balance in their favour: for, if mankind double themselves only in 360 years, if the real cash of the nation be not augmented every year 360th part, the people must in a few years be distressed for want of money, unless all things be made at least so much cheaper to prevent it.

And, as the means of doing this is in the power of every nation, that has waste land enough to improve to increase their plenty*, and thereby reduce the price of things; so the improving so much waste land as answers this end; will furnish employment, and consequently a livelihood for the people; and will always, not only prevent a considerable number of houses from standing long empty, but will continually cause more to be added all over the kingdom; as the vast increase Dr. Nichols asserts there was, particularly in London, within forty years, besides the great increase in the country in the same time, doth fully shew.

* Dr. John Laurence, in his System of Agriculture, p. 45, says, Without all question, improvement of lands, of what kind soever, makes riches and plenty, and plenty calls together inhabitants, and people to consume it. And p. 47, he says, So plain it is, that inclosure is the greatest encouragement to good husbandry and remedy for beggary, the poor being employed by the continual labour bestowed on such land, which is doubly repaid by the fruitful crops it annually yields.

That we may put this matter past all doubt, let it only at present be granted, which we shall shew hereafter, that the people in London and Westminster were really doubled in about forty years; since this, nor any thing like this, could be the effect of the natural increase of mankind, it must have some other powerful cause: this cause, we apprehend, was a flourishing trade, which we thus prove, viz.

The people were doubled in the city of London, and increased too in the country, though not in the like, yet in a considerable proportion; nevertheless, the prices of necessaries, and all other things in general, were higher than those things were forty years before: now this, by our fourth preceding maxim, was absolutely impossible, if the cash of the nation had not been vastly increased also. Wherefore, as we have no mines, the cash could be increased only by exporting so many more goods in value than we imported. As this is, in itself, that which constitutes a flourishing trade in any nation; so we see the effect was the doubling the people in London; wherefore, let our trade be again put on such a foot, that we may be able to raise our produce and commodities of every kind, as cheap as any nation can raise, or make any thing, whereby they may interfere in any branch of our trade; and the same effect will again manifest itself, and consequently not only fill the empty houses, but cause more to be added.

As it hence appears absolutely needful to keep trade on a foot, whereby the balance may always, on the whole, be in our favour; so it is certain, the mines which are continually giving gold and silver, do afford sufficient to supply such a needful balance. For the gold and silver, which the mines, since the Europeans have possessed them, have not only furnished Europe in general with quantities equal to the increase of mankind since that time, but so much more gold and silver, as to enhance the price of all kinds of commodities throughout Europe in general; and especially in those nations who have, either directly or indirectly, had the most considerable trade with the countries where the mines are: and this, in all probability, they will always continue to do; but, if not, we shall shew, in some future parts of this work, how to do that which will always be equivalent.

And, with respect to the countries which are thus continually furnishing this balance to the rest of the world, they, having the mines, have that which is equivalent to such a balance in their favour.

We have before laid it down as a maxim, that gold and silver (i. e. money) will be most plenty where the mines are: let it then be supposed, that the people possessed of the mines could furnish themselves with the necessaries and pleasures of life by the produce of their own country, and therefore should think fit to prohibit the exportation of gold and silver, and should thereby be effectually able to prevent the exportation thereof, which is undoubtedly impossible: if we suppose these nations to make such prohibition, and at the same time continue to work those mines, so that they are perpetually yielding more and more gold and silver, how great must the increase of those commodities soon become? And, since gold and silver are of little use, besides procuring the necessaries and conveniences of life, which alone are real riches, and for which gold and silver are now universally exchanged; would not the great plenty of these commodities, thus continually increasing, cause proportionably so much more gold and silver (with which they would at length be incumbered) to be given for the more necessary produce and fruits of the earth? And would not this so depress the value of gold and silver, by their plenty amongst them, as to give occasion and encouragement to all the world to go to this market with their produce and manufactures, which they can and will sell for a vast deal less gold and silver, than what such goods of their own raising would in this case be sold for? Nay, they would find it a convenience to be eased of the burthen of the gold and silver, which the mines; if continually worked, would produce, as certainly as it is a relief to any country to export any other superfluous commodities: for, if they do not cease to work the mines, when they have raised gold and silver enough to be burthensome, they must and will certainly drop their cultivation and manufactures; since men will not easily be induced to labour and toil, for what they can get with much less trouble, by exchanging some of their excess of gold and silver for what they want.

And, if they should be supposed, as is natural enough in this case to drop their cultivation of land and manufactures, which are much the slowest and most laborious way of supplying themselves with what they could so easily and readily procure by exchanging gold and silver, which they too much abound in, they would certainly, in a great measure, lose the arts of cultivation of land, and that of manufactures also; which has long been the case of a neighbouring nation, by the accession of wealth which the West-Indies afforded: whence they are at best but a beggarly nation, with their immense treasure, and the conduit-pipes to disperse the gold and silver thro' other parts of the world; which other nations drain them of, by making goods cheaper than they can do, and that to such a degree, that the mines are scarcely sufficient to answer their ordinary occasions, even in times of peace: and, though they are sensible of this, yet they find by experience they can't prevent it.

The case is the very same, in some degree, in every nation, whose quantity of real or artificial cash is large enough to support the prices of their goods, considerably above the rates such goods bear in other nations round about them. Whence it is obvious, that all prohibitions, with regard to

coin and bullion, as well as all other commodities, must be injurious to commerce; because, besides all other mischiefs thereby occasioned, they are always designed to restrain the money from going out of the nation; which will be eternally impracticable, whilst the general balance of trade is against a nation.

We confess that we judge it most nationally beneficial to prevent the importation of all foreign commodities, as much as possible, but not by acts of parliament, such restraints, perhaps, being no good to commerce in general; it is therefore we recommend the raising such goods ourselves, so cheap as to make it impossible for other nations to find their account in bringing them to us: as this is the only natural and effectual prohibition of such things as we would not receive from abroad; so I wish every nation in the world would do the like, as much as ever they can; for then the plenty of every thing would be so great, that all mankind would be happy, if this world is capable of making them so; for we are not partial to our own country, but wish all mankind to be as happy as I wish my country and myself. Upon the whole, the reader will observe what we aim at.

First, That it is of no consequence, whether any nation hath a vast deal of gold and silver, or very little money amongst them, if sufficient care be taken to make the plenty of every thing great enough, to render the money they have amply extensive, to circulate their trade in every branch, and fully to employ and support all their people; which must and will make them all happy, and certainly cause them to have vastly more foreign trade, by their thus being able to make and sell their manufactures, and produce them at lower rates than their neighbour nations can do. And this is absolutely in the power of every nation, that will cultivate land enough to effect it, unless any nation should have more people in it than they have land to support them; which may easily be known, from the demand there will be for land, and raising the rents in consequence thereof, till the prices of necessaries become so dear, that the wages of the labouring people will not purchase what is needful for the support of their families; and there be no more land left to cultivate, and remove this mischief, which will fall more or less on every occupation, in proportion as the poor become thereby poorer and more and more distressed.

In this case, there is no relief but transporting the people wher they can have land enough for them.

Secondly, It is of little or no consequence to the trade of any nation, whether the people spend near or all their gains, provided they do not spend more than they really gain, for this disables them to make good their contracts; or whether they are generally frugal, and lay up considerably. For the trade of a nation doth very little depend on these things, but entirely on employing the people in cultivation of land in general, in proportion to the other employments of mankind; that the necessaries of life, which all ultimately work for, may be so plentiful, that the meanest of the people may easily attain a sufficiency of them, for plenty of these comprehends all human felicity.

REMARKS on the whole of this article of MANURING and CULTIVATING additional quantities of LAND.

Reducing the present RATES OF LABOUR appears so absolutely necessary to increase our foreign and domestic trade, that we have endeavoured to shew, as well under this head, as others synonymous and correspondent therewith, how this very important and interesting matter may be effected, to the great advantage of every class of people within the community; and the way that has been proposed at present, till taxes upon our native commodities can be greatly lessened, or absolutely annihilated, is, perhaps, the only one whereby to procure so great a blessing: and this method will cause multitudes of the British subjects to become the possessors of property, who otherwise will never have a shilling to spare.

What we have urged, upon this occasion, we shall endeavour to corroborate in the sequel, where any natural opportunity shall offer: for, as the principles of trade in general, whereon we have endeavoured to proceed, seem to be founded in the eternal and immutable nature of things, and the constitution of the world itself; so we are inclined to think that they are capable of strict demonstration, let them be viewed in whatever national light they can.—As certain branches of trade, indeed, may, in the process of time vary, either by increasing or otherwise, or shifting their channel, or by any great alteration in the state of public affairs, &c. in such cases, perhaps, it may be necessary to deviate occasionally from some of those maxims which prevail throughout this work.—

This will ever be the fate of what is mutable; but the necessity of any temporary variation, in the application of our general principles, will scarce be thought an argument of their imperfection and invalidity.

M A P, a plain figure, representing the surface of the earth, or a part thereof, according to the rules of perspective*.

* Perspective is the art of delineating visible objects on a plain surface, such as they appear at a given distance or height, upon a transparent plane, placed perpendicularly to the horizon between the eye and the object.

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Though nothing can represent the heavens or the earth in their natural appearances so exactly as a globe, yet the two hemispheres, either of the heavens or of the earth, may be represented upon a plain superficies, which are generally called projections of the sphere*.

* Projection of the sphere in plano, is a representation of the several points or places of the surface of the sphere, and of the circles described thereon, or of any assigned parts thereof, such as they appear to the eye situate at a given distance, upon a transparent plane placed between the eye and the sphere.

The most usual projection of maps of the world is that on the plane of the meridian, which exhibits a right sphere, the first meridian being the horizon: the next is that on the plane of the equator, wherein the pole is in the center, and the meridians the radii of the circle.—This represents a parallel sphere.

If you suppose a globe to be cut in halves just at the equator, and each hemisphere represented on a plane, it is called a projection of the globe upon the plane of the equator. Then the equinoctial line will be the circumference, and the two poles of the world will be the centers of those two projections, and all the meridian lines will be so many straight lines, or semi-diameters, meeting in the center. This is the most common method of representing the celestial globe and the stars. If the globe be cut asunder at the horizon of any particular place, and thus represented on a plane, it is called the projection on the plane of the horizon: then the zenith and nadir will be the centers of those projections, and the horizon is the circumference: the two poles will be placed at such a distance from the circumference, as the pole of the world is elevated above the horizon of that place; and the meridian will be represented as curve lines, meeting in the pole-point, excepting only that meridian that passes through the zenith, which is always a right line. This is a more uncommon projection of the sphere, tho' it is much used in dialling.

The most usual way of describing the earthly globe on a plane, or a map, is to suppose the globe cut in halves about the first meridian, at the island Faro, or Teneriff: this is a projection on the plane of the meridian; then the first meridian will determine the circumference: the pole-point will stand in the upper and lower parts of that circle, and the other meridians will be curve lines, meeting in the pole-points, except that which passes through the center of the projection, which is a right line.

Here the equator will be a straight line, or diameter, crossing all the meridians at right angles, and at equal distances from the two poles.

Here the two tropics of Cancer and Capricorn are drawn at their proper distances, of $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from the equator; and the two polar circles are at the same distance from the poles.

In this projection the ecliptic is sometimes a straight line, cutting the middle of the equator obliquely in each hemisphere, and ending where the two tropics meet the meridian: but sometimes the ecliptic is drawn as a curve line, or an arch, beginning where the equator meets the meridian, and carried upward just to touch the tropic of Cancer in one hemisphere, and downward to touch the tropic of Capricorn in the other. It is in this form the maps of the world are generally drawn, in two large hemispheres.

Note here, that it is impossible to represent a spherical body exactly in it's due proportion upon a plane; and, therefore, the artificial meridians, or lines of longitude, parallels of latitude, &c. are placed at such different distances, by certain rules of art, and the degrees, marked on them, are often unequal, but so drawn as may most commodiously represent the situation of the several parts of the earth with regard to one another.

The meridian, or circumference of these circles, is divided into four quarters, and each marked with 90 degrees, beginning from the equator, and proceeding towards the poles. These figures, or numbers, shew the latitude of every place in the earth, or it's distance from the equator; and, at every 10 degrees, there is a parallel of latitude drawn on purpose to guide and direct the eye in seeking the latitude of any place.

The equator of each hemisphere is divided into 180 parts, which makes 360 in the whole; and the several meridians, or lines of longitude, cutting the equator at every 10 degrees, direct the eye to find the longitude of any place required.

As the equator, the several lines of longitude, of latitude, &c. cannot be represented on a plane exactly as they are on a globe, so neither can the several parts of the world, kingdoms, provinces, islands, and seas, be represented in a map exactly in the same proportion as they stand on a globe; but, as the divisions of degrees in a map are bigger or less, so the parts of the land and sea are represented there bigger or less, in a most exact proportion to those lines of longitude and latitude amongst which they are placed.

Therefore, though the length, breadth, or distance of places on a map of the world, cannot be measured by a pair of compasses, as they may be on a globe, yet you may count the

number of degrees to which such lengths, breadths, or distances correspond, and thereby you may compute their real dimensions, though not always so well as on a globe.

Thus much shall suffice concerning maps that represent the whole world, or the globe of earth and water. Let us next consider those maps which represent particular parts of the world, kingdoms or provinces: these are generally drawn in a large square, and are to be considered as parts of a projection on the plane of the meridian.

From the top to or toward the bottom of the square are drawn meridians or lines of longitude; and the number of degrees of longitude are divided, and marked on the upper and undermost line of the square.

From side to side are drawn parallels of latitude, and the degrees of latitude are marked on the two side lines.

Thus you may easily find on a map what is the longitude or latitude of any place given, or you may find the point where any town stands, or should stand, when the true longitude and latitude of it are given.

Note, In such maps of particular countries the longitude is not always reckoned from the first meridian, as Faro, or Teneriff, but oftentimes it is reckoned from the chief city of that kingdom which is described in the map.

Observe farther, that, though in globes and maps of the whole world the longitude is reckoned from the west toward the east, yet, in smaller maps, it is often reckoned both ways, as Bristol is $2\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of western longitude from London, Amsterdam has near five degrees of eastern longitude.

Note also, that, when a small country is represented in a large map, the lines of longitude and parallels of latitude are drawn not merely at every 10 degrees, as in the globe, but sometimes at every five degrees, and sometimes at every single degree.

Let it be observed, also, in large maps, that describe any particular country or province, as a single or double crooked waving line signifies a river, when it is made strong and black; so a public road is described by a single or a double line, drawn from town to town, not quite so curled nor so strong as a river is, but straight or winding, as the road itself happens: and, where the roads lie through a broad plain, or great common, without houses or hedges, they are sometimes described by a double row of points.

As villages and smaller towns are described by a little circle, or small round o, in maps of larger countries, where the cities are represented by the figure of a house or two, with a spire or steeple: so, in maps of smaller countries or provinces, the little towns and villages are described by the figure of a house or two, and great towns or cities are marked like several buildings put together, in prospect, or else the naked plan of those very towns or cities is drawn there, and distinguished according to their streets.

As maps are drawn to describe particular countries by land, so a description of coasts or shores, and of the seas, for the use of mariners, is called a sea-chart; and it differs from a map chiefly in these particulars:

I. A map of the land is full of names and marks, describing all the towns, countries, rivers, mountains, &c. but, in a sea-chart, there are seldom many parts of the land marked or described, besides the coasts or shores and the sea-ports, the towns or cities that border upon the sea, and the mouths of rivers.

II. In a map the sea is left as an empty space, except where the lines of longitude and latitude, &c. are placed: but, in sea-charts, all the shoals or sand, and shallow waters, are marked exactly according to their shape, as they have been found to lie in the sea, by sounding the depth in every part of them.

III. In sea-charts, the meridians are often drawn in straight and parallel lines, and the lines of latitude are also straight parallels, crossing the meridians at right angles. This is called Mercator's projection; and the points of the compass are frequently repeated and extended through the whole chart, in a multitude of crossing lines, that wheresoever the mariner is upon the sea, he may know toward what point of the compass he must steer, or direct his vessel, to carry it toward any particular port; and that we may be able to see, with one cast of an eye, the various bearings of any port, coast, island, cape, &c. toward each other.

IV. The sea is also filled, in sea-charts, with various numbers or figures, which denote the depth of water, and shew how many fathom deep the sea is in those places where the number stands: these are called soundings.

V. In sea-charts there is not such care taken to place the north parts of the world always directly upright and before the face of the reader; but the coasts and countries are usually described in such a position as may afford the fittest room to bring in the greatest variety of shores and seas within the compass of the same chart, whether the east, west, or north, be placed directly before the reader.

Maps are laid down and proportioned to a certain scale, which is always taken from the degrees of latitude.

The degrees of latitude are always marked on the east and west sides of the map.

The degrees of longitude are always marked on the north and south sides of the map.

A degree of latitude is always of the same breadth: wherefore the distance of two places seated directly north and south, is immediately known by knowing the different latitudes; but a degree of longitude is of different extent, for this is the distance of a place from the first, or some other meridian.

When Ptolemy invented the way of distinguishing the situation of places, he did it by parallel and meridian lines; the latter passing round the globe through the equator and poles, and the former lying parallel to the equator; which parallel lines were found very convenient for marking the latitude into degrees and minutes. Then, for longitude, he fixed upon Teneriff, one of the Canary Islands, as the most western part of the then known world; which, having a very high mountain, was a good mark for mariners, and the fittest place from whence to begin a general computation.

Accordingly, all the old maps begin their east longitude from Teneriff; and, because then only one side of the globe was known, the degrees were only 180; but, since the discovery of America, they are carried quite round to 360. This method was always esteemed, and Teneriff reckoned a good standard meridian, 'till the French, who like nothing which they themselves do not invent, thought proper to alter it, and make the island of Faro their new meridian, which, by late observation, lies just two degrees more west: wherefore, to prevent confusion, our modern geographers and delineators of maps make the metropolis of their own nation the first real meridian: and, in this case, longitude is two-fold, being, from London, either west or east, as at sea it is computed from some known port or head-land. The longitude of any place from London being known, the difference in the hour of the day is also known: for, as the sun performs his diurnal circuit in 24 hours, he gains in each hour 15 degrees, being a 24th part of 360, or one degree in four minutes; so that, at any place 15 degrees east of us, noon is an hour sooner with them, as it is an hour later with those who live 15 degrees west from us.

If a clock, or any time-piece, could be so made as to go equal and true, at any season or distance, the theory of longitude at sea would be no longer a mystery: but, as that is impracticable, our modern astronomers have contented themselves with observing the solar and lunar eclipses; for, if their appearances and calculations are exactly known with us, and the same appearances are observed in any other part of this globe, the difference arising from those times will settle the difference in longitude, by the foregoing rule. See LONGITUDE. The eclipses also of Jupiter's moons, and the spheroidal figure of the earth, two important discoveries of the seventeenth century, will each, in their turn, lead us farther on a true system of longitude.

Lastly, though all degrees of latitude are equal in length, yet degrees of longitude vary in every new parallel of latitude: for, all the meridian lines meeting and intersecting each other at the poles, the degrees of longitude do naturally diminish, as they proceed either way from the equator.

The latitude and longitude of a place being known, you may find it immediately in the map, by drawing a line or thread cross the map both ways, and, where the two lines cut one another, the place stands.

The earth being a globe, a map of the whole earth most necessarily consists of two parts, both sides of the globe not being visible at once. Accordingly, in an universal map, the right-hand circle shews the old world, or Europe, Asia, and Africa; and the left-hand circle shews the new world, or America.

Upon the general map are marked the circles correspondent to those in the sphere, namely, the equinoctial line, the two tropics, and the two polar circles, all which cross the map from east to west; and the first meridian surrounding the two hemispheres from north to south, the parallels lying from north to south, at 10 degrees distance; and the meridians, at the same distance from west to east, are also marked upon general maps. Particular maps, being part of this, retain the meridians and parallels belonging to that particular part, which are made smaller or larger, as the paper on which it is drawn will admit; and the distance of places mentioned in it are always exactly proportioned to the breadth of the parallels: so that, let a map be ever so small, the distance of places is exactly shewn, if measured according to the degrees of latitude in that particular map.

REMARKS RELATIVE TO THE PERFIDIOUS DESIGN OF FRANCE IN THEIR MAP-MAKING.

The utility of maps and charts is so well known, that it is needless to say any thing concerning them, in relation to that point: but they have their abuse, as well as use, more especially the former, viz. maps; and this has been practised with no little artifice and effrontery, in order to deceive the whole world, if such a thing was possible: for certain it is, that some foreign map-makers have taken unaccountable liberties in parcelling out the globe of the world at their pleasure. Whether this may be looked upon as their own *Sic volo, sic*

VOL. II.

jubeo, or that of some body else behind the curtain, with a view to answer some purposes not so honest and laudable as could be wished, we shall not take upon ourselves to determine: yet we think it incumbent on us to take some notice of a matter of this nature, that the English reader may be so put on his guard as not to receive French coin for sterling.

Whoever is acquainted with the history of our British colonies and plantations, and the cause and foundation of those first royal grants and charters given by the crown of Great-Britain to its subjects, for raising these colonies and plantations, must be sensible, that some neighbouring nations have attempted to make unwarrantable and shameful incroachments upon the British rights of trade and possessions in the American world, as well as elsewhere: and those rights are not only usurped by their map-makers by dint of scale and compass, but are assumed and justified in many respects elsewhere; which always has, and ever will tend to destroy the public tranquillity, 'till those points are impartially and honourably settled and adjusted between the interested potentates.

We are sorry to be under the disagreeable necessity of saying this, in regard to any nation, the end of our labours being to promote peace and good harmony with all, and to be as little instrumental in stirring up broils between one foreign country and another, was it in our power, as between our own and others. But nothing can be so effectually preservative of general peace and tranquillity among all nations, as the just éclaircissement of their respective rights of commerce and possessions; for, if these are left unascertained, it will always give a handle for animosities.

That our readers may judge how far our British rights of commerce and possession remain as yet undetermined, we refer them to the following articles, viz. BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, CALIFORNIA, FLORIDA, LOUISIANA. And how far a certain foreign map-maker has attempted to invade the British rights, by the means of pen, ink, and paper, we also refer the reader to our MAPS of NORTH AMERICA, placed at the end of our First Volume, where he will find the following rectification of the French map by Monsieur D'Anville, viz.

That Mons. D'Anville has very partially included within the bounds of French Canada, to the south and east of the lake Ontario, the country possessed by the five Indian nations, named by the French the Iroquois: whereas they are the allies, and under the protection of the crown of Great-Britain by treaty*: so that, in right of them, the English have a claim, not only to all the lands south of the river St. Lawrence (including the French settlements about the Champlain, and other lakes) which were the original property of those Indians and their dependents, but also all the lands in and about the five great lakes, viz. lake ONTARIO, ERIE, the HURONS, MICHIGAN, and the UPPER LAKE, which the Five Nations have subdued, or made tributary.

* According to the treaty of Utrecht it is stipulated,—Galliæ subditi Canadam incolentes, alique, quinque nationes (a), five cantones Indorum, Magnæ Britanniæ imperio subjectas, ut & cæteros America indigenas eidem amicitia conjunctos, nullo in posterum impedimento aut molestia afficiant, &c. That is to say, the subjects of France inhabiting Canada, and others, shall hereafter give no hindrance or molestation to the five nations, or cantons of Indians, subjects to the dominion of Great-Britain, nor to the other natives of America, who are friends to the same, &c.

(a) The five original confederate Indian nations are the SENEKAS, CAYNGAS, ONONDAGAS, ONEEDAS, and MOHOCKS; the TUSCARROES, MISSASAGOS, and other tribes, and since incorporated with them. Therefore, as all the land south of St. Lawrence's River is the original property of the Five Nations, with their allies and tributaries, the French can have no shadow of pretence to any part of this country; and their settlement about CHAMPLAIN LAKE is mere depredation, contrary to the British title, which is derived from agreement and purchase.

The limits of NEW SCOTLAND, or ACADIA, by the same treaty, are St. Lawrence's River on the north, Penobscut River on the west, and St. Lawrence's Gulph on the east: therefore the boundary line drawn by Mons. D'Anville in his map, cross these provinces, from lake ONTARIO to the ISTHMUS at the bottom of FUNDY BAY, is an ARBITRARY FICTION, false and unjust, and seems to be done for our British map-makers to copy, and misguide the whole nation, if possible; for which reason we have struck it out, having just authority so to do, and have put the whole word CANADA on the west side of St. Lawrence's River.

The line that parts French Canada from British Canada was settled by commissaries after the peace of Utrecht, making a curve from Davis's Inlet, in the Atlantic Sea, down to the 49th degree, through the lake Abitibis to the North-west Ocean: wherefore Mons. D'Anville's dotted line east of James's Bay is likewise false.

The French map-makers having also excised near one half of our settlements, by drawing a pretended line from St. Lawrence's River down to Georgia, we think it our duty to inform the public that the same is a romantic presumption, void of all authority; for, by public Indian treaties, our right is far beyond the great lakes, and south-west to the Chickasaw

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nation, by the branches of the Mississippi: and, since many of the Indian people among the said lakes are united with the Iroquois Indians near New York, either by covenant or conquest, it is an idle vanity to suppose a dotted line in a French map will exclude the English from all those nations, where their trade and dominions so visibly extend.

In this respect, also, we have in our maps endeavoured to restore the English settlements to part of their just pretensions: and, indeed, by the grants of our kings we might, perhaps, have carried our pretensions quite through Louisiana, westward to the South Sea, without being guilty of encroaching on the just rights of the French, as the French map-makers have been of encroaching on ours.

By several treaties made and renewed with the CHERAKEES, the CHIKASAS, the NAUTCHES, and the other CREEK NATIONS, the subjects of his BRITANNIC MAJESTY have a right of possession at least from LAKE ERIE to the CHIKASAS, at the river Mississippi: whereas, in many of those parts, the French have no other title but that of intrusion and force. Their map-makers, therefore, are advised to put their LOUISIANA farther west, as is partly rectified in our first map of North America, for no part of the APALACHY MOUNTAINS is any fixed boundary to the BRITISH EMPIRE in AMERICA.

These instances, with a great many others we could give, which relate as well to other countries as our own, point out, perhaps, the true reason and motive why the French have long endeavoured to engross the care of geography to themselves; and it must be confessed, by the measures taken by them, they have brought it to greater perfection than any nation in Europe. This is owing to the proper encouragement which it's professors meet with in France, who were never so numerous as at present.

Our neighbours appear to be particularly zealous for the advancement of geography, in order, it may be, to extend their commerce and dominions first upon paper, to pave the way to do it hereafter in reality; for, by their map-makers throwing out their encroachments and depredations in this seemingly harmless and inoffensive way first, they so feel the pulse of other nations, that they can pass a good judgment what lengths they may presume to go in any important n——n; and may, with a better grace, authenticate their pretensions, by producing to our commissaries their own infallible maps.

There is an office in the French marine, for depositing charts and plans, to be made use of for the benefit of navigation: a regulation proper to be established in every maritime trading nation*.

* Mons. Bellin on this occasion observes, in the preface to his Collection of Memoirs; 'That it is difficult to correct the chart effectually, since it requires extraordinary helps, out of the power of a private man to procure, and which those only who are at the head of affairs are able to provide. There is no possibility of collecting all the materials necessary for such a design, but by establishing an office for the purpose, like that of charts, plans, and journals, belonging to the marine of France.'—And will not the same hold good in relation to maps? And would not such an institution as this, both with regard to charts and maps, and the journals of all curious navigators, well become the wisdom of the British nation? Certain it is, that the great disagreement which is apparent between charts and maps, renders something of this kind absolutely necessary. Those maps published by Mons. D'Anville, and which we have translated into English for this work, and greatly corrected and improved, especially in regard to the security of our British rights of trade and possessions, cost the duke of Orleans, by whose order they were undertaken, several thousand pounds sterling: and whether our maps, engraved by those great artists Mr. Emanuel Bowen, geographer royal to his Britannic majesty, Mr. Kitchen, and Mr. Seale, are not executed with respect to the engraving parts full as well as the French, and better than any before done in England, is submitted to the public. But these are not the only specimens we have of the great abilities of those English artists in the art of engraving: their general maps of England and Wales, together with their particular maps of the counties, printed on superfine atlas paper, and sold by J. Tinney, at the Golden Lion in Fleet-street, London, demonstrate that they are inferior to no artists in their way, in the whole world. And, till these gentlemen did exert themselves, it cannot be denied but the French greatly excelled us in this particular; but, since we have such celebrated artists of our own, it is to be hoped they will receive all encouragement from the public, that their merits entitle them to. Maps are not only of important use to the nation, by asserting our rights of commerce and possession to the face of the whole world; but, by being a general manufacture, will now be acceptable in all foreign nations, since, at length, we have the honour of being inferior to no country whatever in this particular. I am very sorry to say, but it is matter of fact, that not only our map-makers and map-engravers, but our engravers in general, have long laboured under great difficulties and discouragements. There is one thing I would crave leave to mention at present; that, as a neighbouring nation gives such remarkable encouragement for the ad-

vancement of geography, it is very strange the royal geographer of Great Britain should enjoy only the title without a salary. Certain I am, if this matter was properly represented to his most gracious majesty, so superlatively good and benevolent is our beloved sovereign, that he would as cheerfully grant his geographer a stipend as a title.

The count de Maurepas, being at the head of the marine, about the year 1737, to remove the complaints which at that juncture lay against the French charts, and provide an accurate set for the use of the king's ships, ordered Mr. Bellin to undertake the task, and publish by degrees a set of new charts, for all parts of the ocean: which task he has at length in a great measure performed.

Another instance we have of the care of this nation to excel in their charts, is that of *Le Neptune Oriental, ou Routier Général de Côtes des Indes Orientales, & de la Chine*, par Mons. Manneville, published in the year 1745, and dedicated to Monseigneur Orry de Fulvy, counsellor of state, intendant of the finances, and royal commissary to the East-India company.

The ingenious and elaborate author tells his patron in the dedication, 'That till now, my lord, says he, our navigation to the East-Indies hath depended on foreigners. Guided only by the English and Dutch charts, we learnt, as it were, only from those two nations, the way to conduct ourselves at our first establishment. Upon their instructions the good or ill success of our voyages depended. At the beginning of our navigation into these seas, it was necessary to make use of their helps, they having more frequented those seas than we. But, since our own experience has procured us more certain knowledge to be relied on, we have discovered their charts to be very erroneous; they are no longer useful to navigators, than to reunite in one body all the discoveries successively made, and therefrom to compose charts more correct.'

ESSENTIAL REMARKS ON MAPS, since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

The foregoing remarks, we think proper to let remain, that posterity may know in what a precarious and unsettled state our possessions were in NORTH AMERICA, before the DEFINITIVE TREATY ascertained their boundaries; which are now so clear and explicit as to admit of no future disputes, either between Great-Britain and France, or the former and Spain, with relation to the colonies upon the American continents. See AMERICA, for the DEFINITIVE TREATY at large, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, CANADA, LOUISIANA, and such other articles we from them refer to.

MARBLE is a kind of beautiful stone, dug out of quarries, in large masses; and is of so compact a texture, as to take a delicate polish: it is greatly used by way of ornament in columns, statuary, tombs, altar-pieces, chimney-pieces, slabs, tables, &c.

There are great varieties of marble, which are denominated from their colour, their country, their grain, their degree of compactness and hardness, their weight, &c. Some are of one colour, as white or black, others variegated with stains, clouds, and veins, &c. They are all opaque, excepting the white, which, when cut thin, is something transparent.

It is both endless and useless to describe the infinite different varieties; it is sufficient to observe, that those which are of the firmest texture, and greatest gravity, and take the finest polish, appear the most beautiful to the eye, and are the most estimable for every kind of ornament.

MARCASITE, a sulphureous metallic mineral.

As it is generally found among the metallic ores, it is always impregnated with the qualities of them, and of other fossils, whence they assume various colours, and degrees of cohesion. There are only three distinct species of it in the shops, viz. marcasite of gold, silver, and copper; the one of a bright silver colour, the other of a bright gold colour, and the third of a dull white.

The silver-coloured is a very beautiful body, of compact texture, though somewhat irregular, and very ponderous. It is found constituting whole strata of great extent, though not of great thickness; sometimes, like many other bodies naturally consisting of strata, it is found in irregular and broken masses. It is, when broken, of an uneven surface, and made up of multitudes of irregularly shaped flaky bodies, of various sizes, wrapping round one another.

It very freely and readily gives fire with steel, and makes no effervescence with aqua fortis.—When put into the fire, it cracks and bursts, yielding a blue flame with a sulphureous smell: it burns thus for a considerable time, and calcines to a strong deep red.

This is it's usual appearance, but it is liable to great varieties; sometimes it contains a lead ore, sometimes of tin, and often a ferruginous matter.

It is found in abundance in the lead and tin mines of several parts of England, and is no less common in other countries; our counties of Devonshire, Derbyshire, and Cornwall, have large quantities of it.

The golden-coloured marcasite is rather more beautiful and glittering than the former. It is of less compact texture than any other marcasite. It is considerably heavy, and usually found in long but thin strata, sometimes in large and misshapen modules. In some parts the texture is, as in the other marcasites, more lax and open than in others; and it is to this irregularly foliaceous structure, that all their other varieties are owing. It is naturally of a fine strong gold yellow, but varies at times into a paler or redder hue, and, like the others, sometimes exhibit the rainbow colours in reflection.

It gives fire pretty readily with steel, but much less freely than the silver species. It makes no effervescence with aqua fortis, and, when put into the fire, it seldom bursts, but is gradually covered with a pale blue flame, which burns less time than that of the former, and calcines to a deep purple.

The other sort is a species of less beauty than the preceding kinds in its ordinary state; it is a very solid substance, of a compact and firm texture, and is considerably heavier than any of the other. It is extremely hard, and requires a strong blow to break it: and is of a pale and dead white, like the colour of tarnished pewter, and somewhat bright, but much less so than the other kinds: when broken, it appears at a slight view an uniform mass, but, when more strictly examined, is found composed of irregular flakes like the other kinds; but these are more closely laid together than in any other species, and differ from all the rest, in that, when strictly examined, they are found to be of an obscurely striated texture.

It freely and readily strikes fire with steel, and gives larger and brighter sparks than any other body of this sort.

It makes no effervescence with acids, and bursts in the fire, burning violently with a deep blue flame of a strong sulphureous scent.

It is liable to all the varieties of the first kind, but has them much more rarely; it is common in Devonshire, Cornwall, and many other counties, and lies at all depths, sometimes in regular strata, sometimes filling up the horizontal cavities of those of coal, or different stones.

R E M A R K S.

By marcasites, metallurgists generally understand all those mineral, earthy, and sulphureous matters, that are otherwise called pyrites, fire-stones, brass lumps, mundics, or the like. For, though these may be distinguished in respect of lesser differences, yet in general they are all a composition of sulphur, unflammable earth, and a small proportion of metal.

A short analysis of marcasites.

Take half a pound thereof reduced into powder, and put it into an earthen retort; which being placed in a naked fire, fit on a capacious glass receiver, and lute the junctures well with a mixture of loam and horse-dung, then give degrees of fire up to the strongest: let all cool, and take off; you will find at the bottom of the receiver a small proportion of acid liquor, like the spirit of sulphur made by the bell, and a considerable quantity of flowers of sulphur sublimed to the top.

The caput mortuum being taken out, and fluxed with about half its weights of iron filings, will afford generally a small lump of a reguline metallic substance.

Hence we see, that marcasites chiefly resolve into sulphur, and a more fixed earthy part; which, being treated as an ore, yields a proportion of metal. And hence, perhaps, all the pyrites, brass lumps, mundics, and marcasites, are but cruder kinds of ore, and, if brought to maturity, they would have proved real ores.

Marcasites, upon lying long in the open air, attract its humidity, and thence grow hot, in some measure dissolve, form an effervescence on their surface, and gradually turn into a vitriol, of the same kind with the metal they contain. Thus, if that metal were iron, the vitriol becomes green or martial; if copper, blue or cupereous. On this is founded the artificial method of making vitriol, now practised in several parts of England. See VITRIOL.

From the heating, fuming, and firing of these sulphureous earths, by the moisture of the air, we may, perhaps, learn the origin of hot baths, mineral waters, damps, and fires in mines. For it is found, that a pile of these sulphureous earths, being barely moistened, will at first smoke, and at length take fire, and burn like glowing coals.

These experiments likewise shew us a way of examining these marcasites (which have been taken frequently for rich ores, both in England and elsewhere) and of extracting the metal they may hold, after having first separated their sulphur. Many skilful metallists have been imposed upon by a specious shew of these marcasites, for they usually have a great specific gravity, and some of them a greater than real ores: whence again they may possibly contain the matter of metals, though in a crude, imperfect, or unfixed state. But to bring this matter to the test, to try the validity thereof, requires a more than ordinary knowledge in metallurgy. See METALLURGY.

MARINERS.

Of mariners and seamen.

A mariner, or seaman, is under the command of the master of a ship, that is hired to work therein, and do all common business for the sailing and preservation of the ship. The ship's crew are called mariners, and owe obedience to the master, who hath the supreme rule on shipboard, and therefore his authority is much countenanced by law.

If a mariner rebels or commits a fault, and the master lifts up the towel three times before him and he do not submit, the master at the next place of land may discharge him: and, if he refuses to go ashore, he shall lose half his wages, and all his goods in the ship; but, if the mariner submits, he is to receive his whole wages.

A master of a ship may justify the giving moderate and due correction to his men: but, if a mariner assaults the master on shipboard, he shall pay five shillings, or lose his hand; yet it is said he may after one stroke defend himself. Leg. Oleron. c. 14. By the ancient Rhodian laws, the masters, mariners, &c. that sail together, were to take an oath of fidelity, or mutual engagement. SEA LAWS 83.

Mariners are not to depart from on shipboard when they are in full pay (which is always when they break ground) without the master's licence for so doing; nor may they in any case quit the ship, without leaving a sufficient number to guard her: they must assist one another both at sea and in port, or upon the oath of their fellows of any refusal shall lose their wages: if mariners in a strange port leave their ship, not having the licence of the master, or without fastening her with four ropes, the loss, if any happen, falls upon them; they are also to attend the ship until she be discharged, and ballasted anew; and, if any mariner, during the time of her discharge or lading, labours not with the rest of the mariners but absents himself, he shall pay a fine to the others pro rata: and the mariners are not only to discharge and deliver goods out of the ship, but likewise, if no porters or carriers be in those parts, they must carry the same themselves for such hire as other workmen should have had for it. Lex Mercat. Malines, 104, 105.

In a strange country, the one half of the seaman, at least, ought to remain on shipboard; and those who go ashore, are to keep sobriety and abstain from suspected places, and not be absent on pain of being punished, like unto him who absents, when the ship is ready to sail. If it happens otherwise than well with the master, the mariners are obliged to bring the ship to the port from whence she was freighted, without any delay, except it be otherwise provided: and a mariner shall forfeit his wages, if the ship break in any part, and he doth not help with all his diligence to save the goods on board. Ibid.

Where a mariner is hired, and he deserts the service before the voyage is ended, by the law marine and the common law, he shall lose his wages: and it has been adjudged, that if the ship do not return, but perishes at sea, either by tempest, enemies, fire, &c. the mariners shall not have their wages; for, if they were allowed to have wages in these cases, it is presumed their best endeavours would be wanting to preserve the ship; and the mariners shall lose their wages, as well as the owners their freight. If the ship unlade any part of the cargo, the mariners shall have their wages; but, if after they have unladen the vessel at any port abroad, they demand the same, with an intention of leaving the ship, the master may detain a reasonable proportion thereof as his security, 'till they have brought back the ship. Leg. Oleron. c. 18. 1 Siderf. Rep. 179. 1 Keb. 830.

It was held by Holt chief justice, That, if a ship is lost before she arrives at any port of delivery, the seamen lose all their wages; if she be lost after she comes to a port of delivery, then they only lose their wages from the last port of delivery; but in case they run away, though after they come to any port of delivery, they lose all their wages. Hil. 13 Will. III. 3 Salk. Rep. 23.

A mariner being hired for a simple mariner, if afterwards in the voyage he finds hiring to be a pilot, or other officer of a ship, by the law marine he may pass over, restoring his former hire, and so it is, if he marry abroad: but if a mariner shall depart the ship, at the master's command, and the master do not take another, if any damage happens to the ship or goods, the master must answer. Mariners may not carry out of the ship any drink, nor above one meal of meat; and, if they embezzle the goods on board, &c. they are accountable to the master, the master to the owners, and the owners to the merchant or freighter. Though in case of a storm, if goods are cast overboard for lightening the ship, the mariners, making oath that it was done for preserving the vessel, shall discharge the master: so if goods or merchandize in such case receive damage at sea, by the oath of the master and mariners they may be cleared. Leg. Oleron. c. 7, 14.

If a mariner shall commit any fault, by reason of which the master, owners, or the ship, answers damage to the merchant, an action will lie against him. But, when a mariner is on shipboard, he ought not to be arrested by any one for

for debt, nor to be taken away from thence, for the ship is compared to a man's dwelling-house, which is as his castle, and a sure refuge by law; unless it be for a sworn debt, or penalty to the king, &c. the wages and goods of such mariners shall in these cases be liable; and, if a mariner takes up money or buys clothes on credit, and the same is entered in the purser's books, this will entitle a discount of so much of his wages, as the same amounts unto. Moll. 212. Lex Mercat. of Malines, 105.

In case a ship happens to be seized for debt, or otherwise become forfeited, the mariners shall receive their wages, except, through any act of theirs, there be a forfeiture of all; if the ship be laden with prohibited goods, as wool, and the like, though it subjects the vessel to forfeiture, yet it deprives not the mariners of their hire, who have faithfully performed their parts, and for which the ship is obliged. Trin. 7 Jac. B. R. A mariner may either keep his portage or allowance of goods in his hands, or let the same out to freight, by the laws of Oleron. Lex Mercat. of Malines, 104.

The act 2 Geo. II. c. 36, for better regulations of seamen in merchants service, has ordained, That no master or commander of any ship or vessel shall carry any seaman or mariner, except his apprentices, to sea, without first coming to an agreement or contract for their wages; which agreement shall be in writing, signed by the master and mariners, on pain of forfeiting 5*l.* to the use of Greenwich-hospital, to be recovered by information, upon the oath of one or more witnesses, before a justice of peace, &c.

And, if any seaman or mariner shall desert, or refuse to proceed in the voyage on board any vessel, after he has signed such contract, he shall forfeit to the owners of the ship the wages due to him at the time of his deserting, or refusing as aforesaid: and, in case he deserts or absents from any such ship, wherein he hath so contracted to serve, upon application to any justice of the peace, he may issue his warrant to apprehend such seaman; and, on his refusal to proceed on the voyage, the justice may commit him to the house of correction, to be kept to hard labour not exceeding thirty days, nor less than fourteen. And by the same statute, if any seaman shall absent himself from the vessel to which he belongs, without leave of the master, or other chief officer having the charge of such ship, he shall, for every day's absence, forfeit two days pay, for the use of Greenwich-hospital; and, if he shall leave the vessel to which he belongs, before he hath a discharge in writing from the master, he shall forfeit one month's pay, to the uses aforesaid: and the masters or owners of ships are impowered to deduct, out of the wages of any seaman, the penalties and forfeitures incurred by this act; and those penalties which are to be applied to the use of Greenwich-hospital, shall be paid by the masters of ships, to the officer at any port, who collects the 6*d.* a month, deducted out of seamen's wages for the use of the said hospital; and, neglecting to do it within three months, they shall forfeit treble value. Ibid.

Also by the said act, on the arriving of any ship in Great-Britain, from parts beyond the seas, the master shall be obliged to pay his seamen their wages, within thirty days, if demanded (except the contract for serving be to the contrary) or at the time the seamen shall be discharged, which shall first happen; deducting thereout the penalties and forfeitures, and not paying the same, shall be liable to a penalty of 20*s.* over and above the wages due to each seaman, to be recovered by the same ways as the said wages are recoverable; and no seaman or mariner shall fail in any suit for recovery of his wages, for want of producing the contract with the master on whom it lies, to produce the same, if necessary. This act shall not extend to debar any mariner or seaman, belonging to any merchant ship or vessel, from entering into his majesty's service, on board any of his ships; nor shall such seamen or mariner, for his entry therein, forfeit the wages due to him during the time of his service in such merchant-ship or vessel; nor shall such entry be judged a desertion from the ship. Stat. 2 Geo. II.

By the statute of 1 Geo. II. sess. 2. c. 14. for encouraging seamen voluntarily to enter into the king's service, &c. the governors, ministers, and consuls in foreign parts, or where none such are resident, any two or more British merchants there residing, are authorized and required to provide for all seamen, subjects of Great-Britain, that shall by shipwreck, or other unavoidable accident, be driven or cast away in such foreign parts or places, and shall subsist them by an allowance after the rate of 6*d.* per diem each, &c. and put them on board the first ship of war arriving there in convenient time, or they may be sent by any merchant ships wanting men, or others bound for any port in Great-Britain. Masters of ships abroad shall take on board four men for each hundred tons of which their vessels consist, and receive from the commissioners of the navy 6*d.* a day, for the passage and provision of every seaman, from the day of their embarkation homewards, on producing a certificate of the man's being taken on board, and the time when, &c.

By the acts 9 Geo. II. c. 25. and 10 Geo. II. c. 14. a small sum of so much per ton is to be paid by all masters of vessels, &c. trading from any part of his majesty's dominions to Ca-

diz, and port St. Mary's in Spain, or to the port of Leghorn, to persons appointed by the consuls and a majority of British merchants there; and such masters paying it shall be reimbursed by their freighters, or the persons to whom the goods are consigned, &c. and the money to be applied for relieving seamen shipwrecked, or taken in war, and other persons being English subjects in distress in the said ports.

REMARKS since the last WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

In what a precarious and unsettled state the boundaries as well as the trade of our colonies in North America have been for many years, see our articles BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, LOUISIANA, CANADA, and the article MAP. In what manner the boundaries of the colonies on that continent have been ascertained between Great-Britain and France, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY, see our article AMERICA, and such other to which from the preceding we refer.

As it is expected, that from the present British southern colonies on the continent of America, we shall produce hemp, flax, silk, pot-ash, wine, oil, raisins and currants, we may hope for a proportionable increase in our navigation to these parts, and in consequence thereof a suitable augmentation of BRITISH MARINERS, who will contribute to defend our new acquisitions in time of war, and advance their trade in time of peace.

Some authentic law cases, determined in the courts of judicature in England, in relation to mariners.

Hooke versus Moreton.

Mr. Eyre moved for a prohibition to be directed to the admiralty court, to stay a suit there upon a libel by the mate of a ship for mariners wages, upon suggestion of the several statutes, which restrain the admiralty from proceeding upon contracts made upon the land. And (by him) the admiralty has no original jurisdiction of such suits, 13 Rep. 51. And, though they are in their nature maritime, yet the place where the contract is made, alters the case, 12 Rep. 79, 80. Therefore the admiralty has no jurisdiction of charter-parties, nor of policies of assurance, 4 Inst. 141. Prohibition granted to a suit is for a mariner's wages, 1 Sid. 331. Besides, that in this case the suit is by a single mariner; and, therefore, it is the same thing to him, to sue here at common law, or in the admiralty. And the case of Woodward vers. Bonithon, Raym. 3, is a case in point. For, though the suit was for other things as well as for mariners wages, yet, if a prohibition had not lain for the wages, the prohibition should have been granted quoad, &c. Objection, 1 Ventr. 343. Answer, That is no authority in this case, because the motion was made there after sentence; and, if it does not appear in the libel that the court had not jurisdiction, no prohibition shall be granted after sentence. See 2 Roll. Abr. 318. 12 Co. 77.

Mr. Pratt against the prohibition argued, That, if all the mariners sue for wages in the admiralty, the King's-Bench at this day will never grant a prohibition, 1 Ventr. 343. and there is no difference where the suit is by one mariner or many, 2 Ventr. 181. Alleston v. Marsh, in point; and the mate of the ship is but one mariner. Objection. Raym. 3. Woodward v. Bonithon. Answer. There the contract was for other things as well as for mariners wages, and the contract is entire; and, per curiam, there is no difference where one mariner libels and where many: for the reason why the King's-Bench permits mariners to libel in the admiralty for their wages, is not only because they are privileged to join in suit in the admiralty, whereas they ought to sever at common law, because the contracts are several; but also by the maritime law mariners have security in the ship for their wages, and it is a sort of implied hypothecation to them: therefore the King's-Bench allows mariners to sue in the admiralty for their wages, because they have the ship there for security. But the question is here, whether the mate of a ship differs from any other mariner; for, if the plaintiff had been a single mariner, doubtless no prohibition would have been granted. And it seemed to the court, that the mate is but a mariner; and, per Holt chief justice, heretofore the common law was too severe against the admiralty, it did not allow stipulations; but at this day they are always allowed. Ruled, That Mr. Pratt move the court for their opinion at another day. Lord Raymond, 397.

Clay versus Snelgrave.

The defendant, as executrix to the master of a ship, libelled in the admiralty court for the wages owing to the testator by the owner. On which the plaintiff, to have a prohibition, suggested the statute of 15 Rich. II. cap. 3. that the admiralty court shall not have cognizance of contracts made upon the land, and shews this contract to have been made upon the land. And this case was several times moved by Sir Bartholomew Shower, and Mr. Acherley, for the prohibition, as well

well in Michaelmas as Hilary and Easter terms last past, as in this present term; and it was opposed by Mr. Northey and Mr. Hall; and the counsel for the prohibition argued, That prohibitions are grantable de jure, and are not discretionary in the court. Raym. 3, 4. That the case in Winch rep. 8. was the first case where a prohibition was denied in case of a suit by mariners for their wages in the admiralty court; and the denial was grounded upon compassionate reasons, because they were poor men, and because there they might join in action, but here they must sever; but the said case is contrary to the reason and grounds of the law, for, where the contract is made upon the land, though the service was done upon the sea, it is out of the jurisdiction of the admiralty, and so vice versa, if the service was done upon the land, and the contract upon the sea. 12 Co. 79, 80. Staunf. 51. C. Hob. 212. A consultation is always denied in case of a suit by mariners, if there is a charter-party [see CHARTER-PARTY] and the sealing of a writing cannot make any difference in reason, Raym. 3, a prohibition granted where the master libelled alone. Mr. Northey and Mr. Hall è contra for the defendant said, That the case of mariners was now settled, and ought not to be stirred; but that the great reason why they are permitted to sue there is, the ship is the debtor, and, by the law of the admiralty, they may attack her, which they cannot do by the common law; and, in the admiralty court, they may all join in suit, whereas, by the common law, they must bring several actions: that the case of the master is not different, for the ship is security to him, and he is but a mariner, and his wages are wages at sea.

But however, where the master dies in the voyage, as he did in this case, there can be no reason to exclude his executors from suing in the admiralty, because he had no opportunity of bringing his wages to account with the owners; and in 2 Vent. 181, Alleston versus Marsh, the purser, though an officer of the ship, was allowed to sue for his wages in the admiralty; and in 2 Keb. 779. Pl. 6. Rex versus Pike, a prohibition was denied, where the master and mariners joined in a suit in the admiralty for their wages. (But Holt said, that a prohibition ought to have been granted quoad in the said case.) And he cited a case, Hil. 27 and 28 Car. II. C. B. between Cooker and Older, where Atkins and Ellis justices were of opinion, That a prohibition ought to be granted to the suit in the admiralty court by the master of a ship for his wages; but North chief justice, and Windham justice, held the contrary opinion. But Holt chief justice said, That it is an indulgence that the courts at Westminster permit mariners to sue for their wages in the admiralty court, because they may all join in suit; and it is grounded upon the principle, Quod communis error facit jus; but they will not extend it to the master of the ship, especially if he was master at the beginning of the voyage here in England, and the contract was made with him here. Possibly if the master of a ship died in the voyage, and another man took upon him the charge of the ship upon the sea, such case might be different. As in the case of Grosswick versus Louthsley, where it was held in this court lately, that, if a ship was hypothecated, and money borrowed upon her, at Amsterdam, upon the voyage, he who lent the money may sue the admiralty for it: and this court granted a consultation in the said case. But in another case, where the money was borrowed upon the ship before the voyage, the King's-Bench granted a prohibition, and the parties acquiesced under it. There are many precedents, in the court of admiralty, of suits by the mariners for their wages, but none for the master of the ship. And the cases differ; for the mariners contract upon the credit of the ship, and the master upon the credit of the owners of the ship, of whom generally he is one. The opinion of lord Hobart, That, where there is matter of property to be tried, a prohibition shall be granted is a little too hard. Gould justice agreed with Holt, and said, he was of opinion that prohibitions were grantable of right, though it had been controverted in his time. To which Holt chief justice said, That Hale chief justice, and Windham justice, held prohibitions to be discretionary in all cases; but Kelynge chief justice was of the contrary opinion; and he said, He did not esteem them to be matter of right. Then Mr. Northey moved, That the court would compel the plaintiff to put in bail to the action, to be brought for the wages at common law, or otherwise deny the prohibition; which, he said, had been done often. Holt chief justice confessed, That the court had sometimes interposed, and procured bail to be given; but it was by consent, and in case of the proprietor himself; but, in regard that in this case the plaintiff was a purchaser without notice, there was no reason; and a prohibition was granted. Lord Raymond, vol. i. p. 397.

Baily versus Grant.

Upon the motion of Mr. Raymond, towards the end of last Michaelmas term, a rule was made to hear counsel of both sides, the first day of this term, why a prohibition should not be granted to the court of admiralty, to stay a suit there by the mate of a ship, for his wages. And he urged, That the admitting the mariners to sue there, was rather an indulgence

than any proper jurisdiction that they had to hold plea there of wages arising upon a contract made upon the land; and that it was a long while before it was permitted, but that now it ought not to be extended any farther: that, in the case of a master of a ship, a prohibition was granted last Trinity term, between Clay and Snelgrave (ante 576.) that this seemed to be a middle case, but rather inclining to that of the master; because, in case of the death of the master, he succeeded in the government of the ship, and was always overseer of all the other mariners: that the same motion was made Mich. 10 Will. III. B. R. between Hooke and Moreton (ante 397.) and that the rule was made as here, to hear counsel, &c. and, upon it's being many times moved, no prohibition was made, and they proceeded no farther in the admiralty; for which, &c. But è contra serjeant Hall argued, That no prohibition ought to be granted; and of that opinion was the whole court, because the mate is not distinguishable from other mariners, only in title: he contracts with the master, and is as his servant, and, therefore, does not differ from the mariners. But the master contracts with the owners upon their credit; whereas the mate contracts only with the master, and not upon the credit of the owners, but upon the credit of the ship: and, therefore, the rule was discharged. The same rule was made this term, upon a motion in the Common-Pleas. See 2 Vent. 181. Marsh versus Alleston. Lord Raymond, vol. i. p. 632.

Upon a motion for a new trial in an action for a seaman's wages, Holt chief justice said, That, if the ship be lost before the first port of delivery, then the seamen lose all their wages; but, if after she has been at the first port of delivery, then they lose only those from the last port of delivery; but if they run all away, although they have been at a port of delivery, yet they lose all their wages. Lord Raymond, vol. i. page 639.

John Edwards, and Elizabeth his wife, widow and executrix of Capt. Jenefer, versus Sir Richard Child, Shepherd, and others, owners of the ship Success, and the East-India company.

In 1693, Jenefer was appointed captain of the ship Success, on a voyage to India, at 10l. per month wages, and to have two servants, the one at 30s. per month, and the other at 20s. per month wages. Jenefer, the master, and the defendants, the part-owners, enter into a charter party with the East-India company, in which recital was made, that the company had paid to the master and mariners in part of freight, 1200l. by way of imprest-money; and further agreed, that the seamen, at the end of every six months during the voyage, should receive one months wages, and that, until six days after the return of the ship to the port of London, the East-India company were not to pay any freight, save the said imprest-money, which was not to be returned, although the ship should be lost in the voyage: and therefore, by the direction of the company, Jenefer the commander, when he hired the seamen, took bonds from them not to demand any wages till the return of the ship to the port of London, and that they should not demand any wages, if the ship was lost before her return to London.

The ship failed to Bengal, and there delivered her outward-bound cargo. In her return home the ship was taken by the French, on the coast of Ireland, and the captain and mariners made prisoners.

The captain was sued by the mariners for their wages, being four months, that became due at Bengal, the first delivering port; and, although the bonds were given in evidence, yet the mariners recovered their wages, in an action tried before the lord chief justice Holt.

The bill by the plaintiffs, the wife being the executrix of Capt. Jenefer, was to recover about 800l. he had been forced to pay to the mariners, and likewise to have the captain's own wages, and the wages of his servants, for four months, that became due at Bengal, the first delivering port.

Upon producing of precedents, where relief had been given in like cases, viz. the case of Sir Humphry Edwin and Capt. Stafford, against the East India-company, in 1695, and the case of Buck and Sir Thomas Rawlinson, affirmed upon an appeal in the house of peers: notwithstanding the East-India company had taken bonds from the mariners, not to demand their wages, unless the ship returned to the port of London, the lord chancellor decreed the plaintiffs to be paid the wages due to Capt. Jenefer, for himself and servants, and likewise what Jenefer had paid to the seamen, with interest and costs.

Vernon's Reports, vol. ii. p. 727.

MARITIME, or MARINE AFFAIRS, and MARINE TREATIES, relating to trade and navigation.

Under the following articles we have represented, in our First Volume, many essential particulars which have relation to marine commerce, of which it may be requisite to apprise the reader; viz. ADMIRALTY, ASSURANCE of shipping and merchandizes, AVERAGE, BARATRY, BILLS of LADING, BOTTOMRY, CAP MERCHANT, CHARTER-PARTY, CONVOYS and CRUIZERS, FLOTSAM, GREEN-

WICH HOSPITAL, HANSE-TOWNS, HYPOTHECATION, and INDULTO.

In this our Second Volume we continue the same subject, under these several particular heads, viz. MARINERS, MARQUE, LETTERS of, MASTERS of SHIPS, NAVAL AFFAIRS, OLERON, it's LAW of marine trade, PILOTS, PORTS and HAVENS, PIRACY, PRIZES, QUARENTINE, RHODIAN LAWS of marine trade, SEA LAWS, SALVAGE, SHIPPING, WISBUY LAWS of marine trade, WRECKS, &c. &c.

Under the present article, we shall give an abstract of the principal MARINE TREATIES concluded since the year 1600, between the chief princes, states, and sovereigns of Europe, which may be useful to have recourse to upon peculiar occasions.

The first piece of this nature that occurs is the memorable league into which the STATES-GENERAL entered with the republic of LUBECK, in the year 1613, which was solemnly confirmed about two years and eight months afterwards, and strengthened by the accession of most of the other HANSE-TOWNS, upon the following occasion :

The king of Denmark having, some time before, laid heavy taxes upon their ships sailing through the straits of the Sound, &c. [see the article DENMARK] they found the new impositions not a little detrimental to their navigation; and the northern traffic being none of the most inconsiderable branches of the Dutch trade, as well as of that of the HANSE-TOWNS, they soon began to let their uneasiness appear, and so negotiated their business among themselves; and the town of Lubeck first brought the business to a conclusion, by means of the following treaty with the States-General; in which, though not a word is said of his Danish majesty, that prince easily penetrated into the design of that combination; and, the new confederates being, on the other side, apprehensive of his repentment, it was thought convenient to fortify the alliance, by receiving into it several of the other HANSE-TOWNS, who judged it their interest to join with the others, with a design to enter into a vigorous war with the king of Denmark, whose late impositions they were resolved not to pay: for though they pretended that their alliance was only defensive, they certainly intended to reduce that prince to a necessity of abolishing the beforementioned taxes; which may be gathered from the treaty as it hereunder follows :

A treaty between the States of the United Provinces of the Low-Countries, and the town of Lubeck, concluded in the year 1613.

As of ancient time the honourable the common-council of the free and imperial city of Lubeck, and several other towns situate on the northern and eastern seas, have been in union and amity with divers towns of the free United Provinces, for the defence of the liberty of navigation, trade, and commerce, &c.—And as now their high mightinesses the States-General of the United Provinces, &c. have found it necessary to negotiate and treat about the renewing the aforesaid union, by the noble deputies, &c.—Who, after several conferences, have agreed together, treated, consented, and concluded upon the points and articles following :

I. That this union be only for maintaining the freedom of navigation and commerce in the northern and eastern seas, the sole intent being, that the respective subjects of the union, according to the law of nations, &c. may accordingly enjoy the same without molestation; so that the subjects of the said union may reciprocally defend and protect each other, against such as would disturb them, that the difficulties detrimental to the common trade and navigation may be removed, &c.

II. In so doing, this union shall not be prejudicial to the friendship of his imperial majesty, nor the holy empire, nor to their royal majesties of France and Great-Britain. &c.

III. Those of the union shall faithfully observe these articles, and confirm them by oath.

IV. The States-General shall manage this union to the best advantage of the common cause; but in such manner, as the common-council of Lubeck may give a voice in all the deliberations; for which purpose a person from Lubeck shall always reside at the Hague, on behalf of the town; and the States-General may depute some person to reside at Lubeck, the better to deliberate with the council of that place.

V. Those of the union shall contribute towards the charges, according to the obligations into which they are entered, in order to furnish ships, foot and horse, &c.

VI. If such who interrupt commerce and navigation, after having been amicably required to desist, refuse, against justice and reason, to do it, those of the union shall defend themselves vigorously, to secure to them such liberty of commerce and navigation.

VII. If the consequence hereof should be a war, those of the union shall recall their subjects from the service of the adverse party, on pain of death, and confiscation of their estates. Nor shall it be allowable to procure, or send to the adverse party, money, troops, ships, ammunition, arms, provisions, &c. on pain of corporal punishment; and all endeavours shall

be used to prevent their receiving such succours from other places.

VIII. And, if the adverse party shall arrest the subjects, ships, merchandizes, or debts of those of the union, or surprize them at sea, and carry them off, orders shall be given to the towns and countries of the union to make reprisals, and mutually to assist each other.

IX. The ships of those of the union may freely enter into the harbours and rivers of each other, to provide necessaries, or to refit; but no violence shall be used, and they shall pay for what they take.

X. The subjects of the union shall, in all their countries, enjoy the privileges of a citizen, and even the right of succession, which shall descend without distinction of religion, as permitted in the holy empire; but every one shall submit himself to the laws of the place.

XI. None of those of the union shall enter into any treaty, or be reconciled to the enemy, without the consent of the others: on the contrary, all the members shall endeavour to keep their citizens, inhabitants, ships, merchandizes, and effects, free from all damage, and to maintain them in their liberties and privileges, &c.

XII. So that no peace or truce shall be made with the enemy, but with the reciprocal consent of all the members.

XIII. This league shall remain in force for 50 years, which, with the common consent, may be prolonged.—If, during the same, or even after the expiration thereof, any of the union receive any damage by reason thereof, whether by sea or land, they shall mutually assist each other against all persons whatsoever.

XIV. If any potentate, country, or city, and especially if any of the other Hanse-Towns, desire to enter into this union, they shall be received upon reasonable conditions.

In witness whereof, two copies of these presents have been made, and confirmed by oath, and sealed with the seals of their high mightinesses the States-General, and of the said town of Lubeck, and signed by their respective clerk and syndic; of which copies each party has retained one.—Done in the month of May, in the year 1613, and underwritten,

By order of the States-General,

Signed AERSEN.

And, by order of the honourable the council of the town of Lubeck,

Signed MARTIN NORDAMUS,

Syndic of the republic of Lubeck.

Here follows the second league, concluded between the Dutch and the republic of Lubeck, together with several of the other Hanse-Towns; which, though it be much to the same effect with the former, is of too great importance not to deserve a place in this work.

A treaty of alliance, between the United Provinces of the Low-Countries and the Hanse-Towns, concluded in the month of December, 1615, in consequence of that concluded with the town of Lubeck in the year 1613.

As not only the Hanse-Towns of the east, situate upon the Eastern Sea, together with those upon the Wexel, the Oder, the Elbe, and the Weser, and the neighbourhood thereof, but likewise several towns of the Low-Countries, situate upon the Northern and Southern Seas, as also those situate on the Maese, the Wale, the Rhine, and the Yssel, and other streams and rivers flowing into the Northern and Southern Seas have been comprehended in the common league of the Hanse-Towns, and have remained in a firm union and friendship with one another, and have obtained of the neighbouring kingdoms and countries many common liberties, privileges, and prerogatives, which, by their united counsels, strength, and forces, and by the defensive arms of several of them, have been defended and maintained; and, as the Hanse-Towns of the Low-Countries have, in latter times, by reason of a tedious war, and other accidental misunderstandings, being hindered from assisting at the general meetings of the Hanse-Towns, and, by reason of their own burthens, have not been able to bear the charges of the common league, which some of their neighbours have taken to be a rupture and separation, and which has occasioned several uneasy burthens upon the freedom of traffic, commerce, and navigation, which ought to be remedied; that has put a fresh obligation upon the parties concerned, to think of ways and means by which, with the divine assistance, these inconveniencies may be removed, and the aforesaid liberties and common rights and prerogatives may be re-established and confirmed. And as, in this succession of time, the greater part of the Hanse-Towns do look upon their high mightinesses the States-General of the United Provinces as members of their state, and not judging it convenient to labour separately towards the said re-establishment,

re-establishment, but in conjunction with their high mightinesses, since, by that means, the treaty that shall be concluded will be more useful, more profitable, and more convenient, there having been of late years, several deliberations upon that subject, upon which the burghermasters and the common-council of the free and imperial city of Lubeck did treat with the aforesaid lords the States-General, in the month of May in the year 1613: for these causes, after mature deliberation, the said lords the States-General have, by their deputies, together with those of the Hanse Towns of the east, renewed the antient friendship and union that was between them; and, in order to unite themselves yet more closely, have concluded and agreed upon the points and articles following:

I. That this union shall not be offensive with regard to any; but only for maintaining and preserving the freedom of navigation and commerce in the Northern and Eastern Seas, and shall not be any otherwise understood: so that those of the union respectively, and their subjects, may, without any impediment, enjoy the benefit of the laws of nations, and all the liberties, rights, and privileges usual in the aforesaid Northern and Eastern Seas, and in the rivers, streams, and other currents. All those of the union shall defend conjointly, and protect their citizens, inhabitants, and subjects, who may be by unjust means molested by others, and to whom commerce may be forbidden, or upon whose merchandizes any particular impost may be laid in going or coming; to the end that the said impediments and redoubled imposts, so prejudicial to commerce and navigation, may be abolished, and the same may be freely carried on throughout the holy German empire, and may be increased for the benefit and advantage of those of the union.

II. Wherefore this union shall not be prejudicial to the friendship contracted with his imperial majesty and the holy empire, with their majesties of France and Great Britain, and with the evangelical electors and circles of the holy empire, and which has been hitherto maintained with their lordships the States-General, and likewise with the honourable Hanse-Towns, who have been 'till now under the protection and obedience of his imperial majesty and the holy empire, and every town that has a mediate authority, all the leagues, rights, statutes, ordinances, and obligations, shall remain in their full force; the whole, however, *Salvo præsentis fœdere*.

III. Those of the union shall sincerely observe and maintain the present articles, which they shall confirm by oath.

IV. Their lordships the States-General shall manage this union to the best advantage of all the members thereof; but in such a manner, however, that in all undertakings, each party shall freely give their voice: for which end there shall always be a resident at the Hague from the Hanse-Towns of the east, who shall give his advice in what concerns the union; and the States-General may appoint another person to reside at Lubeck, or at such other place as occasion shall require; to the end that the mutual advices and opinions may be the more easily communicated, and what shall be necessary may be effected.

V. Those of the union shall keep in good order, and well provided, at their expences, the ships, and troops of foot and horse, and all things belonging thereto, according to the contributions which each is obliged to furnish, and for the time that shall be judged convenient; and shall cause them to repair to the places whither it shall be thought necessary to send them, according as the name of every Hanse-Town of the union, and the quotas of the said contributions, are contained in the particular writings.

VI. And, in case it happens that those that would cause any impediments to be given to navigation and commerce, against the aforesaid privileges and treaties agreed to, will not desist, after having been thereto amicably required, and according to the rules of justice, reason, and equity, those of the union shall proceed against them defensively; the design of the union being only to assure the liberty of commerce and navigation. And if it should happen that any of the towns of the union should, because thereof, or by reason of any particular privilege, suffer any damage, the said town shall be forthwith assisted, 'till liberty is obtained, and reparation of damage made.

VII. And if, by the common consent, war should break out, those of the union shall command their inhabitants and subjects, whether seamen or soldiers, that are in the service of the adverse party, to abandon the same under pain of death and confiscation of effects. Nor shall it be allowable to send from the towns and countries of their obedience, to the said adverse party, money, troops, ships, ammunition, arms, provisions, or such other things; but, on the contrary, that shall be forbidden, on pain of corporal punishment; and all endeavours shall be used, as far as it is possible, to hinder others from furnishing them.

VIII. And in case, also, the adverse party should arrest the persons, ships, merchandizes, and debts of the subjects of those of the union, or if they are surprized at sea, or taken or carried off, they shall make reprisals in the countries of those of the union; and, in that case, they shall mutually assist and defend one another.

IX. The ships of those of the union may frequent the rivers and harbours of each other, without any let or hindrance, and there refit their vessels, and provide themselves with all manner of necessities; upon condition that no violence be used, but that they thankfully pay for every thing they take.

X. The subjects of those of the union shall every-where enjoy, in the towns and countries thereof, the rights of citizens, and shall inherit such successions as belong to them, according to the customs of the place, without any distinction of religion, as it is practised and permitted in the holy empire; but every one shall behave himself as a citizen, and shall submit and conform himself to the laws of the place.

XI. None of those of the union shall make any agreement with the adverse party, without the consent of the others, nor suffer any thing to be done to the prejudice and damage of the others; but, on the contrary, shall endeavour to maintain the common tranquillity, and to keep each others citizens, inhabitants, subjects, ships, merchandizes, and effects, free from all molestation, and secure to them the enjoyment of the liberties and privileges aforesaid.

XII. A peace, or truce, with the adverse party, must be concluded with the common advice and consent of all, and not otherwise.

XIII. This league shall remain in force twelve years, and shall be prolonged with the common consent. But if any of those of the union, during the said league, or even after the expiration thereof, should be attacked or injured by reason thereof, all the members shall mutually assist one another.

XIV. If any potentate, country, or town, desire to enter into this league, they shall be received, with the common consent, upon reasonable terms.

In witness whereof, divers uniform copies of these presents have been drawn up, for their high mightinesses and the Hanse-Towns, which shall be confirmed by oath, and by the apposition of the reciprocal seals, after that a report thereof has been made. Concluded in the month of December, in the year 1615.

R E M A R K S.

These leagues having, for the most part, wrought the desired effect, and deterred the enemies of the Hanseatic liberties from prosecuting the designs that were suspected to have been formed against them, things continued much in the same condition till the year 1640, or thereabouts, that the Hanse-Towns, being again disturbed with fresh jealousies, began to renew and fortify their former league, and take all the other necessary measures for preventing a surprisal from any of their real or supposed enemies.

In order thereunto, the towns of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburgh, first began to enter into a strict alliance among themselves, by a negotiation then set on foot, and at last brought to a conclusion between them, by a treaty dated the 24th of November, 1641; which being pretty long, we shall here content ourselves with taking notice only of what is most material.

In the preface to that treaty they declare, That, finding the present posture of affairs to be such as might give them just grounds to provide for the security of their proper rights and privileges, both in spiritual and in temporal matters, the most effectual means, for preserving them from being liable to foreign violence and oppression, would be to renew the ancient amity and good intelligence with the rest of the Hanse-Towns; in order to which, and for the interest and advantage of his imperial majesty, and of the holy empire, they agree upon the following articles:

I. That they shall forthwith put themselves in a good posture of defence, by fortifying all their towns, and raising in proportion to their strength, a competent number of regular troops, and putting their own citizens and servants in condition to protect them against all sudden insults and attempts that might be made against the Hanseatic towns, or any of them.

II. That they shall upon all occasions, and especially in the present critical conjuncture, live in a perfect repose and union with one another, and without giving any subject of offence to any other person or persons whatsoever.

III. That, in case of any sudden hostility committed against any of their members, the injured party shall not expect any succour from the others, 'till, by their interposition in an amicable manner, the others endeavour to compose the differences, and procure them a reasonable satisfaction.

IV. But that, if such friendly methods of proceeding should prove at last ineffectual, and the aggressor should unreasonably persist in oppressing any of their towns, in their spiritual or temporal rights, liberties, privileges, prerogatives, commerce, navigation, persons, or effects, by sieges, blockades, building of fortresses, hostile invasions, exacting of contributions, arms, ammunitions, provisions, or other violent and unjust oppressions, then the party injured shall be speedily and effectually assisted, according to the necessity and circumstances of the case, with men and money, and every other thing that might be necessary for them.

V. That none of the confederates, nor their subjects, shall give in any manner of succour or necessities to the enemy, openly

openly or secretly; and that such as shall be convicted of the same shall be severely punished.

VI. The aforementioned succours and assistance shall be given as is above expressed, against all and every person and persons that shall do any damage to any of the league, by sea or land, or in the ports and rivers.

VII. If the town insulted be of opinion that the imminency of the danger cannot admit of a preliminary deliberation, the inhabitants may immediately call the others to their assistance, and then an assembly shall be appointed.

VIII. If any town be so suddenly attacked that the others cannot send a timely succour, those that are nearest shall not only send thither their soldiers, but shall likewise advance at least one month's pay, and shall also raise immediately other troops; of which charges they shall be reimbursed by the other confederate towns, with all convenient speed, &c.

IX. If two or three towns should be attacked at one time, the whole confederate towns shall nevertheless succour and assist one another, to the utmost of their power.

X. For the more speedy dispatch of affairs, the oppressed town shall immediately make known its condition to its nearest neighbours, who shall forthwith acquaint the other confederates that they, without any delay, may appoint a diet, and send thither their deputies.

XI. And, if the danger be very imminent, the oppressed town shall have power to appoint a diet, according to the exigency of the case.

XII. The direction of any defensive war shall reside in those to whom the succour is sent; but, if they require it at their hands, the other confederates shall send deputies to assist at the deliberations.

XIII. If any town is so suddenly attacked or blocked up, as that the others cannot send in any persons to them, they shall endeavour to find means to send out one or more persons, to let their confederates know their circumstances.

XIV. However, such as have been, or still are oppressed, being succoured by the confederates, shall not conclude any treaty without their privacy and consent.

XV. And, if things can be brought to any reasonable accommodation, all possible endeavours shall be used to obtain satisfaction to the injured party, and to bring the treaty to such a conclusion that the parties may have no occasion left for future quarrels.

XVI. This league, which is in confirmation of the eighth article of the former, shall subsist during ten years, and may then be renewed and prolonged; and, in case of a war, reasonable satisfaction shall be made to such as have been at the charge thereof.

XVII. If, after the expiration of this league, any of the members thereof should come to be attacked by reason of it, they shall, notwithstanding that the league be expired, mutually assist each other.

XVIII. Lastly, all the Hanseatic towns that will enter into this league upon the aforementioned conditions, shall be received by the common consent.

All which articles shall be faithfully and sincerely observed. Signed and sealed, &c.

R E M A R K S.

This treaty being so concluded, the states of Holland found it their interest to enter into another, with the towns of Bremen and Hamburg, on the 4th day of August, in the year 1645; of which you may take the following short account, which I have carefully extracted out of the Latin original.

The preface to the treaty insinuates, That there having been of ancient time a firm and sincere friendship between their high mightinesses the States-General and the honourable cities of Bremen and Hamburg, and the other Hanseatic towns, and it being necessary, for their common interest and security, to cultivate and augment that good intelligence, by renewing their former engagements, they oblige themselves to observe the following articles:

I. The league shall not be offensive to any, but shall only tend to the security and freedom of commerce and navigation, according to the laws of nations, and the rights and privileges formerly granted them by several treaties and contracts.

II. The said league shall not be prejudicial to the friendships of the states and their confederates with his imperial majesty and the holy empire, nor to the obedience that some of the said confederates owe to his said majesty; and that the other confederates shall not, by virtue of this league, be under any obligation to concern themselves in the present war between the king of Spain and them.

III. That if any of the confederates should be oppressed in their trade, or otherwise, the other shall endeavour to compose all matters amicably; and, that means failing, all the members should contribute toward the charges of a defensive war.

IV. That the states shall manage the affairs of the confederates, to the common advantage, with the advice of the other members; and deputies shall be appointed to reside for that purpose, at convenient places.

V. That the ships of all the confederated towns, &c. shall freely enjoy each other's ports and harbours, &c. paying for what provisions they shall have occasion.

VI. That if any dissension should happen among the confederates themselves, they shall be amicably composed.

VII. That none of the parties shall act any thing to the prejudice of the other members, or any of them, but shall, as much as in them lies, contribute to the interest, honour, and advantage of each other.

VIII. That the league shall subsist fifteen years.

IX. That the other Hanseatic towns shall be received with the common consent.

X. And, lastly, That the ratifications shall be exchanged within two months.

Signed and sealed the 4th of August, 1645.

R E M A R K S.

This treaty being so concluded, nine days afterwards another was brought to a period at Christianople, between the ambassador of the king of Denmark and those of the States-General; by which it is agreed:

I. That there shall be a firm and sincere friendship between the subjects of both parties, who shall mutually perform all good offices to one another, in so far as the treaties of either party with other princes and estates could allow it.

II. That, for the forty years next ensuing, the tolls shall be paid in the Baltic Sea according to a regulation signed and confirmed between them; and that, during that time, they should not be augmented; but that, after the expiration thereof, things should be regulated according to the treaty concluded in the year 1544, except another treaty should intervene within the aforesaid time.

III. The searching of the ships and goods belonging to the inhabitants of the United Provinces, and passing through the Baltic Sea, shall cease, and intire credit shall be given to the mariners that produce their cockets*, who, thereupon paying the toll, shall be dismissed without any trouble or molestation, and shall not be detained in the customary place (called Den Drooghen) near Copenhagen. But if, in time to come, it should appear that his Danish majesty is defrauded in the toll, their high mightinesses, being acquainted therewith, shall think upon convenient methods for remedying the same, and shall take care that no injustice of any nature be done to his majesty.

* Cocket signifies a certificate and clearance, ordinarily given by the officers of any custom-house to ships going to sea.

IV. The transportation of no goods (what name soever they bear) shall be forbid through the Baltic Sea.

V. All goods that shall be proved really to belong to the subjects of the United Provinces, whether exported or imported, shall not pay any greater duties in the kingdom of Denmark and Norway, than are paid by the subjects and inhabitants of the said kingdoms themselves: nor shall his Danish majesty's subjects pay any greater duties in the said provinces than the inhabitants.

VI. Ships fully laden in any port of the kingdom of Norway, being once searched there, and having paid their tolls, shall not be searched again in the same, nor in any other port at which they may touch, but, upon producing the receipt thereof, shall be freely dismissed; but, if they lade in several ports, they shall be searched there, and not elsewhere: and, as the exportation of oak is prohibited and forbidden, if any person is convicted of exporting any of the said wood, he shall be fined in double the price of the oak.

VII. The toll shall be paid in Norway, in the same quantity and manner that was usual in the year 1628, nor shall any greater be exacted till his Danish majesty and their high mightinesses agree about the method of exacting the duties for all sorts of wood; concerning which affair his majesty and their high mightinesses shall enter into a treaty, as soon as that can be conveniently done, that something more certain may be determined about it.

VIII. The merchants and mariners of the United Provinces, shall by no means be obliged to purchase their planks of some certain persons in Norway, but shall buy the same at such places, and of such persons as they please.

IX. The ships of the subjects of the United Provinces trading to Norway, shall be measured by two Norwegian and as many Dutch mariners, to whom that service shall be intrusted; and, being signed by them, shall be confirmed by the magistrates of the place, and recorded in the books of his judicature, that the mariners, in case of necessity, may have recourse to the same; and afterwards the measure shall be marked upon the mast and beak-head of the ship, that the toll may be the more conveniently determined, till it be otherwise agreed, as is already said.

X. Full and ample restitution shall be made for all the extortions that the subjects of the United Provinces can prove to have been made, against his Danish majesty's command, after the year 1641 (4 per cent. of the price or quantity of the wood being deducted) as of every thing that has been exacted contrary to the treaty then entered into.

XI. The present treaty concluded between his Danish majesty and their high mightinesses shall be signed and sealed by his majesty and the most serene prince of Denmark, and all and every one of the counsellors of the kingdom.

XII. The rights and privileges granted to the towns of the United Provinces of the Low-Countries by the treaty of Spiers, and published and confirmed by the authority of the ancient kings of Denmark, shall not be in any manner diminished by the present treaty, but shall remain as formerly, in their full and entire force, &c.

XIII. His Danish majesty obliges himself that he shall not, upon any account, detain any of the ships belonging to the subjects of the United Provinces, nor take any goods or merchandizes out of them, nor force any of them into his service, without first agreeing with the masters and proprietors thereof, and paying them the full price of the same; nor shall he, without the consent of the possessors, take out of the said ship any men or warlike necessaries, or other things, under any pretence whatsoever, and it shall be free for them to sail through the mouth of the Baltic, and to trade through all his majesty's dominions.

XIV. Goods exported out of the United Provinces, in foreign ships, shall be suffered freely to pass through the mouth of the Baltic Sea, paying the same toll that is usually paid for goods exported out of the United Provinces: but, upon this condition, that it shall be made appear, by sufficient testimonies either from the cities of the said United Provinces, or others situate upon the ocean, that the said goods belong to no other but the subjects and inhabitants thereof.

XV. All the subjects of the said provinces that reside in the eastern cities, carrying either their own goods, or those of the other subjects or inhabitants of the said provinces through the Baltic, shall be treated in the same manner as the other inhabitants thereof.

XVI. The ships of the United Provinces having paid the toll, and being searched in any port of Denmark, shall not again be searched in any other port of Denmark and Norway, except they take aboard goods there; but, on the contrary, they shall be freely dismissed.

XVII. The receivers, and other officers of the tolls in Norway, shall not exact of the mariners any more than what is due, nor take any more for their discharge, than the king's order bears; and his majesty shall cause such as do otherwise to be severely punished.

XVIII. As to what concerns the toll at Gluckstadt, if that affair cannot be accommodated by the treaty now commenced for that effect with the city of Hamburg, the subjects of the United Provinces, producing their ordinary certificate, shall be free from the effect thereof.

XIX. And as, by virtue of the present articles, all differences between his Danish majesty, and their high mightinesses the States-General of the United Provinces, are composed and entirely removed, it is mutually agreed and promised, by the ambassadors and commissaries of either part, that the ratifications shall be delivered on both sides within three months. Signed and sealed, &c. at Christianople, the 13th day of August, 1645.

R E M A R K S.

To this treaty (of which we have left out some tedious formalities, not material to our point) there is annexed a promise of the Danish ambassadors, by which they oblige themselves, in the king's name, to cause the * tariff, according to which the tolls were paid by the Hollanders in the year 1628, to be renewed and published with all convenient speed, and that nothing should be exacted of the subjects of the United Provinces, contrary to the contents of the said tariff.

* Tariff is a term properly expressing what we call the book of rates in England, being a book in which are written down the duties and customs to be paid on all sorts of goods.

Thus much being said of the circumstances and affairs of the Hollanders, and of the Hanse-Towns with the Danes, we thought it necessary to interrupt, for some time, the relation given of their marine intrigues and negotiations; to oblige the public with a treaty concluded on the very same day, viz. the 13th of August 1645, between the crowns of Sweden and Denmark, which being a curious and useful piece, and pertinent to our present subject, we shall here give a translation of as much as concerns navigation and marine affairs.

In the preamble of this treaty, the ambassadors, &c. of all parties set forth, That several misunderstandings and differences having of late arose between the crowns of Sweden and Denmark, and that especially concerning the immunity of commerce and navigation, and of the duties, &c. exacted in the narrow passage of the Sound; which differences having at last broke out into a war, to the great loss and disadvantage of both kingdoms, in the name of the most serene and mighty prince Lewis XIV. the most Christian king of France and of Navarre, his mother, the queen-regent, out of her sincere compassion towards those kingdoms, and her care for the welfare of all Christendom, and desire to prevent the further miseries and calamities of war, and to give repose and peace to Christendom, his most Christian majesty aforesaid, having, for that effect, sent the year before his ambassador extraordinary in the North, to the courts of Sweden and Denmark, with orders to exhort both to a re-

conciliation, by representing to them the miserable condition of the Christian world, and by offering to interpose the mediation of France, for the composition of their differences. For those causes her Swedish majesty, out of respect to his most Christian majesty, as well as out of the earnest desire she has to put an end to the war, and to enjoy and preserve peace within the limits of her kingdom, and to maintain a sincere friendship, and good correspondence with all her neighbours, and especially with Denmark and Norway, who, because of the vicinity of their situation, and for several other reasons, have many things in common with the kingdom of Sweden, has received the friendly counsel of his most Christian majesty, and accepts and acquiesces in the offers made of the interposition of the mediation of France, and his Danish majesty having likewise declared, that he accepts of the same mediation, a meeting being appointed at Bromsbroo upon the frontiers, on the 3d of February, between the commissaries and plenipotentiaries of both kingdoms, being four on each side, and of equal quality, where the said ambassadors being assembled, with the help and assistance of the ambassador of France as mediator, they concluded a firm and solid peace, and agreed to the following articles:

I. As to the passage and navigation through the straight of the Sound and Belt, and from the Baltic sea into the ocean, and likewise from the ocean into the Baltic sea, and the immunity from paying all tolls and taxes, because of the said passage and navigation, the certificates for goods, and the searching, visiting, stopping, and justiciary arrests and proceedings, established for ships and goods to prevent fraud, and preserve the ships and goods from all danger, and likewise for preserving the liberty of commerce, the interruption of which has given occasion to the present war and commotions, after many conferences, in which all means of reconciliation have been proposed and examined, it is agreed as under, viz.

I. It is promised in the name and on the behalf of his Danish majesty and his successors, and of the kingdom of Denmark, that, in time to come, her Swedish majesty, and her successors, kings and queens of Sweden, and their subjects and inhabitants in the kingdom of Sweden, great duchy of Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, shall have right, liberty, and power to navigate, whether in their own, or in hired ships, with all sorts of vessels great or small, armed or unarmed, men of war or merchantmen, and to transport their goods and effects of any kind or sort whatsoever, through the straights of the Sound and the Belt, according to the opportunity and pleasure of every man; nor shall that privilege be forbid them, nor they any ways troubled and molested in the enjoyment of the premises.

II. And this shall be so understood, that it shall be free for her Swedish majesty and her successors, and her and their said subjects, inhabiting in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, to transport, according to their power and pleasure, through the straights of the Sound and the Belt, all sorts of merchandize and effects, without distinction, exemption, or limitation, whether it be goods bought or purchased in other towns or kingdoms, or whether it be the product of the earth or manufactures; more especially all sorts of munitions of war, and every thing that may be useful therein, and particularly brass or iron guns, great or small fusils, musquets and arms, swords, ball, gunpowder, salt-petre, and every other thing belonging to war or arms, by what name soever it may be called, without any impediment, detention, inhibition, charge, or tax; whether such things be transported from Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, Livonia, Pomerania, Mecklenburgh, Lubeck, or from the towns of Prussia and Courland, into the lands along the ocean; or whether they be transported from the aforesaid places thro' the Baltic sea into Sweden, and the aforesaid provinces, or directly into Pomerania, Mecklenburgh, Lubeck, the towns of Prussia and Courland, or others.

III. All ships and goods of what kind soever, belonging to her Swedish majesty, and her subjects and inhabitants in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, their mariners, merchants, and other passengers, whether the ships belong entirely to them, or whether they have only a share in the same, shall be free from all tolls and taxes in the straights of the Sound and the Belt, that now are in practice, or that the mind of men can in time to come invent, under any pretence whatsoever, not only during their abode in the said straights of the Sound and the Belt, but likewise during the whole course of the voyage, whether in going or coming; but, if the vessels do wholly belong to strangers, or if they have any share therein, and the same may be only sailed by her Swedish majesty's subjects, they shall pay to the king of Denmark, for their passage through the Sound and the Belt, what ought to be paid according to treaties and customs, whether for the whole ship, if it entirely belongs to strangers, or for any part thereof proportionably; preserving, however, in every thing, the liberties and immunities of the Swedish ships, effects, and persons.

IV. It is agreed, as to the liberty of navigation of the Swedes and their exemption from tolls, and his Danish majesty pro-

mises and determines them in this manner, in his own name, and in that of his successors, kings of Denmark, and of that kingdom, that her Swedish majesty, and her subjects in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, shall, without distinction, enjoy these rights and liberties, in their persons, ships, goods, and merchandizes, whether of the product of the earth, or manufactures; and, in time to come, all the aforesaid ships of Sweden, and all others carrying Swedish goods and effects, writings and persons, shall be free from all searching, visiting, measuring, and other vexations in the passage of the Sound and the Belt, and that no right of superiority or jurisdiction shall be exercised over them in any thing concerning their passage, traffic, and navigation; and much less shall any ships be seized, or any effects taken out of the ships, or any ships forced into the Danish service, without the consent of the owners.

V. And because the certificates, and the different expositions and explications of them, have very much contributed to the establishing of the custom of searching of ships in the passage of the Sound, and given occasion to the differences that have happened, and to the present war between these kingdoms: for these causes, and for preventing such misunderstandings in time to come, and for the more easy distinguishing between the free ships and goods of Sweden, and those that are subject to the taxes, it is finally concluded and agreed by these presents, that all Swedish ships of war, great or small, laded or unladed, whether there be one alone, or several together, passing through the straits of the Sound, and sailing to Cronenborg (which shall not be practised in any other place of the passage of the Sound) shall strike the main sail in passing by the citadel of Cronenborg, and salute the same with the ordnance, which salutation shall likewise be returned by the citadel; and, if the ships of war continue their voyage, without coming to an anchor, it shall be free for them to sail on without any further ceremony; but, if it happens that any Swedish man of war come to an anchor in the straight of the Sound, and the governor of Cronenborg send to the captain to enquire of him, in a friendly manner, whence he comes, and desire him to shew his certificate, without picking otherwise any quarrel with him; the captain shall not decline shewing his passport to the person sent by the governor, but they shall receive and entertain one another with all imaginable respect and civility, and the captain shall not be troubled in any other manner whatsoever. And, as for the narrow passage of the Belt, the Swedish ships of war may freely pass by Nyburgh, according as the wind and their conveniency will allow them; but, if they come to an anchor, before, or near the citadel, the same thing shall be observed, that has been already expressed concerning the citadel of Cronenborg in the straight of the Sound.

VI. And besides, that all Swedish ships or vessels belonging to her Swedish majesty's subjects, and to the inhabitants of her majesty's dominions in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, wholly laden with the goods and effects of the merchants and inhabitants, shall be according to these articles and conventions free from all charge and vexation, provided they have general certificates for their free passage from her majesty and her officers in special matters, and in other cases from the consuls and senators of the towns, to have a jurisdiction over the ships and goods belonging to the citizens and inhabitants of the kingdom, by which it shall be certified in general terms, that the ships and goods do really belong to the subjects and inhabitants of Sweden, which certificate shall be conceived according to the following manner:

A form of the general maritime passport for a Swedish ship, entirely laded with Swedish goods; which (changing what is to be changed) may likewise serve for foreign ships, entirely laded with Swedish goods.

We consuls and senators of the town of _____ certify, that the ship _____ commanded by _____ (or some other town) belongs to our town of _____ in Sweden, and is only laded with goods belonging to Swedes, and is bound for the ocean, as the master and the owners thereof (if they be more than one) have declared before us in our court, desiring this certificate as a proof thereof: the ship and goods being thereby to be exempted from all taxes and vexations in the passage of the Sound and the Belt, according to the treaties between the two kingdoms. In testimony whereof, we have caused the seal of the town to be put to these presents, which we have likewise caused to be signed by the clerk. Given, &c.

Which certificate shall be shewn and consigned in the hands of the officers of his Danish majesty's custom-houses at Elfsineur and Nyburgh, in the passages of the Sound and the Belt, who thereupon shall be obliged forthwith to discharge the ships, with a testimony that they have passed with their lading; which testimony shall be conceived according to the following model:

A model of the testimony to be given by the officers of the custom-houses of Elfsineur and Nyburgh, to such as shew their certificates.

In the year one thousand _____ N. N. master of the ship the _____ belonging to the town of B. has delivered his certificate for ships and goods, dated at B. the _____ day of _____ in the year _____ In witness whereof we have given him this testimony &c.

Which being done, such masters may freely depart with their goods and men, without any hinderance, prejudice, charge, or vexation.

VII. Ships hired by merchants and inhabitants in Sweden, and only laded with Swedish goods, shall be treated in the same manner; and after shewing their certificates conceived in general terms, and leaving the same at Elfsineur or at Nyburgh, and receiving a testimony thereof (which is to be done without delay) paying what is due for ships that are wholly, or partly foreign, without prejudice to the rights of Swedish persons and goods, according to their proportions, it shall likewise be free for them to continue their voyage, without any further trouble or molestation.

VIII. And so if any Swedish merchant-ship, not laded, pass through the straits of the Sound and Belt, the master shall make it appear (as is already said) at Elfsineur and Nyburgh, by a general certificate, that he belongs to Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, or Livonia, after which he shall pay what is due, and depart at his own conveniency, without any other tax, vexation, hinderance, or detention.

IX. If any vessel, great or small, pass through the straits of the Sound or the Belt, laden partly with Swedish, and partly with foreign goods (which latter are liable to pay all the duties levied at that place) the master must have certificates of all the goods and effects he has aboard, belonging to the merchants of Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, in which shall be particularly expressed the weight of the goods in such manner as one may distinctly see all the heavy goods that are uncovered, and are not bound or packed up, with their weight, number, and measure, according to the custom of the sea; such as copper, brass, iron, pitch, of all sorts, corn, salt, salt-fish, butter, tallow, hemp, flax, and such other goods; and, as for small goods that can be put up in casks and barrels, they shall not be specified, but they shall be marked with a Swedish mark upon the casks and barrels, and it shall be expressed in the certificate, that the said casks and barrels, and the goods they contain, and which are not specified, belong to merchants and inhabitants of Sweden. And for the greater clearness of the thing, and avoiding all occasions of difference, there is here under added a model of the said certificates.

A form of the certificates to be given to the Swedish ships, laden partly with Swedish, and partly with foreign goods, which are subject to pay the taxes; which, making some alterations, may likewise serve for foreign ships hired by Swedes.

We consuls and senators of the town of N. certify, that, upon the day under-mentioned, P. P. citizen (or inhabitant) of our town of N. (or some other town) in Sweden, appearing before us at our court, declared, that he had shipped on board of the ship R. of which his owner S. S. and master T. T. the number of _____ pounds of copper, iron, or flax, or tons of wheat, rye, or barley; or the number of _____ beams, planks, or masts, or of _____ tons of wine, or the number of casks or barrels of goods and merchandizes, marked L. L. belonging to Q. Q. citizen (or inhabitant) of the town of C. in Sweden; and the said P. P. requiring this certificate to indemnify the ship and goods from all taxes and vexations in the straits of the Sound and the Belt, according to the treaties between the two kingdoms; we have granted him the same, after having caused it to be sealed with the seal of the town, and signed by the clerk. Given, &c.

Which certificate agreeing with the quantity of goods, and being shewn to the officers of the Danish custom-houses at Elfsineur and Nyburgh, the said Swedish goods, expressed in the certificate, shall be free and exempt from all other searching, visiting, detention, justiciary proceeding, or confiscation. But, if it happens that there be reason to search the ship for other prohibited goods, or others that are subject to the taxes; in that case, such goods as shall be called in question, shall be taken out of the ship and deposited, and examined at Elfsineur or Nyburgh, which shall be performed within the space of eight days at most, so that, within the said time at furthest, any Swedish or other ship, freighted by Swedes, may be free to depart with all the Swedish goods, without any further retardment; and that the ships and vessels, merchandizes and effects, belonging to the subjects and inhabitants of Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, be not in

in the least tormented with unnecessary searchings and vexations, by reason of the said mistakes and errors.

X. If any ship of Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, or Livonia, be freighted by strangers, and laden with foreign goods that are subject to pay the taxes, the ship and persons shall nevertheless enjoy the liberties, privileges, and immunities, which are rightly due; as by these present articles are granted to the Swedes, and the foreign merchant shall give an account of his goods, without any violation of the immunities of the Swedes in the straits of the Sound and the Belt.

XI. And, that no retardment or damage may be caused to the Swedish ships and goods in their voyages, contrary to the intent of these presents, it has been promised in the name of his Danish majesty, that things shall be disposed at Ellsineur and Nyburgh; that the master of the custom-house, or some other officer in his place, shall attend at certain hours, before and after noon, every day at the said custom-house, there to receive the certificates; and, immediately upon the receipt thereof, to give others to the masters in the form above prescribed, in such manner that the Swedish ships and goods may continue their voyages, and freely pass, without any hinderance or molestation.

XII. And, if it afterwards should happen, that her Swedish majesty's ships, or those of her subjects, whether they be their own or hired ships, being forced by tempest, or otherwise, should desire a safe port in Norway, or any other place of the king of Denmark's dominions, it shall be freely granted them, and they shall not be molested in any manner, neither for taxes, searches, nor any other thing, but shall only pay the duties that other friends and strangers pay for anchorage, and such other conveniencies, in places where such things are usually levied. But, as to their goods and merchandizes, they shall have the liberty to purchase necessities for their money; and the Danish ships of war, and others, shall have the same privilege in the like case in the ports in Sweden.

XIII. If it happens, that either her present Swedish majesty, or her successors, kings of Sweden, should levy soldiers, either horse or foot, in the kingdoms or dominions of their friends along the ocean, or send any to the provinces in their neighbourhood of the Baltic sea, or into Ostrogoth, and they pass on one side or other through the Baltic sea, it is agreed, that her majesty and her successors shall have entire liberty to do it without any opposition; provided, however, that there shall not pass together above 1200 men, and that notice be given to his Danish majesty three weeks before, that thereby all suspicions may be removed, and the passage may be free. But, if any Swedish officers, or others, would pass through the Baltic sea, with their own horses and equipages, they may freely do it in one, or several ships, without giving any notice.

XIV. And, to prevent differences between the two kingdoms in time to come, or if the fleets of the two kingdoms meet, or one ship of war meets another; or if by accident the Swedish fleet enters into any of the straits of the Baltic sea or the Belt, and there meets that of Denmark; or if the ships or fleet of the latter enters into any place or port where the Swedes are before them; it is agreed in the following manner, that if the fleet of either of the kingdoms meet the other in the Baltic sea, or in the ocean, they shall mutually receive one another with marks of friendship, and shall salute and honour one another in the same manner, firing guns according to the custom; and neither the one nor the other shall attempt any thing further, nor endeavour to exercise any act of superiority, whatever pretension they may believe they have; the same shall be observed when one or two ships meet; but, if one or two ships of either of the kingdoms meet the fleet of the other, they shall salute it by firing of guns, and striking their main top-sail, 'till the fleet be past, or 'till it come to an anchor in some port, but they shall not be obliged to strike their flags: and, if there be more than two ships of either side together, and they form a fleet, they shall content themselves to fire guns on both sides without striking their sails, and the one shall not oblige the other to do it.

XV. It shall be free for one, two, three, four, or at most five, Swedish men of war, to pass through the straits of the Sound or the Belt, without giving previous notice to his Danish majesty or his successors; and when they are arrived at the strait of the Sound, and have saluted after the Swedish manner, with two guns (as has been already said) they shall lower their main top-sails before the castle of Cronenborg 'till they be past it; and, if it happens that his Danish majesty's ships or fleet be there before them, they shall be satisfied with the two guns aforesaid, without being obliged to any thing further, and much less shall any other marks of honour or deference be required of them. But if her Swedish majesty or her successors be obliged to pass the strait of the Sound or the Belt, with a fleet of ships of war, it is agreed that his Danish majesty shall have notice of it three weeks beforehand, that the arrival of such a fleet may give no ground of suspicion or mistrust; and, such notice being given, the Swedes shall have free liberty to pass without any opposition or damage to the Danes.

XVI. And as to what concerns the island of Burgen, where his Danish majesty has kept for some time a gallery, and levied custom; his said majesty by these presents yields, and entirely renounces that practice, and promises to make use of the same no more, and that henceforth he will not pretend to exact any toll there.

XVII. With respect to the duty which his Danish majesty has levied of late years at Gluckstadt, upon ships and goods going from one place or another to Hamburg, it is likewise agreed in the following manner, that, as his Danish majesty is now in a negociation with the Hamburgers, concerning the differences between them, and for abrogating of that custom, if they agree between themselves, and the aforesaid duty be abrogated, the subjects of his Swedish majesty who trade that way, shall also enjoy the same privileges; and though, against all appearance, the difference with the Hamburgers about that duty continue, or though they should consent to pay it, in that case the Danish commissioners have promised in his Danish majesty's name, and in that of the duke of Holstein, and have obliged themselves, that all her Swedish majesty's subjects and inhabitants in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, that trade upon the Elbe, shall be freed therefrom; and that they shall not be molested nor detained, by reason thereof, by any of his Danish majesty's, nor the duke of Holstein's ministers, whether they reside in forts or ships; and that they shall be free from all taxes and uneasy searchings, and further that they shall not so much as be obliged to shew any testimonies in writing, and much less to produce certificates, or give any other account of that nature.

XVIII. And, as the experience of by-past times has demonstrated, that the privileges and liberties granted to the Swedes in Denmark and Norway, and to the Danes and Norwegians in Sweden, to trade together, and be exempted from all duties introduced partly by ancient custom, and partly by the transactions and treaties concluded between the two kingdoms, has given birth to several differences, and has even occasioned a hatred and animosity between the kingdoms, and as often set the king and subjects of the kingdoms at variance with those of the other, insomuch that that has been the principal cause of breaking the ancient friendship which subsisted between the two kingdoms, and there has scarce been any conference between the commissioners of both parties where that grievance has not been represented; besides that, at this time, that liberty cannot be so conveniently continued as it formerly was. For these causes, it is agreed on both sides, that all immunities of duties and taxes cease and be removed, for the Danes and Norwegians in Sweden, and for the Swedes in Denmark and Norway, without prejudice of the exemption of duties, and of the free passage of the Swedes in the straits of the Sound and the Belt, and likewise passage shall be forbidden to the Swedish merchants with their merchandizes, to go into Denmark and Norway beyond their limits; and the same thing shall be forbidden to the Danes and Norwegians to go into Sweden, as well into the country as into the maritime towns and provinces. However, any Swedish merchant trading, for the time to come, into Denmark and Norway, shall have the privilege of trafficking in the maritime staple towns appointed for it, whether it is lawful for merchants to go; and he shall there enjoy the same liberties and privileges granted to other friends and foreigners, according to the laws and statutes of Denmark, preserving always the privileges of the towns; and, on the other hand, a Danish or Norwegian merchant, trading in Sweden or any of the provinces depending upon it, shall enjoy the same privileges and liberties of trading in staple ports appointed for that purpose, and in which other foreigners and friends are allowed to come, according to the statutes and laws of Sweden, preserving always the privileges of the town. And, to the end that their Swedish and Danish majesties may not be troubled and molested in their kingdoms, they shall dispose of their subjects, according as every one's occasion and condition requires.

XIX. The trade and navigation upon the river of Trotheat between Westgoth and the territory of Bahus, shall remain under the same condition, liberty, and privilege, that it anciently was, and shall not be hindered nor interrupted at either of the entries towards Gothburg and Kongel, and all buildings that have been erected, or other things that have been sunk in it's channel, that may be any ways prejudicial to the one or the other, shall be removed, and the channel shall be cleansed without any opposition, and especially what was thrown into it, to stop it's entry towards Bahus, shall be taken away, and, after an exact search, it's ancient current shall be restored to it, and what damage is done shall be repaired. The Swedes shall not be in any manner disturbed by the Danes and Norwegians, nor shall the latter by them; but, on the contrary, navigation and commerce shall be carried on with equity, and ships shall go up and come down the same river on the side of Gothburg, without any hinderance, charge, or grievance, as it has been formerly practiced.

XX. And further it is agreed, that her Swedish majesty shall have in time to come, as she has had hitherto, a post-master

at Elsinour, and a post between Sweden and Hamburg, who shall pass on all sides without hinderance or molestation; and she shall likewise have persons to carry her majesty's letters, and those of her subjects, and others that are sent out of the kingdom, or into it, and that without any obstacle, retardment, or searching; and his Danish majesty shall have the like power, that is to say, to keep an agent at Stockholm, for his own and his subjects business.

XXI. The estates enjoyed by the Swedish gentry in Denmark and Norway, and those enjoyed by the Danish and Norwegian gentry in Sweden before this war, shall be restored to the right owners, who shall possess the same according to the ancient treaties, and according to the laws and statutes of each kingdom, without any molestation or hinderance whatsoever.

XXII. And, because the war has occasioned some confiscations on both sides, and some losses to the subjects whilst it lasted, all things shall be forgot on either side, upon consideration of this peace, and all that has been adjudged, and actually confiscated, and all private losers shall remain in the condition they now are, and nothing shall be paid on either side by the subjects; nor shall any molestation be given, nor any action intended against such as by reason thereof have contracted debts, and have not lawfully paid the same as well within as without the kingdom.

XXIII. But, if any thing be found (whether it be adjudged or not) that is not actually confiscated, and all debts that the subjects and inhabitants of Sweden had right to demand before this war of his Danish majesty, or the Danes and Norwegians of her Swedish majesty, upon due proof, shall be forthwith paid on both sides.

XXIV. And if, during the course of this war, any sentence has been given either in Sweden or Denmark, to the prejudice of any Swede in Denmark, or to the prejudice of any Dane or Norwegian in Sweden, it shall be of no effect; and it shall now be free for every man to pursue and prove his right.

XXV. As her majesty the queen Christiana of Sweden has, during this war, reduced to her obedience several of his Danish majesty's forts, provinces, territories, and towns in Jutland, Scania, Halland, Belking, Bornholm, and Holstein; and likewise in Stormaren and Ditmarsen, and namely Christianople, Pinnenberg, Helsingburgh, Lanscroon, Laholm, Engelholm, Saltzburgh, Hammarfusen, or by what other names soever they are or may be called, now possessed by right of war; for that, and several other considerations, and by the mediation and diligence, and the continual exhortation and persuasions of his most Christian majesty's ambassador; her majesty, the queen of Sweden, makes over, and consents to give, to his Danish majesty and his successors, all the title she may have acquired, by the right of war, to the said provinces, lands, forts, houses, fields, towns and territories; all which things shall depend on him and his successors, according to the tenor of this peace; and that, because of the desire she has to prevent the extraordinary miseries with which the continuation of the war would be attended; well considering how necessary a reconciliation between the northern kingdoms is, for breaking a way for the peace and repose of Christendom, so long wished for: and, that the care and desire of their majesties, the most Christian king, and the queen regent his mother, to end the differences and wars between these kingdoms, may not be without effect, his Danish majesty especially, being persuaded by his most Christian majesty's ambassadors, having promised in his own name, and for his successor, and the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway, as effectually by these presents, he consents and promises to her Swedish majesty and her successors, kings of Sweden, and to the said kingdom, that, in compensation for the provinces, fortresses, towns, and territories, which are to be restored, he makes over all Jemtland, including Heredalia, &c. as likewise Gothland, and the town and citadel of Wisby, and the islands and arms of the sea depending on the same, as likewise Oesfel and Arnsholm, with all the islands and appurtenances, and every thing depending thereon, with the superiority, royal privileges, and ecclesiastical and political jurisdiction, tributes, revenues, and dues, by sea and land, in the same manner as the kings of Denmark, and particularly Christian IV. now reigning, has enjoyed the same; which shall belong, and appertain in time to come, to her Swedish majesty, and her successors to the kingdom of Sweden, to be by them possessed by a perpetual right, as the special instrument of cession drawn up for that, and signed and sealed by his majesty, and by the counsellors of Denmark, do more fully testify.

And, besides, his Danish majesty consents and promises in his name, and for his successors, and for the kingdom of Denmark, to the end that her Swedish majesty, and her successors, and subjects in Sweden, Finland, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, may have security for enjoying, without molestation, the freedom of commerce and navigation in the straits of the Sound and the Baltic sea, according to these present articles, to give to the said queen, her successors, and to the kingdom of Sweden, as a pledge and security for the observation of the said articles and conventions for the

thirty years next ensuing, all Halland with its forts, Holm, Helmstadt, and Warburg, together with all the towns and villages situated within that territory, as well the aforesaid Holm, Helmstadt, and Warburg, as Falkenburg and Kanningflachen, and all the lands and fiefs there contained, according to the ancient bounds, limits, and borders of the aforesaid countries; upon condition that her majesty and her successors, and the kingdom of Sweden, shall enjoy and possess the said province of Halland, with all its forts, towns, magistracies and rights, revenues, ordinary and extraordinary superiorities, royal rights and jurisdictions, ecclesiastical and civil, and all other emoluments arising from the lands, waters, rivers, seas, isles, ports and fields, without excepting any thing whatsoever, by whatsoever name it may be called, in the manner that the kings of Denmark have possessed the same, and especially in the manner that the present king Christian IV. possesses and enjoys them, and all the inhabitants of that province, as well in the country as in the towns, ecclesiastical or secular, gentry and commonalty, inhabiting and dwelling therein, shall not be obliged, during the aforesaid term of thirty years, to take any oath of allegiance, fidelity, or obedience, but to her Swedish majesty and her successors, and to the kingdom of Sweden, until the said term of thirty years, without any interruption, be expired, according to the tenor of the present convention, as in the particular instrument for the pledge and security given by his Danish majesty, and signed and sealed by all the counsellors of his kingdom, it is more fully expressed. And it is further agreed, concerning this pledge and security, That, the aforesaid term of thirty years being expired, his Danish majesty and the kingdom of Denmark shall be obliged, before the restitution of the said province, either to let it still remain for security to her Swedish majesty, and to the kings her successors, and to the kingdom of Sweden, or to give in lieu thereof as good a pledge, with which her said majesty, and the kings her successors, and the kingdom of Sweden may be satisfied, that they may have security for the observation of the present articles.

R E M A R K S.

As this long article does not particularly concern the marine affairs, I should not have troubled the reader with it, if I had not observed a very remarkable passage, from which a weighty inference may be reasonably drawn, in favour of what we have said under the article SEA, viz. that the sea is capable of, and subject to, dominion; which, we think, does very plainly appear to have been the sentiment of the princes concerned, and of the plenipotentiaries and other politicians employed in the management of this treaty, since in the perpetual and temporary cession that the king of Denmark makes, in favour of the crown and kingdom of Sweden, of several lands and territories, most express mention is made of the arms of the sea, seas, waters, &c. depending on the same, &c.

As the fifteen following articles have but little relation to maritime affairs, we shall leave them out, in order to have the more room for what is most essential to my present purpose.

XLI. It is also agreed by these articles, that all the towns, comprehended in the Hanseatic league, shall have a share therein, and shall enjoy the freedom of commerce by land and sea in both kingdoms, reserving the observation of the ancient treaties between these kingdoms and the Hanseatic Towns for a better time; and no injury shall be done to any town, citizen, or subject, for any action perpetrated during the war.

XLII. Particularly the town of Dantzick is comprehended in this peace, and shall enjoy, in the same manner it has hitherto done, the liberty of commerce by sea and land, in both the kingdoms; and all offences, happened during this war, shall be buried in perpetual oblivion.

XLIII. This treaty, for the greater security, shall be ratified, and signed and sealed with the privy-seal of Sweden and Denmark, and likewise shall be signed and sealed by the counsellors of both kingdoms.

XLIV. Each kingdom shall send a splendid ambassy, into France, to return thanks for their mediation, and invite that kingdom to take care of the observation of the treaty concluded the 13th of August 1645, &c.

R E M A R K S.

This treaty being so brought to a conclusion on the 13th of August, two days afterwards another treaty of guarantee was concluded at Suder-Okra, between the ministers of the queen of Sweden and the States-General, by which those two powers agreed, That, in case the king of Denmark should in any manner infringe his treaties with either party, they should mutually assist each other, and strenuously vindicate and maintain the freedom and immunity of commerce and navigation, according to the laws of nations to ancient custom, and to the particular conventions and treaties between them.

The 25th of November following, was brought to a conclusion, at Copenhagen, a treaty between Lewis XIV. and his

his mother the queen regent of France on one part, and the king and kingdom of Denmark on the other, by which they agree:

I. That there shall be in time to come, between the two kingdoms, a perfect and inviolable friendship, &c.

II. The subjects of either prince shall freely trade between the two kingdoms, according to the respective laws established in the same.

III. His most Christian majesty's subjects going into Denmark or Norway, about their own or their master's affairs, whether concerning commerce or any other thing, shall have liberty of conscience; and the king's ministers, residing there, shall be allowed the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion in their own houses.

IV. The ships of either kingdom, entering into the ports of the other, shall be favourably received and kindly treated, &c.

V. The subjects of either crown trafficking by sea, and passing by the coasts of the other kingdom, shall not be forced to enter into any port whatsoever, except they be bound thither; and, if they come to an anchor, they shall not be obliged to unlade their goods, nor to exchange or sell them, but shall have free liberty to do what they think most convenient and advantageous for their affairs.

VI. When French ships, or ships hired or laded by Frenchmen, pass through the straits of the Sound, whithersoever they are bound, or from whatsoever place they come, or what goodssoever they may have aboard, they shall not be obliged to pay any other toll than that which the king of Denmark has ordered in a special treaty upon this subject, concluded the 27th of September of this present year, under the counter-seal, of which there is a table of the tax or toll. And if, in time to come, the Dutch pay any thing for sea-marks and fires, the French shall do the same.

VII. The subjects of the king of France that shall carry into Norway the product of their country, or shall go thither in ballast to purchase the commodities they have use for, shall pay no more for the entry of the goods they carry thither, nor for the custom of those they purchase there, than what is now, or shall be in time to come, imposed upon the king of Denmark's own subjects.

VIII. And likewise the subjects of the king of Denmark, trading into France, shall not pay any other, nor greater duties than the French themselves, or their other friends or confederates; and they shall be allowed to sell and dispose of their goods to whom they please, and at the price they think fit.

IX. Ships of war and others, going into the ports of either kingdom, shall be kindly received, paying for the necessaries they want.

X. No ships of war or others, belonging to either of the kingdoms, shall be forced into the service of the other, without the consent of the prince, the ships of war belonging to or of the owners of the others; and that, though the captain of the vessel should consent.

XI. The two kingdoms shall use their utmost endeavours for the advancement of commerce and navigation, and shall suppress pirates, &c.

XII. And, as the liberty of commerce does principally consist in maintaining the state of things in the western, northern, and Baltic sea, in the same condition that they have been hitherto, both kings shall use their endeavours to preserve entire, and without any alteration, the ancient balance and equilibrium that has been hitherto found to be the surest foundation for the public peace and tranquillity.

Note, The other five articles of this treaty are not very material to our point.

Signed and sealed at Copenhagen, Nov. 15, 1645, &c.

R E M A R K S.

The next treaty of this nature that occurs, is that by which the town of Lubeck renewed their old league with the States-General, who notwithstanding their late accommodation with Denmark, the better to bring that court to a compliance with their desires, gladly entered into a fresh alliance with the said towns, in which they more plainly discovered their discontents with the Danish imposts upon their ships than in any precedent treaty; for there they plainly declare their resolution of maintaining the freedom of their navigation in the Baltic; which resolution of theirs, and the measures they had fallen upon to make it effectual, did probably incline the court of Denmark to come to an agreement with them, by a treaty concluded by his ambassador at the Hague, the 12th of February, 1647; which treaty, though it be very long, as it contains a great many things that are not unworthy the perusal of the curious and attentive reader, we have thought fit to give the world a full and exact translation thereof in the following terms: to which I was so much the more inclined, that it may serve to give the world some distinct notions of the great trade that the Hollanders have drove in the Northern Seas.

A R T I C L E III.

A treaty of commerce concluded between Christian IV, king of Denmark, and the United Provinces of the Low Coun-

VOL. II.

tries, concluded at the Hague the 12th of February, in the year 1647.

I Corfits Ulefeldt, counsellor of state, first master of the household, and governor of the isle of Moon, &c. ambassador extraordinary from his majesty the king of Denmark, Norway, &c. my most gracious king and lord, to the high and mighty lords the States-General of the United Provinces, on one part: and we John lord of Ghent, and one of the nobles of Guelderland; Gerard Scaep, ancient burgher-master and counsellor of the university of Leyden; Nanning Keyser, counsellor and pensioner of the town of Horn in West-Friesland; Jacob Veth, counsellor and pensionary of the town of Middleburgh in Zealand; Gilbert Vander Hoelick, ancient burgher-master of the town of Utrecht; Charles Van Roorda, grietman of Idaderabel; John Vander Beeck of Doornick and Crytenberg, burgher-master of the town of Daventer; Hieronymus Eyben, hoovelingh of Niehoue, burgher-master of the town of Groningen, commissaries deputies, and provided with full powers from the high and mighty lords the States-General of the United Provinces, on the other part: be it known by these presents, that, on the 13th day of the month of August, in the year last past, 1645, there was a treaty agreed to, and concluded at Christianople, between his majesty the king of Denmark and Norway, and the high and mighty lords the States-General of the United Provinces, containing, amongst other things, that, in time to come, there should not be levied any greater duties, or toll, in Norway, nor in any other manner, or upon any other account, than was practised in the year 1628, till his majesty and their high mightinesses should agree upon a sure and certain method, according to which the tolls and taxes upon wood should be paid at so much per last: and, his majesty having offered to treat with their high mightinesses concerning that affair, with all convenient speed, we the abovementioned lords commissioners, being for that effect assembled, have, after a diligent negotiation, agreed and concluded what is under:

I. In the first place, all the subjects of the United Provinces of the Low Countries, from the day of the date of this treaty till the 23d of August, N. S. in the year 1685, shall pay the tax or toll in Norway as follows:

II. All ships, sailing from the said United Provinces of the Low Countries to Norway, shall repair to five or six commodious havens of the said provinces, to be there measured and marked by such as shall be appointed for that service on both sides; for which there shall be three persons named by the king of Denmark, besides another person who shall have an inspection over them; and their high mightinesses, if they please, may also appoint the like number of persons, with one inspector, also on their side.

III. The ships shall be exactly and faithfully measured, according to their depth, length, and breadth.

IV. And, that no misunderstanding may arise between the Danish and Dutch measurers and inspectors, we have thought it convenient to propose a model, according to which those calculations and measures shall be made, copies of which model, or table, as it is here incorporated in this treaty, shall be delivered into the hands of the measurers and inspectors, who shall be regulated thereby.

A table, or model, for measuring the ships, according to the measure of Amsterdam.

The length shall be taken from the exterior part above the beak or beak-head of the ships in one end, to the same part of the beak in the other end.

The breadth shall be taken from the opposite inner planks of both sides of the ship, before the main-mast.

The depth, or capacity of ships, shall be measured between the main-mast and the mizen-mast, where it is most shallow, and widest near the pump, from one side to the other, and afterwards they shall measure from the middle of the measuring line, through the wood, to the bottom of the hold; after which they shall proceed in the following manner:

A ship 125 feet in length, 25 feet in breadth, and 14 feet in depth, with a half-deck the length of the hatches, shall be adjudged to contain 155 lasts.

A ship 123 feet in length, 24 $\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and 14 in depth, with a half-deck, 146 lasts.

A ship 122 feet in length, 24 $\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, with a half-deck, 138 lasts.

A ship 120 feet in length, 24 in breadth, and 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, having a half-deck, 130 lasts.

A ship 118 feet in length, and 13 in breadth, with a half-deck, 123 lasts.

A ship 116 feet in length, and 13 in breadth, with a half-deck, 118 lasts.

A ship 114 feet in length, 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a half-deck, 112 lasts.

A ship 112 feet in length, 23 in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a half-deck, 107 lasts.

A ship 110 feet in length, 23 in breadth, and 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, with a half-deck, 101 lasts.

A ship 108 feet in length, 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, with a half-deck, 96 lasts.

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A ship 106 feet in length, 22 in breadth, and $12\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, with a half deck, 91 lasts.

A ship 103 feet in length, 22 in breadth, and $12\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, with a half-deck, 86 lasts.

A ship 95 feet in length, $21\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and 12 in depth, 73 lasts.

A ship 90 feet in length, $21\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and 12 in depth, 66 lasts.

A ship 85 feet in length, 21 in breadth, and $11\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, 60 lasts.

A ship 80 feet in length, 21 in breadth, and 11 in depth, 50 lasts.

A ship 126 feet in length, 25 in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a complete upper-deck, having four feet in height between decks, shall be judged to contain about 172 lasts.

A ship 124 feet in length, 25 in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a full deck, $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, 162 lasts.

A ship 122 feet in length, $24\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a deck of $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, 153 lasts.

A ship 120 feet in length, $24\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and 13 in depth, with a deck $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, 145 lasts.

A ship 118 feet in length, 24 in breadth, and $12\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, with a deck of $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet, 134 lasts.

A ship 130 feet in length, 28 in breadth, and 12 in depth, with an upper-deck 6 feet high, shall be judged capable of carrying about 195 lasts.

A ship 126 feet in length, 26 in breadth, 12 in depth, and having a deck as above, 170 lasts.

A ship 124 feet in length, 25 in breadth, and $11\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, having a deck $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, 166 lasts.

A ship 122 feet in length, 25 in breadth, and 11 in depth, with a deck 5 feet high, 156 lasts.

A ship 120 feet in length, $24\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and 11 in depth, with a deck $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, 146 lasts.

A ship 118 feet in length, 24 in breadth, and $10\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, with a deck of $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, 135 lasts.

A ship 116 feet in length, $23\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth, and 10 in depth, with a deck of $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, 120 lasts.

A ship 112 feet in length, 23 in breadth, and 10 in depth, with a deck of $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, 113 lasts.

A ship 110 feet in length, 22 in breadth, and 10 in depth, with a deck of $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, 110 lasts.

Such vessels as shall not be found to be precisely of the same form or burthen abovementioned, shall be taxed by the measurers and inspectors, conformably to the aforesaid regulation, and in proportion to their burthen.

And the aforesaid calculation being made by the last of St. Ubes, of corn or salt, as the vessels cannot be so deeply laded with wood, because of it's lightness and stiffness, one fifth part of the calculation of every vessel shall be abated.

V. The ships, being measured in the aforesaid manner, shall be marked upon the sail-yards and upon the beak-heads, fore and aft, with a hot iron; and two acts, or certificates, shall be drawn up for the ship, which shall be signed by the measurers and inspectors of both sides, one of which shall be delivered to the master of the ship, and another deposited in the hands of the magistrates of the place where the ship is measured.

VI. There shall likewise be kept two records, or comptrolls, of ships so measured, which shall likewise be signed by all the persons that measure the same, one of which shall be sent into Denmark, to be communicated to the commanders of the castles, and other officers, that recourse may be had to the same, in case of need, and the other shall remain at the disposal of their high mightinesses.

VII. Such vessels shall be measured before the end of the month of April at latest, and sooner, if it be possible, in order to which, both parties shall use the utmost diligence.

VIII. All vessels sailing from the United Provinces to Norway, and having aboard a certificate of their measure in due form, shall pay, at their going out of the kingdom, according to their burthen, as under: that is to say, any ships carrying, according to the certificate of the measures, 125 lasts, shall pay the tax but for 100; and so all ships carrying wood out of Norway shall pay but for four-fifths of their burthen, the other fifth being abated, in consideration that they have been well and faithfully measured; concerning which, his majesty shall give the necessary orders to all his custom-houses of Norway.

IX. Vessels sailing from the United Provinces of the Low-Countries to Norway, and carrying merchandizes thither, shall only pay for such merchandizes the duties his Danish majesty's subjects are obliged to pay; so that the inhabitants of the said Low Countries shall not be at any greater charge than those of Denmark and Norway.

X. All the ships sailing from the United Provinces of the Low-Countries to Norway, and having aboard a faithful certificate of their measure, as is above expressed, shall give a rixdollar per last, deducting, as is above said, one fifth of the number of lasts.

XI. The said vessels, lading wood, may likewise, in the same harbours, lade pitch, tar, skins, singlafs, or any other commodity that may be transported, paying the aforesaid duty of one rixdollar per last, and no more.

XII. This shall only be understood of vessels transporting

wood from Norway, and in the harbours where wood is sold, but not from other places, and especially from Bergen, where that trade is not driven; in which harbours the subjects of the United Provinces shall pay the same duties for other goods that his Danish majesty's subjects pay; and this shall only be understood of vessels laden with wood from Norway, and from the harbours where that trade is driven, and no where else.

XIII. All the other duties and by-tolls, of what name soever, that have been hitherto imposed upon that trade, shall be, and are abolished, by these presents, and none other shall be imposed in time to come but that already mentioned, called the toll of the last of the wood, of whatsoever name or nature it may be.

XIV. Any of the said vessels laded with wood, having paid the toll according to the certificate of it's measure, the said fifth part being deducted, shall be no further troubled or molested with searching or unlading, under any pretence whatsoever, but shall be in full liberty to depart, upon the payment of the said duty or toll.

XV. There shall be no distinction made of the quality of the wood that is laded, whether it be of the best, or of the middle, or coarsest sort; and much less shall such vessels be searched, unladed; or detained; so that, if the said vessels of the United Provinces of the Low Countries should load any oak, or other prohibited wood, no search shall be ordained, but the prohibited wood shall be detained, only when it is found out of the vessels: in which case the subjects of the said United Provinces shall not suffer in any manner, neither in their persons or effects, nor shall be incommoded or molested, under any pretence whatsoever.

XVI. The expences laid out in the harbours of Norway, for the preservation of foreign ships, such as iron rings, and other conveniencies, shall not be required of the ships that have been taxed and measured, as is above expressed; but, on the contrary, all necessary conveniencies and assistance shall be given them, without any further charge.

XVII. During the term expressed in this treaty, no alteration nor innovation shall be made, directly nor indirectly, by heightening the tolls of taxes upon the last of wood, or in any other manner, or under any pretence whatsoever; but all things shall remain in the same state as is herein expressed, viz. one rixdollar per last for every ship lading wood, and carrying it out of the kingdom.

XVIII. If any new ship, or others not measured, sail to Norway to lade wood, they shall be measured and taxed in Norway, by three or more Danes or Norwegians, and as many Dutch boat-men, according to the model already inserted; and the exact capacity, or burthen of the ships, shall be marked and signed by those that measure them, and the duties paid accordingly, deducting one fifth as above.

XIX. And it shall be henceforth allowable for the subjects of the United Provinces of the Low Countries to transport from Norway linden trees, ash-trees, elm-trees, wood for sail-yards, and masts, from 16 to 20 palms, and no distinction shall be made with regard to the toll between the different sorts of wood that are exported, but all shall pay by the last, as is above expressed.

XX. When his Danish majesty, for the exigencies of his own dominions, shall have need of linden, ash, and elm-trees, and of sail-yards and masts of 16 palms, the merchants shall not, in that case, export such timber without his majesty's express permission, provided, however, that, in that case, what is said and stipulated in the 15th article concerning oak be duly considered.

XXI. If, in any time to come, it should happen that the tolls and duties should be diminished in Norway, in favour of his majesty's subjects, or those of other nations that transport wood out of Norway, and not into the proper dominions of his majesty, but into foreign countries, in that case the subjects of their high mightinesses shall pay no more than they, but be taxed conformably to them.

XXII. The whole without prejudice to the precedent treaty of the 13th of August, N. S. in the year 1645, concluded at Christianople, between his said majesty and their high mightinesses, which, in all it's parts, shall remain in full force and power, in as far as it is not altered by this.

XXIII. And as, by the precedent articles agreed to by us the respective ambassadors and commissaries, such things as could not be brought to a conclusion concerning the 7th and 9th articles of the aforesaid treaty, in the year 1645, between his majesty the king of Denmark and Norway, and the high and mighty lords the States-General, are now entirely determined: we have reciprocally consented and promised to each other, that each party shall cause to be delivered to the other, in the name of their respective masters, within three months after the delivery of this treaty, a ratification thereof in good and due form: and their high mightinesses may make use of their resident in the Sound, or any other that they think convenient for the delivery of theirs, which, as soon as his majesty has received, he shall sign the other, and cause it to be signed by the prince of Denmark and the lords of the council, in order to the delivery thereof.

XXIV. All which points and articles have been agreed to and concluded by us, the respective plenipotentiaries and com-

commissaries mentioned at the beginning of this treaty: in witness whereof we have signed these presents with our hands, and confirmed the same with our seals; of which two instruments have been drawn up of the same tenor, of which each party has taken one. Done at the Hague the 12th of February, 1647.

The most illustrious and most mighty prince and lord, Christian IV. king of Denmark, Norway, and of the Goths and Vandals, &c. having been pleased to send, to their high mightinesses the States-General of the United Provinces, the Heer Corfits Ulefeldt, Knt. and governor of the isle of Moon, &c. first steward of the household, and counsellor of state to his Danish majesty, and his ambassador extraordinary, to negotiate with the said lords the States-General concerning several matters of importance, and, among other things, to agree upon a duty, or toll, at so much per last, on all the wood transported out of Norway: and, at the same time, his excellency having been acquainted, by an order of their high mightinesses, with the great inconveniencies occasioned to the vessels of the United Provinces navigating through the Sound towards the east, by reason of passes from the custom-house, and the counting of 12 barrels of round seed for a last, instead of 24 barrels; the said lord ambassador has promised and obliged himself to use his endeavours with his said majesty for obtaining orders for causing the said complaints to cease, and that the vessels belonging to the subjects of their high mightinesses may be and remain free from all extortion of money, and from the inconveniencies of searching, and other retardments. And further, that 24 barrels of lint-feed, and other round seeds, be allowed to the last, according to the custom of merchants, and in consequence of the 3d article of the last treaty, concluded between his Danish majesty and their high mightinesses, in the year 1645.

And the said lord ambassador has further promised, in the name of his said majesty, that, in time to come, for preventing all misfortunes, there should be buoys, and other sea-marks put up, for the utility and conveniency of commerce and navigation, provided that each ship in her lading should pay to his majesty, or his officers, four rixdollars, and each ship in ballast two. In witness whereof, we his majesty's said ambassadors, and we the commissaries and deputies of the said lords the States General, have signed these presents with our hands, and put our respective seals thereto, by virtue of our reciprocal full powers and procurations; and two instruments of the same tenor have been drawn up, one for each party. Delivered at the Hague, the 12th of February, in the year 1647.

And as, during the years 1645 and 1646, several laded vessels belonging to the United Provinces have passed the Sound towards the east, and likewise vessels in the ballast, without having paid in passing or repassing, any toll or impost, or without having been any where recorded, so that on this occasion it might be difficult to state a clear account: for these causes, I Crofts Ulefeldt, ambassador, &c. aforesaid, as one part, and we the commissaries and deputies of the States-General, likewise aforesaid, on the other part, have consented and agreed that the states shall pay for the said failures, in paying of tolls upon the sum of 120,000 rixdollars, which shall be paid in this country, upon the production of his majesty's discharge, by such as his said majesty shall authorize for that effect, at the delivery of the ratifications of this present treaty, which are to be interchanged on both sides, within three months after the date of these presents. In witness whereof, we the ambassadors of the said king, and we the commissaries and deputies of the States-General, have signed these presents with our hands, and confirmed them with our respective seals, by virtue of our full powers. And two instruments of the same tenor have been drawn up, and one delivered to each party at the Hague, the 12th of February, 1647.

R E M A R K S.

After this account of the situation of the marine affairs in the northern countries, and the treaties between the crowns of Sweden and Denmark, the United Provinces and the Hanse-Towns, we shall now return to Britain, where civil dissensions were at the greatest height.

The first of these acts that comes in order to be mentioned, is a manifesto published by the parliament of England against the States-General of the United Provinces, the 31st of July, 1652, in which they set forth, That it is an almost incredible ingratitude in the Dutch, so basely to requite the generous efforts by which the people of this nation had rescued them from the tyrannical oppression of the Spaniard, at a great expence of English blood and treasure; in return of which, they represent, That the Dutch, after having severely fomented the divisions during the civil wars of England, did afterwards, both openly and secretly, obstruct the peace of the kingdom; and, in the year 1648, made considerable preparations to carry on a war against it.

They likewise call to mind the cruelty and treachery with which they assaulted and massacred the English in Amboyna, and transiently accuse them of many other sinister attempts of the like nature.

In the next place, they accuse them of having neglected the friendly measures proposed by the parliament of England for accommodating of all differences, and confirming their mutual liberty and freedom, &c. adding, That, after they had sent an envoy to the Hague, and the States had refused him audience, the parliament having sent thither a second, he was there most barbarously and villainously murdered; and the States had not taken any care to punish the perpetrators of that horrid crime.

They further represent, That, while the Dutch ambassadors were in England, to amuse the government with disingenuous promises and protestations, they secretly and clandestinely assisted the enemies thereof, and only spun out the time with sham pretences, without any likeness of reality or sincerity. To which they add, That the commonwealth of England having, after the pacification of their own intestine divisions, sent over a splendid embassy to Holland, with sufficient instructions for ending all former controversies; and to give all possible marks of their sincerity and good-will towards those of the United Provinces; their ambassadors were contumeliously used and reviled, and all sorts of indignities offered to them, without any regard to their character, or respect to the nation they represented: they themselves having been insulted and affronted, and their servants and attendants abused to a high degree, and no notice taken, nor satisfaction given to the States, for such an unaccountable practice.

But that, notwithstanding the sincere inclinations of the commonwealth of England, to cultivate a good friendship and correspondence with the United Provinces, they always delayed and protracted the negotiations concerning the same; till, seeing the success the English had every where obtained, they at last sent over their ambassadors to England, where, when they were arrived, they still delayed, under various pretences, the negotiations that were set a-foot, alledging that they were not sufficiently impowered, and pretending to write over about those matters to their principals, so that nothing could be determined till the States-General should be conveniently assembled; by all which it plainly enough appeared, that the friendship they affected was no ways real or sincere.

After which their ambassadors having, during the conferences, acquainted the parliament that the States had resolved to arm 150 ships, besides the fleet they already had at sea, which they only did with a design to protect their trade, and encourage navigation, without any insidious intention against England; though the States themselves are not ignorant of the design they had in setting out so great a fleet, and though there was no appearance of any thing like an enemy in these seas. To all this, however, the parliament (which they thought to have lulled asleep by these pretences) did not give any answer, but sedulously applied themselves to provide for their own defence; and, in the mean time, omitted nothing that was in their power to bring the negotiations that were depending with the Dutch to a happy conclusion.

Notwithstanding which, the Dutch immediately got together their whole fleet in one place, under admiral Trump, whose design will sufficiently appear to any person that considers his behaviour, joined to some other passages precedent to that equipment, and particularly that of a certain Dutch ship, who, meeting an English man of war, commanded by Capt. Young, and being friendly required by him to pay the honour that is usually paid to the ships of war of this nation, as another ship in company with the same had done, and that not only as a customary piece of civility, but as a testimony of the undoubted right the English have to the dominion of the adjacent sea, which is acknowledged by all the neighbouring princes and republics, and which, particularly, the States themselves, and their predecessors, have acknowledged; the master of the said ship did nevertheless refuse to comply with that desire, affirming that it would be deemed a capital crime in him to do it.

This passage was followed by that hostile and heinous insult of admiral Trump, perpetrated against friends and neighbours that had given many remarkable testimonies of their sincere desire to continue and confirm the same; and with so much arrogance and injustice was that action performed, even during the conferences that were holding in order to enter into a stricter league, that Trump himself pretended to usurp what he refused to pay to us (though our own undoubted right) and carried the affront to such a height, that, pursuing the ships of this republic, he attacked them in an hostile manner, upon their own coasts, and in their own friths and roads, with a design to begin an unexpected war, in hopes to ruin entirely the trade and navigation of the commonwealth of England.

The rest of this manifesto does only contain some further remonstrances, by which the then government of England endeavoured to vindicate their proceedings against the States of Holland, with whom they declare that they are forced, against their inclination, to go to war; who answered the English manifesto with a declaration given at the Hague, the 2d of August following; in which they, on the other hand, pretend to lay all the blame of those confusions upon the English; whose manifesto, as well as that of the Dutch, is, in effect,

effect, nothing else but a declaration of war, as may be observed by the foregoing compendium of the first, and the following abridgment of the latter.

ARTICLE IV.

An abridgment of the manifesto of the States-General against the nation and government, &c. of England. Given at the Hague the 2d of August, 1652.

The States General, &c. being sensible that all lawful powers being ordained of God, for the good of their subjects, are not only obliged to govern them with moderation and order, but likewise to endeavour to prevent, and prudently to avert whatever may threaten them from abroad; and being also sensible of the necessity of living well with, and procuring, by all sorts of good offices, the amity and friendship of other States, and especially of their neighbours, knowing that, in case of any accidental, or other misunderstandings, they ought to exert themselves to the utmost of their power, by endeavouring to remove the same in a peaceable and friendly manner; they are not, however, ignorant, that, when all other methods prove ineffectual, it is reasonable and necessary to make use of the power that God has put in their hands, and to repulse vigorously and courageously, by force of arms, the violence and injuries exercised upon their subjects and people, in order to procure satisfaction and reparation for the damages suffered, and restitution for what has been unjustly taken away.

And accordingly, having hitherto endeavoured to maintain our ancient amity and friendship with the English nation, and having of late seen that nation divided in itself, and torn to pieces by intestine commotions, our hearts were filled with grief and heaviness, and we took as much care as in us lay, that nothing should be transported from our country and ports that might foment their divisions, and, by the continuation of the war, might render their cure more difficult, and less possible; but, on the contrary, understanding that their divisions had produced very great desolations and miseries, and that the famine raged in several of their provinces, being thereto required by both houses of the then parliament, we and our good subjects were so sensibly touched at the recital of so many complicated miseries and mischiefs, that, by virtue of our permission, granted at the earnest desire of the parliament aforesaid, a considerable sum of money, amounting to several tons of gold, was raised by the liberality of these provinces, and sent over to relieve the necessities of such as were in misery; for which we received letters of thanks from the said parliament, confirmed verbally by their resident with us. But, for a further proof of the sincerity of our affection, of which we had given them such evident marks, in order to compose the differences and misunderstandings between them, we sent over, for the advancement of so great a work, an embassy to the king and parliament; but the Almighty, whose judgments are incomprehensible, not having suffered their divisions to be terminated by such a friendly agreement, that nation having now received a form of government quite different from that it then had, the aforesaid government having, under specious pretences, afterwards offered to enter into a treaty of a fair alliance and friendship with us, believing that they were ingenuous and sincere, and looking upon that project as very convenient and necessary for the tranquillity and security of commerce and navigation, as well for ourselves as for all our neighbours and other kingdoms and states that support themselves by trade. And, for avoiding all the rising difficulties and differences occasioned by the concurrence of the same interest between the aforesaid government and ours, we gave them to understand, that the offer they made us was very acceptable; and they having sent over their ambassadors extraordinary, the Sieurs Oliver, John, and Walter Strickland, we endeavoured by all possible methods, as much as the constitution of our government could allow, to find out means to bring that treaty to a conclusion; so that the said ambassadors entering into a conference with our deputies, and the former having delivered general projects, though they were earnestly required by our deputies to explain their general propositions, and descend to particularities, a counter-project being proposed to them, when they had but lightly touched the matter, soon after the first audience, they pretended to be going; but having, after many persuasions, consented to stay a little longer, and having presented a more special project, we so industriously handled the matter on our part, that they easily saw there was but little difference between us; and finding us come home to the purpose, desiring of them a more express and positive declaration, they declined that, under pretence of their sudden departure: notwithstanding which, considering that a short delay could not operate any considerable alteration in the thing, we preferring the excellence and benefit of so good a work to the outward ceremonies and formalities, upon the protestation the said ambassador made us, at their departure, of the sincerity of the intentions of that government towards us, we resolved to send a considerable embassy into England, which we accordingly did, in the month of December last;

though that government, since the departure of their ambassadors had published a certain decree that neither favoured of the good neighbour nor the good friend, since thereby the accustomed liberty of commerce, and the correspondence between the two nations, was very much diminished. Nevertheless, in hopes that all dissensions should have been suddenly ended by the treaty, we did our utmost endeavours to bring it to a happy conclusion; but, on the contrary, the said government, far from having any regard to the requests we made them, that the execution of that decree should be suspended till the conclusion of the treaty, and the ships and goods of our good subjects, that had been seized and taken by them, restored to the proprietors, they did under several pretences, attack on every side our vessels; and pirates, under their cloak, did the same every where, and no reparation could be obtained by our ambassadors in any manner.

And, though such a multitude of reasons gave us just cause to right ourselves and subjects, by way of reprisals, we absolutely refused to do it, and would not suffer any injury to be done them, in hopes that all things should have been composed according to equity and justice. And having endeavoured, on one side, by our ambassadors, and, on the other side, having equipped a considerable fleet, to put a stop to the insolence of the pirates, we at the same time declared, That it was not with any intention to incommode any of our friends, or allies, and particularly them with whom we designed to entertain a good friendship and correspondence.

And though this declaration ought to have been taken as a mark of our sincerity and candour, the aforesaid government did only endeavour, under various pretences, to weaken our states, by ruining of our commerce, as does plainly appear by that instance of their admiral, who meeting with vice-admiral Trump, whom we had made commander of our fleet, the said Trump, not having soon enough (according to his fancy) lowered his flag, though it be evident, by the testimony of several indifferent persons, that he was actually striking his sails, and occupied in hoisting his boat to send and compliment the said admiral; he nevertheless gave him a full broadside, and forced him and the ships that were with him to defend themselves; who, notwithstanding, were so moderate, although they were superior in number, and could have destroyed the aggressors, if they had pleased, they only kept upon the defensive: to which discretion their adversaries had so little regard, that, another of their squadrons coming up, they fell upon the hindermost vessels of our fleet, destroying one, and taking another with them. Which action, that the regency may cover with some specious pretences, they have caused a report to be spread abroad, as if we had been the first aggressors at that rencountre, and accordingly put themselves in a posture to demand reparation of the injury they pretend to have received from us.

But, on the contrary, that accident no sooner came to our knowledge, but we protested solemnly, by our ambassador, that it had not been committed by our order, and that we were entirely ignorant of what had passed, as more fully appeared by a letter from our admiral, in which he recited, word for word, the commission and instructions we had given him. And, for a further proof of the sincerity of our intentions to live well with that state, we earnestly prayed that an exact enquiry might be made into the matter, and that the treaty, which we thought to be in a very great forwardness, might not be retarded by reason of that unlucky rencountre, by which we had been mightily surprized.

But the aforesaid government, having no regard to such a reasonable desire, did forthwith give order to seize both men of war and merchant ships, as many as they possibly could find belonging to us and our subjects; which accordingly has been done, and all sorts of injuries and violences whatsoever committed against us; by which a great deal of innocent blood has been shed, and many of our good citizens ruined.

Notwithstanding all this ill usage, we have sent a second embassy extraordinary, to endeavour to bring all matters, and especially that difference concerning the rencountre of the two fleets, to a friendly accommodation; they injuriously alleged, for covering their own pernicious and odious designs, that we had equipped that fleet on purpose to attack them as enemies, though the Heer Hadrian Pauw, our ambassador, whose employment of pensionary of Holland giving him a right to be present at all the assemblies and deliberations of the States, did most solemnly protest, that never any such thing had been projected here, and that, far from any commission to do the English, or any other body any injury, the admiral had orders to give that government all possible marks of our peaceable and friendly dispositions.

And, because the aforesaid regency pretended to make quite another thing of that action than it really was, and demanded reparation for what was passed, and assurance that no such thing should happen in time to come, our ambassador aforesaid told them openly, That, in order to remove that stumbling-block, or principal difficulty occasioned by the accidental combat between the two fleets, and the easier to bring the treaty (which was then so far advanced) to a happy conclusion, a convenient regulation should be established, and punctually observed in time to come, by the vessels of both nations, protesting

testing that this state had never any thought of disputing with the English nation the honour and dignity we had hitherto yielded them; requiring afterwards, that, during the negotiations, all hostile attempts and actions should cease; and farther desiring, that a due enquiry might be made into the whole matter, with promise that, if our admiral should be found to be the aggressor, the States should not only disown the act, but punish the actor according to the importance of the thing; upon condition that the English should treat their admiral in the same manner, in case he should be found to be in the wrong.

But they still rejecting all means of reconciliation, and refusing themselves to propose any project, by which things might be brought to an accommodation, did continue to seize and plunder our ships, and, at last, were not ashamed to demand of us an immense sum of money for the loss and damage they said they had sustained, and the charges they had been put to, upon account of the fleet we put to sea; after payment of which sum, or security given for the same, all acts of hostility should cease: so that they, having heaped up injuries upon injuries, and committed all sorts of violences against us and our good subjects, with a design, by all these insupportable proceedings, by ruining our trade, to weaken our strength at sea, and so take possession of the imaginary empire to which that government pretends over the ocean, and, beginning with us, to extend it over all other nations, and render them tributary, if they could. For these causes, being resolved to make use of the power that God has put into our hands for our own defence, and that of our good subjects, &c.

R E M A R K S.

The following lines of this manifesto contain, in sum, a declaration of war; which being made public at the Hague, the 2d of August, 1652, the 5th of December following there was an ordinance published by the States-General, forbidding their subjects all commerce with England, and with all exhorting other nations to abstain from succouring the English with such things as might be necessary in the war, and so might fall under the notion of what is taken to be in that case contraband goods, according to the custom of nations; threatening, otherwise, to seize and confiscate the same, as in the aforesaid ordinance is more largely expressed; with which we shall not trouble the reader, since it is not material to our present purpose.

The Dutch, being thus entered into a war with England, in the end of the year 1652, were glad to take advantage of the misunderstandings which then arose between this country and Denmark, and so concluded a treaty of alliance with Frederic III. then reigning in that kingdom, containing in substance.—‘ That the English having not only passed the Sound with armed merchant ships, but likewise with a fleet of eighteen men of war, without giving any previous advertisement; and having likewise seized and taken several of his Danish majesty’s ships at sea, and detained others in England, and in divers ways interrupted the free course of trade; an edict should be published forthwith after the signing of the treaty, whereby all English ships, whether men of war or others, should be forbid, under pain of confiscation of ships and goods, to pass and repass the Sound or the Baltic sea, during the continuation of the war with Holland.

That the king of Denmark, for the security of commerce, should keep, in and about the Sound, the number of twenty ships of war well equipped, according to a list already given, from the first of April ’till the first of November yearly; and, if any of them be lost, he shall supply their place with others of the like burthen.

That the States shall pay the king 192,000 rixdollars yearly, for his charges during the war, &c.

That they should mutually aid and assist one another against all enemies whatsoever, by sea and land.

That the said twenty Danish men of war should, at the request of the ministers of the States, sail to attack the English in Cartegat and Schagrack, but no farther into the northern sea, except in some extraordinary cases.

That the Danish and Dutch ships meeting in the north, or elsewhere, should jointly attack the English, and do them what harm they could.

That they should mutually protect one another’s subjects, ships and effects, in both countries.

That, in case of a conjunction of both fleets, the Danish admiral should have the first voice, and then the Dutch admiral, and so a Danish and Dutch officer of equal post, alternately should give their voices, the Dane always first.

That, if their united fleets should take any prizes, the same should be disposed of in the country, which had most ships at the taking of the prize; but that not without the privity of the resident of the other country, and to his satisfaction.

That the ships of war of either side should assist the other with such necessities as they might have occasion for, at a reasonable rate; and that they might refit and provide themselves in each others ports and harbours, with the permission of the governors or magistrates thereof; and that privateers,

&c. might carry their prizes into one another’s ports, and should there receive protection.

That such other princes, states, and potentates, as thought fit, might enter into the league.

That all former treaties should subsist.

That this treaty should subsist ’till the liberty of commerce and navigation was restored, and the disturbers thereof brought to reasonable terms.

That neither of the allies should make peace nor truce without the other.

That, if the twenty Danish men of war were not all in good order and condition, a proportionable deduction should be made out of the subsidy promised, &c.

R E M A R K S.

The effect of this good understanding between the Danes and the Dutch appeared by another treaty concluded between those two powers at Copenhagen, the 26th of September of the following year, 1653; by which that of 1644, touching the imposts in the Sound, is annulled, all former treaties in favour of the United Provinces renewed, and their men of war allowed to lie in the roads of Lubec, and before El-sineur; and are likewise (obtaining his majesty’s permission) allowed to be cleaned and refitted, even at Copenhagen, with several other benefits and privileges of that nature.

But, notwithstanding this strict union with the crown of Denmark, the Dutch, beginning very soon to be weary of the war with this country, were glad to relinquish all other advantages to conclude a treaty of peace, of which here follows an abstract.

An abstract of a treaty of peace and union between Oliver Cromwell, as protector of England, and the United Provinces of the Low-Countries.

I. In the first place, it is agreed, that, from this day forth, there shall be a firm and inviolable peace, and sincere friendship, &c. between the republic of England, and the States-General of the United Provinces of the Low-Countries, and the lands, regions, and cities, situate under their jurisdiction without distinction, and between their people and inhabitants of any degree whatsoever.

II. That henceforth all enmity and hostilities shall cease.

III. That all offences, injuries, damages, and charges, suffered after the 18th of May, O. S. 1652, shall be entirely buried in oblivion; and no suits shall be moved, nor actions be intended for the same, excepting such depredations as shall henceforth be committed in the British seas, after the space of twelve days, and between the British seas and Cape St. Vincent six weeks; and thence in the Mediterranean sea, and to the equator, after the space of ten weeks, and beyond the equator after eight months from the publication of this treaty, or immediately after due notice of the peace; and restitution shall be made of all things taken, and injuries done, after that time.

IV. That all prisoners of war, of whatsoever degree or condition, and in whatsoever place they be, shall be set at liberty without ransom.

V. That such as attempt to disturb the peace of either state, shall be reputed enemies.

Note, The six next articles are not much to our purpose.

XII. It is agreed, that the subjects of either state shall freely travel through and trade to all the dominions of the other in Europe, without prejudice of the laws and customs of particular places, &c.

XIII. It is likewise agreed, that as well the ships of war, as the other ships of the United Provinces, meeting with the ships of war of this state in the British seas, shall strike their flag, and lower their top-sail, in the same manner as has been done in any former time, under any government whatsoever.

XIV. That, for the greater security and encouragement of trade, all pirates be duly punished in the dominions of either state, and the effects, seized in their custody, restored to the right owners, if any can be found.

Note, The four next articles are foreign to our present purpose.

XIX. That the merchants, mariners, sailors, and pilots, &c. of each state, nor their ships, goods, nor effects, shall either be detained or arrested, nor forced into the service of the other, without an absolute necessity; in which case too, satisfaction shall be given for the same.

XX. That the ships of war of either state shall take into their protection, and under their convoy; all ships belonging to the other state, as long as they steer the same course with them.

XXI. That if the ships belonging to the subjects of one of the states be taken in the ports of the other, by those of a third nation, the state under whose jurisdiction such ships are taken, shall do their endeavours to recover the same.

XXII. That if any injury shall be done on either side, no letters of reprisal shall be granted ’till three months after justice has been demanded in a friendly manner, and refused.

XXIII. That such as obtain letters of reprisal of either state, shall give in security before the judge, which delivers them the same, for their behaviour.

XXIV. It is further agreed, that the vessels of both nations, whether ships of war or others, shall be free to enter into each other's ports, and there buy provisions and other necessaries, or rest, if need be; provided always, that not above eight ships of war enter into any port of either ally, except they be forced in by tempest or enemies; in which case they shall forthwith acquaint the governor, or chief magistrate of the place, and shall not remain any longer there than necessity requires.

XXV. It is likewise agreed, that the Dutch shall do justice upon all those concerned in the slaughter of the English at Amboyna, if there be any of them remaining.

The following articles of this treaty only contain some stipulations for receiving the king of Denmark into it, and for procuring the restitution of some English effects seized in that country, and reparation of damage, &c. together with some other things no ways material to our purpose, and therefore I shall pass by them.

R E M A R K S.

The next important marine treaty that occurs, is one between his majesty king Charles II. after his restoration to his dominions, and the States-General of Holland; in which they compose all ancient differences, and amongst other things expressly confirm that former article, concerning the homage to be paid by all Dutch ships to English men of war, which article only we shall here insert.

Art. X. It is likewise agreed, that the ships and vessels of the said United Provinces, as well men of war as others, meeting any of the ships of war of Great-Britain, within the extent of the British seas, shall strike their flag, and lower their main top-sail, in the same manner that it has been observed in any former time whatsoever.

The next treaty that followed after the war between Great-Britain and Holland, was a treaty of peace and alliance concluded between king Charles II. and the States-General. the 21st of July, O. S. 1667.

And, as the first eighteen articles of that treaty do not particularly relate to marine affairs, the nineteenth being precisely the same with the tenth article of the precedent treaty, but just now inserted, we shall begin at the twentieth article, and insert the rest of the treaty in the same order we find it.

XX. And, for the greater freedom of commerce and navigation, it is agreed and concluded, that the said king of Great Britain, and the said States-General, shall not receive into their havens, cities, and towns, nor suffer that any of the subjects of either party do receive pirates or sea-rovers, or afford them any entertainment, assistance, or provision, but shall endeavour that the said pirates and sea-rovers, or their sharers and abettors, be found out, apprehended, and suffer condign punishment, for the terror of others: and all the ships, goods, and commodities, piratically taken by them, and brought into the ports of either party, which can be found: nay, although they be sold; shall be restored to the right owners, or satisfaction shall be given, either to their owners, or to those who by letters of attorney shall challenge the same; provided the right of their property be made to appear in the court of admiralty, by due proofs according to law.

XXI. It shall not be permitted to the subjects of the said king of Great-Britain, and the inhabitants of the kingdoms and countries under his obedience, or to the inhabitants and subjects of the said United Provinces, to do or offer any hostility or violence to each other, either by land or by sea, upon any pretence or colour whatsoever: and, consequently, it shall not be lawful for the said subjects or inhabitants to get commissions or letters of reprisal from any prince or state, with whom either of the confederates is at difference, or in open war: and much less, by virtue of those letters, to molest or damnify the subjects of either party. Neither shall it be lawful for any foreign private men of war, who are not subjects to one or the other party, having commissions from any other prince or state, to equip their ships in the harbours of either of the aforesaid parties, or to sell or ransom their prizes, or any other way to truck, as well the ships and goods, as any other lading whatsoever. And it shall not be lawful for them to purchase any provisions, but what shall be necessary to bring them to the next port of that prince, from whom they obtained their said commissions. And, if, perchance, any of the subjects of the said king of Great-Britain, or of the said States-General, shall buy or get to themselves by truck, or any other way, such ship or goods which have been taken by the subjects of the one or the other party; in such case the said subjects shall be bound to restore the said ship or goods to the proprietors without any delay, and without any compensation or reimbursement of money paid or promised for the same; provided that they make it appear before the council of the said king of Great-Britain, or before the States-General, that they are the right owners or proprietors of them.

XXII. That in case the king of Great-Britain, or the said

States-General, do make any treaty of amity or alliance with any other kings, republics, princes or states, they shall therein comprehend each other and their dominions, if they desire to be therein comprehended, and shall give to the other notice of all such treaties of friendship or alliance.

XXIII. That in case it happens, during this friendship, confederacy, and alliance, that any thing shall be done or attempted by any of the subjects or inhabitants of either party against this treaty, or any part thereof, by land, sea, or fresh waters, nevertheless this amity and alliance between the said nations shall not thereby be broken or interrupted, but shall remain and continue in it's full force; and that only those particular persons shall be punished, who have committed any thing against this treaty, and none else; and that justice shall be rendered, and satisfaction given to all persons concerned, by all such who have committed any thing contrary to this treaty, by land or sea, or other waters, in any part of Europe, or any places within the Straights, or in America, or in any lands, islands, seas, creeks, bays, rivers, or in any places on this side the Cape of Good Hope, within twelve months space after justice shall be demanded; and in all places whatsoever on the other side of the Cape (as hath been aforesaid) within eighteen months next ensuing, after demand of justice shall be made in manner aforesaid. But in case the offenders against this treaty do not appear, and submit themselves to judgment, and give satisfaction within the respective times above expressed, proportionably to the distance of the places, they shall be declared enemies of both parties, and their estates, goods, and revenues whatsoever, shall be confiscated for the due and full satisfaction of the injuries and wrongs by them offered; and their persons also, when they come within the dominion of either party, shall be liable unto such punishments as every one shall deserve for his respective offences.

XXIV. That the subjects of the said king of Great-Britain, and those which trade under his jurisdiction, may freely and securely travel in all the provinces of the Low-Countries, and all their dominions in Europe, and through them by sea or land pass to other places there or beyond them, and through all quarters of the United Provinces, cities, forts, or garrisons whatsoever, which are in any parts of the United Provinces, or elsewhere in their dominions in Europe, as well they themselves exercising trade in all those places, as their agents, factors, and servants, may go armed or unarmed (but, if armed, not above forty in company), as well without their goods and merchandizes as with them, where-soever they please. The people also and inhabitants of the United Provinces shall enjoy the same liberty and freedom in all the dominions of the said king in Europe, provided that they, and every of them, do, in their trade and merchandizing, yield obedience to the laws and states of either nation respectively.

XXV. That, in case the merchant-ships of the subjects of either nation shall by storm, pirates, or any other necessity whatsoever, be driven into any haven of either dominion, they may depart securely at their pleasure, with their ships and goods, without paying any customs or other duties, provided they break no bulk, nor sell any thing; nor shall they be subject to any molestation or search, provided they do not receive on board any persons or goods, nor do any thing else contrary to the laws, ordinances, or customs of the places, where they (as aforesaid) shall happen to arrive.

XXVI. That the merchants, masters, and seamen of either party, their ships, goods, wares, or merchandizes, shall not be arrested or seized in the lands, havens, roads, or rivers of the other, to serve at war, or any other use, by virtue of any general or special command, unless upon an extraordinary necessity, and that just satisfaction be given for the same; but so as the same shall not derogate from the seizures and arrests duly made in the ordinary courts of justice of either nation.

XXVII. That the merchants on both sides, their factors and servants, and also the masters and other seamen, as well going as returning by sea and other waters, as also in the haven of either party, or going on shore, may carry and use, for the defence of themselves and merchandizes, all sorts of weapons, as well offensive as defensive; but, being come into their lodgings or inns, they shall there lay by and leave their arms, until they be going on board again.

XXVIII. That the men of war, or convoys of either nation, meeting at sea any merchant-ship or ships belonging to the subjects of the other, holding the same course, or going the same way, shall be bound, as long as they keep one course together, to protect and defend them against all and every one who would set upon them.

XXIX. That if any ship or ships of the subjects of either nation, or of a neuter, be taken by a third party in the harbours of either, not being of the subjects or inhabitants of either nation, they, in or out of whose haven or jurisdiction the said ships shall be taken, shall be bound to endeavour, with the other party, that the said ship or ships be pursued, brought back, and restored to the owners; but all this shall be done at the charge of the owners, or whom it concerns.

XXX. That searchers, and other like officers on both sides, shall regulate themselves according to the laws of either nation,

tion, and shall not impose or demand more than they are allowed by their commissions or instructions.

XXXI. That if any injury be done or practised by either nation, or the subjects of the same, against the subjects of the other, or against any of the articles of this present treaty, or against common right; yet nevertheless no letters of reprisal, marque, or counter-marque, shall be granted by either side, 'till justice hath been first demanded according to the ordinary course of law; but, in case justice be there denied or delayed, then that the said king of Great-Britain and the said States-General, or commissioners of that nation, whose subjects or inhabitants have suffered the wrong, shall publicly require justice from that other party, where (as abovesaid) it was denied or delayed, or from that power appointed to hear and decide such difference, that there may be a friendly composition, or due process of law. But if still there happen more delays, and neither justice be administered, nor satisfaction given within three months after such demand, that then letters of reprisal, marque, or counter-marque, may be granted.

XXXII. It is also agreed, if at any time it happen (which God of his mercy forbid) that the differences, now composed between his said majesty and the said States-General, should fester and break out again into open war, that then those ships, merchandizes, or any kind of moveables of either party, which shall be found to be and remain in the ports, and under the command of the adverse party on either side, shall not, for all that, be confiscated, or made obnoxious to any inconvenience; but the space of six months shall entirely be allowed to the subjects and inhabitants of either party, that they have leisure to transport from thence the forementioned things, and any thing else that is theirs, whither they shall think fit, without any kind of molestation.

XXXIII. That they who have obtained private commissions from either party, before they receive such commissions, shall give good and sufficient security before the judge of the court where they receive such commissions by responsible men, who have no part or share in such ships, that they shall do no damage or injury to the subjects or inhabitants of either side.

XXXIV. It is also agreed and concluded, that the subjects and inhabitants of either party shall always have free access to each other's sea-ports, there to remain, and from thence to depart with the same freedom; and not only with their merchant-ships and lading, but also with their men of war, whether they belong to the said king or States-General, or unto such as have obtained private commissions, whether they arrive through violence or tempest, or other casualty of the seas, or to repair their ships, or to purchase provisions, so they exceed not the number of eight men of war, when they come there voluntarily; nor shall remain longer in the havens or places adjacent, than they shall have a just cause to repair their said ships, or to purchase provisions, or other necessities: and, if a greater number of men of war should upon occasion desire to come into such ports, they shall in no case enter thereinto, until they have first obtained leave from those to whom the said havens do appertain, unless they be compelled so to do by storm, or some force or necessity, whereby they may avoid the danger of the sea: in which case also they shall presently make known the cause of their coming, unto the governor or chief magistrate of the place, and shall stay no longer than the governor or chief magistrate shall permit them, and shall not commit any acts of hostility or other prejudice in the abovesaid havens, during their abode there.

XXXV. Furthermore, it is agreed and concluded, that both parties shall truly and firmly observe and execute this present treaty, and all and every the matters contained therein, and effectually cause the same to be observed and performed by the subjects of either nation.

XXXVI. Also, for further caution and assurance, that this treaty and confederacy shall be duly and bonâ fide observed on the part of the said States-General of the United Provinces and their people, it is concluded and agreed, and the said States-General by these presents do agree, and firmly bind themselves, that all, and every one of whom they, or the states of the provinces, shall at any time chuse, appoint, or make captain general, governor, or chief president, or stadtholder, general of armies or military forces by land, or admiral or general of the fleets, ships, or forces at sea, shall be bound and obliged by oath to confirm this treaty, and all the articles thereof, and promise sacredly upon affidavit, that they shall as far as it is possible, religiously observe and execute the same, and, as much as concerns them, cause the same to be observed and executed by others.

XXXVII. Under this present treaty of peace, those shall be comprehended, who may be named by either party with common consent before the exchange of ratifications, or within six months after. But, in the mean time, as the covenanting parties do thankfully acknowledge the friendly offices, and unwearied endeavours, whereby the most serene king of Sweden, interposing his mediation, hath, through the assistance of God, promoted and carried on this beneficial work of pacification, unto the desired conclusion; so, to testify their like affection, it is decreed and covenanted by the common consent of all the parties, that his above-mentioned ma-

jesty of Sweden, with all his kingdoms, dominions, provinces, &c. be comprehended in the present pacification, in the most effectual manner that may be.

XXXVIII. It is also covenanted, concluded, and agreed, that the present treaty, and every thing therein contained, shall be confirmed and ratified by the said king of Great-Britain, and the said States-General of the United Provinces, by letters patents on both sides, sealed with the great seal in due and authentic form, within four weeks next ensuing, or sooner, if it can be done; and that, within the said time, the ratifications on both sides shall be exchanged at Breda; and that, presently after the delivery and exchange of the same, this treaty and alliance shall be published in such form and place as is usual.

Done at Breda the $\frac{24}{31}$ day of July, 1667.

The same day was likewise concluded another treaty concerning marine affairs; but, as that was only the forerunner of another of the $\frac{17}{7}$ of February, 1667-8, we shall only insert the latter, which is more methodical and positive, and consequently fitter for our purpose.

ARTICLE VI.

Articles touching navigation and commerce, between the most serene and mighty prince, Charles II. by the grace of God, king of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, &c. and the high and mighty lords the States-General of the United Netherlands, concluded at the Hague the $\frac{17}{7}$ of February, 1667-8.

Whereas by the blessing of almighty God, for the mutual safety of the two parties, as well as the common good of Christendom, a perpetual defensive treaty was concluded, and signed on the 23d day of January last past, between the most serene and most potent prince Charles II. and the high and mighty lords the States General of the United Netherlands, with stipulation of considerable succours, to be mutually given by the parties, as well by sea as land: and whereas the said king and states did on the same day, and by another instrument, readily enter into a solemn treaty and agreement for composing the affairs of their neighbours, and restoring peace to Christendom, so as nothing seems now remaining that can at any time hereafter interrupt a friendship and alliance renewed with so equal desires, unless such controversies as may otherwise hereafter happen to arise about determining the different sorts and natures of merchandize; which, being left dubious and uncertain, would give occasion to the further growth to such differences: and therefore, that it may appear with what sincerity and good faith, the said king, and the said states, desire to preserve and entertain, not only for the present, but to all posterity, the amity they lately contracted between them, they have at last, for the taking away all ground, not only of differences and misunderstandings, but even of questions or disputes, and so utterly to cut off the hope and expectation of those, whoever they are, that may think it their interest, by new controversies, to endeavour the disturbance or interruption of the said peace, mutually agreed on these following articles, which are to be on both sides, and for ever observed as the measure and rule of such maritime affairs, and mutual settlement of trade, or at least so long, 'till by the joint consent of both parties, commissioners be appointed, and do meet in order to the framing a more ample treaty concerning this matter, and the laws and rules of commerce and navigation, as by farther experience shall be found most advantageous to the common good of both parties.

I. All the subjects and inhabitants of Great-Britain may, with all safety and freedom, sail and traffic in all the kingdoms, countries, and estates, which are or shall be in peace, amity or neutrality with Great Britain, without being troubled or disquieted in that liberty by the ships of war, galleys, frigates, barks, or other vessels belonging to the States-General, or any of their subjects, upon occasion of the hostilities which may hereafter happen between the said States-General and the abovesaid kingdoms, countries, and estates, or any of them, which are or shall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with Great-Britain.

II. This freedom of navigation and traffic shall extend to all sorts of merchandize, except those of contraband.

III. This term of contraband goods is understood to comprehend only all sorts of fire-arms and their appurtenances; as cannon, musquets, mortar-pieces, petards, bombs, grenades, fire-crancels, pitched-hoops, carriages, rests, bandeliers, powder; match, saltpetre, bullets, pikes, swords, morions, head-pieces, coats of mail, halberts, javelins, horses, great saddles, holsters, belts, and other utensils of war, called, in French, *Assortissements servant a l'usage de la guerre*.

IV. In this quality of contraband goods, these following shall not be comprehended; corn, wheat, or other grain, and pulse; oils, wines, salt, or generally any thing that belongs to the nourishment and sustenance of life; but shall remain free as other merchandize and commodities not comprehended in the precedent article; and the transportation of them shall be permitted, even unto places in enmity with the

the said States-General, except such cities and places as are besieged, blocked up, or invested.

V. It hath been agreed, for the due execution of what is abovesaid, that the ships and barks of the English, laden with merchandize, being entered into any port of the said States-General, and purposing to pass from thence unto the ports of their enemies shall be only obliged to shew unto the officers of the port of the said States, out of which they would go, their passports; containing the specification of the lading of their ships attested and marked with the ordinary seal of the officers of the admiralty of those places from whence they first came, with the place whither they are bound, all in a usual and accustomed form: after which, shewing of their passports in the form aforesaid, they may not be disquieted nor searched, detained nor retarded in their voyages, upon any pretence whatsoever.

VI. The same course shall be used in regard of the English ships and vessels which shall come into any roads of the countries under the obedience of the said States, not intending to enter into the ports, or being entered thereinto, not to unlade and break bulk; which ships may not be obliged to give account of their lading, but in case of suspicion that they carry unto the enemies of the said States any contraband goods, as was abovesaid.

VII. And, in case of such apparent suspicion, the said subjects of his majesty shall be obliged to shew in the ports their passports, in the form specified.

VIII. But, if they were come within the roads, or were met in the open sea by any of the said States ships or private men of war their subjects, for avoiding of all disorder, the said ships of the United Provinces or of their subjects, shall not come near within cannon-shot of the English, but shall send out their long-boat, and cause only two or three men to go on board the English ships or vessels, unto whom the passport and certificates of the propriety of the ships be shewn by the master or captain of the English ships, in the manner above specified, according to the form of the said certificates, which shall be inserted at the end of this treaty; by which passport and certificate, proof may be made, not only of the lading, but also of the place of the abode and residence of the master or captain, and name of the ship itself, to the end that by these two ways it may be known, whether they carry contraband goods; and that the quality as well of the said ship, as of its master or captain, may sufficiently appear. Unto which passports and certificates entire faith and credit shall be given. And, to the end that their validity may be the better known, and that they may not be in any wise falsified and counterfeited, certain marks and counter-signs of his majesty and the said States-General shall be given unto them.

IX. And, in case any merchandize and commodities of those kinds which are before declared to be contraband and forbidden, shall, by the means aforesaid, be found in the English ships and vessels, bound for the ports of the said State's enemies, they shall be unladen, judicially proceeded against, and declared confiscate before the judges of the admiralty of the United Provinces, or other competent officers: but so that the ship and vessel, or other free and allowed goods, merchandize, and commodities, found in the same ship, may not, for that cause, be in any manner seized or confiscated.

X. It is furthermore agreed and covenanted, that whatsoever shall be found laden by his majesty's subjects upon any ship of the enemies of the said States, although the same were not contraband goods, shall yet be confiscated with all that shall be found in the said ship, without exception or reservation: but, on the other side also, all that shall be found in the ships belonging to the king of Great-Britain's subjects, shall be free and discharged, although the lading or part thereof belong to the said State's enemies, except contraband goods, in regard whereof such rule shall be observed, as hath been ordered in the precedent articles.

XI. All the subjects and inhabitants of the said United Provinces shall reciprocally enjoy the same rights, liberties, and exemptions in their trade and commerce upon the coasts, and in the ports, roads, seas, and estates of his said majesty (as was now said) which his said majesty's subjects shall enjoy in those of the said States, and in open sea; it being to be understood that the equality shall be mutual every way on both sides, even in case the said States should hereafter be in peace, amity, and neutrality, with any kings, princes, and states, who should become enemies to his said majesty; so that either of the parties are mutually to use the same conditions and restrictions expressed in the articles of this present treaty, with regard to trade and commerce.

XII. And the more to assure the subjects of the said States, that no violence shall be offered them by the ships of war belonging to his majesty of Great-Britain or his subjects, all the captains of the king's ships, and all his majesty's subjects, that send out private men of war, shall be charged and enjoined not to molest or endamage them in any thing whatsoever, upon pain of being punished and made answerable in their persons and goods for all cost and damages, until due restitution and reparation be made.

XIII. And, for this cause, the captains and capers shall from

henceforth every one of them be obliged, before they go out, to give good and sufficient security before competent judges, in the sum of 1500*l.* sterling, or 15,000 livres Tournois, that they will give full satisfaction for any injuries or wrongs they may commit in their courses at sea, and for their captains and officers that shall violate this present treaty, and the orders and proclamations of his majesty, which shall be published by virtue and in conformity to, the regulation therein made, upon pain of forfeiting their said commissions and licences; which shall in like manner be practised by the subjects of the said States-General.

XIV. If it should happen that any of the said Dutch captains should make prize of a vessel laden with contraband goods, as hath been said, the said captains may not open nor break up the chests, nails, packs, bags, casks, or sell or exchange, or otherwise alienate them, until they have landed them in the presence of the judges or officers of the admiralty, and after an inventory by them made of the said goods found in the said vessels, unless, the contraband goods making but a part of the lading, the master of the ship should be content to deliver the said contraband goods unto the said captain, and to pursue his voyage: in which case the said master shall by no means be hindered from continuing his course, and the design of his voyage.

XV. His majesty, being desirous that the subjects of the said States may be used in all countries under his obedience as favourably as his own subjects, will give all necessary orders, that judgments and decrees upon prizes which shall happen to be taken at sea, may be given with all justice and equity, by judges not suspected nor concerned in the matter under debate; and his majesty will give precise and effectual orders, that all decrees, judgments, and orders of justice, already given and to be given, may be readily and duly executed according to the tenor of them.

XVI. And, when the ambassadors of the said States-General, or any other of their public ministers residing in his majesty's court, shall make complaint of the judgments, which shall be given, his majesty will cause a review to be made of the said judgments in his council, to examine whether the orders and precautions contained in the present treaty have been followed and observed, and to provide for the same according to right and equity; which shall be done, within the space of three months at the farthest: nevertheless, neither before the first judgment nor after it, during the time of the review, the goods and effects which are reclaimed, may be sold or unladen, unless it be with the consent of the parties interested, to avoid the spoiling of the said commodities, if they be perishable.

XVII. When process shall be moved in the first or second instance, between those that have taken the prizes at sea, and the persons interested therein, and those persons shall come to obtain a favourable decree, the said decree shall have its execution, upon security given, notwithstanding the appeal of him that took the prize: but the same shall not hold on the contrary, where the sentence goes against the claimers. And that which is said in this present, and in the precedent articles, for the causing of good and speedy justice to be done unto the subjects of the United Provinces in the matter of prizes, shall be understood and practised by the States-General, in regard of prizes taken by their subjects from those of his majesty.

XVIII. But, since the conveniencies and inconveniencies of things and agreements cannot be discovered but in procedure of time, and by observations drawn from mutual experience, it is therefore agreed between the king of Great-Britain, and the lords the States of the United Netherlands, that at any time hereafter, when both parties shall so think fitting, certain commissioners, by each party respectively chosen, shall meet by the common consent of both, who shall make it their care and business to supply whatever shall be found wanting in the aforementioned articles, to change or limit whatever shall not be convenient and commodious for both, and fully compleat a further treaty, both concerning these things, and all others relating to the laws of navigation.

XIX. All these agreements, &c. shall be confirmed and ratified by the said king of Great Britain and the States-General of the United Provinces, by letters patents of both parties, sealed with their great seal in due and authentic form, within four weeks next ensuing, or sooner, if it may be; and mutual instruments shall be exchanged by each party, within the time aforesaid.

R E M A R K S.

Here follow certain forms, whereof mention is made in the eighth article.

A form of the certificate that ought to be given by those that have the ordinary power of the admiralty of England, to the ships and vessels that go out thence, according to the eighth article of the present treaty.

high admiral of England,

To all who shall see these presents, greetings,

These are to certify, That we have granted leave and permission to
master and captain of the

the ship called _____ of the city of _____ of the
burden of _____ tons, or thereabouts, being at present in
the port and haven of _____ to go to
laden with _____ after search shall have been made of
the ship, and he before his departure shall have made oath be-
fore the officers that exercise the jurisdiction of maritime
causes, that the said vessel doth belong to one or more of his
majesty's subjects, an act whereof shall be put at the bottom
of these presents, as also to keep and cause to be kept, by those
aboard him, the orders and rules of the marine, and shall
put into the registry a list signed and certified, containing
the names and surnames, the nativity and habitation of the
men that are aboard him, and of all that shall embark them-
selves, whom he may not take on board without the know-
ledge and permission of the marine officers; and, in every
port or haven where he shall enter with his ship, shall shew
the officers and marine judges this his present licence; and,
having finished his voyage, shall make faithful relation of
what hath been done, and hath passed during all the time of
his said voyage, and shall carry the flags, arms, and colours
of his majesty throughout his whole voyage. In witness
whereof, we have signed these presents, and caused the seal
of our arms to be put thereunto, and the same to be coun-
ter-signed by our secretary of marine, the _____ day of
one thousand six hundred
Signed

And underneath by
And sealed with the seal of the arms of the said high admiral.

A form of the act containing the oath to be taken by the
master or captain of the ship.

We _____ of the admiralty of
do certify, That _____ master
of the ship named in the passport above, hath taken the
oath therein mentioned. Given at _____ the day of
one thousand six hundred, &c.

In testimony whereof we have
hereunto set our hands.

The form of the certificates that ought to be given by the
burghermasters of the cities and sea-ports of the United
Provinces, to the ships and vessels that go from thence,
according to the eighth article above said.

To the most serene, most illustrious, most mighty, most no-
ble, honourable, and prudent lords, emperors, kings, com-
mon wealths, princes, dukes, comtes, barons, lords, burgher-
masters, sheriffs, counsellors, judges, officers, justices and
regents of all cities and places, as well ecclesiastical as secu-
lar, who shall see or read these presents. We burghermasters
and governors of the city of _____ do certify, That

ship-master, appearing before us, hath
declared by solemn oath, That the ship called
containing about _____ lasts, of which he is at present
the master, belongeth to inhabitants of the United Provinces.
So help him God. And, as we would willingly see the said
ship-master assisted in his just affairs, we do request you and
every of you, where the above said master shall arrive with
his ship and goods, that you will please to receive him cour-
teously and use him kindly, admitting him, upon paying the
usual dues, tolls, and other customs, to enter into, remain
in, and pass from your ports, rivers, and territories, and
there to trade, deal, and negotiate, in any part or place, in
such sort and manner as he shall desire. Which we shall
most readily acknowledge on the like occasion.
In witness whereof, we have caused the seal of our city to
be thereunto put.

In witness and confirmation of all and every part whereof,
we the commissioners of his said majesty the king of Great-
Britain, and of the said lords the States-General, having suf-
ficient power given us thereunto, have signed these tables,
and sealed them with our seals. At the Hague in Holland,
the 17th of February, in the year 1668.

De Gellicum,	G. Hoolck,
B. D'Asperon,	V. Unckell,
John de Witt,	Jan Van Iffelmuden,
Van Crommon,	L. T. Van Sturkenborck.

This marine treaty being so concluded between his majesty
and the States, for their dominions in Europe, another was
some time after set a foot, and agreed to, for regulating their
naval affairs all over the world, which very well deserves a
place in this collection, and which the reader may take in the
following terms.

ARTICLE VII.

A treaty marine between the most serene and mighty prince
Charles II. by the grace of God, king of England, Scot-
land, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. and
the high and mighty lords the States-General of the United
Netherlands, to be observed throughout all and every the
VOL. II.

countries and parts of the world, by sea and land, con-
cluded at London the 1st day of December, 1674, S. V.

I. That it shall and may be lawful for all and every the sub-
jects of the most serene and mighty prince, the king of Great-
Britain afore said, with all freedom and safety to sail, trade,
and exercise any manner of traffic in all those kingdoms,
countries, and estates which are, or at any time hereafter
shall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with his said majesty;
so that they shall not be any ways molested in their naviga-
tion or trade, by the military forces, nor by the ships of war,
or any other kind of vessels whatsoever, belonging either to
the high and mighty States-General of the United Nether-
lands, or to their subjects, upon occasion or pretence of any
hostility, or difference which now is, or shall hereafter hap-
pen between the said lords the States-General, and any other
princes or people whatsoever in peace, amity, or neutrality
with his said majesty: and likewise, that it shall and may be
lawful for all and every the subjects of the said high and mighty
lords the States-General of the United Netherlands, with all
freedom and safety to sail, trade, and exercise any manner of
traffic in all those kingdoms, countries, and estates which
are, or at any time hereafter shall be in peace, amity, or
neutrality with the afore said lords the States; so that they
shall not be any ways molested in their navigation or trade,
by the military forces, or by the ships of war, or any other
kind of vessels whatsoever, belonging either to the most serene
and mighty king abovementioned, or to his subjects, upon
occasion or pretence of any hostility or difference which now
is, or shall hereafter happen between his said majesty and any
princes or people whatsoever in peace, amity, or neutrality
with the said lords the States.

II. Nor shall this freedom of navigation and commerce be in-
fringed by occasion or cause of any war, in any kind of mer-
chandizes, but shall extend to all commodities which shall
be carried in time of peace, those only excepted which follow
in the next article, and are comprehended under the name of
contraband.

III. Under this name of contraband, or prohibited merchan-
dizes, shall be comprehended only arms, pieces of ordnance,
with all implements belonging to them, fire-balls, powder,
match, bullets, pikes, swords, lances, spears, halberts, guns,
mortar-pieces, petards, granadoes, musquet-rests, bandeliers,
salt-petre, musquets, musquet-shot, helmets, corslets, breast-
plates, coats of mail, and the like kind of armature; soldiers,
horses, and all things necessary for the furniture of horses;
holsters, belts, and all other warlike instruments whatso-
ever.

IV. These merchandizes following shall not be reckoned
among prohibited goods, viz. all kind of cloth, and all other
manufactures woven of any kind of wool, flax, silk, cotton,
or any other materials; all sorts of cloathing and vestments,
together with materials whereof they use to be made; gold
and silver, as well coined as not coined; tin, iron, lead, cop-
per, and coals; as also wheat, barley, and all other kind of
corn or pulse; tobacco, and all kind of spices; salted and
smoked flesh; salted and dried fish, butter and cheese, beer,
oils, wines, sugars, and all sorts of salt; and, in general, all
provision which serves for the nourishment and sustenance of
life; likewise all kind of cotton, hemp, flax, and pitch, and
ropes, sails, and anchors; also masts and planks, boards and
beams, of what sort of wood soever, and all other materials
requisite for the building or repairing ships; but they shall be
wholly reputed amongst free goods, even as all other wares
and commodities which are not comprehended in the next
precedent article, so that the same may be freely transported
and carried by the subjects of his said majesty, even unto places
in enmity with the said States; as also, on the other side, by
the subjects of the said States, to places under the obedience of
the enemies of his said majesty; except only towns or places
be seized, invironed, or invested; in French, blocquées ou
investies.

V. And, that all manner of differences and contentions on
both sides, by sea and land, may from henceforth cease and be
utterly extinguished, it is agreed, that all kinds of ships and
vessels whatsoever, belonging to the subjects of his said ma-
jesty, entering or being entered into any road or port under
the obedience of the lords the States, and purposing to pass
from thence, shall be only obliged to shew unto the officers
acting in the ports of the said States, or to the captains of the
States ships, or of private men of war (if any happen there to
be) their passport, commonly called a sea-brief (the form
whereof is added at the end of these articles) nor shall any
money, or any thing else, be exacted from them under that
pretence: but, if any ship belonging to the subjects of his
majesty of Great-Britain shall, in the open sea, or elsewhere
out of the dominions of the said States, meet the ships of war
of the said lords the States, or private men of war of their sub-
jects, the said ships of the lords the States, or of their subjects,
shall keep at a convenient distance, and only send out their
boat; and it shall be lawful for them, only with two or three
men, to go on board the ships and vessels of the subjects of
his majesty, that the passport (or sea-brief) and the propriety
thereof, according to the form hereafter specified, may be
Y y shewn

shewn to them by the captain or master of such ship or vessels belonging to the subjects of his majesty; and the ship which shall shew the same shall freely pass; and it shall not be lawful to molest, search, detain, or divert the same from her intended voyage: and all the subjects of the lords the States shall enjoy, in all things, the same liberty and immunity, they, in like manner, shewing their passports (or sea-briefs) made according to the form prescribed at the latter end of this treaty.

VI. But if any ship or vessel belonging to the English, or other subjects of his majesty, shall be met making into any port in enmity with the lords the States; or, on the other side, if any ship belonging to the United Provinces of the Netherlands, or other subjects of the lords the States, shall be met in her way making into any port under the obedience of the enemies of his said majesty; such ships shall shew not only a passport (or sea-brief) according to the form here under preferred, wherewith she is to be furnished, but also her cockets, expressing the contents of the goods on board, given in the usual form, by the officers of the customs in the port from whence she came; whereby it may be known whether she is laden with any merchandize prohibited by the third article of this treaty.

VII. But if, by the shewing the abovesaid cockets, expressing the contents of the goods on board, given in the usual form by the officers of the customs in the port from whence she came (concerning the shewing whereof it is above agreed) either party shall discover any kind of merchandizes which, in the third article of this treaty, are declared to be contraband or prohibited goods, consigned to any port under the obedience of their enemies, it shall not be lawful to open the hatches of such ship in which the same shall happen to be found, whether she belongs to the subjects of his majesty, or of the lords the States: nor to unlock, or break open chests, mails, packs, or casks in the same, nor to convey away any the least part of the merchandizes, before the whole be first landed in the presence of the officers of the admiralty, and inventoried; neither shall it be any ways lawful to sell, exchange, or otherwise to alienate the same, until such prohibited goods are rightly and lawfully proceeded against, and that the judges of the admiralty have, by their respective sentences, confiscated the same: provided always, that, as well the ship itself, as the rest of the commodities found in the same, which by this treaty are to be reputed free, shall not, upon pretence of their being infected by such prohibited goods, be detained, much less confiscated for lawful prize: but if not the whole, but a part only of the lading consists of contraband or prohibited commodities, and that the master of the ship shall be willing and ready to deliver them to the captain who seized the same, in that case the captor shall not compel the ship to go out of her course to any port he thinks fit, but shall forthwith dismiss her, and upon no account hinder her from freely prosecuting her designed voyage.

VIII. It is further agreed, that whatsoever shall be found laden by his majesty's subjects, upon any ship whatsoever belonging to the enemies of the lords the States, although the same be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiscated: but, on the contrary, all that which shall be found in the ships belonging to the subjects of his majesty, shall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by just title or propriety, shall belong to the enemies of the lords the States; except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things shall be done according to the meaning and direction of the precedent articles: and, for the same reason, whatsoever shall be laden by the subjects of the lords the States, in any ship whatsoever belonging to the enemies of his majesty, although the same be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiscated; but, on the other side, all that which shall be found in the ships belonging to the subjects of the lords the States shall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by just title of propriety, shall belong to the enemies of his majesty; except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things shall be done according to the meaning and directions of the precedent articles. And, lest any damage should by surprize be done to the one party who is in peace, when the other party shall happen to be engaged in war, it is provided, that a ship belonging to the enemies of the one party, and laden with goods of the subjects of the other, shall not render the said goods liable to confiscation, in case they were laden before the expiration of the times hereafter mentioned, after the declaration or publication of any such war, viz. if the goods were laden in any port or place between the limits called the Soundings, and the Naz in Norway, within the space of six weeks after such declaration; of two months, between the said place the Soundings and the city of Tangier; and of ten weeks in the Mediterranean Sea; or within the space of eight months in any other country or place of the world: so that it shall not be lawful to confiscate the goods of the subjects of his majesty taken or seized in any ship or vessel whatsoever of any enemy of the lords the States, upon that pretence, but the same shall be without delay restored to the proprietors, unless they were laden after the expiration of the said terms of time respective-

ly; but so that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to the enemy's ports the said merchandizes which are called contraband, and, for the reason aforesaid, shall not be liable to confiscation: neither, on the other side, shall it be lawful to confiscate goods of the subjects of the lords the States, taken or seized in any ship or vessel whatsoever of an enemy of his majesty, upon that pretence; but the same shall be forthwith restored to the proprietors thereof, unless they were laden after the expiration of the said terms of time respectively: but so that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to enemy's ports the said merchandizes which are called contraband, and, for the reason aforesaid, shall not be liable to confiscation.

IX. And, the more to assure the subjects of his majesty and of the said States, that no injury shall be offered to them by the ships of war, or private men of war of either side, all the captains of the ships, as well of his majesty as of the said States, and all their subjects who shall fit out private men of war, and likewise their privileged companies, shall be enjoined not to do any injury or damage whatsoever to the other; which if they do, they shall be punished, and moreover be liable to satisfy all costs and damages, by restitution and reparation, upon pain and obligation of person and goods.

X. For this cause all the commanders of private men of war shall from henceforth be obliged, before they receive their commissions, to enter, before a competent judge, good and sufficient security, who have no part or interest in such ship, in the sum of 1500l. sterling, or 16,500 guilders; and, when they have above 150 men, then in the sum of 3000l. sterling, or 33,000 guilders, that they will give full satisfaction for any damages or injuries whatsoever, which they or their officers, &c. shall commit in their courses at sea, contrary to this present treaty, or any other whatsoever, between his majesty and the said States, upon pain of revocation of their said commissions; in which it shall be always inserted, that they have given such security as abovesaid: and likewise it is agreed, that the ship itself shall be also liable to make satisfaction for injuries and damages done by her.

XI. His majesty and the said States, being desirous that the subjects of each other may be mutually treated, in all countries under their obedience respectively, with the like kindness as their own subjects, will give all necessary and effectual orders that the judgment upon prizes taken be given according to the rules of justice and equity, by judges beyond all suspicion, and not any way concerned in the cause under debate; and his majesty and the said States will likewise give strict orders that all sentences already given, and which shall be hereafter given, be (according to the tenor thereof) duly put in execution, &c.

XII. And whensoever the ambassadors of the said lords the States, or any other their public ministers, resident at the court of his most serene majesty of Great-Britain, shall complain of the unjustness of sentences which have been given, his majesty will cause the same to be reviewed and examined in his council, that it may appear whether the orders and precautions prescribed in this treaty have been observed, and have had their due effect, and will also take care that the same be fully provided for, and that right be done to the party complaining, within the space of three months: and likewise when the ambassadors, or other public ministers of his majesty, resident with the States-General, shall complain of the unjustness of sentences, the said States will cause a review and examination thereof to be made in the assembly of the States-General, that it may appear whether the orders and precautions prescribed in this treaty have been observed, and had their due effect; and they will likewise take care that the same be fully provided for, and that justice be done to the party complaining within the space of three months: nevertheless it shall not be lawful to sell or unlade the goods in controversy, either before the sentence given, or after it, during the review thereof on either side, unless it be with the consent of the parties interested.

XIII. A suit being commenced between the takers of prizes on the one part, and the claimers on the other, and decree being given for the party reclaiming, the said decree (upon security given) shall be put in execution, notwithstanding the appeal made by him that took the prize, which shall not be observed, in case the sentence shall be given against the claimers.

XIV. And whereas the masters of merchant-ships, and likewise the mariners and passengers, do sometimes suffer many cruelties and barbarous usages, when they are brought under the power of ships which take prizes in time of war, thereby to extort from them such confessions as they would have to be made: it is agreed that both his majesty and the lords the States-General shall, by the severest proclamations or placarts, forbid all such heinous and inhuman offences; and as many as they shall, by lawful proofs, find guilty of such acts, they shall take care that they be punished with due and just punishments, which may be a terror to others; and shall command that all the captains and officers of ships, who shall be proved to have committed such heinous practices, either themselves, or by instigating others to act the same, or by conniving while they were done, shall (besides other punishments, to be inflicted proportionably to their offences) be forthwith

forthwith deprived of their offices respectively; and every ship brought up as prize, whose mariners or passengers shall have suffered any torture, shall forthwith be dismissed and freed, with all her lading, from all further examination and proceeding against her, as well judicial as otherwise.

XV. It is also agreed, that the like severity of punishments shall be inflicted upon those who, contrary to the meaning of the 21st article of the treaty of peace concluded at Breda, shall take commissions from enemies to seize the ships of either ally, contrary to what is provided in the said article.

XVI. Lastly, It is agreed and concluded, that this present treaty, &c. shall be, with all convenient speed, on both sides ratified and confirmed; and that the ratifications thereof shall be, within two months from the date thereof, reciprocally exchanged between both parties: and also, that the said treaty shall, within one month after such exchanging of the ratifications, be delivered, in due and authentic form, to the governors of the English East-India and African companies, and to the directors of the Dutch East and West-India companies; and shall, with the first conveniency, be also sent by his said majesty, and by the said lords the States, to their respective governors and commanders in chief of their colonies and plantations in every part of the world out of Europe, to the end that it may be by them, and all others within their dominions and under their power, punctually observed and fulfilled.

The form of the passport (or sea-brief) to be required and given by the lord high admiral, or by those to whom the exercise of admiralty-jurisdiction is ordinarily committed, or by the mayor, or other chief magistrate, or by the commissioners, or other principal officers of the customs in their respective ports and places within his majesty's dominions, to the ships and vessels sailing out thence, according to the purport of the 5th article.

To all unto whom these presents shall come, greeting. We lord high admiral of we lords commissioners executing the office of the lord high admiral of or we judges of the high court of the admiralty of or we the mayor, or other magistrate of or we commissioners, or principal officers of the customs in the city or port of do testify and make known, That master or commander of the ship called the hath appeared before us, and hath declared, by solemn oath, That the said ship or vessel, containing about tons, of which he is at present master or commander, doth belong to the inhabitants of within the dominions of the most serene and mighty prince, the king of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, &c. So help him God. And in regard it would be most acceptable to us, that the said master or commander be assisted in his just and lawful affairs, we do request you, and every of you, wheresoever the said master or commander shall arrive with his ship, and the goods laden on board, and carried in her, that you would please to receive him courteously, and use him kindly, and admit him, upon paying the lawful and usual customs and other duties, to enter into, remain in, and pass from your ports, rivers, and dominions, and there to enjoy all kind of right of navigation, traffic, and commerce, in all places where he shall think fit; which we shall most willingly and readily acknowledge upon all occasions. In testimony and confirmation whereof, we have with our hand signed these presents, and caused them to be sealed with our seal. Dated at in the day of in the year of our Lord

The form of the passport (or sea-brief) to be required of, and given by, the burgher-master of the cities and ports of the United Netherlands, to the ships or vessels sailing from thence, according to the purport of the 5th article.

To the most serene, most illustrious, most mighty, most noble, most honourable, and most prudent emperors, kings, governors of commonwealths, princes, dukes, earls, barons, lords, burghermasters, schepens, counsellors, judges, officers, justices, and rulers of all cities and places, as well ecclesiastical as secular, to whom these presents shall be known: We the burgher-master and rulers of the city of do certify, that master or skipper of the ship appeared before us, and declared by solemn oath, That the said ship, called the containing about lasts, of which he is at present master or skipper, belongeth to the inhabitants of the United Netherlands. So help him God. And, in regard it would be most acceptable to us that the said master or skipper be assisted in his just and lawful affairs, we do request you and every of you, wheresoever the said master or skipper shall arrive with his ship, and the goods laden on board and carried in her, that you would please to receive him courteously, and use him kindly, and admit him, upon paying the lawful and usual customs and other duties, to enter into, remain in, and pass from your ports, rivers, and dominions, and there to enjoy all kind of right of navigation, traffic, and commerce, in all places where he shall think fit;

which we shall most willingly and readily acknowledge upon all occasions. In testimony and confirmation whereof we have caused the seal of our city to be hereunto put. Dated at in the day of in the year of our Lord

In testimony and confirmation of all and singular the premises, we the commissioners of his majesty and the lords the States-General aforesaid, being sufficiently empowered thereunto, have to these presents subscribed our names, and sealed them with our seals, at London, the 1st day of December, 1674.

Tho. Culpepper,	J. Corver,
G. Downing,	G. Santyn,
Richard Ford,	Samuel Beyer,
Will. Thomson,	And. Van Vassen,
John Joliffe,	P. Duvelaer,
John Buckworth,	M. Michielzen.

An explanatory declaration upon certain articles of the marine treaties concluded between his majesty and the States-General of the United Provinces, February 17, 1667, and December 1, 1764.

Whereas some difficulty hath arisen concerning the interpretation of certain articles, as well in the treaty marine which was concluded the 1st day of December, 1674, as in that which was concluded the 17th of February, 1667, between his majesty of Great-Britain on the one part, and the States-General of the United Provinces of the Low-Countries on the other, relating to the liberty of their respective subjects to trade unto the ports of each other enemies: We Sir William Temple, Bart. ambassador extraordinary from his said majesty of Great-Britain, in the name, and on the part of his said majesty; and We William Van Heuckelom, Daniel Van Wyngaerden, lord of Werckenham, Gaspar Fagel, counsellor and pensioner of Holland and West-Friezland, John de Mauregnault, John baron of Rude and Renswoude, William de Haren, retman of the Bilt, Henry Terborgh, and Luke Alting, deputies in the assembly of the said States-General for the States of Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friezland, Overysfel, Groningen, and the Ommelands, in the name, and on the part of the said States-General, have declared, as we do by these presents declare, That the true meaning and intention of the said articles is and ought to be, that ships and vessels, belonging to the subjects of either of the parties, can and might, from the time that the said articles were concluded, not only pass, traffic, and trade from a neutral port or place to a place in enmity with the other party, or from a place in enmity to a neutral place: but also from a port or place in enmity to a port or place in enmity with the other party, whether the said places belong to one and the same prince or state, or to several princes and states, with whom the other party is in war. And we declare that this is the true and genuine sense and meaning of the said articles: pursuant whereunto we understood that the said articles are to be observed and executed on all occasions, on the part of his said majesty and the said States-General, and their respective subjects; yet so, that this declaration shall not be alledged by either party for matters which happened before the conclusion of the late peace in the month of February, 1674; and we do promise, that the said declaration shall be ratified by his said majesty, and by the said States-General, and that within two months, or sooner if possible, reckoning from the day of the date of this declaration, the ratifications of the same shall be brought hither to the Hague, to be here exchanged. It witness whereof we have signed these presents at the Hague, the 30th day of December, 1675.

(L. S.) W. Temple,	(L. S.) W. Van Heuckelom,
	(L. S.) D. Van Wyngaerden,
	(L. S.) Gasp. Fagel,
	(L. S.) Jo. Mauregnault,
	(L. S.) John baron Van Reede
	Van Heer Van Renswoude,
	(L. S.) W. Haren,
	(L. S.) H. Terborgh,
	(L. S.) L. Alting.

After the conclusion of this marine treaty with Holland, the next material one that occurs is another of the same nature with France, which may deserve a place here, amongst the rest.

ARTICLE VIII.

A treaty marine between the most serene and mighty prince Charles II, by the grace of God, king of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. and the most serene and mighty prince Lewis XIV. the most Christian king, concluded at St. Germain en Laye, the 24th day of February, 1677.

I. That it shall and may be lawful for all and every the subjects of the most serene and mighty prince the king of Great-Britain

Britain aforesaid, with all freedom and safety, to sail, trade, and exercise any manner of traffic in all those kingdoms, countries, and estates, which are, or at any time hereafter shall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with his said majesty: so that they shall not be any ways hindered or molested in their navigation or trade by the military forces, nor by the ships of war, or any other kind of vessels whatsoever, belonging either to the most Christian king, or to his subjects, upon occasion or pretence of any hostility or difference, which now is, or hereafter shall happen between the said most Christian king, and any princes or people whatsoever in peace, amity, or neutrality with the said king of Great-Britain. And likewise, that it shall and may be lawful for all and every the subjects of the said most Christian king, with all freedom and safety, to sail, trade, and exercise any manner of traffic in all those kingdoms, countries, and estates, which are, or at any time hereafter shall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with the aforesaid most Christian king: so that they shall not be any ways hindered or molested in their navigation or trade by the military forces, nor by the ships of war, or any other kind of vessels whatsoever belonging either to the king of Great-Britain above-mentioned, or to his subjects, upon occasion, or pretence of any hostility or difference which now is, or shall hereafter happen between his majesty and any princes or people whatsoever, in peace, amity, or neutrality with the said most Christian king.

II. Nor shall this freedom of navigation and commerce be infringed by occasion of any war, in any kind of merchandizes, but shall extend to all commodities which shall be carried in time of peace, those only excepted which follow in the next article, and are comprehended under the name of contraband.

III. Under this name of contraband, or prohibited merchandizes, shall be comprehended only arms, pieces of ordnance, with all implements belonging to them; fire-balls, powder, match, bullets, pikes, swords, lances, spears, halberts, guns, mortar-pieces, petards, granadoes, musquet-rests, bandeliers, salt-petre, musquets, musquet-shot, helmets, corslets, breast-plates, coats of mail, and the like kind of armature; soldiers, horses, and all things necessary for the furniture of horses; holsters, belts, and all other warlike instruments whatsoever.

IV. These merchandizes following shall not be reckoned among prohibited goods, viz. all kind of cloth, and all other manufactures woven of any kind of wool, flax, silk, cotton, or any other materials; all sorts of cloathing and vestments, together with the materials whereof they use to be made; gold and silver, as well coined as not coined; tin, iron, lead, copper, and coals; as also wheat and barley, and all other kind of corn or pulse; tobacco, and all kinds of spices; salted and smoked flesh; salted and dried fish, cheese, butter, beer, oils, wines, sugars, and all sorts of salt; and, in general, all provision which serves for the nourishment and sustenance of life; likewise all kind of cotton, hemp, flax, and pitch, ropes, sails, and anchors; also masts and planks, boards and beams, of what sort of wood soever, and all other materials requisite for the building or repairing ships; but they shall be wholly reputed amongst free goods, even as well as all other wares and commodities which are not comprehended in the next precedent article; so that the same may be freely transported and carried by the subjects of the most serene king of Great-Britain, not only from one neutral place to another neutral place, or from a neutral port or place to a place in hostility with the most Christian king, or from a place in hostility with him to a neutral place, but also from one place in enmity with the most Christian king to another port or place in enmity with him; be it that such ports or places do belong to the same prince or state, or to several princes or states, with whom the most Christian king shall happen to be in war; and in like manner that the same may be freely transported by the subjects of the most Christian king, not only from one neutral place to another neutral place, or from a neutral port or place to a place in hostility with the king of Great-Britain, or from a place in hostility with him to a neutral place; but also from one place in enmity with the king of Great-Britain to another port or place in enmity with him; be it that such ports or places do belong to the same prince or state, or to several princes or states with whom the king of Great-Britain shall happen to be in war, except only towns or places besieged, invironed, or invested; in French, *blocquées ou investies*.

V. And, that all manner of differences and contentions on both sides, by sea and land, may from henceforth cease and be utterly extinguished, it is agreed that all kind of ships and vessels whatsoever, belonging to the subjects of his said majesty of Great-Britain, entering or being entered into any road or port under the obedience of the most Christian king, and purposing to pass from thence, shall be only obliged to shew unto the officers acting in the ports of the said most Christian king, or to the captains of the most Christian king's ships, or private men of war (if any happen there to be) their passports, commonly called a sea brief (the form whereof is added to the end of these articles) nor shall any money, or any thing else, be exacted from them under that pretence:

but, if any ship belonging to the subjects of his majesty of Great-Britain shall, in the open sea or elsewhere, out of the dominions of the said most Christian king, meet his ships of war, or privateers of his subjects, the said ships of the most Christian king shall keep at a convenient distance, and only send out their boat, and it shall be lawful for them, only with two or three men, to go on board the ships and vessels of the subjects of his majesty of Great-Britain, that the passport (or sea-brief) and the propriety thereof, may be shewn to them by the captain or master of such ship or vessel belonging to the subjects of his majesty of Great-Britain: and the ship which shall shew the same shall freely pass; and it shall not be lawful to molest, search, detain, or divert the same from her intended voyage: and all the subjects of the most Christian king shall enjoy in all things the same liberty and immunity, they in like manner shewing their passport, made according to the form prescribed at the latter end of this treaty.

VI. But if any ship or vessel belonging to the English, or other subjects of his majesty of Great-Britain, shall be met by any man of war making into any port in enmity with the most Christian king; or, on the other side, if any ship belonging to the most Christian king, or others subjects of the said most Christian king, shall be met in her way making into any port under the obedience of the enemies of his said majesty of Great-Britain; such ship shall shew not only a passport, wherewith she is to be furnished, but also her cockets, expressing the contents of the goods on board, given in the usual form, by the officers of the customs in the port from whence she came; whereby it may be known whether she is laden with any merchandizes prohibited by the 3d article of this treaty.

VII. But if, by the shewing the abovesaid cockets, expressing the contents of the goods on board, given in the usual form, by the officers of the customs in the port from whence she came, either party shall discover any kind of merchandizes which in the 3d article of this treaty are declared to be contraband or prohibited, consigned to any port under the obedience of their enemies, it shall not be lawful to open the hatches of such ship in which the same shall happen to be found, whether she belongs to the subjects of his majesty of Great-Britain, or of the most Christian king; nor to unlock or break open the chests, mails, packs, or casks in the same, nor to convey away any the least part of the merchandizes, before the whole be first landed in the presence of the officers of the admiralty, and inventoried: neither shall it be any ways lawful to sell, exchange, or otherwise to alienate the same, until such prohibited goods are rightly and lawfully proceeded against, and that the judges of the admiralty have, by their respective sentences, confiscated the same: provided always, that, as well the ship itself, as the rest of the commodities found in the same, which by this treaty are to be reputed free, shall not, upon pretence of their being infected by such prohibited goods, be detained, much less confiscated, for lawful prize; but if not the whole, but a part only of the lading consists of contraband commodities, and that the master of the ship shall be willing and ready to deliver them to the captor who seized the same, in that case the captor shall not compel the ship to go out of her course to any port he thinks fit, but shall forthwith dismiss her, and upon no account hinder her from freely prosecuting her designed voyage.

VIII. It is further agreed, that whatsoever shall be found laden by the subjects of his majesty of Great-Britain, upon any ship whatsoever belonging to the enemies of the most Christian king, although the same be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiscated: but, on the contrary, all that which shall be found in the ships belonging to the subjects of his majesty of Great-Britain, shall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by just title of propriety, shall belong to the enemies of the most Christian king: except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things shall be done according to the meaning and direction of the precedent article: and, by the same reason, whatsoever shall be found laden by the subjects of the most Christian king, in any ship whatsoever belonging to the enemies of his majesty of Great-Britain, although the same be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiscated; but, on the other side, all that which shall be found in the ships belonging to the subjects of the most Christian king, shall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by just title of propriety, shall belong to the enemies of his majesty of Great-Britain, except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things shall be done according to the meaning and direction of the precedent article; and, lest any damage should by surprize be done to the one party who is in peace, when the other party shall happen to be engaged in war, it is agreed that a ship belonging to the enemies of the one party, and laden with goods of the subjects of the other, shall not render the said goods liable to confiscation, in case they were laden before the expiration of the times hereafter mentioned, after the declaration of any such war, viz. if the goods were laden in any port or place between the limits called the Soundings and the Naz in Norway, within the space of six weeks after such declaration; of two months between the said place,

the Soundings, and the city of Tangier; and of ten weeks in the Mediterranean Sea; or within the space of eight months in any other country or place of the world; so that it shall not be lawful to confiscate the goods of the subjects of his majesty of Great Britain, taken or seized in any ship or vessel whatsoever of any enemy of the most Christian king, upon that pretence; but the same shall be without delay restored to the proprietors, unless they were laden after the expiration of the said terms of time respectively; but so that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to enemies ports the said merchandizes which are called contraband; and, for the reason aforesaid, shall not be liable to confiscation: neither, on the other side, shall it be lawful to confiscate the goods of the subjects of the most Christian king, taken or seized in any ship or vessel whatsoever of any enemy of his majesty of Great-Britain, upon that pretence; but the same shall be forthwith restored to the proprietors thereof, unless they were laden after the expiration of the said terms of time respectively; but so that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to enemies ports the said merchandizes which are called contraband, and, for the reasons aforesaid, shall not be liable to confiscation.

IX. And, the more to assure the subjects of his majesty of Great-Britain, and of the most Christian king, that no injury shall be offered to them by the ships of war, or privateers of either side, all the captains of the ships, as well of his majesty of Great-Britain as of the most Christian king, and all their subjects who shall fit out privateers, and likewise their privileged companies, shall be enjoined not to do any injury whatsoever to the other; which if they do, they shall be punished, and moreover be liable to satisfy all costs and damages, by restitution and reparation, upon pain and obligation of person and goods.

X. For this cause, all the commanders of privateers shall from henceforth be obliged, before they receive their commissions, to enter, before a competent judge, good and sufficient security, by able and responsible men, who have no part or interest in such ship, in the sum of 1500*l.* sterling, or 16,500 livres; and, when they have above 150 men, then in the sum of 3000*l.* sterling, or 33,000 livres, that they will give full satisfaction for any damages or injuries whatsoever, which they or their officers, or others in their services, shall commit in their courses at sea, contrary to this present treaty, or any other whatsoever, between his majesty of Great-Britain and the most Christian king, upon the pain of revocation and annulling their said commissions; in which it shall be always inserted, That they have given such security as aforesaid; and likewise it is agreed, that the ship itself shall be also liable to make satisfaction for injuries done by her.

XI. His majesty of Great-Britain and the said most Christian king, being desirous that the subjects of each may be mutually treated, in all countries under their obedience respectively, with the like kindness as their own subjects, will give all necessary and effectual orders that judgments upon ships and merchandizes taken at sea be given according to the rule of justice and equity, by judges beyond all suspicion, and not any ways concerned in the cause under debate. And his majesty of Great-Britain and the most Christian king will likewise give strict orders that all sentences already given, and which shall be hereafter given, be according to the tenor thereof duly put in execution, and obtain their effect.

XII. And whensoever the ambassadors, or other public ministers of the king of Great-Britain, residing at the court of the most Christian king, shall complain of the unjustness of sentences which have been given concerning ships or merchandizes taken at sea, and belonging to the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, then the said most Christian king, on demand of the said ambassadors or ministers of the king of Great-Britain, shall cause the said sentences to be reviewed and examined in his privy-council, and shall confirm or revoke the sentences wheresoever given; and likewise the said most Christian king shall take care, that right be done to the party complaining within the space of four months, to be accounted from the day of making such demand.

In like manner, if the ambassadors, or other public ministers of the most Christian king residing at the court of the king of Great-Britain, shall complain of the unjustness of sentences, which have been given concerning ships or merchandizes taken at sea, belonging to subjects of the said most Christian king, the said king of Great-Britain shall forthwith commission, under his great seal, nine of his privy council to adjudge such matters, or to confirm or revoke the sentences wheresoever given; and the said commissioners shall meet within the space of one month from the day of delivering the complaint: and likewise the king of Great-Britain shall take care that right be done the party complaining within the space of three months, to be computed from the first day of the meeting of the said commissioners.

XIII. A suit being commenced between the takers of prizes on the one party, and the claimers thereof on the other, and a sentence being given for the party reclaiming, the said sentence, upon security given, shall be put in execution, notwithstanding the appeal made by him that took the prize;

VOL. II.

which shall not be observed, in case the sentence shall be given against the claimers.

XIV. And whereas the masters of merchants ships, and likewise the mariners and passengers do sometimes suffer many cruelties and barbarous usages, when they are brought under the power of ships which take prizes in time of war, the takers in an inhuman manner tormenting them, thereby to extort from them such confessions as they would have to be made; it is agreed, that both his majesty of Great Britain and the most Christian king shall, by the severest proclamations or edicts, forbid all such heinous offences, and as many as they shall by lawful proofs find guilty of such acts, they shall take care that they be so punished, as may be a terror to others; and shall command that all the captains and officers of ships, who shall be proved to have committed such heinous practices, either themselves, or by instigating others to do the same, or by conniving while they were done, shall, besides other punishments to be inflicted proportionably to their offences, be forthwith deprived of their offices respectively; and every ship brought up as prize, whose mariners or passengers shall have suffered any torture, shall forthwith be dismissed and freed, with all her lading, from all further examination and proceeding against her, as well judicial as otherwise.

XV. It is also agreed, that the like severity of punishments shall be inflicted upon those, who shall take commission from enemies to seize the ships of either ally or party.

XVI. Lastly, it is agreed and concluded, that this present treaty, and all and singular the things therein contained, shall be, with all convenient speed, on both sides, ratified and confirmed, and that the ratifications thereof shall be within two months from the date hereof reciprocally exchanged.

Dated at St. Germain's en Laye, the 24th day of February, in the year of our Lord 1677.

The form of the passport, or sea-brief, to be required, and given by the lord high admiral, or by those to whom the exercise of admiralty jurisdiction is ordinarily committed: or by the mayor or other chief magistrate, or by the commissioners, or other principal officers of the customs, in their respective ports and places within the dominions of the king of Great-Britain, to ships and vessels, according to the purport of the fifth article.

To all unto whom these presents shall come greeting. We lord high admiral of

We lords commissioners executing the office of the lord high admiral of

or we the mayor, or other magistrate of

or we commissioners, or principal officers of the customs in the city or port of

do testify and make known, that

master or commander of the ship called the

hath appeared before us, and hath declared by solemn oath, that the said ship or vessel containing about

tons, of which he is at present master or commander, doth belong to the inhabitants of

within the dominions of the most serene and mighty prince, the king of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. So help him God. And, in regard it

would be most acceptable to us, that the said master or commander be assisted in his lawful affairs, we do request you

and every of you, wheresoever the said master or commander shall arrive with his ship, and the goods laden on board

and carried in her, that you would please to receive him courteously, and use him kindly, and admit him, upon paying the lawful and usual customs and other duties, to enter

into, remain in, and pass from, your ports, rivers, and dominions, and there to enjoy all kind of right of navigation,

traffic, and commerce, in all places where he shall think fit; which we shall most willingly and readily acknowledge upon

all occasions: in testimony and confirmation whereof, we have with our hands signed these presents, and caused them to be sealed with our seal. Dated the

day of in the year of our Lord

And the like form of passport, mutatis mutandis, shall be used by the subjects of the most Christian king.

REMARKS.

After the conclusion of this marine treaty between Great-Britain and France, we do not find any other of the same nature in which this crown is much concerned, 'till the time of king James II. who, in the month of August, 1685, renewed all former alliance with the Dutch, and particularly the six following treaties, viz.

I. A treaty of peace and alliance, concluded the $\frac{2}{3}$ of July, in the year 1667.

II. A treaty of commerce and navigation of the same date.

III. A treaty of peace and friendship, concluded at Westminster the $\frac{4}{14}$ of February 1673-4.

IV. A marine treaty, concluded at London the 1st of December 1674, together with a declaration by which some articles of the aforesaid treaty, as well as of another marine

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treaty

treaty of the 1st of February 1667-8, are more fully explained and expounded.

V. Articles concluded at London, the 8th of March 1674-5, for terminating all differences between the English and Dutch East-India companies.

VI. A league defensive, concluded at London the 3d of March 1678.

The next remarkable marine treaty that occurs is that between their late majesties king William and queen Mary, and the States-General, concluded at Whitehall, the 29th of April 1689, in pursuance of the treaty concluded between king Charles II. and the States, of the 3d of March 1678, which is confirmed by this with some additions. The articles are to this effect :

I. That their majesties shall put to sea 50 large men of war, viz. 1 of the 2d, 17 of the 3d, and 32 of the 4th rate, with 15 frigates, and 8 fire-ships, having on board in all 17,155 effective men.

II. That the States should put to sea 30 large ships, viz. 8 from 70 to 80, 7 from 60 to 70, and 15 from 50 to 60 guns, with 9 frigates and 4 fire-ships, which shall have on board 10,572 effective men.

III. That the fleets shall join, where the king of Great-Britain shall think fit.

IV. That the fleets of the two nations shall be divided into three squadrons; the first to be of 50 large ships, six frigates, and eight fire-ships, to serve in the Mediterranean; the second of 30 large ships, 8 frigates, and 4 fire-ships, to serve in the Irish sea and in the channel, except it be otherwise stipulated, by consent; and the third of ten frigates, to serve between the mouth of the channel and Yarmouth, on the coast of England and the aforesaid place, and the isle of Wafchere on the coast of Zeland: the two last squadrons to assist occasionally each other.

V. Each of the squadrons shall be composed of the ships of both nations proportionably.

VI. All the ships of both squadrons shall be provided for one year. What cannot be conveniently kept aboard the ships of the Mediterranean squadron, the king of Spain, the duke of Tuscany, and the republic of Genoa, shall be desired to give them a favourable reception.

VII. Each squadron shall be commanded by the English admiral or commander in chief.

VIII. The councils of war shall be composed of all the flag officers of both nations in equal number; when the votes are split, the captains shall be called; the English admiral shall be president, and the English officers of equal rank shall have the precedence of the Dutch.

IX. All causes relating only to the officers, seamen or affairs, of either of the nations, shall be tried by a council of war of that nation; but, if both nations are concerned, the officers of both shall be present at the trial.

XI. All prizes shall be divided between their majesties and the States in proportion to the share they bear in the charge of the fleet. That is to say, their majesties shall have $\frac{5}{8}$, and the States $\frac{3}{8}$.

XII. Prizes shall be adjudged by the admiralty of the nation by whose ships they were taken, and none but necessary charge shall be allowed, without any fees for officers.

XIII. And, if the prizes are taken by ships of both nations, they shall be adjudged by the admiralty of the nation, to whom the strongest ships present at the caption do belong.

XIV. The ships of either nation shall have special orders to protect each other's merchant-men and plantations in the West-Indies.

XV. This treaty to be ratified by both parties.

R E M A R K S.

This treaty which I have here abridged, contains such remarkable stipulations and regulations for marine affairs, that I thought it very well deserved to be inserted. And that, and all precedent treaties between these kingdoms and that state, were renewed and confirmed with additions, by a treaty of friendship and alliance, concluded at London in the month of August following. And after that, in the month of October 1692, a treaty was concluded by the king of Great-Britain and the States of Holland with the king of Spain, by which that prince obliged himself to put to sea at least 16 men of war of 60 guns each (which perhaps, was more than he could) with 4 fire-ships, and 25 gallies, and provisions for ten months; to be joined by 16 other English and Dutch men of war of the same force, and 4 fire-ships; upon condition, that all friendly offices should be done them by the Spaniard.

It is observable, that as to the ceremonial of the salutation, and other such punctilio's, which neither of the kings thought fit to yield to the other in the Mediterranean, (but which the king of Spain must have yielded to his British majesty in the British seas) for avoiding all differences on that account, it is agreed, That there shall be no such thing at all; as may be observed by the 10th article, which follows:

X. The men of war, gallies, and fire-ships, shall meet at the rendezvous which shall be assigned them, without any ceremony, salutation, or counter-salutation; which shall be

observed, all the time they act together, as well by the whole fleet as by detachments.

And so nice have princes, and especially the kings of England, always been upon this tender point of the marine, that for fear any small condescension of any of their commanding officers should afterwards militate against them, and be looked upon as a deference paid to the Spaniard, it is agreed by the eleventh article, That they should meet the first time on board the Dutch admiral, or other commanding ships of that nation, asunder.

XI. And, for the first time, the commanding officers shall meet in the ship of the first Dutch officer, there to regulate matters, according to the tenor of the separate articles, which shall be agreed on for the purpose.

Which separate articles here follow.

The commanding officers shall meet without any ceremony of rank at the first joining of the fleet, in the ship of the first Dutch officer, and shall concert amongst themselves, according to their orders, the necessary measures for acting against the enemy with the greatest appearance of success.

After this we do not meet with any other marine treaty very remarkable, 'till that concluded at the general peace of Rylwick, between France and Holland; in which, besides several other matters relating to commerce, it is agreed, That the French and Dutch may freely frequent, with their ships and merchandizes, the countries, lands, towns, ports, and places of each other, with equal and reciprocal privileges, and without paying any other or greater duties in each other's countries, than the natural subjects of the country.

That the ships of war of either nation shall always be free to come in, lie at anchor, and go out of roads, rivers, ports, and harbours of each other, without being subject to any search, provided they give not any reasonable cause of jealousy.

That the ships of war of either nation, whether belonging to the sovereign or the subjects, shall have liberty to conduct, whether they please, the prizes they take from their enemies, without paying any duties or fees; and, on the contrary, no retreat shall be allowed to such as have made prize of any of the ships of his majesty, or the States-General, or their subjects: but, if they be forced in by tempest or otherwise, they shall be obliged to depart as soon as possible.

That the ships of either nation, coming to an anchor at any port in their passage upon a longer voyage, shall not be obliged to sell any part of their goods: and that the ships, nor goods, nor mariners, or other subjects of either nation, shall be arrested or detained by the other, under any pretence whatsoever, except it be for a just cause, and according to the due forms of law.

That it shall be lawful for the subjects of either nation to trade with the enemies of the other, and to carry thither all sorts of goods that are not contraband; under which term are only comprehended arms and ammunition, and warlike accoutrements of all sorts for men and horse. And the ships of both nations, whether at sea or any port or road, shall shew their passports and other sea-papers in due form, to which entire credit shall be given.

That all goods belonging to the subjects of either party, being seized on board an enemy's ship, shall be confiscated, except such as have been laden; if between the mouth of the channel and Norway, more than four weeks after the declaration of the war; if between the mouth of the channel and cape St. Vincent, more than six weeks; if further in the Mediterranean or elsewhere on this side of the Line, more than ten weeks; and if beyond the Line, all the world over, more than eight months after the declaration of war: and it is agreed, That neither the goods nor persons of enemies shall be seized by either nation in the ships of the other, except the persons be in the immediate service of the other.

That any captain of either nation, making prize any ships laden with contraband goods, shall not break open coffers, chests, bails, or any other thing 'till the same be done, in due form, by the officers of the admiralty; except the captain of any ship, having only a part of his lading contraband goods, consent to deliver the same up, and pursue his voyage with the rest.

That judgment shall be given with all justice and expedition, concerning all ships taken at sea; and, upon the complaint of the minister or envoy of either party, the cause shall be heard over again in council; and, notwithstanding the appeal of the captor, sentences, pronounced in favour of the owners of ships taken, shall be put in execution, upon their giving security to be forth-coming.

That the subjects of either nation may freely freight, or cause to be built in the dominions of the other, all manner of ships, whether for war or commerce, and that the enemies of either shall not enjoy that privilege.

That in case of shipwreck upon the coast of either nation, the effects that can be saved shall be restored, if reclaimed within the year and day, without any form of process.

That neither party shall suffer the ships of the other to be made prize in their ports or harbours.

That this treaty shall subsist 25 years.

By a separate article of the same date, the duty of 50 sols a ton imposed upon all foreign ships in France was taken off the Dutch, except only, when the latter should land in one port in France, to unlade at another in the said kingdom. But the breaking out of the ensuing war put a stop to the execution of this treaty.

R E M A R K S.

We have dwelt the longer upon the point of maritime affairs and treaties, in discharge of our promise made to the public; and, in the subsequent parts of this work, we shall give the substance of other the most material treaties of this kind, which have subsisted between the chief potentates of Europe. The use hereof is not only to convey some knowledge of the history of Christendom, in relation to the state of commerce, but to give readers, who may not have been conversant with affairs of this nature, such an idea thereof from what is past, as may enable them the better to judge of the rectitude of what has been transacted of the like kind since. And, From due attention to what shall be laid before the public on this head in the course of our undertaking, it will appear, that those who take upon them to make treaties of commercial or maritime concerns, cannot be too well acquainted with the subject of trade and navigation; they cannot have too minute and familiar a knowledge of practical trade, who would judge of it to good purpose in any respect: a general notion, which only skims over the surface of commerce, can only afford an imaginary, not such a real and substantial knowledge, as will enable a man to promote the public interest himself, or capacitate him to judge of the measures of others. For confirmation of the truth hereof, this work affords no little variety of instances. See in particular the articles COLONIES, CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE, BRITISH AMERICA, CONSULS, FRANCE, GRATIAS, LEVANT TRADE, NAVAL AFFAIRS, TRADE, TREATIES OF COMMERCE, CUSTOM-HOUSE BUSINESS, DUTIES, &c. See also several of the other articles referred to at the beginning of this article, which have affinity with this subject.

MARLE, for the manuring and cultivation of land, is of various kinds and different colours. The earth generally known by the name of marle, is a light friable substance, of a middle nature between clay and chalk, but neither so fat as clay, nor so dense as chalk, and sticks to the tongue.

R E M A R K S.

Under the articles EARTH, FARMING, HUSBANDRY, MANURE, we have shewed the necessity of advancing the arts of agriculture, and have opened a scene to the improvement thereof in general. Likewise under such other heads as we refer to from them, the same subject is pursued with all brevity and perspicuity with relation to its fundamental particulars that concern trade, which is as much as the reader will expect in a work of this nature.

The most ordinary help for fertilization of land, is stercoration. Sheep's dung is one of the best, the next is the dung of kine, and, thirdly, that of horses, which is held somewhat too hot unless it be mixed. That of pigeons for a garden, or a small piece of ground, is excellent.

The method of applying the dung to arable land, is to spread it immediately before ploughing, so as to plough it in; for, if it spread long before, the sun will exhale much of its fatness. For grazing ground, the way is to spread it somewhat late, towards winter, that the sun may have less power to dry it up.

The second kind of compost is, divers kinds of earth; as marle, sea-sand, chalk, earth upon earth, pond earth, and mixtures of them. Marle is thought the best, as having most fatness, and not heating the ground too much*. The next is sea sand, which obtains a particular virtue from the salt, for salt is the first rudiment of life. See the article SALT. Chalk overheats the ground a little, and therefore does best upon cold clay, or moist ground.

* See Sir Hugh Plat's Jewel-House of Art and Nature, page 114, &c.

It is a common error to think chalk is so great a help to arable, but not to grazing ground. The error proceeds hence, that, after chalking of the ground, they wear it out by many crops without rest, and then, indeed, it will bear little grass. It was a good experiment to lay chalk upon arable ground a little before ploughing, and plough it in as they do dung; but then it must first be made friable by rain or lying. Earth is a compost to earth. A garden, that had a field, as it were, poured upon it, bore fruit excellently the first year, for the surface of the earth is always the most fruitful. And earth so prepared has a double surface. But such earth as affords saltpetre, if procurable without too much charge, is best. The way to hasten the growth of saltpetre, is to exclude the sun; and, therefore, to make a large thatched hovel over some quantity of ground, or even to plank the ground over, will produce saltpetre. Pond-earth, or river-earth, is a very good compost for manure; especially if the pond has been long uncleaned, and so the water

be not too hungry; and we judge it would be yet better, if mixed with chalk.

Another help for ground is procured by means of some other substances, though not merely earthy, having a virtue to fertilize: wherein ashes excel, inasmuch that the countries about Ætna and Vesuvius have a kind of amends made them in the exceeding fertility of the soil, for the mischief done them by the eruptions; which fertility is caused by the ashes scattered over the ground.

Soot also, though thin spread in a field or garden, is found a very good compost. Salt is generally too costly: it has been tried, that mixed with seed-corn, and sown together, it proves serviceable; and we are of opinion, that powdered chalk, mixed with seed-corn, would do good, perhaps as much as chalking the ground all over.

The suffering vegetables to die into, and so fatten the ground is another help; as the stubble of corn, especially of pease. Brakes cast upon the ground, in the beginning of winter, will make it very fruitful. It were proper also to try, whether leaves swept together, and mixed with some chalk and dung; to give them more heat, would not make a good compost, for there is nothing wasted so much as the leaves of trees: and, as they lie scattered and without mixture, they rather make the ground sour than otherwise.

Heat and warmth is likewise a good help to ground. It has been anciently practised to burn heath, ling, and sedge, with the advantage of the wind, upon the ground. We find that the warmth of walls and inclosures is an amendment; so is lying open to the south, and the folding of sheep, as well by their warmth as their compost: and, perhaps, the covering of ground with brakes in the beginning of the winter, may help by means of the warmth. The usual way of gathering flints in flinty ground, and laying them in heaps, is no good husbandry; because they are magnets to heat, and would keep the ground warm.

Another help to fertility is watering, which may be done two ways; the one by letting in and shutting out the water at seasonable times: for water let in at some times, if it stay not too long, does good; but at others, if it stay too long, hurt. And this only serves for meadows, adjacent to a river. The other way is, to bring water from some high grounds, where there are springs into the lower, carrying it in long furrows; and from these furrows drawing it transverse, to spread the water, which makes an excellent improvement both for corn and grass: though the expedient proves the richer, if these hanging grounds be fruitful, because the water thus washes down some of the fatness of the earth. Generally where there are great overflows in fens, or the like, the drowning them in water makes the following summer more fruitful, as keeping the ground warm and nourishing it. But the farmers hold it, that the sewers may be kept so as to continue the water too long in the spring, till the weeds and sedge be grown up; because then the ground, like a wood, will keep out the sun, and so continue the wet, and never graze well that year. For more matter corresponding hereunto, see the articles EARTH, FARMING, FLAX, HUSBANDRY, MANURE.

Marles, besides their application with other proper composts for vegetation, they afford a fit matter for the making of vessels; such as crucibles, retorts, bodies, &c. in chemistry. They likewise serve to procure the discontinuation and division of certain salts and other materials, that would otherwise rise and boil over in the operation. These are, therefore, employed in the distillation of nitre, turpentine, wax, &c. They also contribute more materially, more intimately, and more essentially, as to quantity, in the fixation of certain bodies; as of oils, for example, of common sulphur, and even of mercury. For which see Becher's first supplement to his *Phyfica Subterranea*.

MARQUE.

Of letters of marque and reprizal, granted on depredations committed on trade and navigation, and of restitution, &c.

Letters of marque are extraordinary commissions granted by authority for reparation to merchants, taken and despoiled by strangers at sea: and reprizals is the retaking, or taking again of one thing for another.

The goods of others may be taken upon the sea, by letters of marque and jus reprisaliarum; but the same cannot be done by any private authority, only by the power of that prince or state, whose subject the injured person is; nor is it grantable by authority, but where the party damaged has justice denied him, or the same is delayed contrary to the laws of nations: this law or custom of reprizals was established by the consent of nations, and, without it, licence would be tolerated for the committing of depredations; but princes, by the laws of nations, are answerable for public injuries, and should by prudent measures, prevent those that are private, not suffering foreigners to receive wrongs in their countries: nor should the prince of the person injured value his misfortune at so low a rate, as to deny him letters of request for satisfaction; and, if justice be denied after such request, it is reasonable to arm him with power, to take satisfaction by reprize and military force.

And

And there are usually sent two or three letters of request, according to the satisfaction returned in answer, before the reprisal is awarded; and such letters generally assign a time certain for damages to be repaired; if not, reprisals to issue forth.

King Charles I. after the massacre of the Dutch at Amboyna, granted letters of request to the States of Holland for satisfaction within eight months, otherwise letters of reprisal were to follow. King Charles II. on the petition of Mess. Gouler and Canham, granted one Lee letters of request to the great duke of Tuscany, for redress against the government of Leghorn.

In the year 1674, the same prince issued out the like authority to the king of Spain, requiring satisfaction for the depredations committed on the ship and goods of Mr. Stampe at the Havanna. He also published the year following a proclamation, promising a reward for apprehending the offenders dead or alive.

In the prosecution of these letters there must be, 1. The oath of the party injured, or other sufficient proof, touching the injury thereby sustained. 2. A proof of due prosecution for obtaining satisfaction in a legal way. 3. The deferring or denial of justice. 4. A complaint to his own prince or state. 5. Requisition of justice made to the supreme head or state, in the ordinary course it was denied. 6. Persisting still in the denial of justice. After all which, letters of reprisal under such restrictions and limitations as are consonant to law, and as the case requires, may issue not only by the civil, but by the municipal laws of this kingdom: and then the prince of that country, against whom the same are awarded, must repair the damage out of his or their effects, who committed the injuries, or, if that proves deficient, it ought to fall as a common debt on his country.

Such authorities grantable by the laws of England are twofold, ordinary and extraordinary: the ordinary are either within the realm, or without the same; the first are grantable where British merchants have suffered in their persons, and their merchandize are spoiled or seized beyond the seas, by merchant strangers, and the British merchants upon suit, or the king's demanding of justice by his ambassadors, &c. cannot obtain satisfaction to the person injured; then the parties proving they have prosecuted the offenders in a due course of justice, and have been denied or delayed illegally to have right done them, shall, in such case, have a writ out of Chancery to arrest the merchant strangers of that nation, or their goods in these kingdoms. And the lord chancellor, in this case, has always the approbation of the king and council for so doing.

The other reprisals without the realm, are by patent under the great seal, and cannot be ordinarily revoked; because, after the person injured has petitioned, and according to law proved his loss, obtained letters of request, and no reparation has been made: as soon as the letters patents are sealed, the same does immediately create and vest a national debt in the grantee, to be satisfied in such manner, and by such means, as the said letters patents direct, out of the goods and estates of that prince's subjects, who refused, or illegally delayed justice.

But, if the supreme power thinks the execution of these letters of reprisal cannot well be effected without endangering the peace of both states, it may be respited till a more convenient time; and princes are careful, in granting such letters patents, to have them made so as they may not be reckoned a breach of the peace; but the granting of them for particular satisfaction does not, in the ordinary way, amount to a breach.

As to the extraordinary reprisals, they are by letters of marque, for reparation at sea, or any place out of the kingdom, granted by the secretaries of state, with the approbation of the king and council; but they are only during the king's pleasure, and generally in time of war, so that they may at any time be revoked.

In king Henry the IVth's reign, on the complaint of the commons of England, who had suffered many wrongs and injuries in the loss of their ships and goods upon the main sea, contrary to leagues, &c. which were violated by the subjects of other nations; and reciting the willingness of the parliament to provide remedy and relief for the grieved; a law was made, by which it is enacted, that, upon application to the keeper of the privy-seal, he shall sign letters of request to demand reparation; which, if not made in convenient time, then the lord chancellor of England shall grant letters of reprisal in due form of law, to obtain the same by force, and for the indemnity of the persons injured: this is confirmed by stat. 4 Hen. V. cap. 7. and other statutes.

But letters of reprisal were granted long before these statutes, by the kings of England, by virtue of their prerogatives; nor was the king's prerogative in the least diminished by them, but remained at the common law, to judge when it was expedient to grant them; and the before-mentioned act of king Henry IV. notwithstanding it ordains letters of request and of reprisal, doth not restrain the king's prerogative therein.

The cases where reprisals will or will not lie, are thus stated: on wrong judgment given in a prosecution abroad, in matters not doubtful which might have been redressed, and the which was apparently perverted or denied, reprisal may be granted: though, if the matter be doubtful, it is otherwise; for in causes dubious, there is presumption that justice was truly administered. If an Englishman prosecutes a person in any legal court beyond the seas, whereupon the military governor opposes the suit, and by his means the debtor and his goods are conveyed away, but a sentence or judgment is obtained: by this the execution is frustrated, and letters of reprisal shall be had.

Yet, if a merchant of England shall commence a suit in the courts of law, beyond the seas, and judgment passes against him, from which he appeals to the supreme court, and there the first judgment is confirmed and allowed; though the complainant hath received a judgment contrary to the right of the cause, here he shall not have letters of reprisal; but it may, in an extraordinary case, occasion such letters to have a rehearing.

If any person shall be killed, wounded, or any way damaged in an hostile manner, in the territories or places of any king or potentate, to whom letters of request are transmitted, and no satisfaction shall be made to the person injured, there is no compulsion to resort to the ordinary prosecution, but letters of reprisal shall be issued: but, where misfortunes happen to persons, or their goods, residing in a foreign country in time of war, reprisals are not to be granted; in this case, they must be contented with the loss, for they are at their liberty to relinquish the place on the approach of the enemy, when they foresee the country is subject to devastation; and, if they continue, they must partake of the common calamity. It is not the place of any man's nativity, but of his habitation, that subjects him to reprove; for the law doth not consider so much where he was born, as where he lives: therefore, if letters of reprisal should be awarded against the subjects of the duke of Tuscany, and a native of Florence, but denizenized or living in England, should have a ship on a voyage for Leghorn, if in such case a capture be made of this ship, it is not lawful, nor can the same be made prize.

There are certain persons, as well as ships and goods, that are exempted or privileged from reprisals; such as ambassadors and their retinue; travellers through a country, staying but a little while there; ecclesiastical persons, &c. And a merchant of another place than against which reprisals are granted, although the factor of his goods were of that place, is not subject to reprisals. Molloy Jur. Marit. 21.

Where ships are driven into port by stress of weather, they have an exemption from the law of reprisals, according to common right; but by the laws of England it is said to be otherwise, unless expressly provided for in the writ or commission: and, if such ship flies from his own country to avoid confiscation, or for some other fault, and is driven to by stress of weather, she may then become subject to be prize. But it is unlawful to make seizure of ship for reprisal in any ports, but in that prince's who awarded the reprisals, or his against whom the same are issued; the ports of other princes or states are not to be disturbed, but be peaceably maintained.

If a ship, having letters of marque or reprisal, shall take the ships and goods of that nation against whom they are awarded, and bring the same into a neuter port, the owners may there claim and seize her; or the admiral may make restitution, according to law, of the ship's goods to the owners, and the captives to their liberty; for that the same ought first to have been brought infra præsidia of that prince or state, by whose subjects they were taken: and, if it be not so done, it has been resolved, that such ships cannot become lawful prize, nor are the owners of such a caption divested of their property. Trin. 17 Car. I. in B. R. Marsh's Rep.

When any ship that hath letters of reprove attacks a vessel, and she refuses to yield, she may be assaulted and entered; and if it falls out, that by accident some of those which make resistance are slain, the fault will be at their own doors, for hindering the execution of what is legal and granted by authority. But in case a letter of marque shall knowingly take a ship and goods belonging to another nation, against whom the commission is not awarded, but of some other state in amity, this amounts to piracy; whereupon the offenders will incur a forfeiture of their vessel, &c. Roll. Abr. 530. Though if such letters of marque be assigned over to another person, who takes any such ship or goods of another nation, on a presumption that it belonged to the right of him, against whom reprisals are granted: here, if the sufferers recover their goods and ship, yet the captors are not to be punished criminally, nor the grantees of the letters patents civilly. The captors nevertheless may not be excused from answering the damages, but the grantees are excusable both as to that and punishment, unless they are privy to the caption: it is like unto the case of an officer arresting a wrong person, he is liable to answer the damage to the party arrested, but not the person that employed him. Stat. 4 Hen. V. cap. 14. Sea Laws 470.

A person who had letters of marque in the Dutch war, took an Offender instead of a Dutch ship, and brought her into harbour, and was prosecuted for damage, &c. And one Broom, by letters of marque, &c. under others, having taken a French ship at sea, he carried the same into Africa, and the admiralty there condemned her as prize; afterwards he sold her, and applied the money to his own use, and then, coming into England, he was sued in the admiralty to give an account, and sentence was given against him; though he appealed for a prohibition, but it was denied. 1 Lev. 248. 1 Salk. 32.

A ship being lawfully taken and brought into port, the captor must exhibit all his ship-papers and captive mariners to be examined, in order to adjudication; till when, and the goods are legally condemned, bulk ought not to be broken; nor may the captain permit any embezzlement of the lading, or sell, barter, or dispose of any part, without commission, for the king hath a proportion in all prizes [see PRIZES]: and the common profits of prizes are to be equally divided among all the ships present, and not be solely to the captor; so that if letters of reprisal are granted to two ships, and they happen both of them at sea to meet a prize, and the one attacks and enters her, by means whereof she becomes conqueror, although the other did nothing in the engagement, he hath a right to an equal distribution with the captor, because the presence of the other vessel, armed and prepared for battle, becomes a terror, and will occasion a ship the sooner to yield. 3 Eliz. cap. 5. 2 Leon. Rep. 182.

If the caption of any ship or goods be by men of war, the property will immediately be in the captors; except it be lost again, and the ship or goods are recovered by the persons from whom they were taken, or be in battle regained. And, by the law of nations, the dominion of the things taken by those to whom letters of marque are granted, become the captors, till the debt and costs, that is, the original damage and subsequent charges are satisfied; which being done, the residue ought to be restored: so the Venetians used their equity, having taken the ships of Genoa; they did not spoil any of the lading, but preserved the same very carefully, until the debt was paid; and then they made restitution of the things entirely, without diminution. Molloy, 23.

In case the king of England should be in enmity with the States of Holland, and one of their ships of war takes an English merchant-man, and afterwards another ship of war of England meets the Dutch ship and his prize, and regains the same, there restitution is commonly made, the owners paying the salvage: so where the prize is recovered by a friend in amity, or comes into his ports, restitution is to be made. And the taking of ships and goods by force and arms is so odious, that if, by any possibility, the right owners may have restitution, the same hath been granted. Ibid. 6, 7.

Where, for the fault, perhaps, of a few, a debt becomes national, the goods of the guiltless become liable (if taken) for satisfaction; but such party ought to have contribution by the law of England, as when one is put to the whole burden, and more are bound to do one thing. Though when depredations have happened here to foreign merchants, and complaint hath been made concerning them, our kings have often issued commissions to enquire of the same, and awarded satisfaction: and, upon the petition of some merchants of Genoa, who complained against the inhabitants of the isle of Guernsey for a depredation, in taking away and detaining their merchandize and goods to a considerable value, out of a ship wrecked by tempest near the said isle; on this a commission was granted, by which the commissioners were empowered to punish the offenders, and make restitution and satisfaction for the damages sustained. For as the English subjects may have their goods by way of reprisal, for the satisfaction of a debt from foreigners, so they may have the benefit of these commissions, to make themselves whole out of the estates of the offenders. Pat. 26 Edw. III. See stat. 31 Hen. VI. cap. 4.

But he that will sue to have restitution in England for goods taken at sea, must prove that the sovereign of the party was in amity with the king of England, &c. and letters of reprisal make no war, or enmity between nations. 22 Edw. III. **MASTERS OF SHIPS.** See our article **COMMANDERS OF SHIPS**, containing something curious relating to the discovery of the **LONGITUDE** at sea. See also **LONGITUDE**.

Mercatorial laws and usages relating thereto.

The master of a ship or vessel, is to be chosen by the part owners in proportion to their concerns, not by the majority; and that man which is most able, is to be preferred. As the whole charge of the vessel and lading are committed to the master, the owners should be very careful who they admit to be commander of their ship; and he ought to be a person of honesty, as well as ability and experience.

The law looks upon a master as an officer, who must give an account for whatever he has under his care, and on failure to render satisfaction; therefore, if any misfortune happens by the negligence, wilfulness, or ignorance of himself or his mariners, he must be answerable for it. As soon as goods and

merchandize are laden aboard the ship, whether she be riding in port, haven, or any other part of the seas, he that is master is chargeable therewith; and, if the same be there lost or purloined, or sustain any damage, either in the haven or port before, or upon the seas after she is in her voyage, he must answer the damage; for the very lading of the goods on board the ship doth subject the master to answer the same. Hob. Rep. 11. Molloy Jur. Marit. 197.

A merchant sends goods aboard a ship, and the master having signed his bills of lading for the same, the goods were stowed; but in the night divers persons, under pretence that they were press-masters, entered the ship and robbed her of those goods and merchandize; and, in an action brought by the merchant against the master of the ship, it was made a question, whether he should answer for it? And it was alledged on his part, that there was no default or negligence in him; for he had a sufficient guard, the goods were all locked up under hatches, and that the thieves came on the pretence aforesaid and robbed the ship, and he could not have prevented the same: but it was notwithstanding adjudged, that, as master, he must at his peril see that all things are forth-coming that were delivered to him, let what accident will happen (the act of God or an enemy only excepted) and from fire, thieves, and the like, he is obliged to answer, and is in the nature of a common carrier; though it is at the merchant's election to charge either the master or the owners, or both, at his pleasure, but he can have but one satisfaction. Hil. 23 Car. II. B. R. 2 Lev. 69. See also 1 Mod. 85.

Where the master is subject to answer damage, is generally to be understood in such cases, where the lading was brought aboard either by his consent or his deputed servant's; for any other, or such goods, as shall be secretly brought in not being entered in his deputed servant's book, or in the bills of lading, the master shall not be compelled to see forth-coming; unless it be such things as the parties bring into the ship about them, as cloaths, money, or the like, which being seldom entered, yet commonly are visible, and the master by law is responsible for them. So likewise if a master forewarn a passenger to keep his goods, and that he will no way take care of them, and, if they be lost, or purloined by the ship's crew, he will not be obliged to see them forth-coming; here the master is not held answerable in case of a loss, especially if there be any thing of an agreement concerning it. Molloy, 215, 216.

But, if goods shall be sent aboard a ship, and the master shall appoint a cabin for the same, and deliver the key thereof to the lader, and tell him he will not be answerable if a loss happens, yet, if the goods are stole, he must make satisfaction. And if a master shall receive goods at any key, or send his boat for them, and they happen to be lost, he shall likewise answer both by the maritime and common law. Moor's Rep. Trin. 25 Eliz. Moll. 216, 198.

If a master commits any offence wilfully, or through negligence, he shall be answerable to his owners, who may compel him to make satisfaction for the damages, and, in such case, they may sue separately: so, also, if the ship hath earned freights, and some of the owners have received their parts, and the rest have not, they may bring an action for their share, without joining with the others. Hil. 26 and 27 Car. II. And, when goods are transported for hire, and no contract is made with the proprietors of the ship, there the master is chargeable for the goods in respect of his wages; and the owners are so in respect of their freight, that they receive for the carriage thereof. Per Holt chief justice.

It is said, That, where goods are once delivered to a master, the cargo is not subject to be attached in his hands; for they are in law, as it were, bailed to the ship, until the freight and all other charges are paid. And it has been held, That, as the master or owners of a ship may have an action for the freight, either the one or the other are answerable, where goods are damaged in a ship; but, in case there are several owners, and one dissents from the voyage, he shall not be liable to any action afterwards for a miscarriage, &c. Comberb. Rep. 116.

If goods are so embezzled or damaged, that the seamen or mariners must answer, here the owners and masters are to deduct the amount of the damage out of their freight to the merchants, and the master shall deduct it out of the wages of the mariners: for, though freight is the mother of wages, it is also the very father of damage; and, before a mariner can claim his wages out of what the ship hath earned, the ship must be acquitted from the damage that the merchant hath sustained by the negligence or fault of the mariners; and the reason is, for that, the goods being obliged to answer the freight, so the freight and ship are tacitly engaged to clear the damage; and, when that is done, the mariners shall then be let into their wages. Molloy, 212.

The law doth impute the offences committed by mariners, or if done by passengers aboard the ship, or others, to be the negligence of the master, to make him liable; and, were it otherwise, the merchant would be in a very dangerous condition: and further reasons why he ought to be answerable for his men are, because the mariners are of his own chusing, and

under his correction and government, and know no other superior on ship-board but himself; and, if they are faulty, he may punish them, and likewise, if the fact is apparently proved against them, may reimburse himself out of their wages due. Pasch. 11 Jac. I. B. R. 1. 2 Roll. Abr. 530.

A master of a ship hath power to freight out the vessel, take in goods and passengers, mend and furnish the ship; and, for that purpose, if need be in a strange country, he may borrow money, with advice of his mariners, upon some of the tackle, or sell some of the merchandize; and, if part of the goods shall be sold in such necessity, the highest price that the remainder are disposed of for must be answered and paid to the merchant; after which, such merchant is to pay for the freight of those goods, as well as for the remaining merchandize; but, if the ship in the voyage happens to be cast away, then only shall be tendered the price that the goods so sold were first bought for. Leg. Oleron. 1.

Such is the duty of a master of a ship that is provident, that he ought not to make sail and put forth to sea, without the consent of his company; if he doth, he shall answer the damages arising thereby. And he is not to set sail without a sufficient number of able mariners, nor in tempestuous weather; neither must he stay in port or harbour, without just cause, when a fair wind invites his departure. Also he must not proceed in his voyage with insufficient rigging or tackle, or with other or fewer cables than are usual and requisite, respect being had to the burthen of the vessel: and, if any damage happens by the delivery of the goods in the lighter, as that the ropes break, and the like, there he must answer; but, if the lighter come to the wharf, and then, in taking up the goods, a rope breaks, the wharfinger is liable. Leg. Oleron. 2 Co. Entr. 3.

If a commander of a ship shall break ground, or endeavour to sail away, after an embargo is laid upon shipping by the state, he shall be answerable for all damages which shall accrue: the reason is, because his freight is due, and must be paid, though his goods be seized. He ought not to refuse payment of the just and ordinary duties and port-charges, to the hazard of any of his lading; but, if the officers insist upon more than is due, and he offers what is just, and which he ought to pay, then he shall be excused. If, by the master's default, confiscation of goods, or other damage happen, for non-payment of customs, or false bills of entry in the custom-house, or for transporting of unlawful merchandize, the master shall answer for the same, with the interest: but, concerning the suing for such goods, the master may well do it; and, notwithstanding, if it be found that the merchant is in any fault, then, if the master and four of his mariners swear that there was no fault in them, he will be cleared thereby. Leg. Oleron. Molloy, 198. Lex Mercat. of Malines, 103. The master of a ship, taking linen or cloths aboard, shall provide good canvas, lest the goods be damaged; he must not overlade the ship above the birth-mark, or take into his ship any persons of an unknown or obscure condition, without letters of safe-conduct; nor ought he to lade any of his merchant's goods on board the ship of an enemy (though his own ship be in distress) without such letters of safe-conduct; for, if he does, the same may be made prize, and he must make good the damage. And he must not lade any prohibited goods; in which case, he is not only answerable, but also for any damage happening by any unreasonable stowing or breaking of goods, and therein he and his company may be put to their oath. He ought not to ship any merchandizes, but only at the public ports and kays [see KAYS], and he may not make use of any unlawful colours, ensigns, pendants, jacks, or flags, whereby his ship or lading would be subject to seizure. 18 Hen. VI. 19 Eliz. cap. 9. 12 Car. II. cap. 18. 26 Car. II.

He may not deviate in his course, without good cause, or steer a dangerous and unusual way, when he can have a more secure passage (though, to avoid illegal impositions, it is said he may somewhat change his course) nor may he sail by places infested with pirates, enemies, &c. or notoriously known to be unsafe, or near rocks, or remarkable sands, if he be not thereto necessitated by violence of wind and weather, or deluded by false lights. He shall not sneak into the creeks, or other places, when laden homewards, but come directly into the king's great ports (unless he be driven in by tempest), for, in such case, he would incur a forfeiture of the merchandize, and is obliged to answer. Molloy, 200. 4 Hen. IV. cap. 20. If several ships are in company on the same voyage, the masters are obliged, by the marine laws, to stay for one another, or shall be liable to the damages that the others shall sustain from an enemy, or pirates. Sea Laws.

A master is to deliver to the owners the names of all the persons whom he is to transport, and of his mariners, before he departs the kingdom; and, at his return, shall cause a true inventory of the goods of any person which shall happen to die, to be delivered to them, that his kindred and friends may have intelligence of it, and the goods may be forthcoming for one whole year: but of these goods, in the meantime, the bedding and appurtenances may be taken by the master and mate to their uses; as also the cloathing, and

other things upon the deceased's body, may be delivered to the boatswain and the company. The master shall keep his company in peace; and, if any seaman be hurt in doing service, he must take care that he be cured; and, if done by his companion, the charges shall be recovered of the other mariner: in case a mariner falls sick, the master shall order him to be laid in a house, with all sustenance necessary and usual in the ship, but shall not stay until he recovers; and, when he is recovered to health, must pay him his wages, or, if he dies, shall give it to the wife, or his nearest friends. Lex Mercat. Malines, 103.

If mariners want money during the voyage, the master ought to lend it them; but he shall not be answerable for the contracts of his men, for, in such case, they may be detained: he ought to give his mariners flesh three days a week, and the other days fish, or such-like victuals, with sufficient drink. If, through the master's fault, the ship-boat perish, with any mariners in it, then shall the master pay one whole year's hire to the heirs or executors of the persons drowned. Lex Mercat. Malines.

On a ship's arrival safe in port, a master is first to see that the ship be well moored and anchored, and then he must not relade or set sail again, until he hath been legally cleared, so as to have made satisfaction for damage, if any happened by default of him or his men; &c. And, when any master of a ship shall arrive at Gravesend, he shall not be above three days coming up the river to London, nor shall he touch at any kay or wharf, 'till he comes to Chester's Kay; and he or his purser are there to make oath of the burthen, contents, and lading of the ship, to the best of their knowledge; also where she took in her lading, in what country built, and how manned, who was master during the voyage, and who the owners. Stat. 12 Car. II. cap. 18.

Nor shall the master lade on board any goods outwards, to any place whatsoever, without entering, at the Custom-House, the name of the ship and of her master, the burthen, guns, ammunition, and to what place bound; and, before he sets out, shall bring in a note, under his hand, of the names of every merchant that shall have laid aboard any goods, with the marks and numbers of all such goods, and be sworn as to the same, under the penalty of 100l. by 14 Car. II. cap. 11. And if any goods are landed, on the coming of a ship into port, for which duties are to be paid, without entry made, and the customs agreed, they may be seized, and a door broke open for that purpose, &c. 12 Car. II.

By late statutes, if any master of a merchant-ship or vessel shall, during his being abroad, force any man ashore, or wilfully leave him behind, or refuse to bring all his men home again, who are in a condition to return, he shall suffer three months imprisonment. Stat. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 7.

But no master of a ship shall bring into this kingdom from Ireland, Jersey, &c. or the plantations, any vagrant rogue, on pain of forfeiting 5l. And masters of ships bound for Ireland, &c. shall, upon a warrant to them directed by a justice of peace, transport vagrants at the rates set at the quarter-sessions, under the like penalty. 12 Ann. cap. 23.

Masters of ships are to take poor boys apprentices, such as are 13 years old, whose parents are chargeable to the parish; they must be bound with the consent of two justices, &c. to serve 'till they are 21 years of age; and the church-wardens and overseers of parishes shall pay the master, when such boy is bound apprentice, 2l. 10s. for cloathing and bedding, to be allowed them on their accounts, and shall send the indentures to the collector of the customs of the port to which the master shall belong, who shall register them, &c.

A master of a ship from 30 to 50 tons shall take one such apprentice, one more for the next 50 tons, where the ship is larger, and one more for every 100 tons, above the first 100; and refusing such apprentices, are liable to a penalty. Poor boys, bound to other employments, may be turned over to any master of a ship; and the widows and executors, &c. of such masters, have power to assign such an apprentice to any other master of a ship. 2 Ann. cap. 6. 4 and 5 Ann. cap. 19.

Every seaman serving on board any ship, and person employed upon the coasts of Great-Britain or Ireland, in the taking of fish which are brought fresh to shore, and boats that trade in from place to place, or in open boats upon the coasts, shall pay 6d. per month for the better support of Greenwich-Hospital [see GREENWICH-HOSPITAL], and the master of every ship or vessel is to detain the same out of the mariners wages, and pay it to the person who shall be appointed by the admiralty to receive it, and is to give an account upon oath, on pain of 10l. But masters and servants of hoys, smacks, or other vessels belonging to London, and employed in bringing corn, fish, or other provisions, shall not be liable to this duty. 10 Ann. cap. 17.

By 8 Geo. II. cap. 29. it is enacted, That, in case any seaman, on board any merchant-ship belonging to the subjects of his majesty, shall be maimed in fight against any enemy, such seaman shall be admitted into the royal hospital at Greenwich, as any other seaman wounded in the service of his majesty.

Some other authentic LAW CASES adjudged in the COURTS
of JUDICATURE in ENGLAND.

Bofon verſus Sandford, & al. Mich. J. W. & M. B. R. intr.
Hil. 1 and 2 Jac. II. Rot. 302.

Cafe againſt A. and B. part owners of a ſhip, for that he put goods on board, and the defendants undertook to carry them ſafely for hire, but yet were ſo negligent that the goods were ſpoiled: upon not guilty pleaded, in evidence it appeared, That C. and D. were alſo part owners, and that the ſhip was under the care of a maſter, to whom the goods were delivered; and, this being found ſpecially, it was argued pro quer. That the action is grounded on the wrong, and may be againſt all, or any of the proprietors: there was alſo another doubt ſtarted, and that was, whether the owners were liable, when in truth they did not undertake, but, in fact, the maſter ſuper ſe ſuſcepit.

Eyre juſtice held, There was no difference between a land-carrier and a water-carrier, and that the maſter of a ſhip was no more than a ſervant to the owners in the eye of the law; and that the power he has of hypothecation, &c. is by the civil law. Et per Holt, chief juſtice, The owners are liable in reſpect of the freight, and as employing the maſter; for, whoever employs another, is answerable for him, and undertakes for his care to all that make uſe of him.

2dly, The court held, That all the owners were liable, for they are charged in point of contract, as employers, and are all equally intitled to the freight: either maſter or owners may bring an action for the freight; but, if the owners bring the action, they muſt all join, ergo, they muſt all be joined; as the freight belongs to all, ſo all are equally undertaking; and a breach of truſt in one is a breach of truſt in all: as, where two make one officer, the act of one is the act of the other.

3dly, The court held this was not an action ex delicto, but ex quaſi contractu, and it was not the contract of one but of all: that there was no other tort but a breach of truſt. Therefore the court gave judgment for the defendant, becauſe all the owners were not joined. Salk. p. 440.

Wilson verſus Bird.

The ſhip was libelled againſt in the admiralty, for that the maſter, being taken by a French privateer, had ransomed the ſhip for 300*l.* and had ſued for the payment of it, and was carried priſoner to Dunkirk, and the money was not paid, &c. and ſentence was given in the admiralty againſt the ſhip; and, upon motion for a prohibition, it was denied by Holt chief juſtice, then alone in court, becauſe, the taking and pledge being upon the high ſea, the ſhip, by the law of the admiralty, ſhall answer for the redemption of the maſter by his own contract. Lord Raymond, vol. i. p. 22,

Benzen verſus Jeffries.

Motion was made for a prohibition to the court of admiralty, where a ſuit was proſecuted againſt a ſhip, which the maſter had hypothecated for neceſſaries, being upon the ſea in ſtreſs of weather. And the ſuggeſtion was, That the agreement was made, and the money lent, upon the land, viz. in the port of London, it being a Venetian veſſel, which came here by way of trade, and not ſtreſs of weather.

But, per Holt chief juſtice, the maſter of the ſhip has power to hypothecate it, but he cannot ſell it; and, by the pawning, the ſhip becomes liable to condemnation. This was reſolved in ſolemn debate, in the caſe of Coſtard verſus Lewſtie, 2 Will. and Mar. B. R. Then there is no remedy here for the hypothecation, but by way of contract: therefore, ſince the King's-Bench cannot do right to the parties, it will not hinder the admiralty from doing them right; for the King's-Bench allows the hypothecation, and yet denies the remedy: it will be a manifeſt contradiction. An action was brought upon the ſtatute 2 Hen. IV. cap. 11. for ſuing in the admiralty upon an hypothecation, and it was held to be out of the ſtatute, in the time of my lord Hale. And as to the objection, That the contract was made upon the land, and the money paid there, it muſt of neceſſity be ſo; for, if a man be in diſtreſs upon the ſea, and compelled to go into port, he muſt receive the money there, or not at all. And, if his ſhip be impaired by tempeſt, ſo that he is forced to borrow money to refit, otherwiſe ſhe will be loſt, and for ſecurity of this money, he pledges his ſhip: ſince the cauſe of the pledging ariſes upon the ſea, the ſuit may well be in the admiralty court; but, becauſe there was a precedent where a prohibition in ſuch caſe had been granted, the court granted the prohibition, and ordered the plaintiff to declare upon it, for the law ſeemed clear to them, as before is ſaid. Lord Raymond, vol. i. p. 152.

Tranter verſus Watſon.

Watſon was maſter of a merchant's ſhip, which was taken at ſea by a French privateer. Watſon agreed with the cap-

tain of the privateer for the ranſom of the ſhip and goods, at 1200*l.* and as a pledge or ſecurity for the payment of the money, Watſon was detained and carried into France, but the ſhip and goods were releaſed, and were brought into Briſtol, where the ſhip was unladed, and the goods landed (after cuſtom paid) and delivered to one Day, but whether in truſt for the benefit of the maſter, or for the uſe of the owners, was not agreed.

Watſon commences his ſuit in the court of admiralty, againſt the owners, to compel them to pay the 1200*l.* and redeem him; and, thereupon, a warrant was iſſued out of that court to arreſt the ſhip and goods, in quadam cauſa ſalvagii, in order to compel the defendant to appear there; and the ſhip and goods were ſeized thereon. Mr. Broderick and Mr. Dee prayed a prohibition as to the goods, ſuggeſting the ſeizure on land infra corpus comitatus, and ſo not within their jurisdiction. He inſiſted, That the maſter has no power to make ſuch an agreement, nor to ſubject the goods to the payment of his ranſom, without the expreſs authority and conſent of the owners. The power of hypothecation in a voyage for neceſſaries is incident to his office, and allowed for the neceſſity of the thing, and the benefit of the owners; but this is not ſo, for this is a redemption, and a new buying of the ſhip; and, if this be allowed lawful, it will give a power to the maſter to do an injury to the owners, by obliging them to the performance of an agreement of his making, upon any terms never ſo unreaſonable, and to compel them to pay more than the ſhip and goods are worth, as the agreement in this caſe is.

Befides, the power of the maſter is only over the ſhip, and he has no power over the goods and lading, to make any diſpoſition thereof. Admitting the maſter has ſuch power, to ſubject the goods to the payment of this ranſom, yet he ought not to bring the ſuit in his own name; but the ſuit ought to be carried on in the name of the vendee or purchaſer of the goods. Admitting the ſuit proper, yet the ſeizure is illegal, for the court of admiralty cannot award ſuch proceſs as their firſt proceſs to compel the party to appear, in the nature of an execution againſt the goods; and they can no more begin with ſuch proceſs than an inferior court; and, as a prohibition ſhall be awarded to an inferior court in ſuch caſes, ſo ought it in this, though the party have not yet appeared, nor any libel be as yet exhibited. And ſo it was done in the caſe of Capt. Sands and Sir Joſiah Child, 5 Will. and Mar. a prohibition was there granted on the warrant, before any libel.

On the other ſide, it was inſiſted by Mr. Eyre and Mr. Montague, That no prohibition ought to go in this caſe, for that the maſter has power, in this caſe, to ſubject the goods to the payment of his redemption; and it is founded on the ſame reaſon as his power of hypothecation, the neceſſity of the thing, and the benefit of the owners, by parting with ſome part of the goods to ſave the reſt; whereas, otherwiſe, the whole would have been loſt. So is Molloy, 213, 214. Hob. 11, 12. [Note, Holt chief juſtice, upon his citing Molloy, ſaid, Cite the authorities there mentioned, if you will, but do not cite the book itſelf;] but this, being a matter and a cauſe properly within the jurisdiction of the admiralty, ſhall be determined there. And in a maritime cauſe, whereof they have cognizance, the proceſs of the court may be executed upon land, infra corpus comitatus.

Befides, the ſale or delivery of the goods upon land will not take away the jurisdiction of that court, ſince they have jurisdiction of the original matter. And ſo it is adjudged, 1 Sid. 320. Thompson verſ. Smith. 3 Cro. 685, 2 Sand. 259. Radley verſ. Eggleſfield. 1 Lev. 243. Turner verſ. Neale. As to the objection, that the ſuit in curia admiralitatis ought not to be in the maſter's name, they answered, That it is moſt proper in his name; for the captors, to whom the ranſom belongs, and who have the maſter in their cuſtody, cannot ſue in their own names, becauſe they are enemies; but, if the ſuit be not carried on between proper parties, it is good cauſe for an appeal, and ſhall be determined by the rules of the marine law, but it is no ground for a prohibition.

But admitting the merits of the cauſe to be againſt the maſter; yet the owners came too ſoon for a prohibition before they have appeared, and before any libel exhibited, ſo that it cannot appear to this court what the nature of the ſuit is.

The court deſired to hear a civilian, before they made any rule in this caſe: and, accordingly, Dr. Lane attended for the plaintiff in curia admiralitatis. He argued, That ſalvage, or cauſa ſalvagii, as it is mentioned in the warrant, is of admiral jurisdiction: that the maſter represents both the owners of the ſhip and the traders, and has a truſt reſoſed in him, which extends to the goods as well as the ſhip; the maſter may detain the goods of the merchant for the freight of the ſhip, or wages of mariners. The maſter, in this caſe, by the marine law has an hypothecation of the goods to him, to keep 'till payment be made of the money agreed, and not only a bare poſſeſſion, and, therefore, though he part with the poſſeſſion of the goods before payment, that does not diſveſt his intereſt.

The goods were in the power and poſſeſſion of the enemy, who might have kept or deſtroyed them all, if they had not been redeemed by the maſter, which is for the benefit of the owners,

owners. Redemption is a redemption by the master, and gives security for the payment of the money agreed, by subjecting his person as a pawn or pledge; so that he has, as it were, paid for the goods. This power of redemption is not founded on the Rhodian laws, or the laws of Oleron, but arises from the custom and law of nations, and the same custom or law, gives the master, in this case, an interest in the ship and goods. See OLERON LAWS and RHODIAN LAWS. Here Holt chief justice interrupted him, and said, We are not now upon the merits of the cause, for that is not before us upon this motion.

It was agreed by the whole court, that no prohibition should be granted in this case.

Holt chief justice said, You come too soon for a prohibition, before appearance, and a libel filed, for you are not yet in court. If this process be an illegal process, and not justifiable by the rules of their law, you may take your remedy by an action of trespass or replevin. The case of Sands and Sir Josiah Child was on an action upon the statute of Rich. II. and not on a prohibition, as was suggested.

We cannot try the legality of the process upon a motion. If it come before us on an action of trespass, we shall then judge both of the legality of the process and the power of the master. If a replevin or an action of trespass be brought, and there be a jurisdiction, we must determine whether what was done was legally done or no, upon whatsoever law it is grounded, whether ecclesiastical, maritime, the law of nations, or whether [H. J.] It seems very just and reasonable in this case, that the owners of the goods ought to pay the redemption. If a pirate should take the ship and goods, and the master redeem them, the owners shall make him satisfaction; and then much more in this case when taken by an enemy.

When the master makes a composition for the benefit of the owners, it is highly reasonable that he should be indemnified. The whole ship and goods would have been prize, if he had not made this composition; therefore, where there is an instant danger of losing ship and goods (as in this case, when they were under the capture and power of the enemy) and no hopes of saving them then appears (though afterwards it may happen that the ship may be rescued on fresh pursuit) cannot the master make such an agreement as this, as well as he may throw part of the goods overboard, in case of a tempest, to save the rest? The master has the custody and care of the ship and goods: supposing then that the master has such a power of compounding, the goods then remain to him as a security to him, and he may detain them 'till payment, as he may for freight. But then it is to be considered, whether when he has once delivered them to the owner, or to his use, he has not parted with his security, and has no way to come at them again, as it is in case of freight? These things are considerable, if we go into the merits of the cause; but, that not being before us, I give no opinion therein.

Powell justice. This process being only to compel the parties to appear, you come too soon for a prohibition before libel. We cannot determine the legality of the process in this manner: if that court has a power in any case to proceed against the goods, and to seize them on process, we ought not to grant a prohibition; for how does it appear to us, but that this process is awarded in such a case, wherein it lawfully may? As to the merits, it seems very reasonable, that the master should have power to make such a redemption, as he may throw part overboard in a tempest, to save the rest. And here the goods seem to remain in the nature of a pawn to the master, to secure the payment; and if the master, by delivering out of the goods, has lost his interest therein, and so the seizure illegal, yet we cannot determine that on the return of the process before libel: you may plead that matter there, but we cannot take notice that the process is illegal; if it be, you have your remedy.

Gould agreed; Powis absent. Lord Raymond, vol. ii. p. 931 to 934.

Clay versus Snelgrave.

The defendant, as executrix to the master of a ship, libelled in the admiralty court for the wages owing to the testator by the owner. Upon which the plaintiff, to have a prohibition, suggested the statute of 15 Rich. II. cap. 3. that the admiral court shall not have cognizance of contracts made upon the land, and shews this contract to have been made upon the land, &c. And this case was several times moved by Sir Bartholomew Shower and Mr. Acherley, for his prohibition, as well in Michaelmas, Hilary, and Easter terms last past, as in this present term: and it was opposed by Mr. Northey and Mr. Hall: and the counsel for the prohibition argued, That prohibitions are grantable de jure, and are not discretionary in the court. Raym. 3, 4. That the case, in Winch. Rep. 8. was the first case where a prohibition was denied in case of a suit by mariners for their wages in the admiralty court; and the denial was grounded upon compassionate reasons, because they were poor men, and because there they might join in action, but here they must sever; but the said case is contrary to the reason and grounds of the law; for where the contract is made upon the land, though the service

was done upon the sea, it is out of the jurisdiction of the admiralty; and so vice versa, if the service was done upon the land, and the contract upon the sea. 12 Co. 79, 80. Stanf. 51. b. Hob. 212. A consultation is always denied in case of a suit by mariners, if there is a charter-party: and the sealing of a writing cannot make any difference in reason. Raym. 3. A prohibition granted where the master libelled alone. Mr. Northey and Mr. Hall è contra for the defendant said, That the case of mariners was now settled, and ought not to be stirred; but that the great reason why they are permitted to sue there is, the ship is the debtor, and, by the law of the admiralty, they may attach her, which they cannot do by the common law; and in the admiralty court they may all join in suit, whereas, by the common law, they must bring several actions. That the case of the master is not different, for the ship is security to him, and he is but a mariner, and his wages are wages at sea. But, however, where the master dies in the voyage, as he did in this case, there can be no reason to exclude his executors from suing in the admiralty, because he had no opportunity of bringing his wages to account with the owners.

And in 2 Ventr. 181. Allison vers. Marsh, the purser, though an officer of the ship, was allowed to sue for his wages in the admiralty. And in 2 Keb. 779. Pl. 6. Rex versus Pike, a prohibition was denied, where the master and mariners joined in a suit in the admiralty for their wages. [But Holt said, That a prohibition ought to have been granted quoad in the said case.] And he cited a case, Hil. 27 and 28 Car. II. C. B. between Cooker and Older, where Atkins and Ellis justices were of opinion, That a prohibition ought to be granted, to the suit in the admiralty court by a master of a ship for his wages; but North chief justice said, and Wyndham justice held the contrary opinion. But Holt chief justice said, That it is an indulgence that the courts at Westminster permit mariners to sue for their wages in the admiralty court, because they may all join in suit; and it is grounded upon the principle, Quod communis error faciat jus; but they will not extend it to the master of the ship, especially if he was master at the beginning of the voyage here in England, and the contract was made with him here. Possibly, if the master of a ship died in the voyage, and another man took upon him the charge of the ship upon the sea, such case might be different, as in the case of Grosswick versus Louthly, where it was held in this court lately, That, if a ship was hypothecated, and money borrowed upon her at Amsterdam, upon the voyage, he who lent the money may sue in the admiralty for it; and this court granted a consideration in the said case. But in another case, where the money was borrowed upon the ship before the voyage, the King's Bench granted a prohibition, and the parties acquiesced under it. There are many precedents, in the court of admiralty, of suits by the mariners for their wages, but none for the master of the ship. And the cases differ; for the mariners contract upon the credit of the ship, and the master upon the credit of the owners of the ship, of whom generally he is one.

The opinion of lord Hobart, That, where there is matter of property to be tried, a prohibition should be granted, is a little too hard. Gould justice agreed with Holt, and said, He was of opinion that prohibitions were grantable of right, though it had been controverted in his time. To which Holt chief justice said, that Hale chief justice, and Wyndham justice, held prohibitions to be discretionary in all cases; but Kelynge chief justice was of the contrary opinion: and he said, He did not esteem them to be matter of right. Then Mr. Northey moved, That the court would compel the plaintiff to put in bail to the action to be brought for the wages at common law, or otherwise deny the prohibition; which, he said, had been done often. Holt chief justice confessed, That the court had sometimes interposed, and procured bail to be given; but it was by consent, and in case of the proprietor himself: but, in regard that in this case the plaintiff was a purchaser without notice, there was no reason: and a prohibition was granted. Lord Raymond, page 576.

MATHEMATICS. We shall not enter into the origin of this science of sciences, nor attempt, under this single head, to convey a competent knowledge of any of the several branches whereof it consists; because that would be only to amuse and deceive our readers, and make them believe they receive great benefit, when they obtain only a very superficial and confused notion of they know not what. Wherefore we shall, at present, content ourselves with giving the man of business such an idea of these studies, that he may be able to judge what parts may be necessary for him to pursue, and what to let alone; which is the view in touching on this article at all.

In all ages and countries, where learning hath prevailed, those sciences have been esteemed as the most considerable branch of it. Amongst the sciences that are reckoned to be the seven liberal arts, four are mathematical, to wit, arithmetic, music, geometry, and astronomy.

It is strange, that, notwithstanding their usefulness and excellency, a general supineness and indifferency to these studies should of a sudden spread itself among us; when, within these 30 years, nothing has been more fashionable; which must

must be owing to an aversion in the greatest part of mankind to serious attention and close reasoning, or to their not comprehending sufficiently the necessity and great utility of these in the other parts of useful learning: or, perhaps, from an opinion that this knowledge requires a peculiar genius and turn of head, which few are so happy as to be born with. For these, and probably some other reasons, this study begins to be as generally neglected as it was warmly cultivated, and is now regarded only by some few, whose genius and curiosity have prompted them to it, or who have been forced upon it by its immediate subserviency to some particular art or employment.

We think, therefore, it may be of some public service to shew, that, of all parts of human knowledge, the mathematics, for the improvement of the mind, for their assistance and subserviency to other arts, and their usefulness to the commonwealth, and its trade, commerce, and navigation, deserve still to be highly encouraged, and universally studied.

The advantages which accrue to the mind from this kind of knowledge, consist chiefly in these things: (1.) In accustoming it to attention. (2.) In giving it a habit of close and demonstrative reasoning. (3.) In freeing it from prejudice, credulity, and superstition.

1. These studies make the mind attentive to the objects which it considers. This they do by entertaining it with a great variety of truths, which are delightful and evident, but not obvious. Truth is the same thing to the understanding as music to the ear, and beauty to the eye. The most part of other sciences consisting only of probable reasonings, the mind has not where to fix; and, wanting sufficient principles to pursue its searches upon, gives them over as impossible. And youth is generally so much more delighted with mathematical knowledge than with the unpleasant tasks that are sometimes imposed upon them, that many have been reclaimed from idleness and neglect of learning, and have acquired a habit of thinking, assiduity, and attention; qualities which we ought early to beget in their desultory and roving minds.

The second advantage which the mind reaps from this knowledge, is a habit of clear, demonstrative, and methodical reasoning. We are formed by nature to learn more by imitation than by precept: and we believe, in that respect, reasoning is much like other arts (as dancing, singing, &c.) acquired by practice. By habituating ourselves to reason closely about quantity, we acquire a habit of doing so in other things*. It is surprizing to reflect, what superficial, inconsequential reasonings, satisfy the most part of mankind. A witticism, a jest, a simile, or a quotation of an author, passes for a mighty argument with too many: with such things as these, are the most part of authors stuffed; and, from those weighty premises, they infer their conclusions.

* He that has to do, says Mr. Locke, with young scholars, especially in mathematics, may perceive how their minds open by degrees, and how it is EXERCISE alone that opens them. Sometimes they will stick a long time at a part of a demonstration, not for want of will and application, but really for want of perceiving the connexion of two ideas; that, to one whose understanding is more exercised, is as visible as any thing can be. The same would be with a grown man beginning to study mathematics: the understanding, for want of use, often sticks in a very plain way; and he himself that is so puzzled, when he comes to see the connexion, wonders what it was he stuck at, in a case so plain. I have mentioned mathematics, as a way to settle in the mind an habit of reasoning closely and in train; not that I think it necessary, that all men should be deep mathematicians, but that, having got the way of reasoning, which that study necessarily brings the mind to, they might be able to transfer it to other parts of knowledge, as they shall have occasion. For, in all sorts of reasoning, every single argument should be managed as a mathematical demonstration; the connexion and dependence of ideas should be followed, till the mind is brought to the source, on which it bottoms, and observes the coherence all along, though, in proofs of probability, one such train is not enough to settle the judgment, as in demonstrative knowledge. Where a truth is made out by one demonstration, there needs no farther enquiry: but in probabilities, where there wants demonstration to establish the truth beyond doubt, there it is not enough to trace one argument to its source, and observe its strength and weakness, but all the arguments, after having been so examined on both sides, must be laid in balance, one against another, and, upon the whole, the understanding determine its assent. This is a way of reasoning the understanding should be accustomed to, which is so different from what the illiterate are used to, that even learned men oftentimes seem to have very little, or no notion of it. Nor is it to be wondered, since the way of disputing in the schools leads them quite away from it, by insisting on one topical argument, by the success of which the truth or falshood of the question is to be determined, and victory adjudged to the opponent or defendant; which is all one, as if one should balance an account by one sum, charged and discharged, when there are an hundred others to be taken into consideration.

This, therefore, it would be well, if men's minds were accustomed to, and that early; that they might not erect their opinions upon one SINGLE VIEW, when so many others are requisite to make up the account, and must come into the reckoning, before a man can form a right judgment. This would enlarge their minds, and give a due freedom to their understandings, that they might not be led into error, by presumption, laziness, or precipitancy; for I think no body can approve such a conduct of the understanding, as should mislead it from truth, though it be ever so much in fashion to make use of it. To this, perhaps, it will be objected, that to manage the understanding, as I propose, would require every man to be a scholar, and to be furnished with all the materials of knowledge, and exercised in all the ways of reasoning. To which I answer, that it is a shame for those that have time, and the means to attain knowledge, to want any helps or assistance for the improvement of their understandings, that are to be got, and to such I would be thought here chiefly to speak. Those, methinks, who, by the industry and parts of their ancestors, have been set free from a constant drudgery to their backs and their bellies, should bestow some of their spare time on their heads, and open their minds, by some trials and essays, in all the sorts and matters of reasoning. I have before mentioned mathematics, wherein algebra gives new helps and views to the understanding. If I propose these, it is not, as I said, to make every man a thorough mathematician, or a deep algebraist, but yet I think the study of them is of infinite use, even to grown men; first, by experimentally convincing them, that, to make any one REASON WELL, it is not enough to have parts wherewith he is satisfied, and that serve him well enough in his ordinary course. A man in those studies will see, that, however good he may think his understanding, yet in many things, and those very visible, it may fail him. This would take off that presumption which most men have of themselves in this part, and they would not be so apt to think their minds wanted no helps to enlarge them, that there could be nothing added to the acuteness and penetration of their understandings. The study of mathematics would shew them the necessity there is, in reasoning, to separate all the distinct ideas and see the habitudes that all those, concerned in the present enquiry, have to one another, and to lay by those, which relate not to the proposition in hand, and wholly to leave them out of the reckoning. This is that, which, in other subjects, besides quantity, is what is absolutely requisite to just reasoning, though in themselves it is not so easily observed, nor so carefully practised. In those parts of knowledge, where it is thought demonstration has nothing to do, men reason as it were in the lump; and if, upon a summary view, or upon a partial consideration, they can raise the appearance of a probability, they usually rest content; especially if it be in a dispute, where every little straw is laid hold on, and every thing that can but be drawn in any way, to give colour to the argument, is advanced with ostentation. But that mind is not in a posture to find the truth, that does not distinctly take all the parts asunder, and, omitting what is not at all to the point, draw a conclusion from the result of all the particulars, which any way influence it. There is another no less useful habit to be got, by an application to mathematical demonstrations, and that is, of using the mind to a long train of consequences. Thus Mr. Locke.

This effeminacy of mankind, in being persuaded where they are delighted, have made them the sport of orators, poets, and men of wit. Those lumina orationis are indeed good diversion for the fancy, but not the proper business of the understanding. Even formal logical precepts are more useful. But, in the search of truth, an imitation of the method of the geometers will carry a man further than all the dialectical rules. Their analysis is the proper model we ought to form ourselves upon, and imitate in the disposition and gradual progress of our enquiries; and even he who is ignorant of the nature of mathematical analysis, uses a method something analogous to it. The method of the geometers in demonstrating truths already discovered, viz. by definitions of words agreed upon, by axioms, and propositions that have been already demonstrated, is practicable in other subjects, though not to the same perfection, the natural want of evidence in the things themselves not admitting it, but it is imitable in a very great degree. One who has been trained up in the several branches of those sciences, which they have cultivated, will hardly bear with the confusion of other sciences, but endeavour to reform them.

Thirdly, Mathematical knowledge adds a manly vigour to the mind, frees it from prejudice, credulity, and superstition. It does this two ways, 1st, By accustoming us to examine, and not to take things upon trust. 2dly, By giving us a clear and extensive knowledge of the system of the world; which, as it creates in us a profound reverence for its great author, so it frees us from the mean and narrow thoughts, which ignorance and superstition are apt to beget. How great an enemy mathematics are to superstition, appears from this, that, in those countries where Romish priests exercise their barbarous tyranny over the minds of men, astronomers, who are fully persuaded of the motion of the earth, dare not speak out: but, though the inquisition may extort

a recantation, the Pope and a general council will not find themselves able to persuade to the contrary opinion. Perhaps this may have given occasion to a calumnious suggestion, as if mathematics were an enemy to religion, which is a scandal thrown both on the one and the other; for truth can never be an enemy to true religion, which appears always to the best advantage, when it is most examined. On the contrary, these studies are friends to religion; inasmuch as they charm the rational passion, restrain the impetuosity of imagination, and purge the mind from error and prejudice. Vice is error, confusion and false reasoning, and all truth is more or less opposite to it.

What we have said, may serve to recommend mathematics for acquiring a vigorous constitution of mind; for which purpose they have been experienced as useful, as exercise is towards the health and strength of the body.

We shall now touch upon their extent and usefulness in other parts of knowledge. And here it might suffice to observe, that mathematics is the science of quantity, or the art of reasoning about things that are capable of more or less, and that the most part of the objects of our knowledge is such; as matter, space, number, time, motion, gravity, &c.—We have but imperfect ideas of things without quantity, and as imperfect a one of quantity itself without the help of mathematics. All the visible works of nature are made in number, weight, and measure; therefore, to consider them, we ought to understand arithmetic, geometry, and statics: and, the greater advances we make in these arts, the more capable we are of considering, for all the useful purposes of life, such things as are the ordinary objects of our conception. This will further appear from particulars.

1. If we consider, to what perfection we know the courses, periods, order, distances, and proportions of the several great bodies of the universe, that fall within our view, we shall have cause to admire the sagacity and industry of the mathematicians, and the power of numbers and geometry well applied.

Let us consider astronomy in its infancy, or rather let us suppose it still to begin; for instance, a colony of rude country people, transplanted into an island remote from the commerce of all mankind, without so much as the knowledge of the calendar, and the periods of the seasons, without instruments to make observations, or any the least notion of observations or instruments. When is it we could expect any of their posterity should arrive at the art of predicting an eclipse? Not only so, but the art of calculating all eclipses that are past or to come, for any number of years, which has proved of unspeakable use and consolation to mankind. When is it, we could suppose, that one of those islanders, transported to any other place of the earth, should be able, by the inspection of the heavens, to find how much he were south or north, east or west of his own island? Though we know this may be, and is daily done, by what is known in astronomy, yet when we consider the vast industry, sagacity, multitude of observations, and other extrinsic things necessary for such a sublime piece of knowledge, one would be apt to pronounce it impossible, and never to be hoped for.

Now we are let so much into the knowledge of the machine of the universe, and motion of its parts by the rules of this science, perhaps the invention may seem easy. But when we reflect, what penetration and contrivance were necessary to lay the foundations of so great and extensive an art, we cannot but admire its inventors: as Thales Milesius, who, as Diogenes Laërtius and Pliny say, first predicted eclipses; and his scholar Anaximander Milesius, who found out the globous figure of the earth, the equinoctial points, the obliquity of the ecliptic, the principles of gnomonics, and made the first sphere or image of the heavens; and Pythagoras, to whom we owe the discovery of the true system of the world, and order of the planets. Though it may be, they were assisted by the Egyptians and Chaldeans. But, whoever they were that first made these bold steps in this noble art, they deserve the praise and admiration of all future ages.

Though the industry of former ages had discovered the periods of the great bodies of the universe, and their true system and order, and their orbits pretty near, yet was there one thing reserved for the glory of this age, and the honour of the English nation, the grand secret of the whole machine; which, now it is discovered, proves to be (like the other contrivances of infinite wisdom) simple and natural, depending upon the most known, and most common property of matter, viz. gravity. From this the incomparable Sir Isaac Newton has demonstrated the theories of all the bodies of the solar system, of all the primary planets and their secondaries, and among others the moon, which seemed mostaverse to numbers: and not only of the planets, the slowest of which compleats its period in less than half the age of man, but likewise of the comets, some of which it is probable spend more than 2000 years in one revolution about the sun; for whose theory he laid such a foundation, that after-ages, assisted with more observation, are able to calculate their return. In a word, the precession of the equinoctial points, the tides, the unequal vibration of pendulous bodies in different latitudes, &c. are no more a ques-

tion to those, that have geometry enough to understand what he has delivered on these subjects: a perfection in philosophy, that the boldest thinker durst hardly have hoped; and, unless mankind turn barbarous, will continue the reputation of this nation, as long as the fabric of nature shall endure. After this, what is it we may not expect from geometry, joined to observation and experiments?

The next considerable object of nature we take to be LIGHT. How unsuccessful enquiries are about this glorious body without the help of geometry, may appear from the empty and frivolous discoveries of a sort of men, whom nothing will serve, forsooth, but the knowledge of the very essence and intimate causes of every thing: while, on the other hand, the geometers, not troubling themselves with those fruitless researches about the nature of light, have discovered two remarkable properties of it, in the refraction and refraction of its beams: and from these, and their straitness in other cases, have invented the noble arts of OPTICS, CATOPTICS, and DIOPTRICS; teaching us to manage this subtle body for the improvement of our knowledge, and useful purposes of life. They have likewise demonstrated the causes of several celestial appearances, that arise from the inflection of its beams, both in the heavenly bodies themselves and other phenomena, as parhelia, the iris, &c. and by other experiments they have discovered the celerity of its motions. And we know yet more surprizing properties of light, from the works of that superlative philosopher Sir Isaac Newton.

The fluids which involve our earth, viz. air and water, are the next great and conspicuous bodies, that nature presents to our view: and it may be we know little of either, but what is owing to mechanics and geometry.

The two chief properties of air, its gravity and elastic force, have been discovered by mechanical experiments. From thence the decrease of the air's density, according to the increase of the distance of the earth, has been demonstrated by geometers, and confirmed by experiments of the subfidence of the mercury in the Torricellian experiment*. From this also, by assistance of geometry, they have determined the height of the atmosphere, as far as it has any sensible density, which agrees exactly with another observation of the duration of the twilight. Air and water make up the object of the hydrostatics, though denominated only from the latter, of which the principles were long since settled and demonstrated by Archimedes, who has demonstrated the causes of several surprizing phenomena of nature, depending only on the æquilibrium of fluids, and of solids swimming or sinking therein. Here also the mathematicians consider the different pressures, resistances, and celerities, of solids moved in fluids: whence they explain a great many appearances of nature, unintelligible to those who are ignorant of geometry.

* A term frequently used among physical writers, in the phrases, Torricellian tube, and Torricellian experiments, on account of the inventor Torricelli, a disciple of the great Galileo.—The Torricellian tube is a glass tube about 3 feet long, and $3\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch diameter, whose upper orifice is hermetically sealed. The Torricellian experiment is performed by filling the tube with mercury, then stopping the orifice with a finger, inverting the tube, and plunging that orifice in a vessel of mercury.—This done, the finger is removed, and the tube sustained perpendicularly to the surface of the mercury in the vessel.—The consequence is, that part of the mercury falls out of the tube into the vessel, and there only remains enough in the tube to fill from 28 to 31 inches of its capacity, above the surface of the stagnant mercury in the vessel.—Those 28, &c. inches of mercury are sustained in the tube by the pressure of the atmosphere on the surface of the stagnant mercury; and according as that atmosphere is more or less heavy, or as the winds, blowing upwards or downwards, heave up or depress the air, and so increase or diminish its weight and spring, more or less mercury is sustained from 28 inches to 31.—The Torricellian experiment makes what we now call the barometer.

If we descend to the animal kingdom, there we may discern the brightest strokes of divine mechanics. Whether we consider the animal œconomy in general, either in the internal motion and circulation of the juices forced through the several canals by the motion of the heart, or their external motions, and the instruments wherewith these are performed, we must reduce them to mechanical rules, and confess the necessity of the knowledge of mechanics, to understand them, or explain them to others. Borelli, in his excellent treatise *De Motu Animalium*; Steno, in his *Myologia Specimen*, and other mathematical men on the one hand, and the nonsensical, unintelligible trash, that the common writers on these subjects have filled their books with on the other, are sufficient instances to shew, how necessary geometry is in such speculations.

The only organ of an animal body, whose structure and manner of operations are fully understood, has been the only one, which the geometers have taken to their share to consider. It is incredible, how sillily the greatest and ablest physicians talked of the parts of the eye and their use, and of the *modus visionis*, before Kepler, by his geometry, found it out,

out, and put it past dispute, though they applied themselves particularly to this, and valued themselves on it: and Galen pretended an extraordinary divine commission to treat of it. Notwithstanding the full discovery hereof, some go on in copying their predecessors, and talk as ungeometrically as ever. It is true, we cannot reason so clearly of the internal motions of an animal body, as of the external, wanting sufficient data and decisive experiments: but what relates to the latter (as articulation, structure, insertion, and vires of the muscles) is as subject to strict mathematical disquisition, as any thing whatsoever; and, even in the theory of diseases and their cures, those who talk mechanically, talk most intelligibly. Which may be the reason for the opinion of the ancient physicians, that mathematics are necessary for the study of medicine itself, for which we might bring long quotations out of their works.

If one of the reasons of the ancients for this was heretofore unfashionable, to wit, because they thought a physician should be able to know the situation and aspects of the stars, which they believed had influence upon men and their diseases (and positively to deny it, and say, that they have none at all, is the effect of want of observation*) we have a much better and undoubted one in it's room, viz. That mathematics are found to be the best instrument of promoting natural knowledge.

* See Dr. Mead on the Sun and Moon.

If also we consider, not only the animal œconomy in general, but likewise the wonderful structure of the different sorts of animals, according to the different purposes for which they were designed; the various elements they inhabit, the several ways of procuring their nourishment, and propagating their kind; the different enemies they have, and accidents to which they are subject; here is still a greater need of geometry. It is rare, that the qualities of an expert anatomist and skilful geometer meet in the same person. Such, however, have discovered a whole terra incognita of delightful knowledge, to employ their time and reward their industry. As for the other two kingdoms, Borelli, and others mathematically turned, seem to reason very clearly of vegetation*: and Steno, another mathematician, has applied this part of learning very handsomely to fossils, and some other parts of natural history. We shall add only one thing more, That if we consider motion itself, the great instrument of the actions of bodies upon one another, the theory of it is entirely owing to the geometers; who have demonstrated it's laws, both in hard and elastic bodies; shewed how to measure it's quantity, how to compound and resolve the several forces by which bodies are agitated, and to determine the lines which those compound forces make them describe: of such forces gravity, being the most constant and unerring, affords a great variety of useful knowledge†, in considering several motions that happen upon the earth, viz. as to the free descent of heavy bodies, the curve of projectiles, the descent and weight of heavy bodies when they lie on inclined planes, the theory of the motion of pendulous bodies, &c.

* See Dr Stephen Hales's Vegetable Statics.

† See Sir Isaac Newton's works, and those of his illustrators.

From what has been said, we shall draw but one corollary, That a natural philosopher, without mathematics, is a very odd sort of a person that reasons about things that have bulk, figure, motion, number, weight, &c. without arithmetic, geometry, mechanics, statics, &c.*

* So wild and extravagant have been the notions of a great part of philosophers, both ancient and modern, that it is hard to determine, whether they have been more distant in their sentiments from truth, or from one another; or have not exceeded the fancies of the most fabulous writers, even poets and mythologists. This was owing to a precipitate proceeding in their enquiries, and a neglect of geometry and experiment; without the assistance of which, it is impossible the powers of natural agents should be discovered. The manner of philosophizing, among the ancients, was to ascribe to bodies certain arbitrary properties, such as best served their purpose in accounting for the phenomena of nature; from whence proceeded so many various sects of philosophers, every one assigning a different cause to the same appearance, as his particular genius and imagination led him.

The chief agreement, observable among most of them, consists in this, viz. that they conceived all bodies, as compositions of air, earth, fire, and water, or some one or more of them, from whence these acquired the name of principles or elements, which they still retain.

Epicurus advanced a little farther, and asserted, that tho', bodies consisted of some one or more of these, yet that they were not strictly elements, but that these themselves consisted of atoms; by an accidental concurrence of which (as they were moving through infinite space in lines nearly parallel) all things received their form and manner of existence (a).

(a) For the opinions of the ancient philosophers, consult Diogenes Laërtius, and Stanley's Lives.

Des Cartes has contrived an hypothesis very different from the rest: he sets out with a supposition, that the universe at first was entirely full of matter; that from this matter, when first put in motion, there would necessarily be rubbed off (by the grinding of the several parts one against another) some particles sufficiently fine to pass through the hardest and most solid bodies, without meeting with any resistance: of these consists his materia subtilis, or materia primi elementi. Those which did not so far lose their first figure, as to come under the denomination of materia primi, or secundi elementi, he called materia tertii elementi; and maintained, that all the variety which appears in natural bodies, was owing to different combinations of those elements.

He likewise supposes, that God created a certain quantity of motion, and assigned it to this mass of matter; and that that motion (being once created) could no more be annihilated, without an omnipotent hand, than body itself: in consequence of which he was obliged to teach, that the quantity of motion is always the same: so that, if all the men and animals in the world were moving, yet still there would be no more motion than when they were at rest, the motion which they had not, when at rest, being transferred to the æther. So unaccountable are the notions of this great philosopher, that it is surprizing his doctrine should have met with such universal reception, and have got so strong a party of philosophers on his side.

Des Cartes has been said, by a late writer (a) to have joined, to his great genius an exquisite skill in mathematics, and, by mixing geometry and physic together, to have given the world hopes of great improvements in the latter. But this writer ought to have considered, that what he looked upon in Des Cartes's book of Principles, as demonstrations, are only illustrations, there not being a demonstration from geometry in all his philosophical works (b).

(a) Mr. Wotton, in his Reflections on Ancient and Modern Learning.

(b) See this subject discussed in Keil's Introduction to his Examination of Dr. Burnet's Theory.

The present method of philosophizing, established by Sir Isaac Newton, is to find out the laws of nature by experiments and observations. To this, with a proper application of geometry, is owing the great advantage the present system of philosophy has over all the preceding ones, and the vast improvements it has received within the last age. It is, indeed, in vain to imagine, that a system of natural philosophy can be framed by any other method; for, without observations, it is impossible we should discover the phenomena of nature; without experiments, we must be ignorant of the mutual actions of bodies; and, without geometry, we can never be certain whether the causes we assign be proportionate to the operations we would account for, as the various systems of philosophy built on other foundations evidently shew.

This way of searching into nature was first proposed by my lord Bacon, [see the article PHILOSOPHY,] prosecuted by the Royal Society, the Royal Academy at Paris, the Hon. Mr. Boyle, Sir Isaac Newton, &c.

What wonderful advancement in the knowledge of nature may be made by this method of enquiry, when conducted by a genius equal to the work, will be best understood by considering the discoveries of that excellent philosopher last mentioned.

To him it is principally owing, that we have now a rational system of natural philosophy; it is he, who, by pursuing the sure and unerring method of reasoning from experiment and observation, joined with the most profound skill in geometry, has carried his enquiries to the most minute and invisible parts of matter, as well as to the largest and most remote bodies in the universe, and has established a system not subject to the uncertainty of a mere hypothesis, but which stands upon the secure basis of geometry itself.

Every body knows, that chronology and geography are indispensable preparations for history: a relation of matter of fact being a very lifeless thing, without the circumstances of time and place. Nor is it sufficient for one, that would understand things thoroughly, that he knows the topography, that is, the name of the country, where such a place lies, with those of the near adjacent places, and how these lie in respect of one another; but it will become him likewise to understand the scientific principles of the art: that is, to have a true idea of a place, we ought to know the relation it has to any other place, as to the distance and bearing, it's climate, heat, cold, length of days, &c. which things much enliven the reader's notion of the very action itself. Just so, it is necessary to know the doctrinal part of chronology, if a man would be thoroughly skilled in history, it being impossible without it to unravel the confusion of historians. Dr. Halley, I think, has determined the day and hour of Julius Cæsar's landing in Britain, from the circumstances of his relation. And it is well enough known, how great use our incomparable historian, Mr. Dodwell, has made of the calculated time of eclipses, for settling the times of great events, which before were, as to this essential, circumstances almost fabulous.

Both chronology and geography, and also the sun and moon's motions, so far as they relate, not only to the constitution

of the calendar and year, are necessary to a divine, but in order to the right understanding of the scriptures: we have a remarkable instance of this within the present year, by the Rev. and learned Mr. John Kennedy, author of the *New Scripture Chronology**.

* See the reverend author's *New Scripture Chronology—And the Doctrine of Commensurability*, between the diurnal and annual motions, illustrated and confirmed by above a hundred calculations, which are all adjusted to the meridian of Greenwich, and published to ascertain the astronomical principles of the Pentateuch of Moses.—The most accurate observations which can be made for the current year, & seq. are appealed to as the only proper test of their truth.

If this reverend and learned author's discovery should prove true, it will be of unspeakable service to the cause of religion, and have a happy tendency to convince learned men of the divine authority of the scripture.—But this is beside my province.

No body, we suppose, will question the interest that mathematics have in painting, music, and architecture, which are all founded on numbers. Perspective and the rules of light and shadows are owing to geometry and optics: and we think these two comprehend pretty near the whole art of painting, except decorum and ornaments; which are only a due observance of the history and circumstances of the subject represented.

If mathematics had not reduced music to a regular system, by contriving it's scales, it had been no art, but enthusiastic rapture, left to the roving fancy of every practitioner. This appears by the extraordinary pains which the ancients have taken to fit numbers to three sorts of music, the diatonic, chromatic, and inharmonic: which, if we consider, with their nicety in distinguishing their several modes, we shall be apt to judge they had something very fine in their music, at least for moving the passions with single instruments and voices.

But music had been imperfect still, had not arithmetic stepped in once more, and Guido Aretinus, by inventing the temperament, and making the fifth false by a certain determined quantity, taught us to tune our organs, and intermix all the three kinds of the ancients, to which we owe all the regular and noble harmony of our modern music.

As for civil architecture (of military we shall speak afterwards) there is hardly any part of mathematics, but is somewhat subservient to it. Geometry and arithmetic for the due measure of the several parts of a building, the plans, models, computation of materials, time and charges: for ordering right it's arches and vaults, that they may be both firm and beautiful: mechanics for it's strength and firmness, transporting and raising materials: and optics for the symmetry and beauty. And no one should assume the character of an architect, without a competent skill in all these. Vitruvius requires these and many more, for making a complete architect.

It must be acknowledged, that should any one set up to practise in any of the aforementioned arts, furnished only with his mathematical rules, he would produce but very clumsy pieces. He that should pretend to draw by the geometrical rules of perspective, and compose music merely by his skill in harmonical numbers, would shew but awkward performances. In those composed subjects, besides the stiff rules, there must be fancy, genius, and habit. Nevertheless, these arts owe their being to mathematics, as laying the basis of their theory, and affording them precepts, which, being once invented, are securely relied upon by practitioners. Thus many design, that know not a tittle of the rules they practise by; and many, no more qualified in their way, compose music better, perhaps, than he could have done that invented the scale, and the numbers upon which their harmony is founded.

As mathematics laid the foundation of these arts, so they must improve them; and he that would invent, must be skilled in numbers. Besides, it is fit a man should know the true grounds and reasons of what he studies: and he that does so, will certainly practise in his art with greater judgment and variety, where the ordinary rules fail him.

We shall now proceed to shew the more immediate usefulness of mathematics in civil affairs. To begin with arithmetic; it were an endless task to relate it's several uses in public and private business. The regulation and quick dispatch of both seem entirely owing to it. The nations that want it are altogether barbarous, as some Americans, who can hardly reckon above 20. And I believe it would go near to ruin the trade of the nation, were the easy practice of arithmetic abolished: for example, were the merchants and tradesmen obliged to make use of no other than the Roman way of notation by letters, instead of our present. And, if we should feel the want of our arithmetic in the easiest calculations, how much more in those, that are something harder; as interest, simple and compound, annuities, logarithmetical tables, &c. in which it is incredible, how much the ordinary rules and tables influence the dispatch of business.

Arithmetic is not only the great instrument of private commerce, but thereby, in conjunction with the incomparable art of debtor and creditor properly applied, are, or ought to be, kept the public accounts of the nation: we mean not only the accounts of the public revenue in all it's branches, but those likewise that regard the whole state of a commonwealth, as to the number, fructification of it's people, increase of stock, improvement of lands and manufactures, balance of trade, coinage, military power by sea and land, &c.—Those that would judge or reason truly about the state of any nation, must go that way to work, subjecting all the forementioned particulars to calculation. This is the true political knowledge. In this respect the affairs of a commonwealth differ from those of a private family, only in the greatness and multitude of particulars, that make up the accounts. Machiavel goes this way to work, in his account of different estates. What Sir William Petty and several others have wrote in political arithmetic, does abundantly shew the usefulness of such speculations. It is true, for want of good information, their calculations sometimes proceed from erroneous suppositions, but that is not the fault of the art. But what is it the government could not perform this way, with regard to our own dominions in particular, who have the command of all public records?

Lastly, numbers are applicable even to such things, as seem to be governed by no rule, such we mean as depend on chance: the quantity of probability, and proportion of it to any two proposed cases, being subject to calculation as much as any thing else. See the articles ANNUITIES, LEASES, LIVES [ANNUITIES ON LIVES], LOTTERIES, MORTALITY [BILLS OF MORTALITY.]

Upon this depend the principles of game. We find sharpers know enough of this, to cheat some men that would take it very ill to be thought bubbles: and one gamester exceeds another, as he has a greater sagacity and readiness in calculating his probability to win or lose in any proposed case. To understand the theory of chance, thoroughly, requires no little knowledge of numbers, and a pretty competent one of algebra.

The several uses of geometry are not fewer than those of arithmetic. It is necessary for ascertaining of the property both in planes and solids, or in surveying and gauging. By it land is sold by the measure, as well as cloth: workmen are paid the due price of their labour, according to the superficial or solid measure of their work: and the quantity of liquors determined for a new regulation of their price and duty. All which do wonderfully conduce to the easy dispatch of business, and the preventing of frauds and controversies. We need not mention the measuring distances, laying down of plans and maps of countries, in which we have daily experience of it's usefulness. These are some familiar instances of things, to which geometry is ordinarily applied: of it's use in civil, military, and naval architecture, we shall speak afterwards.

From astronomy we have the regular disposition of our time in a due succession of years, which are kept within their limits as to the return of the seasons, and the motion of the sun. This is of no small advantage for the due repetition of the same work, labour, and actions. For many of our public, private, military, and country affairs, appointments, &c. depending on the products of the ground, and they on the seasons; it is necessary, that the returns of them be adjusted pretty near to the motion of the sun, and we should quickly find the inconveniency of a vague undetermined year.

Beside, the adjusting of the moon's motion to the sun's is required for the decent observation and celebration of the feasts and fasts of the established church, according to the antient custom and primitive institution; and likewise for the knowing of the ebbing and flowing of the tides, the spring and neap-tides, currents, &c. So that, whatever some people may think of an almanack where all these are represented, it is sometimes the most useful paper that is published the same year with it: nay, the nation could, perhaps, better spare all the voluminous authors in the term catalogue, than that single sheet.

The mechanics have produced so many useful engines subservient to conveniency, that it would be a task too great to relate only the several sorts of them: some of them keep life itself from being a burthen. If we consider such as are invented for raising weights, and are employed in building and other great works, in which no impediment is too great for them; or hydraulic engines for raising of water, serving for great use and comfort to mankind, where they have no other way to be supplied readily with that necessary element; or such as, by making wind and water work for us, save animal force and great charges, and perform those actions, which require a great multitude of hands, and without which every man's time would be too little to prepare his own aliment and other necessities; or those machines that have been invented by mankind for delight and curiosity, imitating the motions of animals, or other works of nature; we shall have reason enough to admire and extol so excellent an art. What shall we say of the several instruments, which are contrived to measure time? We should quickly find the value of them, if

if we were reduced to the condition of those barbarous nations that want them. The pendulum-clock, invented and compleated by that famous mathematician Mons. Huygens, is an useful invention. Is there any thing more wonderful than several planetary machines, which have been invented to shew the motions of the heavenly bodies, and their places at any time?

Here we should not forget to mention the sciatherical instruments, for want of which there was a time, when the Grecians themselves were obliged to measure the shadow, in order to know the hour; and, as Pliny (cap. ult. lib. vii.) tells us, the Romans made use of an erroneous sun-dial for 99 years, 'till Q. Marcius Philippus their censor set up a better; which at that time, doubtless, was thought a jewel. And, at last, that famous pyramid was set up in the Campus Martius, to serve for a gnomon to a dial marked on the street. To this sort of engines ought to be referred spheres, globes, astrolabes, projections of the sphere, &c. these are such useful and necessary things, that alone may recommend the art by which they are made. For by these we are able in our closet to judge of the celestial motions, and to visit the most distant places of the earth, without the fatigue and danger of voyages; to determine concerning their distance, situation, climate, nature of the seasons, length of their days, and their relation to the celestial bodies, as much as if we were their inhabitants. To all these might be added those instruments, which the mathematicians have invented to execute their own precepts, for making observations either at sea or land, and for surveying, gauging, &c.

The catoptrics and dioptrics furnish us with variety of useful inventions, both for the promoting of knowledge, and the conveniencies of life; whereby sight, the great instrument of our preception is so much improved, that neither the distance, nor the minuteness of the object, are any more impediments to it. The telescope is of so vast use, that besides the delightful and beneficial purposes it is applied to here below, as the descrying ships and men, and armies at a distance, we have by it's means discovered new parts of the creation, fresh instances of the surprizing wisdom of the supreme and almighty cause. We have thereby discovered the satellites of Jupiter, the satellites and ring of Saturn, the rotation of the planets about their own axes, besides other appearances, whereby the system of the world is made plain to sense, as it was before to reason.

The telescope has also improved the manner of astronomical observations, and made them much more accurate, than it was possible for them to be before. And these improvements in astronomy have brought along with them correspondent improvements in geography. From the observation of Jupiter's satellites, we have a ready way to determine the longitude of places on the earth. On the other hand, the microscope has not been less useful in helping us to the sight of such objects, as by their minuteness escape our naked eye. By means hereof men have pursued nature into her most retired recesses, so that she can hardly any more hide her greatest mysteries from us. How much have we learned, by the help of the microscope, of the contrivance and structure of animal and vegetable bodies, and of the composition of fluids and solids?

But if these sciences had never gone further than, by their single specula and center, to give those surprizing appearances of objects and their images, and to produce heat unimitable by our hottest furnaces, and to furnish infallible, easy, cheap, and safe remedies for the decay of our sight, arising commonly from old age and from purblindness: they had merited the greatest esteem, and invited to the closest study: especially if we consider, that such as naturally are almost blind, and either know not their nearest acquaintance at the distance of a room's breadth, or cannot read, in order to pass their time pleasantly, are, by glasses adapted to the defect of their eyes, set on a level again with those that enjoy their eye sight best, and that without danger, pain, or charge.

Mathematics are likewise highly serviceable to a nation in military affairs. I believe this will be readily acknowledged by every body. The affairs of war take in number, space, force, distance, time, &c. (things of mathematical consideration) in all it's parts, in tactics, castramentation, fortifying, attacking, and defending. The ancients had more occasion for mechanics in the art of war than we have: gun-powder readily producing a force far exceeding all the engines they had contrived for battery: and this we reckon has lost us a good occasion of improving our mechanics; the cunning of mankind never exerting itself so much as in their arts of destroying one another. But, as gun-powder has made mechanics less serviceable to war, it has made geometry more necessary: there being a force or resistance in the due measures and proportions of the lines and angles of a fortification, which contribute much towards it's strength.

This art of fortification has been less studied of late years in this kingdom than in some neighbouring ones, which was too apparent in the late war: nor dare we affirm that it has attained it's utmost perfection in any: and though, where the ground is irregular, it admits but of small variety, the measures being pretty well determined by geometry and experience;

yet, where the ground is made up of natural strength and weaknesses, it affords some scope for thinking and contrivance.

But there is another much harder piece of geometry, which gun-powder has given us occasion to improve, and that is the doctrine of projectiles, whereon the art of gunnery is founded. Here the geometers have invented a beautiful theory, and rules and instruments, which have reduced the casting of bombs to great exactness. As for tactics and castramentation, mathematics retain the same place in them as ever; and some tolerable skill in these is necessary for officers, as well as for engineers.

An officer that understands fortification will, *cæteris paribus*, much better defend his post, as knowing wherein it's strength consists, or make use of his advantage to his enemy's ruin, than he that does not. He knows, when he leads ever so small a party, what his advantages and disadvantages in defending and attacking are, how to make the best of his ground, &c. and hereby can do truly more service than another of equal courage, who, for want of such knowledge, it may be, throws away himself and a number of brave fellows under his command: and it is well, if the mischief reaches no further. As for a competent skill in numbers, it is so necessary to officers, that no man can be safely trusted with a company that has it not. All the business is not to fire musquets; the managing of affairs, the dealing with agents, &c. happen more frequently: and, the higher the command is, the more skill in all the aforesaid things is required. And I dare appeal to all the nations in Europe, whether, *cæteris paribus*, officers are not advanced in proportion to their skill in mathematical learning, except that sometimes great names and quality carry it; but still so, as that the prince depends upon a man of mathematical learning, that is put as director to the quality, when that learning is wanting in them.

Lastly, Navigation, which is made of astronomy and geometry, is so noble an art, and to which mankind owes so many advantages, that, upon this single account, those excellent sciences deserve most of all to be studied, and merit the greatest encouragement from a nation that owes to it both it's riches and security. And not only does the common art of navigation depend on mathematics, but whatever improvements shall be made in the *architectura navalis*, or building of ships, or ships of war, whether swift-running, or bearing a great sail, or lying near the wind, be desired; these must all be the improvements of geometry.

Ship-carpenters, indeed, are very industrious; but, in these things, they acknowledge their inability, confess that their best productions are the effects of chance, and implore the geometers help. Nor will common geometry do the business; it requires knowledge of the most abstruse geometry to determine the different sections of a ship, according as it is designed for any of the aforesaid ends.

The great objection that is made by some against the necessity of mathematics, in the forementioned great concerns of navigation, the art military, &c. is, that we see those affairs are carried on and managed by such as are not great mathematicians, as seamen, engineers, surveyors, gaugers, clock-makers, glass-grinders, &c. and that the mathematicians are commonly speculative, retired, studious men, that are not for an active life and business, but content themselves to sit in their studies, and pore over a scheme or a calculation.

To which there is this plain and easy answer: the mathematicians have not only invented and ordered all the arts above-mentioned, by which those grand affairs are executed, but have laid down precepts, contrived instruments and abridgments so plainly, that common artificers are capable of practising by them, though they understand not a tittle of the grounds on which the precepts are built: and in this they have consulted the good and necessities of mankind.

Those affairs require so great a number of people to manage them, that it is impossible to breed so many good, or even tolerable mathematicians. The only thing then to be done was to make their precepts so plain and familiar, that they might be understood and practised by a multitude of men. This will best appear by examples.

Nothing is more ordinary than dispatch of business by common arithmetic, by the tables of simple and compound interest, annuities, &c. extraction of the square and cube roots, logarithms, &c. yet how few men of business understand the reasons of common arithmetic, or the contrivance of those tables, and rationale of those rules, now they are made, but securely rely on them that are made? They were the able mathematicians that made those precepts so plain, and investigated those rules, and calculated those tables, that facilitate the practice so much. Nothing is more universally necessary than the measuring of plains and solids: and it is impossible to breed so many good mathematicians as that there may be many that understand all the geometry requisite for surveying, and measuring of prisms and pyramids, and their parts, and measuring frustums of conoids and spheroids, in every market-town where such work is necessary.

The mathematicians have therefore inscribed such lines on their common rules, and sliding rules, and adapted so plain

precepts to them, that every country carpenter and gauger can do the business accurately enough, though he knows no more of the rational foundation of those instruments, tables, and precepts he makes use of, than a hobby-horse.

So, in navigation, it is impossible to breed so many good mathematicians as would be necessary to sail the hundredth part of the ships of the nation. But the mathematicians have laid down so plain and distinct precepts, calculated necessary tables, and contrived convenient instruments, so that a seaman that knows not the truths on which his precepts and tables depend, may practise safely by them. They resolve triangles every day that know not the reason of any one of their operations. Seamen, in their calculations, make use of artificial numbers, or logarithms, they know nothing of their contrivance: and, indeed, all those great inventions of the most famous mathematicians had been almost useless for those common and great affairs, had not the practice of them been made practically intelligible to those who cannot understand them. Whence it is plain, that it is to those speculative retired men we owe the rules, the instruments, the precepts for using them, and the tables which facilitate the dispatch of so many great affairs, and supply mankind with so many conveniences of life. They were the men that taught the world to apply arithmetic, astronomy, and geometry to sailing, without which the needle would be still useless. Just the same way, in the other parts of mathematics, the precepts that are practised by multitudes, without being understood, were contrived by some few great mathematicians.

Since then it has been shewn how much mathematics improve the mind, how subservient they are to other arts, and how immediately useful to the commonwealth, and it's commercial emolument, there need no other motives to governments to encourage them. This is the natural conclusion from these premises. Plato, in his Republic, lib. 7, takes care, That whoever is to be educated for magistracy, or any considerable post in the commonwealth, may be instructed first in arithmetic, then in geometry, and thirdly in astronomy. And, however necessary those arts were in Plato's time, they are much more so now: the arts of war and traffic requiring much more the assistance of those sciences now, than they did then, as being brought to a greater height and perfection. And accordingly we see these sciences are the particular care of princes that design to raise the force and power of their countries. It is well known that this is none of the least arts whereby the French king has brought his subjects to make that figure at sea which they at this time do; I mean the care he takes for educating those appointed for sea-service in mathematical learning: for in the ordinance marine, title 8, he orders that there be professors to teach navigation publicly in all the sea-port towns, who must be well skilled in designing, and teach it to their scholars, in order to lay down the appearances of coasts, &c. They are to keep their schools open, and read four times a week to the seamen, where they must have charts, globes, spheres, compasses, quadrants, astrolabes, and all books and instruments necessary to teach their art.

The directors of hospitals, also, are obliged to send thither yearly two or three of their boys to be taught, and to furnish them with books and instruments. Those professors are obliged to examine the journals deposited in the office of admiralty, in the place of their establishment, to correct the errors in presence of the seamen, and to restore them within a month, &c.

King Charles II. who well understood the importance of establishments of this nature, founded one such school in Christ's Hospital, London. And his majesty king William III. during the time of the war, established a mathematical lecture to breed up engineers and officers, as knowing very well the importance thereof. And this continued some time after the peace. And it is worthy the consideration of the wisdom of the nation, whether the restoring and continuing this, even in peace, be not expedient for the breeding of engineers, who are so useful and valuable, and so difficult to be had in time of war, and so little dangerous in times of peace.

Besides the croud of merchants, seamen, surveyors, engineers, ship-carpenters, artizans, &c. that are to be instructed in the practice of such parts of mathematics as are necessary to their own business respectively, a competent number of able mathematicians ought to be entertained, in order to apply themselves to the practice; not only to instruct the former sort, but likewise to remove those obstacles, which such as do not think beyond their common rules cannot overcome. And doubtless it is no small impediment to the advancement of arts, that speculative men and good mathematicians are unacquainted with the particular defects of those people, and the several circumstances in them, that render things practicable or impracticable.

But, if there were effectual public encouragement, we should have skilful mathematicians employed in those arts, who would certainly find out and remedy the imperfection of them. The lords commissioners of the admiralty knowing that there are still two great desiderata in navigation, viz. the theory of the variation of the magnetic needle, and a method of finding out

the longitude of any place that may be practicable at sea [see the article LONGITUDE] and being sensible of what importance it would be to find out either of them, formerly employed a very capable person, the learned and ingenious Dr. Halley, who had joined an entire acquaintance in the practice to a full and thorough knowledge of the more abstruse parts of mathematics. And, although that great man was not able to make those discoveries, yet he has been of important service to navigation, by correcting the situation of the coasts where he touched, and, by them, others.

The next thing that is necessary for the improvement of mathematical learning is, that mathematics continue to be more generally and constantly studied at our universities * than they at present are. From those seminaries the state justly expects and requires those who are acquainted both with the speculation and practice. In those are all the encouragements to them imaginable, leisure and assistance: there are at hand all requisite books and instruments, as also other scholars that have made equal progress, and may be associates in study, and the direction of the professors. There are also in perfection all the incitements to this study, and especially an acquaintance with the works of the ancients, where this learning is so much recommended. Here other faculties are studied, to which those studies are subservient. There also are the nobility and gentry bred, who, in due time, must be called to their share in the government of the fleets, army, treasury, and other public employments, where mathematical learning is absolutely necessary, and without which they, though of never so great natural abilities, must be at the mercy and discretion of their servants and deputies, who will first trick them, and then laugh at them for suffering it. And not only public employments, but their private concerns, require mathematical knowledge. If their fortunes lie in woods, coal, salt, manufactures, &c. the necessity of this knowledge is open and known: and, even in land estates, no undertaking for improvement can be securely relied upon without it. It not only makes a man of quality and estate his whole life more illustrious, and more useful for all affairs, but, in particular, it is the best companion for a country life. Were this ever to continue a fashionable study (and the mode exercises it's empire over learning, as well as other things) it is hard to tell how far it might influence the morals of our nobility and gentry, in rendering them serious, diligent, curious, taking them off from the more fruitless and airy exercises of the fancy, which they are apt to run into.

* Does it not well deserve a public enquiry, how and from what causes it proceeds, that so many of the British nobility and gentry are sent in their youth to foreign universities, for their education? It cannot be pretended that travelling is the motive, while they are confined in a college?

The only objection I can think of that is brought against these studies is, that mathematics require a particular turn of head, and a happy genius that few people are masters of, without which, all the pains bestowed upon the study of them are in vain: they imagine that a man must be born a mathematician. To which it may be answered, that this exception is common to mathematics with other arts. That there are persons who have a peculiar capacity and fitness to one more than another, will hardly be denied: and from experience, we presume, it is not in any higher degree true concerning mathematics than the others: a man of good sense and application is the person that is by nature fitted for them, especially if he begins betimes: and, if his circumstances have been such that this did not happen, by prudent direction the defect may be supplied, as much as in any art whatsoever. The only advantage, I am afraid, this objection has is, that it lies on the side of softness and indolence, those powerful allies.

In order to obtain a fundamental knowledge of these sciences, we would lay it down as a principle, that no gentleman should be taught the practice of any rule without the true and solid reason and demonstration of the same. Rules without demonstration must and ought to be taught to seamen, artizans, &c. as has been already observed; and schools for such people are fit in sea-ports and trading towns; but it is far below the dignity of the noblemen or gentlemen, or any who are designed for solid and true learning, to do this. It is by such measures that all must be raised, who are able to remedy the defects of the practical and commercial arts: and, therefore, nothing on them must be taken by trust. Seamen and surveyors, gaugers and accountants, &c. remember their rules, because they are perpetually practising them: but scholars, who are not thus employed, if they know not the demonstration of them, presently forget them.

Secondly, It has been thought a great mistake by our ablest mathematicians, that any part of their sciences should be taught by compendiums: this follows from the former. Compendiums are fit to give a general and superficial knowledge, not a thorough one. It's time, and not the bulk of books, we ought to be sparing of: and we may appeal to any person of experience, whether solid knowledge is not acquired in shorter time by books treating fully of their subjects, than by compendiums and abridgments.

From hence it follows, that the elements of arithmetic and geometry are to be taught. Euclid, in his thirteen books of Elements, gives us both: but our present way of notation supercedes some of those of arithmetic, as demonstrating the rules from the operations themselves. There remain then the first six books for the geometry of plains, and the last three for stereometry. The rest ought to be read in their own place, for the perfection of arithmetic. In teaching these care ought to be taken to make use of such examples as suit with the condition of the learner: for instance, merchants accounts and affairs for examples of the operations of arithmetic, to one that is afterwards to have a concern that way; whereas, to a man of the first quality, examples should be drawn from keeping an accurate account of his estate, either in land or money, &c. from the increase and decrease of the people, the state of the public revenue, and from land or sea-force, and other principles of political arithmetic. For it is certain nothing makes one tired sooner than the frivolous and trifling examples that are commonly brought for the exercise of the rules of arithmetic, debtor and creditor, and geometry, &c. tho' this is common to them with the other arts, as grammar, logic, &c.

The manner of writing of the mathematicians of this and the former age makes trigonometry, with the manner of constructing it's tables, almost elementary; and the practical geometry, commonly so called, is very fit to come next, as an elegant application of the elements of geometry to business, as surveying, gauging, &c.

After the elements of spherics, a full insight into the principles of astronomy will be necessary.

Mechanics follow after to be read, which are the ground of a great part of natural learning; and afterwards optics, catoptrics, and dioptrics.

But none of these, except the elements, can be fully understood until one is pretty well skilled in conic sections; and all these are made more easy by some tolerable skill in algebra, and it's application to geometry.

These foundations being laid, any one may, with great ease, pursue the study of the mathematics, as his occasions require, either in it's abstract parts, and the more recondite geometry, and it's application to natural knowledge; or in mechanics, by prosecuting the statics, hydrostatics, &c. or in astronomy, by it's application to geography, navigation, gnomonics, astrolabes, &c. But, in most of these, a particular order is not necessary: any one may take that first which he is most inclined to, after he has laid the requisite foundation in arithmetic, algebra, and geometry.

REMARKS on the article MATHEMATICS.

Our intention, by this summary of the universal utility of mathematical learning, is with a view to give the commercial class of people, as well as others of quality and distinction, such an idea of those studies, that they may apply themselves only or chiefly to such parts as may be suitable to their condition and plan of life. And, from what has been said, it is manifest beyond contradiction, that this kind of literature, taken in it's comprehensive latitude, has been, and is ever like to be, while duly cultivated, the grand parent of numberless beneficial arts and trades; and, therefore, cannot be too much encouraged in commercial states: yet we are sorry to observe, that these studies rather decline than advance among us, for want of their professors being suitably cherished and distinguished.

The victories which take up the greatest part of history, and attract admiration the most, have generally no other effects but the desolation of countries, the destruction of cities, and the slaughter of men. Those so-much boasted heroes of antiquity, have they made a single man the better? Have they made many men happy? And if, by the founding of states and empires, they have procured posterity some advantage, how dearly have they made their contemporaries pay for it, by the rivers of blood they have shed? Those very advantages are confined to certain places, and have a certain duration.

Of what utility to us, at this day, are either Nimrod, Cyrus, or Alexander? All those great names, all those victories which have astonished mankind from time to time, those princes and conquerors, with all their magnificence and vast designs, are returned into nothing with regard to us; they are dispersed like vapours, and are vanished like phantoms.

But the inventors of all arts aiding to the commercial industry and prosperity of mankind have laboured for all ages of the world. We still enjoy the fruits of their application and industry. They have provided, at a great distance, for all our occasions: they have procured for us every convenience of life: they have converted all nature to our uses: they have reduced the most indocile matter to our service: they have taught us to extract from the bowels of the earth, and even from the depths of the sea, the most precious riches; and, what is infinitely more estimable, they have opened to us the treasures of other sciences, and have guided us to knowledge the most sublime, the most useful, and the most worthy of our nature. They have put into our hands, and placed before our eyes, whatever is most proper to adorn the mind, to direct our

manners, and to form good citizens, good magistrates, and good princes. These are part of the benefits we have received from those who have invented, and brought arts and sciences to perfection.

The better to know their value, let us transport ourselves in imagination back to our infancy of the world, and those gross ages when man, condemned to eat his bread by the sweat of his brow, was without aids and instruments, and obliged, however, to cultivate the earth, that he might extract nourishment from it; to erect himself huts and roofs for his security; to provide cloathing for his defence against the frosts and rains; and, in a word, to find out the means to satisfy all the necessities of life. What labours, what difficulties, what disquiets! All which are spared us.

We do not sufficiently consider the obligations we are under to those equally industrious and laborious men, who made the first essays in arts, and applied themselves in those useful but elaborate researches. That we are commodiously housed, that we are clothed, that we have cities, walls, habitations, temples, shipping, navigation, and commerce; to their industry and labour we are indebted for them all. It is by their aid our hands cultivate the fields, build houses, make stuffs and habits, work in brass and iron; and, to make a transition from the useful to the agreeable, that we use the pencil, handle the chissel and graver, and touch instruments of music. These are solid temporal felicities and emoluments, which have always been increasing from their origin, which extend to all ages and nations, and to all mankind in particular; which will perpetuate themselves throughout all times, and continue to the end of the world. Have all the conquerors together done any thing that can be imagined parallel with such services? All our admiration, however, turns generally on the side of these heroes in blood, whilst we scarce take notice of what we owe to the inventors of the mathematic and philosophic arts, which are the grand sources of all the security, joy, and splendor of life. The progress of those arts and sciences whereon the mutual intercourse of commerce between nations depends, and the history of those persons who have most eminently distinguished themselves therein, is the history of the human wisdom, which does not give place to that of princes and heroes, whom common opinion places in the highest degree of glory.

The principal law and justest title to deserving solid praises in this useful empire of literature is, that every member of it be contented with his own place; that he be void of all envy for the glory of others; that he looks upon them as his colleagues; destined, as well as himself, by providence, to enrich society, and become it's benefactors; and that he remembers with gratitude from whom he holds his talents, and for what ends they have been given him. Can they believe they may use them at their own pleasure, and seek, in the application they make of them, only their own reputation and glory? As providence places kings upon their thrones solely for the good of their people, it distributes also the different talents of the mind solely for the benefit of the public.

But, in the same manner as we sometimes see in states usurpers and tyrants, who, to exalt themselves alone, oppress all others; there may also arise amongst the learned a kind of tyranny of the mind, which consists in regarding the successes of others with an evil eye; in being offended at their reputation; in lessening their merit; in esteeming only one's self, and in affecting to reign alone: a hateful defect, and very dishonourable to learning. The solid glory of the empire of learning is not to labour for one's self, but for mankind; and this is what places it exceedingly above all the other empires of the world.

Useful REMARKS, tending to the further advancement of the MATHEMATICAL SCIENCES, in order to the further promotion of COMMERCE, by the learned Dr. John Pell; which as well deserve attention at this time, when these studies seem to be upon the decline, as they did heretofore.

‘I. As to what I formerly considered, says that learned gentleman, about the improvement of the mathematical sciences; the result was chiefly this: while men are destitute of inclination, genius, assistances, and leisure necessary for these studies, no wonder if they make no greater progress in them: therefore it seems probable to me, that, by the help of the following means, a tolerable good remedy may be found for this evil. That is, if,

1. A mathematical monitor (as we may call it) be composed, which may give proper answer to these three questions, 1. What advantages, and of what kind, may be expected from the study of mathematics? 2. What helps are now in being for attaining so advantageous a knowledge? 3. What order is to be observed in making use of those assistances? Therefore this monitor should contain,

1. An easy and perspicuous discourse upon the limits or extent of the mathematical arts, and of the considerable advantages that will accrue not only to the persons themselves that study them, but likewise to a nation that abounds in skilful mathematicians.

2. A catalogue of mathematicians, and of works published by them; which is to exhibit, 1. A synopsis of all kinds of mathematical books, whether such as are already published,

or such as are yet unpublished, and, being in manuscript, lie concealed in public libraries; proper numbers, or references, being affixed to every kind. 2. A chronological catalogue of all the celebrated mathematicians, disposed according to the ages in which they flourished; always subjoining the year of our Lord in which their works were first printed.

3. A catalogue of the same works, according to the series of years in which they were printed in any language. In digesting of which, I would proceed in such manner, that, marking the year of our Lord, I would add (as in common catalogues) the names of all the mathematical books that were published that year, in any country or any language: 1. Shewing in each how much the volume contained, by marking not only whether it was in folio, quarto, &c. but the whole number of pages, so that the bulk of the work might easily be known. 2. Before the title mentioning the year, to which any one might turn back who should desire to know when the book was wrote, and when it was last published in any language. 3. Marking in the margin after the title, 1. The year in which any work was last printed. 2. The number referring the reader to the synopsis, which was given in the first page of the catalogue. Now, by the help of these numbers, any one might easily and readily run through all the mathematical books belonging to one subject.

3. An admonition to the studious, which are the best books in every kind, in what order and method they are to be read, what is to be chosen and what omitted in reading some of the minor mathematicians; how we are to proceed so as to retain every thing in memory.

4. An exhortation and encouragement to all those who are sufficiently provided with wealth, opportunity, and ingenuity for the pursuit of these studies; that, 1. Having regard to the great advantages that redound from hence, not only to themselves but to all mankind in general. 2. As likewise to that pure and sincere pleasure which arises from the search of hidden truths, and from striving with difficult problems, and the conquest of them; that they may seriously apply themselves to the advancement of science, and so much the rather, as, 3. More expeditious methods are now found out than were known to our ancestors, which save us much labour, time, and expence.

Then an exhortation to all such as are eminent for setting a right value on these studies, and are likewise distinguished for power and wealth (which surely may be made instrumental to perpetual fame, if prudently dispensed) that they may become patrons to ingenious men of this kind, by proposing handsome rewards to the most deserving of them, to encourage them to complete such discoveries as their own genius may prompt them to. Lastly, to all princes and commonwealths who cannot easily procure a greater ornament to their dominions, than by making it their endeavour, 1. That they may abound with persons skilled in these arts. 2. That the way leading to them may be made as little laborious and expensive as possible. 3. That mathematical genius's may be more publicly known, and meet with such encouragement as they shall deserve.

For this end it will be very necessary that,

II. A public library may be founded, which may be furnished with all the books abovementioned, and with one instrument of every sort that has been yet invented; and besides may have an endowment sufficient, 1. To purchase copies of all the mathematical books that shall be yearly published anywhere abroad. 2. To maintain a library-keeper, whose business it should be,

1. To read over all the books of this kind which are published in his own country; 1. Suppressing those which are not wrote according to the rules of art, that their mistakes may not lead their readers into error. 2. To admonish authors, lest they should only republish things already known, and treated of by others.

2. On peril of their reputation that they should approve of notable inventions, and heartily recommend the inventors to proper patrons.

3. To receive, to enter into their catalogue, and dispose in their proper repositories, one copy of the books so read over, when presented to the library well bound up, at the charge of the author or bookseller.

4. To give a civil and ready answer to any studious person who shall consult him about any problem, whether it is already solved or no; lest he should attempt any thing that is well done already, or, on the contrary, suppress his discoveries, out of fear they may be already known, and perhaps discussed in some of the books of the library.

5. To receive, &c. all manuscripts that may be presented to the library, or bequeathed to it by legacy.

6. To keep a constant library correspondence with all persons of this kind that reside in foreign countries, lest he should be ignorant of what books are published there.

7. To take notice among his countrymen who are fittest and most expert in instructing others in these arts.

8. To have an acquaintance with all kinds of artificers who excel in the constructing of mathematical instruments and contrivances, whether they work in wood, loadstones, metal, glass, &c.

9. After a fair trial, to give their testimony, both of specu-

lative knowledge and practical dexterity, to practical men of all kinds, whether masters of ships, surveyors, accountants, &c. that such as have occasion for this kind of men may not be imposed on by ignorant pretenders, to their great loss.

The catalogue will easily inform which, in such a multitude of books that almost overwhelm the world, belong only to this kind of study. The library will exhibit a copy of every such book, and inform where more copies may be bought. It will also be a kind of storehouse both to natives and foreigners, whence they may easily learn what assistances that country can supply to these studies.

And this, in my opinion, is the readiest way of making use of the helps we are already in possession of. If more are wanting, it will be necessary that, by the assistance of skilful artists.

III. The three following new treatises may be composed and published:

1. Mathematical pandects, containing, as perspicuously, methodically, compendiously, and ingeniously as can be done, whatever may be collected or deduced, by way of corollary, from the mathematical books or discoveries made before our time; quoting the most eminent authors in which they are found, at the end of every period or proposition; and so marking in all the following authors, where they have been caught in a theft, or where they have borrowed without making any acknowledgement, or (what is worst of all) have boldly claimed to themselves the inventions of others. By this means that large library would be contracted into a much narrower compass, to a great saving of labour, time, and expence, for those that come after; and this much more than any would imagine at present. But now, since this work would hardly make a portable volume, there should be prepared also,

2. A mathematical companion, containing in a manual (and therefore as concisely as may be) all the most useful tables, with precepts to shew their application to solving of problems, whether of pure mathematics, or applied to other subjects.

Finally, that we may not always be confined to books in this kind of learning, there should be contrived,

3. The self-sufficient mathematician, or an instruction to shew how any mathematician, who is no enemy to labour, may acquire so much skill that, without the assistance of books or instruments, he may attain the solution of any mathematical problem, and that as easily as another would solve it by turning over books.

And this is that idea of mathematics which, in my manner, I have long ago figured to myself; being always firmly persuaded, that then only we can hope for assistance in great undertakings, when we have conceived an exact idea of them in our minds, and of the most apposite means of putting them in execution. And, if we cannot express this idea in fact, yet it is something to come as near it as may be.

I imagine this is so far from being above human power, that I think the industry of one man alone to be equal to it, who is not hindered by his own domestic affairs, or immersed in a multitude of busy cares: for it is evident that the library and catalogue may easily be provided, if money is not wanting; and as to the pandects above described, if the task of composing them were committed to me, I should impose upon myself much severer conditions than I have mentioned there. For first I would delineate the infallible process of human reason, in the investigation of whatever it proposes to itself, by shewing how it proceeds from the first principles or rudiments, by an uninterrupted chain, to the most sublime as well as the lowest application of them. Which art, perhaps, men would not be long without, if hereafter they should carefully examine, by what means such thoughts have arose in the minds of certain men whom they admire, how such apt means have been found out to obtain such an end. How these pandects may be abridged into a manual, such as may be fit for common use, may not be difficult to understand.

But so to fix them in their minds that they shall have no farther need of books (which is what is aimed at by our self-sufficient mathematician) will be thought, by most, to exceed the power of the human mind: since no one that I know of has yet ventured to conceive such a thing in his mind. Yet I believe that men will dismiss something of their incredulity, when they consider seriously with themselves what arts have been found out for strengthening the imagination, for assisting the memory, and for directing the reasoning faculty, and what wonderful effects may be produced by their conjunction and constant exercise.

To this the learned Merfennus made some objections, concerning the collection of the various writings of the mathematicians; but, upon receiving Dr. Pell's answer, Merfennus replied,—‘I had no sooner read your letter, learned Sir, but I became wholly yours, and was ready to subscribe to your opinion, which I intirely approve: an unusual ardor of mind hurried me on: so that I would recommend this undertaking of yours, great as it is, to the great ones of the world, if I could have free access to them. But where is the king that will make a beginning? for I cannot but call it a truly royal design.’—This likewise was approved by the great Des Cartes, See the article *MUSEUM* of Sir Hans Sloane.

MEASURES and WEIGHTS of England.

The following being the most accurate and satisfactory account that I have met with, in regard to the standard weights and measures of England, I should be wanting to my readers if I did not give it them as it is, without any alteration whatsoever: and, although the weights are incorporated with the measures, I do not judge that reason sufficient to make any variation, having the less to say hereafter under the article WEIGHTS.

A state of the English WEIGHTS and MEASURES of capacity, as they appear from the laws, as well ancient as modern; with some considerations thereupon: being an attempt to prove that the present avoirdupois weight is the legal and ancient standard for the weights and measures of this kingdom. By the learned Sam. Reynardson, Esq; F. R. S.

It is declared by * Magna Charta, that there should be, throughout the realm, one measure of wine †, one of ale, and one of corn, viz. the quarter ‡ of London; and that it should be of weights as of measures.

* 1 C. 25.

† Bishop Fleetwood says, it was a good law of king Edgar, that there should be the same weights and the same measures throughout the realm, but it was never well observed. Chron. Pretiosum, p. 34.—And, 2 Inst. p. 41. says, this law was grounded upon the law of God, Deut. xxv. ver. 13, 14.—And that there were good laws for weights and measures made before the conquest by Canute. See Custom. de Norm. c. 16.

‡ See hereafter the contents of a quarter.

This declaration has been repeated in many subsequent laws*; and, by several of them, the treasurer is directed to provide standards of bushels, gallons, and weights of brass, and to send them into every country; and all measures are to be made according to the king's standard, the assize whereof is established by several laws †, as follows: the English penny, called a sterling round, without clipping, to weigh 32 grains of wheat dry, and taken from the midst of the ear: 20 pence make an ounce; 12 ounces a pound; 8 pounds make a gallon of wine ‡; 8 gallons of wine make a London bushel §, which is the eighth part of a quarter. And by other laws § it is declared, that the ton of wine, oil, and honey, should contain of the English measure, according to the ancient assize, 252 gallons; the pipe, or butt, 126; the tertian 84; the hoghead 63; and every barrel 31½, according to the old assize, and to be gauged by the king's gauger.

* 51 Hen. III. stat. 6. 14, 25, and 27 Edw. III. 13, 15, and 16 Rich. II. 9 Hen. VI. 2 Hen. VII. cap. 4. 16 Car. I. and 22 Car. II. cap. 8.

† 51 Hen. III. stat. 1. cap. 3. 31 Edw. I. 12 Hen. VII. cap. 5.

‡ The 12th Hen. VII. cap. 5. says wheat.

§ 9 Hen. VI. c. 8. says,—Buyers of corn in London, bought by a vessel called a fat, containing 9 bushels of corn; which is forbid by the act.

§ 2 and 18 Hen. VI. 1 Ric. III. cap. 13. 5 Ann. cap. 27. sect. 19. 23 Hen. VIII. cap. 7. 2 Hen. VI. cap. 11.

In the reign of Edward III. * an act passed to take away the weight called ancell †, whereby, and by subsequent statutes, it is directed that every sale and buying should be by the even balance.

* 25 Ed. III. stat. 5. cap. 9. 34 Ed. III. cap. 5. 8 Hen. VI. cap. 5. 9 Hen. VI. cap. 8.

† King Stephen, says Knighton, settled measures of length and of land, and made appointments de anfulis, bilancibus &c. Decem Scriptores, p. 2391.

In the 11th year of Hen. VII. complaint being made to the parliament that the ancient statutes and ordinances of the realm relating to weights and measures had not been observed and kept, it was therefore enacted, That there should be delivered, to the knights and citizens of every shire and city, one of every weight and measure, which the king had caused to be made of brass, according to his standard in the Exchequer, to be delivered to the respective places mentioned in the act; and that the inhabitants of all cities, boroughs, and market-towns, should make and use weights and measures made according to the weights and measures so delivered as aforesaid. In the next year, another act passed, reciting, That the king had made such weights and measures of brass, according to the old standard thereof remaining within his Treasury; which weights and measures, upon more diligent examination, had been proved defective, and not made according to the statutes and old laws, and were therefore recalled, and ordered to be broken, and other new bushels and gallons were directed to be made and sized, according to a new bushel and gallon to be made according to the assize, to remain in the king's Exchequer: where we now find a bushel, in the custody of the chamberlain, called the Winchester bushel *, and a gallon agreeing thereto. Upon the bushel there is the following inscription: Henericus Septimus, Dei gratia, rex Angliæ et Franciæ.

VOL. II.

* The first time I find it called so by any law, is in an act 22 Car. II. cap. 8. And afterwards it is called by this name in several acts of parliament; but, in the act just now mentioned, it is said to be commonly called the Winchester measure: perhaps it first took that name from the statute made at Winchester, 16 Rich. II. which directs the clerk of the market to have all his weights and measures ready, and marked and signed according to the standard of the Exchequer.

In the last mentioned act, the assize for weights and measures is in substance the same as in the old statutes, only the pound is said to be the pound Troy of 12 ounces. But since, by this and the former assize laws, the pound is directed to be raised from 240 sterling pennies, it follows, that the gravity of the assize pound was always the same; but the dimensions of measures of capacity respectively, raised from a pound of wine and a pound of wheat, will be in proportion to each other as the specific gravity of wheat is to that of wine or water.

Thus continued the laws relating to the English standard of weights and measures, till after the restoration, when, a duty of excise * being laid upon beer, ale, and other liquors, 36 gallons taken by the gauge, according to the standard of the ale quart (4 whereof made the gallon remaining in the Exchequer) were to be reckoned as a barrel of beer, and 32 such gallons a barrel of ale; and, afterwards, † 34 such gallons of vinegar (and of beer or ale, stronger or smaller) without the bills of mortality, were declared to be a barrel; and all other liquors liable to the excise-duty were to pay according to the wine gallon.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 24. § 20.

† 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 24. § 5. 10 Will. III. cap. 21. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 15.

We now find the officers of the revenue determining the contents of our measures of capacity with great exactness: for, on the 25th of May, 1688, two general officers of excise, in the presence of the lord mayor, the commissioners of excise, Mr. Flamstead, and others, upon an exact trial found, that the old standard wine gallon, kept in Guildhall, did contain but 224 cubic inches; nevertheless, at that time, it was thought convenient to continue the former supposed content, being 231 cubic inches, as the standard wine gallon, and which has since been established by law *.

* 5 Ann. cap. 27. § 17.—This act says, Any cylinder 7 inches diameter, and 6 inches deep, or any vessel containing 231 cubical inches, and no more, shall be a lawful wine gallon.

In the year 1696, an experiment was made, in order to fix the true and exact contents of the brass standard bushel of Henry VII. which being filled with common spring water, and the water measured out with great nicety and exactness, the bushel * was found to contain 2145,6 solid or cubic inches; and the water being weighed by the standard weights in the Exchequer (and by a beam, which would turn with six grains put into either scale, with 30 pounds in each scale) was found equal to 1131 ounces 14 pennyweights Troy; and at the same time and place the standard Troy weights were compared with the standard avoirdupois, and 15 pounds of the latter were found equal to 18 pounds 2 ounces 15 pennyweights Troy, which fixes the pound avoirdupois at 7000 grains.

* Everard's Stereometry, p. 193.

* Such grains as the Troy pound weighs 5760; and upon three several trials, made by the gentlemen of the council of the Royal Society, at the Exchequer, upon a medium, the avoirdupois pound was found equal to 7000,25 Troy grains.

* Ward, in his Young Mathematician's Guide, says, 6999½ grains. Phil. Transf. No 465. p. 181. and No 470.—Bishop Hooper 10. Pharmacopœia Londin. says—The avoirdupois pound is said to be about 7000 grains.

By the first * malt act, which passed soon after the making the experiment upon the Winchester bushel, it is declared, that every bushel 18 inches and half wide, and 8 inches deep, should be esteemed a legal Winchester bushel: and the coal bushel is directed † to be made 19 inches and a half diameter, and to contain the last bushel and one quart of water. The first contains 2150,42 cubic inches, the last 2217,47. We now see different measures established by law §, and, under the excise laws, two different gauges or measures, used for taking the dimensions of wine and ale vessels. The wine gallon contains 231 cubic inches, and the ale gallon 282; but upon what foundation this last measure was established, is difficult to determine.

* 13 Will. III. c. 5. § 28. and 1 Ann. stat. 2. c. 3. § 10.

† 12 Ann. stat. 2. c. 17. § 11.

§ Though contrary to magna charta, and several other laws not repealed.

Troy weights had for some time been established and used for the money affairs in the mint, and for weighing gold,
D d d silver,

silver, and some few commodities; and the avoirdupois were in general use for weighing all heavy and gross commodities. Wine measure was generally looked upon as equal to Troy weight: from hence the managers of the excise duty were, perhaps, led to fix the standard of the ale gallon, bearing the same proportion to the wine gallon, as the avoirdupois pound did to the Troy; and, according to this conjecture, the two gallons answer pretty exactly*, the ale gallon exceeding the proportion by somewhat more than one cubic inch and one quarter; but it exceeds the Winchester gallon, or 268,2 cubic inches, by very near 14 cubic inches: and not one of these measures is agreeable to the words of the assize, which directs†, 'That the bushel shall contain 8 gallons of wheat, the gallon 8 pounds of wheat of Troy weight, the pound 12 ounces of Troy weight, &c. according to the old laws of this land.' It is very plain the law-makers, in Henry the VIIth's time, took the Troy weight for the standard; and most authors who have wrote upon this subject, have followed their example.

* For, as 144 : 175 :: 231 : 280,729—And as 144 : 175 :: 224 : 272,222. This last comes very near the vulgar dry gallon.

† 12 Hen. VII. c. 5.

The great difficulty we are under in fixing upon a standard pound, agreeable to the assize, arises from the uncertainty of the rule laid down in our laws of assize for raising the pound from 7680 grains of wheat; as these grains differ in weight in different countries, and in different years, I might have said in the same field and in the same year.

The uncertainty of a pound so raised might, with great probability, occasion the variety in our weights and measures, so often complained of in our ancient laws, and for the prevention whereof Edward III. in his 14th year, ordered 'Standard weights and measures to be made of brass, and sent into every city and town in the kingdom.'

The laws of assize never received any alteration, except by the 12th of Hen. VII. when the pound is declared to contain 12 ounces of * Troy weight, and the gallon 8 pounds of wheat of Troy weight; and, since the laws have received no change, we have great reason to conclude, that the standard weights themselves never suffered any addition or diminution; but, however this be, we† now find, in the custody of the proper officer of the Exchequer, two sets of weights, kept there as standards; one called Troy, the other avoirdupois weight.

* This is the first time the standard weights are called Troy weights. But, in an act 2 Hen. V. stat. 2. c. 4. and 2 Hen. VI. c. 13. relating to goldsmiths, there is mention made of the pound of Troy.

† Phil. Transf. No 470.—The avoirdupois weight of 14 pounds is marked with a crowned E, and inscribed, XIII Pounds Averdupois.

Elizabeth. Regina.

1582.

The Troy weights, marked with a crowned E, are ounces, from 256 down to the 16th part of an ounce: and there are no whole pounds Troy, pennyweights, or grain weights, at the Exchequer. There not being pounds, or greater weights, seems to be a proof, that these weights were never designed or used for determining the weight of large bodies or heavy goods.

As there is no account handed down to us by our ancestors, shewing at what time, and upon what occasion, these weights, differing considerably in gravity from each other, were there first deposited, we are at a loss to determine which is the ancient standard weight described by the laws of assize. The act in the 12th of Hen. VII. has called the standard weight by the name of Troy weight; this is the first time the weights are so called in any of our assize laws; and, notwithstanding this authority, it will be found very difficult, if not impossible, to reconcile the Troy weight and measure raised therefrom with the words of the assize, and any measure now in being; for the natural and most ready way to determine this question, is to compare both the Troy and avoirdupois weight with measures raised from each, according to the rule laid down in the assize, and with such measures as are or have been used by authority.

'The most exact * geometrical way of expressing the capacity of any vessel or measure, is by expressing in known terms the solidity of a body, which will precisely fill it: the fittest will be water. The solidity of all bodies is best expressed by the help of a cube, whose equal sides we know by a standard measure of length; and it appears, that this way of determining measures of capacity is not only the most geometrical, but also exceeding ancient†.'

* Bishop Cumberland's Essay, p. 60.—who also says, The Egyptians made their ardoeb the cube of their known standard the cubit.—And that the Romans made their quadrantal the cube of their standard the foot.

† Measures of bodies are either determined by their solid contents, or weight. Measures of contents are formed from cubes of assigned lengths. Bishop Hooper, p. 2.

By this rule some gentlemen at Oxford, in the year 1685, determined the weight of a cubic * foot of spring-water, or 1728 solid inches, to be 1000 ounces avoirdupois, and by the same rule the capacity and contents of the standard bushel in the Exchequer were determined in the year 1696, with great care and exactness: by the same rule, the contents of other vessels of capacity have been settled; and in the following table, I have inserted the names of such measures as are of any authority, whose contents are known; by which the proportion they bear to each other, and to measures raised according to the assize, as well from the pound Troy as the pound avoirdupois, will be readily observed.

* Phil. Transf. No 169.

In the next place, let us compare the experiment made upon the cubic foot of spring-water with that upon the Winchester bushel, and we shall find an uniform and perfect agreement between them; and that, upon each trial, a cubic vessel, the sides whereof were equal to an English foot, did contain * 1000 ounces avoirdupois of spring-water. From hence we are led to the discovery of a natural and universal standard for the English weights and measures; and such an one as is, in every respect, agreeable to the words of the assize recorded in our most ancient laws.

oz. pw. cu. in. oz. cu. in.

* For as 1131 : 14 Troy : 2145,6 :: 1000 avoirdupois :: 1,728,041. Some writers upon this subject say, that a cubic foot of spring-water is equal to 76 pounds Troy, which is 10 pennyweights 20 grains more than the 1000 avoirdupois. See Arbuthnot's Tables explained, p. 80, 283. Bishop Hooper's State, &c. p. 11.—But the explainer of Arbuthnot's Tables seems to have been quite ignorant of any experiment since Sir Jonas Moore's time; and to have disregarded the due proportion between the avoirdupois and Troy pound; and, for 175 to 144, his tables, he says, are calculated at 17 to 14.

Magna charta points out the quarter of London, as the only standard for measures and weights of that time, but we are left to guess of what measure or weight it was the quarter part. If we suppose it the quarter of a ton, or 2000 pounds weight, then the quarter was 500 pounds, and the eighth part of that, or a bushel, was equal to a cubic foot, or 62 $\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, from whence less measures and weights were easily deduced. Subsequent assize laws direct the greater measures to be raised from the less; that 8 pounds should make a gallon, 8 gallons a bushel, which was to be the eighth part of a quarter; and by this rule the quarter is raised to 512 pounds, and the ton to 2048 pounds. These measures and weights are raised with ease from known parts of the foot. For a cubic vessel, whose sides are equal to $\frac{1}{16}$ of a foot, will contain a cube of spring-water equal to an ounce avoirdupois; and from hence, by a regular geometrical progression, we shall obtain cubes equal to * 8—64—512 ounces, or to 4—32—256—2048 pounds avoirdupois: and, from a cubic vessel containing one such pound, we shall have other cubic vessels, equal in weight 8—64—512 pounds; and in measure to the gallon, bushel, and quarter, according to the assize.

* Eight ounces are equal to a mark, whereof two, or twice the contents of that cube, make a pound avoirdupois.

The * gallon, bushel, and quarter, are called dry measures, and are used for ascertaining the quantity of corn, and other dry goods; the gallon † is also a liquid measure raised from a pound, in liquids now called a pint §, from whence all the other liquid measures are raised; but with this difference in the proportion, that the liquid bushel is not 64, but 63 pounds or pints, eight whereof make the hoghead equal to 63 gallons; from whence the contents, as well of the larger as smaller vessels or measures of capacity, are settled.

* The half bushel, peck, gallon, pottle, and quart, are directed by 25 Edw. III. stat. 5. c. 10. to be made according to the king's standard.

† See bishop Hooper, p. 6.

§ See note hereafter.—The pint is not mentioned in the assize laws; but bishop Hooper has given a long and learned dissertation upon that measure, and calls it the pint of old, p. 458.

The measures of capacity, thus raised, are sufficiently convenient for common use, and are generally retained at this time; but, for weights, there has been some variety from time to time, in the composition of the larger sort, used for determining the weight of merchandize and heavy goods, as will appear from the following extract from several old acts of parliament.—The stone for weighing lead was settled at 12 pounds *; for wax, sugar, spices, and allum, at eight pounds; of which last, 13 $\frac{1}{2}$, or 108 pounds, made the hundred weight: the sack of wool † was to weigh but 26 stone, 14 pounds to each stone: a weye of § cheese 32 cloves,

* Cay's Abridgment, title Weights, §. 9.

† 25 Edw. III. stat. 5. c. 9. 13 Rich. II. c. 9.

§ 9 Hen. VI. c. 8. The weye equalled 224 pounds.

each

each clove 7 pounds. And, for many years past, the hundred weight has been fixed * at 112 pounds avoirdupois, and that by a general consent, and without any particular law to establish it.

* That is, 14 stone at 8 pounds, or 8 stone at 14 pounds each, according to the old laws, and present usage of the stone weight. The 112 pounds is a very convenient weight for a standard, because it is divisible into more even parts than any less number.—And it is compounded from the affize bushel, it's half and quarter; that is to say, 64, 32, and 16 pounds.

These weights have been universally and immemorially* used in England, with an exception to the weighing of gold, silver, and some very few commodities, for which the Troy weight has been used for a great many years. When it was first introduced into this kingdom, does no where appear; but Mr. Folkes, in his Tables of the English Silver Coins†, tells us, it was not established or used at the mint before the 18th of Hen. VIII.

* The apothecaries (who, next to the goldsmiths, are supposed to make the most use of Troy weights) seldom keep weights adjusted to the Troy pound heavier than two drachms; but, for all above, buy and sell by avoirdupois: and with them, by the term libra in measure, is meant the wine pint; though this measure is not, say they, so denominated, from it's containing an exact pound weight of any liquor, and the term uncia in measure does not denote a twelfth part of the pint, but the sixteenth: though in weight, agreeable to it's signification, it is used to express one twelfth part of a pound; so that an ounce in measure is scarce more than three quarters of an ounce in weight. See Pemberton's Dispensatory, p. 44.

† Page 4. Mr. Folkes says, The pound used at the mint before that time, called the tower or the moneyers pound, was equal to 5400 Troy grains: and, p. 13, 14, that the weight of the groat, from 13 Hen. IV. to 4 Edw. IV. was equal to 60 such grains. Which is agreeable to what is said in an act of parliament of 2 Hen. VI. that the pound Troy of coined money was worth 32 shillings; for 32 shillings, or 96 groats, 60 grains each, weigh 5760 grains, or a pound Troy. Though by the same act, by reason of the scarcity of silver money, and in order to bring bullion into the mint, it was enacted, That silver uncoined, of the same goodness as the money, should be sold only for 30 shillings the pound Troy.

By reducing the liquid bushel, or one eighth of the hoghead, from 64 to 63 pints, it seems plain, that our ancestors took the cubic foot for their model; the contents of such a vessel being $62\frac{1}{2}$ pints or pounds: and from hence, and from what has been shewn before, it is not very unnatural to conclude, that at first our ancestors fixed and established, as well their weights as measures, from known parts of this model; taking always a whole number for each primary weight or vessel, and from thence proceeding, by a regular geometrical proportion, to raise the greater weights or measures: so that the English foot (the undoubted and universal standard of all measures of length within this realm) is also the standard for the avoirdupois * weights, and all measures of capacity.

* The very name avoirdupois, by which our common weights are known, has by some been looked upon as a proof that they were of foreign extraction. The first time I find the word used in our laws, is in an act of Edw. III. stat. 1. where it is applied to wines as well as corn; as it is afterwards in 25 Edw. III. stat. 3. c. 2. and 16 Rich. II. c. 1. And in an act 27 Edw. III. stat. 2. c. 10. there is the following clause:—'Because we have perceived some merchants buy avoirdupois merchandizes by one weight and sell by another, we will and establish, that one weight, one measure, and one yard, be through all the land; and that wools, and all manner of avoirdupois, be weighed by even balance. This king, in his 14th year, had directed standard weights to be made of brass, and sent into every city and town; and I conjecture, that those standards, from the words of the foregoing clause, took the name of avoirdupois, and were the weights by which the merchant used to buy. What were the lighter weights by which they sold, does not appear, perhaps the pound Troy. That the former were the lawful weights, appears by an act 24 Hen. VIII. c. 3. where they are so called; and butchers, who before that time sold their meat by hand, were thereby obliged to provide themselves with beams, scales, and weights sealed, called haberdupois (for avoirdupois); and, in the next reign, the avoirdupois weights, now remaining as standards in the Exchequer, were deposited there, as appears from the name and inscription thereon.

Upon the whole, therefore, I think it is sufficiently proved, that a cubic vessel, whose sides are equal to an English foot, will contain 1000 ounces avoirdupois, or very near the weight of spring water: that weights and measures, deduced by a regular geometrical progression from such a vessel, or from cubic vessels, whose sides are equal to known parts of an English foot, bear an exact analogy to each other, and to

weights and measures raised from a pound, according to the words of our most ancient assize laws. This being considered, and that the avoirdupois weight is now in common use for determining the gravity of all heavy bodies; that this weight now is, and immemorially has been used, for settling the ancient duty of tonnage and poundage, upon all goods and merchandize taken by weight (except some few drugs, which are charged in the book of rates by the ounce Troy); and that there is not the least proof, either in our ancient or modern laws, to induce a belief that this duty was ever generally taken by the Troy weight, or that Troy weights were ever in general and common use in this kingdom; it must surely be allowed, that the weight mentioned in our old laws, or acts of parliament, was the avoirdupois weight.

P O S T S C R I P T.

The learned bishop Cumberland, in his * treatise, says, 'That our English avoirdupois ounce is the same as the Roman ounce; and was probably introduced into this kingdom by the Romans, when they gave laws and planted colonies here, and hath thence continued unchanged to this day; which is not commonly observed, because we use the avoirdupois weights only about heavier commodities; not in weighing silver and gold, which are weighed by the Troy ounce; which I suppose was introduced by the Normans, because it takes it's name † from a French town, Troyes, in Champagne.' Most authors ‡ have been of this opinion. This leads me compare our English foot with the Roman foot, which Mr. Greaves takes as equal to 967 such parts, as ours is 1000. The Roman amphora, or quadrantal, is generally allowed § to be equal to a cubic Roman foot; and to contain 80 pounds, or 960 ounces. Then the side of the amphora is equal to || 986 parts of the English foot, agreeing exactly with the foot deduced by Villalpandus from the congius of Vespasian; and a cubic vessel, whose sides are equal to 967 parts of the English foot, will not contain † quite $904\frac{1}{4}$ ounces; which, if true, reduces the Roman ounce to $412\frac{1}{12}$ grains Troy.

* See p. 11, 103, 107.

† Bishop Hooper, p. 432. is of another opinion as to the derivation of the name.

‡ See Hooper's Enquiry, p. 10, 14, 92. and Arbuthnot's Tables explained, p. 16, 283.

§ See bishop Hooper, p. 152, 175. Greaves's Misc. Works, p. 198, 199, 297, 303.

|| For the cube root of 960 is 986,1.

‡ The cube of 967 is but $904,231,063$. And Mr. Greaves himself says, an amphora made by the pes Colotianus held only $7\frac{1}{2}$ congi, equal to 900 Roman ounces; which comes as near the cube of 967, as can be expected from the uncertain method we took to determine the contents of that amphora, which was by filling it with 7 congi, and as he guessed, about an half of milium. See his Miscellaneous Works, (1737) p. 225.

The TABLE of	Bushels in	Gallons in	Pints in	Wht. of the gall. in avoird. pounds.
	Cub. inch.	Cub. inch.	Cub. inch.	
By the coal act - -	2217,47	277,183	34,648	10,025
By the malt act - -	2150,42	268,8	33,6	9,722
Winchester bushel -	2145,6	268,2	33,525	9,6
From the wine gallon	1848	231	28,875	8,354
The Guildhall gallon	1792	224	28	8,101
16 oz. avoirdupois	1769,472	221,184	27,648	8
12 oz. Troy - -	1456,0224	182,0028	22,75035	6,5826
The following are not supported by any law or authority.				
* The vulg. dry meas.	2178	272,25	34,0625	9,8468
† The ale measure -	2256	282	35,25	10,1995

* Dr. Arbuthnot gives a table of the vulgar dry measure, as the contents of the Winchester measure. And he had so little regard to the avoirdupois weight, that he does not give any table thereof.

† The ale measure even exceeds the coal measure.—And the excess of the ale measure above the Winchester is more than one in twenty of the last measure.

|| See what is said before.—So far Mr. Reynardson.

All measures whatsoever are either receptive or applicative.

The measures of capacity, or receptive measures, are again comprehended under the denomination of liquid and dry measures.

The liquid, for wine, brandy, vinegar, cyder, beer, ale, and such other goods.

The dry, for grains, salt, coals, and such like.

Applicative measures are either,

The yard, ell, cane, aune, and other such measures, for linen and woollen cloth, silks, laces, ribbons, and other such goods. Or,

The

The inch, foot, &c. for wood, or other longer measures of that nature, forland, &c.

Not to speak of the fractions of an English pint, which are not worth the mentioning in a book of trade, the reader may observe, that two pints make a quart, two quarts a pottle, and two pottles a gallon; which measure contains 282 solid inches, and holds of rain-water ten pounds three ounces, or a little more, avoirdupois weight; eight gallons make a firkin of ale, two firkins make a kilderkin, two kilderkins a barrel, and twelve barrels a last.

It is otherwise in measuring of beer; for, though the small measures for ale and for beer be the same, yet they reckon but eight gallons of ale, and count nine of beer to the firkin; two such firkins to the kilderkin, and two kilderkins to the barrel. One barrel and a half, or three kilderkins, or six firkins, or 54 gallons of beer, make a hoghead of beer; two hogheads make a pipe or butt, and two pipes a ton, consisting of 1728 pints, weighing so many pounds.

The wine measures are smaller than those for ale and beer, to which they bear the same proportion as four to five; so that four gallons of ale and beer are very near five gallons of wine. And each gallon of wine is 231 cubical inches, and holds eight pounds, one ounce, and four drachms, avoirdupois weight, of rain-water; eighteen of these gallons make a rundlet, 42 a tierce, 63 a hoghead, 84 a puncheon, 126 a pipe or butt, and 252 a ton.

One pint of wine weighs one pound $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce Troy, and a ton 1700 pounds avoirdupois.

Note, What we generally call a tierce, in speaking of wine measure, is one third part of a puncheon, and one sixth of a ton.

Formerly they made use of the wine measure for beer, ale, cyder, &c. But now that is forbid under severe penalties, and none but the Winchester measure is used. And as for vessels, in which beer, ale, &c. are contained, there is a statute, 23 Hen. VIII. giving power, to the wardens of the mystery of coopers within the city of London, to search and gauge all vessels made for ale, beer, &c. (and also for soap) to be sold within the city, suburbs, or two miles thereof; and examining their contents and weight, and finding them right, to mark them with St. Andrew's cross.

And, by stat. 31 Eliz. all brewers are forbid to sell, or put to sale in London, the suburbs, or within two miles compass of the suburbs, any beer or ale in butts, pipes, puncheons, hogheads, tierces, or such other foreign vessels, 'till they be gauged by the master and wardens of the coopers of the city of London.

By statute 16 and 17 Car. II. It is ordained that all sea-coals brought into the river of Thames shall be sold by the chaldron, to contain 36 bushels heaped, according to the bushel sealed for that purpose at Guildhall, London. And coals, sold by weight, are to be sold after the rate of 112 pounds to the hundred, under the penalty of the forfeiture of all the coals, and double the value thereof, to be recovered in any court of record, or upon complaint to the lord-mayor and justices; one half to the person complaining, and the other to the poor, or repairing of the highways within the parish, &c. And, by the same statute, the lord-mayor and court of aldermen of London are empowered to set rates and prices upon coals to be sold by retail, allowing a competent clear profit to the retailer. This statute by 7 and 8 Will. III. c. 36. is made perpetual.

The received proportion in the weights of liquids is thus: The amphora of the Romans held, of rain-water or wine,

50 pounds of Antwerp weight; $107\frac{5}{8}$ of which make 112 pounds of London; so that it is a little more than 5 per cent. larger than ours.

And a measure, containing of wine or rain-water 50 pounds

Contains of river-water	-	-	-	-	53
Of butter or oil	-	-	-	-	45
Of linseed oil	-	-	-	-	39
Of honey	-	-	-	-	35
Of quick silver	-	-	-	-	850

Of receptive measures for dry goods, such as corn, and all sorts of grains, &c. there is

First, the gallon, which is larger than the wine gallon, and smaller than the ale gallon, contains $272\frac{1}{4}$ inches cubical, and holds the weight of 9 pounds, 13 ounces, $12\frac{1}{2}$ drachms, avoirdupois weight; 2 gallons make a peck, 4 pecks a bushel, 4 bushels a coomb, or cumock, 2 cumocks a quarter, 4 quarters a last, which contains 5120 pints, and the same number of pounds Troy weight.

This is called Winchester measure, and by it, salt, lime, and coals are measured: but, in measuring the two latter of these commodities, the measures are heaped, or else 5 stricked pecks are allowed to the bushel. 36 Bushels make a chaldron of coals, and, on shipboard, 21 chaldrons are allowed to the score.

A TABLE of DRY RECEPTIVE MEASURES.

							Pints							
							Qrts.	2						
							Pott.	2	4					
							Gal.	2	4	8				
							Peck	2	4	8	16			
							Bush	4	8	16	32	64		
							Qrtr	8	32	64	128	256	512	
							Wey	5	40	160	320	640	1280	2560
Last	2	10	80	320	640	1280	2560	5120						

Another TABLE of LONG MEASURE.

				Inches
			Feet	12
		Yard	3	36
	Pole	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$16\frac{1}{2}$	198
Furl.	40	220	660	7920
Mile	8	320	1760	63360

In this table, the pole or perch is computed to be sixteen feet and a half, which is the statute measure; but there are some customary measures which are more, as for fens and woodlands they reckon eighteen feet to the pole, and for forests twenty-one.

A TABLE of SUPERFICIAL MEASURES.

				Feet
			Yard	9
		Pole	$30\frac{1}{4}$	$272\frac{1}{4}$
	Rood	40	1210	10890
Acre	4	160	4810	43560
Mile	640	2560	102400	30976

In this table, you have in a square mile 640 square acres, 2560 square roods, &c. in a square acre 4 square roods, 160 square poles, &c. in a square pole $30\frac{1}{4}$ square yards, and $272\frac{1}{4}$ square feet, and in a square yard 9 feet square. Which being rightly understood, all the tables of reduction are sufficiently explained.

The English mile, by statute law, consists of 5280 London feet, or 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs; of these miles, the experiments of Mr. Norwood and Mr. Picart, demonstrate 69 and somewhat more, to be a degree of the earth's surface, though a degree has generally been reckoned but 60 miles. A marine league is the 20th part of a degree, and most nations agree to reckon so for distances at sea.

A French league is the 25th part of a degree, being near two English miles and three quarters.

A German mile is reckoned to be the fifteenth part of a degree, or better than four English miles.

A Dutch mile, or such as are used in Holland, is near the nineteenth part of a degree, being about three English miles and an half.

An Italian mile is 1000 paces of five Roman feet each, and the Roman foot being $\frac{2}{3}$ of an inch less than the London foot, or as 29 is to 30, it follows, that 76 Italian miles are nearest to a degree, and the Turkish miles are reputed equal to the Italian.

The Danes, Swedes, and Hungarians, make long miles, about a German mile and a half, or at least five or six English miles; the Polish miles are near equal to the Dutch miles, and reckoned about 20 to a degree.

The Scotch and Irish miles are longer than the English by about half.

The Spanish league is estimated at four Italian miles, and are reckoned $17\frac{1}{2}$ to a degree.

The Russians use a short measure they call vorst, which is a little more than three quarters of an English mile.

The Arabian mile, both ancient and modern, is about an English mile and a quarter.

Things that are not sold by weight and measure, are sold by tale.

In the primitive ages of the world, when mankind was but little acquainted with numbers, they counted by their fingers, as many Indian nations do at this time: and thence, probably it is, that the numerical letters, cyphers, and words are at most but ten, and in some places only five.

Several sorts of goods are counted after that manner, such as fish, hides, paper, parchment, fables, and other things.

Cod and ling, and such fish, have 134 to the 100.

Eels 25 to the strike, and 10 strike to the bind.

Herrings 120 to the 100, and 1200 to the 1000, which make a barrel, and twelve barrels make a last.

Of furs, filches, grays, jennets, martins, mincks, and fables, forty skins make a timber; and other skins have five score to the hundred.

Of paper, twenty-four sheets to the quire, twenty quires to the ream, and ten reams to a bale.

Of parchment, twelve skins make a dozen, and five dozen a roll.

Of hides, ten go to a dicker, and twenty to a last.

Hay is sold by the trufs, containing fifty-six pounds, or the load of thirty-six trusses*.

* Stat. 2 Will. and Mar. cap. 8. §. 16. every trufs of old hay offered to be sold in the cities of London and Westminster.

ster, and within the bills of mortality, between the last of August and the first of June, shall contain 56 lb. and every trufs offered to be sold between the first of June and the last of August, being new hay of the summer growth, shall contain 60 lb. being old hay, 56 lb.; and the person bringing the same shall forfeit for every trufs of less weight, 1 s. 6d.

Glass by the seam of twenty-four stone, and the stone of five pounds.

A last of gunpowder contains twenty-four barrels, and the barrel a hundred pounds.

By avoirdupois weight is weighed all things that have waste, as all grocery wares, rosin, wax, pitch, tar, tallow, soap, hemp, flax, wool, &c. all base metals and minerals, as iron, steel, lead, copper, allum, copperas, &c.

The ton avoirdupois is 20 hundred of all things, except lead, which has but 19 hundred and a half to the ton, or fodder.

The hundred weight avoirdupois contains 112 pounds, the stone, or half-quarter of the hundred, is 14 pounds.

But allum, cinnamon, nutmegs, pepper, and sugar, have but 13 pounds and an half to the stone, or half-quarter of the hundred; 27 lb. to the quarter, 54 lb. to the half, and 108 lb. to the whole hundred.

Effex cheese and butter are weighed by the clove, or half-stone, allowing 8 lb. to each clove, and 32 cloves, or 156 lb. to the weye; and in Suffolk they allow 42 cloves, or 336 lb. to the weye.

Wool is sold by the clove, allowing but 7 lb. to the clove, 14 lb. to the stone, 28 lb. to the tod, 182 lb. to the weye, 364 lb. to the sack, and 4368 lb. to the last.

A faggot of steel is 120 lb. a burthen of gad steel is 9 score, or 180 lb. 56 lb. of butter, or 60 lb. of soap, make a firkin, and 2 firkins of either make a barrel.

Butchers allow but 8 lb. to the stone.

OF MEASURES for EXTENDED BODIES.

In England they make use of the aune or ell, for linen only; the yard, or verge, being the ordinary measure for cloth, silks, and all other such goods.

As for timber, and other such goods which have likewise length and breadth, as well as stuffs, they are measured by the foot, which is composed of inches, and the inches of lines; those measures being likewise longer and shorter, according to the usage of each country.

The vessels in which liquid goods, such as wine, brandy, vinegar, beer, oil, honey, &c. are kept, as every other thing, have also different names in several countries, such as barrel, pipe, hoghead, butt, tierce, muid, futaille, &c. of which more in the sequel.

The measures for grain, salt, and other such goods, are also different from one another, and have their different names, as we shall see in it's place.

All sorts of metals, such as gold, silver, brass, tin, lead, &c. as well as many sorts of silks, wool, thread, and several other sorts of goods, as spiceries, soap, tallow, cheese, butter, &c. are sold by certain quantities called weights, which likewise are different from one another in their names and sorts.

Of the division of MEASURES for extended bodies, their differences, and the addition of fractions by the aliquot parts, &c.

OF FOREIGN MEASURES.

The measures for extended bodies, as aunes or ells, canes, verges, or yards, &c. for measuring of cloth, of gold and silver, silk-stuff, linnen and woollen cloth, &c. are commonly divided by merchants into the following parts:

$\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, and $\frac{1}{16}$, or $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{6}$, $\frac{1}{12}$, and $\frac{1}{24}$.

REMARKS.

As for the aunes, and other measures in foreign places, whither merchants may go to buy goods, it is very easy to measure them, either with a compass or a geometrical foot of England, Holland, or any other country; for knowing how many feet, inches, and lines, there is in the aune of Paris, or any other city, it is easy to reduce it into our yard of London, and to discover the difference that is between them.

For the comparison of the English ell with that of the principal trading countries of Europe, see the article ENGLAND, where you will find them represented by tabular inspection, with regard to those several places.

MEASURES for LIQUID GOODS.

Having given a succinct account of the measures made use of for extended goods, and of their difference and conformity with one another, the next thing that falls under consideration, is the different sorts of vessels used for containing of liquids; such as wine, vinegar, brandy, cyder, beer, oil, &c. of which I shall treat with as much order and brevity as possible.

OF MEASURES for WINE and VINEGAR.

The vessels for containing wine and brandy have different names, according to the quantities they contain, and the countries where they are made use of.

The vessel called in Germany woeder, made use of for keeping the wines that grow upon the Rhine and the Moselle, do ordinarily contain 14 aams of Amsterdam, but sometimes they contain more and sometimes less.

The aam of Amsterdam is a measure of 4 anckers, reckoning the ancker of 2 steckans. See the article AAM.

The steckan contains 16 mingles, each of which makes two pints.

The verge, or verteel, of the wines upon the Rhine and the Moselle, &c. is reckoned but 6 mingles, that of brandy is counted $6\frac{1}{2}$ mingles, as we shall see hereafter.

The hoghead of Bourdeaux, according to the just measure, should contain $12\frac{1}{2}$ steckans, or 200 mingles of wine and lee; and 12 steckans, or 192 mingles clear wine; so that the tun of Bourdeaux, consisting of 4 hogheads, contains 50 steckans, or 800 mingles, wine and lee, and 48 steckans, or 768 mingles clear wine.

The tun of Bayonne, and other places thereabout, is reckoned 240 steckans, measure of Amsterdam, there being likewise 4 hogheads to a tun.

In England, and especially at London, they reckon the hoghead 63, and the tun 252 gallons. The said gallon weighs $7\frac{1}{2}$ pounds weight of London; so that the 63 gallons, or the hoghead, should weigh $472\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, and the tun 1890 pounds weight of London. The said gallon is said to contain 4 Paris pints.

The hoghead of Bourdeaux should contain 110 pots with the lee, and 100 pots clear wine, measure of the said place; so that the said pot of Bourdeaux contains about 2 mingles of Amsterdam.

The Bourdeaux tun of wine should weigh with the hoghead, 2000 pounds weight; and, in marine terms in freighting of ships, by a ton, is meant 2000 pounds weight; so that, when it is said any ship is of so many tons, it is to be understood that the ship can carry so many times 2000 pounds weight; though in Holland, Flanders, and other northern countries, they only talk of lasts, containing 2 tons each, or 4000 pounds weight.

The Rhenish and Moselle wines are ordinarily sold at Amsterdam, the former at so many florins of about 20 each, current money, and the latter so many rixdollars, of 50 stivers each, current money, for the aam of 20 verges, or verteels, the verge being, at that rate, 6 mingles, as already said.

French, Spanish, and Portugal wines are sold at so many pound gross the tun of 4 hogheads, and there is ordinarily 1 per cent. rebate for payment in ready money, both buyer and seller paying brokerage, each 6 stivers per tun.

The muid of Paris contains 150 quarts, or 300 pints with the lee, and 280 pints clear wine, measure of Paris.

There are all over France a great many vessels for keeping of wine, different from one another, according to the custom of the several provinces where they are made use of; of which, though there be scarce any possibility to give an exact account, we shall here set down the regular fractions of the muid of Paris, 3 of which make the tun of France; and, as we have occasion to speak of the measures of the other provinces of France, we shall give as distinct an account as we can of their contents.

The pint of Paris is a measure pretty well known all over the world; 2 of those pints make 1 quart, 4 quarts 1 sextier, and 36 sextiers 1 muid of Paris; 3 of which (as is already said) make 1 tun of France.

The measure they make use of in Provence is called a mille-rolle; that of Thoulouse should weigh 130 pounds, and ought to contain 66 Paris pints, which is about 100 pints of Amsterdam.

At Montpellier, and several other places of Languedoc, their muid contains 18 sextiers, and the sextier 32 pots; so that the muid, which makes but 35 steckans, or 560 mingles of Amsterdam, makes 756 pots of Montpellier; by which it appears that the pot of Montpellier is $\frac{1}{38}$ less than the mingle of Amsterdam. However, you must here take notice that the casks of Montpellier are not all of an equal measure, some being bigger than others; and, in several places of Provence, as well as High and Low Languedoc, they frequently transport wines, oils, and other such goods, in vessels made of goat-skins.

The butts and pipes of Seville, Malaga, Alicant, Lisbon, Port a Port, Canaries, and Isles of Fagel, &c. are likewise of different sizes; for the tun of Malaga, consisting of 2 butts or pipes (which they call Perfemyn at Amsterdam) is reckoned only 36 or 37 steckans; and those of other places are reckoned at 25 or 26 steckans the butt or pipe.

As for the wine at Hamburgh and Lubeck, it is sold at so many rixdollars of 48 stivers, or 3 marks lubs per tun.

OF BRANDY.

French Spanish, and Portugeze brandy, is ordinarily put into big casks, which some call pipes, others butts, others pieces, viz. according to the custom of the places, there being no positive measure regulated for that liquor.

In France it is ordinarily put into great casks, which they call at Bourdeaux pieces, at Rochelle, Nantes, Cognac, Mont-

guion, the Isle of Rhé, &c. pipes, which (as we have already said) contain some more than others, there being some which hold at Amsterdam from 60 to 90 verges, or verteels; and they reduce those measures into hogheads, by reckoning as under, for

1 Hoghead makes	27 Verges of Cognac, Montguion, Rochelle, and the Isle of Rhé.
	29 Of Nantes, and other places in Britany and Anjou.
	32 Of Bourdeaux, and other places in Guienne.
	32 Of Bayonne, and places thereabouts.
	30 Of Amsterdam, and other places of Holland.
	30 Of Hamburgh and Lubeck.
	27 Of Embden.

In Provence and Languedoc they sell it at so much the quintal, or 100 weight with the cask.

At Bruges they call the verges festers, of 16 stoups to a fester, which they sell at so much a stoup.

At London, and generally through all England, they count only by gallons, as we have said already.

The mingle of brandy weighs, at Amsterdam, 2 pounds 4 ounces; and the verge, or verteel, about 14 pounds; at which rate the 30 verges must weigh about 320 pounds.

At Bourdeaux, though pieces of brandy contain from 50 to 90 verges, they reckon but 32 to the hoghead; the verge is something less than $3\frac{1}{2}$ pots.

You must know that whatever there is at Bourdeaux in a piece of brandy more than 50 verges, is called by the farmers of the king's duty-exces, or an excess, and pays so much per verge besides the duties of fortie, or exportation (as they call it) for the 50 verges.

Those that make brandy seldom or never put it in small barrels, or tierces, except it be designed for some particular places in America, or elsewhere, where those small measures are advantageously sold to people, who, perhaps, would not be able to buy a pipe at a time; for a piece of brandy that contains perhaps $1\frac{1}{2}$ of an ordinary piece, costs but very little more of freight and carriage than one that contains $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$ less.

At Hamburgh it is likewise sold at so many pounds gross, of $7\frac{1}{2}$ marks lubs per pound gross, or at so many rixdollars in banco; but at Lubeck it is paid in current money, there being no bank.

At Bremen, Copenhagen, and Embden, it is also sold at so many rixdollars; and in this last place the hoghead is counted but 27 verges.

At London it is sold by the ton of 252 gallons; and, in short, in every country according to the custom of the country, which must always be strictly enquired into by the dealers for their government.

OF MEASURES for OIL of OLIVES.

The oil of olives is ordinarily kept in butts or pipes, containing from 20 to 25 steckans, at 16 mingles a steckan; and there go 717 mingles, or 1434 pints of Amsterdam, to the tun of oil. They reckon at Genoa that the barrel of oil of olives weighs $187\frac{1}{2}$ pounds nett, of their weights, which make 125 pounds of Amsterdam; and 14 barrels make 717 mingles of the said place, or thereabout.

At Leghorn, the barrel of oil of olives weighs 85 pounds of their weight, which is a little more than 59 pounds of Amsterdam.

In Provence they sell it by the measure of that country, called millerolle, containing 66 Paris pints, which make about 100 pints of Amsterdam; and, in some places of that country and of Lower Languedoc, they put it in certain vessels made of goat-skins, as they do the wine.

In Spain and Portugal it is put in butts and pipes, to be carried over seas, and sometimes in great earthen vessels called jars.

OF MEASURES for FISH-OIL.

Coarse fish-oil is ordinarily kept in barrels, containing from 15 to 20 steckans each.

OF MEASURES for HONEY.

Honey is kept in many different sorts of vessels of wood and earth, and sold in some places by measure, and in other places by weight.

At Amsterdam they sell it at so many pounds gross per ton, consisting of 6 tierces or aams, or by so many florins the barrel, or the 100 weight. The Bourdeaux and Bayonne honey is sold at Amsterdam from 30l. to 40l. gross the tun.

OF ROUND MEASURES for GRAIN, &c.

As the great diversity of measures of capacity renders it very troublesome for merchants to calculate the quantities thereof, it will be very necessary to give an account of those that are used in the principal places of Europe for trade.

The last is of several sorts, but all comprehended in these two, viz. the sea-last and that used by land.

A last is reckoned at sea both with regard to measure and weight according to the nature of the goods.

In measure, there are allowed to a last of goods 2 tuns, or 8 hogheads of wine, 5 pieces of brandy or prunes, 12 barrels of herrings or pease, 13 barrels of pitch, 4 pipes or butts of oil of olives, and 7 quarters or barrels of fish-oil.

By weight, there is generally allowed to the last 4000 lb. but, as wool is bulky, they reckon only 2000 lb. to the last thereof, and 3600 lb. of almonds; and so likewise they make some abatements of several other sorts of goods, in proportion to their bulk.

The land last is not the same in all places, there being some difference introduced by custom in the several countries of Europe.

Of the MEASURES of CAPACITY of AMSTERDAM and HOLLAND, &c.

The last of Amsterdam contains 27 muds, and each mud 4 scheppels.

Or, otherwise, the last of Amsterdam contains 36 sacks, and the sack 3 scheppels.

So that the mud is $\frac{1}{3}$ of the scheppel, and the cheppel is only $\frac{1}{3}$ of the mud.

A last of wheat commonly weighs between 4200 and 4800 lb. Rye between 4000 and 4200 lb. and barley between 3200 and 3400 lb.

But those commodities are so much subject to alteration by their humidity, &c. that there is but little certainty in their weight.

The last of Amsterdam makes 19 sextiers of Paris, or 38 bushels of Bourdeaux; and three lasts make 4 muds of Rouen.

The last of Munickendam, Edam, Purmeran, and several other places of North Holland, is reckoned equal to that of Amsterdam.

But that of Hoorn and Enchuyfen, being likewise towns in North Holland, is of 22 muds, or 44 sacks, of 2 scheppels each; and so is that of Muyden, Naerden, and Weefoop, small towns in the neighbourhood of Amsterdam.

At Haerlem they reckon 38 sacks to the last, their sacks consisting of 3 scheppels, 4 of which make 1 hoedt of Rotterdam, and 14 of those sacks make 1 hoedt of Delft.

The last of Alckmaer, in North Holland, contains 26 sacks. They reckon 44 sacks to the last of Leyden, and 8 scheppels to the sack.

The last of Rotterdam, Delft, and Schiedam, is composed of 29 sacks, and the sack of 3 scheppels, of which $10\frac{2}{3}$ make 1 hoedt; where, it is to be observed, that the last of those places is 2 per cent. more than that of Amsterdam.

At Tergow they reckon 28 sacks to the last, 3 scheppels to the sack, and 32 scheppels to the hoedt.

Of the LAST of UTRECHT.

At Utrecht they reckon 25 muds, or sacks, to the last, $10\frac{1}{2}$ of which sacks make 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.

The last of Amesfort is composed of 64 scheppels.

That of Montfoort, Yffelstein, Vianen, &c. is greater than that of Rotterdam; it is composed of 18 muds, and the mud of 2 sacks.

Of the LAST of FRIESLAND.

The last of Leeuwarden, Haerlingen, and other towns of West Friesland, is composed of 33 muds.

And that of Groningen in East Friesland is of the same measure.

Of the LAST of GUELDERLAND, and the country of CLEVES.

The last of Nimeguen, Arnhem, and Drefburgh, is composed of 22 mouvers, and the mouver of 4 scheppels, 8 of which mouvers make 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.

At Thiel they reckon 33 scheppels to the last.

At Burenande 68 scheppels.

At Haerderwick they reckon 11 muds to 10 of Amsterdam.

Of the LAST of OVER-YSSEL.

The last of Campen is of 25 muds for corn, 9 of which make 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.

And 9 muds of Zwoll make likewise 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.

The last of Deventer contains 36 muds of 4 scheppels each.

Of the LAST of ZEALAND.

The last of Middleburgh is composed of $4\frac{1}{2}$ sacks of 2 scheppels each, or a little more; and that of Flessing, Zirickzee, the Brill, and some other places, is somewhat different from it, the sack being there reckoned $2\frac{1}{2}$ scheppels.

Of the LAST of BRABANT.

The last of Antwerp is composed of 38 verteels, of which $37\frac{1}{2}$ make 1 last of Amsterdam.

Their verteel is composed of 4 mukens, and 32 verteels make the sack for oats.

At Brussels they reckon 25 sacks equal to the last of Amsterdam.

At Malines they reckon 28 verteels equal to the last of Amsterdam.

The last of Louvain is composed of 37 muds, and each mud of 8 halfters.

At Breda and Steenbergue they reckon $33\frac{1}{2}$ verteels to the corn-last, and 29 for oats; and 13 verteels make 8 sacks, or 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.

At Bergen-op-Zoom, they allow 34 verteels to the last of corn, and $28\frac{1}{4}$ for oats.

That of Bois-le-Duc is composed of $20\frac{1}{2}$ mouvers, 8 of which make 1 hoedt of Amsterdam.

Of the LAST of several towns in FLANDERS.

The last of Ghent is composed of 56 halfters for corn, and of 38 for oats: their mud is composed of 6 sacks, each sack of 2 halfters.

At Bruges the last is composed of $17\frac{1}{2}$ hoedts for corn, and $14\frac{1}{2}$ for oats, equal to the last of Amsterdam.

At St. Omers, the last is reckoned $22\frac{1}{2}$ raziers, the razier consisting of 2 scheppels.

At Dixmude, they reckon $30\frac{1}{2}$ raziers to the last of wheat, and 24 for oats.

At L'Isle, they reckon 41 raziers to the last of wheat, and 30 for oats.

At Gravelin, they reckon $22\frac{1}{2}$ raziers to the last of corn, and $18\frac{3}{4}$ for oats.

Eighteen raziers of Dunkirk are equal to one hoedt of Rotterdam.

Of the LAST of LIEGE.

The last of Liege is composed of 96 sextiers, of 8 muds each: they reckon the corn-last of Tongres 15 muds, and that for oats but 14.

Of the LAST of GREAT-BRITAIN and IRELAND.

The last of London consists of $10\frac{1}{2}$ quarters, or barrels, composed of 8 bushels each, and the bushel of 4 gallons.

The bushel weighs between 56 and 60 lb. and 10 bushels of England make about 1 last of Amsterdam.

In Scotland, they reckon 38 bushels to the last, and 18 gallons to the bushel; and in Ireland the same thing.

Of the LAST of DANTZICK.

At Dantzick they reckon 36 scheppels to the last, which is equal to 58 scheppels of Amsterdam.

They likewise reckon 16 schipponts to the last, and 340 lb. to the schippont, which makes 5440 lb. to the last; but they give only 15 schipponts or 5100 lb. weight the last of oats.

They likewise divide their last at Dantzick into 16 sextiers, measure of Paris, or 20 bushels of Bourdeaux.

They buy and sell their corn at Dantzick, as every other thing, by Polish florins and gros.

Of the LAST of RIGA.

At Riga they reckon 46 looper to be equal to the last of Amsterdam; and they buy and sell it by rixdollars of 3 florins; or 90 Polish gros.

Of the LAST of KONINGSBERG.

Six last of that place are equal to 7 of Amsterdam.

Of the LAST of COPENHAGEN.

They have there several lasts, which differ from one another considerably, according to the different sorts of grain, or other commodities that are measured by them. Ricard makes mention of three several sorts of lasts usual in Copenhagen, viz. of 42 barrels, of 80 scheppels, and of 96 scheppels.

Of the LAST of STOCKHOLM.

At Stockholm they reckon 23 barrels to the last.

Of the LAST of HAMBURGH, BREMEN, and EMBDEN.

The last of Hamburg consists of 90 scheppels.

At Bremen they reckon 40 scheppels to the last; and 8 lasts of Bremen have held out to 7 lasts, 18 muds, and 1 scheppel, at Amsterdam.

At Embden they reckon $15\frac{1}{2}$ barrels to the last.

Of the MUID, &c. of FRANCE.

The principal measure made use of for grain, &c. at Paris, and most other places of the kingdom is called muid.

The muid contains 12 sextiers, and the sextier 12 bushels.

The sextier of good wheat weighs between 244 and 248 lb. marc weight.

They divide the sextier of oats into 24 bushels, which again are subdivided into several smaller measures.

Nineteen sextiers of Paris are reckoned equal to 1 last of Amsterdam.

The muid of Roüen contains 12 sextiers, which are equal to 14 of Paris: it ought to weigh about 3360 lb. marc weight, and makes 28 bushels of Bourdeaux.

Four muids of Roüen are reckoned equal to 3 lasts of Amsterdam.

The sextier of corn weighs 210 lb. weight of Roüen, and is divided into 2 mines, and the mine into 4 bushels.

The muid of Orleans ought to weigh 600 lb. and is composed of 12 mines, equal to $2\frac{1}{2}$ sextiers of Paris, or 5 bushels of Bourdeaux.

The

The measure made use of at Lyons, called *afnée*, is divided into 6 bushels, equal to $1\frac{1}{3}$ sextier, measure of Paris, or $2\frac{2}{3}$ bushels of Bourdeaux.

Eight bushels of Rouën make 1 sextier of Paris, and 2 bushels of Bourdeaux.

The *afnée* of Macon makes $1\frac{2}{3}$ sextiers of Paris, or $3\frac{1}{3}$ bushels of Bourdeaux.

The 5 bushels of Avignon make 3 sextiers of Paris, and 6 bushels of Bourdeaux.

The sextier of Montpellier is composed of 2 emines, and the emine of 2 quarters. The sextier, weighing between 90 and 95 lb. weight of that town, being between 75 and 80 lb. marc weight: so that 100 sextiers make 1 last 22 muids of Amsterdam.

The sextier of Castres is composed of 2 emines, and the emine of 16 bushels. The sextier weighs about 200 lb. weight of that place, which is about 170 lb. marc weight; so that it may be reckoned that 1001 sextiers of Castres make 4 lasts of Amsterdam.

The sextier of Abbeville is composed of 16 bushels, and is equal to that of Paris.

The sextier of Amiens weighs from 50 to 52 lb. and 5 sextiers.

The sextier of Bologne weighs 270 lb. small weight; and 8 sextiers of that place render 5 of Paris.

The sextier of Calais weighs 260 lb. and 12 of them render 13 of Paris.

Which sextier of Paris renders,

At	St. Valery	-	-	-	1 Sextier,
	Dieppe	-	-	-	18 Mines,
	Havre de Grace	-	-	-	$5\frac{1}{4}$ Bushels,
	Amboise	-	-	-	14 Bushels,
	Saumur	-	-	-	1 Bushel,
	Tours	-	-	-	14 Bushels,
	Blois	-	-	-	20 Bushels,
	Aubeterre	-	-	-	5 Bushels,
	Barbiefieux	-	-	-	5 Bushels,
	Perigueux	-	-	-	5 Bushels.

The sextier of Arles weighs only 93 lb. marc weight, and the load is 360 lb. weight of that country.

The load of Beaucaire is 2 per cent. greater than that of Arles.

The load of Marseilles is composed of 4 emines, and weighs 300 lb. weight of Marseilles, or thereabout, which make 343 lb. marc weight; 100 lb. of which make $123\frac{1}{2}$ lb. weight of Marseilles; so that the emine weighs 75 lb. weight of Marseilles.

The load of St. Giles's is 18 or 20 per cent. greater than that of Arles.

The load of Tarseon is 2 per cent. less than that of Arles.

The load of Toulon is composed of 3 sextiers of that place, and the sextier contains $1\frac{1}{2}$ emines, 3 of which make 2 sextiers of Paris; or otherwise, they reckon that the bushel weighs 31 lb. and that $7\frac{3}{4}$ bushels make 1 sextier of Paris.

The ton of Auray in Britany is reckoned 2200 lb.

That of Audierne 2300 lb.

That of Brest is 2240 lb.

That of Hennebon 2950 lb.

Port Lewis the same.

Quimpercorentin the same.

The ton of Nantes is composed of 10 sextiers, and the sextier of 16 bushels: it weighs between 2200 and 2250 lb. the measure being heaped, and 18 or 20 per cent. less, if otherwise.

The ton of Rennes weighs 2400 lb.

That of St. Malo the same.

The ton of Bricux 2600 lb.

That of Rochelle and Maran 42 bushels.

OF SPAIN.

At Seville they reckon 4 cahys to a last, each cahy consisting of 12 anegras.

The fanegue of Cadiz weighs $93\frac{3}{4}$ lb. weight of Marseilles, $3\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of which make the load of 300 lb. weight of Marseilles aforesaid, or 243 lb. marc weight.

OF PORTUGAL.

At Lisbon they reckon 4 alguers to the fanegue, 15 fanegues to the muid, and 4 muids to the last of Amsterdam.

OF ITALY.

Grain is sold at Genoa by the mine.

Two sacks of wheat at Leghorn make 288 lb. weight of Marseilles.

Corn is sold at Venice by the sextier or storo, which is the ordinary measure, two of which make a load of Marseilles.

Of the chief MEASURES of CONSTANTINOPLE, and of the EAST-INDIES in general.

There being but about 3 per cent. difference betwixt the aunes of Amsterdam and pico's of Constantinople, 100 aunes of Amsterdam make 103 pico's of Constantinople; 100 pico's of Constantinople make 97 aunes of Amsterdam.

MEASURES OF FORT ST. GEORGE, OF MADRAS.

GAINR MEASURES.

1 Measure weighs about - - - 2 lb. 10 oz. avoird.
8 Ditto is 1 mercial - - - 21 - -
3200 Ditto is 400 ditto, or 1 garfe 8400 - -
1 Madras rupee weighs 7 dwts. 11 gr. Troy, and is better than English standard 14 dwts. 10 gr. in 1 lb: it is country-touch $9\frac{7}{8}$, China-touch $98\frac{3}{4}$. See EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

LIQUID and DRY MEASURES.

1 Measure is equal to $1\frac{1}{2}$ pint English of 423 cubic inches.
8 Ditto are equal to 1 mercial of 3384 cubic inches.
400 Mercals are equal to 1 garfe of 1,353,600 cubic inches.
1 Covid is equal to $18\frac{6}{16}$ inches.
N. B. One measure weighs about 2 lb. 8 oz. avoirdupois.
Eight ditto weigh about 21 lb. or 22 lb.
3200 Ditto is 400 mercals, or 1 garfe, which weighs 8400 lb. which is $3\frac{3}{4}$ tons, or 100 Bengal bazaar maunds of 82 lb. 2 oz. 2 dr. each.

BENGAL MEASURES.

One measure is five feer.

Eight ditto are forty feer.

The covid (in cloth-measure) is nine inches.

OF MALACCA MEASURES.

A Malacca quoin is 3200 chupas, or 800 cantins, equal to 5000 Dutch pounds, or 5475 lb. English, or Canton peculs (according to the Dutch calculation of 125 lb. to a pecul) 40 peculs.

A last is 2000 chupas, 500 cantins, 3000 Dutch pounds, 24 peculs, 3285 lb. English.

ANJENGO MEASURE.

One Anjengo covid is eighteen inches English.

CALLICUT and TELlicherry MEASURE.

One covid is eighteen inches English; and the Callicutt guz, made use of in measuring timber, is equal to $28\frac{2}{10}$ inches English.

They likewise, sometimes at Callicut, measure their timber by the covid and borrebl; twelve borrebbs is one covid when the timber is sawed, and twenty-four borrebbs is one covid when unsawed: the price generally is one Callicut fanam per solid covid.

CARWAR MEASURE.

One covid is eighteen inches English.

SURAT MEASURES.

Are the larger and lesser covid, viz.

One covid of 36 inches, and one covid 27 inches.

By the latter all things are sold except broad cloath, velvet, and fatten, which are sold by the large covid, or English yard.

GOMBROON LONG MEASURE.

93 Guz are equal to 100 yards English.

MOCHA MEASURES.

Rice, and other grain, are sold by the kalla and tomand; forty kallas is one tomand, and weighs about 165 lb. but the governor's custom (of half a kalla per tomand upon all grain sold) being deducted, and the intolerable cheat in the measuring, together with the pilferage from the water-side home, being allowed for, the Bengal maund will not come out above nineteen kallas; whereas one bag, or Bengal maund, ought to hold out more than a tomand; but, for the foregoing reason, two Bengal maunds seldom come out above thirty-eight kallas, and rarely that. See EAST-INDIA-COMPANY and EAST-INDIA TRADE.

Oil is sold by the cudda, noosfia, and vakia.

Sixteen vakias is one noosfia.

Four noosfias, or measures, one cuddy poise, about 18 lb.

Of late years the price has been from three to five noosfias per Mocha dollar; and, computing the dupper of two Bengal factory maunds to hold out about 67 or 68 measures each, at which rate the noosfia, or measure, weighs about $2\frac{1}{4}$. Cotton is sold by the hearf, and nine hearfs is $11\frac{1}{2}$ Mocha dollars: it generally sells from 30 to 40 hearfs per bahar.

LONG MEASURE.

The guz is twenty-five inches English.

The covid is nineteen inches English.

CHINA.

CANTON MEASURE.

Ten punt is one covid in piece goods, equal to $14\frac{5}{8}$ inches.

REMARKS.

The following conformity of measures in regard to grain being of use, we shall give the reader the same from La Bibliothèques Jeunes Negocians, by the Sieur Larue, merchant at Lyons, dedicated to the count de Maurepas, and published in the year 1747; which is esteemed the most modern and authentic account that is published in Europe.

Of the CONFORMITY of the MEASURES of AMSTERDAM, PARIS, and BOURDEAUX, with regard to GRAIN.

Names of places.	Different measures.	Measure of Amsterdam.	Measure of Paris.	Measure of Bourdeaux.
A.				
Abbeville	6 Sextiers	7 Muds	5 Sextiers	10 Bushels
Agen	100 Sacks	3 Lafts	56 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	113 Bushels
Alby	100 Sextiers	4 Lafts	75 Sextiers	150 Bushels
Alcmaer	26 Sacks	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Amboise	14 Bushels	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Amersfort	64 Scheppels	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Amiens	4 Sextiers	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Amsterdam	1 Laft	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Antwerp	32 $\frac{1}{2}$ Verteels	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Aubeterre	5 Bushels	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Audienne	1 Ton	14 Muds	10 Sextiers	20 Bushels
Auray	100 Bushels	35 Muds	25 Sextiers	50 Bushels
Avignon	5 Bushels	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds	3 Sextiers	6 Bushels
B.				
Barbesieux	5 Bushels	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Bayonne	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Conques	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Beucaire	18 Sextiers	7 Muds	5 Sextiers	10 Bushels
Beaumont	100 Sacks	2 Lafts 17 Muds	50 Sextiers	100 Bushels
Beauvais	1 Ton	18 Muds	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	25 Bushels
Bergerac	1 Pipe	5 Muds	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	7 Bushels
Bergen-op-Zoom	34 Verteels	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Bois-le-Duc	20 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mouv.	1 Laft 5 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Blois	20 Bushels	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud	1 Sextier	2 Bushels
Bologne	8 Sextiers	7 Muds	5 Sextiers	10 Bushels
Bommel	28 Sacks	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Bordeaux	38 Bushels	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Bouret	100 Sacks	3 $\frac{1}{4}$ Lafts	66 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	133 Bushels
Bréau	100 Cartieres	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Lafts	66 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	133 Bushels
Breda	32 $\frac{1}{2}$ Verteels	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Bremen	40 Scheppels	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Brest	1 Ton	14 Muds	10 Sextiers	20 Bushels
Bruges	17 $\frac{1}{2}$ Hoedts	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Brussels	25 Sacks	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
C.				
Cadillac	100 Sacks	3 Lafts	57 Sextiers	114 Bushels
Cadiz	46 Fanegas	27 Muds	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Cahors	100 Cartes	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Calais	12 Sextiers	18 Muds	13 Sextiers	26 Bushels
Campan	25 Muds	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Canville	100 Sacks	3 Lafts	57 Sextiers	114 Bushels
Castel-jaloux	100 Sacks	2 Lafts 23 Muds	54 Sextiers	108 Bushels
Castel-mauron	1 Pipe	5 Muds	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	7 Bushels
Castenau Medoc	100 Quartiers	3 Lafts 10 Muds	64 Sextiers	128 Bushels
Castel-Sararin	100 Sacks	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Lafts	67 Sextiers	134 Bushels
Castres Languedoc	100 Sextiers	4 Lafts	75 Sextiers	150 Bushels
Caude-Coste	100 Sacks	3 Lafts	58 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	117 Bushels
Clairac	100 Sacks	2 Lafts 24 Muds	56 Sextiers	112 Bushels
Concarneau	1 Ton	13 Muds	9 Sextiers	18 Bushels
Condom	100 Sacks	2 Lafts 12 Muds	48 Sextiers	96 Bushels
Coningberg	6 Lafts	7 Lafts	133 Sextiers	266 Bushels
Copenhagen	42 Tons	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Créon	100 Sacks	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Lafts	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	125 Bushels
D.				
Dantzick	1 Laft	14 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds	10 Sextiers	20 Bushels
Delft	29 Sacks	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Deventer	36 Muds	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Dieppe	18 Mines	1 Mud	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Dixmude	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ Raziers	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Doesborough	22 Mouvers	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Dort, or Dordrecht	24 Sacks	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Dunkirk	100 Raziers	8 Lafts 11 Muds	102 Sextiers	204 Bushels
Dunds	100 Sacks	3 Lafts	57 Sextiers	114 Bushels
E.				
Edam	27 Muds	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Eguillon	100 Sacks	2 Lafts 12 Muds	48 Sextiers	96 Bushels
Embsen	15 $\frac{1}{4}$ Ton	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Enchuyfen	44 Sacks	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
England	240 Quarters	25 Lafts	475 Sextiers	950 Bushels
Espersack	100 Sacks	2 Lafts 17 Muds	50 Sextiers	100 Bushels
Estaffort	100 Bushels	2 Lafts 24 Muds	56 Sextiers	112 Bushels
F.				
Flessing	40 Sacks	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Fronfac	100 Sacks	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Lafts	66 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	133 Bushels
Fronton	100 Sacks	3 Lafts 14 Muds	67 Sextiers	134 Bushels
G.				
Gaillac	100 Sextiers	4 Lafts 15 Muds	86 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	173 Bushels
Ghent	56 Halfters	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Genfac	100 Sacks	2 Lafts 14 Muds	68 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers	137 Bushels
Gimond	100 Sacks	5 Lafts 6 Muds	99 Sextiers	198 Bushels
Goes	40 Sacks	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels
Goudies	28 Sacks	1 Laft	19 Sextiers	38 Bushels

Names of places.	Different measures.	Measure of Amsterdam.	Measure of Paris.	Measure of Bourdeaux.
Gravelines - -	22 $\frac{1}{2}$ Raziers - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Grenada - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts 10 Muds - -	64 Sextiers - -	128 Bushels
Grifoles - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts 10 Muds - -	64 Sextiers - -	128 Bushels
Groeninguen - -	33 Muds - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
H.				
Haerlem - -	38 Sacks - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Hamburgh - -	90 Scheppels - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Harderwyck - -	11 Muds - -	10 Muds - -	7 Sextiers - -	14 Bushels
Harlingen - -	33 Muds - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Havre de Grace - -	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ Bushels - -	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud - -	1 Sextier - -	2 Bushels
Hennebon - -	1 Ton - -	18 Muds - -	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	25 $\frac{1}{2}$ Bushels
Hoorn - -	44 Sacks - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
I.				
Ireland - -	38 Bushels - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
L.				
La Brille - -	40 Sacks - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
La Guerre - -	100 Sacks - -	2 Lafts 23 Muds - -	54 Sextiers - -	108 Bushels
La Magiftere - -	100 Sacks - -	2 Lafts 24 Muds - -	56 Sextiers - -	112 Bushels
Lanion - -	1 Ton - -	14 Muds - -	10 Sextiers - -	20 Bushels
La Reolle - -	100 Sacks - -	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Lafts - -	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	125 Bushels
La Roche de Rion - -	1 Ton - -	13 Muds - -	9 Sextiers - -	18 Bushels
La Rochel - -	42 Bushels - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Lavaur - -	100 Sacks - -	4 Lafts - -	76 Sextiers - -	152 Bushels
Layrac - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts 4 Muds - -	60 Sextiers - -	120 Bushels
Le Mas d'Agenois - -	100 Sacks - -	2 Lafts 20 Muds - -	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	105 Bushels
Le Mas de Verdun - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts 14 Muds - -	67 Sextiers - -	134 Bushels
Les Adrieus - -	1 Ton - -	13 Muds - -	9 Sextiers - -	18 Bushels
Les Pare - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts 14 Muds - -	67 Sextiers - -	134 Bushels
Leeuwarden - -	33 Muds - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Leyden - -	44 Sacks - -	36 Sacks - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Leytour - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts - -	57 Sextiers - -	114 Bushels
Libourne - -	100 Sacks - -	2 Lafts 24 Muds - -	56 Sextiers - -	112 Bushels
Liege - -	96 Sextiers - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Lifle in Flanders - -	41 Raziers - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Limuel - -	1 Pipe - -	5 Muds - -	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ Sextiers - -	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ Bushels
Lion - -	3 Afnées - -	5 Muds - -	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ Sextiers - -	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ Bushels
Lifbon - -	240 Alquieres - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Lifle d'Albegeois - -	100 Sextiers - -	7 Lafts 5 Muds - -	130 Sextiers - -	260 Bushels
Lifle Dieu - -	1 Ton - -	14 $\frac{1}{4}$ Muds - -	10 Sextiers - -	20 Bushels
Livourne, or Leghorn - -	2 Sacks - -	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud - -	1 Sextier - -	2 Bushels
London - -	10 $\frac{2}{5}$ Quartiers - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Louvain - -	27 Muds - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Lubeck - -	95 Scheppels - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
M.				
Macon - -	3 Afnées - -	7 Muds - -	5 Sextiers - -	10 Bushels
Malines - -	28 Verteels - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Maran - -	24 Bushels - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Marfeilles - -	1 Load - -	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud - -	1 Sextier - -	2 Bushels
Mas d'Agenois - -	100 Sacks - -	2 Lafts 20 Muds - -	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	105 Bushels
Mas de Verdun - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts 14 Muds - -	67 Sextiers - -	134 Bushels
Middleburgh - -	42 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sacks - -	36 Sacks - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Miramban - -	100 Bushels - -	3 Lafts - -	57 Sextiers - -	114 Bushels
Mirandous - -	100 Bushels - -	3 Lafts - -	57 Sextiers - -	114 Bushels
Moiffac - -	100 Sacks - -	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Lafts - -	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	125 Bushels
Moncaffin - -	100 Sacks - -	2 Lafts 13 Muds - -	54 Sextiers - -	108 Bushels
Montauban - -	{ 100 Sextiers - -	7 Lafts 10 Muds - -	140 Sextiers - -	280 Bushels
Montandre - -	{ 100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	70 Sextiers - -	140 Bushels
Montfort - -	100 Bushels - -	3 Lafts 5 Muds - -	62 Sextiers - -	124 Bushels
Montpellier - -	18 Muds - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Morlaix - -	100 Sextiers - -	1 Laft 22 Muds - -	35 Sextiers - -	70 Bushels
Morlaix - -	1 Ton - -	13 Muds - -	9 Sextiers - -	18 Bushels
Munickendam - -	27 Muds - -	27 Muds - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Muyden - -	44 Sacks - -	27 Muds - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
N.				
Narden - -	44 Sacks - -	27 Muds - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Nantes - -	1 Ton - -	13 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	9 Sextiers - -	18 Bushels
Narbonne - -	100 Sacks - -	5 Lafts - -	95 Sextiers - -	190 Bushels
Narmoutier - -	1 Ton - -	13 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	19 Bushels
Negrepelifie - -	{ 100 Sextiers - -	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ Lafts - -	158 Sextiers - -	316 Bushels
Nerac - -	{ 100 Sacks - -	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ Lafts - -	79 Sextiers - -	158 Bushels
Nimeguen - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts - -	57 Sextiers - -	114 Bushels
Nimeguen - -	22 Mouvers - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
O.				
Oleans - -	1 Muid - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
P.				
Pain d'Avaine - -	1 Ton - -	13 Muds - -	9 Sextiers - -	18 Bushels
Paris - -	{ 1 Muid - -	17 Muds - -	12 Sextiers - -	24 Bushels
Paris - -	{ 100 Sextiers - -	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ Lafts - -	100 Sextiers - -	200 Bushels
Perigueux - -	5 Bushels - -	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	1 Sextier - -	2 Bushels
Pont l'Able - -	1 Ton - -	13 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	19 Bushels
Port Louis - -	1 Ton - -	13 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	19 Bushels
Purmerent - -	27 Muds - -	27 Muds - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Puymirol - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts - -	57 Sextiers - -	114 Bushels

Names of places.	Different measures.	Measure of Amsterdam.	Measure of Paris.	Measure of Bourdeaux.
Q.				
Quiberon - -	1 Ton - -	13 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	19 Bushels
Quimpercorantin - -	1 Ton - -	13 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	19 Bushels
Quimperlay - -	1 Ton - -	18 Muds - -	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	25 Bushels
R.				
Rabaftens - -	100 Sextiers - -	5 Lafts 2 Muds - -	96 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	193 Bushels
Realmont - -	100 Sextiers - -	4 Lafts 10 Muds - -	83 Sextiers - -	166 Bushels
Realville - -	100 Sextiers - -	8 Lafts 10 Muds - -	158 Sextiers - -	316 Bushels
	100 Sacks - -	4 Lafts - -	76 Sextiers - -	152 Bushels
Redon - -	1 Ton - -	14 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	21 Bushels
Rennes - -	1 Ton - -	13 Muds - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	19 Bushels
Ribeyrac - -	1 Pipe - -	5 Muds - -	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	7 Bushels
Riga - -	46 Loopen - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Roan - -	8 Bushels - -	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud - -	1 Sextier - -	2 Bushels
Rotterdam - -	29 Sacks - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Rouen - -	12 Sextiers - -	20 Muds - -	14 Sextiers - -	28 Bushels
Royan - -	100 Quartiers - -	3 Lafts 12 Muds - -	67 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	137 Bushels
Ruremond - -	68 Scheppels - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
S.				
Saint Brieu - -	1 Ton - -	14 Muds - -	10 Sextiers - -	20 Bushels
Saint Cadou - -	1 Ton - -	13 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	19 Bushels
Saint Gilles - -	40 Loads - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Saint Malo - -	1 Ton - -	13 Muds - -	9 Sextiers - -	18 Bushels
Saint Omer - -	22 $\frac{1}{2}$ Raziers - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Saint Valery - -	19 Sextiers - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Saint Lieurade - -	100 Sacks - -	2 Lafts 18 Muds - -	53 Sextiers - -	106 Bushels
Saumur - -	19 Sextiers - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Schiedem - -	29 Sacks - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Seville - -	46 Fanegras - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Stockholm - -	23 Tons - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
T.				
Talemont - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts 4 Muds - -	60 Sextiers - -	120 Bushels
Tarafcon - -	3 Emines - -	3 Muds - -	2 Sextiers - -	4 Bushels
Teertoleu - -	93 Scheppels - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Tervere - -	28 Scheppels - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Thiel - -	28 Sacks - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Toulouse - -	100 Sextiers - -	3 Lafts 3 Muds - -	59 Sextiers - -	118 Bushels
Tongres - -	15 Muds - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Tonneins - -	100 Sacks - -	2 Lafts 19 Muds - -	49 Sextiers - -	98 Bushels
Toulon - -	3 Emines - -	3 Muds - -	2 Sextiers - -	4 Bushels
Tournon - -	100 Sacks - -	2 Lafts 15 Muds - -	48 Sextiers - -	96 Bushels
Tours - -	14 Bushels - -	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud - -	1 Sextier - -	2 Bushels
V.				
Valence in Agen. - -	100 Sacks - -	3 $\frac{1}{4}$ Lafts - -	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	125 Bushels
Vannes in Bret. - -	1 Ton - -	14 Muds - -	10 Sextiers - -	20 Bushels
Venice - -	2 Staros - -	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Mud - -	1 Sextier - -	2 Bushels
Verdun - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts 14 Muds - -	67 Sextiers - -	134 Bushels
Villemur - -	100 Sacks - -	3 Lafts 9 Muds - -	64 Sextiers - -	128 Bushels
Villen d'Agen. - -	100 Bushels - -	2 Lafts 21 Muds - -	53 Sextiers - -	106 Bushels
Utrecht - -	25 Muds - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
W.				
Weefop - -	44 Sacks - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Y.				
Yffelstein - -	18 Muds - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Z.				
Zirick-Zee - -	40 Sacks - -	1 Laft - -	19 Sextiers - -	38 Bushels
Zwol - -	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ Muds - -	9 $\frac{3}{4}$ Muds - -	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sextiers - -	15 Bushels

OF ROUND MEASURES for SALT.

Salt is sold by different measures in the several places where that commodity is made, and whither it is transported and exposed to sale.

The most considerable places where it is made, are Marenne, Brouage, Tremblade, Rochelle, Maran, Nantes, and other places in the provinces of Britany, Sainteonge, and the country of Aunis in France; and the islands of Rhé, Oleron, and others, upon the coast of that kingdom; and Cadiz and St. Ubes, and other places in Spain and Portugal.

And from thence it is transported in vast quantities to several parts of Europe.

In France it is sold by the muid, which is greater or less, according to the custom of the several provinces where it is made, and where it is sold.

At Paris, they divide the muid into twelve sextiers, and the sextier into four minots.

At Marenne, the Isle of Rhé, and other places in France, where salt is made, they sell it by the hundred, which they divide into 28 muids, and the muid into 24 bushels.

The hundred renders commonly at Amsterdam 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ lafts, or 23 tons.

At Bourdeaux, that muid renders 42 pipes, or 252 sacks or minots.

The minot commonly weighs about 240 pounds, marc weight.

But the salt that is made at Brouage and in the Isle of Rhé, is heavier than that of Marenne, Tremblade, and Oleron.

The hundred of Brouage, the Isle of Rhé, &c. renders 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ or 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ lafts, which weigh about 45 or 46,000 weight.

At Copenhagen it renders 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ lafts, or 18 tons.

At Konigsberg it renders about ten lafts, or 40,000 pounds weight. And it is to be observed, that strangers are not allowed there to keep salt in storehouses to sell.

At Riga it likewise renders about 10 lafts, nor are strangers allowed any greater privilege about it than at Konigsberg.

At Dantzick it renders 11 $\frac{1}{2}$, and sometimes 12 lafts: 7 $\frac{1}{4}$, or 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ of which, make the great hundred of Amsterdam.

Strangers may sell salt at Dantzick to the inhabitants, but not transport it by the canals, nor sell it to other strangers.

At Stetin in Pomerania, it renders 10 lafts, or 40,000 pounds weight.

In Portugal salt is sold by the muid, four of which make one laft, and seven the hundred, of 404 scheppels, measure of Amsterdam.

The muid of France renders about 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ lafts, measure of London.

It is sold at Amsterdam by the hundred of 404 scheppels, which is reckoned 7 lafts, or 14 tons, or 28,000 pounds weight, which is also counted 208 sacks.

Some EXAMPLES, to illustrate the conversion of the MEASURES of one country into those of others.

Suppose that you would know how many aunes of Troyes in Champagne 100 aunes of Paris will make, and that to discover the same you have no other knowledge than what follows; which we shall exhibit and operate according to the rule of conjunction, that we have exemplified in variety of cases throughout this work. See the articles ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, HAMBURGH, HOLLAND, EXCHANGE.

Antecedents.	Consequents.
If 7 Aunes of Paris make	9 Yards of London,
And 36 Yards of London —	49 Aunes of Holland,
7 Aunes of Holland —	9 Braces of Milan,
3 Braces of Milan —	2 Vares of Arragon,
5 Vares of Arragon —	2 Canes of Montpellier,
9 Canes of Montp. —	10 Canes of Toulouse,
4 Canes of Toul. —	9 Aunes of Troyes—

How many of Troyes will 100 aunes of Paris make?

Rule—Multiply the antecedents together for a divisor, and the consequents for a dividend, and you will find the quotient to be 150 ells of Troyes to be equal to 100 ells of Paris.—Or abbreviated according to what is taught under the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, &c. will stand thus, which is performed in a minute's times, without those tedious multiplications, and will stand thus by way of equation.

$$\begin{array}{r} 7 = 9 \\ 36 = 49 \\ 7 = 9 \\ 3 = 2 \\ 5 = 2 \\ 9 = 10 \\ 4 = 9 \\ \hline 7 \times 36 \times 7 \times 3 \times 5 \times 9 \times 4 = 9 \times 49 \times 9 \times 2 \times 2 \times 10 \times 9 \\ 100 \end{array}$$

So that the product of all the antecedents, abridged, is reduced to 2 for a divisor, and the product of the consequents to $3 \times 100 = 300$, and divided by $2 = 150$ the answer.

EXAMPLE II.

Suppose that you owe 100 ânées of wheat at Lyons, and that you would know what quantity you must purchase at Mâcon to replace them, and that you have no other knowledge to come at the same than by saying, viz:

If 3 ânées of Lyons make	4 Sextiers of Paris,
And 1 Sextier of Paris —	2 Bushels of Bourdeaux,
38 Bushels of Bourd. —	27 Muds of Amsterdam,
27 Muds of Amster. —	46 Fanégas of Cadiz,
230 Fanégas of Cadiz —	57 ânées of Mâcon :

How much does 100 of Lyons make?
The whole abridged will stand thus :

$$\begin{array}{r} 3 = 4 \\ 1 = 2 \\ 38 = 27 \\ 27 = 46 \\ 230 = 57 \\ \hline 115 \quad 100 \\ \text{Ergo } \frac{46 \times 2 \times 100}{115} = 80 \text{ ânées should be bought at Mâcon to replace 100 at Lyons.} \end{array}$$

REMARKS.

If the rules that we have laid down, and the reasons thereof which we have demonstrated, in the several parts of this work to which we have referred, be duly attended to, these operations can require no farther elucidation. The same method of calculation is applicable to weights as well as measures. See WEIGHTS.

MECHANICAL ARTS. Throughout the course of this work, we have endeavoured to shew, that artificers, mechanics, and manufacturers, are the grand basis of all our present commerce; and that our students and experimentalists in arts and philosophy, in conjunction with these practical artizans, and the sagacity and industry of our merchants, are the very life and soul of all our trafficable advancements and splendor. See the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, MATHEMATICS, MERCANTILE COLLEGE, MUSEUM, ROYAL SOCIETY.

What has been amply urged under the two former of these heads, will, in a great measure, hold good under this article of MECHANICS and MECHANICAL ARTS; and, therefore, we shall have the less to say upon the present occasion. As nothing more evidently shews the high value and importance of this class of people to commercial states, than the daily artifices of our rival nations in trade, to decoy the most ingenious of our mechanics and manufacturers out of the kingdom; so nothing would shew the wisdom of the nation

more, than to make it for the interest of such to remain among us, and to increase the number, as being the chief instruments to preserve and advance the trade of the nation. To which end, nothing can so much contribute as the advancement of our old and established branches of foreign trade, and the promotion of new: and these depend on the wisdom of parliament, and that of the royal councils.

One general strain that runs through this work, the reader will please to observe, is, to shew, how great a variety of trades depends upon sound philosophy: that is, philosophy founded on repeated and unerring experiments, and appositely applied, in conjunction with the mathematical arts to practical trades. See the above articles. And, if this be the case, it follows, that, in order to improve the old mechanic arts, and to discover new, such philosophy and mathematics must be encouraged, or our practical artizans will be deprived of some of their best coadjutors; for it would be no difficulty to shew, that most trades and arts have been derived from this class of men; who, although they pass silently through life in their serene and contemplative way, yet their memories deserve to be eternally revered.

How that philosophy may be effectually promoted, which has been the parent of all trades, and will ever continue to advance them, will not be judged incompatible with a work of this nature. It is therefore we have interlarded so much philosophy, as is requisite to shew how far particular trades depend thereupon; and we have also under the heads referred to endeavoured to shew, in what manner philosophy ought to be encouraged by trade, since trade is so highly indebted to philosophy.

At present, I shall only add, to what has been observed upon similar occasions, a recommendation to our British artists to endeavour to imitate all those curious arts, which are practised to any superior degree of perfection in all other nations whatsoever; for this will prove one great means to advance the interest of particular trades. That I may not be misunderstood, it may be proper to intimate a few instances.

REMARKS ON MECHANICAL ARTS.

The country of Bengal furnishes materials or mechanic arts and sciences equal to most countries. The artizans here have wonderful skill and dexterity: they excel particularly in making linen cloth, which is of such fineness, that very long and broad pieces of it may easily be drawn through a small ring. If you tear a piece of muslin into two pieces, and give it to one of their fine-drawers to set it together again, it will be impossible for you to discover where it is joined, though you mark it on purpose to know it. They will place together so artificially the pieces of glass or China ware, that one cannot perceive it was ever broken.

Their embroiderers work in filigreen very curiously: they imitate exactly any work made in Europe, though the engine they make use of, and all their other utensils, do not cost them above the value of a crown.

The looms that their weavers use, do not cost them more: with these they sit in their courts and yards, or on the side of the highway, and work those fine stuffs that are so highly esteemed over all the world.

They have here no need of wine to make aqua vitæ, but make it of a syrup, sugar, some certain sorts of barks, and raisins; it burns better, and is stronger than that made in Europe.

They paint flowers, and gild very finely upon glass. I was surprized, says our author, to see their vessels which they use to cool water in, and are not thicker than two leaves of paper pasted together.

Their watermen row after a different manner from ours; they move the oar with their feet, and their hands serve instead of the hypomochlion, or roller on which it turns.

The liquor which their painters use, does not any way lose its colour, nor is it tarnished by lye.

They make use of a kind of hand-mill to break their sugar-canes, which does not cost them above the value of ten pence. The person that grinds, works and fashions the stone himself with lac and emery.

Their masons will pave the largest room with a sort of cement made of brick dust and lime, so that it shall seem to be but one stone, and is much harder than gravel. I saw them make a sort of pent-house, says our author again, that was 40 feet long, 8 feet broad, and 5 or 6 inches thick; which they raised up in my presence, and fixed it to the wall on one side only, without putting any prop under it to support it.

Their pilots take the altitude (or latitude of places) with a cord that has several knots in it. They put one end of the cord between their teeth, and by means of a piece of wood fixed to it, that has a hole through it, they easily observe the tail of Ursa minor, which is commonly called the polar star, or north pole.

Their lime is usually made of sea shells: that which is made of snail-shells, serves to whiten their houses; and that which is made of stones they chew with the leaves of betel. I have seen some of them that would take as much of it in a day, as the quantity of an egg.

They make their butter in the first pot that comes to hand; they cleave a stick into four quarters at one end, and, stretching them out asunder in proportion to the size of the pot that contains the milk, they turn the stick round different ways (backwards and forwards) by means of a cord twisted about it, and by this means in a short time make the butter.

Those that sell butter have the art of making it pass for fresh, when it is old and rank. To do this they melt it, and pour upon it four curdly milk; and in eight hours after they take it out in lumps, and strain it through a cloth for sale.

Their chemists make use of the first pot they meet with to revive cinnabar, and other preparations of mercury, which they do after a very simple manner. They easily reduce all metals into a powder, as I myself can witness. They set a great value upon talc and brass, which consume, as they say, all viscous humours, and remove the most stubborn obstructions.

The Chinese gild paper with leaf-gold and silver, laid on with a very good sort of varnish they have, which is the same wherewith they varnish their lacquered wares; all which, after it is thoroughly dry, they put in a screw-press, and, with an instrument like our plane, shave it as fine as they please. They also gild paper on one side with leaf-gold, then cut it in long pieces, and weave it into their silks, which makes them, with little or no cost, look very rich and fine. The same long pieces are twisted about silk thread by them so artificially, as to look finer than gold-thread, though it be of no great value.

Among the Japanese, they have the art of making lacca in a manner superior to the Europeans: there is some so fine and curious, that whereas, in this country, one may buy an ordinary small box for three or four crowns; one of the same size, when made in Japan of exquisite lacca, will sell for more than eighty crowns. The author of this account hath four cabinets of his workmanship, which he affirms to have cost him about 40,000 crowns, which he will not sell under 80,000 crowns. *Philos. Trans. n. 49.*

The colours wherewith they dye their stuffs never fade: I have seen one of them, which our vermilion and couleur de feu, as the French call it, come not near to. It is extracted out of a flower like to saffron, and one pound of it costs an incredible price. To try whether the colour will not change by lixivium or lye, they apply an hot iron to it; and, if there it holds, they assure themselves of the durableness of the colour.

The method of making salt, at Chusan and China, may deserve regard: it is this: all the shores here being mud, instead of sand, in the summer-season they pare off the superficial earth which has been overflowed with the salt-water, and lay it up in heaps for use: when they are to use it, they dry it in the sun, rubbing it small; then, digging a pit, they cover the bottom thereof with straw, at which, through the side of the pit, they pass a hollow cane that leads into a jar, which stands below the level of the pit's bottom; they fill the pit almost full with the aforesaid earth, and pour salt water thereon 'till it be covered two or three inches with water, which drains through into the aforesaid jar, and is afterwards boiled into salt.

Upon the whole, in whatever mechanical or manufactural arts other nations may excel Great-Britain, our artists should be upon the watch, not only to imitate, but surpass, if possible. Throughout this work, those particulars appear wherein other nations do excel us, under the several countries of the world, whose natural history and traffic we have described, and may well deserve the attention of our artists. But those which are imported, and which they can see, handle, and minutely examine, they are the most likely to imitate or excel.

As we have arrived at a great perfection in the China ware, why may we not in divers other eastern arts and manufactures?

REMARKS in another light, consistent with this work.

It is a maxim generally received, that one of the most effectual means to settle and improve commerce, or any other political interest, is the patronage of princes, dispensing rewards, and exciting emulation by investing with honours, and other marks of distinction, those persons, who, by the force of genius or application, have made new discoveries, or improved upon any thing laudable, and conducive to the interest of the public; more especially such, as upon the strength of their own genius, and at their sole charge, have set up and maintained manufactories, and other works of the mechanic arts beneficial to the community, and when the introduction of them has been entirely owing to their industry and public spirit. This point I shall only treat in a general way, as it is not possible to prescribe rules for the conduct of it on particular occasions, since the honours, as well as rewards and encouragements, are always to be proportioned and dispensed according to the station and other circumstances of the claimants, and with an eye to the charge they shall have been at, and the benefits that shall result to the public from them; things of such a nature, that it is absolutely necessary to rely upon the judgment and prudence of the mini-

sters, whom his majesty shall intrust with the conduct of such interesting affairs.

It is customary, and a piece of good policy, to give yearly pensions and rewards, in order not only to cherish among ourselves, but to draw over and engage to stay in any country, able masters in manufactures and the mechanic arts, either to introduce new sorts of businesses, or to improve such as have been already established, by advancing them to a degree of perfection and goodness, that is certain to make them esteemed, and procure them a market every-where. To artificers or workmen setting up new and profitable commercial arts, it is usual in France and Spain to allow, for a certain term, an immunity from all troublesome offices, houses to live in, workshops, and a dispensation from some duties; and at the same time, for a farther encouragement, sums of money have been granted to enable them to bear the first expence, which usually runs high. But in respect to this advance of money, or the other encouragements, we are as little able to prescribe stated rules, as there must necessarily be a variety of cases, according to the situation of the projectors, and the benefits that will arise from the undertaking. It is usual also to grant an exclusive privilege of this kind, that, for a certain number of years, no other person manufacture the commodities, they are under an obligation to introduce and establish. But, before we ever dispense indulgences of this nature, we ought to consider the affair thoroughly; and when for special reasons it is found absolutely necessary, in order to obtain our end, they are even then to be limited and guarded with the utmost care, lest they be converted into monopolies, that are of great profit to the proprietor, but of the utmost prejudice to the public; moreover, in dispensing them, though it be with all possible precaution, it ought at least to be attended with the following circumstances, of it's being a new undertaking, and very difficult to be set on foot; that there will ensue an improvement to commerce, and a considerable advantage to the public. See the articles MONOPOLIES and PATENTS.

Lewis XIV. king of France, in the year 1665, during the ministry of John Baptist Colbert, granted an exclusive privilege and other advantages, in order to settle a tin manufacture in several parts of that kingdom, as it is a very useful commodity, and of great consumption every-where; and, at the expiration of the term covenanted, the patent was renewed in the year 1695, in favour of Isaac Robelin, engineer-director of the fortifications of Burgundy, and company, to which partnership it was renewed for another term in the year 1700, as appears from the patent granted them. In like manner the woollen and other capital manufactories and mechanical arts have been introduced and established in this and other trading kingdoms. See the articles ARTIFICERS, FRANCE.

But we are always to be very careful, that the term of the privilege (if it be exclusive) be granted for as short a time as possible, and under due limitations, in order that the manufacture and traffic carried on, both at home and abroad, may be freely and quickly extended.

When trafficable commodities of any kind are undertaken to be established in a nation by private hands, and are nearly of the same sort as some already established in the country, and though they may be of superior quality, as it is from this very superiority, that with a little diligence they may be imitated, there will be no reason to grant privileges, indulgences, and other distinguishing encouragements which some have moved for, as in such cases they ought to be common and general; for any thing singular, or exclusive, is a great prejudice to other manufactures of the kingdom, which being of equal moment, or little inferior, may, with equal propriety, claim and enjoy the same advantage; and, if they should not obtain it, the consequence will certainly be, that, favouring a branch, we shall destroy the root.

It would be impolitic and unjust to indulge a few artizans, upon no reasonable plea, with immunities and other indulgences, that are denied to those of the rest of the kingdom. For this reason, all encouragements which we have recommended in favour of commerce and manufactural and mechanical arts, tend to put all, as near as possible, upon an equal footing under the same circumstances, unless very particular cases require an exemption, as sometimes it does find a place in general provisions, and upon the very principle of an equal distribution of justice; in order, that, at the time of carrying those indulgences into execution, an equality may be better preserved in distributing relief; just as stronger and more costly medicines are administered for a cure under dangerous diseases, while, in maladies of an inferior kind, health is recoverable by gentle physic.

MECKLENBURG, called also MECKELBOURG, a duchy in Germany, has Pomerania on the east; part of the marquisate of Brandenburg, and the duchy of Lunenburg, on the south; the Baltic on the north; and Holstein and Saxe-Lawenburg on the west; being about 100 miles long, and 60 broad. It abounds with corn, fruit, fish, and fowl; it is well watered with lakes and rivers, and extremely well situated on the Baltic for a foreign trade, some of the principal Hanse-Towns lying in this duchy, viz. Rostock, Wismar, Swerin,

&c. [see HANSE-TOWNS] which are it's principal places of trade.

At ROSTOCK, their chief commodity is beer, that which was formerly called Lubec beer, which they export in large quantities: some years since they had no less than 250 privileged brewers, who, it is said, brewed as many thousand tons, a year, besides what particular persons brew for their own use: so that the duke's revenue, arising from the excise on beer, is greater than that from all the other articles together. It's river is navigable to the very walls, but large ships come no farther than Wamemunde, a little town seven miles lower, where the Swedes built a fort formerly.

MEDAL, a piece of metal, in the form of a coin, with some peculiar stamp thereon, destined to preserve to posterity the portrait of some distinguished personage, or the memory of some illustrious action.

R E M A R K S.

It not being consistent with the tenor of our work to consider this article in the mere light of an antiquarian, we shall take notice of it only as an object of traffic among the learned and curious, where interest frequently is no way concerned, the emulation among such being to enrich their cabinets, and to complete their collections of those estimable monuments of antiquity.

There are, however, as Mr. Patin remarks, in many of the principal cities of Germany, many dealers who may properly enough be called antiquarian merchants, since they collect medals only with a view to sell them again for gain; a traffic, says the beforementioned learned author, that has it's frauds as well as most others, and wherein the purchaser should well examine the merchandize, if he would not receive those for rare and valuable which are of a counterfeit stamp, for such medals that are really antique and curious.

Messieurs Tournefort, Cornelius le Bruyn, and Paul Lucas, the latter in his accounts of Egypt, and the two others in their voyages to the Levant, speak of the like commerce carried on in the islands of the Archipelago, and in almost all the scales of the Levant, where the inhabitants of the country, well informed of the taste that strangers have for curiosities of this nature, take pains to collect them together, and dispose of them at a dear rate, and often with less fidelity than the German antiquarians.

Besides this commerce in medals in Germany and the Levant, which relates only to antiquity, there is a traffic carried on in France for those of a modern kind, which is more to be depended on.

This trade consists chiefly in that numerous and rich series of medals which were struck in order to perpetuate to posterity the most celebrated events in the reign of Lewis the Grand, and those that are yet struck every day, says our author, in regard to the reign of Lewis XV.

The director-general of the coinage of these medals, who disposes of them, furnishes those only of gold, silver, or bronze.

The elegance and beauty of these medals, and the skill of Mons. Launay, who has the direction thereof (1723) gives so great a value to them, that it is scarce to be doubted but they will one day be in as high esteem as the most beautiful of those of antiquity.

The Sieur Launay has also caused medals to be struck of all the kings of France, from the commencement of the monarchy to the present time, which contain on one side the effigy of the prince, on the other a short, but exact abridgment of the most remarkable events of every reign. These also have entered into the commerce of the modern medals at Paris, and are not of the least important sort.

We shall conclude this article with a short account of those medals in France which concern the trade and navigation of that kingdom, and which were struck in the reign of Lewis the XIVth; being persuaded, says Mons. Savary, in his French Dictionary of Commerce, in favour of that nation, that his work would want that perfection expected, if the reader did not find those remaining monuments that France has struck of her commerce, and of the protection that so great a king has given to it.

MEDALS struck in France during the reign of Lewis the XIVth, upon various extraordinary establishments made in that kingdom for the benefit of their trade and navigation.

The establishment of a number of new manufactories in France, and the old ones being brought to their perfection, make the subject of the first medal. This was struck in 1664, a year remarkable for the great number of commercial enterprizes, which commenced from that æra: and which were continued during the administration of Monsieur Colbert, whose memory will ever be revered and adored in that kingdom.

Upon this medal there is a Minerva, who has by her a spindle, a shuttle, bottoms of wool, and a piece of tapestry: the legend, MINERVA LOCUPLETRATRIX, signifies the kingdom

enriched by arts, of which Minerva is the symbol; the exergum, ARTES INSTAURATÆ, which signifies the Arts re-established, M.DC.LXIV.

The subject of the second medal is the re-establishment of navigation, which had been a long while neglected in France: but the grand monarch, applying to their re-animation, rendered his kingdom as powerful by sea as land, and as flourishing by it's commerce as by it's arms.

This medal is of the year 1665. It represents a ship in full sail: the words of the legend are, NAVIGATIO INSTAURATA, which signifies NAVIGATION RE-ESTABLISHED: the exergum shews the date.

The French East India company, established in the year 1664, and which took possession of the island of Madagascar in 1665, gave occasion to the third medal.

This colony, in manner of the ancient medals, is designed by one of those bunch-backed oxen which are in great plenty in the island: it stands nigh to an ebony-tree, which is very common in that country. The words of the legend are, COLONIA MADAGASCARICA, which signifies the colony of Madagascar: the exergum denotes the date, M.DC.LXV.

The union of the two seas, so commodious and beneficial to the domestic and foreign commerce of France, is represented in the fourth medal, struck in the year 1667.

Neptune armed with his trident, with which he strikes the earth, seems to complete this important enterprize: the gushing out of the water, which pours forth by the strength of the blow which he has given, and which spreads itself to the right and left, indicates the ocean and Mediterranean, that the canal unites. It has, for legend, JUNCTA MARIA, which signifies the joining of the seas: the exergum has FOSSA A GARUMNA AD PORTUM SETIUM; A CANAL EXTENDING FROM THE GARONNE TO THE PORT OF SETE. M.DC.LXVII.

The fifth medal was struck in the year 1680, in order to preserve the remembrance of the establishment of the several classes of the marine. See the article NAVAL AFFAIRS OF FRANCE.

The classes were three at the first establishment, each consisting of 20,000 sailors, one of which was to serve on board their men of war, the other on board their merchant men, and the other to rest one year in three.—These classes have since been augmented to five, but they make only 60,000 seamen.

This medal represents a sailor by the sea-side, leaning upon a broken pillar; he holds in his hand a rudder, covered with a flower-de-luce: the legend has these words, BELLO ET COMMERIO, signifying, FOR WAR AND FOR COMMERCE; the exergum has SEXAGINTA MILLIA NAUTARUM CONSCRIPTA. M.DC.LXXX. SIXTY THOUSAND SAILORS ENROLLED.

The sixth and last medal is on occasion of the establishment of the CHAMBER or COUNCIL OF COMMERCE. As we have described this establishment at large under the article CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, we shall here only give the type, and the legend of the medal, which was struck upon this account in the year 1700.

It represents Justice, and near her stands Mercury, the god of commerce, who, with one hand, holds his caduce, or snaky staff, and with the other a purse. The words are, SEX VIRI COMMERCIIS REGUNDIS; which signifies, SIX COMMISSIONERS PROPOSED FOR THE REGULATION OF COMMERCE.

REMARKS on the article MEDAL, since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

We have not learned that the FRENCH have struck MEDALS to commemorate their extraordinary successes and glorious victories, which they obtained during the last war; nor to celebrate the memorable advantages they gained by the last peace, concluded at Paris, the 10th day of February, 1763, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of friendship and peace between his Britannic Majesty, the most Christian King, and the king of Spain; to which the king of Portugal acceded on the same day. See our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, CANADA, FLORIDA, and others referred to from them.

From the time of striking these medals, to what degree the French have raised and extended their trade and navigation, see the articles FRANCE, FRENCH AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, LEVANT TRADE.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA, extends from the straits of Gibraltar to the coast of Syria and Palestine, being above 2000 miles in length, but of very unequal breadth; the west part of it separating Europe from Africa, and the Levant, or east part of it, dividing Asia from Africa, Spain, France, Italy, Turkey in Europe, and Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, bounding it on the north; and the empire of Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Barca, and Egypt, bounding it on the south. The strait of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, being about 16 miles over, a strong current sets through it, out of the Atlantic Ocean, into the Mediterranean constantly, which requires a good gale of wind to stem it.

REMARKS

REMARKS, shewing the important utility of GIBRALTAR to the BRITISH EMPIRE.

The whole British trade carried on by means of the Mediterranean Sea being of the last consequence to Great-Britain, and the permanent preservation thereof depending upon the town and fortifications of Gibraltar; it is necessary to take some notice thereof.

Gibraltar lies in west longitude 6, latitude 36, and is a port-town situate, when it belonged to Spain, in the principality of Andalusia, and on the straight between the ocean and the Mediterranean. It stands at the foot of Mount Calpe, one of Hercules's pillars, about 16 miles north of Ceuta in Africa, 40 south-west of Cadiz, and 80 south of Seville. It is built on a rock, in a peninsula, and can only be approached on the land side by a very narrow passage, between the mountain and the sea, cross which the Spaniards have drawn a line, and fortified it, to prevent the garrison having any communication with the country. It was taken from the Spaniards in the year 1704. Several attempts have been made to retake it, but have proved fruitless.

Gibraltar is but a small, though ancient town. Since the English have been masters of this town, it is become a place of considerable trade, which it was not before, especially between the coast of Barbary and this place; the English merchants at Gibraltar having great warehouses of all kinds of goods of the growth of Barbary, so that they furnish the merchants in London on as good terms as they usually had them in Barbary; and, by the convenience of shipping, can send them to England in smaller quantities than by loading vessels wholly, as they were obliged to do before.

They likewise have a great trade here, by *barco longo's*, with the empire of Morocco; so that the trade is seldom shut up; and Gibraltar is now the market for the wax, copper, almonds, drugs, and other products of Barbary.

That a just and adequate idea may be formed of the real importance of this place to these kingdoms, we shall sketch the heads of those reasons that have been occasionally urged, both in parliament and without doors; which, as they have been too much mixed with the temporary acrimony of party, may not, perhaps, have had such weight with many as if they were stripped of that personal spleen and satire, which generally attend our political altercations. The reasons are simply as follow, viz.

(1.) Because Gibraltar preserves to us the conveniency, protection, and security of our commerce to the Straights, above that of all other nations, more especially in regard to the Algerines and Salleemen, who are influenced by it to keep their treaties made with us; which they never do longer with any other nation than 'till they find it their interest to break them.

(2.) Because in respect to the great advantage which the possession of that place hath already given us, when in war with France and Spain; and, consequently, will always give us again upon the like occasion, whilst we continue to keep it.

(3.) With regard to our trade in general up the Mediterranean; for, as it commands the passage or entrance of all our navigation into that sea, both in time of peace and war; so it is equally necessary, and as much our interest, to keep it ourselves, as for any gentleman to keep possession of the gate which leads to his own house; it being in the power of those who possess this port, at all times, to interrupt, annoy, or hinder whom they shall think fit in their trade, by keeping two or three ships of war constantly on that station; in the same manner almost as the Danes, by the possession of Elfsineur command the passage into and out of the Baltic: so that, if this port and fortification were in the hands of any other nation, it would be in their power likewise either to permit us to navigate our trade within those straights, or not, as they should think fit, unless a very strong squadron was constantly kept at the entrance of the straight's mouth, to secure the passage, and to be relieved, from time to time, by fresh ships, which would put us to a much greater expence than we are now at in keeping this place.

(4.) Because, before England was in possession of Tangier, on the opposite side of the straight, we were never able to deal with the Algerines, and other Turkish rovers; who, for near a century, had carried on a successful piratic war against the commerce of this nation, and never could be reduced 'till, by the situation and our possession of the abovementioned place, we distressed them so much, not only by taking their ships going in and coming out of the Straights, but also by retaking such of their prizes as they had taken in the ocean, that at last they were forced to be content with such a peace as we would give them; the continuance of which is owing to nothing so much as to our having been, for many years passed, and at present, in the same condition to chastize those rovers, by the possession of Gibraltar, as we were before by the possession of Tangier.

(5.) Because the security of our Italian, Turkey, and fish-trades intirely depends on our possession of this place; and, should we ever lose it, or part with it, it is very reasonable to believe, that both the Algerines and Salleemen would soon break with us again; so that, in such a case, the abovesaid branches of trade would almost wholly fall into the hands of our rivals, the French from Marseilles, who, by their situa-

tion, are always ready at hand to furnish those markets, as soon as they are in want, while we, on our part, shall be obliged to carry on that trade by the tedious method of fleets and convoys, and at last, perhaps, come long after the market is supplied by our rivals. Besides all this, the article of insurance, which would certainly run much higher than usual under these circumstances, would prove a heavy charge on our goods, more than those of other traders, which would thereby very much affect those branches of our trade and navigation.

(6.) Because the mischief would not stop here: for as the Algerines, of late years, often cruize at the mouth of our channel, and as some of them have also heretofore come into our very ports two or three years successively; so it is possible that, if we should lose Gibraltar, they may become, being so well acquainted with our channel, a much more dangerous enemy to us than ever they were formerly, and may attack all our trade in general, as the St. Malo privateers did in the wars of queen Anne, whenever they shall find that they can carry home their prizes without any interruption; which is not to be done, unless we should be dispossessed of Gibraltar, and thereby take the bridle, which has hitherto restrained them out of their mouths.

(7.) Because, in respect to our neighbours, Gibraltar is situated in such a manner, that it is in the power of the present possessors to cut off any naval communication between one port and another, of each of those very powerful kingdoms; with which we have had such frequent occasions to be at war for almost these fifty years past, who would soon turn the tables upon us, if they should recover this place out of our hands, especially in time of any rupture between us; nothing being more self-evident than that it gives, to those who are masters of it, the sovereignty and command of the commerce and navigation of the Mediterranean Sea, and makes it impracticable for any other nation to trade there without their leave. And farther, by our possession of this place, all nations within the Mediterranean will be obliged to court our friendship, or fear our power, particularly the piratical states, who, beholding vengeance so near at hand, will be thereby deterred from attempting to interrupt our trade, while they are destroying that of all others.

(8.) Because this advantage is not all that we reap from the possession of Gibraltar; for it hath put into our hands occasionally a great proportion of freight-trade into the Mediterranean, especially that of the Hamburgers and Hollanders, who have made use of British bottoms to carry on their commerce in those seas, 'till the Dutch obtained a peace with the Algerines, whereby we lost one great advantage that belonged to the navigation of Great-Britain, which we before enjoyed, whilst those merchants made use of English ships, finding it dangerous to venture their estates in any other.

(9.) Because, laying aside all other considerations, there cannot be a stronger proof of the importance which the possession of this place hath proved to us, than that it hath been a formidable check to the naval power of France, from the hour of our taking it, to the conclusion of the last French war: nor, indeed, could they ever send any naval stores round about into those seas, without an apparent danger of their falling into our hands in going through the Straights; so that the greatest part of their fleet hath thereby, as it were, become useless ever since. And, had not such unhappy misunderstandings fell out as did between two admirals in the late war, we should have more feelingly experienced the invaluable benefit of this possession.

(10.) Because it's proximity to Cadiz, the great mart and center of almost all the riches of Spanish America, gives us the greatest opportunity of commanding that port, and the trade frequenting it from the West-Indies; which, in time of war with Spain, may be reckoned of no small consideration or importance.

(11.) Because, as the advantages of Gibraltar which result to this kingdom from the foregoing particulars, are fully confirmed and demonstrated by the experience of many years past, so the preservation of it, at all times, is of much greater concernment than it ever was before, as will appear by considering the present state of public affairs: that many capital manufactures are springing up in most parts of Europe, and particularly in France and Spain, and that several other powerful states are endeavouring to vie with us in commerce and a maritime force; which ought to put us on the strictest guard, and determine us not to part with a place which is manifestly of so much advantage, by securing and improving our own trade and navigation, as well as by defeating the attempts of our enemies and rivals therein.

(12.) Because the Spaniards continue their unjustifiable captures and depredations on our logwood-trade in America, which they have more or less done for these thirty years past; and that, if we part with Gibraltar, we have reason to believe that the same fate may attend our whole Mediterranean trade, to it's absolute ruin and destruction. See the articles LOGWOOD and SPANISH AMERICA.

(13.) Because Spain and France in conjunction, if not others, will ever have their eye upon this possession, in order to wrest the same out of her hands, to ruin the whole maritime power of Great-Britain.

(14.) Be-

(14.) Because Gibraltar lies at hand to intercept their East and West-India fleets, with the spoil and riches of both worlds: it separates and divides Spain from itself, and hinders all communication by sea from the different parts of their dominions, and, consequently, must keep them in a perpetual dependance, and put them under a necessity to court our friendship, as well as fear our enmity: it gives us an opportunity to pry into all their measures, observe all their motions, and, without the most stupid remissness on our part, renders it impracticable to them to form any projects, or carry on any expeditions against us or our allies, without our having due notice.

(15.) Because it will ever check the rise of the naval power of France, which can never be above our match at sea, whilst Gibraltar remains in our hands. It hinders the communication between their ports and squadrons in the ocean and the Mediterranean: it makes it impossible for them to supply their southern harbours with naval stores either for building or repairing of fleets; of which they were so sensible in queen Anne's war, that, as soon as Sir George Rook had possessed himself of it, they saw themselves under a necessity to lay aside their usual caution, and dare him in open battle; and, not meeting the success they hoped for, the very same year, to the unspeakable prejudice of their other affairs, besieged it in form, and lost a French and Spanish army before it, and never afterwards appeared with a fleet upon the seas again during the whole war, but suffered their great ships to moulder and rot in their harbours, for want of the means to fit them out again.

(16.) Because long experience has evinced, that we can never, with security, depend on the faith of France; and, therefore, if Britons are determined never to become vassals to the dominion of that crown, they can never part with any thing that is so substantial a preservation of their maritime power, and consequently of their liberties and properties, as that inestimable fortress of Gibraltar.

(17.) Because it appears throughout this work, from a series of facts incontestible, that the commerce and navigation of France have been increasing ever since the time of that great and able French minister Monsr. Colbert; and that they are now settled upon so broad a bottom, and with such peculiar and extraordinary advantage for their daily rise and encouragement, that, if Great-Britain gives up Gibraltar, she may be so eternally imbroiled in wars with that nation, as to increase her national debts and incumbrances to a degree so enormous, that her whole trade must inevitably sink under them.

(18.) Because the possession of Gibraltar will always give us reputation and figure in those seas, which are always rewarded with power and riches. It will oblige all nations who trade in the Mediterranean, or have empire there, to court our friendship, and keep measures with us. It will awe even the courts of Rome and Constantinople, and make them afraid to disturb or provoke us.

(19.) Because the charge and expence of keeping Gibraltar bears no proportion to the advantages we reap by it, and the detriment and injury our trade and navigation must sustain, if ever we part with it.

(20.) Because PORT-MAHON, cannot possibly answer all the purposes of Gibraltar: which must be evident to any one, who but looks into the map; for the island of Minorca lies many hundred miles further up towards the gulph of Lyons, and, in truth, out of the road of all ships trading to Sicily, the Adriatic, the Levant, or Africa. It is situated at such a distance from France and Spain, that the greatest fleets can escape unobserved, unless we keep perpetually before their ports to watch and pursue them; which is exceeding dangerous, if not impracticable in those seas. We shall be out of the way of all intelligence. And, if we should by chance have it, in all likelihood, shall be too late to take advantage of it; besides, I am told, there are but few winds with which ships can get in or out of Port-Mahon; and, when they are once there, the passage is so narrow, that a very small squadron can keep the greatest from sailing out.

(21.) Because nothing is plainer, than that it will be exceeding difficult, if not impossible, to keep the island of Minorca without the possession of Gibraltar; at least it will be more expensive to us than both are now, especially if France and Spain should join again; which event, I think, we ought to keep always in view, for then Gibraltar will be the only resource we have to carry on any trade in the Mediterranean, and to prevent the union of the French and Spanish fleets with themselves or each other.

(22.) Because all the objections, made against the facility of a communication of the different ports of France and Spain with one another, will be stronger against us; for they have others near to Gibraltar, where fleets may lie safe, and have a chance to escape us, by catching at favourable opportunities, and the advantage of winds; whereas we must run all hazards, and trust to our strength alone, without any harbour to retreat to, in case of storms or other accidents.

(23.) Because we have no means of sending naval stores and recruits to our garrisons, and often provisions for them, without a port to protect us during a thousand leagues sailing. Portugal will not be suffered to receive or relieve us, and

then we must run the gauntlet by single ships, with scarce a chance to escape, or send convoys upon the smallest occasions, capable of fighting the united French and Spanish power.

(24.) Because we ought not to be surprized, if the nations of Europe and Africa should wish it in hands less potent at sea, and who would consequently enjoy it more harmlessly to its neighbours: it must be undoubtedly terrible to any people who would be our rivals in trade or naval power, or indeed to any state that aspires to empire, which can never be accomplished without fleets as well as armies.

(25.) Because we are not fallen into such contempt with our enemies, our neighbours, or our allies, nor can they have so mean an opinion of our sense and discernment, and the integrity of our statesmen, as even to hint such a thing to them.

(26.) Because, if we part with Gibraltar, to what purpose have we made war? To what purpose bestowed great sums, and gained great victories? Did we beat the enemy, and force them to beg peace, and yet must bribe them to accept of it? Have we conquered, and shall they give terms, and get towns by losing battles? Or, if we do not part with Gibraltar for the sake of peace, pray what consideration are we to receive for the sake of Gibraltar? What can be given as an equivalent?

(27.) Because there can be no substantial reasons to take such a thorn out of the foot of Spain and France, and to remove such an obstacle to their greatness: the enterprising genius of the latter is as well known, as it is formidable to all its neighbours, but in particular to us. And Spain, it is also well known, are taking large strides to raise manufactures and maritime power. I would ask, in case of a new rupture, what resource have we but in our fleets, and by the help of Gibraltar, to make it impracticable for their squadrons in the ocean and Mediterranean to join? We know, by woeful experience, what help we are to expect from our allies, when we have no more millions to give. We are not able to keep great standing armies at home, nor is it consistent with our liberty to do so; and therefore we ought to take every measure to increase our naval strength, and to put new bridles upon those who are, or may soon be, our rivals therein.

(28.) Because the nation in the world whose power we have most reason to guard against, is that of France; and yet I don't know by what fatality it has often so happened, that we have been the unhappy instruments of promoting it. Oliver Cromwell gave the first rise to its greatness at land, and king Charles II. at sea: the late queen, by an ignominious peace, restored it, when it was reduced to the lowest extremity, and must have submitted to any conditions she had thought fit to impose. But sure it will never be said that any British ministry, who profess to be the patrons of liberty, the constant and declared enemies of those proceedings, should act so far in defiance of all their known principles, as, voluntarily and unconstrainedly, to throw away any part of that national security, which former betrayers purchased at the expence of their country's honour; and which are the only rewards and recompence of a tedious, successful, and glorious war, carried on at an immense expence of blood and treasure, of which we and our posterity shall long feel the severe effects.

(29.) Because there seems to be more reason for our being tenacious in preserving this possession, at this time, than there ever was since we had it; for it is to be feared, that we are the only maritime power that must alone stand against those of France and Spain, and such allies as they shall be able to influence; since our old and natural allies, the States-General of the United Provinces, do not appear either to be able, or so sanguinely inclined as heretofore, to unite with Great-Britain, and act with vigour, when occasion may require.

(30.) Because it should seem that another naval power is about to arise, by their establishment of a great East-India company*, the weight of whose power both by land and sea, is more likely to be thrown into the scale of France and her allies, than into that of Great-Britain and her's.

* When the Ostend East-India company was some years since established, the Dutch acted vigorously in concert with Great-Britain to effectuate its abolition, and did so. How it comes to pass, that times should be so changed within these few years, as to suffer another company of the like kind to be established, without any attempt to its annihilation, we leave those to ruminate on, whom it may one day nearly concern to think of. See the article OSTEND COMPANY.

(31.) Because the Spaniards (if I am rightly informed) give more encouragement, by certain artifices, to the French in their trade, by the way of Old Spain to New Spain, than they do to the English; and that, in consequence thereof, our commerce in that channel declines, while that of France increases: and also that the Spaniards seem to favour the French more in the S—h W—t—I—a trade, which they carry on from their colonies, than they do either the English or the Dutch in theirs.

(32.) Because the treatment of the English in particular, by the Spaniards at present in America, is said by some to be with a view to compel us, at length, to give up Gibraltar; which,

which, for that very reason, we ought to be the more sanguine to preserve.

(33.) Because Great-Britain has already done enough in favour of the court of Spain without sacrificing Gibraltar, to induce them to desist from their obstruction to our trade and navigation to and from our own colonies, even if they were really as unjustifiable as the Spaniards themselves have mistakenly represented them. [See the articles LOGWOOD, and SPAIN.]

The conduct of Great-Britain towards Spain, in order to influence them to preserve that good understanding, which is so apparently requisite for the reciprocal benefit of both nations, is notorious to the whole world, and may be chiefly comprehended under two articles. (1.) Our making two sovereigns in Italy to oblige the court of Spain; and (2.) Our giving up the assiento contract, and liquidating the affairs of the South Sea company, upon terms so advantageous to Spain, and so detrimental to Great-Britain in general, and the South Sea company in particular. See the articles ASSIENTO, and SOUTH SEA COMPANY. And, if Great-Britain should even acquiesce to the creating of a third sovereign to gratify the insatiable ambition of a certain p——s at I——so, and to give up Gibraltar also, what security should this nation have, that her logwood trade, and other navigation in America, should remain uninterrupted? Does not the system of that court for above these 30 years shew, that we are never to expect any such security, 'till we have a Gibraltar for that purpose in America? See the article WEST-INDIES, where we shall endeavour to shew how easily that might have been accomplished, and still may.

(34.) Because men in power will always know, that a fortress conquered by the fleets and armies, by the blood and treasure of England, and solemnly yielded up by treaty made with England, becomes part of the English dominions, and subject to the legislative power of England, and could not be disannexed but by act of parliament; and, consequently, any agreement to deliver up such a fortress to an enemy, is high treason within the statute of the 25th of Edward III; and to give it to any one else is one of those high treasons reserved by that act for the judgment of parliament.

For more reasons, if more should be required, to induce us never to give up GIBRALTAR, see the articles FRANCE and SPAIN, and all other articles, which tend to shew the nature and extent of their power and commerce.—For the particular state of the trade carried on through the Mediterranean Sea, see the articles ARCHIPELAGO, GENOA, LEVANT TRADE, NAPLES, ORIENTAL TRADE, TURKEY TRADE, TUSCANY, VENICE.

Note, The discerning reader will easily believe, from the preceding summary heads of argument, that we could have wire-drawn them to a great length, if we were not rather studious of communicating as much matter as we can in the fewest words, than to act the contrary part.

REMARKS ON OUR ARTICLE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, before the last war.

One part of the grand system of the court of Spain, in the time of Alberoni, was to preserve the rights of Spain and of the house of Parma to Spanish princes; and to make a settlement for Don Carlos and Don Philip worthy of their birth, out of the states which the emperor possessed in Italy: and has not this part of the system been steadily and successfully pursued? But how could these sovereignties be effectually secured, says a certain prince, without the possession of Gibraltar? This, therefore, was a point to be gained, in order the better to secure the other. The system, at present in Spain, is bottomed on the same principles; it is not only to provide for a third prince in Italy, or elsewhere, but to fall upon the establishment of manufactories, with a view to supply their extended American colonies themselves, instead of taking them from the other nations of Europe. Will not this affect Great-Britain, in proportion to what she now supplies Spain with? Some late accounts from Spain tell us, that it appears, by an authentic list of the ships which entered the Spanish ports last year, their number amounted to 1142: of which 643 were English, 277 French, 148 Dutch, and 74 of different nations.

Supposing this to be true, some people may infer from hence, perhaps, that the trade of England must be far superior to any of the rest: so it is, indeed! But what sort of trade are we carrying on with that nation? We are sending 6 or 700 ships or more, I am certain, annually to purchase their wines and their fruits, while France sends between 2 or 300 to carry their own manufactures. If this be the case, does not France, therefore, gain far more by their smaller quantity of shipping, than we do by double the number? The fact is, that we decline in our exports to Spain, and increase in our imports; while France increases in their exports to Spain, and decrease in their imports from thence. Is this then a nation from whom we are still to bear insults and depredations? Have they not allured away our manufacturers and shipwrights out of the kingdom, with a view to turn the hands of our own artists against us?

Vol. II.

That our readers may have a just idea of the measures which Spain are really pursuing at this time, which must inevitably tend to the detriment of the British commerce, as they shall advance that of the Spaniards; we refer them to the articles BISCAY in Old Spain, CATALONIA, DUTCH AMERICA, INDIA-HOUSE OF SPAIN, LOGWOOD TRADE, SPAIN, WEST-INDIES. What is urged under these heads, and in divers other parts of this work, will enable us to judge, whether it can ever be adviseable to acquiesce in the giving up Gibraltar; and especially so, if we add to these considerations what we have said also under the articles BRITISH AMERICA and FRANCE; because we shall there see, that SPAIN is now following the example of France, in order to ruin the commerce and navigation of these kingdoms: for the system of the two courts seems really to be what is said in a tract lately printed, called the Political Testament of cardinal Alberoni. 'While ' the navy of the two crowns [meaning those of France and ' Spain] says the writer, is not superior to that of the English ' and Dutch together; while MINORCA and GIBRALTAR ' are not in possession of the proper masters; while DUNKIRK ' is not raised from the state to which it was reduced by the ' treaty of Utrecht, a descent on the coast of ENGLAND and ' IRELAND, will be always ineffectual, &c.'

Of the CUSTOM-HOUSE affairs in relation to the Mediterranean trade.

I. If a ship be bound to any port in Portugal or Spain, or to any port on the Christian shore in the Mediterranean Sea, a bill of health must be granted at the loading port, or else the persons on board will not be permitted to come on shore in any of the said ports, 'till they have performed quarantine: the form of which bills of health must be as follows:

Portus Southamptoniæ,

Omnibus Christi fidelibus, ad quos præsentis literæ pervenerint. Nos ministri serenissimi principis domini nostri Georgii secundi regis, in portu Southamptoniæ, in regno Magnæ Britanniae, salutem. Cum pium sit & honestum veritati testimonium perhibere, ne error aut deceptio præjudicii ipsam opprimat: cumque navis nuncupata Diligentia, de Bristolia, cujus naclerus (sub Deo) est Henricus Hopkins, quæ jam parata est e dicto portu discedere, & abhinc (Deo volente) ad Italiam, & alia loca transmarina, cum viginti hominibus in eadem nave appellare. Hinc est, quod universitati vestræ tenore præsentium innotescimus, fidemque indubitatam facimus, quod (Deo optimo maximo summa laus attribuitur) in hoc dicto portu, nulla pestis, plaga nec morbus aliquis periculosus, aut contagiosus, ad præsens existit.

In cujus rei testimonium, sigilla officii nostra apponi fecimus. Datum hoc in regio telonio prædicti portus Southamptoniæ, decimo die Februarii, anno salutis Christianæ, secundum computationem ecclesiæ Anglicanæ, millesimo septingentesimo tricesimo primo, annoque regni dicti serenissimi domini nostri Georgii secundi, Dei gratiæ, Magnæ Britanniae, &c. regis, fidei defensoris, &c. quarto.

A. B. Collector,

D. E. Comptroller.

* If the ship be British, and comes from any part of the Mediterranean Seas, beyond the port of Malaga, and hath two decks, and both carry sixteen guns mounted, with two men for each gun, and other ammunition proportionable (which is called an act or qualified ship) or if one moiety of her full lading outwards, the last voyage, was fish, laden in any of his majesty's dominions; the goods imported in such ships are not liable to the duty of one per cent. which is payable when ships are not so qualified, or laden with fish: therefore in these cases, after the places names, there must be added as follows, viz.

* 14 Car. II, cap. 11. § 35, 36.

If the ship be qualified.—Which said ship has double decks from stem to stern, with sixteen [or more, as is the case] guns mounted, and other ammunition proportionable.

If the ship went out with fish.—Which said ship went out from Yarmouth to Leghorn this last voyage thither, full laden [or at least one moiety of her full lading] with fish of British taking and curing, and delivered the same at the said port of Leghorn.

But, if a ship that is not qualified, or was not laden outwards with fish, has taken in some part of her lading beyond the port of Malaga, and some on this side; the different places where the goods were taken in must be particularly distinguished in the report, as indeed in strictness should be practised in all cases where a ship loads at several ports: which distinctions may be made as follows:

Taken in at Leghorn,

A. B.—1 a 5—5 Cases—Silk—Andrew Bird.

Taken in at Cadiz,

B. C.—8, 9—2 Bales—Kid-skins—Benj. Crofs.

And, if the goods are such, that they are liable to forfeiture, or subject to a different duty, upon account of the

H h h

place

place at which they were taken in; the truth of their being taken in, at the particular place alledged by the master, must be confirmed, by making the following addition to the oath of his report, viz.

And that the goods above-mentioned to be taken in at— were really there laden on board, and were not landed at —, nor any other place whatsoever, but have been kept on board the above ship, ever since the first shipping thereof at—.

MEDITERRANEAN PASSES.—Counterfeiting, altering, or erasing them, or knowingly uttering or publishing such counterfeited, altered, or erased passes, is felony without benefit of clergy. 4 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 1.

MELLI, with the country of the MUNDINGOES, in Africa. The country formerly called Melli, now chiefly inhabited by the Mundingoes, who still retain pretty much of the character ascribed to the people of Melli, lies to the south of the river Gambia; on the west it borders on the kingdom of Kabo, on the south it has Melli properly so called, and the mountains that part it from Guinea, and on the east it extends to the kingdom of Gago.

A great part of this country we are little acquainted with, as is the case with regard to most of the inland territories of Africa, but towards the sea-coast this country is a little better known.

The first place of note we meet with is, KACHAO, a Portuguese colony, situated on the river of St. Domingo, which falls into the sea about 26 leagues below this town.

About 26 leagues above Kachao, on the same side of the river, is another trading town called FARINI, where, in the months of October and November, one may trade for about half the quantity of wax and ivory, which is traded for at Kachao. Here are also some slaves to be bought.

BOT is a village near the mouth of the river Gefves, where most of the traders buy rice, which is in great plenty there, and very good.

GESVES is a village on a river of the same name, on which the Portuguese have a factory. At Gefves one may trade yearly for 250 slaves, 80 or 100 quintals of wax, and as many of ivory.

Near the mouth of the river of Gefves, is a village called KURBALI, where there is a considerable trade for salt: here are also sold some slaves and ivory.

RIO GRANDE, or the GREAT RIVER, runs about 10 or 12 leagues to the south of the river of Gefves. About 80 leagues from the mouth of it is a nation of negroes, who are good traders in ivory, rice, millet, and some slaves. They are called Analons.

Over-against the mouth of Rio Grande, is a cluster of islands called Bissago Isles, the most considerable of which is CASAGUT, being about six leagues long and two broad: it's soil is very good, and produces millet, rice, and all kinds of pulse, besides orange and palm-trees, and many others. This island, with these of CARACHE, CANABAC, and LA GALLINA, are the only ones where the Europeans may trade with some security. They trade, however, sometimes at the other islands, but they must be extremely cautious; and yet, after all their precautions, they will be robbed and murdered, if they venture to go ashore.

The river NUNHO, runs 16 leagues to the south of Rio Grande; it is very considerable, and comes from a vast distance in land. One may buy here 300 quintals of ivory, and 100 slaves a year. Rice grows here admirably well, and is very cheap. There are every-where sugar-canes, which grow naturally, and plants of indigo, which might turn to good account. The trade is carried on here from March 'till August.

In the river of Sierra Leone, the late Royal African company of England had, in the year 1728, two islands; the one, called TASSO, a large flat island, near three league in circumference, in which the company's slaves had a good plantation: the rest of the island is covered with wood, among which are silk cotton-trees of an unaccountable size.

The other island is BENSE, whereon stood a regular fort. It was formerly the residence of one of the English chiefs. For more matter relating to the African trade, see the articles AFRICA; AFRICAN ISLANDS, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY, PORTUGUEZE AFRICAN TRADE. See also BRITISH and FRENCH AMERICA.

MENSURATION.

Under the article ARITHMETIC, we have given the whole art, both in rationale and practice, within the compass of a few pages; which, if well understood, what we have to add, can be no difficulty.

Of the customary way of taking dimensions, and measuring the several artificers works concerned in building.

As there are several sorts of work in building, which require the dimensions to be taken in feet and inches, for finding the superficial, or solid content thereof, before we proceed to treat of the measuring the several artificers works, it will be necessary, first, to shew how to multiply feet and inches by

feet and inches duodecimally, vulgarly called cross multiplication. For the better understanding of which, observe the following rules:

That, if feet are multiplied by feet, the product is feet.

If inches are multiplied into feet, every 12 of the product is one foot, and any number less than 12 are inches.

If inches are multiplied into inches, every 12 of the product is one inch, and any number less than 12 are parts of an inch.

If parts of an inch are multiplied by feet, every 12 of the product is one inch, and any number less than 12 are parts of an inch.

If parts of an inch are multiplied by inches, every 12 of the product is one part, and any number less than 12 are seconds.

If parts of an inch are multiplied by parts, every 12 of the product is one second, and any number less than 12 are thirds.

CASE I.

To multiply feet, inches, and parts, by parts.

Rule. First, Place a cypher under the last place of the multiplicand, instead of an integer, and also another cypher in the place of inches, and then the parts next following to the right-hand.

Secondly, Multiply the parts of the multiplier in the multiplicand, carrying 1 for every 12.

EXAMPLE I.

Multiply 7 feet 6 inches and a half, by a half inch, or 6 parts. Note, That for a quarter of an inch you must set down 3, for half 6, and for three quarters 9; those numbers being the quarter, half, and three quarters of 12.

OPERATION.

6 Times 6 is 36, the twelves in 36 is 3 F. I. P.
times, and nothing remains, therefore set 7 6 6
down 0 and carry 3; and 6 times 6 is 36, 0 0 6
and 3 I carry is 39, set down 3 and carry 3;
then 6 times 7 is 42, and 3 I carry is 45, 3 9 3 0
the twelves in 45 is 3 times, and 9 remains.
Now, as the whole multiplication is ended, set down the 9
that remains under the parts, and 3 under inches, the number
of twelves is 45, and the whole product is 3 inches, 9
parts, and 3 thirds.

CASE II.

To multiply feet, inches, and parts, by inches and parts.

Rule. First, Place a cypher under the last place of the multiplicand, instead of an integer, and the inches and parts in their places towards the right-hand.

Secondly, Multiply the parts into the parts, inches, and feet, and carry one for every 12.

Thirdly, Multiply the inches into the parts, inches, and feet, in the same manner; and, in adding the products, carry 1 for every 12, from one denomination to the other, and the sum will be the product required.

EXAMPLE II.

Multiply 15 feet, 7 inches, and 3 parts, by 9 inches 4 parts.

OPERATION.

First 4 times 3 is 12, that is 0 and carry F. I. P.
1; 4 times 7 is 28, and 1 I carry is 29, 15 7 3
set down 5 and carry 2; 4 times 15 is 60, and 2 I carry is 62, set down 2 and
carry 5, which set under the next denomination. 0 9 4
Secondly, 9 times 3 is 27, that is 3 and
carry 2; 9 times 7 is 63, and 2 I carry is 65, set down 5 and carry 5; 9 times 15
is 135, and 5 I carry is 140, the twelves in 140 is 11, and
there remains 8; set down the 8 under the inches, and 11
under the feet, and then add the two products together, and
the sum will be 12 feet, 1 inch, 7 parts, and 8 thirds, the
product required.

CASE III.

To multiply feet, inches, and parts, by feet, inches, and parts, when the feet of the multiplicand and multiplier do not exceed 20.

Rule. First, Place the feet of the multiplier under the feet of the multiplicand, and the inches and parts in their places to the right-hand.

Secondly, Multiply the feet, inches, and parts of the multiplier, each separately into the parts, inches, and feet of the multiplicand, as before in the preceding rules; and their several products, being added, will be the true product required.

EXAMPLE III.

Multiply 12 feet, 9 inches, and 5 parts, by 9 feet, 20 inches, and 2 parts.

M E N

OPERATION.

First, 2 times 5 is 10, set down 10 and carry 0; 2 times 9 is 18, set down 8 and carry 1; 2 times 12 is 24, and 1 carried is 25, set down 1 and carry 2, which set down.

Secondly, 10 times 5 is 50, that is 2 and carry 4; 10 times 9 is 90, and 4 carried is 94, set down 10 and carry 7; 10 times 12 is 120, and 7 carried is 127, the twelves in 127 is 10, and 7 remains, which set down.

Thirdly, 9 times 5 is 45, that is 9 and carry 3; 9 times 9 is 81, and 3 is 84, which contains 12 7 times, and 0 remains, set down 0 and carry 7; 9 times 12 is 108, and 7 carried is 115, which being the last figure to multiply, set down the whole product; and, lastly, add the three products together, and their sum will be 125 feet, 10 inches, 8 seconds, 8 thirds, and 10 fourths.

Having by this time, I hope, sufficiently instructed the reader in the multiplication of feet and inches, by feet and inches, I shall in the next place proceed, as I proposed, to the measuring the several artificers works concerned in building.

I. Of CARPENTERS WORK, &c. to measure.

The works done by carpenters, are chiefly framing of houses, barns, stables, floors, partitions, roofs, &c. making of doors, windows, stair-cases, cornishes, frontispieces, modillion-cornices, cove-eaves, and boarded floors of all sorts, weatherboarding, and boarded and cleft pale fencing.

1. To measure the body of a timber building, viz. of a house, barn, or stable, &c.

This sort of work is done by the square, containing 100 superficial feet. In measuring the outside carcase of a house, &c. take the length of one side and one end, and add them together, and their sum, multiplied into the height taken from the under-side of the sill, to the upper side of the raising, gives the content of one side and one end; which, being doubled, is the content of the whole body, or outside carcase of the building, in feet.

To bring the content found into squares, divide the product by 100, or cut off from the product two figures to the right-hand, and the remaining figures are so many squares, and the figures cut off are feet.

EXAMPLE IV.

Suppose a house, &c. 40 feet long, 20 feet wide, and 20 feet high, how many square of framing is contained in the body or outside carcase of the said house, &c.

OPERATION.

Add 20 feet the breadth to 40 feet the length, and the sum is 60, which multiply by 20 feet, the height, the product is 1200, the content of one side and one end; which being doubled, or multiplied by 2, gives 2400 feet for the content of the whole body or outside carcase, in feet: from which, if you cut off 2 figures to the right-hand, there remains 24, the number of squares required.

Note, That in framing there are no deductions to be made for doors, windows, &c. in the measuring.

2. Of roofs. This sort of work is also done by the square of 10 feet squared, or 100 superficial feet, the particular to be observed in measuring of which is, that let the roof be true pitch or not, and the ends thereof gable or slipped, they may be either of them measured by this general rule, viz. Multiply the length of the building by the length of the rafter, and twice that product is the content in feet.

EXAMPLE V.

In the aforesaid building of 40 feet long by 20 feet wide, admit the roof to be true pitch, viz. the length of the rafter, equal to $\frac{3}{4}$ of the breadth of the building, or 15 feet.

OPERATION.

Multiply 40 feet, the length of the building, by 15 feet, the length of the rafter, and the product is 600 feet, the content of one side; which doubled, or multiplied by 2, the product is 1200 feet, or 12 square, the content of the whole roof.

3. To measure the gable end of a house, &c. observe this rule, multiply the perpendicular by half the base or breadth of the building, or the whole base by half the perpendicular, and the product is the content.

M E N

In the gable end of the above-mentioned roof, the perpendicular is 11 feet 2 inches near, and the base 20 feet, what is the content?

OPERATION.

Multiply 20 feet, the whole base, by 5 feet 7 inches, half the perpendicular, and the product is 111 feet, 8 inches, which is 1 square, 11 feet, 8 inches, the content required.

4. Note, That the same rule will hold good for measuring the hip end of a roof, by observing that the length of the rafter in this case is the perpendicular.

N. B. The rafters, feet, and eaves-board, are measured at per foot, running.

5. Of floors. In naked flooring allow 9 or 10 inches for the length of the joist laid into the wall, or measure to the extremity of the joist, and from thence compute the squares contained therein.

6. In boarded flooring you must take your dimensions to the very extreme parts, and from thence compute the squares, out of which you must make deductions for stair-cases, chimnies, &c.

7. Weather-boarding is done by the yard square, and sometimes by the square, containing 100 superficial feet.

8. Framed partitions. The particular to be observed therein, is only that they are measured by the square.

9. Boarded partitions are also measured by the square, out of which, you must deduct the doors and windows contained therein, except they are agreed to be included.

10. Of windows. Windows are generally made and valued by the foot, superficial measure, and sometimes by the window. When they are measured, the dimensions must be taken in feet and inches, from the under side of the sill, to the upper side of the cap-piece, for the height; and for the breadth from outside to outside of the jaumbs; and the product of the multiplication is the superficial content.

11. Stair-cases are measured by the foot superficial, and the dimensions are taken with a string, girt over the raiser and tread, and, that length or girt, multiplied by the length of the step, the product is the superficial content.

12. Door-cases are measured by the foot superficial, and the dimensions must be taken with a string, girt round the architrave and inside of the jaumbs, for the breadth; and, for the length, add the length of the two jaumbs, to the length of the cap-piece, taking the breadth of the opening for the length thereof, and the product of their multiplication is the superficial content.

13. Frame-doors are measured by the yard square, containing nine square feet, and, if of whole deal, they are allowed work and half work, or double work, if of two inch stuff, in consideration of their being wrought on both sides.

14. Note, The same is to be said in regard to the measuring and valuing of window-shutters, as of doors.

15. Modillion cornices, coves, &c. are generally measured and valued by the foot superficial. Their dimensions, in respect to the breadth or height, are taken with a string, girt into the mouldings, and those dimensions, multiplied by the length, is the superficial content.

16. Fencing of all sorts is done by the rod, lineal measure, containing 16 feet and a half.

17. Wainscoting or joiner's work. Wainscoting is a work generally done by joiners, and is measured by the yard, square, and their dimensions are taken in feet and inches. Thus, they girt down every moulding with a string, contained between the floor and ceiling, for the height, and the circumference of the room for the length, deducting the doors, windows, and chimney. The seats of windows, cheeks, sophetas, linings, &c. are all to be taken by themselves, and doors and window-shutters are to be measured and valued as at number 13 and 14 hereof.

18. Frontispieces are measured and valued by the foot superficial, and every part thereof measured separately, viz. the architrave, frieze, and cornice, each of them by themselves, also the pilasters or columns by themselves, and, lastly, add all the several measurements together, and the product is the content of the whole.

Note, That, in taking the dimensions, you must girt the moulding with a string.

II. Of BRICKLAYERS WORK to measure.

The principal work in a building done by bricklayers, is walling, tileing, rough-casting, &c.

1. Of brick walls. What is to be observed therein is, that the measure by which brick-work is measured is a square rod, or 16 feet and a half squared, whose product is equal to 272 feet and a quarter, the content of one rod of brick-work at the statute thickness of one brick and a half: and, if the wall is more or less than that thickness, it must be reduced thereto by this rule: multiply the number of feet contained in the superficial content of the wall, by the number of half bricks

that the wall is in thickness, and divide the product by 3, and the quotient is the true content required.
Note, That, although there be 272 feet and a quarter in a rod of brick-work at the standard thickness, yet workmen measuring brick-work always reject the quarter, and divide by 272 only.

E X A M P L E I.

How many rods of brick-work are contained in a wall 40 feet long, 8 feet high, and 2 bricks thick?

Feet,	
Length 40	
Height 8	
<hr/>	
320 feet in the superficial content of the wall	
Half bricks 4	
<hr/>	
3)1280(426 feet $\frac{1}{2}$, the superficial content reduced,	
8	which to bring into rods, divide the 426
6	feet by 272, and the quotient will be rods;
—	and, if the remainder be divided by 68,
20	the feet contained in a quarter of a rod,
—	the quotient will be quarters, and the last
2	remainder feet.
	Note, That the $\frac{2}{3}$ remaining in the first
	work is equal to 8 inches.
272)426(1 rod.	
272	The whole reduced content of a piece
—	of brick-work 40 feet long, 8 feet high,
68)154(2 quart.	and 2 bricks thick, is 1 rod, 2 quarters,
136	18 feet, 8 inches, as required.
—	
18 feet.	

When you measure brick-work, observe to measure every thickness by itself, and that you make every deduction out of it's proper thickness; also, that, when you measure two walls that constitute an angle, the length of one must be taken to the outside, and the other to the inside.

2. Chimnies must be measured and valued as a solid wall, out of which deduct the vacancy between the jaumbs and the mantle; the funnels are allowed solid, in regard to the trouble of them, and the pargetting the inside. This of square chimnies.

3. Angle chimnies, such as stand in a square corner, and are equal each way from the corner, observe this rule: multiply half the breadth of the breast, or front, by the height of the story, and that product by the number of half bricks contained in the inches of the half breadth of the breast, or front, and divide this last product by 3, and the quotient will be the true reduced content in feet, out of which must be deducted the vacancy as in square chimnies.

4. If the chimney do not stand equal from the corner of the room on both sides, or the corner be not square, it is usual to lay out the angle parallel to the walls, and take one side of the angle, and multiply by the height of the story, and half the other side of the angle for the thickness; then proceed in every respect as before directed, and it will give the true reduced content required.

Remember to measure the trimmers that support the hearths, taking the length by the girt of the arching of them, accounting them half a brick thick; so that if they are 6 feet long, and 1 foot 6 inches girt, there is 3 feet of reduced brick-work therein.

E X A M P L E II.

Suppose a chimney that stands in the corner, or angle of a square room, be 7 feet in front, and the height of the story 9 feet 6 inches, and the opening 3 feet square, and 18 inches deep, how many feet of reduced brick-work is contained therein?

feet. inches.	
9 6 height of the story	
3 6 half the front	
<hr/>	
4 9 0	
28 6	
<hr/>	
33 3 0	
	9 half bricks in 3 feet 6 inches, or half the length
3)299 3 0(99 1 quotient	[of the front]
27	
—	
29	
27	
—	
2 equal to 8 inches.	

feet.

3	} the opening
3	
<hr/>	
9	
4	half-bricks deep
<hr/>	
3)36(12, reduced feet in the opening to be deducted	
6	
<hr/>	
0	
99	9, the reduced content of the chimney
12	0, opening to deduct
<hr/>	
87	9 remains, the content required.

By the above operation, it appears there are 99 feet 9 inches of reduced brick-work in the chimney; for, there being 99 feet 1 inch in the quotient, the 2 that remains is equal to 8 inches, being two-thirds of the divisor, which, added to the 99 feet 1 inch, makes it 99 feet 9 inches in the whole; from which if you subtract 12 feet, the content of the opening, there remains 87 feet 9 inches nett brick-work, for the content required.

5. Besides this rough brick-work, there is other kind of walling performed by foot-measure, and such are facio's, arches over doors, windows, &c. architraves, friezes, cornices, rustics, returns, &c. piers, columns, pilasters, &c.

6. Tiling is measured by the square of 10 feet, as carpenters measure their roofs. You must observe, in taking dimensions of tiling, that you measure the whole length, that is, as far as the tiles are laid, for your length, and take from the ridge to the eaves for your breadth, and thereby you will have the true content required. When many hips and vallies happen in a roof, every foot remaining must be added to the measure as square feet.

Note, Observe to deduct the chimnies out of the tiling.

7. Thatching is a work performed by the square, and is measured the same as tiling.

8. Besides all the above work, there comes to the bricklayer's hands the paving of kitchens, cellars, &c. with brick, or pammets, which work is measured by the yard square, containing 9 square feet.

III. Of PLAISTERERS WORK to measure.

Rough-casting, plaistering, cieling, &c. are done by the yard square, and the dimensions taken in feet and inches.

The principal things to be observed in measuring of which are as follow:

1. To make deductions for chimnies, windows, and doors.
2. To make no deductions for rendering upon brick-work, for doors and windows, by reason the jaumbs and heads generally exceed the vacancies.
3. If the workmen find materials for rendering between quarters, you must deduct one fifth for quarters, bafes, &c. but, if workmanship only is found, you must measure the whole as whole work, for the workman could have performed the whole much sooner, if there had been no quarters.
4. That such summers and girders as lie below a cieling be deducted, if the workman finds materials, otherwise not.
5. In measuring of whitening and colouring between quartering, there must be a fourth part allowed extraordinary, for the returns of the quarters, or take the length with a string, and so girt the quarters, which is the truest way.

IV. Of MASONS WORK to measure.

1. Masons work, which is measured by foot measure, either lineal, square, or cubical. The principal thing to be observed herein is, that they girt all their mouldings as joiners do, and take their dimensions in feet, inches, and parts.

The solids are blocks of stone, marble, or any kind of stone, columns, cornices, &c. the superficies are pavements, slabs, chimney-pieces, and the like. It is to be observed, that masons first measure the cube of the stone, and their superficial plain work, also superficial moulded work (if any) as follows: First, They account all such stones as are above two inches thick at so much per foot, solid measure, and, for the workmanship, they measure the superficies of the stone, but then they measure no more of the stone than what appears without the wall.

But, as their method of measuring is not so well understood by many as some others, it may be proper to give an example how to measure a chimney piece, as a guide to all others.

First, then, take the length of the mantle, or head-stone, and the slab (whose extent is generally the same) for one sum of the dimensions, and the breadth of both add together, with an inch or more for the under edge of the mantle, and half an inch (or whatever it is) for the upper edge, which, being all added, is the other sum of the dimension.

Secondly, Take the length of the jaumbs, or sides, allowing an inch longer than is seen (they going in below the slab) for one

M E N

one sum, and the breadth of one girting, all that is seen, and double it for the second sum of the dimension.
Thirdly, If there be slips and noisings to the chimney-piece, measure the length by all the girt that is seen in breadth, or make the dimension twice.
Fourthly, Fire-stone hearths, and coving-stones, must be cast up by themselves, and all that appears in sight measured.

V. Of GLAZIERS WORK to measure.

Glaziers work is measured by the superficial foot, and the dimensions are taken in feet, inches, and parts, or by feet, and the hundred parts of a foot, as their rules are generally divided: therefore the measurer of glaziers work should understand decimals; allowing the feet as integers, and the parts as decimals; so that three quarters, or 9 inches, is 75; half a foot, or 6 inches, is 50; and a quarter, or 3 inches, 25 of these parts.

1. Therefore, admit a pane, or light of glass, that is leaded, be 2 feet 6 inches long, and 1 foot 6 inches wide, they set it down as on their rules, 250 by 150.

To shew the agreement between the decimal and duodecimal way of working, I will give the above example wrought both ways as follow:

By decimals.	By duodecimals.
	Feet. Inches.
2,50	2 6
1,50	1 6
<hr/>	<hr/>
1,2500	1 3 0
2,50	1 6
<hr/>	<hr/>
3,7500	3 9 0

By the above operation it appears, that the aforesaid pane of glass, by the decimal way of working, is 3 feet 75 parts, equal to 3 feet and three quarters: and, by the duodecimals, 3 feet 9 inches, equally the same: for, as 75 is three quarters of 100, so is 9 three quarters of 12. Should there be several lights, or panes, of the same bigness, you need measure but one, for multiplying that product by the number of lights, gives the contents of the whole. As for

EXAMPLE.

Suppose a sash-window contains 12 squares, and each square of glass 125, or 1 foot 3 inches long, and 75, or 9 inches broad, and the content required.

By decimals.	By duodecimals.
	Feet. Inches.
1,25	1 3
75	0 9
<hr/>	<hr/>
625	11 3
875	Number of squares 12
<hr/>	<hr/>
9375	11 3 0
No. of squares 12	
<hr/>	
18750	
9375	
<hr/>	
11,2500	

The content of the whole by both ways is 11 feet and $\frac{3}{4}$.

To measure circular, or oval windows, take the same length and breadth as their diameters, as if they had been square windows, because in cutting out the quarries of glass there is a great waste, and more time expended therein, than if they had been square windows.

VI. Of PAINTERS WORK to measure.

Painters work is measured the same as joiners work, by the yard square, only with this difference, that, instead of accounting the doors and window-shutters work and half, they have double work, as being painted on both sides; and they also measure all edges, &c. where the brush goes.

1. Sash-frames, sash-lights, window-lights, and casements, are done at per piece.
2. Modillion, and other outside cornices, at per foot running.

Of such measures as are used in lands and buildings.

1. A square foot is 144 square inches.
2. A cubical foot is 1728 cubical inches.
3. A square yard is 9 square feet.
4. A cubical yard is 27 cubical feet.
5. A square is 100 square feet.
6. A load of rough timber is 40 feet.
7. A load of squared timber is 50 feet.
8. A load of 1 inch plank is 600 square feet.
9. A load of 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch plank is 400 square feet.
10. A load of 2 inch plank is 300 square feet.

M E N

11. A load of 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch plank is 240 square feet.
12. A load of 3 inch plank is 200 square feet.
13. A load of 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch plank is 170 square feet.
14. A load of 4 inch plank is 150 square feet.
15. A load of statute bricks is 500.
16. A load of plain tiles is 1000.
17. A load of lime is 32 bushels.
18. A load of sand is 36 bushels.
19. A hundred of lime is 35 bushels.
20. A hundred of deals is 120.
21. A hundred of nails is 120.
22. A thousand of nails is 1200.
23. A ton of iron is 2240 lb. weight.
24. A fodder of lead is 19 hundred and a half, or 2184 lb.
25. A hundred of lead is 112 lb. weight.
26. A table of glass is 5 feet, and 45 tables is a case, but Newcastle, Normandy glass, 25 tables is a case.
27. A geometrical pace is 5 feet in length.
28. A geometrical perch is 10 feet in length.
29. A statute pole or perch is 16 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet in length.
30. A square statute pole or perch is 272 $\frac{1}{4}$ square feet.
31. A woodland pole or perch is 18 feet in length.
32. A square woodland pole is 234 square feet.
33. A forest pole or perch is 21 feet in length.
34. Four statute perches is one chain's length.
35. Ten chains length is a furlong, or acre's length.
36. Four chains length is an acre's length.
37. Forty square perches is a rood, or a quarter of an acre.
38. Four roods, or 160 perches is one acre.
39. A hide of land is 100 acres.

REMARKS.

Since the sliding rule hath come into general practice among men of business, these operations have been greatly facilitated; and, as these are so easily and mechanically learned, few tradesmen concern themselves to enter deeper into the principles of geometry, whereon the whole art of mensuration is bottomed.

Of SOLID and CUBICAL MEASURE, and the Use of the CARPENTER'S RULE therein.

This measure respects length, breadth, and thickness or depth, being applicable to timber, stone, &c. the dimensions whereof, suppose, are taken in feet and inches.

1. When the breadth and thickness are the same from one end to the other.

The GENERAL RULE.

Multiply the length by the breadth, and that product by the thickness, and the last product will be the content; or, if the breadth and thickness be multiplied together, and their product by the length, it will give the content.

EXAMPLE.

Suppose a parallelopipedon to be a piece of timber, stone, &c. whose length is 18 feet, it's breadth 3, and thickness 2 feet, $18 \times 3 \times 2 = 108$ feet, the content.—Or $3 \times 2 \times 18 = 108$.

By the SLIDING RULE.

The breadth and thickness being so reduced to the mean side of a square, set 1 upon D, to the length upon C, and opposite to the mean side, upon D, will be found the content upon C.

EXAMPLE.

The mean side, found as hereafter taught 2,45 }
The length - - - - - 18 } Feet.
The content - - - - - 108 }

By the CARPENTER'S RULE.

Set the length in feet on the sliding-piece to 1, on the square or girt-line; and, opposite to the mean side, in inches on the square or girt-line, will be found the content in feet, on the sliding-piece.

In the foregoing example, the dimensions were given only in feet, therefore the product was feet. But,

2. When the length is given in feet, and the breadth and thickness in inches, the last produce must be divided by 144 (the square inches in a foot) and the remainder (if any) by 12, and the quotient will be the content in solid feet and inches.

EXAMPLE.

Suppose a piece of timber, &c. to be 15 feet long, 13 feet broad, and 8 inches thick,

$$\therefore 15 \times 13 \times 8 \text{ Feet. Inches.} \\ \underline{144} = 10 \text{ 10 the content.}$$

By the SLIDING RULE.

The breadth and thickness being reduced to the mean side of a square, set 12 upon D, to the length upon C, and, opposite to the mean side upon D, will be found the content upon C.

Yet this method is generally practised, as being a medium between the content of the utmost cylindric circumference, and the following method of taking the square within the circle, which is only mentioned for demonstration sake.

A third way to measure round timber is, by rejecting so much of the cylindric circumference as will reduce it to a parallelopipedon; that is, by taking the square within the circular end or base, being such a square whose four angles will be contained within the circumference.

If the circumference of a circle be unity, the side of the square inscribed will be .2251: therefore, multiply the circumference by the said .2251, and the product will be the side inscribed, which squared, and that square multiplied by the length, will produce the content.

Otherwise note, If the diameter of a circle be unity, the side of the square inscribed will be .7071: therefore multiply the diameter by the said .7071, and the product will be the side inscribed, which squared, and that square multiplied by the length, will produce the content.

The circumference of a round piece of timber being given in inches, to find how much in length will make a solid foot.

The RULE.

Multiply the number 2821 by the circumference, which will produce the side of a square equal; then multiply that side into itself for a divisor, and let 1728 be the dividend, and the quotient will be the length of a foot.

By the SLIDING RULE.

Set the circumference upon D, to 12 upon C; and, opposite to 42.53 upon D, will be found the length of a foot upon C.

2. When the circumference is not the same from one end to the other, that is, when the timber is tapering, as are masts, &c.

The rule for the true method, according to the utmost conical circumference.

Having found the diameters of the circumference at each end (as before taught) multiply them together, and to the product add $\frac{1}{3}$ of the square of their difference; the total whereof multiplied by .7854 (the area of a circle whose diameter is unity) will produce a mean area; which, multiplied by the length, will give the content.

But the usual way is, to take $\frac{1}{4}$ of the girth in the middle (or rather $\frac{1}{4}$ of the girths at each end, and add them together, and take $\frac{1}{4}$ of their sum) for the side of a mean square throughout, which multiplied into itself, and that product by the length, will give the content.—Many of the customary methods of measuring timber, &c. deviate from the true; but it is our business to give an account of practice. Those who would enter into the rationale of these things must be pretty well read in geometry. See the article MATHEMATICS.

MENTZ, an archbishopric and electorate in Germany. It lies on the banks of the river Mayne, between the electorate of Triers on the west, the Palatinate on the south, Franconia on the east, and the Wetteraw on the north. It is about 60 miles in length, from north-east to south-west, and about 50 in breadth.

A considerable part of the elector's revenue arises from the toll on the Rhine and the Mayne, and from the tax on the excellent wines produced in his country.

The chief towns of any trade are, 1. **MENTZ**, on the Rhine, near its confluence with the Mayne. This city claims a right to the invention of the art of printing, which certainly was first brought to great perfection here by Faust, or Guttenburg, about the year 1450.

Here is a very beautiful kay along the river, defended by several works, well fortified with cannon. That part of the city which extends towards the river is most populous. The best vineyards for Rhenish wines being in this neighbourhood, Mentz has a flourishing trade in that commodity more particularly; and its commerce is the brisker, by reason that all the merchandize which passes up and down the Rhine stops in its harbour, to change bottoms. In this neighbourhood is Hockhem, so celebrated for good wines, that the best Rhenish is from thence called Old Hock.

2. **BINGEN** is a pleasant small town, which stands in the district called Rhingaw, which is so populous, that it looks like one intire town, intermixed with gardens and vineyards. The rising grounds about it produce wines that are esteemed preferable to those of Baccharac, so much in vogue heretofore.

3. **ELFELD**, five miles west from Mentz, is a strong fortified town, on the north side of the Rhine, and the chief of the Rhingaw.—Here is Roderheim, a place noted for the growth of the best wines in these parts.

4. **WEISBADEN** lies between six and seven leagues from Frankfort, and about five or six miles north of Mentz: it is the metropolis of a country belonging to the branch of Nassau-Saarbrack, and is famous for its mineral waters.

MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP, or what is usually called **MERCHANTS ACCOUNTS**, according to the method of double entry, as practised by the most eminent merchants throughout the world.

Before the reader enters upon what follows, he is desired to consult the following articles, viz. ACCOUNTANTSHIP; ACCOUNTING-HOUSE, ANONYMOUS, BANKING, BOOK-KEEPING, DEBTOR and CREDITOR, and LEDGER, MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP; all which, considered together, in the various lights there represented, will render what we have further to say very easy and intelligible, and make him a complete accountant in any kind of business whatsoever.

INTRODUCTION.

In keeping of mercantile accounts there are three principal books, the waste-book, the journal, and the ledger.

I. In the waste-book are entered, in the plainest manner, as bought, sold, received, paid, &c. all transactions of commerce, with their dates, sums, conditions, and every particular circumstance relating thereto.

II. The journal is, for substance, the same as the waste-book; but, as this must be more fairly written, so it must be expressed in a very different manner, more merchant-like, as it is a preparatory for the ledger. In this book the debit and credit are rationally fixed and settled, according to the principles of accountantship; and, therefore, this requires the book-keeper's hand: and, because in journalizing the waste-book lies all the difficulty of account-keeping, we have exhibited the nature and reason thereof upon a single sheet, for the use of immediate inspection. Suppose, for example, that you have entered, in your waste-book, Received of A. B. in full 50l. To post this into your journal, look for the article money received for a bond, or, otherwise, cash is made debtor to the person that owed it you: therefore in the journal, after the date, say, Cash debtor to A. B. received in full 50l.

III. The ledger is the grand and principal book of accounts, which, when duly posted, regulates and adjusts all your concerns with respect to men, money, and merchandizes, and brings all things under their proper heads, and to their respective accounts. And, as this book gives you a comprehensive view of all your negotiations, so it does a complete balance of the whole year's traffic.

As the waste-book is posted into the journal, so the journal is into the ledger; and, if the waste-book be judiciously posted into the journal, with respect to its debtors and creditors in the proper journal phrase, as follows, under the letter (J) it will be very easy to post the journal into the ledger, if you remember the following

Directions to post journal entries into the ledger.

1. In every account there is a debit and a credit part; and, though the journal doth not express the credit part, yet it is understood, for the person or thing that follows the word (To) is the creditor, or, instead of the word (To) read creditor. Take the instance above; cash debtor to A. B. received in full 50l.—Or thus, debtor cash 50l. creditor A. B. 50l. Turn, therefore, to ledger to cash account, as suppose folio (1) and, in debtor side, write, Date Jan. (1) To A. B. received in full (fol. 9.) 50l. then turn to A. B.'s account (fol. 9.) and in credit thereof write, Jan. (1) By cash received of him in full (fol. 1.) 50l. From hence observe, besides the date in ledger-margin, that, after the word (To) in debit, follows immediately A. B. viz. he that must be made creditor; and after the date and word (By) in the credit-entry, follows cash, the name of the account that is made debtor; and that debtor and creditor counter-parts refer to each other, and stand in journal as before margin thus:

(1) Debtor.
(9) Creditor.

2. Observe, once for all, whatsoever you debit in one place in your ledger, must have an equivalent credit in another. And notwithstanding in sundry accounts there is one article debtor, and several creditors, as in letter (V) or several debtors and one creditor, as in letter (L) be that as it happens; yet debit and credit are always equal, or as much value as you debit you must credit, before your journal-entry is duly posted in the ledger.

3. Besides a reference column, another inside column must be kept for the quantity of goods, as hogheads, pipes, bales, &c. On the debtor side must contain the quantity bought in, and on the credit the quantity sold out, by which you know at any time how much of each you have unfold, &c.

Note, Although we have described the nature and use of these three essential books, wherein a merchant's dealings might be all kept, yet, by many classes of traders, the waste-book may be omitted, and the journal and ledger be sufficient; for the book keeper might journalize at once every occurrence, without entering them at all in a waste-book. But, he not being always in the way, nay sometimes obliged to make entries in a hurry, it is proper, in general, to keep a waste-book, from which he may at more leisure correctly and fairly form his journal.

But to prevent those books filling up, merchants, by experience, find it necessary to keep other books subservient to them, as a cash-book, book of charges of merchandize, book of household expences, factory or invoice-book, the sale's-book; the nature and use of which are as follow:

IV. The

IV. The cash-book. This book is folioed, as the ledger, and kept to ease the account of cash there, and prevent receipts and payments being entered at all in the journal. On the left-hand side you make cash debtor to all you receive, and on the right-hand side cash creditor by all you pay.— And, at the end of the month, you may post it directly to the ledger, or, as usual, make two journal entrances, viz. cash debtor to sundries for all the receipts, and sundries debtor to cash for all the payments of the month: so, by the help of this book, you will have but 12 lines in the cash-account in the ledger on the debit, and 12 on the credit, for the 12 months. But some chuse to post their cash weekly, that they may more easily recollect any omission or mistake. Note, A book is said to be folioed, when, on opening, the right-hand side and left (though two pages) are but one folio.

V. The book of charges of merchandise is only paged, in which are entered down promiscuously the charges attending each sort of goods or voyage daily as they occur, whether belonging to yourself or others, or for company account. And the respective goods or voyages are made debtors for their proper share of charges to account of charges of merchandise. And, at the end of each month, your cash must have credit for the whole charges of the month.

VI. The book of household expences falls under the care of the housekeeper, who might put down the disbursements for family provisions, &c. house-rent, servants wages, schooling, &c. perishing goods, as earthen-ware (but durable goods, as beds, chests of draws, &c. do more properly belong to account of household furniture) this may be cast up once a month, or otherwise; and, having paid your housekeeper the month's disbursements, credit your cash as before; then add up your month's payments in the cash-book, which journalized, sundries (and among the rest these accounts, charges of merchandize, and house expences) will be debtors to cash their respective sums.

VII. The *factory or invoice-book*, is paged and used to copy out verbatim the invoice of goods you sent abroad, whether for your own or others, or company account.

VIII. The book of sales is folioed as the ledger, into which is copied an exact account of sales which you send your employer; the credit side whereof contains the sales when, to whom, what quantity and price, whether for cash, barter, or to M. and S. on time. On the debit the particular charges, abatements, commissions, and nett proceeds.

But we are far from thinking it necessary that a learner should have copies of these five last subservient books: such a multiplicity of books would serve to amuse, rather than to instruct; when a specimen of all these might be given him in one single sheet of paper. To these books might be added, the book for copying letters, the book for copying bills, a remembrancer or pocket-book, and the receipt-book; but, as these are generally known, so their names carry in them a sufficient description.

Note, To save the labour of opening an account in the ledger for every person, the merchant erects a general account, the debit whereof takes in those several small dealers that owe, their respective names, to what account, and sum. And, as they pay, he dischargeth each, mentioning his name on the credit side also; where the merchant likewise (in posting his journal) carries those little debts he owes, and, as he pays, debits the persons.

In like manner, the merchant opens an account of merchandise general, into the debit whereof he posts all those little parcels and sorts of goods he buys in, and not like to deal much in, and for which already he has no particular account opened in the ledger ; and, as they are sold, he gives the said account credit, expressing the name of goods and quantity, in every entry, whether in debit or credit : by which, with a little trouble, he knows how much of any sort of these petty wares are left, as effectually, as though he had kept a particular account for each.

If at any time you make a wrong entry in the ledger, in debit or credit side, make a cross in the margin thus X, and write in the opposite side, To or By an error committed in credit or debit of this account, wrote off the sum, &c.

PART I.

A general Rule to be remembered. The RECEIVER is DEBTOR: The DELIVERER is CREDITOR. Also whatsoever Merchandizes or Money come into your Hands, are DEBTORS; what go from you, are CREDITORS.

I. To post your Waste-Book into your Journal; for a Foundation, at your Commencement in Trade, you must begin with the INVENTORY.

Inventoy of all the

A { Ready money, merchandize by you, and debts and voyages belonging to you ; make
those severall parcels or persons, D^r. to your stock, or general capital.

B { Debts owing to you, make stock, or general capital D^r. to those fundry persons.*.

* The title stock, or general capital, is used instead of your own name.

Money received.

- C For a bond, or book-debt, D^r. cash to the person that owed the same, for the sum received *.
- D For a legacy, a wager won, or gains by lotteries, or the exchange of money : D^r. cash to account of profit and loss.
- E For wares sold : D^r. cash to those respective wares (if more than one sort) each it's value.
- F Taken up at interest on bond. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{D^r. sundry} \\ \text{accounts,} \\ \text{viz.} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{D^r. cash the sum took up} \\ \text{D^r. interest, or profit and} \\ \text{loss for the interest} \end{array} \right\} \text{to the lender, for both principal and interest.}$
- G For interest of money formerly lent, and principal continued : D^r. cash to account of interest, or profit and loss, (which you please).
- H For freight of a ship, rent of a house, or estate : cash D^r. to such a ship, house, or estate.—Except the tenant has an account opened in your books, and he made D^r. already, to house or estate.—Then cash D^r. to the said tenant's accompt to discharge him.
- I As an assurer, or insurer, for insuring another's ship, or goods at sea, &c. D^r. cash to account of assurance or insurance, or profit and loss.

• Mention whether in full or in part; also in exchanges. Observe to keep an inside column for the foreign specie, and, after having found it's value (by the rule of exchange) in the coin of that country you are in, carry it in the outward column, as in those instances given before under the article LEDGER.

Money paid.

- K Which was due from you, whether on bond, debt, or goods, formerly bought, &c.
D^r. the person to whom due, to cash the sum, &c.
- L For goods just bought, and paid for at delivery: D^r. the wares come in, to the money gone out.
- M For house expences, or with a son to apprentice, * house expences, or profit and loss D^r. to cash.
- N Lent at interest on bond: D^r. the { to cash the sum lent.
borrower to fundries. } to profit and loss for the interest.
- O For interest only, the principal continued: D^r. profit and loss, or account of interest, to cash.
- P For insurance of goods you sent to sea: D^r. voyage, &c. to cash.
- Q As by an insurer for a loss, &c. D^r. insurance account to cash.—But if the loss is not paid presently—D^r. insurance to the person insured. And, then when you pay it, D^r. insured person to cash.
- R For another, as in behalf of your landlord, for reparation or taxes of the house you dwell in: make your landlord D^r. to cash.

* These accounts, viz. house expences, interest, insurance, bottomry, profit and loss, though often kept distinct, are all of the same nature with the account of stock; for, whatever you lose by either of these, the respective account is made D^r. and C^r. when you gain. For, if you receive money for a legacy or portion, either make Cash D^r. to profit and loss, or rather to stock; because, on closing the books, you'll see by what means your stock is increased.

Merchandizes, &c.
bought and received.

- S For present money: D^r. goods bought, to cash for their cost and charges, if any, for carriage, freight, &c.
- T For time: D^r. goods received to the feller, (to pay at such a time, if a certain time was agreed on.)
- V For part money, part time: D^r. wares come in, { to cash, paid in part,
to fundry accounts, C. } to feller, rest unpaid.
To a ship, house, or estate bought, such a ship, house, or estate (with name or place for description) D^r. to cash or feller, &c.
- U For part money, part another's note, and part { to cash the sum paid.
time: D^r. wares received, to fundry accounts. } to the man you received the note of.
to selling-man the rest due.
- W By my factor A. at one place, per my orders, and shipped off to my factor B. at another place, voyage to, &c. consigned to B. D^r. to factor A. my account for cost and charges, &c.
- X Received from your factor, for your own account: write D^r. goods received, to factor [my account] current for cost and charges he paid thereon.

Merchandizes in
barter.

- Y Wares for wares, when of equal value: D^r. wares received to wares delivered.
- Z Bought for part money, part wares, of divers sorts: D^r. wares received to fundries. { to the respective wares delivered, their value.
to cash, to make up the rest.
- A Bought for part money, part wares, part { to cash, the sum paid.
time: D^r. wares bought to fundries — } to wares you delivered, their value.
to your dealer, the rest owing him.
- B But, when several wares are bartered for several, then D^r. your dealer to fundries, viz. to each sort you deliver out, for it's value. And make fundry accounts, viz. each sort you receive, D^r. to your dealer for it's respective value.
- C Suppose you send goods to M. and left to his choice, whether to keep or return them: make account of suspense D^r. to goods sent M.—If he returns them again, reverse it. But if he keeps the said goods, make M. D^r. to account of suspense, for such goods sent him.
- D —So when you have an overplus in cash, as of 10 l. make cash D^r. to account of suspense 10 l.—When you recollect the person or account, that should have had credit. —Make account of suspense D^r. to said person on account, for said omission.

Account of suspense,
or bargains unde-
termined.

Goods sent to sea.

- E Voyage to, &c. consigned { to the respective wares for their value *.
to—&c. D^r. to fundries. } to cash, on charges of merchandize for customs, insurance, &c.
- F When you buy a cargo, for ready money, then D^r. voyage, &c. to cash at once, (these never having been entered in your books.)
- G When you buy goods for sea, to pay some time hence: then voyage,—&c. D^r. to person or persons you bought them of.
- H When for use, and † account of your friend, (in either of the last cases) then your friend [his] account current is D^r. &c.

* This cargo being taken out of your own wares, which have been entered in your books.

† It is [my account] when goods, &c. belong to me. And [his account] when they belong to my correspondent.

Goods sold.

- I For ready money, D^r. cash received to goods delivered out.
- K For time, D^r. the buyer to the several wares, for their values respectively.
- L For part money, part time: { D^r. cash, received in part.
D^r. fundries, viz. } D^r. the buyer for the rest owing. } to goods sold.
- M For part money, part { D^r. cash you received.
wares, part by ano- } D^r. wares you received, their value. } to goods sold, for their
ther's bill, part time: } D^r. the person who is to pay the bill. } values.
D^r. fundries, viz. } D^r. your dealer, due on time the rest. }
- N By advice from my factor: D^r. the factor [my] account current to voyage, for goods sold. (See the note above †.)

Charges.	O	On goods bought, fee (S) or sent to sea, fee (E) or to book a month's charges, fee description of charge-book—or on interest, fee (O) or on insurance, fee (P).
	P	As repairs or taxes on your own house, estate, or ships outset: such house, estate, or ship, D ^r . to cash. But, if paid by you for your landlord, fee (R).
		Discounted by a tenant { out of rent due to you, D ^r . house or estate to tenant.—But, if for an estate to which you are executor in trust, D ^r . estate of A. B. deceased, to tenant. out of rent due to A. B. for whom you are steward: estate of A. B. D ^r . to tenant.

Abatements.	Q	Upon wares { Bought: D ^r . the person that sold them to the said wares you bought, the sum abated. Sold: D ^r . the wares you sold to your chapman that bought them, (so reversing the sales).
	R	Upon debts { Due to you: D ^r . account of profit and loss to the person you abate, the sum, &c. Owing to you: D ^r . the person that abates to profit and loss account*.

* Abatements, by your factor made for defect of goods, bad debts, or for any farther charges (after you had received your account of sale from him) make voyage D^r. to factor [my] account current. Abatements, by you as a factor, having before sent your employer his account of sales, make your employer his account current, D^r. to the man you abate, as also to charges on remitting money, postage, &c.

Assignments.	S	Of money received by assignation: D ^r . cash to the person that assigned it (not to him that paid it).
		Of R's bill or bond, who owes you 100 l. to M. whom you owe 200 l. make M. D ^r . to R. paid the said M. in part 100 l. by assignation.

Consignments.	T	Of goods to you as a factor: D ^r . goods consigned for account of A. B. that sent them, to cash or charges of merchandize for any custom, or charges at landing, &c.
		You send to a factor (see goods sent to sea) but he advising you he has sold them (vide goods sold).

Selling or buying goods, paying or receiving money for your employer, is booked as your own proper. The buyer D^r. to goods for account of A. B. &c. [always mentioning whose].
Goods in return, you ship off with charges: D^r. A. B. your friend his account current, to the several goods, charges, &c. you send, or to the person or persons you bought them of.

Bills of Exchange.	V	Remitted to you, { And paid at sight: D ^r . cash to the remitter, viz. He that sent it, mentioning whether for his or my account current. To be paid you at 1 or 2 usance (or months hence) D ^r . account of bills receivable, to the remitter, and when you receive the money for it: D ^r . cash to account of bill receivable. [Mind to keep an inside column for the foreign specie.] See the article LEDGER.
	W	Drawn on you, { And paid at sight: D ^r . the drawer to cash, or had you laid out for a bill to send D ^r . the same. Payable at time: D ^r . the drawer to account of bills payable, and when you have paid the said bill, then D ^r . account of bills payable to cash*.
	X	Drawn for my account, between my factors: D ^r . drawing factor [my] account current, to paying factor [my] account current.

* By these accounts you will see what bills you have to receive or pay.

Goods in company (as oil, or any thing.)	Bought Y	And paid for myself, I make oil in company between partner and me, naming our shares (as he $\frac{2}{5}$ and $\frac{3}{5}$ myself) D ^r . to cash; and immediately I make partner his account current D ^r . to his account in company, his $\frac{2}{5}$ share of the cost*.
	Sold Z	On time, the same as above: If I say oil in company between P. $\frac{2}{5}$ and $\frac{3}{5}$ myself: D ^r . to the seller, &c. I bring wares of oil in company between P. $\frac{2}{5}$ and $\frac{3}{5}$ myself: D ^r . to oil of my own proper; and P's account current, D ^r . to his account in company; for his share of the value. For ready money, or to N. M. on trust: cash, or N. M. D ^r . to oil in company; and P's account in company, D ^r . to his account current, for his share of the value†.

* By which observe my partner must have two accounts, including his account in company, and his account current; the like for each, had I more partners.

† [Supposing myself to keep the accounts between partner and me] when I received money from him for his share, I laid out for him (as vide Y.) D^r. cash to partner's account current.

Goods in company sent to sea.	Voyage in company between, &c. Dr. to fundries—	to feller for wares in company between P. $\frac{2}{5}$ and $\frac{3}{5}$ myself, &c.	then partner's account current Dr. to his account in com- pany; his $\frac{2}{5}$ share.
		to cash, for charges, for shipping, insu- rance, &c.	

Note, Advice of sale is entered as in private and factory accounts.—As also returns from factor (with this difference) regarding, as before, partner's account in company; and his account current *.

* Observe, the end of my partner's having two accounts in my ledger, viz. His account in company shews his particular share of all the goods bought, on creditor side; or sold, on debtor side. And partner's account current shews what he owes me, or I him.
In regard to posting into the ledger, we refer to the heads mentioned at the beginning of this article.

I. How to Close or Balance all Accounts in the LEDGER, and to carry the Foot of each to one General Account of Balance, and so to conclude your Old Books.

To balance an account in the ledger.	Of money—	Remaining, Dr. account of general balance to cash.
	Of goods or voyages.	When not all sold (as you may see by comparing the debtor and creditor-side of the ledger) Dr. balance to the said goods or voyage, for the quantity unfold, which * value at the prime cost or market-price; and credit the said goods or voyage by balance. So for stocks, annuities, &c.
		If loss thereon: Dr. profit and loss to the goods or voyage.
		If gain: Dr. goods or voyage to profit and loss.
	Of interest, insurance, commissions, charges of merchandize, house expences, &c.	are balanced by profit and loss.
	Of men, or personal accounts.	Owing to you: Dr. balance to the account of person owing.
		Owed by you: Dr. person's account you owe, to the account of general balance.
	In company.	Make wares in company between, &c. Dr. to sundry accounts, the whole advantage of closing this account,
		to profit and loss, my commissions, at so much per cent. And partner's account current, to his account comp. his part.
		to profit and loss, for my share of the common gain. to my partner (or partner's each) his account in comp. as for his share of gain.
	Of factorage.	If partners agree to divide the remaining goods, make each partner's account in company, Dr. to wares in company for his part, and wares [my own proper or] balance, make Dr. to wares in company for my share.
		Make goods of A. B. your employer, Dr. to fundries.
		to cash or charge of merchandize for warehouse-room, cellarage, brokerage, abatements, &c.
Of profit and loss.		to profit and loss, your commission for sale, &c. at so much per cent.
		to employer's account current, for the nett produce.
Of stocks.		If lost on the whole trade: stock Dr. to profit and loss †.
		If gained on the whole trade: Dr. profit and loss to stock.
		Dr. stock to balance, which being credited by stock, according to the 2d head, add up debtor-side and creditor-side of balance, and both will be exactly equal, and a proof that every article hath had it's double entry throughout your books; which will yield an agreeable satisfaction, as well as shew you, that this, of all methods, is the most excellent.
		But, if they do not exactly agree, it usefully informs you, that you have committed an error: then you, and another, must prick over your reference ('till you find out the omission or mistake) which then will stand thus, : $\frac{1}{5}$.

* Debtor-side in ledger shews what goods cost, and quantity bought in. The credit side, what sold for, and the quantity sold out. All accounts are closed either by the account of profit or loss, or balance, or both.

† Profit and loss in the debit-side, are your losses; and credit-side, your gains. Observe that this account is balanced last, save stock account, and the account of general balance.

III. And lastly, How to begin a new Sett of Books, from the General Account of Balance of the Old Books.

You must draw an Inventory, as at first, and in your new Journal make all the Money, Persons, and Merchandize, in Debtor-Side of Balance, Debtors to Stock. Also make Stock Debtor to all you owe; and this is contained in the Creditor side of Balance, not reckoning the last line, which only shews your Nett Stock at the Entrance on your New Sett of Accounts; which, for Distinction Sake, you may mark B. on the Cover of each. The next Sett C. &c.

OF ACCOUNTS in COMPANY.

INTRODUCTION.

There are three sorts of accounts opened in my ledger, when I keep the accounts of company, and have the disposal of the goods, viz. An account of goods in company—a particular account current—and an account in company for each partner.

I. Of a general account of goods in company, as, suppose wine, &c. I make wine in company, between such partners and myself (our parts) debtor for all that comes in, and creditor for all that goes out, as if it were for my own proper account.

II. Partner's account current (by some called his account proper, for this as any other man's proper account) shews what is due from him, or due to him.

III. Partner's account in company is only for order and regularity, and contrary to others; for the credit-side contains his share of stock or goods (brought into company) and his part of the nett gain, or loss at the close: but the debit accounts, for what (goes out) or balance of what I have remaining in my hand, and his part of the loss (if any) in the close of the company trade.

Note, Though, for brevity sake, I have only mentioned one partner's account current, debtor to, &c. in most places, it must be understood the same for every partner, except myself.—And in keeping company accounts, promiscuously with our own, we do not open a particular account in company, and an account current for ourselves, as well as for each partner, because our own proper accounts keep my part in regulation; for observe, when I receive money for goods, suppose 100*l*. I debit my account cash for the whole 100*l*. and, when I pay partner's half, I make his account current debtor for his 50*l*. and credit cash 50*l*. paid out: whence it is plain, that my cash remains debtor for my part 50*l*. I have still in hand. In like manner, when I carry partner's share of the gain, arising from goods or voyage in company, to his particular account in company, I carry my part to my own account of profit and loss, (R, S.) &c.

But, in keeping company accounts in books by themselves I open an account in company, and an account current, for myself, as well as for each partner: and then an account of stock in company, cash in company, profit and loss company, and balance in company, &c. As to the method of keeping these, it is the same, only observing, that I must do for myself, as for any other partner; so my part of the gains

I carry to my account in company, as my partner's to his, or theirs.

The accounts being duly balanced, according to the plain subsequent directions, given for that purpose, every partner's account in company will of course, if accurately stated and posted, balance itself; the debit and credit will be equal to a farthing, which will be an agreeable surprize to the young accountant, as well as prove the truth of the whole company transactions, without the trouble of balancing the whole books; and thereby make him amends for his trouble of keeping an account in company for each partner, which some chuse to omit, and my several partners accounts current will exactly shew what I owe them, or they me.

For the third and last part, we have treated of two other methods, whereby company accounts may be kept by double entry, without a particular account of company for each partner: these are so plain to any one that has but a small notion of debtor and creditor, by double entry, that they need very little explication, being much the same with private and factorage accounts.

As to the first of them, when I procure the goods, I make partner, as any other buyer, debtor for his part of the goods bought in, or sent to sea; and such goods, or voyage, debtor for my part, giving the seller credit by both.

And in the second, which I take to be plainest, I make goods, bought for company or voyage, debtor to the seller, for their whole cost, as in private accounts.—Then I make partner debtor to said goods or voyage, for his part, which, in effect, he buys of me.

And in both these ways, when the goods are disposed of, I give said account of goods or voyage credit for my part, and partner's account credit for his part, which is illustrated by example, in the latter part of this sheet.

These methods are used in ship accounts, and in many other transactions; as in glass-houses, pot-works, and the like, where there are many articles to books, or many partners concerned: but the first method is the way more generally used, by skilful and eminent merchants. And the knowledge of this method will qualify a person for any counting-house whatsoever; whereas, if he only understood the latter method, and he should fall into a counting-house, where the accounts were kept by the former, he would find himself greatly at a loss. It is useful, however, for an accountant to know all methods of stating accounts, that he may not be perplexed upon the sight of methods different to what he may have seen.

PART II.

A SCHEME of COMPANY ACCOUNTS according to the Italian Method of Double Entry.

Goods bought for company account

A	If of myself,	Dr. goods in company	to goods for my own proper account, to partner's account (proper or) current, to cash, to seller,	then Dr. each partner (his proper account, viz.) his account current to his account in company, for his part in the said purchase.
B	If of partner,			
C	If paid for me,			
D	If on trust,			

Note, E When partner brings into company just his own part of goods, then if I only Dr. goods in company, to his account in company; this is two lines shorter than to account it bought of him, as above (B); but, when partner finds over or under his exact part, or his own part and mine, enter the transactions as above (B); and, had the other been booked so too, it would have been right, though not so concise.

F So, likewise, when I procure just my part of goods for company, I only Dr. goods in company, to goods for my own proper account; this is just the reverse of withdrawing my share (see L below): but, when I and partner bring in unequal parts, account is brought of self and him (vide A and B).

Sales of goods for company

G	If to myself,	Dr. same goods for my proper account, Dr. partner's account current, Dr. cash, Dr. the buyer,	to goods in company,	then, in either case, Dr. partner's account in company to his account current, for his part of the sale.
H	If to partner,			
I	If for ready money,			
K	If on trust,			

* Note well, when the buyer pays me, for company goods sold formerly,—only Dr. cash to buyer—for partner's account current had credit, for his part, at the sale (vide K.)

L When partner and I agree to part remaining company goods between us, when they are divisible into equal parts—Dr. sundries to goods in company, viz. Dr. goods, for my own proper account, for my part. Dr. partner's account, in company, his part. This is the reverse of (F, E); but if partner took to all the goods, at a certain price, or under, or above his just part, and myself the rest, count it as goods sold (G, H.) which is generally plainest.

Charges, as carriage, interest of money, &c.

M	Paid by partner,	{ as (B). as (C). }	As charges do augment the cost, so it must be booked as the cost.
N	Paid by myself,		

Abatements. O { To us, { for goods } This is the { purchasing, { Dr. seller, to goods { Dr. partner's account in comp. to his ac-
 P { By us, { in comp. } reverse of { selling. { Dr. goods in comp. { Dr. partner's account current, to his ac-
 Q { By advice from our factor, just the reverse of his adv. of sales (as G), only voyage to—between, &c.—Dr. to
 Note, R So, in compounding for a debt, do as in (P), for the money we abate.—And, when dealer pays me his com-
 position money, only Dr. cash to dealer (see * * * above).

Money. S { Received at sale of goods (see I), or for goods formerly sold, (vide * *) above.
 T { Received of partner, { Dr. cash to partner's account current.
 U { Paid to partner, { Dr. partner's account current to cash *.

* Note, when partner gives me a sum to lay out, with just as much of mine own, it is somewhat shorter to Dr. cash received, to partner's account in company—but carefully observe, when goods are bought, only make goods in company Dr. to cash; so then the account will stand as in (E).

Bills. W { If I draw on partner a bill, Dr. cash; or Z. the man I deliver it to, to partner's account current.
 X { If partner draws on me, Dr. partner's account current to cash (if paid on sight). To account, of bills payable (if on time) *.
 * (See returns per our factor.)

Barter. Y { Company goods delivered for others, which I take to myself, Dr. goods received for proper account, to goods in company, and Dr. partner's account in company, to his account current, for his part of sale.
 Z { Sold my own goods for others, I bring into company, Dr. goods in company received, to goods for my own account delivered, and Dr. partner's account current, to his account in company, his part of purchase.

To admit a new partner into company. { Suppose A. and myself are already in company, each $\frac{1}{3}$, for 600l. and B. would be interested $\frac{1}{3}$ of our stock, so we agree to have each $\frac{1}{3}$. B. purchases of me 100l. and of A. 100l. in the said stock, to make up his 200l. or $\frac{1}{3}$. How must this be settled? First, let goods in company account stand as it is, 'till sold (inserting B. in thirds) except you will open an account of goods in company, between A. B. and myself $\frac{1}{3}$ Dr. to goods in company between A. and me $\frac{1}{3}$.—However, A's same account current and account in company will do (whether B. pays ready money or not) Dr. partner (A's) account in company, to his account current 100l. his half of the sale to B. If B. pays me my 100l. Dr. cash to B's account in company.—If B. pays A. his 100l. Dr. A's account current, to B's account in company.—If B. pays not ready money, Dr. B's account current, to his account in company 200l.—If B. paid all to A. Dr. (A's) account current, to B's account in company, 200l.—But, if B. paid all to me—cash Dr. to C B's) account in comp. 200l.

Goods in com-pany sent to sea. A { If out of company goods, already booked, only Dr. voyage to —, &c. in comp. between —, &c. *
 B { If bought on credit, { Dr. voyage in { to seller. { then Dr. each partner's
 C { If bought of a partner, { comp. be- { to partner's account current. { account current to his
 D { If bought of myself, { tween, &c. { to goods for my proper account. { account in company
 E { If my factor (per order) send to { to my factor my account current. { in each of these cases.
 Note, F For customs, freight, insurance, &c. if I paid as (D), (if instead of crediting goods my own proper account,) I say, to cash or charges of merchandize.—If partner pays charges, exactly as (C).
 * Partner's account current, to his account in company, was debited when these were bought in (therefore not now.)

Advice of sales of ditto. G { Dr. Re. D. (our factor) at—for company account, between { No double journal entrance here, nothing be-
 —, &c. to voyage between, &c. our account current. { ing gone out, or come in, but only a change;
 Non-disposal. H { If we order our factor at { Dr. voyage to { to voyage to Barbadoes, it's value (so make { Dr. partner's ac-
 Barbadoes, to send our { Virginia, to { one voyage discharge the other). { count current to his
 goods he cannot sell, to { sundry ac- { to factor at Barbadoes, for any new charges, { account in comp.
 our factor at Virginia, { counts. { shipping, &c. { his share only of
 new charges.

Returns by our factors. { In bills. I { If sent to partner, { Dr. partner's account current { to factor—at for { Then Dr. each partner's
 K { If sent to me, and { Dr. cash { comp. between, { account in comp. to his
 L { If sent me at usance, { Dr. bills receivable { &c. our account { account current, for
 M { Goods for company between—Dr. to factor at—our account current; so let them rest till I
 dispose of them. (For charges I pay on them, see above.)
 { In goods. N { If partner takes to them, { Dr. partner's account current, { to said goods in { Then Dr. partner's
 O { If I take to them, { Dr. goods for my proper ac- { comp. or (if { account in comp. to
 count. { not entered { his account current
 P { If a buyer takes to them, { Dr. cash, or the buyer. { to factor. { for his part of sale.
 Before I close the account in company, kept by myself, I make a double journal entrance for any charges not yet booked, and my commissions.

My commissions. Q { Goods (or voyage) { to cash, or charges of merchandize, for cellar- { Then Dr. partner's ac-
 in company, Dr. { room, &c. or other charges. { count current, to his
 to sundries, { to profit and loss, my commissions, &c. (if not { account in company,
 charged before.) { his part of both.

It is supposed that I myself keep the accounts, and have the disposal of the company goods, &c.

It is supposed that I myself keep the accounts, and have the disposal of the company goods, &c.

Of goods,	R	If we have gained Dr. goods in company to fundries, { to partner's account in company, his part of nett gains.
	S	If we have lost, on the whole, or in part, { Dr. partner's account in comp. his part, { to goods in comp. &c.
Of voy-ages.	T	If we have gained, Dr. { to partner's account in company, his part of nett gains.
	V	If we have lost, { Dr. partner's account in comp. for his part of the loss { to voyage to—, consigned to—, between—, &c.
Of our factor.	U	If no returns yet made, { Dr. partner's account in comp. for his part remaining, { to voyage, &c.
	W	If he hath under-shipped our { Dr. partner's account in comp. his part, { to factor, at—, for comp.
	X	If he hath over-shipped our proceeds, Dr. { to partner's account in comp. his part due to factor.

Suppose partner keeps the account, and has the disposal of company goods, &c.

Note, When my partner has the disposal of company goods, I only keep an account of my own share in my books, (viz. goods in hand of partner, Dr. &c.) and when he has sold them, and given me an account of the sales, I make him debtor for my part of the nett proceeds, (as I would a factor) to account of goods in his hands, whereby these two accounts are balanced, as my proper accounts; for the profits arising from my account of goods, in partner's hands, is carried to profit and loss. And if partner owes me, I, at the close of books, make balance Dr. to, or Cr. by partner's account, as I would any other man's.

Y If partner finds my part as well as his own, { Dr. goods, in hands of partner A. B. or, { to partner, for my $\frac{1}{2}$, or $\frac{1}{3}$, &c.

Z If I buy my part, { I may express, or open this account in my books, either { Dr. partner, my account in comp. or, { to cash, or feller.

A If I find out of my own goods my part, { Dr. voyage, if sent to sea, { to goods, for my proper account.

B If I procure partner's share, and my own Dr. { Dr. goods in comp. in hands of partner, for my part, { to goods proper, if out of my own stock.

fundries, { Dr. partner (as one that bought goods of me) for his part, { to the man I bought them of, if had them on trust.

See Part III. partners keeping accounts. { to cash, if I purchased with ready money.

P A R T III.

COMPANY ACCOUNTS without a particular Account, in Company for each Partner.

Goods bought for company.	Dr. fundries.	viz.	Dr. A. B. my partner, for his half,	to seller, if bought on trust.
			Dr. goods in comp. with A. B. for my half,	to cash, if I paid for them.
Goods sold in company.	Dr. buyer, or cash,	to fundries,	to partner A. B. for his half of sale.	to partner, if he paid for them.
				to cash, and to partner, if we paid between us.

Note, In this method, I only make each partner Dr. for his part of goods bought in, to the seller. And goods in comp. to seller, for my part; and, as I sell, give these accounts credit; so they will stand in my ledger as common or private accounts, and balance as such.

II. Method, I might have made goods in comp. Dr. for the whole, and then made partner Dr. to goods in comp. for his part, and it would have come to the same.

I keeping the account, &c.

Goods in comp. sent to sea. { My friend W. W. of London and I, are agreed to enter into copartnership, in a voyage to Jamaica: and therefore writes to me, to procure 100 duros for said voyage.—Having 70 pieces of my own, which I charge at 26s.—and bought of R. S. 30 pieces more, at 26s.—and I have paid charges in packing, pressing, portorage, &c. till on board, 35s.

To journalize this account, you may say,——
Sundries, Dr. to fundries, 135l. 00s. 10d. for 100 pieces of duros, shipped on board the Sea-Horse, W. G. master, for Jamaica, for account of W. W. and self, each one half, consigned to R. D. viz.

II. Method, If I had made voyage, Dr. to fundries for the whole cost and charges, Then made partner W. W. Dr. to voyage, for one half thereof, this would have come to the same,	.W. W. for his half	—	—	—	£.	S.	D.	£.	S.	D.
	.Voyage to Jamaica, for my half	—	—	—	67	: 10	: 05			
	.To duros, for my proper account, 70 pieces, at 26s.	—	—	—	91	: 00	: 00			
	.To R. S. bought of him 30 pieces, at 26s.	—	—	—	39	: 00	: 00			
	.To charges of merchandize,	—	—	—	1	: 15	: 30			
	.To profit and loss, or account of commission for my provision, at 2 and half per cent.	—	—	—	3	: 05	: 10			
					135	: 00	: 10			

Advice of sales of ditto goods. { Our factor, R. D. sends an account of sales of the above adventure; the nett proceeds amounting to 202l. 10s. exchange at 135 per cent. make—sterling 150l.—To book this—R. D. at Jamaica, Dr. to fundries, 150l. for 202l. 10s. being the nett proceeds of goods between W. W. and self, each half, viz.

To W. W. his half	—	—	—	£.	S.	D.
To voyage to Jamaica, for my half	—	—	—	75	: 00	: 00
				75	: 00	: 00
				150	: 00	: 00

When partner keeps the account, keep only an account of your own share, as taught in Part II. to which we refer you. I shall give the following example.

Goods sent to sea.	My partner, W. W. of London, advises by my order, he has shipped on board the Frederic, Matth. Van Holtten, master, for Amsterdam, 100 pieces Norwich one half; which, with all charges, as per invoice, amounts to 103l. 6s. 8d. my half whereof, is 51l. 13s. 4d.—which I book thus:	Voyage to Amsterdam, Dr. to W. W. 51l. 13s. 4d. for my half in 100 Norwich stuffs, shipped by him, and consigned to—&c.	Partner W. W. of London, has sent me account of sales, which he received from Adam Van Sculten, of Amsterdam, of the Norwich stuffs he sent on our account, the proceeds whereof being 1624 guilders, 18 stivers, my half is 812 guilders, 9 stivers, exchange at 36s. 6d. make sterling 74l. 3s. 11d.	Partner W. W. Dr. to voyage to Amsterdam, 74l. 3s. 11d. for 812 guilders, 9 stivers, my half of the nett proceeds of Norwich stuffs, as per account from Adam Van Sculten	See Part II. partner keeping accounts.	51 : 13 : 04
Advice of sales.						74 : 03 : 11

Partner keeping the account.

The BRITISH MERCANTILE COLLEGE,
humbly submitted to public consideration.

Novimus novitios quosdam, qui cum se mercaturæ vix dederunt, in magnis mercimoniis se implicantes, rem suam male gessisse. Et profecto imperitos mercatores multis captionibus suppositos, multorumque insidiis expositos experientia videmus. Mercatores actus sui rationem conficiant, & calamo non parcant.

Stracch. de mercatura, par. 2. p. 357.

L'ignorance des negocians vient; de ce que dans leur commencement ils manquent d'instruction, n'ayans pas fait leur apprentissage chez d'habiles marchands, qui ayent toutes les qualitez requises pour bien montrer le commerce. Il est impossible qu'un negociant réussisse dans ses entreprises, s'il ne sçait parfaitement sa profession.

Parfait Negociant de Savary.

Of the necessity of the establishment of a MERCANTILE COLLEGE in Great-Britain; for the education of BRITISH MERCHANTS, with greater advantages than they usually have.

In order to animate the French nation in general to the vigorous pursuit and cultivation of it's trading interest, that celebrated statesman Monsr. Colbert, prevailed on the late bishop of Avranches, a gentleman well read in antiquity, to write the history of the commerce and navigation of the ancients*; which had such happy effect in the kingdom, when communicated to the most distinguished persons in it, that, from being lukewarm in regard to the national interests of trade, they became it's strenuous advocates and zealous promoters.

* Histoire du commerce, & de la Navigation des Anciens. Par M. Huet, ancien évêque d'Avranches.

And, indeed, it appears from the writings of that learned and judicious prelate, that commerce when wisely cherished and encouraged, was the firmest support of the power of most of the illustrious states and empires in ancient story.

The Phœnicians, the Carthaginians, the Athenians, and Rhodians, acquired immense treasure and power by the industry and ingenuity of their merchants, in extending their traffic. Nor did the Romans, though chiefly addicted to arms, neglect to carry on an extensive trade to Sicily, Spain, Egypt, Barbary, and the Euxine Sea; but their perpetual victories, and the rapidity of their conquests, made them lose sight of their commercial interests; which, if properly cultivated, might have maintained their power, even to the end of time.

Where the people of any state or empire depend altogether upon agriculture, and there are few or no traders in a nation, unless of the retailing and mechanic sort; and where the farmer and the planter are the most useful members of the community; the highest regard will always be paid to these orders of men. Accordingly we find, that in the inland provinces of Asia, they were formerly held in the most honourable estimation; and the nobles of these countries treated all traders with contempt; whilst in ancient Egypt, a country naturally formed for commerce and navigation, the shepherd and the farmer were looked on as a despicable rank of men, and traders maintained the principal dignity and superiority in the state. Among the Tyrians, they had so great a share of honour and power, that an inspired writer has told us, THEIR MERCHANTS WERE PRINCES.

In free states, such are the natural and happy effects of commerce, that it contributes at the same time to aggrandize the prince, and to preserve and extend the liberty of the subject: and arbitrary governments are so sensible of the benefits of traffic, that we see them earnestly bent on it's advancement, whenever their wisest and best ministers have had the management of their affairs. Insomuch that I believe I may venture to say, that it is by a rivalry in trade, that our nearest and most potent enemy carries on a kind of warfare against us, more certainly destructive than their arms*.

* This is demonstrated in various parts of our Dictionary of Commerce.

The peculiar importance of a well regulated and extensive commerce to the prosperity, or rather to the very being of these kingdoms, is so well understood, that it is now needless to carry these reflections home to ourselves. Trade, it is to be hoped, will ever be the chief object of our public care. But the wisest laws, and the best concerted encouragements, are not alone sufficient to carry our commerce to it's utmost extent, or to support it in a state of health and vigour: something will still be wanting, which lies beyond the reach of laws, and which private persons must acquire to themselves; I mean a proper mercantile education: for, unless merchants are skilful and judicious in improving and cultivating the practical arts of trade, the best laws will prove little better than a dead letter; it is the intelligent trader who must give them spirit, and render them operative and beneficial.

For erudition, in almost every other branch of science, it must be acknowledged, we abound with the best regulated institutions. I wish we could say the like in relation to the mercantile profession. But, what well established seminaries have we for the accomplishment of that most considerable part of the British community? Certain I am that we have none, which are properly adapted to the peculiar nature of their province, and it's supreme utility to the state in general. The cause to which they may be chiefly attributed, is not difficult to be discovered. Too many, who set out in the capacity of merchants, are apt to flatter themselves that they stand in need of little other qualification, than a round capital, and an adventurous disposition. Buying and selling; paying and receiving, exporting and importing, as they think, comprehend the whole circle and mystery of mercantile transactions.

When a low idea is thus entertained of the accomplishments necessary for this employment; it is no wonder that so little regard, in general, is had to the education of those who are intended for it. The consequences hereof are fatal to numbers who rush headlong into commerce, destitute almost of every one of those accomplishments indispensibly necessary, and become a sacrifice to their folly and temerity*.

* I knew a considerable trader in the city of London, who could neither write nor read; he made shift, however, to keep his head above water, for many years, though he swam with bladders, prepared by those who intended his drowning at last; and it is not to be admired that bankruptcy was his fate. And numbers of bankrupts, I have known, are shamefully deficient in the ordinary accomplishments requisite for the merchant; but, if every one who presumes to take upon him this respectable character, was obliged to pass an examination by a board of skilful merchants, before he was admitted to practice; I am persuaded, it would have as good an effect in regard to the interest of trade and traders in general, as the suffering no one to administer medicine in any shape whatever would have upon the lives of his majesty's subjects, till they had passed a due examination by the Royal College of physicians.

We daily see many, by their superior qualifications, from very slender beginnings, accumulate great riches by merchandizing; while others, from commencing with plentiful fortunes, have, in the same course, been reduced to the lowest penury. This seems strange to the undiscerning; but is easily accounted for; since they must have very little knowledge of the trading world, and less acquaintance with the practical arts of commerce, who can form a contemptible opinion of the qualifications necessary to the foreign trader.

Without acquaintance in the produce and manufactures of the commercial world, and in the laws of our own and foreign countries relative to general trade; without abilities to obtain the best intelligence, in order to strike the critical time when and where; exportation or importation from nation to nation, drawing, remitting, and negotiating foreign bills, invite to the best advantage: without knowledge of the duties, imposts, subsidies, drawbacks, bounties, and all other charges and allowances at home and abroad, to which trade is subject, it is impossible that any previous calculation can be made, whether an adventure will turn to account or not. If the merchant be not thoroughly skilled in foreign monies and exchanges, as also in foreign weights and measures, and the methods of reducing those of one nation reciprocally into those of others, how shall he be able to judge of foreign INVOICES and ACCOUNTS of SALES*? And, if he be not perfectly acquainted with the arts of arbitrating the foreign exchanges with accuracy, he cannot embrace those daily benefits by the negotiation of them, which their perpetual fluctuation affords. Nor is a knowledge of the intrinsic value of foreign specie less necessary than of the extrinsic par of exchange, in order to deal occasionally between country and country, in the export or import of foreign coins, and bullion gold and silver to the best advantage: in fine, the merchant destitute of this series of information, and talents to apply it to the most beneficial purposes in every shape, can never hope to reap any considerable profit from his profession; or sustain the character he bears with any sort of dignity. He must owe his success, if he has any, to fortunate hits; and unexpected advantages; things which no prudent man will chuse to depend upon, for the whole prosperity of his life.

* See the articles INVOICE, and ACCOUNT of SALES.

To the ignorant in these matters, commerce is but a game of chance, where the odds are against the player. But to the accomplished merchant it is a science, where skill can scarce fail of it's reward: and, while the one is wandering about on a pathless ocean without a compass, and depends on the winds and tides to carry him into his port, the other goes steadily forward, in a beaten track, which leads him directly, if no extraordinary accident intervenes, to wealth and honour.

Whoever turns his thoughts on the stupendous circulation of paper-property throughout the world; by inland and foreign bills; on the various customs and usages established among traders

traders in their money-negotiations, for the support of universal credit; on the numberless different transactions, which diversify the business of the merchant; as buying and selling, exporting and importing, for proper, company, or commission account; drawing on, remitting to, and freight-ing or hiring out ships for various parts of the world at the same time: whoever duly considers the skill in figures and accountantships*, requisite so to adjust and methodize this great variety of transactions, whereby such trader may always have the true representation of his affairs before him; together with the judgment to conduct such a complication of occurrences, and address to maintain a general correspondence in our own, or the more universal languages, cannot but see the extent of a course of education proper to form so distinguished a character.

* See the following PLAN of mercantile erudition.

Notwithstanding this, nothing is more certain, than that no gentlemen in the general labour under greater disadvantages in point of erudition.—To trace this matter more minutely. Few, very few, have more than a smattering of Latin and Greek, and a very superficial knowledge of figures and accounts. With this very small stock of useful literature, our tyro is turned into the practical counting-house; and, when he is there, the eager pursuits of interest in the master, who has not leisure to attend to his instruction, will not admit of his making a greater proficiency in mercantile knowledge, than what self-application shall lead him to. Here the flower of youth, we find, is oftener ripe for pleasurable impressions; and the generality of young people of plentiful fortunes are so far from spontaneously applying to the severity of business, that they rather look upon it in the light of hackney-drudgery*.

* This has been, and I am afraid daily is, the cause of the ruin of many gentlemen's sons of fortune.

Such indeed is the strength of natural discernment in some, and such sometimes the uncommon attention to business in others, that they make little difficulty in breaking through every obstacle to knowledge, if they obtain but a glimmering light: the case of the generality is far different.

But should a merchant, or his principal clerks on whom he depends, have both leisure and inclination to instruct a young gentleman, they may neither of them always have ability suitable. It is one thing to be capable of carrying on a proportion of business in a narrow branch, a very different, to qualify others for any, much less the most extensive. Besides, it is not every one who is acquainted with mercantile, or any other branch of knowledge, is capable of training up others therein, and giving proper instructions.

It is not the practice of trade that will enable a merchant to teach his apprentice his art, though it furnishes materials for that purpose. It is a good general education, a course of regular study, and a genius for familiar explication, that fit men for the office of instructors. And to these qualifications must be added still other arts. During the fire and sprightliness of youth, there is no fixing the attention, but by wisely amusing it. This age is always upon its guard against bondage in every shape; and therefore, to give a true relish for knowledge, the arts of communicating it should be disguised under the form of pleasure.

Should it so fall out, as none will think impossible, that our young trader is bred under those, who themselves are unskilful; whose books are never duly stated, posted up, or fit for a balance: should it be the fortune of a young gentleman to be thus situated, and to receive the first impressions from so goodly an example, is he not likely rather to take an eternal disrelish to the profession, than successfully to pursue what has been rendered so odious and disagreeable? Or, if he happens to be of an adventurous and self-sufficient turn, he may be rash enough to hazard his disgrace and ruin, by engaging in an employment he is no way qualified for.

Nor is want of leisure and ability the only cause of a youth being bred to merchandizing under every disadvantage. Interest may frequently prove the greatest motive to his obstruction. For, if a young gentleman of considerable fortune is let into the whole mystery of the business of the counting-house wherein he may happen to be bred, it is sometimes, I am afraid, surmised, that such a one might hereafter prove highly detrimental thereto? And, where there is any interesting inducement to keep him in ignorance, nothing is easier than to spread the veil of concealment. It is only chaining our novice to some appendage to the principal books, some labouring oar; or artfully shifting him from one auxiliary book to another, the more effectually to bewilder; and giving him an unwarrantable loose to his pleasures; and our young merchant shall turn out as completely qualified to be at the head of a counting house, as a hackney-writer at the head of the law.

The more extensive and universal the business may be, with less difficulty is every thing, to a stripling, rendered dark, mysterious, and unintelligible. Provided a youth, so circumstanced, proves one of strong parts and an inquisitive turn, he will probably, upon the general balance of the

books, be attentive to the general profits, from a principle of curiosity only: yet he may only view them in the gross: how, and in what manner those profits arose, or whether they are true or false, is easily obscured under some intermediate account to that of profit and loss; a matter easily practised, to blind the eyes of one unacquainted with the niceties of accountantship en parties doubles*.

* Many have formed fictitious SETTS of ACCOUNTS, in order to deceive the public, and those who have been taken into partnership by such villains; of which I have been informed we have a late instance in a certain BANKRUPT of the city of London: others keep DOUBLE SETTS of BOOKS, to answer double purposes.

Let the transactions of a counting-house, therefore, be as important in particular, as infinite in diversity; let those transactions be judiciously conducted, and methodically adjusted, according to the nicest arts of mercantile skill; yet, if a youth is not furnished with pre-requisite knowledge to enable him to make the best advantage of what he sees transacted, he cannot be much the wiser for being placed in a counting-house of universal business. All that is transacted may be no more to him than a regular confusion, who is disqualified to view the connection of the whole, with an eye of understanding. Without being thoroughly knowing and expert in mercantile calculations and accountantship, and duly initiated into the arcana mercatorum****, what advantage can a young gentleman receive?

Every common sailor who takes a share in the toil, will hardly be presumed fit for command. Being placed in the center of practical business, and taking some inferior part in its transactions, is far from being sufficient to qualify a young gentleman to hold the rudder of large concerns hereafter. The mechanic artizan and manufacturer, it is true, may be insensibly disciplined to perform works of the hands with wonderful dexterity: even children, we know, may be trained to do extraordinary things that way, by reiteration of one and the same work. In like manner may the mechanical merchant be bred; but where so general a knowledge, such variety of accomplishments, so clear a head, and so much real judgment and address are absolutely necessary, no man, acquainted with the world, can imagine, that being bred in a parrot-like manner should, at this time of day, enable the young merchant to excel in the arts of commerce. We are not insensible there have been some gentlemen, who, destitute of all previous requisite mercantile instruction, have, from very trifling beginnings, struck into foreign commerce; and, by the uncommon strength of their natural abilities, prompted by great industry, and favoured by a series of fortunate events, have acquired great estates. Such as these we have known; and we have known likewise, that where this hath been done, without clandestine and dishonourable measures, those gentlemen have been of capacity and application as singular as their good fortune: they have indeed been persons rather to be admired than imitated. But traders, who, without their superlative talents, have been daring enough to follow such examples, if for a time they have happened to shine in the commercial world, it has been like those meteors in the natural; which, after furnishing matter of astonishment for a while, have soon destroyed themselves, and involved in their ruin all who have been unhappy enough to be within the sphere of their influence.

Though we have thus taken the freedom to signify our disapprobation of the usual methods of bringing up our young British merchants in general, yet we are sensible, very sensible, that too many youth, as well among merchants as other ranks of men of business, reap little advantage by the happy opportunities they sometimes enjoy, of excelling in their peculiar province. The best examples and instruction, the most interesting incitements to attention and assiduity, make little impression on the desultory and inconsiderate. The distinguished figure in trade some young gentlemen make, in comparison to others, sufficiently discriminates the superior benefits they have received from those counting-houses, wherein they have been happily bred.

But what advantage can such expect to receive, that are unhappy enough to fall into the hands of those who are capable, yet not inclined; or of those who are incapable, though well inclined, to do them justice? Instead of a constant succession of merchants, eminent for their skill and ingenuity, may we not rather expect to see a daily declension? And may not the kingdom be thus left destitute of a competent number to prosecute its foreign traffic, either with that emolument to themselves, or that benefit to the state it will admit of? Under such melancholy circumstances, it will be matter of no great admiration to hear woeful complaints and lamentations on the decay and badness of trade, when the defect and imperfection may manifestly lie in traders themselves.

Without expatiating on a matter so apparent to every one, who will give himself the liberty candidly and impartially to weigh and consider it, we shall only observe, That nothing seems more wanted than a proper place, or well regulated institution for mercantile education; where the theory and practice

practice of trade might be taught, as near as could be at the same time, and a general knowledge of commerce, and it's practical arts communicated, as the first step towards engaging in any branch of it.

And, as the reduction of the interest of money will have a tendency to induce many persons of mature years to strike into trade, as well as a greater number of young people to be trained up for it, in order to settle either at home or abroad: as the lowness of interest will certainly increase the number of British traders in Europe, and, it is to be hoped, the trade of the nation proportionably: and, as all other countries are increasing their trade and traders likewise, it follows, that the skill, address, and ingenuity of our British merchants, cannot, at present, be too great. Whereas, when the trade of our own nation, as well as that of others, was in a very few hands in comparison to what it is now, and the interest of money double and treble what it is at present: when these were the circumstances of public affairs, and the benefits of trading between the Exchange and the Exchequer were extraordinary, as well as the profits on trade in general, numbers acquired very great estates, without any great accomplishments. This great change in the state of our affairs, pointing out the reasonableness and necessity of the proposed institution, it is humbly presumed, that it will prove as acceptable to all wise and good men, as the same is zealously intended for the public benefit and utility.

The General PLAN Delineated.

Of the several particulars to be taught in the proposed COLLEGE.

It is proposed to take no young gentleman into this mercantile seminary, under fifteen years of age; nor any but such who are qualified in school-arithmetic, and masters of a tolerable current hand-writing*.

- * It is my intention, some time or other to draw up a plan for the education of the British merchant from his infancy, as preparatory to his admission into a college of this kind.

A thorough knowledge and expertness in mercantile computations being previously necessary to all other accomplishments, it is proposed to go through every distinct course relative thereunto; and that in so intelligible and scientific a manner, as the rationale of every thing may very clearly appear*. For as, from the whole of this design, we have in view the gradual exercise and improvement of the understanding, and insensibly strengthening the judgment, so nothing, it is conceived, will be more naturally conducive thereunto, than demonstrating the reason and foundation of all rules given in the courses of our mercantile calculations; skill in figures being founded in reason†, facility of operation in reiterated practice: which the professors should not be wanting duly to promote.

- * See our article MATHEMATICS.

- † See our article ARITHMETIC.

Knowledge in the foreign exchanges being very essential to the qualification of the merchant, this subject should be treated in all it's various lights.

That a clear idea may be formed of our intention with regard to this particular, it may be necessary to observe:

1. That the most concise and practical methods of converting the sterling money of England into the monies of exchange and of account of all places throughout Europe be demonstrated, according to the direct courses of exchange established for those purposes, and vice versa.
2. The methods of converting sterling money into those of all other places of commerce, wherewith England has no direct established courses of exchange, but is under the necessity of making use of the intermediate exchange of other places: together with the nature of the agios, and the manner of turning their bank monies into current, and the reverse.
3. The manner of calculating all the foreign monies throughout Europe into those of every other distinct country, either by direct or intermediate exchange; which makes a much greater variety of cases than those, who are not thoroughly acquainted with this extensive subject, can imagine.
4. The art of arbitrating* the prices of exchange throughout all Europe†.

- * Les arbitrages, en matière de change, ne sont autre chose qu'un présentiment d'un avantage considérable qu'un commettant doit recevoir d'une remise ou d'une traite faite pour un lieu préférablement à une autre.

Le pair, ou l'égalité des monnoies courantes, ou le pair des places, qui est le point le plus délicat, le plus essentiel, & le plus innocent du commerce de change, & de banque, se prend en deux manières.

La première est au pair, qui suppose un juste rapport & une valeur exacte de la monnoie d'un pays avec celle d'un autre, comme quand 1 rixdale de 50 sols, monnoie courante de Hollande, ou d'Amsterdam, est comptée en égale valeur de 17 (a) de 60 sols Tournois de France, ou de 54 deniers, ou pens, ou 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ chelings d'Angleterre, & ainsi des autres places. Sans cette connoissance, on ne peut pas savoir le profit ou

la perte qu'on fait aux changes, ou sur les marchandises étrangères; car comme il y a un pair & égalité des mesures & des poids du monde, il est aussi nécessaire qu'il y ait un pair & égalité des monnoies; autrement un négociant ne sauroit ce qu'il seroit, ni si le prix qu'on lui demanderoit d'une chose, fût ce en change, ou en marchandise, seroit haut ou bas.

La seconde espèce d'égalité entre les places, est tirée des prix courans des changes, par laquelle on entend seulement cette proportion requise d'une place avec une autre place, parla connoissance d'une ou de plusieurs comparées entr'elles. Quelques uns pourront dire que la connoissance du profit & de la perte qu'on fait, sur des lettres de change, dépend du retour des sommes à leur principe, & que le pair est une spéculation inutile. On peut répondre à cela que, si la connoissance du profit; & de la perte qu'on fait sur les lettres de change, dépend du retour des sommes à leur principe, & du lieu d'où elles sont sorties, on ne peut pas dire la même chose de celles, qui ne retournent point, soit qu'elles soient employées, & consumées dans le pays même, soit pour achat de marchandises, soit pour pension, ou pour des affaires particulières.

D'ailleurs, s'il étoit nécessaire d'attendre ce retour, pour savoir le profit qui se fait sur une lettre de change, & que cette connoissance dépendit de l'avenir, il faudroit conclure que dans le tems que l'on donne ou que l'on prend de l'argent à change, on ne le sauroit pas, & s'il on ne le savoit pas, ce seroit négocier sans connoissance de cause & au hazard, puis qu'on ignorerait le profit ou la perte qu'on y feroit. Idem.

- (a) Le lecteur est averti que cet ouvrage aiant été fait lorsque l'écu de France ne valoit que 60 sols Tournoi, cet écu étoit au pair avec la rixdale de Hollande de 50 sols. Mais les monnoies de France ont changé souvent depuis, & sont sujettes à des variations continuelles; ainsi au lieu de marquer la valeur d'écu de France dans la présente année 1731, on le suppose toujours de l'ancienne valeur de 60 sols Tournois; à quoi on fera attention. Traité General du Commerce, par Samuel Ricard d'Amsterdam.

- † See our articles ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, EXCHANGES, ENGLAND, HOLLAND, HAMBURGH, and such other heads to which from these we refer.

This is a subject of great delicacy, not only in point of computation, but in point of application to the purposes of drawing and remitting money, and negotiating bills of exchange throughout Europe, to the best advantage at all times. And what that advantage is, can never be known to any, except those who are skilled in this important and mysterious branch. Those merchants or negociators of foreign monies by exchange, who may be only acquainted with a few places, whose exchanges they are capable of arbitrating, cannot be judges of the profits to be made by other places: and therefore, for want of an universal knowledge herein, we will presume to say, that daily opportunities, of no inconsiderable benefit, escape notice.

Although the instability of the exchange is justly enough compared to the wind, yet that instability is the very cause of the profit to be made thereby: and for this plain reason, because it is scarce ever possible, that the courses of exchange between several nations should ebb and flow in an equality of proportion.

And whoever trades as a merchant, that is to say, as an exporter and importer in Europe, must of necessity have to do with bills of exchange, and with drawing or remitting: and, if so, he should by no means be unacquainted with those arts of making the best advantages by so doing; but this is not possible to be done, without being thoroughly skilled in their arbitration, to a demonstrative exactitude.

The more general the trade of a merchant is, the more universal should his knowledge in this particular be. And those who may have views in dealing largely by exchange, will certainly find their account beyond expectation, in being fundamentally grounded in this subject; for a trader of a good general foreign correspondence may, by this means, gain more by dint of credit and skill, than others, unacquainted herewith, can do, by dint of hard money*.

- * See our articles ARBITRATION of EXCHANGE, HOLLAND, HAMBURGH.

A knowledge also of the intrinsic value of foreign coins, or specie*, should go hand in hand with the knowledge of exchange†; the profit arising upon the exportation or importation thereof, from one foreign country to another, being grounded on the due consideration of both. To which should be added, the nature of dealing in bullion gold and silver to the best advantage; the various calculations necessary to that end, and the methods pointed out that are proper to be taken, in order to prevent imposition in regard thereunto‡.

- * That a more lively idea may be obtained of dealing in foreign specie to the best advantage, we would recommend the collection of the several coins current throughout Europe, with the several standards affixed thereunto, for the use of the college.

- † See the article COINS.

- ‡ See the articles ASSAY, AQUA FORTIS, AQUA REGIA, BULLION GOLD and SILVER, FLUX, MERCURY, METALLURGY, MINEROLOGY, ORES, QUARTATION, REFINING, SILVER, TESTING.

That the young merchant may not be deficient in whatever has affinity with exchanges, there should be compiled a succinct collection of the essential customs and usages of British and foreign merchants relating to bills of exchange, together with the principal law-cases that have been determined in the courts of judicature in England and Scotland, and foreign countries*; which, with other occasional admonitions, may not a little contribute to prevent his being unwarily drawn into litigious broils; than which, nothing is less compatible with a life of traffic.

* See the article *BILLS OF EXCHANGE*.

From the knowledge of these particulars, the collegian should be led to the comparison of foreign weights and measures, and the methods of converting those of one country into those of any other*.

* See *ENGLAND, HAMBURGH, HOLLAND, MEASURES, WEIGHTS*.

It is unnecessary to observe further upon this head, than that there is no possibility of understanding foreign invoices*, and accounts of sales, without being capable to reduce the standard weights and measures, as well as the monies of foreign countries, the one into the other. Nor without it can any previous computation be made, whether exportation or importation of merchandize, between nation and nation, will or will not turn to advantage.

* See *INVOICE, and ACCOUNT OF SALES*.

Exportation and importation of domestic and foreign commodities leading to the business of the custom-house, the calculation of the duties, subsidies, drawbacks, and bounties, becomes a qualification not the least necessary in an undertaking of this nature; as it is below the dignity of the merchant to see wholly with the eyes of others, in what so nearly concerns his own interest*.

* See the *PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE*, at the end of each letter.

In regard to points of this nature, all due attention should be given to the tariffs, duties, imposts, and other charges, which are laid upon the British produce and manufacture in foreign countries; and to inculcate, at the same time, the prudential necessity of obtaining such satisfactory knowledge, by pro forma accounts of sales from foreign parts, before engagements are precipitately entered into*.

* See *ACCOUNT OF SALES, TARIFFS, TREATIES OF COMMERCE*.

To those who have not been early exercised in numbers, and are not become expert in their operation, this variety of calculations may appear something laborious. So it would be, if the method of instruction is not so peculiarly contrived as to render the whole rather an entertainment, than any thing like a disagreeable drudgery.

The minds of young persons are not to be touched by abstracted ideas; they have need of agreeable and familiar images; they cannot reason, or be brought to delight in business, without being pleaurably trained to them; and what is of the greatest moment must be rendered lovely, and represented under sensible and beautiful forms.

Yet what depends upon practice and exercise, can only be obtained by practice and exercise, though the rules and principles of that practice should be ever so well comprehended. 'I wish, says a wife man*, that Paluel or Pompey, the two famous dancing-masters of his time, could have taught us to dance and cut capers by only seeing them do it, without stirring from our places, as some pedants pretend to inform the understanding, without ever setting it to work; or that we could learn to ride, handle a pike, touch a lute, or sing, without the trouble of practice; or as these attempt to make us judge and speak well, without exercising us in judging and speaking†.'

* Montaigne.

† The great Mr. Locke speaks to the same purpose. We are born with faculties and powers, says he, capable of almost any thing; such, at least, as would carry us farther than can easily be imagined: but it is only the exercise of these powers which gives us ability and skill in any thing, and leads us towards perfection.—A middle-aged ploughman will scarce ever be brought to the carriage and language of a gentleman, though his body be as well proportioned, and his joints as supple, and his natural parts not any way inferior. The legs of a dancing-master, and the fingers of a musician, fall as it were naturally, without thought or pains, into admirable and regular motions. Bid them change their parts, and they will in vain endeavour to produce like motions in the members not used to them; and it will require length of time, and long practice, to attain but some degree of a like ability. What incredible and astonishing actions do we find rope dancers and tumblers bring their bodies to! Not but that fundry, in almost all manual arts, are as wonderful; but I name those which the world takes notice of for such, because, on that very account, they give money

to see them. All these admired motions, beyond the reach, and almost the conception of unpractised spectators, are nothing but the mere effects of use and industry in men, whose bodies have nothing peculiar in them from those of the amazed lookers on.—As it is in the body, so it is in the mind; practice makes it what it is, &c. Locke's *Conduct of the Understanding*, folio, page 375.

That the juvenile mind may not be disagreeably wearied with too continued an attachment to the same thing, the constitution of the college should be so modelled as to have interludes, by transition to matters of a lighter kind, which do not require that severity of attention, yet to such chiefly as have a close connection with practical business in a real life of trade.

Amongst these we look upon a facility in writing a plain, strong, sensible letter of business upon all occasions. As trade can only be carried on by an epistolary correspondence, a good mercantile style may, perhaps, be as necessary a part in the education of the merchant as any thing else. Thousands, in foreign trade, correspond for many years without ever seeing one another; but they can see the intelligent man of business as thoroughly by his letters as by his conversation; and sometimes better indeed; for many may get the light knack of prating, who are not able to write a correct and pertinent letter of business.

Letters of trade, wrote with judgment, and language suitable to the subject, beget respect and confidence. We have heard a worthy and ingenious merchant declare, That his being capable of corresponding in a manner something superior to the generality, was the means of getting him a very good estate, from a very small beginning; this talent having brought him very large commission business, a branch always desired, not only as it brings a secure profit, but as it proves the means of gaining the young merchant, especially, experience at the risque of others.

They must have little knowledge of language who can imagine, that the mere transcription of other persons letters, with precipitation, for the sake of copies only, will ever qualify a young gentleman, with a small share of literature, to carry on a judicious correspondence himself*. Nothing can effectually do this, but being properly put on the exercise of his own genius, and, from time to time, having his style corrected, with suitable admonition.

* Yet this is the only method taken to instruct them herein; which must be the reason why so few write grammatically or intelligibly; which I could shew by some thousands of merchants letters in my possession.

Though it is not necessary that the merchant should be a person of great learning, yet it is absolutely necessary he should be capable of writing grammatically, otherwise his sentiments are liable to be mistaken, which will be attended with consequences either injurious to himself or his correspondents. And young gentlemen of this class must certainly stand in need of some assistance in this respect, unless they can be supposed to have a miraculous advantage over other persons, and to obtain a facility to indite with brevity, fulness, and perspicuity, by instinct or inspiration.

Having arrived at a tolerable mastery in style, as well as computation, the scene should be discretionally diversified; variety in applications of the mind being as occasionally requisite as variety in diet to the body. To this end, the young merchant should be gradually initiated into a knowledge of the grand books.

That this part of his erudition may be rendered rather familiar and pleasurable than otherwise, we judge it necessary to commence with communicating a knowledge of every distinct auxiliary to the principal books, and of the form of every kind of voucher, and of every sort of instrument practised among merchants for their mutual security: such as *BILLS OF LADING, CHARTER-PARTIES, POLICIES OF INSURANCE*, and the like*.

* See these several articles.

We would not be understood to mean the giving only a superficial view of those kind of writings and instruments, but to inculcate the nature, legality, and utility of them; and, at the same time, to enforce the necessity of such writings and instruments being strongly and intelligibly drawn to prevent strife and litigations: as also shewing that, without such legal vouchers, the grand books are of no authority, either in cases of arbitration, or in the face of courts of judicature; these being no more than an artificial index to the original vouchers and testimonials.

From these instructions, so given as to make a proper impression, the next step should be to proceed, in a natural progression, to explain systematically the axioms and rational maxims and principles whereupon the whole art of accountantship, as practised by the most skilful merchants, according to the method of double-entry, is grounded. At the same time, the superlative excellency of this art, in comparison to all others that have been adopted to answer the like purposes, should be amply illustrated, by apposite examples; as it always exhibits the true representation of a merchant's affairs:

and,

and, provided the books are duly posted up, this excellent method is preventive of all destructive consequences, which attend irregularity and confusion in a trader's accounts *.

* This method of instruction is widely different from the ordinary one that is practised.

It is not necessary, indeed, that a merchant engaged in large concerns should keep his own books, as he may probably employ his time to far greater advantage; but it is indispensably necessary that he should be capable of doing so: how is it possible, otherwise, that he should be able to judge when they are kept as they ought to be? Nor can he be capable of so inspecting them as to be duly acquainted with the state of his own affairs *.

* There are many who have book-keepers, that are not judges whether their accounts are kept as they ought to be or not, according to the nature of their transactions. Is it at all extraordinary that such should be unsuccessful?

It is unbecoming meanness, not to say a consummate folly, in any man, whose fortune is daily at stake, to depend upon others to give him what they please for the state of his affairs. It is justly proverbial among the Dutch, That the man who fails, did not understand to keep his accounts: and it may be truly said, a merchant without that skill, is in as bad a situation as the mariner on the wide ocean, without chart or compass whereby to direct his course.

This inimitable method of accounts, being founded on the principles of reason, will prove a kind of practical logic to young people, when it is rationally and methodically communicated, not mechanically, and by rules depending on the memory only; which latter does not merit the name of instruction at all. And even rules, and the principles of reason whereon they are grounded, being ever so well understood, yet without the due application and exercise of those rules and principles to useful purposes, they are little better than a dead weight to the memory, and a clog to the understanding: whereas, when these rules and principles are duly applied, and made habitual, by being reduced to practice in matters of use, they are a whet to the genius, and strengthen the intellectual faculties *.

* The common way of instruction of this class of people is by mere rules, without any reason or demonstration given of those rules; which is a mere mechanical and parrot-like way of teaching; whereas, were young people habituated to know the reason of every rule they go by, in the course of their education, it would insensibly lead them to pry into the reason of every thing else, which would prove of no little aid to their understandings in general.

In order to apply these rules and principles of reasoning to accounts, a concise introductory system should be formed, and that exemplified by transactions foreign and domestic, drawn from real business. And, that the young merchant may be completely grounded herein, he should be afterwards exercised in stating the real occurrences of some of the greatest and most universal merchants, from their original books.

Nor will such original books of accounts be of use only to ground a young gentleman to the utmost perfection in the art of accountancy, but will, at the same time, familiarize to him so great a variety of interesting transactions in foreign trade, conducted with judgment and address, that will qualify him to launch into commerce with great advantage *.

* To this end, I would propose that the college should be supplied with a great variety of complete sets of the real accounts of many distinguished and eminent merchants deceased; they being of no other use to executors after being a few years in their possession, there would be no great difficulty to obtain a great variety of these. If this seminary was furnished with the genuine accounts and letters relating thereto of the following merchants (a), who trod the Royal Exchange with supreme credit and dignity, the unexperienced might receive great benefit and advantage, by having judicious lectures read upon the same. For, by having the transactions of persons of great experience and discernment before us, and their motives nakedly laid open, as appears by their genuine mercantile letters, no one will doubt but great knowledge may be thereby obtained for the conduct of young people; to know only the several ways of trading of the skillful and prosperous, is of no little utility; but to be let into the motives of their measures, and the address whereby their many hazardous adventures have been conducted, is of no less benefit to the young trader than the genuine history of great statesmen and commanders are to those who shall aim at following their examples.

(a) The accounts we mean, are such as those of a Louvreure, St. Tinapey and Seignior. Daniel Arthur, Brassey and Smith, Turton and Guiger, William Henry Cornelison, Coppins, Sir David Exeter, Sir Peter Meyer, Sir Theodore Janssen, Sir John Williams, Sir Randolph Knipe, Sir Peter Delmé, Samuel Sheppard, Sir Francis Eyles, James Milner, — Olmius, Sir Samuel Clarke, Sir Alexander Carnes, Henry Carnes, Deborah Dunt, widow, Longue, and sons, Sir Henry Furness, Sir James Bateman, Sir James Dollyffe, Sir William Chapman, Samuel Holden, and many of the other distinguished merchants of the city of London, and other parts of the kingdom, as well as of the British factories in foreign parts, and numbers of others who are now living in the highest credit.

About twenty years since, some mercantile accounts of no little consequence fell into my hands to audit and liquidate, between the late Samuel Holden, Esq; governor of the Bank of England, and some considerable merchants of Russia. In the examination of those accounts, it was necessary for me to consult the course of correspondence for many years back; and I must confess it not only gave me great satisfaction as well as advantage, from the perusal of Mr. Holden's letters in particular, for they were penned with great sagacity: Cicero himself, perhaps, had he been bred a merchant, could not have formed a mercantile epistle more laconic, elegant, and perspicuous; whereas those of many of his correspondents were as mean and unintelligible as their business was injudiciously conducted.

Thus rationally introduced into this method of accounts, in all its ordinary forms, as practised by the most ingenious and experienced, our young traders should afterwards be instructed so to contract their accounts, as to have much less writing than is commonly used in most counting-houses. The auxiliary books should not only be contrived in a method far more concise than usual, but other parts of their accounts kept in a much shorter manner than is generally practised, and yet without the least deviation from the spirit and essence of this incomparable art.

The usefulness of the abridgment proposed, in this respect, will consist in keeping the books always duly posted up; without which it is impossible the merchant should, at all times, be so thoroughly acquainted with his affairs as he ought. But those who are not complete masters of this art, although they may perfectly understand the common methods, yet have so much writing therein, and thereby find it so laborious, that they frequently practise less accurate methods of accountancy, only to save so much writing; which is too often attended with no little disorder and confusion in their affairs.

That every advantage may be reaped which this art of accountancy will admit of, the student should be put also into the method of keeping, with very little trouble, an abstract of the state of his affairs, within the compass of a pocket-ledger, as a constant check and remembrancer for the due government of his concerns.

That no point of practice in any counting-house whatever may be concealed, the usual methods of making out accounts of sales, invoices, &c. should be laid open, together with the nature of all intermediate accounts, which are made use of in order to answer such purposes as may be thought necessary by the more skilful.

* Though many of those arts are not strictly just and honourable, yet the young merchant should not be ignorant of them, lest he should be liable to daily imposition by others.

Method and regularity being the life of the trader's affairs in general, the same should not be neglected in every circumstance relating thereunto. Thus the due arrangement and methodizing of the original vouchers of his transactions, for immediate reference, should be duly inculcated and exemplified. As the grand books are of no authority without them *, the one ought to be as regularly disposed as the other, in the way they will admit of. Neglects of this kind, either by misplacing or losing those testimonials, being productive of great perplexity and vexation in public business, order and regularity in all things cannot too early be made habitual.

* Much deceit and knavery have been practised by subtle bankrupts and others, by forging formal waste-books, journals and ledgers, &c. seemingly very regularly kept, &c. which have too often passed for genuine, because the several vouchers have not been duly scrutinized into from whence those accounts have been formed.—This is what should be strictly examined into by the commissioners of bankrupts, and counsel in their pleadings, &c. and by those who enter into partnerships, &c.

Moreover, the trader, whose whole fortune, or more, is frequently embarked in business, and whose anxiety is often sufficiently engaged for the event of his enterprizes, should be accustomed, from his youth, to treasure up all knowledge relative to his profession; more especially so, since it frequently admits of a variety of occurrences, no less singular than interesting. It will, therefore, hardly be thought unnecessary to familiarize him to keep a well-contrived alphabetical register of all such essential occurrences, as may be requisite for him to have recourse to throughout the whole of his life. For it is little to the reputation of the trader to be obliged to ask information of others, in important transactions which relate to himself; and in such too, probably, as either passed through the counting-house where he was bred, or perhaps, his own; yet, for want of a proper memento, he may sometimes commit such egregious mistakes, as may prove an injury to his estate, as well as blemish to his character.

The next business should be to furnish the young merchant with some knowledge relating to the funds and stocks of this kingdom; negotiations of that sort, on the account of foreigners, and others, having multiplied with the increase of the national debt.

We would not be understood to mean the knowledge of the stock-jobber only, but such a knowledge of the funds, in their

their foundation on the public credit, and how they are affected ab extra, as well as ab intra, so as to distinguish the real from the fictitious causes of the fluctuation of their prices. However mankind may have been misled, and infatuated at times, yet doubtless there are touch-stones, whereby an observing person may pass a very good judgment when there is money to be got or lost, by this our standing lottery *.

* There is so great variety of artifices practised at certain conjunctures, to raise and fall stocks for the private interest of jobbers, and those who are in the secret of public affairs and great companies, that they would take me up a volume to display in their proper colours. See the articles BUBBLES, STOCKS, STOCKJOBING.

Provided this should be no otherwise serviceable than to prevent a rash and indiscreet dabbling in stock-jobbing, it may prove the saving, though it should not the improving of a fortune. The young trader may hereby receive information enough upon this head, to enable him to give such seasonable advice to correspondents, as may be the means of gaining him no inconsiderable commissions in that shape, though his own fortune should not admit of his occasionally trading in the stocks for himself.

In the course of this mercantile progress, the next step necessary should seem to be to give the young merchant a general survey of the trade and commerce of the world *.

* See the several nations of the world throughout this Dictionary, and their principal provinces, countries, duchies, &c. for commerce.

However unnecessary some may imagine this general knowledge of trade, who look not beyond the circle of their particular branch, yet we cannot help thinking such knowledge may prove of no little advantage to the trader of genius: for it is the nature of foreign commerce to be variable and fluctuating; that branch which shall afford considerable profit at one time, may be scarce worth engaging in at another; by reason the greater the advantage is, the greater is the confluence of traders into that branch in particular: multitudes thus striking into one and the same trade, foreign markets are glutted, and the British, as well as other produce and manufactures, become a drug.

Other causes likewise conspire to this. All nations are now convinced that trade is the best source of wealth and of power: wherefore some are daily attempting either to supply themselves with what they took from others, or other nations are attempting to obtain a share in their supply.

But whoever considers in what manner the more skilful merchant prosecutes his trade, will hardly disallow the necessity of a pretty general knowledge therein. As, 1. Our national produce and manufacture being more than our consumption, a part is exported; and, in return, foreign goods, or bullion, or both, are brought home. 2. Selling the goods exported at one port, and loading there to sell at another, whereby a larger profit is made than if the goods exported had been carried directly thither. 3. Bringing away the produce and manufactures of other countries, from whence and when they are cheap, to supply countries when and where the same sell dear. 4. Bringing home the produce of other countries, and exporting the same in manufactures. 5. Freight and hiring out shipping to various parts of the world.

The merchant, by thus knowing how the several parts of the world are connected with each other in their mutual intercourse of commerce, how the redundancies of this country supply the deficiencies of that, will be capable of foreseeing when any ill consequences threaten either that branch of traffic in which he is particularly concerned, or the trade of his country in general. It will open to his view by what means several branches have been acquired; how some have been stagnated and lost; and what measures may be taken by the government, in concert with the practical merchant, to revive them, or supply the mischief, by opening new channels of commerce.

It is too little knowledge of trade, not too much, that will make the merchant rashly adventurous and projecting, upon weak and groundless foundations. A person, knowing in more branches than one, will of course embrace that which is the more suitable to his fortune, and the least hazardous. As many have been undone by rashly grasping at a greater share of business than they had either capital or ability to manage; so, on the other hand, many have been ruined by an unaccountable attachment to one branch, when common prudence cried aloud for their relinquishing a ruinous trade, and striking into the prosperous.

This part of the institution, therefore, it is presumed, may prove a sovereign preservative against each extreme of imprudence; our intention hereby being to prevent precipitate engagements, and too projecting a turn on the one hand, as likewise too contracted a view, and pusillanimity on the other. It is not by the merchant as by the particular mechanic or artisan. The potter cannot easily strike into the business of the shipwright, any more than the latter can into that of the watchmaker or the weaver, &c. This is not parallel in regard to merchant and merchant: for the exporter of woollen

goods can as easily export tin or lead, or hard ware, &c. and have his returns by exchange in dollars of Leghorn, or ducats of Venice, as well as in dollars of Spain, or millrees or moidores of Portugal, &c. Or cannot the merchant who sent woollen goods to Spain or to Italy, send another species of woollen goods to Russia, and have his return in robes, Russia hemp, linen, rhubarb, or pot-ash, &c. as easily as in Spanish dollars, wines and raisins? In fine, the imports and exports to and from his own nation to all others, together with a knowledge of their monies, weights, and measures, duties, imposts, and all customary charges, ought to be familiar to the accomplished merchant; that, upon the declension of any particular branch of national trade, he may apply himself to the more advantageous for the time being.

Or, even if the national trade in general should undergo a temporary declension, yet the trade of the world will afford the true-bred merchant eternal opportunities of advantage: such a one will find no difficulty to trade in various branches, from one foreign nation to another, as it were independent of his own, whilst all the profits are brought home, and center within himself.

We are not unaware it may be objected, that a merchant cannot have that universal knowledge in the qualities of commodities, necessary for variety of foreign markets, &c. and, therefore, cannot so easily turn himself from one branch of foreign trade to another. To which it may be replied: were merchants obliged to depend wholly upon their own judgment herein, there would be some weight in the objection. But this is not the case. For the reputation of manufacturers and warehousemen, and other dealers, in their negotiations with merchants, is not only at stake in one respect, but they can safely depend upon well-experienced brokers and packers in others, to prevent impositions of this nature: so that there is not that necessity for the merchant to have so deep a knowledge in the qualities of goods in general, as if the case was otherwise. However, this matter should by no means be disregarded in a collegiate establishment; a mercantile museum, or repository, being indispensably necessary to such a design, which should be furnished with samples * of the unperishable staple commodities and produce of the principal trading parts of the world.

* To these should be joined labels, describing the distinguishable characteristics of their several qualities, according to the degrees of comparison: this will accustom a young person to form some judgment in the qualities of those commodities wherein he may be hereafter induced to trade. If this expedient should have no other effect than to make a proper impression, that the merchant himself should not be wholly regardless of the qualities of those commodities wherein he may happen to deal, it may answer a very good purpose, but can prove no way detrimental: he may chuse whether he will regard any but those he may occasionally traffic in, and such he cannot be too well acquainted with. See the articles MANUFACTURERS, MECHANICS, MUSEUM.

Very far from raising an uncontrollable adventurous spirit, in causelessly rambling from one branch of trade to another, on the contrary, every measure should be used to check it, by throwing in such a weight of prudential knowledge as will ballast the most towering and extravagant disposition of that kind.

In view to which, the tutors should not be wanting to instil the necessity of guarding against casualties and injurious events, in every shape, so far as the extent of human foresight may be presumed to go in the train of business. Thus with regard to exportation for proper, or company account, the necessity of pro forma accounts should be duly enforced, before adventures are undertaken; as also the prudence of buying at best hand, and judiciously dividing the hazard, by not trusting too large a capital upon one bottom, or in one hand; not to trade beyond themselves, or leave their concerns too much to others; of prudentially insuring, not only from the danger of the seas, but from the danger of bad debts in foreign parts. For young people should be admonished rather to be contented with smaller profits, than not to allow the usual extra commission, for a good correspondent to remain the middle man upon those occasions, persons of experience well knowing the measures too often taken by factors, provided they have not this extra-allowance.

These, and all other such-like measures, should be duly regarded by the instructors; since not only the improvement, but the security of the merchant's fortune, as trading in the capacity of a principal for his own account, so greatly depends. And although, by pursuing measures so circumspect, our young merchant's profits, at first setting out for himself, may be less than those of more bold adventurers; yet he will much sooner grow rich than those who make too much haste to become so.

Acting likewise in the capacity of a factor does not require less precaution: for a just and honourable regard, had, in the way of trade, to the interest of others, seldom proves detrimental to our own. Whether this is not one, and even the most effectual means to increase commission business, we leave those to judge who act as principals themselves. As trading in this shape

shape is the most beneficial and secure, so it is not the least delicate to conduct to the best advantage. In respect to a matter of this importance to the young merchant, the best advice should be inculcated. To which end, those measures should be pointed out that have been successfully taken by the more judicious to gain commissions.

No employment requiring a more ready use of the principal modern languages than the mercatorial, a collegial institution would be judged materially deficient, if destitute of professors to train up those students properly therein: wherefore, for whatever branch of trade the young merchant may be intended, he should, through the course of this education, be able to obtain either a knowledge of the French language, or the Italian, the Spanish, the Portuguese, or even the Dutch, High or Low; and, indeed, a facility in writing of several, or all of them, is necessary for the general merchant: for, although some may think that the French alone, from its universality*, sufficient, yet many foreigners will rather prefer a British correspondent, who writes his native language well, than that of him who only writes the French or the English.

* It has proved no mean stroke of the French policy to make their language so universal as they have done. Among their system of arts for the propagation of their commerce, there is no one, perhaps, that has more tended to render it universal than this, however some may slightly think of it. Where there is one book in the English language read throughout the world, there are doubtless many thousands of the French; and such is the vanity of that nation (a), that they are superlatively modest in decrying most others, in order to render their own the more superb in the eyes of strangers. The best of every thing is scarce any where to be found but in France; and they as arbitrarily govern the fashions of the world, in what shall be eat, drank, and wore, in other nations, as they are governed at home. Are not also the furniture, buildings, and even the pleasures of the rest of mankind, in a great measure, settled by this grand regulator of modes and fashions? How far this, with the universality of their language, has contributed to universalize their commerce, I am afraid has never been sufficiently considered in this kingdom. This is apparent from many parts of our work.

(a) See Mr. Addison's Freeholder, No. 30. and bishop Spratt's Answer to that dissingenuous Frenchman Sorbiere.

What renders this the more necessary is, that such who are pretty general traders, and not capable themselves of writing in the modern languages, as their affairs may require, are under the daily necessity of applying to those who make it their business to translate for them, and write answers to their foreign letters. Now, besides the meanness and expence of such a practice, do not such merchants run the hazard of having the arcana of their business betrayed, and themselves therein supplanted? Nor are hired translators themselves always able to give the genuine sense of a letter, or to write a pertinent answer, with the proper turn of phrase. How injurious a practice of this kind may frequently prove, we leave those to consider whom it may concern. Moreover, When a merchant has established his credit among the trading world for worth, honour, and punctuality, there is no end of his correspondence. It is the common practice among merchants of honour, all over the world, to make mutual tenders of their services upon any natural occasion that offers, which is taken cordial and respectful: and, if they meet with a correspondent who writes their language well, and takes their sense clearly, it is frequently instrumental to produce profitable negotiations that, perhaps, might never have been the case, if the agreeable corresponding language had been wanting.

The most capital houses of mercantile trade throughout Europe being generally composed of several partners, for the greater satisfaction of foreign correspondents, it is customary for the one or the other of those partners to travel into foreign countries, in order to make the better judgment of the credit and fortune of their correspondents, cement ties of commercial friendship with others, and extend their traffic in general. Where such travelling correspondents meet with traders who speak their own language with propriety, it should seem to have a tendency to promote more harmony than is cultivated with those who do not; in the same manner as we observe strangers, who think alike, and between whom there is a similitude of manners, shall, at first sight, contract permanent and beneficial friendships.

As foreign merchants resort to England with this intent, so the English frequently take the tour into foreign countries. But, to go without language, he may almost as well be deaf as dumb: he stands but an indifferent chance to cultivate advantageous friendships, and promote the honour and interest of the house wherein he is concerned. Few foreigners speak English, which makes it the more necessary for the English to speak and write the language of foreigners with whom they do or are likely to correspond.

That a knowledge of geography is peculiarly necessary to the merchant, need not be urged; and that some skill in naviga-

tion is likewise requisite, cannot be less obvious, seeing they have constant concerns with masters of ships and insurances, &c.

That the merchant should make some farther advance than this into the mathematical literature, will hardly be disputed, when we take a comprehensive view of the nature of his employment; for, although we suppose him to be an expert practical arithmetician, yet, methinks, he should not be mechanically so only: he should be habituated from his infancy to know the reason of all rules by which he works [see ARITHMETIC], for then he will apply his skill in figures pertinently to whatever occurs, which otherwise is scarce possible; and it is better to see with our own eyes than through the medium of others. A man, indeed, may content himself with the common theorems for gauging and mensuration, &c. yet to work only by line and by rule, illy becomes so high a character. We cannot therefore but think, that such a knowledge in algebra and geometry, as will lead the merchant into the rationale of every calculatory qualification for which he may have occasion, must be of use to prevent deception. How far also some knowledge in this science may be helpful to the improvement of the understandings in general of young people of this class, may deserve consideration. [See our article MATHEMATICS.] Likewise how usefully a knowledge in some parts of philosophy might contribute to his prosperity in many branches of trade wherein he may be engaged, appears from various parts of this work. See the article PHILOSOPHY.

The business of this class of traders being not only under the controul of the peculiar and municipal laws of their country, but to the established customs and usages of the mercatorial, as well as many branches of the civil law, and the laws of nations and commercial treaties; it will hardly be said, that the merchant stands in need of no knowledge of this kind. Certain it is, if he is ignorant of the penalties to which he is liable, and the rights and privileges to which his profession entitle him in any respect, he not only runs the risque of daily imposition, but of absolute ruin. It is therefore we have, throughout the course of this work, pointed out most of the laws and usages of every kind, to which this trader is liable.

As the public funds of this kingdom, and the great monied corporations established in consequence thereof, are chiefly under the management and direction of the most distinguished merchants of the city of London, does it not become necessary that they should be thoroughly informed in what relates to the support of the public credit, when the trust reposed in them is for no less than the property of 170 millions of sterling money? We do not intend, by what is here said, to signify the crafty skill of stockjobbing, we having before touched that point; we mean, that in this college should be taught, in a proper manner, a perfect knowledge of the public revenue in every branch thereof, all the laws relating thereto, and the several variations which the funds have undergone: upon the whole, here should be taught, scientifically, the real principles to preserve public faith and credit, the foundation on which the property of the monied interest stands, at present; what measures may be reasonably judged expedient in future, for the due security of so considerable a proportion of the wealth of the nation, as well as what are the most general eligible ways and means to raise the public supplies hereafter on all emergencies, the most for the general interest and honour of the kingdom. See the articles DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], FUNDS, INTEREST of MONEY, and MONEY.

The study of commerce, as well as that of the public funds and revenue in a national and political view, both in general, and as the several branches of it come occasionally under the consideration of the legislature, or the public, by intended regulations, becomes another principal particular to be cultivated in this seminary.

This part of knowledge will, we apprehend, be thought of no little importance to the mercantile prosperity, as it has been deemed a great merit in merchants, on public conjunctures, to have afforded satisfaction to their fellow-citizens, in their associations in this metropolis upon those interesting occasions; and the highest honour to have given the legislature satisfactory accounts in matters of concernment to the traffic of the kingdom.

The memorable defeat of the French bill of commerce, in the reign of the late queen Anne, is sufficient to confirm the truth of this*.

* When Great-Britain, under the conduct of the late duke of Marlborough, had reduced France to the necessity of suing for peace, there were two treaties set on foot, the one of peace, the other of commerce. But the treaty of commerce could not take effect, unless the parliament consented to reduce the high duties, and take off the prohibitions so wisely laid on French commodities. As this would have destroyed all the best branches of our trade, and deprived many hundred thousand of our manufacturers of their subsistence, it began to give an alarm; which became general amongst the merchants and traders, who knew the fatal

consequences of it. Many pamphlets were published, to convince our legislators, that the preserving our looms, and the rents of Great-Britain, were of greater consequence to the nation, than gratifying our palates with French wine. This treaty, however, was to be supported at any rate; which occasioned several ingenious merchants of long experience, and well skilled in trade, together with the late earl of Halifax and earl Stanhope, to use their utmost endeavours to defeat it; which they effectually did, by the satisfactory accounts thereof they laid before both houses of parliament, and from what they published from time to time, under the title of the British Merchant, or Commerce preserved.

Sir Charles Coke, merchant at that time, made so clear a defence of our trade at the bar of the house of lords and commons, that he was afterwards deservedly made one of the lords commissioners of trade and plantations, and chose a member of parliament.

Sir Theodore Janssen, Bart. also, furnished many useful materials, which contributed towards the carrying that national point.

James Milner, Esq; merchant, and member of parliament, made appear, before the house of commons, the great importance of our trade to Portugal, and of the treaty of commerce which supports the same, in opposition to the French bill of commerce.

Mr. Nathaniel Torriano, merchant, shewed the consequence of opening the French trade according to the proposed treaty, in so strong and so clear a light, as to convince even them who discouraged his speaking before parliament, of the destruction that must have inevitably fallen upon our country, had that treaty been rendered effectual by parliament.

Mr. Joshua Gee, Mr. Christopher Haynes, Mr. David Martin, and several other very able and distinguished merchants, well acquainted with the interests of the trade of the nation, were extremely helpful likewise in defeating that pernicious treaty, and therefore latest posterity will have their names in honourable remembrance.

But we need go no further than our present time for instances of this kind. We had a conspicuous example before us, in one of the late representatives of this great city in parliament; who upon all occasions, manifested so superlative a knowledge in the general commerce of the nation, as deservedly to be distinguished with the highest honour and applause: which, one would think, should animate every young merchant to endeavour, next to his province, to excel in this kind of knowledge.

And, although every one cannot expect to be blessed with the genius of a Barnard and a Beckford, yet every merchant of distinction should be emulous to exert himself in the service of his country, in a manner so consistent with his profession. Every trader having a private interest in the promotion of the general trade, and practical traders having greater opportunities than others of knowing the true interest of the nation in that respect, it seems a duty owing to themselves, as well as their country, to turn their thoughts sometimes that way. Beside, in regard to their own particular interest, if they are not thoroughly acquainted with the political nature of that peculiar branch of trade, wherein they are personally concerned, how is it possible they can duly support and defend it on any great exigencies, in the eye of the legislature?

For the proper instruction of the students in each of these branches, it is supposed, that the college is provided with tutors well accomplished to act their respective parts with all advantage to the collegians, and credit and honour to themselves.—It is supposed likewise, that the college is provided with a library of the best authors in all the modern languages, who have treated upon the several subjects before enumerated, and with a complete mathematical and philosophical apparatus for every purpose intended.

And now, if the reader will take a transient retrospect in his mind of what has been said, he will hardly scruple to grant, that merchandizing, and the united qualifications necessary to form this skilful British trader, have as good a claim to the appellation of an art or a science, as most that are so honoured and distinguished: should we say, that commerce is the grand support of most other arts that are solidly useful to mankind, it is no more than it deserves; and therefore it will not be thought unreasonable, that PRACTICAL TRADE, and MERCANTILE NEGOCIATIONS in general, should be reduced to as regular a method of institution, as it's inferior and dependent arts.

Of the PLAN of EXECUTION.

If the judicious reader should be candid enough to admit the preceding plan of particulars to be unexceptionable, and that there is nothing intimated therein, but what appears indispensibly necessary to train up the merchant suitably to his great employment; yet it may be said, this is no great advance towards the carrying such a design to it's desirable height of perfection, in point of execution: it is far easier to suggest the particulars requisite, than to obtain fit and ca-

pable persons for the office of instructors in an establishment of this kind. There is more difficulty attending this, perhaps, than there is in any other literary institution; for, if the distinct branches hereof were to be taught in the ordinary scholastic way, which is practised in public schools and other collegial seminaries, I am afraid it would frustrate the end proposed, and rather mar than forward the student in his accomplishments.

The merchant is expected to engage in trade for himself, and hazard his fortune therein, by the age of 23 or 24 at farthest: many are impatient to stay so long: whereas the learned professions, as they are distinguished, give the student, upon the general, above ten years more in his application, before he is judged capable to make any tolerable figure in life; and that by subsisting only on the interest of his fortune, if he has any, but not hazarding the principal money, as the young merchant is obliged to do, before he can raise any sort of reputation in the commercial world.

This being the case, and the skilful merchant standing in need of so great variety of knowledge, in order to preserve and improve his fortune, every expedient should be devised, every art practised, that will conduce to give him the greatest fund of useful knowledge in the least time.

Without entering into a critic upon the usual methods of education in England, which, indeed, have been sufficiently exposed by learned men already; we shall only endeavour to shew in general, wherein, we apprehend, the method for accomplishment of the merchant ought to differ from that which is commonly practised, in regard to the more learned classes of the community.

The life of the merchant being a conversable one, his employment leading him to transactions even from the mechanic and manufacturer to the minister of state, his method of erudition, methinks, should be as different from that scholastic way, as his profession is from all others: the man of business has not 20 years to devote to the mere study of languages, metaphysics, and criticism, &c. Prudence directs him to apply early to those things indispensibly requisite to prosperity in his employment; and what may adorn the learned professions, might spoil him for his own*.—When the merchants accomplishments are equal to, or above his employment, and not his employment superior to his accomplishments, then he may be at liberty to make what advances leisure and prudence will admit, in the belles lettres and the liberal arts; but to aim at this before, is acting as wisely as the peasant, who by turning star-gazer got smothered in a ditch.

* Sir William Temple gives it as his opinion, that even the men of learning may be so overlaid with learning, as to be weaker in point of judgment than if they had less.—So the merchant, if overstocked with that sort of literature which may be above or beside his province, he may be the worse merchant, though the greater scholar.—What Sir William says may deserve attention—'Who can tell, says he, whether learning may not even weaken invention, in a man that has great advantages from nature and birth; whether the weight and number of so many other men's thoughts and notions may not suppress his own, or hinder the motions and agitations of them, from which all invention arises; as heaping on wood, or too many sticks, or too close together, suppresses, and sometimes quite extinguishes a little spark that would otherwise have grown up to a noble flame. The strength of the mind, as well as of body, grows more from the warmth of exercise than of clothes; nay, too much of this foreign heat, rather makes men faint, and their constitution tender and weaker than they would be without them.'—Temple's Works, vol. i. fol. p. 158. If this observation of Sir William's should prove true, the merchant, with a share of learning suitable only to his profession, added to his conversable knowledge of the world, and the constant exercise of his own judgment in active business, may become a much wiser man, a more useful member to the community, than the profound scholar, whose understanding is drowned in the ocean of knowledge borrowed only from others.

Upon the whole, what we would mean to say is, that there should seem to be a certain pitch of literature, beyond which it is dangerous for the commercial man to advance; and really the field of knowledge, which the nature of the mercatorial employment requires, is not so scanty as some may be wont to think*: nor should the manner of communication of what is requisite be in the ordinary scholastic way, the merchant's time being limited, as before observed, to so few years, for the course of his erudition.

* See our Universal Dictionary throughout, in what relates to his accomplishments.

Nor will a profound knowledge, in every mercantile branch which we have particularized, answer the end: there are perhaps, many far more learned divines, lawyers, and physicians, who live in obscurity, than those who gain their thousands a year, and make a pompous figure in life: some study the externals, the knowledge of the world, and the craft of rising without merit, while others study only to deserve what they never arrive at.—The merchant must be the

man of the world, as well as skilful in the requisites of his profession; but his being immured in a college to converse only with the dead letter, and the jargon of the schools, will render him as unfit for his profession, as Sir Isaac Newton was for a dancing-master.

Wherefore the question is, what is the best method to train up this man of business? We say he must not be deficient in some of the principal modern languages, nor should he be incapable of reading a Latin author at least, though it may not be necessary for him to be a classical critic. If he enters the college with a childish smattering of this tongue only, he should not leave it, without such a fundamental mastery, that he can improve himself therein at intervals, even in the height of his mercantile concerns.

The business of languages, especially the learned ones, as they are eminently distinguished, is made an Herculean toil, in the packhorse road of an ordinary English education; yet no nation has better helps to facilitate their acquisition.—We abound with English translations, both literal and free, of the poets as well as prosaic authors, more than sufficient to enable a person to read any of the rest; sufficient, however, to capacitate the man of business to read any he may chuse; and he has scarce ever occasion to speak or write that dead language; though why the English, as well as foreigners, should not be accustomed to speak the Latin, there can be no substantial reason given, perhaps.—The English are remarkable for writing Latin inferior to none; and why they should not speak it equally well, if trained to it, is not easy to say. Because we can never be able, say some, from the change of customs, and the extraordinary difference of idiom, &c. to speak that language with a Roman elegance, are we therefore not to attempt it all? Would not a conversable use in this dead language, from our infancy, greatly expedite the acquisition of the modern, which have a near affinity therewith? This will hardly be gainsaid *.

* If a man could be got, says our great Mr. Locke, who, himself speaking good Latin, would always be about your son, talk constantly to him, and suffer him to speak or read nothing else (a), this would be the true genuine way, and that which I would propose, not only as the easiest and best, wherein a child might, without pains or chiding get a language which others are wont to be whipped for at school, six or seven years together; but also as that wherein at the same time he might have his mind and manners formed, and he be instructed to boot in several sciences; such as are a good part of geography, astronomy, chronology, anatomy, besides some parts of history, and all other parts of knowledge of things, that fall under the senses, and require little more than MEMORY. For these, if we would take the true way, our knowledge should begin, and in those things be laid the foundation; and not in the abstract notions of logics and metaphysics, which are fitter to amuse than inform the understanding in it's first setting out towards knowledge. When young men have had their heads employed a while in those abstract speculations, without finding the success and improvement, or that use of them which they expected, they are apt to have mean thoughts, either of learning or themselves; they are tempted to quit their studies and throw away their books, as containing nothing but hard words and empty sounds; or else to conclude, that, if there be any real knowledge in them, they themselves have not understanding capable of it. That this is so, perhaps, I could assure you upon experience. Amongst other things to be learned by a young gentleman in this method, whilst others are only taken up with Latin and languages, I may also set down geometry for one, having known a young gentleman, bred something after this way, able to demonstrate several propositions in Euclid, before he was thirteen.

(a) This is the method by which the celebrated Montaigne was taught Latin, and from which very probably Mr. Locke might borrow the thought. What Montaigne says of himself may deserve regard:—'No doubt but Greek and Latin are very great ornaments, and of very great use, but we buy them too dear: I will here discover one way, which also has been experimented in my own PERSON, by which they are to be had better cheap, and such may make use of it that will. My father having made the most precise enquiry that any man could possibly make, amongst men of the greatest learning and judgment, of an exact method of education, was by them cautioned of the inconvenience then in use, and made to believe that the tedious time we applied to the learning of the languages of those people who had them for nothing, was the sole cause we could not arrive to that grandeur of soul and perfection of knowledge with the ancient Greeks and Romans: I do not, however, believe, that to be the only cause: but the expedient my father found out for this was, that in my infancy, and before I began to speak, he committed me to the care of a German, who since died a famous physician in France, totally ignorant of our language, but very fluent, and a great critic in Latin. This man, whom he had fetched out of his own country, and whom he entertained with a very great salary for this only end, had me continually in his arms: to whom there were also joined two others of the same nation, but of inferior learning, to attend me, and sometimes to relieve him, who all of them entertained me with no other language but Latin. As to the rest of his family, it was an inviolable rule, that neither himself, nor my mother, man nor maid, should speak any thing in my company, but such Latin words as every one had learnt only to gabble with me. It is not to be imagined how great an advantage this proved to the whole family; my father and my mother, by this means learning Latin enough to understand it perfectly well, and to speak it to such a degree, as was sufficient for any necessary use; as also those of the servants did, who were most frequent with me.—To be short, we

did Latin it at such a rate, that it overflowed to all the neighbouring villages, where there yet remain, that have established themselves by custom, several Latin appellations of artizans and their tools. As for what concerns myself, I was above six years of age before I understood either French or Perigordin, any more than Arabic; and, without ART, BOOK, GRAMMAR, or PRECEPT, WHIPPING, or the expence of a TEAR, had by that time learned to speak as pure Latin as my master himself. If, for example, they were to give me a theme after the college fashion, they gave it others in French, but to me they were of necessity to give it in the worst Latin, to turn it into that which was pure and good; and Nicholas Grouchi, who writ a book de Commitiis Romanorum, William Guirentes, who has writ a comment upon Aristotle, George Buchanan, that great Scotch poet, and Marcus Antonius Muretus, (whom both France and Italy have acknowledged for the best orator of his time) my domestic tutors, have all of them often told me, that I had in my infancy that language so very fluent and ready, that they were afraid to enter into discourse with me; and particularly Buchanan, whom I since saw attending the late marshal de Brisac, then told me, that he was about to write a treatise of education, the example of which he intended to take from mine, for he was then tutor to that count de Brisac, who afterwards proved so valiant and brave a gentleman. As to Greek, of which I have but a smattering, my father also designed to have taught it me by a trick, but a new one, and by way of sport; tossing our declensions to and fro, after the manner of those, who by certain games, and tables and chess, learn geometry and arithmetic: for he, amongst other rules, had been advised to make me relish science and duty by an unforced will, and of my own voluntary motion, and to educate my soul in all liberty and delight, without any severity or restraint.

Besides the practice of conversation, as recommended by Mr. Locke and Montaigne, and indeed by all the learned men of other nations, the next means is translation; which, according to the learned Mr. Ascham*, who was preceptor to queen Elizabeth, ought to be double; that is to say, not only Latin into English, but the same English again into the original Latin, whereby learners have the classical authors to correct themselves by: which, being of the pure Roman phrase, is a far better standard for correction than the judgment of the generality of schoolmasters.

* See the Schoolmaster; or, A plain and perfect way of teaching children to understand, write, and speak the Latin tongue. By Roger Ascham, Esq; preceptor to her majesty queen Elizabeth, corrected and revised, with an addition of explanatory notes, by the Rev. Mr. James Upton, A. M. rector of Brimton in Somersetshire, and late fellow of King's College in Cambridge. Printed in the year 1711, for Benjamin Tooke, at the Middle Temple Gate in Fleet-Street.—This I think one of the best books I ever met with to help youth forward in the Latin tongue, with great care and pleasure, and which I myself have experienced.

But, if such a man cannot be got, says Mr. Locke, who speaks good Latin, and, being able to instruct your son in all these parts of knowledge, will undertake it by this method, the next best is to have him taught as near this way as may be, which is by taking some easy and pleasant book, such as Æsop's Fables, and writing the English translation (made as literal as it can be) in one line, and the Latin words which answer each of them, just over it in another. These let him read every day over and over again, 'till he perfectly understands the Latin; and then go on to another fable, 'till he be also perfect in that, not omitting what he is already perfect in, but sometimes reviewing that, to keep it in his memory. And, when he comes to write, let these be set him for copies; which, with the exercise of his hand, will also advance him in Latin. This being a more imperfect way than by talking Latin unto him, the formation of the verbs first, and afterwards the declension of the nouns and pronouns perfectly learned by heart, may facilitate his acquaintance with the genius and manner of the Latin tongue, which varies the signification of verbs and nouns, not as the modern languages do, by particles fixed, but by changing the last syllables. More than this of grammar* I think he need not have, 'till he can read himself Sancti Minerva, with Scioppius and Prezizonius's notes.

* The absurdity, says the late ingenious Mr. Clark of Hull, in his New Latin Grammar, of teaching the Latin tongue by a grammar in Latin, is so very gross, that one would wonder how it should ever enter into the head of any person of common sense, much more how it should ever become a national practice. But common custom, in most cases of importance, is so far from being the rule of right, that it is the very reverse of it, and in no case more flagrantly than this. The imposing of public prayers for the use of the people in a language they know not, as senseless and ridiculous a practice as it is, it is not more so than it is to pretend to teach a language by rules writ in the very language to be learnt, and which consequently the learner cannot understand, or make any use of, 'till they are rendered into a language he does know; and then it is the translation only, and not the original, that is of use to him. In short, the most rude and barbarous nations upon earth cannot furnish us with any instance of a custom that carries more of stupidity in the front of it. And therefore it is somewhat strange, that a practice so mischievous, as well as ridiculous, should not long since have had a stop put to it by law. Our legislators have almost all in their turns been considerable sufferers by it; and, unless they please by their authority to prevent it, their posterity after them are like to suffer on in the same manner to the end of the world. For public custom is seldom to be conquered but by authority, especially where people are got into the wrong way, so perverse or weak are

the generality of mankind. It is, therefore, very much to be wished, the legislature would take the matter under consideration, and, to save a deal of pain and plague, as well as a miserable waste of time to the youth of the nation, put an effectual stop to the senseless and barbarous custom of teaching the Latin tongue by a Latin grammar. They have highly merited of the people of Great-Britain, by delivering them from a grievance of a like nature, the use of the Latin tongue, or doggerel rather under that denomination, in the practice of the law.

Another act of that nature, in pity to the poor suffering youth of the kingdom, would, I dare say, be as kindly and thankfully received, by all true lovers of their country and good letters. Whether it may be reasonable or proper for authority to impose the use of any one grammar, I shall not take upon me to determine here; but this I shall be bold to say, that it is as reasonable to forbid by law the pretence of teaching the Latin tongue by a grammar writ in Latin, as it is to forbid the use of that language in the public worship of God. Both practices are equally ridiculous, though not equally pernicious. For the thing proposed in both cases is utterly unattainable. Youth can no more learn by the help of a language they do not understand, than the people can pray to God in a language they do not understand, which every body sees to be impossible, and nonsense to pretend.—So far the ingenious Mr. Clark.

In teaching of children this too, I think, is to be observed, that, in most cases where they stick, they are not to be farther puzzled, by putting them upon finding it out of themselves; as by asking such questions as these, viz. which is the nominative case in the sentence they are to construe? or demanding what *aufero* signifies, to lead them to the knowledge what *abstulere* signifies, &c. when they cannot readily tell. This wastes time only in disturbing them; for, whilst they are learning, and apply themselves with attention, they are to be kept in good humour, and every thing made easy to them, and as pleasant as possible*. Therefore, whenever they are at a stand, and are willing to go forwards, help them presently over the difficulty, without any rebuke or chiding; remembering, that, where harsher ways are taken, they are the effect only of pride and peevishness in the teacher, who expects children should instantly be masters of as much as he knows: whereas he should rather consider, that his business is to settle in them habits, not angrily to inculcate rules, which serve for little in the conduct of our lives; at least are of no use to children, who forget them as soon as given. In sciences where their reason is to be exercised, I will not deny, but this method may sometimes be varied, and difficulties proposed on purpose to excite industry, and accustom the mind to employ its own strength and sagacity in reasoning. But yet, I guess, this is not to be done to children whilst very young, nor at their entrance upon any sort of knowledge: then every thing of itself is difficult, and the great use and skill of a teacher is to make all as easy as he can. But particularly, in learning of languages, there is the least occasion for posing of children. For languages, being to be learned by *ROTE*, *CUSTOM*, and *MEMORY*, are then spoken in greatest perfection, when all rules of grammar are utterly forgotten. I grant the grammar of a language is sometimes very carefully to be studied, but it is only to be studied by a grown man, when he applies himself to the understanding of any language critically, which is seldom the business of any but professed scholars. This, I think, will be agreed to, that if a gentleman be to study any language, it ought to be that of his own country, that he may understand the language which he has constant use of, with the utmost accuracy. See Locke of Education.

* These sentiments of Mr. Locke have induced many to oblige the public with literal translations of several of the introductory classical authors, for the use of schools; and which, I doubt not, have proved extremely helpful; especially when the learners have been exercised by Mr. Ascham's method of double translation, and the grammar rules have been explained at proper times, in plain English. Many teachers of the dead languages are ridiculous and pedantic enough, to act in defiance of the opinion of Mr. Locke, Montaigne, Ascham, and other the most learned men in Europe, as might be easily shewn, and will not suffer youth to have all those helps for which these great men have so wisely contended: yet too many of these learned asses are obliged to make use themselves of these very auxiliaries, which they deny to children; in which a gentleman and myself once accidentally detected his son's schoolmaster at his own house.—Must not this be, with design to make the children believe, that their masters are so superlatively profound in these languages, that they stand in need of no expositors or annotators, when they really stand in need of them as much as the youths themselves? Or, must it not be with intent to lay every obstacle in the way of their improvement, that they may exert their perceptorial tyranny with less restraint? There cannot be too many helps for the acquisition of languages, both ancient and modern; and those, I am afraid, who the most strenuously oppose them, I shall always suspect, since the above accident, have the greatest occasion for them.

Monsieur Rollin, than whom few have better understood the method of training up youth in the learned languages, is of

the same sentiment: 'La premiere question, dit-il, qui se presente, est de savoir quelle methode il faut suivre pour enseigner la langue Latine. Il me semble qu'à present l'on convient assez generalement que les premiers regles que l'on donne pour apprendre le Latin, doivent être en François, parcequ'en TOUTE SCIENCE, en toute connoissance, il est naturel de passer d'une chose CONNUE & CLAIRE à une chose qui est INCONNUE & OBSCURE. On a senti qu'il n'étoit pas moins absurde, & moins contraire au bon sens, de donner en Latin les premiers préceptes de la langue Latine, qu'il le seroit d'en user ainsi pour le GREC, & pour toutes les LANGUES ÉTRANGERES.'

Those who would require greater satisfaction in relation to the method suggested for the speedy and familiar acquisition of languages, we refer them to consult not only those principal authors beforementioned, but such also who have followed the principles of those learned men, and wrote, since their time, upon the utility of the plainest and most literal translations (something in the way proposed by Mr. Locke) in order to facilitate the knowledge of the Latin tongue in particular*.—And, after the student is a master of these several authors; by the constant exercise of the method of double translation, and having the grammatical rules familiarly explained to him occasionally in plain English, he will be able of himself to read with pleasure several of the other classical authors; especially those with free and elegant translations, such as those wrote by Guttnie, Melmoth, Dunster, Dr. Martyn, and divers others; as also those commentators who have wrote in Latin upon the Roman classics. Upon the whole, however necessary some learned men may think it, that the youth of this nation, intended for the learned professions, should plod on in the old way of gaining a knowledge of the dead languages, it is to be hoped that the parents of those who are intended for merchants, will think it the worst method that can be taken for them: and what is the worst method for their attainment of a knowledge in the Latin tongue, can never be the best to be followed in relation to the modern languages.—They must be acquired by constant conversation with such who speak with propriety; by double translation, and by having the grammatical part easily explained in their native language, from the mouth of the tutor, and not by a multitude of rules got by heart, which only serve to burthen the memory, render learning disagreeable to youth, and retard their proficiency.—If I remember right, bishop Spratt, in the Life of Cowley, says, That he could never be brought to learn the Latin tongue by grammar rules, and yet few of the moderns have wrote that language with greater purity.

* The first that I remember to have appeared upon this occasion, was Mr. Philips, sub-preceptor to his royal highness the Duke. (2.) Mr. Clark, of the public grammar-school of Hull, author of two Essays on Education and Study, of A New Grammar of the Latin Tongue, and Literal Translations of several of the Introductory Latin Classics. (3.) Doctor Stirling. (4.) N. Bailey, Mr. Watson, and others.

Before we dismiss this point of language, we will take leave to make one observation more; which I have never met with in any of those authors who have wrote upon the best methods of obtaining a knowledge of languages. The reader, however, will please to take notice that what we are about to say is only intended as a requisite addition to what has been already proposed by Mr. Locke, Mr. Ascham, and those other authors before quoted, in regard to the usefulness of prepared literal translations, &c.

Another thing we desire the reader will please to observe, is, that we take it for granted no youth is admitted into the college before the age of 15 at least, and that he has been somewhat initiated into Latin and French, and can write his native language tolerably, together with a pretty good current hand.

Now, what we would humbly submit to further consideration is, in relation to the most natural method of making use of proper literal translations in the proposed college, in order to render the speaking and understanding of the Latin tongue, or any of the modern languages, very easy and familiar to the mercantile student: and what we have to propose is comprehended under the few following words:

The constant proper use of a *LIVING DICTIONARY*, and a *LIVING GRAMMAR*, and proper *LITERAL TRANSLATIONS*. That all literal translations may be made a proper use of, by the means of a living dictionary, it is proposed there shall be a kind of desk, elevated to a pitch proper for the purpose, wherein there shall always be one person constantly translating, with an audible voice, either Latin into English, or English into Latin; or French into English, or English into French; and the like of any other modern language to be learned; and those translations to be in as literal a manner as the different idioms of the languages will admit of, so as to be perfectly intelligible.—At the same time should be explained, *viva voce*, the peculiar customs and antiquities of the Romans, when any thing occurs that renders the same necessary to the better understanding the author which is thus publicly translating.

1. Let it be supposed, that, while such a constant translator, during the hours of education, is going on, a profound silence is preserved, and due attention is given by the students to such translation.

2. Let it be supposed, likewise, that one single day only in the six is allotted for the explication of the rules of grammar, of any author that has been translated, in the same public way, relating to the peculiar language to be acquired.

These simple exercises being supposed to be steadily pursued, in regard to any language, what may we reasonably presume to be the consequence?

In this exercise, the reader will please to observe, that the ear and the memory of youth only are constantly employed, with respect to the point of double translation; and that the understanding is familiarly worked upon, in order to imbibe and retain the rules of grammar, without the least disagreeable application or fatigue.

It is by the constant use of the tongue, the faculties of hearing and the memory only, whereby mankind obtain the knowledge to speak, write, and understand their native languages; and if, in the public way of teaching any other languages, we can fall nearly upon the like measures, is it not very reasonable to hope and expect that any other languages may be thereby acquired as familiarly and insensibly as we do our mother tongues? That this must be the effect of such exercises, we have not only the judgment of so great a man as Mr. Locke, but the experience of a Montaigne, our great queen Elizabeth, and Madam Dacier.

By thumbing over the DEAD DICTIONARY and DEAD GRAMMAR, a youth of 15 shall, perhaps, make shift, with Herculean toil, and the help of his school-fellows, to hammer out, in a very pitiful way, thirty or forty lines of an author in a day, the greatest part of which he too often as soon forgets as learns: whereas, by means of the constant exercise of the LIVING DICTIONARY, and the LIVING GRAMMAR, and LITERAL TRANSLATIONS, he may, with great ease and pleasure, learn some hundreds of lines in a day, and retain the greatest part of the words and phrases in his memory.

Whether these exercises will be attended with advantages so superior to what the ordinary ones are, it may be necessary to enter into a further éclaircissement of the plan proposed.—To which end, the reader is desired further to observe, that

The whole college is supposed to consist only, or chiefly, of young students who are designed for the mercatorial employment.—That their continuance therein is proposed to be from the age of 15 to 19, and that the whole number of them shall be divided into four or more classes; that is, those of the first year's standing should be of the first class, those of the second of the next, &c.

At the first commencement of this institution, the fresh men, who enter at 15, must be assisted, as much as possible, by the means proposed, for the first year, by the tutors; but, upon their entrance into the second year, those of the first year may, in a great measure, be instructed by the measures suggested, by their fellow students of the second year's standing; and those of the second year's standing be instructed by those of the third; and those of the third by those of the fourth year's standing; which will prove of no less ease to the tutors, than benefit to themselves.—To explain myself.

1. It is presumed that those students who enter into the second year have, in the way proposed, gone through two, three, or more of the introductory Latin classical authors, besides two or three French authors* which are proper for the occasion. At the same time, the reader is desired to observe, that there are stated times for their improvement in figures, and their mechanical hand-writing, and something of geography.

* The plainest prose authors we judge best to begin with.

2. That three or four, or more, of the most expert students of the second class should be constant public translators to those of the first class, the tutor always attending to explain difficulties, as they occurred.—Those of the third class to those of the second, and those of the fourth to those of the third class, &c.

3. This will refresh the memories again of the students with the authors which they had read in their prior class, habituate them to a graceful pronunciation and elocution, and prove of great ease to the lungs of the tutor, whom we cannot presume to be capable of continuing a public translation several hours in the day; but this may be very easily done by a requisite number of the students of a superior class, in the presence of the tutor appointed for the instruction of the class.

4. By these simple exercises, steadily and judiciously pursued, the students cannot trifle away a moment's time of the hours allotted for their instruction, which they do when left intirely to themselves, with the use only of their dead dictionary and grammar, and without any proper translation to assist them.

5. It is supposed, as before intimated, that there is a profound silence always preserved in the room of public translation; that is, nothing is to be heard but the continued voice of the public translator for the time being.—If any thing is capable of

fixing the attention of youth, this method seems to bid very fair for it, because it is not attended with the least degree of toil or perplexity, every obstacle to their advancement being agreeably removed.

6. In order to judge whether due attention hath been given by every individual to the voice of the public translators, it should be an established rule for the tutor to cause, every day, such as he may suspect of inattention to mount the desk, and to retranslate publicly such a part of what has been done, perhaps, several times over by the appointed translators; and those who prove delinquents, and appear to be remarkably neglectful, will not only be thus ignominiously exposed, but they should be punished, by being that day confined to some extraordinary exercises, while their fellow students, who had behaved well, should be indulged in their diversions, and admitted to a table, for their meals, where there was something more delicate than at the table of such delinquents.—Something of this kind might be attended with very happy consequences to the youth, and of no little ease to the respective tutors.

We shall say no more in relation to languages.—The next points are those of FIGURES and ACCOUNTANTSHIP; and these, likewise, and such other parts of the mathematics, and, experimental philosophy, as we have touched upon, we would have taught as much in the same way as their peculiar nature will admit of; we mean, with relation to the rationale of the rules given for the practical operations of arithmetic, and the principles whereupon the art of accountanship by debtor and creditor, is founded, &c. together with proper lectures upon the mathematical and philosophic parts.—But, as the utility of the arithmetic and accountanship branches, in particular to the merchant, depends upon the ready and expert practice, the greatest variety of examples should not be wanting to exercise the several rules and principles thereof: yet these examples, also, we would have all performed in a public way, that the student should not have it in his power at all to trifle away his time: for that we judge a very essential point to be guarded against throughout the whole of this institution: but this can never be effectually done, provided a public lecturer, or demonstrator, is not constantly employed in those parts, as well as in the languages, and the silence and attention of the students are, at the same time, so diligently engaged as thoroughly to comprehend whatever they are thus publicly instructed in; and are able, also, to exercise the same in those practical uses which the nature of their employment may occasionally require: yet this cannot be effectually done, unless they have great variety of practical exercise in the several and respective branches*. Wherefore,

* That the fundamental principles of every branch may be duly impressed upon the mind, they should, together with proper examples, be fairly written, at the proper times appointed for that purpose, into books, by every individual student; and they should be also taught how to keep an alphabetical common-place book, wherein to register whatever they may hereafter have occasion to refer to.

The reader will please to observe, that another material and general principle, whereupon we propose the PLAN of EXECUTION to be founded, is, GREAT PRACTICE AND EXERCISE, in every branch of erudition. And, to corroborate our opinion herein, we shall again appeal to the authority of Mr. Locke:

‘No body is made any thing by hearing of rules, says he, or laying them up in his memory; practice must settle the habit of doing, without reflecting on the rule; and you may as well hope to make a good painter or musician extempore, by a lecture, and instruction in the arts of music and painting, as a coherent thinker, or strict reasoner, by a sett of rules, shewing him wherein right reasoning consists.’ Locke’s Conduct of the Understanding, vol. iii. p. 395.

With respect to the knowledge of the laws, customs, and usages relative to the employment of a merchant, those likewise, we apprehend, should be inculcated not only by PUBLIC LECTURE, but by FAMILIAR CONVERSATIONS upon the subjects of averages, baratries, bottomrees, bankruptcies, charter-parties, demurrages, exchanges [bills of exchange] and all other the variety of occurrences that arise in the course of practical business, all which will afford a wide field for improvement in matters of real use.—In relation to the method of instruction by public lecture, that is obvious enough to every one.—But what we mean by familiar conversation, may require some explanation. To which we shall only observe, that one or two evenings in the week, after the college exercises, should be set apart for those students, who are competently advanced, to give their opinion in the English language, or any other of the modern, in the presence of the proper professor appointed for this branch, upon any of the before-mentioned subjects, or any other relating to mercantile affairs; it being supposed, that the subject has been given out some days beforehand, in order for them to consult the proper books in the college, or their own libraries, for that purpose.

By this pleasing conversible exercise, the young students will be early inured to reflection, and retention of what they read, when they are under the necessity of communicating publicly

what authors they have consulted upon the occasion.—Besides, many of those points may lead to some debate; the professor may start objections, and ask their free opinions, when the subject is properly opened by him: and, by familiar interrogatories made from the chair, this will naturally draw out such answers as will shew who have, and who have not been assiduous in their applications to understand the subject from the books of authority.

The great Montaigne says, ‘If I was compelled to chuse, I should sooner, I think, consent to lose my sight than hearing and speech.’ The Athenians and Romans held the exercise of familiar conference and debate in great honour in their academies.’ Mr. Locke had so high an opinion of it’s utility, as to recommend it in the following words: ‘That there should be proposed to young gentlemen rational and useful questions, suited to their age and capacities, and on subjects not wholly unknown to them, nor out of their way: such as these, when they are ripe for exercises of this nature, they should extempore, or after a little meditation upon the spot, speak to, without penning of any thing: for I ask, if we will examine the effects of this way of learning to speak well, who speak best in any business, when occasion calls them to it, upon any debate, either those who have accustomed themselves to compose and write down beforehand what they would say; or those, who thinking only on the matter, to understand that as well as they can, use themselves only to speak extempore. And he that shall judge by this, will be little apt to think that accustoming him to studied speeches and set compositions is the way to fit a young gentleman for business*.’

- Cicero, if I may be allowed once to mention such a name in a design of this nature, somewhere speaks of C. Curio, who had never read any books of eloquence, nor made any historical collections, nor understood any thing of the public or private part of the law; yet was so happy in expressing himself, as to be esteemed one of the best orators of his time. What gained him this applause, was a clear shining phrase, and a sudden quickness and fluency of expression, which was acquired purely by the benefits of his private education, being always used to a correct way of speaking in the house wherein he was brought up.

The same exercises of constant public lectures and public conversations, we also judge to be the most naturally adapted to the attainment of the other branches enumerated in the general plan, and, therefore, we shall only further observe,

1. The reader will please to remark in general, throughout the execution of every part of the proposed plan, we would recommend a similitude and uniformity of practice, viz. the constant exercise of the faculties of hearing, speaking, and registering by writing, the fundamental principles of whatever shall be taught in the college; and this without any retardment whatever to the progress of the student, every difficulty being agreeably removed as soon as it occurs.

2. The variety of capacities among youth, it is to be feared, is commonly too little attended to in their education: methods, suitably adapted to one genius, mar, blunt, and confound another. To prevent prejudicial consequences of this kind, our plan of execution is so devised as to suit any variety of capacities and dispositions. The slower genius and milder complexion will here have the fairest play to exert itself, without that awe and perplexity which often nips it in it’s tender bud. On the other hand, the strongest and most nervous capacity, the genius of the greatest sprightliness and vigour, will have every advantage to fix it’s fire, and agreeably mould and fashion it to application.

Emulation in youth, like ambition in men, exciting to the most laudable endeavours, no expedient should be wanting first to raise, and afterwards to cherish and support this noble passion.

One motive of this kind will be peculiar to these young gentlemen: which is, their being made sensible how easily they may advance each other’s credit and interest in the way of trade: but, without suitable qualifications to play skilfully into each other’s hands, they should be convinced that they can never hope to reap such benefit by their mutual intercourse of friendships.

The experienced well know how merchants properly situated at home and abroad may promote one another. This is often done by persons bred in separate practical counting-houses in the ordinary way: but, where young people are bred up together, in the like maxims and practices, and where personal friendships are contracted from their youth, they will more naturally fall upon measures for their common advantage: especially so, when such have been properly pointed out to them in the course of their collegial erudition, and deeply impressed in their tender years.

In carrying the whole of this design into execution, the natural and ordinary practices of men of sense and genius should be made the principal guide. From art should be only borrowed such helps as will aid and assist, no way cramp and suppress, the intellectual powers and faculties: and how far those powers and faculties will carry youth, under an institution whose sole foundation is to render every acquisition as pleasing

and delightful as possible, has, perhaps, scarce ever been duly experimented*. In the common methods of acquiring knowledge, men seem generally too intent upon the dead letter: whereas, if the real conversible practices of mankind, properly regulated and conducted, and improved by natural and engaging arts, were made the principal foundation in every kind of literary institution, we might indeed, have fewer pedants, but more truly useful members of the community.

- * ‘Un maître habile & attentif met tout en usage pour rendre l’étude aux jeunes gens agreable. Il prend leurs tems: il étudie leur goût: il consulte leur humeur: il mêle le jeu au travail: il paroît leur en laisser le choix: il ne fait point une règle de l’étude: il en excite quelquefois le desir par la refus même, & par la cessation, ou plutôt par l’interruption: en un mot, il se tourne en mille formes, & invente mille adresses pour arriver à son but.’ Rollin des Belles Lettres. Du Government des Colleges.

‘I would not, says Montaigne again, have this pupil of our’s imprisoned and made a slave to his learning; nor would I have him given up to the morosity and melancholic humour of a sour, ill-natured pedant. I would not have his spirit cowed and subdued, by applying him to the rack, and tormenting him, as some do, fourteen or fifteen hours a day, and so make a pack-horse of him. Nor should I think it good, when, by reason of a solitary and melancholic complexion, he is discovered to be much addicted to books, to nourish that humour in him, for that renders him unfit for civil conversation, and diverts him from better employments. —The place of education, adds he, should be painted with the pictures of joy and gladness, Flora and the Graces, as the philosopher Speusippus did his; that, where their profit is, they might there have their pleasure too.’

We would not have it signified, that these young gentlemen can be expected to arrive at so great a mastery in every thing we have suggested, as to become perfect proficient therein. The youth of many, and the shortness of time proposed for their continuance in the college, cannot well allow of this. But we take upon us to say, that all who have tolerable natural abilities can scarce avoid contracting so good a habitude of attention and application to business, as will grow up with them throughout the whole of their lives, and, indeed, qualify them ever after to be their own instructors. ‘It is not, as Mr. Locke observes, the business of education, in respect to knowledge, to perfect a learner in all, or any of the sciences, but to give his mind that freedom, that disposition, those habits, that may enable him to attain any part of knowledge he shall apply himself to, or stand in need of in the future course of his life.’

It having been a dispute among the learned world, whether a public or a private education is to be preferred, it may be necessary to observe, that, according to the proposed institution, the end of both may be effectually answered at the same time; and that not only in regard to the point of mercantile accomplishment, but in regard also to the morals of young people; for such should be the discipline established for the conduct of this design, that every moment of time might be properly regulated, even that portion allotted for diversions, in order to render them innocent, at the same time that they are manly, pleasurable, and healthful.

Some of the wisest men in all ages have been of opinion, that there is no one living to whom nature has not given a capacity to understand some one science, or to be better formed to excel in one employment or profession, rather than in another. Many there are, who, to no purpose, applying to one branch of knowledge or business, have made very great proficiency by being turned to a different.

As many, we presume, are bred to merchandizing, or, as a learned divine expresses himself upon a similar occasion, have run their heads against a counting-house, who might have done their country notable service at a plough-tail, the proposed institution will serve as a proper place of trial, in order early to discover whether a youth has, or has not, a suitable capacity for the merchant. This will be easily discernable in two yearstime, at furthest; and if he does not happen to be well turned for that employment, it will not be too late for a parent to think of some other, more agreeable to his son’s natural genius and capacity: for, however common it may be, it is never the less ridiculous, instead of adapting the studies or profession of a youth to his genius, to act the reverse, by adapting his genius to his studies or profession. To this it may be imputed, that many formed by nature to shine in some principal post, to be the envy of foreign nations, and admiration of posterity, and the honour and ornament of the age in which they lived, have been utterly lost to themselves and their country.

And so easy, familiar, and engaging, ought the manner of exercising, and reducing to practice every branch of the plan, that it will be scarce possible for a young person to have any latent abilities for a merchant, and those not to appear in the most conspicuous manner. So that our institution, considered in this light also, cannot but prove of great public utility, it having as happy a tendency to the saving estates, in private families, by keeping those out of trade who are unfit for it, as

to the raising great ones, by throwing others into it with every advantage.

The reason for proposing the regulation as well of the plan of execution as the general one, is, that, in case there should be occasion to call in assistants under the chief professors, the method of execution may, on no account whatever, be deviated from by such assistants; for that would be leaving them to a random way of instruction, without any check or controul, and suffering them to break in upon the several parts of the institution, as regulated for the acquisition of each branch: which would prove detrimental to the order and connection of the whole. Beside, nothing is more common than for inferior assistants, who are capable only to act some under-part, to have different methods of instruction, peculiar to themselves; and as the incapacity, or ill-conduct of those assistants, may make it frequently necessary to change them, was the method of instruction to be changed at the same time, it would eternally bewilder the young students and greatly retard their progress. But, by adhering inviolably to a well-digested plan of execution, as strict an eye will be kept over assistants, that they steadily perform their duty, according to the method prescribed to them, as is over the young people themselves; whereby it will not be in the power either of the one or the other to trifle away their time, and neglect the performance of what is daily expected of both *.

* Le principal est comme l'ame, qui met tout en mouvement, & qui préside à tout. C'est sur luy que roule le soin d'établir le bon ordre, de maintenir la discipline, de veiller en général sur les études & sur les mœurs. Rollin des Belles Lettres.

By this steady and uniform discipline in executing the whole, what may appear very difficult, and even impracticable to some, will be found quite otherwise to those who have a just idea of the happy and extraordinary effects of order and regularity; for those effectually preserve what the contrary absolutely destroy.

Merchants coming so early in life into the business of the world, have not time for the attainment of what is called a learned education. It is, therefore, our plan is so devised, as, in a great measure, to supply that deficiency. And what the intelligent reader will observe to be peculiar to it is, without young people who are intended for business running the hazard of being captivated with such refined and scholastic speculations as might not only prove detrimental, but absolutely ruinous to their way of life.

Nor is it less observable, that the utility of this institution does not altogether consist in the proper choice of matter, but in the manner of communication; the method of conducting the whole being such as will insensibly engage young minds in the habit of close thinking, steadiness, and attention, as well as inspire them with ambition to excel in their peculiar province. These are qualifications that cannot be set at too high a rate; for, while young people's minds are thus emulously engaged, their morals will be more effectually preserved, than by all other measures, perhaps, that could be taken for that purpose.

The time proposed for the continuance of these young gentlemen in the college, is from 15 to 19 years of age; in which they will be qualified to enter into any counting house whatsoever, of the most extensive and universal trade; and there can be no doubt but their superior qualifications will prove an agreeable recommendation to the more skillful and ingenious merchants, though they may be quite otherwise to those of the opposite turn. Such a fund of pertinent knowledge will our young merchant be furnished with, and so expert will he be in every part of the business of the practical counting-house, that he cannot fail to form a right judgment of every thing he sees transacted during the time of his clerkship: nor will it be in the power of the ignorant or the artful, in any respect whatever, to perplex or misguide him. From having also such principles inculcated in his youth as serve to raise an emulation, excite industry, and fix the attention to business, no advantages will escape his notice, through negligence or want of discernment. On the contrary, he will be able to break through all obstacles to his advancement, and not only to make the most of every fortunate occurrence that falls in his way, but, if such are wanting, even to frame beneficial occasions for himself.

It may be reasonably enough presumed, that many who are already engaged, will regret their not being bred according to the proposed establishment. Such, however, may receive no little advantage, even by the perusal of these papers; at which we shall heartily rejoice. And if any of those gentlemen, after the expiration of their ordinary clerkships, should be inclined to think they might reap any benefit by this institution, they should be admitted, and treated in the most gentleman-like manner.

It is far from being the least disreputation to any gentleman to be instructed in what so nearly concerns his interest, and whereon the whole happiness of his life depends; especially so, when he has never had proper opportunities of being suitably instructed before: but it is a very deplorable situation, for the young merchant to be liable to be daily over-reached

and outwitted, if not absolutely ruined, by correspondents more knowing than himself in the arts of negotiating business. It is most certainly, therefore, far more advisable for such, after the completion of their ordinary clerkship, to wait a year or two, if needful, for thorough qualification, before they rashly hazard their fortune. It may possibly too be as requisite for many to unlearn some things, as to acquire others before they turn self-adventurers. Young people, eager and ambitious to make a figure in trade for themselves, may think it lost time to wait at all for their due accomplishment. This is a great mistake. Let them consider, that, to save and improve their fortunes is gaining time, but to lose them quite otherwise.

A D V E R T I S E M E N T.

If the public should judge it necessary to introduce any other kind of accomplishment into a college of this nature, that may be easily done, provided any thing of this kind should take place: I have only intimated those qualifications that are indispensably necessary.

That the public may be apprized for whom this institution is designed, it is proper to inform them, that it is calculated chiefly for the following classes of gentlemen.

1. For the sons of merchants designed for trade, whom their parents would chuse to have brought up according to the proposed plan; their own counting-houses not admitting of their being bred in so methodical and scientific a manner.
2. For others, intended for any particular branch of merchandizing whatever; as that of a Portugal, Spanish, Russian, Hamburgh merchant, &c. &c. who, after having been four years under this institution, will be qualified to enter, either at home or abroad, into any of those respective counting-houses, with all desirable benefit and advantage.
3. For such gentlemen who, having passed the usual time of their clerkship, think they may reap any advantage from this institution.
4. For the sons of American planters.
5. For the sons of such wholesale dealers whose engagements in trade, both at home and abroad, are often as extensive as those of very eminent merchants.
6. For gentlemen of maturity, who are possessed of handsome fortunes, and would gladly engage in trade as merchants for themselves, or in conjunction with others, could they be expeditiously accomplished in a genteel manner.
7. For such gentlemen who may have expectation of consulships, &c. wherein a knowledge in the practical arts, customs, and usages of merchants, is absolutely necessary.
8. For those gentlemen who have views of being settled in any of the chief branches of the public revenue, or for such who would be accomplished to supervise business they may think proper to carry on, by the means of clerks or agents, wherein a complete knowledge of figures and accountantship is requisite.
9. For gentlemen who may chuse to carry on foreign trade, by being their own supercargoes, or for such who are intended for supercargoships belonging to any of the capital trading companies.
10. For such young gentlemen of fortune, who may be expected hereafter to take a share in the government and direction of any of the great trading or monied corporations.
11. For young gentlemen intended to be called to the bar, to whom a knowledge in the practical mercantile arts and accountantship may prove beneficial, in order to enable them the better to unravel such complicated cases in mercantile accounts, as may come before them in their pleadings, relating either to the foreign or domestic transactions of merchants *.

And.

* Litigations among traders making so large a share in the business of the bar, a student of the law cannot have too minute and comprehensive a knowledge of the practical arts of merchants, as they relate both to their foreign and domestic negotiations.

To set this matter in its proper light would require a distinct tract. As these learned gentlemen, however, are so thoroughly sensible of this, we shall only observe, what a celebrated lawyer, who had entered deeply into the study of practical trade, says upon the subject of the exchanges; which will be found to hold good also, in regard to other the principal parts of mercantile transactions.

After having recounted the names of many of his profession, eminent for their abilities, who have written on the exchanges; and having shewn the great importance of the subject: this writer speaks in the following manner:

' This subject of the exchanges contains many very knotty points, and is held among all the lawyers to be dark, difficult and intricate.

' 1. Because the method of exchanging, now in use, differs widely from the ancient practice.

' 2. Because controversies relating to exchanges are not so common as others, and therefore less understood.

' 3. Because of the concise abstruse terms, in which exchange-contracts are expressed, and which lawyers are quite strangers to.

' 4. Because of the daily new inventions, by which the matter has been rendered so intricate, that, besides the negotiators themselves, there are very few, even among

the men of literature, who understand it. And merchants have struck out so many arts in the negotiation of exchanges, that they exceed the keenness of most wits, that attempt to determine the controversies relating to them: and, indeed, the difficulties attending them are to be resolved only into the depth of mercantile skill and subtilty: so that it is no wonder, that Navar, in his tract of usury, a man of great learning, and especially conversant in subjects of this kind, confesses to have learnt the whole praxis of exchanges, of which he there treats, from the capital merchants of his city. Those who take depositions in cases of this kind, continues the same author, are often perplexed and confounded: wherefore persons, profoundly skilled in the practical arts of the exchanges, should be appointed to hear evidence on these occasions. Lawyers are, for the general part, wanting in the first rudiments and principles of these negotiations; and are at a loss to ascertain facts, from whence judgment should proceed. Intent on loosing the knot, whose texture they are unacquainted with, the more they labour, the firmer the tie. Since, therefore, they are so ignorant of the usages and customs which relate to merchandizing, wherein merchants themselves only are perfectly skilled, it is not to be admired, that traders in general, as I have heard many of them declare, had rather trust to their own judgment, than rest on the opinions of the ablest lawyers. Sigismundi Scaccia Tractatus de Commercii & Cambiis.

12. Lastly, For any young gentlemen of honour and fortune, to whom a practical knowledge of figures and mercantile accountanship may be of use, as well in their private affairs * as those which concern them in a public capacity †: as also to give them a true idea of the art of merchandizing, in order the more familiarly to initiate them into the studies of the national commerce in general. Likewise to initiate young persons of quality into a well-grounded knowledge in the PUBLIC REVENUE, the TARIFFS in relation to merchandizes in foreign nations, and TREATIES OF COMMERCE, subsisting between the several states of Europe; for all these might be regularly taught in this college.

* Merchants accounts, says Mr. Locke, though a science not likely to help a gentleman to get an estate, yet possibly there is not any thing of more use and efficacy to make him preserve the estate he has. It is seldom observed, that he who keeps an account of his income and expences, and thereby has constantly under view the course of his domestic affairs, lets them run to ruin: and I doubt not but many a man gets behind-hand before he is aware, or runs farther on, when he is once in, for want of this care, or the skill to do it. I would therefore advise all gentlemen to learn perfectly merchants accounts, and not to think it a skill that belongs not to them, because it has received it's name, and has been chiefly practised by men of traffic.

† Besides, such is the excellency of this art, that whoever is fundamentally grounded in it's rationale, will as familiarly apply it to the accounts of the nation, as to his own personal affairs. None who are thoroughly acquainted with the extensive application of this method of account-keeping, will think this is saying too much of it. See the article NATIONAL ACCOUNTS. Of what benefit this may prove to the nation, and how useful and honourable to themselves in a public capacity, need not be said.

Of the dignity of the MERCHANT, and the consequences of this institution to the PUBLIC.

The mercantile station, it is certain, affords as large a prospect for opulent acquisitions as any other; and estates got by trade have, perhaps, been far more numerous, than those by any other way whatsoever. [See the article COMMERCE.] As the relation also merchants stand in to the community, is not inferior to most in point of importance, so neither have they been behind-hand with any, in their zealous attachment to the interest of those countries and princes, that have duly protected and encouraged them in their commerce. History furnishes remarkable instances of this. At present we shall take notice of a few only, which are sufficient to endear the character of a merchant to every nation, that depends upon foreign trade for it's support.

Charles the Vth, emperor of Germany, being reduced to great distress by the unhappy expedition of Tunis, experienced a powerful succour in money from the Fuggers, a single family of merchants only, but at that time the most opulent and distinguished traders of Auxbourgh. For the security and repayment of those large sums, wherewith they had supplied the government, his imperial majesty gave them written obligations, under his royal hand and seal.

To give a demonstration of their zeal to the interest of their country, and their inviolable attachment to the person of his majesty, those merchants requested the emperor, as he was one day taking an airing by their house, to do them the honour to regale himself, to which his majesty readily condescended. After the collation was over, those merchants desired permission of the emperor to burn a faggot of cinnamon in the hall, where the entertainment was made, not only with intent to administer all they could to his majesty's delight, but to give further proof of their hearty affection to

his person and government. Which they did, by bundling up those bonds of security they had taken for their money with the faggot, and set fire to them before the emperor's face. Another instance not less remarkable, is that of the memorable James Cœur, a merchant of Bourges. This gentleman alone, by the wisdom of his counsels and the certainty of his cash, humbled the house of Burgundy, secured the crown of France to the lawful heir Charles the VIIth, and by him to the branches of Valois and Bourbon, who succeeded.

The conduct of the merchants of St. Malo is another example worthy attention. Those gentlemen being highly exasperated by the demand made at the congress of Gertruydenburgh to Lewis XIV. of employing his troops to compel his grandson Philip V. then king of Spain, to abandon the crown, united all their profits together, which they had made by trade in the Spanish colonies in America, and generously laid thirty-two millions in gold at the foot of the throne; and that at a time too, when the finances of France were totally exhausted, by a series of unsuccessful events: which succour, being timely applied, vigorously renewed the war, and answered the end of that nation.

Sir Thomas Gresham, our own countrymen, the founder of a college in London, for the promotion of the liberal arts, and of the Royal Exchange for the convenience of the traders of this metropolis, is another instance well deserving our notice, as it manifests how far it is in the power of merchants, even of one private merchant, to support governments under the greatest emergency.

This worthy citizen of London lived in the time of king Edward the VIth, who was considerably indebted to the merchants of Antwerp, for money borrowed at interest to supply the exigencies of the state. Payment of interest at that time being a great incumbrance to the nation, various expedients had been consulted by the king and his council, to discharge those debts; which, being due to foreigners, brought great contempt upon the crown, and the public credit of England. The measures which had been suggested for repayment, were, either to transport so much treasure out of the realm, or to remit the same by way of exchange.

The kingdom being already greatly exhausted of its gold and silver, the former was impracticable, without being ruinous to trade; and, the exchange between England and Antwerp being at no more than sixteen schillings per pound of our currency, negotiating the debt by foreign bills would have sunk the exchange still more to our disadvantage. By which means the exportation of our gold and silver in the way of trade, would have been more and more augmented. Yet for the nation to continue in debt, was still increasing the evil; more especially so, as the creditors were foreigners, and the interest sent out of the kingdom. Beside, the creditors insisted on their money, or a compliance with such usurious measures, for a prolongation of time, as would have brought such high indignity upon the nation, as to have disabled them from borrowing more money, but upon the most scandalous terms.

And yet, more money the government wanted, instead of being in a capacity to discharge the old debts. Under these circumstances the nation was greatly perplexed, and no measures could be thought of to extricate the kingdom from these embarrassments, till Sir Thomas undertook the affair. By whose great knowledge in trade and skill in the exchanges, he exonerated the nation from it's weighty incumbrances, without sending any money out of the kingdom.

And, although the exchange was then at sixteen schillings, he so wisely managed this negotiation, that he paid off the king's debts as they fell due, at an exchange of twenty and twenty-two shillings per pound. Whereby the king saved no less than an hundred thousand marks clear, by this great merchant's knowledge in the exchanges.

By thus raising the exchange also so much in favour of England, at that critical conjuncture, the price of all foreign commodities fell proportionably *. Which saved the kingdom in general, and that, in a very little time, no less than between three and four hundred thousand pounds sterling more: a round sum even at this time of day, but would now be near four times that sum, in proportion to the different values of money.

* Whoever desires to know the state of our foreign trade, or our situation as to transactions in money with other countries, unless where subsidies are paid to princes abroad, armies or fleets maintained, or the dividends or state of our stocks belonging to foreigners, may have influence: unless in these cases, the course of exchange indicates the state of our commerce, as truly as the pulse does that of the human body. Sir Isaac Newton's Tables of the Assays of foreign Coins. See the articles COIN, BALANCE OF TRADE, EXCHANGE.

When exchange is against a nation, the goods exported from that nation are sold for so much less, and goods imported from the other so much dearer as the exchange is above the par; so that the exchange, being once against a nation, contributes to keep itself so. The exchange with Holland being

ing generally against England, in time of peace as well as war, affects this kingdom more than, perhaps, has been so thoroughly weighed and considered, as could be desired; for as Amsterdam is made the center of commercial correspondence between the several parts of Europe, the rate of exchange between us and Holland, must proportionably affect that between us and other countries with which we have dealings; more especially with those we negotiate bills with always through the medium of Holland. See the article HOLLAND.

Nor did the advantages to the nation from the eminent skill of this great English merchant, terminate here only. For, as, when the exchange was so greatly to the disadvantage of England, gold and silver were daily exported out of the kingdom in great plenty; so by wisely raising it, in the course of his money negotiations for the service of the state, he caused the same to be brought back again, to the general emolument of the whole trading interest.

Nor did the wisdom of Sir Thomas's counsels prove only of the highest honour and advantage to king Edward's reign, but to those of his successors, queen Mary and queen Elizabeth; both of these princesses having made choice of him for the management of their money, and their mercantile affairs. With queen Elizabeth he was in so high esteem, that she not only knighted him, a matter of very high dignity in those days, but honoured him in every respect; and came in person to the Exchange, which he had erected for the convenience of the merchants and honour of the city of London, and caused the same to be proclaimed by heralds and a trumpet, the ROYAL EXCHANGE: and Sir Thomas was afterwards honoured with the appellation of the ROYAL MERCHANT.

Thomas Sutton, Esq; another renowned English merchant, and founder of the Charter-House in London, an act of benevolence worthy of a great prince, a few years after the death of Sir Thomas Gresham, by being the grand instrument of getting the Spanish bills protested at Genoa, in 1587, retarded, for a whole year, the sailing of the Spanish armada, designed to enslave these kingdoms, which proved the happy means of defeating the invasion.

These are some of the memorable feats performed by merchants, by private merchants only; and these, without particularizing more, are sufficient to evince the truth of what has been suggested to their eternal honour. And, although, great statesmen, admirals, and generals, with the aid of the public purse, and their thousands and their ten thousands to co-operate with them, may perform great achievements; yet we find that one family of merchants has been the support of an emperor in great distress; that another single merchant alone gave the crown to the house of Bourbon; that one was a principal cause of defeating the Spanish armada, and another the restorer of the public credit of England, and the honour of the crown, when in great contempt amongst all the princes of Europe: and may be truly said, in concert with that able minister Walsingham, to have laid the foundation of all the commerce and navigation we enjoy at present.

But it is not needful to go far back for instances of the eminent services that merchants have manifested to the British empire in particular; it is recent in every one's memory, that, in the late unnatural rebellion, the support of the public credit, and, in consequence thereof, the security of the establishment of the present most august, and illustrious royal family upon the throne of these kingdoms, was owing to that glorious and ever-memorable association of the merchants and traders of the loyal city of London.

The merit of persons of distinguished character in trade cannot, in the general, be measured, but by those who are well acquainted with their trading negotiations. As they pass through life without much éclat, the world is little acquainted with their important services and utility to the state; whilst the histories of men in great public capacities are transmitted to posterity with all the pomp and magnificence of representation. Yet certainly that is the more profitable admonition, which is drawn from the eminent virtues of men, who move in a sphere nearer levelled to the common reach, than that which is derived from the splendid portrait of the victories and transactions of great statesmen and commanders; which serve but for the imitation of few, and make rather for the ostentation, than the true instruction of human life. It is from the practice and example of persons of private condition, that we are more naturally taught to excel in our private capacities: and, had we the genuine histories of many eminent merchants, giving a lively idea of their rise and progress in business, and of the important service they have been to their respective communities, they would naturally incite the trading part of this nation to emulate their accomplishments: and this would prove a more effectual means to produce a race of skilful British traders, than romantic narratives a race of heroes.

Nor has the security of states and empires been only owing to the occasional zealous exertion of the wisdom and the power of merchants, but they are in a great measure the daily and perpetual support of all trading countries. For,

as nations are at present circumstanced, those which are so situate, as to be obliged to subsist chiefly within themselves, and without any intercourse of commerce with others, can never be able to maintain so great a share of power, as those which carry on an extended foreign traffic. Domestic trade, only shifting property from hand to hand, cannot increase the riches and power of a nation; whilst foreign trade, under wise laws and regulations, bringing in a constant balance of treasure in favour of a nation, will proportionably augment its weight of interest, and at length give it the balance of power.

Great-Britain being encompassed with powerful nations, who are earnestly bent on cultivating the arts of commerce and navigation, with the utmost stretch of their address and policy; must she not soon become a sacrifice to those neighbouring potentates, if destitute of a race of ingenious and well accomplished merchants? For, as these are the only source of our maritime strength, she could not long continue, but by their means, that happy independent empire she is at present.

The philosopher may arrive to a high pitch of improvement in agriculture, arts, and sciences; the husbandman, the artisan, and manufacturer, may reduce this speculative knowledge to practical uses, with the greatest skill and dexterity on their parts; governments may enact the wisest laws, and give all desirable encouragement for the advancement of commerce, yet what will these avail, without the penetration and sagacity of the merchant, to propagate the produce of our lands, and the labour of our artists and manufacturers into foreign countries, with advantage to the state as well as to himself?

‘It is foreign trade, says a great lawyer*, that is the main sheet anchor of us islanders; without which the genius of all our useful studies, and the which renders men famous and renowned, would make them useless and insignificant to the public. When man has fathomed the bottom of all knowledge, what is it if not reduced to practice, other than empty notion †? If the inhabitants of this island were learned in all the languages between the rising and setting of the sun, did know and understand the situation of all places, ports, and countries, and the nature of all merchandize and commodities, were acquainted with the order and motion of all the stars, knew how to take the latitude and longitude, and were perfectly read in the art of navigation, to what purpose would all be, if there were no foreign trade? We should have no ships to navigate to those countries, nor occasion to make use of those languages, nor to make use of those commodities; what would this island be but a place of confinement to the inhabitants, who, without it, could be but a kind of hermits, as being separated from the rest of the world: it is foreign trade that renders us rich, honourable, and great; that gives us a name and esteem in the world; that makes us masters of the treasures of other nations and countries, and begets and maintains our ships and seamen, the walls and bulwarks of our country; and, were it not for foreign trade, what would become of the revenue for customs, and what would the rents of our lands be? The customs would totally fail, and our gentlemen's rents of thousands per annum would dwindle into hundreds.’

* Molloy De Jure Maritimo & Navali.

† Every step that is made in the progress of knowledge, whether it proceed from reading, observation, or experience, ought to be applied to the affairs and transactions of life; for this is, in truth, the only proper use of all kinds of study; which, without it becomes not only an useless, but a troublesome sort of pedantry, more calculated to interrupt and confound, than to serve and promote a true genius. Essay on the Education of a Nobleman, printed 1736.

Since then it is so unexceptionably apparent, that foreign traffic is our grand preservative both by sea and land, and since, as lord chancellor Bacon justly observes, MERCHANTS AND TRADERS ARE IN A STATE, WHAT THE BLOOD IS TO THE BODY, the abilities and ingenuity of this part of the community is most certainly of the last importance to the whole British empire.

From these considerations there naturally arises the idea of dignity, as inseparably annexed to the character of the merchant; he being a principal party in the security and preservation, as well as in the constant support of the kingdom: and from hence we may presume it is, that family alliances have been so frequently contracted between the gentry and the trading part of the nation. [See the article COMMERCE.]

‘Nor, says the learned bishop Sprat, ought our gentry to be averse from the promoting of trade, out of any little jealousy, that thereby they shall debase themselves, and corrupt their blood: for they are to know, that traffic and commerce have given mankind a higher degree than any title of nobility, even that of civility and humanity itself. And at this time, especially above all others, they have no reason to despise trade as below them, when it has so great an influence on the very government of the world*.’

* Vide History of the Royal Society.

There are but few who are capable of distinguishing themselves in any eminent degree, in the grand leading debates of senates; much fewer of conducting fleets, armies, or the councils of princes. The talents of a Burleigh or a Colbert are very rare indeed, so are those of a Blake or a Marlborough. But every tolerable capacity may make a pretty good figure in trade, by being bred with the advantages of the proposed institution. And as amongst these there will be, doubtless, different degrees of capacities, as well as of assiduity and application, the young person who shall happily have an extraordinary turn for mercantile acquirements, may become a Gresham, a Barnard, a Gore, Vanneck, &c. whilst the same genius in the army, the navy, or any branch of the civil government, might have lived and died, perhaps, in obscurity.

As in these several capacities there is but one path to greatness, and few amongst a numerous gentry have opportunity or abilities to become eminent therein, many of the younger branches of our best families pass their days in an inglorious ease, quite lost to themselves, as well as the public: whereas, if they turned their eyes to commerce, it would furnish them with a thousand means, whereby they might promote themselves, and reflect a lustre on their ancient stock.

Merchants, it is true, have no exemption from those casualties, to which the whole human species is liable; yet, in the way of trade, these are often balanced by prosperous contingencies. When it happens otherwise, the really unfortunate scarce ever want succour in distress. Even when misfortunes have proceeded from unhappy mistakes in point of conduct, yet, where neither integrity and skill have been wanting, such rarely fail to rise again, in some reputable channel of business or other, dependent on merchants; of which there are numberless instances. For it is no undeserving encomium on the trading class of the community, to say of them, that no persons, under the heavens, shew greater humanity and generosity, towards an unfortunate yet upright fellow-trader: which consideration is no small inducement for the younger branches of our most honourable families to engage in commerce.

Moreover, when it so falls out, that any of our noble and honourable families enjoy a numerous progeny, and the patrimonial estate is greatly diminished by fortunes to the younger, wherein lies the indignity for the elder to be privately interested with a younger brother of abilities bred to merchandizing? Might not such measures contribute to free the family inheritance from too weighty incumbrances? If the fortune of the younger does not happen to be competent, wherewith to carry on that compass of lucrative commerce that presents itself, an additional capital will enable him to do it: and the elder, having a proportion of the profits for the hazards he runs, will afford him better interest for money than he can otherwise make at present. It is the constant practice in Holland and Italy, for those of the highest honour to be interested in this manner with merchants of eminence; and in France this practice has been thought so beneficial to the state, that it has been encouraged and enforced by several royal edicts*. And, perhaps, this has not been a stroke of policy the least refined for the advancement of the trade and navigation of that kingdom; such measures frequently supplying private traders with as large capitals in trade as they can employ therein, and those upon terms quite easy and agreeable. Engagements of this nature are called by the French Societez en commandites†. See the article ANONYMOUS.

* This edict is so remarkable as to deserve notice.

EDIT DU ROY,

Portant que les nobles pourront faire le commerce de mer, sans déroger à la noblesse. Donné à S. Germain en Laye, au mois d'Aoust 1669.

LOUIS par la grace de Dieu, roy de France & de Navarre: A tous presens & à venir, salut; Comme le commerce & particulièrement celui qui se fait par mer, est la source féconde, qui apporte l'abondance dans les états, & la répand sur les sujets à proportion de leur industrie, & de leur travail, & qu'il n'y a point de moyen pour acquérir du bien, qui soit plus innocent, & plus légitime: aussi a-t-il toujours été en grande considération parmi les nations les mieux polies, & universellement bien reçû, comme des plus honnestes occupations de la vie civile, &c. &c. A ces causes, désirant ne rien obmettre de ce qui peut d'avantage exciter nos sujets à s'engager dans le commerce, & le rendre plus florissant, & de notre grace spéciale, pleine puissance & autorité royale, nous avons dit, & déclaré, & par ces présentes signées de notre main, disons, & déclarons, voulons & nous plaît, que tous gentils-hommes puissants par eux ou par personnes interposées, entrer en société, & prendre part dans les vaisseaux marchands, denrées & marchandises d'iceux sans que pour raison de ce, ils soient censés & réputés déroger à noblesse, pourvu toutefois qu'ils ne vendent point en détail, &c. &c.

Signé LOUIS, & sur le reply par le roy, COLBERT.

This was strongly enforced again by another edict in December 1701, which is called Edit du roy, qui permet aux nobles, excepté ceux qui sont revêtus de charges de magi-

frature, de faire commerce en gros, & qui déclare que les sont les marchands & les negocians en gros.

† Celui qui voudra faire société en commandite, doit jeter les yeux sur un marchand qui soit homme de bien, & capable des manufactures, ou du commerce qu'il veut entreprendre; car c'est sur sa fidélité, & son industrie qu'il doit fonder l'espérance qu'il a de profiter en lui coustant son argent, &c. l'arresté Negociant, Savary.

Persons of low grovelling minds, and little industry themselves, are often strangely chagrined and irritated against those who attempt any thing new in the public service, though high commendable in itself, and the very attempt highly meritorious. With such sordid and pitiful spirits, the shadow of novelty, in any undertaking, is condemnation sufficient. As such deserve rather pity or contempt, we shall only comfort them with what that wise and public-spirited prelate, bishop Sprat*, has again observed; who, speaking of the first establishment of the Royal Society of London, says, 'That, if all things which are new be destructive, all the several means and degrees by which mankind has risen to the perfection of arts were to be condemned. If so, to be the author of new things, be a crime, how will the first civilizers of men and makers of laws, and founders of governments escape? Whatever now delights us in the works of nature, that excels the rudeness of the first creation, is new. Whatever we see in cities or houses above the first wildness of fields, and meanness of cottages, and nakedness of men, had it's time, when this imputation of novelty might as well have been laid to its charge. It is not therefore an offence to profess the introduction of new things, unless that which is introduced prove pernicious in itself, or cannot be brought in without the extirpation of others which are better.'

* Vide History of the Royal Society.

As nothing of this kind can be alledged against the present institution, it's novelty, with the judicious part of mankind, will render it the more praise-worthy; it requiring greater industry, and different talents to strike out new paths to knowledge, rather than supinely to plod on in the old, when much better can be found.

And, as there appears to be a glorious spirit in the legislature to promote the trade of the kingdom to the utmost; as his majesty himself has, by his royal speech from the throne, expressed his earnest recommendation of, and his hearty concurrence* with, every wise measure to advance the national commerce; we may reasonably hope, this our humble attempt will meet with the approbation of all true friends to our trading interest.

* 'Let me earnestly recommend to you the advancement of our commerce, and cultivating the arts of peace, in which you may depend on my hearty concurrence and encouragement.' His Majesty's Speech, Nov. 29, 1748.

It is no great honour to the British nation, that there should be a necessity for the younger sons of our nobility and gentry to be sent to Holland and elsewhere out of the kingdom, for mercantile qualifications. But, when we have an institution within ourselves far superior to any in other countries, it will be as little credit as advantage to British youth, to go abroad for what they can have much better at home.

And, if a young gentleman is intended to settle in a counting-house abroad, or to travel before he enters into trade for himself, his having spent a few years under this institution, will far better capacitate him to reap proper advantage by either, than the crude, immethodical, and narrow way can, in which the generality are bred at present.

It is easy enough to hit blots, and to point out evils highly detrimental to the community. The many wise may discern the grievance and lament it, but the remedy generally lies deep, and in the hands of few; and to those few is the world indebted, for the execution of all designs of public utility and happiness. Whether such is not the nature of the present, is submitted to those who are judges of it's merit and tendency.

Before I draw to the conclusion, I would desire the reader will please to suppose the following plain case, viz. that two young persons, of equal age and abilities, are placed in the respecting counting houses of their own fathers, who are merchants inferior to none for eminence, skill, and ingenuity in their profession, and both equally solicitous that their sons should become so likewise: let it be further supposed, that the one of those young persons is bred, previously to his being taken into business under his father, a few years under the proposed institution, at the age proposed, and the other not, but is turned into his father's counting-house as raw and as ignorant as the generality really are; I would appeal to every man of sense and impartiality, who is a judge of the usefulness of our plan, and capable of setting a due value upon a proper mercantile qualification, which of those young people is likely to become the best accomplished merchant, and to be the most prosperous in his employment?

Could the experiment be fairly tried, is there not all imaginable reason to believe, that the one would be better qualified for

for business, by being a single year afterwards only in his father's counting-house, than the other would in three, or perhaps in five years? The one would be capable of making a good judgment of all he saw transacted without any instruction, and thereby might naturally delight in business; while the other, for want of the like foundation, might never understand his business as he ought, and therefore take an invincible dislike to it; whereby, instead of becoming the complete merchant desired, he might, on the contrary, become only an eternal disquietude to the best of parents.

If this is not unlikely to prove the case, when a young person is bred, even under the eye of an own father, anxious for his son's welfare, what may we presume to be the consequence, when he has not the like happy opportunity of being trained up under a parent? When this is the case, is it not the most adviseable for such a young gentleman to lay the best foundation he can, before he enters into any merchant's counting-house whatever? For, if he falls into the hands of a man of honour and skill, of one who does not intend only to take his money, but do him justice, will not a young person so previously accomplished, as we propose, be infinitely more capable of reaping the benefit of his situation, than one destitute of those advantages?

But if, on the other hand, a young person is not so happy as to fall into such a merchant's counting-house, is it not highly prudential, that he should be secure of a good foundation before-hand, in order to make the best advantage under the worst situation?

The reader will please to observe, that this institution is intended to train up the young merchant from 15 to 19 years of age, in order the better to prepare him than he is, by being bred in the ordinary way, for admission into any merchant's practical counting-house; wherein, if we suppose him placed for three or four years more, he may be then sufficiently accomplished to hazard his estate in trade, and not before. But,

That experienced merchant Sir Francis Brewster, who lived in the reign of king William the Third, has proposed a different way of breeding up young merchants of condition and fortune to practical commerce; which, as it seems to coincide in some respect, with our proposed institution of a mercantile college, the reader may not be displeased with that merchant's sentiments: and, indeed, if our young merchant was first regularly trained up in the literary mercantile college we would establish, his entrance into Sir Francis's college, if well regulated for the purpose, might, perhaps, as well, if not better qualify him for practical trade, than the ordinary way of going apprentice generally does.

I think it a mortal distemper, says Sir Francis, in trade (nor to be cured, because in the first concoction) that we have so few men of university learning conversant in true mercantile employments: if were there as much care to have men of the best heads and education in it, as there is in the law, the nation would fetch more from abroad, and spend less in law-suits at home. We have it reckoned up by the infallible author, as the glory of a city, That her merchants were princes and nobles; their business and transactions in the world with such, is more than belongs to any other set of men: would it not then be the honour of a nation, as well as profit, to have men of the best sense and learning in the foreign negociation of a kingdom? If such had been in the trade of these kingdoms, it seems reasonable to believe, we had not lost the most considerable navigating trade and employment of our seamen.

It would be an astonishing observation to men of any country but our own, to see more heads employed in Westminster-Hall to divide the gain of the nation, than there are heads on the Exchange to gather it together. I have sometimes thought, that, if these kingdoms lay not under the confusion and unintelligibility of understanding in trade, as the builders of Babel did in languages, we might, without the sin of those arrogant architects, erect such towers in trade, as might overtop the universe in that mystery.

We see how all arts and sciences have been improved in this kingdom within the compass of one century, but amongst them all the merchant's part the least: and the reason is plain, men of small learning and moderate understanding are generally put in it: for, though there are some excellent parts and clean heads among them, yet the major part are not so polished: I speak not this to abate the respect that I shall always think is due to the profession, and all men in it, but we know it is the vanity of the nation: scarce a tradesman but if he have a son that a country schoolmaster tells him would make a scholar, because he learns his grammar well, but immediately passes the approbation of his kindred, who judge it pity so hopeful a youth should be lost in trade, the university is the only soil fit for him to be planted in.

By such disposition of the youth of our nation, many a good tradesman is lost, and poor scholars in every respect made; and, if this humour prevails in mechanics, and men of ordinary quality, much more, and with better pretensions, it affects our gentry; to be sure the eldest son is above trade, and if the younger be of a quaint and studious temper, they are thought fit for the law, not many for the pulpit, which I confess I likewise think a mistake in our gentry: had we more of

them in the clergy, we should have fewer to despise, that might be better builders of houses than of the church.

But, to return to what I observe of the improvement in all the employments in the kingdom, I see none that have arrived to that vast increase as those in the law: this, perhaps, is accounted an evil, but I will not quarrel with that long robe; I hope it will be no offence to wish them among us, [the merchants] but not with their bar-gowns; they would, in my opinion, look better in a COUNTING-HOUSE than in the TEMPLE; and, had the humour of our ancestors run that way as much as it did for the law, there might have been as great an enlargement in maritime traffic and navigation, as there is now of the laws: I presume none will say, that they began with equal numbers; trade had the primogeniture, and set forth with the employment of the people, before there could be work for lawyers; and I believe those of best value amongst them do not think their growth and gain contribute to either in the advantage of the nation, though without the profession there can be no securing property; but, perhaps, the numbers make more work than there would be if they were less: Hamburg, though a place of great trade, allows but two: and, though our foreign plantations are filled with men of no better principles than they leave behind them, yet they have few among them who raise their fortunes by the law; for which no reason can be given, but that there is not a foundation and nursery for that profession to breed up men of learning and ingenuity in.

I have been the longer on this subject, because there seems to me an expedient in this matter; and that is, to make such provision for noblemen's and gentlemen's children, as may be equally reputable with the inns of court, for young gentlemen to come to from the universities, and, with less charge than their expence in seven years studying the law, become expert in trade.

To be thus managed: in each maritime city and considerable port of the kingdom, to have a COLLEGE built, in which there may be some persons of experience in trade, to teach and direct in the mystery of it, to all parts of the world: and, that they may have the practice, as well as theory, that every person entering himself into the society may be obliged to bring in a thousand pounds stock, which will make a capital, perhaps, of 20 or 30,000 l. sterling, to traffic with in 30 cities, &c. in the kingdom: they to be obliged to spend five years in this society, and at the end of that term, to receive the principal they brought, allowing the casualty of profit and loss, as it happens: going thus out, they will be entered in trade, and probably have a fund to begin with; and, by this means, trade will fall into the hands of gentlemen, persons of learning and consideration in the nation, and likewise preserve from misfortunes numbers that now miscarry in their studies of the law, through ill conversation, and having no employments.

To this project (a word now traduced to contempt, though in itself of good signification both for peace and war) I foresee two objections that will be made against it, and they are these:

First, This will make too many merchants.

Secondly, That this will leave no room for younger brothers, that have nothing to prefer them in the world but a small sum to put them apprentice to a merchant, by which they often raise their fortunes in the world.

To the first I answer, That the evil of having too many merchants is in the numbers that are bred up from apprentices, many of which, coming into business without FUNDS, strain their credit, which to keep above water, they are forced to venture at all ways that have but a probability of success, to keep themselves in business, and then, to comply with their credit, often sell to loss, which in the end brings them to misfortune, and that begets an opinion that there are too many traders; whereas the true reason is the want of STOCK, not NUMBER of merchants.

The second objection, That this will hinder merchants from taking apprentices, is in part answered in the first, that their number prejudices trade: but there is a farther consideration in this matter, and that is, two sorts of youths stand candidates for a mercantile education, gentlemen with a capital, others of less quality, with none. I think it will admit of no question which shall be preferred, and that the other may be more profitably employed for the nation and themselves, in trades that require more labour and less stock.

But, after all I have said, my wishes are greater than my expectation, to see trade thus courted in a kingdom that treats it as some do their wives, considering them no farther than to the production of a legitimate posterity, reserving their caresses and delights for a mistress: so the humour of this age seems to incline, whilst foreign commerce is neglected, and mens thoughts and designs run after offices and employments in the state; to pay which, spider-like, the nation spins out her bowels to catch flies; and the simile goes farther, such food turns into poison, where it feeds men faulty in their morals; and such too often supplant better men, or find ways to be preferred before them: to say this will be no offence to deserving men; and, for others, I shall only desire them to suspend their resentments until the second part comes forth, and then

then they will have more reason, because it will come in my way to be more particular, when I come to speak of the trade of Ireland; in which there have of late been such notorious demonstrations how ill men in offices and places of trust may ruin and destroy a kingdom, as admits of no defence. I have for this the authority of both houses of parliament, in their addresses to the king: and the infallible author tells us, That he who faith to the wicked, Thou art righteous, the people will curse, nations shall abhor him.' Sir Francis Brewster's *Essays on Trade and Navigation*, 1695.

And now it may be proper just to review what we may reasonably expect to be the obvious and apparent consequences of this institution to the public, which will be chiefly comprehended under the following particulars, viz.

I. It will raise a noble spirit of emulation among our young British merchants to excel each other in the arts of merchandizing; from whence the nation in general, as well as individuals, may reap unspeakably more benefit and advantage by trade and navigation.

II. It will enable our young merchants the better to cope with foreigners, in all the methods of negotiating mercantile business of every kind, which may prevent their being made the dupes of some of those subtle traders who are very artful in drawing young people of good fortunes into schemes of trade, which always prove beneficial to the one, but very often greatly injurious to the other.

III. It will qualify such young people who may be placed at several of the British factories abroad, to promote each other's interest in the way of trade, in a manner not so generally known and understood, as well as the interest of those who shall continue at home.

IV. It will capacitate them so to correspond with foreign nations, as to obtain the most useful kind of intelligence from time to time; whereby they will the better know when and where there is money to be got, by trading between one foreign nation and another, as well as between their own and others.

V. It will qualify them either to be particular or general merchants; or particular ones generally, and general ones occasionally; wherein consists the judgment, in some measure, of the most skilful and vigilant merchant.

VI. It may have a tendency to convince the younger branches of our most honourable families, that the art of merchandizing does not require such mean talents as some of them have been wont to think; but that, on the contrary, there is scope enough to employ the most capacious understanding, and the finest genius: and that foreign trade affords as large a field for profit and honour as any other employment whatever.

VII. It cannot fail to have the happiest tendency to prevent misfortunes and bankruptcies amongst those merchants who shall be thus regularly bred.

VIII. It may give the young merchant so good a knowledge of the fundamental principles and maxims of policy, whereupon the true interest of the national commerce is grounded, as to render them the better capable hereafter to distinguish themselves in the promotion of the same, upon all public occasions and emergencies.

IX. It may prove of benefit and advantage to the lawyer, the gentleman, and nobleman, in the lights wherein represented, to pass a year or two in this college, even after he has left any other university.

REMARKS upon this article of MERCANTILE COLLEGE.

1. The reader will please to observe, by the references we have made throughout this article, that our Dictionary of Commerce is eminently calculated for the accomplishment of the British merchant in whatever we have pointed out as the most essentially necessary for him to be instructed in, and may prove as helpful to the professors in such a college, as to the students themselves.

2. That an institution of this kind will raise the character of the merchant to such a degree of knowledge in this employment, as will render him capable of embracing or striking out every kind of honourable advantage which the nature of his employment will admit of, and thereby put him above the scandalous arts of robbing the public revenue, or breaking to grow rich upon the ruin of his creditors: in brief, a collegial course of erudition will excite the younger branches of the best families in the kingdom, with fortunes suitable, to commence merchants, and, consequently, will tend absolutely to exclude from this respectable profession all low-bred people, destitute of fortune as well as education.

3. That this institution is adapted to form persons of worth and quality in general, for the accomplished men of business * of any kind, the better to enable them to preserve and improve their estates, be they either in land, or in the public funds.

* The lord Verulam touches upon the DOCTRINE OF BUSINESS; which, notwithstanding he has considered it in a light something different to what the judicious reader will observe we mean by it, from the drift of our Dictionary; yet, having so near an affinity with what we aim at, that great man's sentiments may well deserve attention in this respect.

1. We divide the doctrine of business, says lord Bacon, into the doctrine of various occasions, and the doctrine of

rising in life. The first includes all the possible variety of affairs, and is as the amanuensis to common life; but the other collects and suggests such things only as regard the improvement of a man's private fortune; and may, therefore, serve each person as a private register of his affairs. 2. No one hath hitherto treated the doctrine of business suitably to its merit, to the great prejudice of the character both of learning and learned men: for from hence proceeds the mischief which has fixed it as a reproach upon men of letters, that learning and civil prudence are seldom found together. And, if we rightly observe those three kinds of prudence which we lately said belong to civil life, that of conversation is generally despised by men of learning as a servile thing, and an enemy to contemplation; and, for the government of states, though learned men acquit themselves well when advanced to the helm, yet this promotion happens to few of them: but, for the present subject, the prudence of business, upon which our lives principally turn, there are no books extant about it, except a few civil admonitions, collected into a little volume or two, by no means adequate to the copiousness of the subject. But, if books were written upon this subject, as upon others, we doubt not that learned men, furnished with tolerable experience, would far excel the unlearned, furnished with much greater experience, and outshoot them in their own bow (a).

(a) This may be extended to civil knowledge in general, so as to comprehend not only politics, conversation, and business, but also commerce, and the particular arts of agriculture, navigation, architecture, war, trades, &c. for a man of general knowledge, such as the author, or Mr. Boyle, for instance, must needs be more capable of improving any particular arts or sciences than a person wholly bred up to and employed about one business only. Shaw's note.

4. That, although a method of education, accommodated to the man of business in a manner so superior to what is generally given him, may be attended with a greater expence, yet, it is to be hoped, that will never be an objection against its public establishment, it being intended only for such people of condition and fortune who can and will cheerfully afford it.

It is the worse sort of husbandry, says the great Mr. Locke, for a father not even to strain himself a little for a son's education, which, let his condition be what it will, is the best portion he can give him.

He, as the same author continues, that at any rate procures his child a good mind, well principled, tempered to virtue and usefulness, and adorned with civility and good breeding, makes a better purchase for himself than if he had laid out the money for an addition of acres: spare it in toys and play-games, in silks, ribbons, and laces, and other useless expences, as much as you please, but be not sparing in so necessary a part as this. It is not good husbandry to make his fortune rich, and his mind poor; and I have often, with great admiration, seen people lavish it profusely in tricking up their children in fine cloaths, lodging and feeding them sumptuously, allowing them more than enough of useless servants, and yet, at the same time, starve their minds, and not take sufficient care to cover that which is the most shameful nakedness, viz. their natural wrong inclinations and ignorance. This I can look on as no other than a sacrificing to their own vanity, it shewing more their pride than true care of the good of their children: whatsoever you employ to the advantage of your son's mind, will shew your true kindness, though it be to the lessening of your estate. A wise and good man can hardly want either the opinion or reality of being great and happy; but he that is foolish or vicious can be neither great nor happy, whatsoever you leave him. I ask you, whether there be not some men in the world whom you had rather have your son be, with FIVE HUNDRED POUNDS per annum, than some others you know with FIVE THOUSAND?

Of the erecting of the proposed COLLEGE.

Do not the famous universities of this nation demonstrate, that there is no people in the world more liberal in their donations towards the building of colleges for every literary kind of institution? And shall we entertain an opinion that a MERCANTILE COLLEGE will not one day obtain an establishment in this kingdom, which may enable the nation the better to support all others? Shall we be daily very bountiful in our subscriptions towards the erection and support of infirmaries and hospitals, for the maintenance of the poor; and shall we not think of the erection of a college, which will empower individuals the more generously to contribute to the support of such laudable charities? Is there less wisdom in the establishment of a seminary to guard merchants against misfortunes, than to provide a college for them after their ruin? Shall the nation never have another GRESHAM nor a SUTTON? But, if no individual should ever think of an establishment of this kind, what is it that the merchants of this kingdom are not able to do from their own purses? Or, why may not their application to parliament be attended with the desirable success, if the public should be lukewarm to promote this design in another shape? Will it be less honour to the kingdom to build a college for the education of her merchants, than a repository for the productions of nature and arts? Is it not the industry and ingenuity

genuity of the merchant that stamp a value upon those productions, and are the great support of all art and science? Is not the merchant daily called upon to take a share in the legislative power, and why shall not such a respectable member of the community be trained up with advantages equal to the other principal classes of people in the state?

MERCHANT-COURT, or COURT-MERCHANT, is a kind of judicatory power invested in merchants, chosen for that purpose in several parts of Europe, in order to decide and determine, in a summary way, all differences and litigations among themselves and their dependants.

Courts of merchants should be erected for the speedy deciding all differences relating to sea affairs, says the judicious Mr. Carey, which are better ended by those who understand them, than they are in Westminster-Hall, where all things are tried by the nice rules of law; and, therefore, after much attendance and expence, are often referred by the judges to such as are conversant in trade. By this means the merchants would soon see short ends to their differences; but no general rules can be given for these courts, which must be settled as they suit the conveniencies of trading cities. I ask pardon of the learned gentlemen of the long robe, says the remarkable De Foe, if I do them any wrong, having no design to affront them, when I say, that, in matters of debate among merchants, when they come to be argued by lawyers at the bar, they are strangely handled. I myself have heard very famous lawyers make sorry work of a cause between the merchant and his factor; and, when they come to argue about exchanges, discounts, protests, demurrages, charter-parties, freights, port-charges, assurances, barratries, bottomries, accounts current, accounts in commission, and accounts in company, and the like, the solicitor has not been able to draw a brief, nor the counsel to understand it: never was young parson more put to it to make out his text, when he's got into the pulpit without his notes, than I have seen a counsel at the bar, when he would make out a cause between merchants: and I remember a pretty history of a particular case, by way of instance, when two merchants contending about a long factorage-account, that had all the niceties of merchandizing in it, and labouring on both sides to instruct their counsel, and to put them in when they were out; at last they found them make such ridiculous stuff of it, that they both threw up the cause, and agreed to a reference; which reference, in one week, without any charge, ended all the dispute, which they had spent a great deal of money in before to no purpose.

Nay, the very judges themselves (no reflection upon their learning) have been very much at a loss in giving instructions to a jury, and juries much more to understand them; for, when all is done, juries, which are not always, nor often, indeed, of the wisest men, are, to be sure, ill umpires in causes so nice, that the very lawyer and judge can hardly understand them.

The affairs of merchants are accompanied with such variety of circumstances, such new and unusual contingencies; which change and differ in every age, with a multitude of niceties and punctilios; and those again altering as the customs and usages of countries and states do alter, that it has been found impracticable to make any laws that could extend to all cases: and our law itself does tacitly acknowledge its own imperfection in this case, by allowing the custom of merchants to pass as a kind of law, in cases of difficulty.

Wherefore it seems to me a most natural proceeding, that such affairs should be heard before and judged by such as, by known experience and long practice in the customs and usages of foreign negoce, are of course the most capable to determine the same.

Besides the reasonableness of the argument, there are some cases in our laws in which it is impossible for a plaintiff to make out his case, or a defendant his plea; as, in particular, when his proofs are beyond seas; for no protests, certifications, or procurations, are allowed in our courts as evidences; and the damages are infinite and irretrievable by any of the proceedings of our laws.

For the answering all these circumstances, a court might be erected by authority of parliament, to be composed of six judges commissioners, who should have power to hear and decide as a court of equity, under the title of A Court-Merchant.

The proceedings of this court should be short, the trials speedy, the fees easy, that every man might have immediate remedy where wrong is done: for, in trials at law about merchants affairs, the circumstances of the case are often such, as the long proceedings of courts of equity are more pernicious than in other cases, because the matters to which they are generally relating, are under greater contingencies than in other cases, as effects in hands abroad, which want orders, ships and seamen lying at demurrage; and in pay, and the like.

These six judges should be chosen of the most eminent merchants of the kingdom, to reside in London, and to have power by commission to summon a council of merchants

who should decide all cases on the hearing of both parties, with appeal to the said judges.

Also to delegate by commission petty councils of merchants, in the most considerable ports of the kingdom, for the same purpose.

The six judges themselves to be only judges of appeals; all trials to be heard before the council of merchants, by methods and proceedings singular and concise.

The council to be sworn to do justice, and to be chosen annually out of the principal merchants of the city.

The proceedings here should be without delay; the plaintiff to exhibit his grievance by way of brief, and the defendant to give in his answer; and a time of hearing to be appointed immediately.

The defendant, by motion, shall have liberty to put off hearing, upon shewing good cause, not otherwise.

At hearing, every man to argue his own cause, if he pleases, or introduce any person to do it for him.

Attestations and protests from foreign parts, regularly procured, and authentickly signified in due form, to pass in evidence; affidavits in due form, likewise attested and done before proper magistrates within the king's dominion, to be allowed as evidence.

The party grieved may appeal to the six judges, before whom they shall plead by counsel, and from their judgment to have no appeal.

By this method, infinite controversies would be avoided, and disputes amicably ended, a multitude of present inconveniencies prevented, and merchandizing matters would in a merchant like manner be decided, by the known customs and methods of trade.—So far De Foe.

Notwithstanding there be in the capital of Spain, says a judicious Spanish author, a board of trade, composed of ministers of great merit, I apprehend it would be good policy to introduce into it a greater number of persons of understanding and skill in commerce, either from their own experience in mercantile affairs, or by being long employed in offices that have a connection with trade, or by having made this important interest their particular study. But, to explain these and other measures tending to make this board more extensively useful, it will be necessary to consider the thing more fully.

In several towns of France, and other kingdoms, there are consulships [see the article CONSULS] or courts made up of private persons, of good understanding, as well for the better conduct and advancement of commerce, as to decide SPEEDILY, and at SMALL CHARGE, all causes and disputes that may arise in business; a custom which it is our interest to imitate in those cities of Spain that have the best disposition for trade (as it has been ordered at Burgos, &c.) but it requires one to enter farther into particulars, in order to lay down such a plan as will secure to the public all those advantages it may receive from thence; and I shall advance no farther at present than to observe, that these courts should have a constant correspondence with the superior board or council of commerce residing in the capital, and to which they ought to be subordinate.

The substance of Sir Josiah Child's opinion in regard to the establishment of a MERCHANT-COURT.

I have conceived great hopes, says he, that this kingdom will at length be blessed with a happy method for the speedy, easy, and cheap deciding of differences between merchants, masters of ships, and seamen, &c. by some court or courts of merchants, like those which are established in most of the great cities and towns in France, Holland, and other places; the want of which in England is, and has ever been, a great bar to the progress and grandeur of the trade of this kingdom.

For instance, if merchants happen to have differences with masters and owners of ships, upon charter-parties, or accounts beyond sea, &c. the suit is commonly first commenced in the admiralty-court, where, after tedious attendance and vast expences, probably just before the cause should come to determination, it is either removed into the delegates, where it may hang in suspense till the plaintiff and defendant have empty purses and grey heads; or else, because most contracts for maritime affairs are made upon the land (and most accidents happen in some rivers or harbours here, or beyond sea, and are not in alto mari) the defendant brings his writ of prohibition, and removes the cause into his majesty's court of King's-Bench; where, after great expences of time and money, it is well if we can make our own counsel, being common lawyers, understand one half of our CASE, we being amongst them as in a foreign country, our language strange to them; and theirs as strange to us. After all, no attestations of foreign notaries, not even public instruments from beyond sea, being evidences at law, and the accounts depending, consisting, perhaps, of an hundred or more several articles, which are as so many issues at law, the cause must come into Chancery, where, after many years tedious travels to Westminster, with black boxes and green bags, when the plaintiff and defendant have tired their bodies, distracted their minds, and consumed their estates, the cause, if ever it be ended, is commonly,

monly, by order of that court, referred to merchants, ending miserably, where it might have had at first a happy issue, if it had begun right.

From whence follow these national inconveniencies:

1. It is a vast expence to the persons concerned.
 2. It takes off men from following their callings, to the public loss, as well as the particular damages of the party concerned, that time being lost to the nation which is spent in law-suits.
 3. It makes men, after they have once attained indifferent estates, to leave trading, and, for ease, to turn country gentlemen; whereas skilful and experienced men are the only persons that might match other nations in trade.
 4. It is, in my opinion, a great cause of the prodigality, idleness, and injustice of many of our masters of ships in England, and, consequently, a wonderful bar to the growth of our English navigation; who knowing that their owners cannot legally eject them, especially if the master have a part of the ship himself: but that remedy to the owners will be worse than the disease, which occasions masters to presume to do those things, and be guilty of such neglects as naturally they would not, if they stood more upon their good behaviour.
- I could say much more of the damage this nation sustains by the want of a law-merchant; but that is so evident to all men's experience, that I shall not longer insist upon it, but proceed humbly to propose some particulars; which, being duly considered, may peradventure by wiser heads be improved towards the cure of this evil, viz.
1. That it be enacted, That there shall be erected, within the city of London, a standing court-merchant, to consist of twelve able merchants, such as shall be chosen by the liverymen of the said city, in their common hall, at the time, and in the manner herein after limited and appointed.
 2. That the said twelve persons so to be elected, or any three or more of them, sitting at the same time and place, and not otherwise, shall be accounted judiciary merchants, and authorized to hear and determine all differences and demands whatsoever, which have arisen, and are not otherwise determined, or may any ways arise between merchants, tradesmen, artificers, masters and owners of ships, seamen, boatmen, and freighters of ships, or any other persons having relation to merchandizing, trade, or shipping, for or concerning any accounts of merchants, freights of ship or goods, bill or bills of exchange, or bills of bottomry, or for work done upon, or materials delivered to the use of any ship, or money due for sale of goods, or any other things relating to trade or shipping.
 3. That any three or more of them; as the judges did lately at Clifford's-Inn, may proceed summarily to the hearing and determining of any such differences, and that their sentence shall be final, from which there shall be no appeal or review, otherwise than as is herein after-mentioned, nor any writ of error lie for the removal or reversal of the same.
 4. That they, or any three of them, may so issue out summonses for convening all persons before them, as the judges did, &c.
 5. That they be a court of record, as the judges were, &c.
 6. That they take nothing for their own pains, directly or indirectly, but six-pence each for signing every final order in every cause, whereof the value of money to be paid does not exceed 10*l.* and twelve-pence for all causes not exceeding the value of 100*l.* and only two shillings each for all causes exceeding the value of 100*l.*
- The said fees to be due and payable only to such and so many of the said judiciary merchants as heard the said causes, and signed the judgments or final decrees.
7. That, for rewards to officers, the judiciary merchants do constitute a table of reasonable fees, to be confirmed by the two lord chief justices, and lord chief baron of the Exchequer.
 8. That, in any case determined by a less number than seven of the said judiciary merchants, there may be an appeal to seven or more, as was lately practised in the afore-mentioned judicature.
 9. That they may have power to levy execution upon estates real or personal, with such restrictions as the parliament shall please to appoint.
 10. That the extent of the jurisdiction of the said court shall be to all places within 10 miles of London, or only to the late lines of communication, as the parliament shall think fit.
 11. That the said judiciary merchants and their officers, before they exercise their authority, do take such oaths as the parliament shall please to appoint.
 12. That, if any of the judiciary merchants be prosecuted for exercising any of the powers that shall be committed to them, they may plead the general issue, and give the act in evidence for their defence.
 13. That no writ or writs of superseatas, certiorari, or injunction, out of any of his majesty's courts, shall supersede or stay execution, &c.
 14. The act to continue probationarily so long as the parliament shall think fit.
 15. That the twelve judiciary merchants shall be chosen yearly, by all the freemen that are liverymen of London, in the Guild-Hall of the said city, or by so many of them as

shall be present at such elections, upon every Monday yearly before the feast of St. Michael, or as the parliament shall appoint, in manner following:

Every liveryman then present to deliver unto any two such aldermen and four commoners as the lord mayor and court of aldermen for the time being shall appoint, to take the view or scrutiny of election, a paper containing the names of such twelve persons as he thinks best to be elected for the purposes aforesaid, setting his the said elector's own name on the back-side of the said paper; and the next Monday after, in the said Guild-Hall, the said two aldermen and four commoners, or as many of them as shall have taken the scrutiny, shall publicly declare unto the lord mayor, aldermen, and commoners then present, who are the twelve persons chosen by the majority of votes, and how many votes each of them had.

16. If it happen that any of the judiciary merchants die before the end of the year, or refuse to undertake the trust, it be lawful for the liverymen to chuse another or others, toties quoties, and the lord mayor be enjoined to summon halls for that purpose.

17. That every year six of the old judiciary merchants go off in course, and be incapable of being re-elected, and six new ones chosen in their stead, viz. all the twelve to be re-chosen, but only six of the old ones, that had the most voices, to hold the next year, although more of them should happen to be elected for the next year.

Objection I. The objections that I can foresee will be made against this constitution are, that it thwarts that most excellent order of our English juries.

Answer I. I answer, That I hope there is no Englishman more in love with juries than myself; but it is evident that the common way of trials does not well reach the variety and strangeness of merchants cases, especially in relation to foreign affairs.

Answer II. What better jury can a merchant hope for, than twelve able and honest merchants, chosen by the collective body of the whole city, and such as shall all of them stand upon their good behaviour, to be turned out with ignominy the next year, if they do not equal right to all men?

Objection II. The admitting of no appeals from a court merchant seems too arbitrary.

I answer; while we chuse our judges ourselves for merchants cases, and may remove them ourselves, in my opinion, they can be no more too arbitrary than too much power can be given to referees, when both parties desire an end of their differences: besides, if their power be not great, the design of cheap, speedy, and short issues, will be lost. But, if it shall please the parliament, there may be in the act an appeal referred to the house of lords; the money condemned to be paid or deposited before the appeal be allowed.

An edict of Henry II. king of France, concerning the MERCHANT-COURT of the city of Rouen.

The preamble only relating to the establishment of an exchange for the assembling of the merchants, we shall pass that over, and only take notice of what relates to the point under consideration.

And, for the greater ease and advantage of the merchants of our city of Rouen, and being desirous to gratify them in every thing, as far as it is possible, that they may not be distracted, and drawn off from their other business and affairs, by being obliged to give their attendance at sundry courts of judicature, by reason of suits and pleas occasioned by litigations and differences arising among them in their traffic: our will and pleasure is, that the merchants of our said town of Rouen, as well natives as foreigners, frequenting the said place, shall every year cause a society of merchants to meet in the lodge of the said bourse, at what time they think fit; out of which society of merchants they shall chuse three officers, viz. one PRIOR and Two CONSULS, who shall remain in authority one year, at the end of which new ones shall again be chosen, by the plurality of voices: which election and nomination being fully ended, the said prior and consuls shall have present power in them to take knowledge, and to give judgment between all men, of what estate, quality, or condition soever they be, of all suits, controversies, and differences touching matters of MERCHANTIZING, or buying and selling, in manner as the conservator of the fair at Lyons, and the prior and consuls at Thoulouse do, as well for obligations, bills of debt, receipts, blanks, signed bills of exchange, securities, associations, and partnerships of merchants, either general or particular; also of assurances, accompts, transports and contracts for matters aforesaid, or any thing belonging thereunto; with all full power, and according to the manner, judgments, and condemnation of the said conservator of Lyons, and prior and consuls of Thoulouse; and the judgments and sentences, decrees and ordinances, commissions and commandments of the said prior and consuls of Rouen, by speeches, provisions, or sentences definitive, shall remain in as much force and effect for any matter judicially determined, as the causes which the conservator of Lyons, and prior and consuls of Thoulouse, and divers other of our judges do decide: and the same shall be executed by our serjeants and officers, in such manner and form as they are in their behalf

above-named, either by committing to prison, or by inflicting other punishments, if it be so decreed and ordained; and to that end shall our messengers and officers be bound to perform the executions, and our goalers and keepers of prisons shall likewise be bound to keep all such prisoners in such manner as if they were committed unto them by our abovesaid judges, with the like bond and penalty (if any escape happen) as they are bound to keep the prisoners to them committed by the authority of the said judges: for so we have enjoined; and do enjoin our messengers, and other officers, goalers, and keepers of prisons, upon such penalties as the case shall require, and according as by the said prior and consuls shall be limited and appointed with regard to the demerits of the offenders.

Moreover, we have permitted, and do permit, if need be, that our said prior and consuls do take unto them twenty of the said merchants, or a greater or a smaller number, as they shall think convenient, to assist them in their proceedings and judgments in causes of merchandize, bills of exchange, assurances and differences as aforesaid, and to cause to be executed their sentences, judgments, and ordinances of pledges and consignments, provisions, seizing of goods, and all other condemnations, sentences, or appointments, to proceed therein by criers and proclamations, giving notice to the parties concerned themselves, or leaving notice at their houses by proof, sales, depositings, deliveries, and definitive execution, as the case shall require.

And we likewise give them power to direct the same process, and to proceed therein according to the ordinances, as well in matters summarily as by provision, as acknowledgment of bills, subscriptions, and bills of exchange: and the like in regard to pledges and consignments, upon one only default, duly proved by summoning the person at his house, or fixing there a copy of the commission, or process, in all places where it is lawfully to be done.

And touching other matters, where two defaults shall be made, or persons twice summoned, they shall proceed, observe, and keep their course according to the king's ordinances. And for all matters wherein they shall give sentence of execution to pass in all places of our court of parliament at Rouen, and in all other places of our kingdom, where need shall require, without any disturbance or molestation to be made by any of our judges, justices, or officers, either against them or their deputies; neither shall they let or hinder any summons or arrest, exploit or assignment to be done before them: and to give their assistance in causes appertaining to, or touching matters of traffic, and all things thereunto belonging, against all merchants trading in our said city of Rouen, and their factors, agents, and dealers, sent by them into other countries, regions, or provinces, as well within as without our kingdom, countries, and dominions under our obedience for the cause of traffic, merchandize, and business of trade, and all things whatsoever thereunto belonging.

And we will and ordain, that they may bring their causes and proof for all matters aforesaid, before the said prior and consuls for the time being, whether it be for the rendering of account and satisfaction of part or of whole, or condemnation in penalties, or other condemnations for fines or trespasses, and for all other things that shall be requisite, concerning and belonging to trade and merchandize, according as they shall deserve; in which we have authorized them, and do give them power to use the same forms as the said conservator at Lyons, prior and consuls at Thoulouse, and others our judges do: and to cause execution to be served on the offenders, either by arrests, attachments, and sale of goods, or by imprisonment of the parties condemned, as they shall think good: prohibiting all our judges to take cognizance of any matter or plea thereunto belonging; which command shall be noticed unto them, and unto all persons to whom it shall appertain, by the first of our officers or serjeants that shall be required so to do, whom we enjoin to perform the same accordingly, to the intent that the **EXTRAVAGANT CHARGE AND EXPENCE** that merchants might be otherwise put to in prosecuting their factors and servants before other judges, may be by that means intirely avoided.

And we have further permitted, and do give authority to the prior and consuls to apply all such penalties of money as by them shall be inflicted upon persons for contempt, and other offences, the one half to our use, and the other half to the use of the aforesaid bourse at Rouen, allowing them, also, absolute liberty and power to chuse and constitute an advocate and an attorney, who shall by all lawful means labour to procure the benefit and advantage thereof, and defend the same, and shall direct all processes and causes as well before the said prior and consuls, as before all other judges. And to the end that merchants may assemble themselves, as well to consult of their common affairs as to constitute and appoint the said advocate and attorney, without being subject to repair to us or our judges for leave, when need shall require: We will and ordain, That all judgments that shall pass before the prior and consuls, being sealed with their seals, and signed by a clerk by them appointed, be it for imprisonment, sale, disposing of goods, or otherwise, shall be held for real and lawful, without any constraint to have our further commission or liking, according as was permitted by our most illustrious father the

king, unto the merchants of our city of Lyons, by their letters patents, given in the month of February, in the year of our Lord 1535; reserving unto our court of parliament, at our said city of Rouen, the jurisdiction and cognizance of the said discords and differences, by way of appeal, to our parliament in our aforesaid city of Rouen.

And to the end that all appeals proceeding from the judgments and sentences that shall be given by the said prior and consuls, may be speedily, and without delay, ended and determined in our said court of parliament: We have ordained, and do hereby ordain, all our loving and trusty presidents and counsellors (holding our said court of parliament) to appoint to the said merchants, without delay, one day in every week, such as they shall think convenient, to hear, determine, and decide the said appeals, as recorded. And, in regard to the process in writing, there shall another record be made, to the end that the said appeals may be ended, in the **SAME DAY**, to avoid the prolonging of suits, to the **RUINING and CONSUMING** of the **MERCHANTS**.

And to the intent that the said place for meeting of the merchants twice a day may be intirely quiet, and without any disturbance, our will and pleasure is, and we do strictly command, that none of our serjeants or officers presume to enter into the said place, nor to make any arrest (for any cause) of any person whatsoever, during the time of those two accustomed hours of meeting; and, if such arrest should be made during the said hours, we have declared heretofore, and do declare by these presents, the same to be void and insufficient, charging all our judges not to have any regard thereunto.

And as we are informed that the business of assurance is of late greatly improved by the merchants of the said city of Rouen, to the manifest advancement of the traffic and commerce thereof; to the end that the policies of assurance, and all other writings thereunto belonging, may receive full force and vigour, we have permitted, and do by these presents permit, that all merchants frequenting the said place (either now, or in time to come) may assemble themselves as often as it shall be needful to nominate and chuse by the plurality of voices, one trusty and expert merchant amongst them, such as they shall think meet and well understanding the business of assurance, who shall make and record the said policies; which the insurers shall under-write at all times hereafter, in the said place and liberties of the said city of Rouen; which merchant so chosen shall likewise (being thereto required) draw out accompts of such sums as shall happen to be due, receiving for his pains and time spent in performing the functions of his said office, according as shall be thought meet by the said merchants; of all which insurances he shall keep a perfect and exact record, to which record and copies thereof, and all other acts and writings by him made and signed concerning the matter of insurances, we will and ordain that all manner of credit shall be given before all judges and others, to whom it shall appertain: nor shall any other person or persons whatsoever have any thing to do or meddle in the said business of assurances, not being before chosen and admitted thereunto by the said prior and consuls, and by the said merchants as aforesaid.

And we do hereby command and give in charge to all persons holding our courts of parliament, great constables, admirals, vice-admirals, stewards, and their deputies, and to all other judges and officers whom it shall concern, that they do cause to be read, proclaimed, and registered this our present will, declaration, permission, and ordinance, and the same to be observed and kept by all persons accordingly, that the merchants may use and enjoy the force and benefit thereof, plainly and peaceably, without any contradiction: moreover, We do charge and command our attorney-general that he do with all diligence cause all these things to be plainly and truly executed, and that he do certify us of his diligence in so doing. For such is our pleasure; and that notwithstanding any ordinances, customs, statutes, privileges, prohibitions, &c. to the contrary; which in this case, without doing prejudice to them in others, we have made void, and do make void. And, because sundry persons may have occasion to use this our grant in divers places, our pleasure is, that credit shall be given to all such copies thereof as shall be made by any of our loving and trusty notaries and serjeants, or undersecretaries, &c. in as ample manner as to the original: and, to this effect, we do give you full power and authority, and especial charge and commission by these presents, commanding all our justices, officers, and subjects to obey you in this case. And to the end that this may remain established for ever (our own right in all other causes reserved) we have heretofore caused our seal to be put.—Given at Paris in the month of March, and in the year of our Lord 1556, and of our reign the tenth.

Signed by the **KING**, then in council, and sealed with green wax, &c.

R E M A R K S :

We have now seen the substance of what has been urged in favour of the establishment of a court-merchant in Great-Britain;

Britain; and how long since the same was first introduced into France, may be seen under the article *CONSUL*.

The great objection that hath been made against an establishment of this nature, is, that merchants are not sufficiently skilled in the laws, customs, and usages, which have relation to their own profession; and, therefore, they can never be competent judges in regard to every kind of litigation which may come before them. The experience, however, of other nations has shewn, that the mercantile world is contented at present, in the general, rather with the determinations of a judicatory of their own fraternity, than those of lawyers. But, although merchants, from their long attention to concerns of this nature, and the registering the reports of their predecessors, may, in time, become very knowing and judicious in determining differences between their brethren and their dependants, yet at the first commencement, they certainly must be very unexperienced.—But, if a mercantile college, as we have proposed, should ever take place in this nation, this would lay the proper foundation for training up merchants, as well in a knowledge of the laws, customs, and usages, relative to their employment, as in their other essential qualifications. See *MERCANTILE COLLEGE*.

MERCURY, is a mineral, or a ponderous metallic water, agreeable to most metals, and judged by some to be the original matter, whereof all are constituted; it more closely adheres to gold, than to any other, by its penetrating and dissolving quality.

Mercury, or quicksilver, is the most heavy of all fluids, totally volatile in the fire, and incongealable by any degree of cold hitherto known. Its gravity, compared with that of spirit of wine, the lightest of all fluids, is as 14,000 to 866; it comes the nearest in weight to lead, to which it is as 14,000 to 11,325. By bare agitation alone in a glass vessel, or by being exposed to a small heat, it yields a soft black powder, of a sharp brassy taste: a greater degree of heat changes mercury into a heavy, shining, red, friable powder, of a sharp nauseous taste. The black and the red powder, may be revived into fluid mercury, by a more intense heat. Quicksilver amalgamates with gold, silver, lead, and tin; with copper not so easily; with zinc and bismuth imperfectly; but has not been yet found to act on iron or the regulus of antimony. It is soluble in mineral acids, but with greater facility in some than another: vinegar, and the acids extracted from vegetables, have no effect upon it: neither have alkaline or neutral salts: the nitrous acid readily dissolves it into a pellucid liquor: neither the marine or vitriolic acid acts upon it, unless highly concentrated. It readily joins to sulphur, and sublimes along with it into a red powder; from this it is easily separated by absorbent earths, fixed alkaline salts, regulus of antimony, and all metals, except gold.

It is sometimes to be found running in the veins of the earth, in the perfect form of quicksilver, but much the greater quantity of it is drawn from a mineral stone called natural cinnabar.

Of extracting mercury from the ore or mineral earth.

They first grind the mineral earth into powder, which done, they pour a large quantity of water thereon, stirring the whole briskly about, 'till the water becomes very thick and turbid. The water having stood 'till it be settled, it is poured off, and they throw on fresh, which they agitate as before. This they repeated 'till the water at length comes away perfectly clear: after which, all remaining at the bottom of the vessel is mercury, and other mineral matter.

To this mercurial matter is added the scoria of iron, putting the whole in large iron retorts, and so distilling it; by which means all the heterogeneous, mineral, and terrestrial part is separated therefrom, and the mercury left pure.

THE UTILITY OF MERCURY IN WORKING THE GOLD AND SILVER MINES IN SPANISH AMERICA.

Mercury is of great use in the West-Indies, because they cannot extract the silver from the native mineral without it, and therefore vast quantities are sent over from Old Spain every year. See the article *SILVER*.

No person is allowed to carry over quicksilver to the Spanish West Indies, but the king; and the attempting the contrary is punished with death and forfeiture of goods, which does not altogether deter men from committing this offence. And, though his majesty might considerably increase his revenue, by selling it at a high rate, since the mines without it would turn to no account, yet it has been always ordered to be sold at the price it stands in, paying all charges. The quicksilver, taken out of the mine at Almaden, not sufficing formerly to supply the mines of New Spain, it was ordered, that certain quantities of this metal should be sent thither from the mines of Grancavelica in Peru, by the South Sea, and about 15,000 quintals, that is, 75 tons, were sent yearly, for three or four years. But this being found prejudicial, because under this pretence they carried great quantities of China and Spanish commodities from New Spain to Peru, which is very prejudicial to the trade of Spain, and had always been prohibited; therefore no more quicksilver was permitted to be carried from the mines of Grancavelica.

These mines falling in, and therefore yielding no quicksilver for some years, all the West-Indies were supplied out of Europe, which took up vast quantities; for the kingdom of Peru alone requires no less than 6000 quintals, that is, 300 tons: abundance was, therefore, brought out of Germany, and all the provinces of the West-Indies well stored; and, in the year 1628, there were 12,000 quintals, that is, 600 tons, in the king's warehouse, which made it doubtful how to send over so great a quantity. The commanders of the biggest ships, made a difficulty of carrying above 2000 quintals, that is, 100 tons of quicksilver. Though the expence in New Spain be not every year so much, 6000 quintals have been sent thither in one year. It is ordered, that 200 quintals, that is, so many hundred weight, be sent yearly to the new kingdom of Granada, and 100 to the province of Guatimala, but this is not regularly observed. This commodity being so absolutely necessary for the plate trade, when the Spanish flota has missed being set out, two galleons have been sent with the quicksilver. Great interest has been made, that quicksilver might be sent by the way of Buenos Ayres, on pretence that it was very chargeable carrying that which is taken out of Grancavelica to the mines of Potosi, but it was never granted.

The quicksilver from the mine at Almaden, being brought very slowly to Seville, the commissioners of the India-House are often forced to send officers to hasten the carts and horses upon the road, and expresses to Almaden, to expedite their setting out. The putting it up for sea has been always left to the care of this court, but more particularly to the factor, which has been practised several ways; but, that now in use being the best, it will not be amiss to give an account of it in this place.

Every half quintal, or half hundred, is put into a sheep's skin, well bound with hempen cords, and that into a tight cask, nailed down; and three of these casks, containing a quintal, or an hundred and a half, into a chest, which being nailed and bound over with hempen ropes, is wrapped with coarse mats, and bound over again. Upon every chest is fastened the king's arms, painted on linen cloth, and those chests are for New Spain, for those carry but a quintal that are for the firm land. It would be proper they should not put it up before the galleons or flota are ready to sail, because, if they lie long, the skins are in danger of rotting. A commissary is appointed to go into the ships that carry quicksilver, who gives bond to the factor for the delivery of them to the king's officers at the port they are designed for: and, to make good the deficiencies of the regular convoy-duty, the masters are obliged to pay for such goods as they take aboard. These commissaries are appointed by the president of the India-House, and, being brought before the chamber of direction, give security; and, for their trouble and hazard, are allowed 12 ducats for every 18 quintals, accounted a ton, which is paid by the king's officers where they deliver the quicksilver. This commodity pays the duty for convoys, but no other, and is never carried to the custom-house, but goes directly to the king's storehouse. See the articles *AZOGA SHIPS* of Spain, and *DIRECTION CHAMBER* of Spain.

Mercury is also used in the gilding of silver, and other metals.

CURIOUS OBSERVATIONS.

That the mercurial principles exist in vegetables.

There is a method, says a famous Chinese author, of drawing mercury from wild purslane. For this purpose you need only take the little leaves of purslane, bruise them in a mortar, with a pestle of the wood of Egyptian thorn; then expose them to the rising sun for about three days, and, when they are dry, toast them so as not to destroy their nature and virtues; put this mass in a well-varnished earthen vessel, which you must close well, and bury in the earth 49 days; after which, take out the vessel, and you find quicksilver in perfection.

Nothing is more certain than this secret; and in the shops of Pekin they sell two sorts of mercury, the one taken from mines, which is called chapchovoir, and the other obtained from plants, which is called tsachonien.

These different operations of the Chinese discover to us, that, in the principles of plants, there is iron, which may induce us to think that there may be mercury in certain plants; and, if we reflect on the nature of plants, and search for that which most probably contains quicksilver, we have reason to believe that purslane does so; for, in short, the Chinese herbalist, who in this agree with the greatest botanist of Europe, gives to purslane the virtues that are found in mercury. The purslane, says he, is cold in its nature, kills worms, and all sorts of vermin, and is usefully employed against noxious humours, which it dissipates; and because in its nature it is volatile, it removes obstructions in the vessels of the human body.

Be this as it will, it is very probable that quicksilver, drawn from plants by the solution and separation of their principles, would be free from several impurities which naturally attend that obtained from mines; for by being exalted into the minutest parts of the plants, it must be freed from the ramous and sulphureous fibres, with which it abounds more or less, and from which it is separated by passing it thorough a sheep's skin.

Should this receipt by experience be found true, we may reap from it a double advantage; the first of which is, that everywhere, and in a short time, we may procure a sufficient quantity of mercury. The second and most considerable is, that, by the quicksilver extracted from purslane, we may judge better of the different uses of this plant, and may determine more certainly for what time, and with what precautions, it may be used, according to the different situations of persons, whether in health or sickness. Besides, its juice, prepared in a certain manner, might act upon metals disposed to receive it.

MERIONETHSHIRE, in Wales, is bounded on the south by Cardiganshire, from which it is separated by the river Dovy; with Montgomeryshire and Denbighshire on the east; Carnarvonshire and part of Denbighshire on the north; and the Irish Sea on the west, for a length of 35 miles. It is about 35 miles in length, from Aabyvy in the south to Llanfawr in the north-east; and about 25 in breadth, from Harlech in the west to the opposite part of it on the east.

The air of this country is bleak, and not very healthy, by reason of the vapour arising from the Irish Sea. The soil, being rocky, is generally as bad as the worst in Wales, bearing but thin crops of corn; yet there is pretty good pasture in the vallies for black cattle and sheep, which are the chief support of the inhabitants; and it is well furnished with deer, goats, fowl, and fish, especially herrings, which are taken on the coast in abundance.

HARLECH, or **HARLEGH**, in the north-west part of the county, has a harbour for ships, but no ships for the harbour.

DOLGELLY, at the foot of the mountain Idris, is an ordinary country-town, but of good account for the sale of Welch cottons, and has an indifferent market. Here are pretty commodious inns for travellers.

BALA is the only market-town of the mountains, and is situate near Pimble Meer.

METALLURGY, the art of smelting, refining, compounding, and working metals from the mineral earth to the utensil.

Under the articles **ALLAY**, **AQUA FORTIS**, **AQUA REGIA**, **ASSAY**, **CINNABAR**, **COPPER-MINES**, **FLUX**, **GOLD**, **SILVER**, and all the other metals, we have distinctly and amply treated of the divers metallurgical operations; to which we refer the reader. For what has further relation to this topic, see the articles **METALS**, **MINEROLOGY**, **MINES**, **ORES**, **QUARTATION**, **SMELTING**.

From what is said under the preceding heads, the following particulars are observable.

REMARKS ON METALLURGY IN GENERAL.

1. We learn from the foregoing enquiry, that different mineral and metallic matters bear different relations to melted lead in fusion: whence some of them will not mix therewith, but float on its surface: that others evaporate, and others vitrify in it; whilst silver and gold remain unaltered by it, and unimpaired. See the article **ASSAY**.
2. That the nobler metals have nearly the same relation to quicksilver as they have to melted lead; as being readily drank up by them both, so as thus to be separated from other heterogeneous matters. See the article **ASSAY**.
3. That testing, in the large way, is improveable by finding a properer matter than bone-ashes, for the making of tests, by working without bellows; and again by using pit-coal, and a well-contrived furnace. See *ib.*
4. That the art of assaying is hitherto imperfect, but capable of receiving considerable improvement from chemical and mechanical knowledge. *Ib.*
5. That the troublesome and expensive method of separating gold from silver, by quartation, may be advantageously superseded, by means of fusion, or a dexterous management of the fire. *Ib.*
6. That gold and silver are rarely rendered absolutely pure, or separated from all other kinds of metallic or mineral matters; and that to purify them in this manner requires the use of better methods than those commonly used for the purpose, though the thing is still performable by art, and a suitable process. *Ib.*
7. That the particular history of common metallic fusion is wanting, for the improvement of metallurgy. *Ib.*
8. That, when the ore of an imperfect metal is in immediate contact with the fire or fuel, especially if charcoal, it yields the more and the better metal than when contained in a crucible, or kept from touching the coals. *Ib.*
9. That a languid fire lessens the yield of an ore; but a brisk one, if not too long continued, increases it. *Ib.*
10. That the business of smelting in perfection depends, (1.) Upon using a degree of fire suitable to the ore. (2.) Procuring a quick and thin fusion of the scoria. And, (3.) A close contact of the metal with the fuel or coals. *Ib.*
11. That sulphur has different effects upon the different metals; which effects being well noted, rules of practice might be thence derived, for the farther improvement of metallurgy. *Ib.*
12. That metalline recrements, or the slags of metals once smelted, have been wrought over again to profit, on account

of the imperfect manner wherein the ores were originally treated for their metals. *Ib.*

13. That the ignobler metals are separable from each other by the application of proper degrees of heat, so as to make the more fusible melt away from the less fusible, at least with the assistance of lead. *Ib.*

14. That all metals are reducible, by burning or calcination, to terrestrial powders, or calces; which, by being melted with any inflammable matter, assume their metalline form again. *Ib.*

15. That the great enemies to ductility, or the true metallic nature, are sulphur, cobalt, and things compounded thereof [see **ORES**]; but that all unctuous and inflammable bodies are friendly to metals, and promote or restore their ductility, when melted therewith. See **ASSAY**.

16. That copper may be made to approach the colour of gold, and, at the same time, not lose, but increase its ductility, by being amalgamated with, and distilled from quicksilver; and that probably many artificial or compound metals are discoverable, by mixing various metalline and mineral bodies together, so as greatly to enrich and improve the art of metallurgy. See **METAL**.

17. That steel is made by a proper application of fire to iron, in a close place, so as to prevent the open air from communicating freely with the iron.

18. That metals receive particular alterations in their texture, or consistence, according to the nature of the solid substance, or liquor wherein they are quenched or cooled. See *ib.*

19. That, in general, ores are no more than a natural loose mixture of metallic matters, along with earthy and sulphureous ones: whence artificial ores, may be readily made, by calcining a metal with sulphur, and mixing it with earth; so as, with heat, to form solid lumps of ore, resembling those dug out of mines. See **ORES**.

20. That numerous experiments remain to be made, and facts of nature, or observations, to be registered, or the relation of bodies to be found, before this useful subjects of metallurgy can be brought to its ultimate perfection. See **ASSAY** and **METALS**.

METALS, are a species of very subtle, yet opaque earth, disposed to form a tenacious, and, consequently, a malleable, aggregate, which is fluid in the fire, more or less sonorous in the air, and of a great degree of ponderosity.

They are commonly divided into perfect and imperfect, and these again into complete and incomplete metals.

The perfect metals are supposed to be two, viz. gold and silver; and the imperfect ones four, viz. copper, lead, tin, and iron, which are otherwise said to be complete metals.

The incomplete metals are bismuth, zink, or spelter, regulus of antimony, and regulus of arsenic: which have weight, appearance, and fusibility at the fire, in common with real metals, but are brittle, and all more or less volatile.

Yet these are not exactly all the species of incomplete metals; for many other substances are found thus far metallic, though neglected, either because their manner of preparation and use remain unknown, or because they may be indirectly referred to some of the above-mentioned classes.

It has been a prevailing opinion, that the imperfect metals differ only by accident from the perfect, on account either of digestion, or the tenacious adhesion of heterogeneous substances.

By digestion or concoction we here understand rather the effect of the operation, than the operation itself, viz. a closer combination of those very attenuated particles, which in common mercury yet appear, as it were, individually distinct; whence, as single corpuscles, they prove unable to sustain the impulse of the fire, but are thereby raised in the form of a subtle fume into the air. Now, these very subtle and moveable particles may be conceived fixable two ways: first, by aggregation, so that several particles shall be tenaciously aggregated into one molecule. Something of this kind happens in mercury precipitated per se [see **MERCURY**]; which, tho' it was before exceeding volatile and fluid, so as to evaporate in a fume of exceeding fine parts, it is now made somewhat more fixed, and exhibits those very subtle atoms joined together into more sensible corpuscles, under the form of a dry powder. We do not, indeed, from hence infer, that mercury of itself is an immature metal, which, without the addition or separation of any other thing, may be reduced to a perfect metal: let it suffice to have shewn by this phenomenon, that a greater degree of fixedness may be derived from an aggregative connection of particles.

Nature, according to some, produces every metal almost instantaneously. If in the bowels of a mountain, say they, or any deep parts of the earth, a vapour should arise from a substance, utterly unknown to us a priori, that lay either there before, or is generated on the spot; or, if this substance itself, in the form of such a vapour, should successively rise and creep through the cavernous body of vast tracks of rocks, the veins and clefts of flints, or the interfices of huge beds of lesser stones, and every-where move about 'till it impinges upon a certain species of a subtle vitrescible earth, which is fitted to receive it, or to become one therewith, here it must lodge as in its matrix, 'till some more powerful impulse disturbs it.

We may the better conceive how this should happen, from an example of that mud found at the head of springs, which, as Becher remarkably observes *, receives and concentrates the aqueous vapour, notwithstanding the diurnal heat of the sun. And after the same manner do alkalies receive and tenaciously detain the humid vapours of the air.

* *Physic. Subterr. §. 11. cap. 3. §. 6.*

And as vapours of a different kind, such as the mercurial, arsenical, sulphureous, &c. come to mix in certain proportions along with that original vapour, and fix therewith in a proper matrix, hence may proceed the various sorts of perfect and imperfect, complete and incomplete metalline bodies: or from any error in the ingredients, as to proportion, &c. wrong conformations or degenerate metals may arise.

That the metallic principles may thus wander through the earth, in the form of vapour, seems countenanced by the common observation of those mines which take their course near the surface of the earth. For, if a mineral vein lies shallow, it often gives manifest signs of being supplied with such a vapour, not only in summer, by changing the colour of the stones that lie over it, but also in winter, by dissolving the snow that lies along the tracks where it runs.

And this kind of exhalation is by the miners called the storm. The like vapours also frequently happen by the burrows and caverns of the mine, whilst they are digging the vein for the metal already formed therein, and sometimes make the place very hot, sometimes occasion coughs and hoarseness, and sometimes again when they are large, and mixed with other mineral vapours, they prove suffocative. The workmen have commonly notice hereof given them by their lights suddenly burning larger and brighter; upon which they immediately quit the place.

At least, therefore, it may more easily be conceived that metals should be thus, as it were, instantaneously generated, than that the imperfect metals should, as some suppose, be converted into the perfect, barely by a long-continued concoction in the earth, or by lying therein for some hundreds of years, without the addition of any new matter, or any diminution of the old. This seems very hard to conceive; but there is nothing absurd, in allowing, that, upon a due concurrence of the metalline principles, metals should be immediately produced: and that, if these principles meet improperly, either as to number, proportion, or heterogeneity, they should either remain perpetually in that wrong state of mixture they would then have, or at some time or other, whether sooner or later, upon the fortuitous or natural accession of some principle that was before deficient, they should be actually perfected or destroyed by the admixture of one that is heterogeneous.

Cases of this latter kind are sometimes met with in mines; where too large a proportion of mercurial, corrosive, saline, arsenical matter or vapour, coming upon and adhering to the truly metallic parts of the ores, especially those of the imperfect metals; the parts of such ores are thereby turned sometimes into running mercury, sometimes into cobalt, arsenic, tutty, cadmia, and sometimes into common sulphur.

And if, in such a case, the mercury thus dissolving and overflowing the metallic parts of these ores, be supposed to become the true mercuries of bodies, and to contain a quantity of the real metallic earth, so as sometimes to be nothing but gold overpowered and rendered fluid by too great a proportion of mercury, we have little to object to such a supposition: especially if we consider that it seems countenanced by the increased spissitude and sluggishness of these mercuries, their greater specific gravity in comparison of common mercury, and the golden spot they leave behind, when evaporated upon a silver plate.

The contents of a metallic vein are thus frequently perverted, at the time that a subterranean heat comes upon them; when, if the vein be superficial, the whole mass of metallic matter is corrupted, and thrown off into the air: whence the remaining veins are afterwards found to be nothing but an imperfect matrix, containing a rusty red earth, like the lapis hæmatites, that runs therein after the manner of an ore indeed, but yields no metal; whence such matter is by the workmen called dead metal.

This evaporation becomes sometimes sensible, though without flame, or any manifest odour; but may be distinguished from far, especially in a dewy morning, by the undulation and fluctuation it occasions in the air, over the whole track from which it rises. And if, after such a phenomenon, the vein be found empty of metal, the workmen in their language, say, the storm has carried it away. But, at other times, such an exhalation is attended with a violent flame, and the smell of burning sulphur reaching to the distance of a mile, or more; when all the adjacent grass, and other vegetables, are burnt up, and the workmen sometimes scorched or suffocated in the mines.

But farther, if the rock, stones, or other mineral matters dug in the mines, or if the stamped slag, or powdered scoria gained in the melting of the metal, be strewed upon the track of a vein, they have, after many years lying, been found impregnated with a metallic matter; probably because they af-

forded a commodious matrix for the mineral fumes or exhalations, which every-where breathe out along the track they were laid on.

It must be observed, that one kind of heterogeneous bodies either hinders the completion of metals more than another, or obscures them when they are complete. An example to which purpose we have in the gold ore that is intermixed with martial flints; where a dry, styptic, powdery earth, preventing the fusion, detains the fine single particles of the perfect metal and separates and wears them asunder, when they would aggregate, and so prevents the ore from yielding it's true quantity of metal by fusion, or all that is by aqua fortis found to contain.

Nor does it, perhaps, appear less strange that some ores which are mixed with sulphur, arsenic, and the like rapacious bodies, should afford a less quantity of pure metal, when these volatile substances are first driven from them by calcination with a naked fire in the open air, than when they are either totally, or very considerably, detained by corrosive alkalies, quicklime, glass, &c. for it is manifest, that such substances are not found to touch the substance of perfect gold brought into a body, much less to raise up or carry off any part thereof.

The truth of the case appears to be this: that those rapacious minerals do not, in the open calcination, so much affect or carry off the whole individuum, or complete atoms of the gold, as some one or other constituent part of such atoms, whether it be mercurial, that called sulphureous, or earthy.

R E M A R K S.

With relation to the separation of metals from their various ores, see the article METALLURGY.

Of the ARTIFICIAL or FACTITIOUS METALS.

The method of making PRINCE'S METAL.

Take six ounces of copper, and melt it in a wind furnace; add to it an ounce of zink; then, stirring the whole well together, pour out the metal. The copper and the zink may be put into the crucible together, if first covered over with the black flux [see ASSAY and FLUX] which prevents the avolation of the zink, or preserves it's metalline form.

R E M A R K S.

This is an expeditious method of making a fine kind of brass; whereas the common method, with lapis calaminaris, requires a considerable length of time, and a violent fire: for this purpose they calcine and powder the calamy, then mix it with a little charcoal-dust, and to seven pounds of this mixture add five of copper-plates, then, giving eleven or twelve hours fire, the copper imbibes about one third of it's weight of the calamy.

It is here remarkable, that the calamy, though no complete metallic body, nor malleable, should yet concrete along with the copper, so as not only to increase it's weight, but also to extend with it under the hammer; which zink, in making the prince's metal, does not do, though it appears in all respects of a more metallic nature than calamy.

The agreements and disagreements of these two bodies, zink and lapis calaminaris, may deserve to be farther enquired into by particular experiments. The inflammability of zink is very remarkable, for it burns durably of a bluish-white flame in the fire, and thus resolves into a white calx.

Many curious phænomena and unexpected results, happen upon mixing metallic and mineral bodies in the fire; all which deserve to be tried, and noted as FACTS that might at least direct to the discovery of several new and useful mixtures, or compositions of metals. We might be encouraged to prosecute this enquiry, from those pretty imitations of gold lately introduced, for the making of watches, buckles, cane-heads, snuff-boxes, &c. but, perhaps, a better imitation of gold, for these and other purposes may be obtained by M. Homberg's method of treating copper with quicksilver: for, if an amalgam be made of one part pure copper, and three parts quicksilver, and the amalgam be boiled in river water for two hours, then have the quicksilver distilled off, and cohobated once, the remaining copper, being now fused, will be found of a beautiful colour, and more ductile than common copper, so as to become well fitted for watch-work, gilding, and the finer machines and utensils.

For the methods of extracting metals from their ores, see METALLURGY.

OLD MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN. This country lies between north latitude 7. 30. and 30. 40. and is bounded on the south-east by the isthmus of Darien, or Panama; and on the north-west by New Mexico. It is divided into three audiences, or sovereign districts, governed by a viceroy appointed by the king of Spain.

The three districts, or courts of audience, are, 1. Guadalajara; which contains the provinces of Cinaloa, Culiacan, Chamephan, Xalisco, Guadalajara Proper, Zacatecas, and New Bisca. 2. Mexico; including the provinces of Mechocacan, Mexico Proper, Panuco, Tlascala, Guaxaca, Tabasco, and Yecatan. 3. Guatemala; containing the provinces

M E X

vinces of Chiapa, Sonocufca, Guatimala Proper, Vera Paz, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Veragua.

Though it lies for the most part within the torrid zone, yet the air is very temperate, and generally reckoned extraordinary wholesome. It produces divers sorts of grain, fruits, and herbs, rich mines of gold and silver, and good pasturage. Its chief grain is wheat, barley, pulse and maize; the chief fruits pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, cherries, apples, figs, and cocoa-nuts; and its principal commodities are wool, cotton, sugar, silk, cocheneal, feathers, honey, balm, amber, salt, tallow, hides, tobacco, ginger, and various medicinal drugs.

The Spaniards, who have long been sole masters of this country, have taken such care to keep all foreigners out of it, that the lawful commerce between this part and Europe is in their hands, and subject to the direction of their crown.—To shew in what manner the same is carried on, it may be necessary to explain what so often occurs in our news-papers, by the appellations of galleons, the flota, the flotilla, register-ships, and guarda costas.

A galleon may be termed a very large old-fashioned man of war, of three or four decks [see the article GALLEONS] with a vast deal of room for merchandizes, which should be loaded only on the king's account, but are generally so much crowded with other goods, as to be in no condition to defend themselves. This fleet consists of eight such men of war, the five largest of which have 50 brass cannon, besides an advice-frigate of 40. There are from 12 to 16 merchantmen which sail with this fleet, with cargoes for the account of private persons, after having purchased their licences at a pretty dear rate; and each of them is one half bigger, at least, than is expressed in its schedule. The chief intent of the galleons is, to carry warlike stores, and other necessaries, for Peru: and this is what specially distinguishes the galleons from the flota.

The flota, which is intended for Mexico, consists of three men of war, which carry nothing but on the king's account; and the merchantmen that sail with them are usually about 16, from 400 to 1000 tons burthen. This flota, which sails about August, to have the favour of the winds that reign about November, to facilitate its passage to La Vera Cruz, commonly calls at Puerto Rico for fresh water and provisions; and, after passing in sight of Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Cuba, according to the season of the year, or the nature of the winds, passes either by the coast of Yucatan, or higher through the gulph of Mexico, to La Vera Cruz, at the bottom of it.—Its passage has been computed as follows, viz. from Cadiz to the Canary Isles 250 leagues, in about 10 days; to the Antilles 800, in 20 days: to the most western point of the isle of Cuba 500 leagues, in 20 days; to La Vera Cruz 260 leagues, in about 12 days: in all 1810 leagues, in about nine weeks.—As the flota is designed to furnish not only Mexico, but the Philippine Islands, they are forced to stay there a good while, and sometimes to winter there.

The cargo they carry back to Europe is not so rich as that of the galleons, though it is said to be richer every year than other, because of the increase of the Spanish settlements in New Mexico.—The flota commonly leaves La Vera Cruz in May, but sometimes not 'till August; then it sails for the Havannah, from whence it generally returns, especially in time of war, with the galleons to Old Spain. See the article FLOTA.

As soon as the galleons and flota are arrived at the Havannah, the flotilla, or little fleet, so called, because it consists of some of the lightest and cleanest ships is detached to Europe; which, besides money and merchandize, carries an exact account thither of the contents both of the galleons and the flota, that the court may the better judge what convoy is necessary to be sent for them, as well as to regulate the indulto [see INDULTO] proper to be levied on the merchants, in proportion to their respective interests in the galleons and flota. The flotilla consists commonly of five ships, from 20 to 44 guns, and is employed to guard the coast from free-booters, as also to convoy the plate to Panama. The great fleet remains so long at the Havannah for these two reasons chiefly, viz. waiting for a wind, or for the register-ships, which they are to convoy home.

A register-ship has its name from its being registered, with all the effects embarked in Spain, in books kept for that purpose in the chamber of Seville. For, when a company of merchants there think that the European goods are much wanted at some particular ports in the Spanish West-Indies, they present a memorial to the council of the Indies, praying permission to send a ship of 300 tons burthen, or under, to such port; and, having obtained it, they pay a certain sum, between 30,000 and 50,000 pieces of eight to the crown, besides presents of a considerable value to the king's officers. Then, to prevent any suspicion of fraud, they register their ship and cargo consistent with their petition and licence: whereas the same ship, so registered as under 300 tons, generally carries above 600 tons of goods, besides accommodation for passengers.—Copies from the registers are transmitted to the governor and royal officers at the port to which the register-ship is bound; and such is their diligence and integrity, that

M E X

when the ship is come to an anchor, they certify after a pretended narrow enquiry, that this ship of 600 or 700 tons does not carry quite 300 together, and send back such certificate, properly ascertained, with the ship to Europe, together with a bill of lading, in the same strain of computation*.—By these register-ships 2 or 300 per cent. is sometimes gained, which enables the owners to pay so liberally for cheating the king, after having first got the money by robbing the subjects.—These register-ships go yearly to Buenos Ayres, St. Martha, Porto Cavallo, and other places, to which neither the galleons nor flota come; yet they generally return with them, as they sometimes go out with them, though, when outward bound, they leave them in a certain latitude.

What gave rise to the Spanish guarda costas, as they are called, or guard ship, was the illicit trade said by the Spaniards to be carried on in those parts, some years since, by the Dutch and English, though notoriously by the former, partly with the connivance of the Spanish governors, and partly by force. The guarda costa, being stationed at Carthagena, put an end to this mischief for a short time, by sinking one of the interlopers, and taking two; the cargoes of which were worth above 100,000*l.* and by hanging all at once 16 Spanish merchants, that, on a signal given, came on board from the shore to trade with them†. But the captains of these guarda costas, instead of taking real contraband traders, infected the English commerce soon after, and took what they could, without distinction, under frivolous pretences at first, and at last without any at all. The governors reaping vast profit from the prizes which they brought into their ports, they sent such fallacious accounts of the captures to the court of Madrid, as produced that obstinacy of theirs which involved them in the late war with Great-Britain.

* If the officers belonging to the king of Spain will defraud their own crown of its revenues, in their concerns with Spaniards themselves, Spain cannot wonder that their officers should countenance and encourage an illicit trade with foreigners in the Spanish West-Indies; and, if the great fault lies at the door of the Spanish officers, the labouring oar to prevent such illicit commerce lies chiefly upon the court of Spain itself, and not upon those courts whose subjects are allured by their officers and subjects to carry on a contraband trade.

† Were the like measures steadily pursued, they would not only have put a temporary, but an eternal stop, to illicit trade. And does not this prove that the Spaniards have it in their own power to put a stop to this trade whenever they please?

Though the general accounts of New Spain place mines of gold and silver in almost all the provinces, yet we are assured that both are only found in the Province of Mexico. Of silver, it is published there are no less than 1000 mines in the Mexican empire; but gold only is found in Veragua and New Granada. There is an exceeding great quantity of sugar in this country, chiefly on the side of the gulph of Mexico, Guaxaca, &c. so that here are more sugar-mills than in any part of Spanish America; but it is chiefly consumed in the city of Mexico, and particularly the monasteries, in chocolate, sweet meats, preserves, and confectionary wares; of which, however, there is a vast deal sent from Guaxaca, Guatimala, and other provinces, to Mexico and to Panama, from whence it is carried by sea to Lima, Guyaquil, and Baldivia. There is a great home trade in the goods manufactured of its cotton. They have the best indico in the world; and the trade in that of cocheneal is managed wholly by the merchants of Mexico and Carthagena, who buy to export them to Europe. Cocheneal is found in the governments of Tasbasco and Guaxca; dyers-wood in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras; and some pearl at Vera Cruz, and the Pearl Islands, &c. Nicaragua, Campeachy, and Guaxca send great numbers of black cattle to Mexico. Large quantities of snuff are brought from the Havannah to Vera Cruz, and there sold to the merchants of Mexico. Cocoa, which is a great article in their merchandize, is chiefly produced at Guatimala, Vera Paz, Sozonusco, Ciudad-Real, and Guaxca (which yield the best in America) and sent to Los Angeles and Mexico, Panama, Lima, Carthagena, Porto Bello, and from thence to Europe. The nuns of Guaxaca have the chief manufacture of chocolate from the nut, of which it is thought more is drank in the city of Mexico than all Old Spain.

It is said the people of Nicaragua and the Honduras employ 30,000 mules and horses to carry corn, sugar, cocoa, &c. into the inland provinces, and particularly to the city of Mexico. And, when the galleons come from Old Spain, the numbers of carriages, men and horses employed to carry their treasure from Mexico, and the country of Pachuca, to La Vera Cruz, are incredible.

The carriage of the European goods that come by the galleons back again to other parts, is a very considerable article of trade, as is also the carriage of tobacco, sugar, and other produce of Guatimala and Guaxaca, which comes from the south coast by sea to La Vera Cruz, all which is said to employ 60,000 horses, mules and asses, besides a proportionable number of men. Cocheneal, in particular, is thus brought over the mountains from the country of Guadalupe, 320 miles

miles north-west from Mexico. So much silver it also brought from Zacatecas, in the same province, that it is said 6000 mules are employed in the carriage.

Of the several audiences in MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN.

I. GUATIMALA. Joseph Acofta, who was on the spot, and gives the best account of New Spain, in that work called his Natural and Moral History of the Indies, makes this audience about 300 leagues in length, upon the South Sea; but it is indented by so many great bays in the North and South Seas, that the breadth is not half so much, it being in some places not 30 leagues, though in others 150. Acofta says it is in general a fruitful country, especially in Indian corn and cocoa, and abounds in cattle and good pasture.

VERAGUA. This, which is the first, though the least province of not only the audience of Guatimala, but of North America, joins on the west to Costa Rica; on the east to the government of Panama; and has the North Sea on the north, and the South Sea on the south.

SANTA FE, or FOY, in the middle of the province, is the place where the king of Spain keeps officers for casting and refining of the gold. It stands at the head of a river that runs into the North Sea.

PUEBLO NUEVO or the NEW TOWN, stands in a bay of the South Sea, betwixt Baja Honda and Chiriqui, seven leagues from each, and 60 miles south-west from Santa Fé, according to Moll, though others make it 75. Here is a large river, that falls into a sandy bay; and on the east side, where the true channel lies, there is a round hill.

Right before the mouth of the river is an island of the same name, about one league from the main. There is a low point just within, called Rhenchiera, where the Spaniards usually build ships.

It is but three leagues up the stream, and may be seen from the road.

Pueblo has been several times taken by the buccaneers.

CHIRIQUITA, or CHIRIQUI, on the same coast, 35 miles west of Pueblo Nuevo, stands in a plain of savannahs, surrounded with coppices and farms; and the chief trade of it is in tallow and leather. The harbour lies on a pretty large river, about a league from its mouth, and three from the town, to which is a pleasant passage; but there is only one way to enter the river, and that dangerous. This river falls into the bay called Galfo-Dolee, which must be distinguished from that near the bay of Honduras.

VERAGUAS, which stands on the river of its name, is a poor place, and drives no other trade than working the mines, where the slaves are compelled to dig and wash the earth in the neighbouring rivers, wherein bits of gold are often found as big as peas.

ST. JOHN DE CUEBLO, is an island upon this coast, which the buccaneers place 24 leagues west from Panama, and six from Pueblo Nuevo, and makes 12 leagues in compass. It is desert and mountainous, but full of wood, especially mast-timber, and has fine rivers.

COSTA RICA PROVINCE, or the RICH COAST, is so called from its rich mines of gold and silver, those of Tinsingola being preferred by the Spaniards to the mines of Potosi: but otherwise it is mountainous and barren. It has Veraguas province on the south-east; and that of Nicaragua on the north-east, reaches from the North to the South Sea, about 90 leagues from east to west, and is 50 where broadest, from north to south.

CARTAGO, the capital, 10 leagues from the North, and 17 from the South Sea, on each side of which it has a port, and is 90 miles east of Nicoya. Mr. Gage says, that in his time there were rich merchants here, who traded by land to Panama, and by sea to Porto Bello, Cartagena, and the Havannah, and from thence to Spain.

NICOYA stands 30 miles west of the gulph of Salinas, a large bay of the South Sea, on the frontiers of Nicaragua. It is a pretty town, and the head of a Spanish district, near the mines, which was taken and plundered by the buccaneers in 1687. It stands on the river Cipanso, which is navigable to it by large periaguas. The Spaniards trade from hence to Panama in salt, honey, maize, wheat, fowls, and a purple juice of a shell-fish in the neighbouring bay, with which they dye * their threads and wool, to mix with their Segovia cloth. This fish, which is, therefore, called the purpura, is not eatable. It lives about seven years, but hides itself about the rising of the dog-star. The shells, which the Indians are employed by the Spaniards to gather in the spring, about Chira, Golfo, Di Salinas, and other parts of this coast, being rubbed together, produce a slime like soft wax, made use of by the dyers: but the chief dye is in the mouth of the fish, and the finest juice in the white vein. The bay receives six rivers, has 20 islands, good anchorage and warehouses; and the banks of the rivers are full of villages, farms, and plantations of sugar canes.

* This is an instance that nature affords matters for dyeing that are little suspected; and it is very likely that we could easily do without logwood, if we had not an unquestionable right to cut it in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras.

The province of NICARAGUA, or the NEW KINGDOM of LEON, has Guatemala Proper, and the South Sea, on the west; the North Sea and Honduras on the north and east; and the South Sea, with Costa Rica, on the south and west. The winter here is rainy and tempestuous: in summer the air is excessive hot, but healthy. It is reckoned the most woody province in all New Spain. It produces good hemp and flax, and the wood used by dyers in Europe, called Nicaragua wood, but little wheat. It abounds with black cattle and hogs, but has few sheep. It has plenty of balm, cotton, sugar, axi, which is the American pepper, honey, and wax, liquid amber and turpentine, with which, and silver work, the inhabitants drive a considerable trade to Panama and Nombre de Dios. Whales and sea-monsters are frequent on the coast, but, as for the country, it is so pleasant as well as fruitful, that it is, as it were, the garden of America, the hills and rivers being full of gold, the trees and woods perfumed; and, when the Spaniards first came to it, they called it Mahomet's Paradise.

The other town is GRANADA, which stands on the south-side of the lake 60 miles south-east from Leon, where the Spaniards have mills for making of sugar, there being abundance of canes in the neighbourhood. It is the most frequented of any town in North America, for the merchants of Guatemala dispatch their goods from hence by the way of Cartagena, as thinking it safer than to send them by the gulph of Honduras, where they are often intercepted, in time of war, by the English and Dutch.

NEW SEGOVIA, is a city 30 leagues from both the former, to the north.

JAEN, at the mouth of the lake Nicaragua, 30 leagues from the North Sea. Here goods are usually lodged that come to or from the North Sea by the river, where they unload at the cataracts, and embark them in other vessels.

REALEJO, or RIA LEAXA, on a plain a league from the fort called Possession, and 15 leagues north-west from port St. Juan, stands on a river which falls into the South Sea 30 miles north-west from Leon, which city it serves as a harbour. It is capable of receiving 200 vessels, and the king of Spain's ships for the South Sea were formerly built here. There are intrenchments to defend the harbour, which is 3 leagues below the town, and very fine docks, but it has suffered much from the buccaneers. Its chief trade is in pitch, tar, and cordage, for which it is the most noted place in all Spanish America; they being exported from hence to Cartagena, Porto Bello, La Vera Cruz, and even to the Havannah. A fine river of the same name runs into the haven, which is safe from all winds, and has five islands within it fit for careening ships. The adjacent country is pleasantly watered with rivers, whereof that which runs into the haven has eight branches, whereby goods are carried to and from the villages, farms, and sugar plantations belonging to the inhabitants of this town and Leon. The port is the most in use for shipping of any in all these seas, especially between Acapulco and Panama, ships coming to it from all parts of the South Seas. It is sheltered by an island at the mouth of it that breaks off the sea, which would otherwise come rolling into the harbour, with waves as high as mountains. The island, lying thus in the entrance, forms two channels into it, one to the south-east, the other to the north-west, the last of which is by much the best for navigation; so that none but small craft go into the former.

The province of HONDURAS, or CAMAAGUA, extends east and west along the North Sea above 130 leagues, and in some places is near 60 leagues over from north to south, but it is narrower at both ends. It has the North Sea on the north and east, Nicaragua on the south, Guatemala Proper on the south-west, and Vera Paz on the west. The country consists generally of hills and deep dales, and has a good air. It is rendered the more fruitful, by the inundations of its river about Michaelmas, when the natives carry the water by canals to their fields and gardens. In many parts of the country, the soil bears Indian corn thrice a year. It moreover yields European wheat and pease, and has excellent pasture, with honey, wax, and abundance of all sorts of provisions, besides mines of gold and silver. The country was once exceeding populous, till it was thinned by the Spaniards, who are said to have tortured and put many of them to death, to make them discover their gold and silver; besides many more whom they killed afterwards, by forcing them to work in the mines, and carry burdens beyond their strength.

The bay of Honduras, which, as was formerly that of Campeachy, is noted for cutting of logwood, and lies betwixt cape Honduras in north latitude $15\frac{1}{2}$, and cape Catoche, the easternmost point of Yucatan, in latitude $21\frac{1}{2}$. The great lake of Nicaragua runs into it, by a river called Rio d'Angelos or Angelos, which is only navigable by small craft. There are several small islands in the bay, of which we have no description, particularly the Pearl Island, a little to the north; but they do not fish up so much pearl here as formerly, nor so large. Into this bay a small river also runs from the province of Veraguas, which the Spaniards call Rio de Sucre, or the Sugar River, because of the sugar-works here; of which the country is so full, that, did not the Spaniards

niards consume such quantities of it in the sweet-meats, preserves, conferves, &c. which they spend here, and in those they send home as presents, besides what they use to sweeten their chocolate, limonades, and other luscious liquors, they might be able to send many ship-loads of sugar to Europe from these two provinces.

R E M A R K S.

As it may here be expected we should give an account of the cutting of logwood * by the English, &c. so much complained of by the Spaniards, and assigned by them as a just provocation for their depredations on our ships, before the commencement of the last war in 1740; we shall give it as brief as possible from Capt. Uring, who was sent over deputy-governor of the islands of St. Lucia and St. Vincent, by the late duke of Montague the governor, and from Mr. Atkins, in his Voyage to Guinea, Brasil, and the West-Indies.

* Under the article LOGWOOD, we have stated the nature of this trade, and the right that Great-Britain has to the cutting the same, as well in a certain part in the bay of Honduras, as in that of Campeachy: since the writing of which, an eminent merchant has obliged me with a map of the river Bellese (a,) in the bay of Honduras, which I have particularly mentioned, drawn by Capt. Uring, who was a relation of his, and referred me to the perusal of the captain's voyages upon the logwood trade. I had, indeed, frequently met with those voyages quoted, and read the whole of his expedition to St. Lucia, but never before met with his map of the river Bellese, nor with the account he himself gives of the logwood trade as carried on there. But what the captain says, upon this occasion, corroborates the information that I have intimated to have received from others: and, therefore, as what I have urged, in relation to the before-mentioned river Bellese, proves to be matter of FACT; it is to be hoped, that some attention may be given to the expedient which I have done myself the honour humbly to suggest, with a view only to reconcile those unhappy misunderstandings, which still subsist between the crown of Great-Britain and that of Spain, in relation to the cutting of logwood in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras. The above was observed before the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

(a) See Capt. Uring's Voyage from Madeira to Jamaica and the bay of Honduras, p. 354 and 362.

The country where the English cut their logwood is, says the captain, all a flat, and great part of it a morass, with several large lagunes, which are very often overflowed. In the dry season, when the logwood-cutters have found a great number of trees, they build a hut near them, where they live during the time of their cutting. When they have cut down the tree, they chip off the bark and lay it in heaps, making paths to each, that, when the rains come in, which overflow the ground, they are so many channels, where they go with small currents and land them, bringing them sometimes 30 miles to the Barcaderas, from whence the buyers come to fetch it at the price of about 5 l. a ton Jamaica money. During the floods, the logwood-cutters dwell at the Barcaderas, which are 42 miles up the river, where they have their huts built upon high banks, to secure them in the time of the floods. As soon as they have notice of any vessel's arrival at the mouth of the river, they flock down, in order to purchase what things they want, which are chiefly wine, rum, and all sorts of liquors, provisions, and small arms, powder and shot, cutlasses or hangers, and ozenbrigs, which is almost all their apparel, except hats and shoes; and their pavilions are also made of ozenbrigs, because of the multitudes of muskettoes and other biting and stinging flies. Mr. Atkins observes, that the logwood-cutters were originally settled in the bay of Campeachy; but, being disturbed by the Spaniards, removed to the bay of Honduras, where they support themselves by force of arms, having, according to late accounts, 1500 masters and servants. The river that runs up to the Barcaderas, is not only narrow and full of alligators, but has a strong current from the land freshes, and the banks are so covered with shrubs, that it is difficult to row the boats which carry the effects. At the season for cutting logwood, which is once a year, they remove their tents sometimes many miles from their chief residence to follow the wood, which runs in a vein or line of some miles, perhaps like minerals in the earth, and they run over as many, perhaps, without finding a stick of it. They cut it in large pieces, and leave it on the ground 'till the land floods favour their bringing it into the river, from whence the canoes take it and carry it to their grand store at the Barcaderas. As they know what they must expect from Spanish clemency, they are always provided with good arms to defend themselves desperately against attacks, which are always by sea, but seldomer here than they used to be in the bay of Campeachy. A servant, which is the first step with seamen into the trade, is hired at a ton of logwood per month, and, having one day in seven to himself, he makes about 10 l. a month; so that, if they are sober fellows, they in time become masters and join stocks, or trade independently.

They have a king chose from among themselves, and his consort has the title of queen, and they are governed by certain

rules of their own making. The ships that come into the bay are on their guard also, and fetch the logwood down in flat-bottomed boats. The crew of each is allowed on the voyage a bottle of rum and some sugar, and they row generally in the night because of the stinging flies, and rest in the day. See the article LOGWOOD.

TRUXILLO, or TRUGILLO, stands on an eminence in the north side of the province 45 leagues north-east from Valladolid, and one from the North Sea; it is situated between two rivers, the mouths of which, and some islands that lie before, form the harbour, which lies at the bottom of a bay called St. Giles, is above two leagues broad, and is defended by a castle; but it has been plundered several times by the buccaneers. It is said to be the only harbour on this coast capable of trade, but has very little: the town lies a league up one of the rivers. The harbour is deep and secure, the country exceeding fruitful, and the soil moist and rich; and, notwithstanding the hot climate, it is exceeding populous. It produces both corn and grapes twice a year, and the cattle brought from Spain increase here prodigiously.

GRACIAS A DIOS, stands at the mouth of a river, upon a rocky mountain, which has some gold mines in it's neighbourhood, and was built the same year as Valladolid, from which it lies about 27 leagues to the west, to secure the miners. Mr. Gage says, that the neighbouring valley abounds with wheat, which is transported for the most part to Guatemala, and breeds very good mules and horses.

ST PEDRO, which Laët says is the residence of the farmers of the king of Spain's customs for this province, is above 30 miles north-east from Gracias a Dios. It lies in a hot unhealthy climate, but had a great trade before the discovery of Golfo Dolce, by which commodities are now carried up into the country. In 1666, the town was burnt by the buccaneers.

RUATAN, or RATTAN, is an island in the bay of Honduras, which was desert, and only the resort of pirates, 'till a few years ago, when the English began a settlement on it. It lies 8 leagues from the Mosquito shore, and about 200 leagues west by south from Jamaica; it is about 30 miles long and 13 broad, naturally fortified with rocks and shoals, excepting the entrance of it, which is so narrow, that only a single ship can pass it at a time, which was to be guarded by two forts. The view of this settlement was not only to secure a great trade in logwood, but to traffic with the Spaniards of Guatemala for cocheneal, indico, &c. For this purpose, 300 land forces, commanded by Major Cawfield, sailed from Jamaica the 13th of August 1742, under convoy of the Litchfield, and five other men of war, and on the 23d arrived at Port Royal harbour in this island, one of the finest in the world, where 500 sail of ships may always ride safe. This island is overgrown with wood, but remarkably healthful, and not near so hot as Jamaica, there being strong easterly winds here commonly to cool it. It has plenty of excellent water, a great number of wild hogs and deer, ducks, teal, pigeons, and parrots, and the sea abounds with fish of all kinds, particularly crab-fish and fine turtle*.

* The possession of this island would have proved a great security to our logwood trade in the river Bellese in the bay of Honduras.

The Mosquito, or Musquito Indians, are a nation on the continent betwixt Truxillo and Honduras, so situate between morasses or inaccessible mountains, and a coast full of rocks and shoals, that no attempts against them by the Spaniards, whom they mortally hate, could ever succeed. Nevertheless they are a mild inoffensive people, of much morality and virtue, and will never trust a man who had once deceived them. They marry only one wife, and never part with her, unless for adultery, which is seldom known among them; and so great a regard is shewn to matrimony, that even an elder brother, unmarried, gives precedence to a younger, if married. They have no kind of vice among them, nor any occasion for magistrates. When the duke of Albermarle was governor of Jamaica, these people put themselves under the protection of the crown of England, and their king received a commission from his grace, under the seal of that island, since which they have not only been steady in their alliance with the English, but warm in their affections, and very useful to them on many occasions. When their king dies, the next male heir goes to Jamaica, to certify that he is next in blood, and he receives a commission in form to be king of the Mosquito's, 'till which he was not acknowledged as such by his countrymen; though, after all, unless he is at war, he has no revenues nor guards, and very few prerogatives, being obliged, in time of peace, to fish and fowl for the support of himself and his family; yet he has presents sometimes from the government of Jamaica and the English traders, who often touch there. Nay, so fond are they of every thing that is English, that the common people are proud of every christian or surname given them by our seamen, who honour their general and other grandees with the titles of some of our nobility*.

* These people likewise may be rendered very serviceable to the English in support of their logwood trade in the bay of Honduras.

The province of GUATIMALA PROPER extends, according to the Sansons, 150 leagues along the coast of the South Sea, and 30 or 40 in breadth; but Capt. Cook makes the length only 70 leagues. It has the province of Honduras on the north-east, Vera Paz on the north-west, Nicaragua on the east, Sonorusco on the west, and the sea on the south.

The soil in the vallies is exceeding fruitful in corn, indico, cocheneal, and other rich drugs for dyeing, as well as cacao, and other Indian fruits; produces balms, bezoar, liquid amber, choice gums, salt, brimstone; and has large fine pastures, so covered, says Mr. Gage, with cattle, that some graziers are said to have herds of 40,000 black cattle, and as many sheep. The cattle run wild in the mountains, where they are hunted by the blacks, and great numbers are sent annually to Spain. Here are also several plantations of sugar, and mines of silver. But Cook says, their grain does not hold a year.

The rivers of this province abound with all sorts of good fish. Cotton is a staple commodity, as is also wax; and their bees make honey as white as the comb itself.

ST JAGO DE GUATIMALA, the chief town and the old city, which was one of the finest in New Spain, was utterly destroyed by a dreadful hurricane and earthquake in 1541, when 120,000 Spaniards lost their lives. It was built at the bottom of a volcano, with two tops, from one of which fire issued, from the other water. The present city, which is not only the capital of this province, but also of the audience, the residence of the president, and the royal courts, the seat of a rich bishop, suffragan of Mexico, an university, and the center of commerce in all those parts, stands in a fine valley on a river, about three leagues from the volcano, and is reckoned one of the largest cities in North-America. It is well built and populous, being thought to contain about 8000 families; and the citizens carry on a great trade, not only through all the provinces of Mexico, but even into Peru, by the ports of La Trinidad and Realejo, the one 25 leagues, the other 46 from it; and its trade with Spain is from Golfo Dolce, that runs into the North Sea at 60 leagues distance.

Many vast estates are got here by trade, and, when the merchants have left off, they go generally to reside at Mexico. The chief commodities in which they deal, are hides, indico, annatta, silvester; cocheneal, cacao, &c. and, indeed, no city can lie more commodious for an extensive trade, and be safer at the same time from pirates and privateers, for it stands 8 leagues (which Moll and Sansons call 40 miles) from the South Sea, and about 40 leagues from the gulph of Mexico, by which it drives also a great trade; but it is still liable to frequent earthquakes as well as to eruptions, from the volcano above-mentioned.

TRINIDAD, or LA SONSANATE, a port town on a bay of the South Sea, 4 leagues from Acaxatla, 65 miles south-east of Petapa, and 162 from Guatemala, consists of four or five hundred Spanish families, besides Mulattoes and Indians, and has five churches and a monastery. It is the place to which all goods are transported that are brought to Acaxatla from Peru and Mexico. It is 3 leagues from the harbour to the town, which is of great resort, it being the chief place of trade betwixt New Spain and Peru, and the nearest landing harbour to Guatemala for ships from Panama, Peru, and Mexico, but is a place of no defence. There are three volcanoes in the neighbourhood. The coast is low, and has good anchorage.

ST. SALVADOR, or CUZCATTAN. Moll places it at the head of a river, that runs about 47 miles, and falls into the harbour of St. Michael, 150 miles east from Guatemala. In the bottom where the town stands, there are manufactories of sugar and indico, and some farms of cattle.

VERA PAZ PROVINCE, has the bay of Honduras and the province of Chiapa on the north, that of Guatemala on the south, Honduras on the east, and Soconusco, with part of Chiapa, on the west.

The chief commodities are drugs, especially medicinal gums, sarsaparilla, China root, and mechoacan, achiotte, liquid amber which drops from trees, cacao, cotton, wool, honey, maize, wax, and feathers, of which the Indians make curious works.

CHIAPA is an inland province, having Tabasco on the north, Yucatan on the north-east, Soconusco on the east and south, Vera Paz on the east, and Guaxaca on the west. Here are great woods of pine, cypress, cedar, oak, myrtle, and walnut-trees and wood-vines; trees that drop rosin, aromatic gums, balsam and liquid amber, cacamahaca, copal, and others that yield sovereign balsam. Here is no want of corn, pears, apples, quinces, cacao, and cotton, and cocheneal grows wild.

The chief of its rivers is that of Chiapa, which runs from the north cross that part of this country, which is inhabited by the Quelenes, and falls into the sea at Tabasco. It is in short well watered, and drives a pretty brisk trade with the neighbouring provinces, especially in cocheneal and silk; wherein the Indians employ their wives, in making handkerchiefs of all colours, which the Spaniards buy and send home. Mr. Gage says, that, though the Spaniards reckon it

one of the poorest countries in America, because it has no mines or sand of gold, nor no harbour on the South Sea, yet it is bigger than most provinces, and inferior to none but Guatemala; that it is a place of great importance to the Spaniards, because the strength of all their empire in America depends upon it: and that it ought to be well fortified, because of the easy entrance into it by the river of Tabasco Puerto Real, and its vicinity to Yucatan.

The places of chief note are two towns, both called CHIAPA. The one is inhabited by the Spaniards, the other by the Indians. Its chief trade is in cacao, cotton, wool, sugar, cocheneal, and small pedlars wares. The friars are the chief merchants of European goods, and the richest men both in the city and country.

The audience of Mexico.

This, which is the noblest part of the Spanish dominions, is bounded on the north with New Mexico, on the east with the North Sea, or gulph of Mexico, has the South Sea on the south and south-west, and on the south-east side it joins the provinces of Chiapa and Soconusco in the government of Guatemala.

It is divided into seven provinces, viz. Yucatan, Tabasco, Guaxaca, Mexico Proper, Mechoacan, Tlascala, and Panuco.

The province of YUCATAN, or YUCATAN, is a peninsula, surrounded on the west and north by the gulph of Mexico, betwixt the bay of Campeachy on the south-west, and that of Honduras on the south-east, and has the little province of Tabasco on the south-west, and that of Vera Paz in the audience of Guatemala on the south. Here it is joined to the continent by an isthmus not 40 leagues in breadth, and runs out into the sea 100 leagues. It is in all respects a most noble country. It extends from north latitude 17 to 21, 30, and west longitude 88 to 92. The climate is pretty warm in the summer, which begins in April and ends in September. They have scarce any rain in the winter-season, which, however, is indifferently cool, excepting January and February, which are almost as hot as in the middle of summer; yet in the main it is a very healthy country, especially a mountainous tract, which runs from Salamanca on the west, quite across it to the east. The soil, when duly cultivated, bears plenty of corn, cotton, and indico, and abounds with all sorts of cattle, wild beasts, honey, wax, and fowls, and on the coasts are taken great pieces of amber: but, as no mines were ever found in it, the Spaniards have not been fond of settling here.

MERIDA is its capital city, the seat of a governor, and the see of a bishop near the north side of it, betwixt the gulph of Mexico and Honduras, about 12 leagues from each.

CAMPEACHY, or as it is called by the Spaniards ST. FRANCISCO DE COMPEACHE, the see of a bishop, is 120 miles south-west of Merida.

It stands on the shore, in a small bending of the land, near the mouth of a river, which falls into its bay on the south-west angle of this province; and is the only town on all the coast to cape Catouche, at the north-east point, that lies open to the sea. It makes a fine shew, the houses being built all of good stone. There is a dock and good fort at one end of the town, with a governor and garrison, which commands both the town and harbour; nevertheless, in 1659, the English stormed it and took it with only small arms, and it was taken again by surprize in 1678, by the English and buccaneers. The port is large but shallow. It used to be a noted market for logwood, as we observed in Honduras. See our article LOGWOOD.

The chief manufacture of the adjacent country, besides salt and logwood, is cotton cloth, which is the cloathing of all the natives, and even of the poorer Indians. Capt. Dampier gives this account of the bay: it runs in deep within land, betwixt cape Concededo on the east, and St. Martin's cape to the west, which is 120 leagues, and has many broad lakes that are navigable. From cape Concededo it is 15 leagues south to Salinas, where is a small harbour and a large pond near the shore, which yields abundance of salt that is transported to the gulph of Mexico. In May or June when the salt kerns, not less than 40 or 50 Indian families at a time come and rake it ashore in heaps: then covering them with dry grafs and reeds, they set fire to them, which burns the outside, giving it a black crust, which afterwards defend the salt against the rains.

TABASCO province is bounded with that of Guaxaca on the west, on the east by that of Yucatan, on the south by part of the audience of Guatemala, and on the north by the gulph of Mexico, on which it extends from east to west about 40 leagues. It being a narrow slip by the sea-shore, the climate is not very healthy, nor the soil exceeding fruitful, yet the people have good farms, well stocked with cattle, which yields them considerable profit; and moreover, they have great plenty of Indian wheat and cacao, which they send on the backs of mules to Vera Cruz. Most of the country is flat and moist, has marshes and lakes, abounding with fish, some of them very large, as manatees and tortugas.

GUAXACA province reaches from the bay of Mexico on the north to the South Sea, having the province of Tlascala on the north-west, and those of Chiapa and Tabasco on the south-east. It extends near 95 leagues along the South Sea, 50 along the bay of Mexico, and near 120, according to some, along the side of Tlascala, but not above 50 on that of Chiapa. The air is good and the soil fruitful, especially in mulberry-trees, so that it produces more silk than any province in America, except that called the valley of Guaxaca; most parts of it are mountainous, yet it abounds with wheat, cattle, sugar, cotton, honey, cacao, plantanes, and other fruits. It has rich mines of gold, silver, and lead, and all their rivers have gold in their sands; cassia, cocheneal, crystal, and copperas, likewise abound here; so that were the people industrious, they might be the richest in the West-Indies. But they are habituated to a slothful life by the clergy, who have 120 monasteries here.

The vanello, a drug so valuable for its perfume, and used to give a flavour to chocolate, is the produce of this province. It grows, indeed, in sundry parts of Mexico; but is no where so plentiful as here.

GUAXACA, the capital of this province, is a bishop's see, and the seat of a governor; 120 miles west of Spirito Santo, 230 miles south of Mexico, in the sweet valley of Guaxaca, which is 40 miles long, and 20 broad, and in the road which leads through Chiapa to Guatemala. It is a middling city, but has a great trade with both the North and South Seas. The river here is not fortified, so that small vessels might easily sail up, and subdue the country. The best chocolate in America is made here by the nuns, and exported to Spain. In the neighbouring valley there are many rich towns, cloisters, and churches, an excellent breed of horses, and great herds of black cattle and sheep, which afford wool to the clothiers of Los Angeles, and hides to Spain.

ST. ILDEFONZO DE LAS ZAPATECAS is a town on a hill, 20 leagues from the former. Its territory is rich in gold, cotton, and Indian wheat; and the river Alvarado, or at least a branch of it, is navigable to it by banks.

SPIRITO SANTO stands at the foot of mountains, on the north coast, towards the frontiers of Tabasco. The inhabitants trade in cotton, maize, and gold.

TECOANTEPEQUE lie at the bottom of a bay, in the South Sea, above 100 miles east from Guatulco. According to some, Mr. Gage says, that small vessels traded on this coast in his time, and that it was the chief fishing harbour in all this country. It had also rich merchants, who dealt not only to Mexico, but to Peru, and the Philippine islands, and by land, to Guatemala, to which there was a plain road along the coast.

TEPANATEQUE is a town at the foot of the mountains Quelenos, which, according to Gage, is one of the pleasantest in the country, and the best furnished with flesh, fowl, and fish, it lying near the sea and a river, and among rich farms, stocked with, from one thousand, to four thousand head of cattle a-piece.

TLASCALA province, or **LOS ANGELOS**, has also the advantage of lying both on the North and South Sea, having that part of the former, which is the gulph of Mexico, on the east; the province of Guaxaca, on the south-east; the Pacific Ocean, on the south; the province of Mexico Proper, on the west, and that of Panuco, on the north-west. Its climate, soil, and product, are much the same with those of Mexico Proper.

PUEBLOS DE LOS ANGELOS, the present capital of the province, and much the finest place in it. It even vies, for magnificence, with the city of Mexico; and the wealth of the place, or rather of the clergy, may be guessed at, from the yearly revenue of the cathedral and chapter, which amounts to three hundred thousand pieces of eight.

The best felts in the country are made in this city, and it has a mint, and a glass-house, the first that was known in all New Spain.

LA VERA CRUZ, the grand port of New Spain, on the North Sea. There was an old town of this name, which falling to decay, by reason of the badness of the port, and other causes, this new town was built at about 15 or 16 miles further to the east, there being a port, small, but safe, and so well situate, that it was capable of being effectually protected by a fort on a rock of a neighbouring island, which was accordingly built, and called St. John de Ulua.

This new Vera Cruz is not a place of very great extent, being not inhabited by any Spaniards of distinction, by reason of its unwholesome situation, between vast tracts of dry land on one side, and rank bogs on the other; yet, as to trade, this is one of the MOST CONSIDERABLE PLACES, PERHAPS, IN THE WORLD: it is the natural CENTER OF THE AMERICAN TREASURE, AND THE MAGAZINE OF THE BULK OF THE MERCHANDIZE THAT GOES OUT OF NEW SPAIN, OR IS TRANSPORTED FROM EUROPE. It abounds, in a word, WITH THE TREASURES OF BOTH THE INDIES. It receives a vast quantity of East-India commodities, overland, every year, from Acapulco. [See the article ACAPULCO.] At the same time, the warehouses are generally full of European goods; and, in fact, the merchants here

carry on as great a trade as it is possible for the Spaniards well to carry on throughout America.

This place has not only a very considerable commerce from Mexico, but by Mexico from the East-Indies; likewise from Old Spain, from Cuba, St. Domingo, Yucatan, and from Peru, by the way of Porto Bello; from Carthagena, and all the islands in the North-Sea; also by the river Alvarado, which goes up Zapotecas, St. Ildefonso, and towards Guaxaca, and by the river Grijalva, running up to Tabasco, Los Zeques, and Chiapa. The goods are sent from hence to Mexico, Puebla de los Angeles, Sacatecas, St. Martino, and other inland places, upon horses and mules, or in waggons drawn by oxen, and carts drawn by mules. The Barlovento fleet, which is a small squadron, employed to clear the coast from pirates; and interlopers come hither constantly in October.

When the flota, which is always obliged to winter here, arrives, and unloads the goods from Old Spain, and takes in those of Mexico, as well as the merchandize that comes from the Philippine islands, by the Acapulco ships, a fair is opened here, which lasts many weeks; sometimes 'till the ships are ready to depart: then this place may be said to be immensely rich; but the most wealthy merchants not only reside at the city of Los Angeles, the far greater part of the year, but also keep their plate there, till such time as the flota is just ready to go off, [see the article FLOTA,] which ought regularly to be in May, but is sometimes detained 'till August: therefore, the constant inhabitants of this place are only Mulattoes and Mestizoes, with a few Spanish factors, who, after a short stay, make vast fortunes; inasmuch, that he is reckoned an inconsiderable fellow, who is not worth an hundred thousand pounds. The inhabitants, slaves and all, are computed at about three thousand, and the city is about half a Spanish league in compass. The soil is barren, so that their provisions are far fetched, and dear bought. Vera Cruz having been taken and plundered by the buccaneers, several times, the Spaniards have built several forts, and keep centinels all along the coast.

The old town stands about a mile from the shore, and was called Vera Cruz, because Cortez landed here on Good Friday, in 1518.

The new town, which our sailors commonly call La Vera Cruz, stands 12 leagues to the north-west of the river Alvarado, according to Dampier, and 60 leagues south-east from Mexico, of which it is reckoned the eastern port, as Acapulco is the western. The men are haughty, and fond of state and ease; for which reason they are slothful, though they understand trade very well.

ALMERIA, called **VILLA RICA** by the Spaniards, because of the gold they found here on their arrival, lies on the coast above 20 leagues north of the former, has an indifferent port, and a better air than Vera Cruz, with a small river, good springs of fresh water, and a dry country behind it; all which are wanting in Vera Cruz. It is said that a great clandestine trade is drove here, between some Spanish merchants on shore, and the French of St. Domingo and Martinico.

The province of MEXICO Proper has that of Tlascala on the east, that of Mechoacan on the west, that of Panuco on the north, and the Pacific Ocean on the south. The climate is very variable, yet both pleasant and temperate. The soil is remarkably fruitful, and all the necessaries of life extremely cheap. Its commodities are much the same with those of Mechoacan, only the mines yield much more silver, which sometimes also hold a very considerable portion of gold. It is said to excel all the provinces of America, in corn, cattle, and fruits; and its lakes and rivers abound with variety of good fish, so that the tribute of the lake of Mexico alone, is above twenty thousand crowns a year.

The royal city, and archbishop's see of Mexico, is the capital of this province, of the audience, and of all New Spain, and the seat of the viceroy; it stands in the lake of its own name, on the east side of a valley, at the foot of a ridge of hills; and, according to the Spanish writers, lies in the latitude of 19, 40. That we may pass a good judgment of the opulence of this city, it may be observed, that the tenths, collected from the 11 suffragan bishops, under its archbishop, (viz. Puebla de los Angeles, Mechoacan, Guaxaca, Guadalaxara, Guatimaga, Yucatan, Nicaragua, Chiapa, Honduras, and New Biscay,) are computed at about half a million of pieces of eight, those prelates receiving, at least, 1,200,000 pounds sterling a year. Though this may help us to form some idea of the wealth of the Mexicans, it may be still farther conjectured, from this observation, viz. that there was brought into the king's exchequer here, in 1730, more than a million of marks of silver, as the king's duty from the mines, which ought to be one fifth of the metal taken out of them. According to this, the whole produce of the mines must amount to five millions of marks; and a mark being equivalent to eight of our ounces, if we compute this silver at five shillings the ounce, then the inhabitants of Mexico receive TEN MILLIONS OF MONEY PER ANNUM FROM THEIR MINES.

As to the wealth of the merchants in particular, it may be more easily imagined than ascertained, considering that they pay five or six times more for European goods, than they are to be had for where they are manufactured. Thus, a piece of scarlet cloth, worth, in London, TWENTY-FIVE, OR TWENTY-SIX SHILLINGS A YARD, shall be sold here at SIXTY AND SEVENTY PIECES OF EIGHT PER YARD; and it is common for a Spaniard to give frequently A THOUSAND PIECES OF EIGHT FOR A NEW SUIT OF CLOATHS: so that when this is considered, and that the money they return, is in proportion to such a valuation, what must be said of the wealth of this place? In short, the warehouses of the merchants shew it, who, against the time they go to Vera Cruz, to meet the flota from Old Spain, hire a prodigious number of horses, mules, and carriages, to carry the silver they have ready to be shipped there, and to pay for such goods as they shall purchase; so that it is no wonder the galleons bring off, from sixteen to twenty millions of pieces of eight sometimes from St. John de Ulua. See the article GALLEONS.

In the goldsmith or plate-worker's street here, which is called the PLATERIA, next to the great square or market-place, the shops are furnished with such a variety of utensils and ornaments of gold, silver, and jewels, as is not to be paralleled in any other city in the world; for the very negroe wenches, that walk by the ladies coaches here, WEAR BRACELETS OF GOLD, AND PEARL NECKLACES, AND JEWELS IN THEIR EARS; and the black foot-boys are dressed in rich liveries, DAUBED WITH GOLD AND SILVER LACE. Here they are always making church and family plate, especially when the merchants are bespeaking goods against the arrival of the galleons, at which time the shops and warehouses are filled with chests of plate, designed for Old Spain, &c. piled up to the very ceilings. The glasses, or sashes, like those of our goldsmith's shops, are full of gilt plate in services and fetts; the cabinets filled with vast quantities of rubies, emeralds, and pearls, rings, large jewels, and numberless toys, but especially gold snuff-boxes enamelled and set with rubies and emeralds, of which, it is said, that ten thousand are sometimes to be seen in this street; and hardly a fleet departs for Old Spain, that does not carry off at least five thousand of them. The Mexicans have been perfected in the art of working plate by the Chinese, who come hither every year.

ACAPULCO lies in the south-east corner of this province, on a bay of the South Sea, and about 210 miles south-east from Mexico, of which it is the chief port on this sea, as it is the chief mart on the coast. It is allowed to be an excellent harbour, far superior to any on this coast for it's being spacious, and withal so safe, that several hundred ships may anchor in it, without the hazard of damaging one another. The mouth of the harbour is crossed by a low island, about a mile and half long, and half a mile broad, which leaves a good wide deep channel at each end, where ships may safely go in and out with the advantage of the winds. They must enter with the sea wind, and go out with a land wind, which seldom or never fail to succeed each other, in their proper season of the day and night. The westernmost channel is the narrowest, but so deep, that there is no anchoring, and the Manilla ships pass in that way; but those from Lima enter through the south-west channel. This harbour runs in north, about three miles; then growing very narrow, it turns short about to the west, and runs about a mile farther, where it ends. The town stands on the north-west side, at the mouth of this narrow passage, close by the sea; and, at the end of the town, there is a platform with a great many guns. Opposite to the town, on the east side, there is a high strong castle, said to have forty guns of a very great bore. Ships commonly ride near the bottom of the harbour, under command both of the castle and platform.

The commerce of this place, with Peru, is not, as many writers have mistaken, confined only to the annual ship from Lima; for, at all other seasons of the year, except that wherein the Acapulco ship arrives, which is about Christmas, the trade is open, and ships of Peru come hither frequently, to sell their own commodities, and carry back those of Mexico: but, because the great importance of this place, is owing to the annual ships of Lima and Manilla, therefore some writers have been so mistaken, as to think that these are all the vessels which come hither: whereas, the only commerce which the Philippine islands have with the rest of the world, is by this port of Acapulco. Indeed, 'till within these thirty years past, there never was more than one annual ship, which passed between Manilla and Acapulco; but now there are two, one a prodigious unweildy galleon, of a thousand, or twelve hundred tons, and the other a frigate, or convoy, which carries betwixt twenty and thirty guns. This is the effect of that strict regulation, whereby the inhabitants are tied down, to send no more than this ship every year; which is laden with all the product of the East, such as ambergris, civet, bezoar, large oriental pearl, vast quantities of piece goods, and gold dust, to the value of one hundred thousand pounds sterling. This voyage to Acapulco is extremely dangerous, and the longest, by far, that can be made from land to land: they touch indeed at Guam,

one of the Ladrones islands, and, except a day or two's stay there, pass three thousand leagues, without seeing any thing but sea or sky; but no wonder such hazards are run, if it be considered, that the captain of the galleon makes forty thousand pieces of eight, the pilot twenty thousand, each of his two mates nine thousand, and every common seaman, with prudent management, a thousand.

They sail generally from Manilla towards the latter end of June, and arrive here always about ten days before, or after Christmas. About the same time comes the annual ship from Lima, laden with the richest commodities of Peru, as quicksilver, cacao, &c. and at least with two millions of pieces of eight, to be laid out in the purchase of Indian commodities, at the fair of Acapulco, which lasts sometimes thirty days; at which, such as come from the East-Indies, furnish themselves with European goods, brought hither over-land from Vera Cruz.

This ship from Lima stays 'till the Manilla ship arrives, and then returns. At this fair, Acapulco, which at other times is but a paucity town, consisting of two or three hundred thatched houses, becomes a populous city, crowded with the richest commodities of both the Indies, and with merchants from Mexico, Lima, Cusco, and all capital places of Peru, and even from Chili; insomuch that every house is then an inn, besides the huts and tents erected without the town; and people pay a dollar per day for their ordinary.

When the fair is over, the goods belonging to the Mexican merchants are transported over-land by mules; those which are sent to Peru, are laden not only on the annual ship, but on many others, and the galleon as soon as possible, prepares for her return to Manilla. It is to be observed, that heretofore the Lima ship was only a small twenty-gun ship; but since the British privateers have found the way to the South Seas, this vessel carries not less than 40 guns; and is moreover allowed one tender, sometimes two. The galleon returns from hence to Manilla, in much less time than she comes; for in her passage from latitude 17 to 19, she runs away before the wind, and performs a voyage of about two thousand leagues, in ten, twelve, or thirteen weeks at most. She commonly carries ten millions of dollars from hence, out of which are paid all the king of Spain's garrisons in the Philippine islands, which amounts to no less than two thousand five hundred pieces of eight. Dampier says, the two Manilla ships make the voyage alternately; that in June, when that which sets out in April from Acapulco arrives at Manilla, the other sets out for Acapulco, and stretches to north latitude 36, or 40, 'till she meets with a wind that brings her to the American shore. She falls in first with California, and never fails of a wind to bring her from thence, south along the coast, to Acapulco, and sets her passengers for Mexico a shore at Salagua.

The ships fitted out from Acapulco to Manilla, formerly went one year, and returned the third year; afterwards once in two years; but the trade is so much increased since, and it is managed with such dispatch at the Philippine islands, that there are now two ships sent yearly from hence, which return about the end of the same year. These carry out no less than ten millions of pieces of eight every year: that is to say, in money and goods; of which last they carry great cargoes, both of European and American sorts. The goods they bring to Acapulco, from the Philippine islands, are white and painted calicoes and chints, diamonds, and elephants teeth; fine muslins, plain, striped, and flowered; India romalls, and especially attasses, taffaties, and damasks; tea, especially bohea; cloves, of which they sometimes bring from sixty to a hundred ton at a time; nutmegs and mace, from twenty to thirty ton; cinnamon, of Borneo pepper, a greater quantity than ever; saltpetre and sulphur, quicksilver, sticklack, and several drugs; china ware, and laquered japan. These goods are dispersed from hence to all the coasts of Peru and Chili, which being so long, cannot but employ abundance of men, as well as ships, which generally return with gold from Chili, silver from Peru, and corn and fruits from both. See ACAPULCO.

PORT MARQUIS is a good harbour, a league to the east of Acapulco, where the ships from Peru generally run in contraband goods.

PACHUCA, 60 miles north from Mexico, noted for silver mines in it's neighbourhood, of which Gemelly says, that in the space of 6 leagues, there are not less than a thousand, one of them called the Trinity, at which one thousand men were employed every day, and from whence, in ten years time, they dug forty millions of silver; but that many of them were worn out, and others dangerous to work. When any person discovers a mine of gold or silver, he has the advantage of it, on paying the fifth of the product to the king; but if he forsakes it three months, without reasons approved by the court, it falls wholly to the king.

PANUCO province is bounded on the north, by Neuleon and part of the audience of Guadalajara; on the east, by the gulph of Mexico; on the south, by the provinces of Tlascalala and Mexico Proper; and on the west, by that of Mechoacan. It is situated under the tropic of Cancer, part in the

the temperate, and part in the torrid zone, about 55 leagues in length, and the same in breadth. That part next to Mexico is the best and richest, abounding with provisions, and having some veins of gold, and mines of salt, but turns out very little for want of hands. The part adjacent to Florida is wretchedly poor and barren. This country was one of the first discoveries of the famous Cortez, who took a great deal of pains to conquer and plant it, though it is a country rather fruitful and pleasant than rich, many of the inhabitants having chose to retire to Florida, rather than be slaves at home. This province is but indifferently peopled, and little notice taken of it in many authors, though it was a very extended sea-coast along the gulph of Mexico, with several roads and creeks, but no great ports.

It's capital, which is the see of a bishop, is of the same name, and so is the river whereon it stands. The city lies about 17 leagues from the sea, and 60 north-west from Mexico. It was built in the year 1520, by order of Cortez, and called St. Iſtevan del Puerto. It contains about five hundred families. It is said to have a large harbour, but such a bar, that no great ships can enter; yet the river is navigable within land, by vessels of five hundred ton, which might, it is thought, reach the mines of Zacatecas.

MECHOACAN province is bounded on the north by part of Panuco, and the provinces of Zacatecas and Guadalajara; on the east, by another part of Panuco, and Mexico Proper; on the south, by the latter, and the South Sea, which together with Xalisco, also bounds it on the west and north-west. It extends 70 leagues along the sea, and is of a greater length up the land. It lies in an extraordinary good climate, and fertile soil, and is withal so wholesome a country, that sick people come hither for health, from other parts of Mexico. It has some medicinal waters, which have several degrees of heat, and abounds with rivers and streams of clear brackish waters, which are of admirable use; for though the meadows, through which they run, produce a rank kind of grass; yet, instead of prejudicing their cattle, it makes them exceeding fat and fine. Here is a numerous breed of good horses, both for the saddle and harness; likewise, plenty of honey and wax, and of all sorts of fish. Corn of all kinds grows here in plenty, so that it has sometimes come up to one hundred fold; and no country in the world is better furnished with trees, either for fruit or timber. It's commodities are saffaparilla, sulphur, indico, cassia, saffra, cacao, ambergris, vanillas, hides, wool, cotton, silk, sugar, &c. But the chief commodity of all, is silver, of which here are several mines (besides others of gold and copper), and it's roots, called mechoacan, and sometimes white rhubarb, from it's colour and effects: which was formerly in very high repute, and sold in Europe at a great rate; but by reason of jalap being found to answer all intentions better, it is of late much sunk both in reputation and price.

Here are several kinds of trees, noted for their odoriferous gums and balsams. Besides their great and small cattle, here are herds of swine, without owners, wild boars, hares and rabbits, and, among others, that sort of goats in which the bezoar is found. And Francis Ximenes observes, there is a sort of bezoar found in the rivers, which he says, is washed down from the mountains, where there is a great store of bole-armoniack.

COLIMA is a large rich town, upon the South Sea, and near the borders of Xalisco, in the most pleasant and fruitful valley in all Mexico, producing much cacao, cassia, and other things of value, besides some gold. In the neighbourhood grows the famous plant alcacazan, which is reckoned a catholicon for restoring strength, and a specific against all poison. The natives apply the leaves to the part affected, and judge of the success of it's operation by their sticking or falling off.

NATIVIDAD, in this neighbourhood, is said to be a good port, from whence ships sail for the Philippine islands; it lies not far from cape Corientes, and serves as a harbour to Colima.

GUADALAJARA audience, or the kingdom of New GALICIA, lies farthest to the north of the three audiences of New Spain, though it is on the coast of the South Sea. It extends betwixt north latitude 20 and 25. On the east and south it has Panuco, and several provinces of the audience of Mexico; on the north the kingdom of New Mexico; and, on the west it is washed by the South Sea and the gulph of California, on whose coast it stretches above 200 leagues, from south east to north-west; but it is very irregular within land, and the north part especially is very narrow, yet in some places it is reckoned 500 miles broad.

It's climate differs much, by reason of it's situation, partly in the temperate, and partly in the torrid zone; yet it is far more temperate than any other part of New Spain, and in the general, reckoned wholesome; so that it is common for people to live here to an hundred years of age.

The land, for the most part is so mountainous and woody, that the coast looks like a desert. It is said the Spaniards have deserted the coast on purpose, that if strangers should land they may not find any temptation to stay, because, besides the silver mines already mentioned, there have been some of gold lately discovered near Compostella, of very great va-

lue: and they chuse to transport the ore by mules to Mexico, rather than expose so valuable a product to be intercepted by foreigners, if they ventured to send it in small vessels by sea. The country upon the whole, is pretty fruitful, and produces European and Indian grain in such plenty, that the former yields an hundred fold, though it is often destroyed by locusts.

Here are most sorts of vegetables, better than ours, plenty of sugar-canes, cocheneal, and bees without stings.

The pastures abound with all sorts of cattle, and the woods with venison, pines, and oaks, but are infested by wolves, and scorpions. Here are pepper, and medicinal herbs, that cure all sores, green stones, that are a specific against the gravel, fragrant flowers, valuable drugs, and rich mines of silver, copper, and lead. On the coast, also, there is a good pearl-fishery. The better sort of Spaniards are masters of the silver mines, and subsist by trade.

This audience is subdivided into seven provinces, as follow:

GUADALAJARA Proper, which is the principal province, and gives name to the whole audience, is bounded on the east and south by the province of Mechoacan; on the north by that of Xalisco; and a corner of it is washed by the South Sea on the west. Notwithstanding it's situation under the torrid zone, it is healthful, temperate, and fruitful, producing not only good timber, but European and Indian wheat in great plenty, and all fruits of both countries, besides the vast treasures of silver commonly taken out of it's mines.

XALISCO province, the most southern on the coast, is washed by the South Sea on the south and west; bounded by the provinces of Guadalajara and Mechoacan on the east; and separated from Chiamettan on the north, by a narrow slip of land belonging to the province of Guadalajara, and running out to the sea.

It abounds with Indian wheat and silver mines, but has very little cattle of any sort. According to Herrera, Menardes, and Laet, from this province is brought the oil, as the Spaniards call it, of the infernal fig-tree, which, among other excellent qualities, is good for dissolving tumours, and expelling wind and all cold humours, by anointing the belly, and taking a few drops of it in a glass of wine, as also by clysters. It is likewise of excellent use for ulcers in the head, and deafness.

Though **XALISCO**, an ancient city, is the capital, yet that which is the most considerable of the province is **COMPOSTELLA**, near the South Sea, about 30 miles to the north of it. It is a rich town, and has several mines of silver at St. Pecaque, in it's neighbourhood, where the Spaniards keep many hundred slaves to work in them; but the city is a bad situation, the soil being so barren that there is no pasture for cattle.

CHIAMETTAN province lies under the tropic of Cancer, one half in the temperate, and the other in the torrid zone, stretched along the South Sea on the west; bounded by Zacatecas on the north-east; by Culiacan on the north-west; and by Xalisco and Guadalajara on the south and south-east. It is a fruitful soil, and yields much wax and honey, besides mines of silver. The river of St. Jago falls into the sea here. It is one of the chief on the coast, and is half a mile broad at the mouth, but much broader within, where three or four rivers meet together. It has 10 feet water on the bar at ebb.

The chief town here is **ST. SEBASTIAN**, on a river of the same name, towards the mines of Zacatecas, a little place, where they purify the silver ore.

ZACATECAS province, so called from it's ancient inhabitants, is an inland country, well inhabited, and abounding with large boroughs. It has New Biscay on the north; Panuco on the east; Mechoacan, Guadalajara, and Chiamettan on the south; and part of Chiamettan and Culiacan on the west. It is, like the former, part in the temperate and part in the torrid zone, is about 100 leagues in length, and 45 where broadest. The west part of this province would not be inhabited were it not for it's mines, which are many, and the richest in America, for in all other respects it is of no value, as having no water, and producing no sort of provision; but the east part abounds with fruit, corn, and has many woods full of deer.

NEW BISCAY province is bounded by New Mexico on the north; by part of Florida, and Panuco on the east; by Zacatecas on the south; and by Culiacan on the west. It is about 100 leagues from east to west, and 120 from north to south. It's being well watered makes it fruitful; and it's situation a little above the tropic of Cancer renders it temperate. Though there is a mountainous barren part, called Topia, yet most of the country is pleasant, abounding with all manner of provisions; and though it has no communication with the sea, yet the inhabitants are very rich, not only in corn, cattle, &c. but also in silver mines and sugar works.

ST. BARBARA, **ST. JOHN**'s, and **ENDE**, are three little towns, built by the Spaniards for defence of the large silver mines in the neighbourhood, and are therefore well inhabited, particularly the first, which lies 243 miles north of Zacatecas. The second lies about 70 miles north of that, and is equally rich in mines and minerals; and the third, which is also rich in mines, lies 70 miles west of the second. These are the mines which Hennepin says M. De La Salle aimed at, when

he ranged the coast of Florida, on pretence of seeking the mouth of the Mississippi.

CULIACAN province has that of Cinaloa on the north; New Biscay, and the Zacatecas, on the east; Chiamettan on the south; and the gulph of California on the west. It abounds with all sorts of fruits. The great river La Sal, in this country, is well inhabited on each side. Dampier says, it is a salt lake, in which there is good riding, though it has a narrow entrance, and that it runs 12 leagues east, parallel with the shore. There are several Spanish farms and salt-ponds about it.

CINALOA province, which is the most northern of this audience, and stretches out farther to the west, has the gulph of California on the west; the province of Culiacan on the south; and the kingdom of New Mexico on the north and east. The air is serene and wholesome, and, besides pastures abounding with cattle of all kinds, the soil bears all sorts of fruit and grain, particularly Indian wheat, as also cotton, with the manufacture of which the natives cloath themselves, after the Mexican fashion.

NEW LEON, a province between New Biscay and the gulph of Mexico; but all the account we find of it is in Martiniere. He calls it a kingdom, and bounds it on the north and north-east by the Rio Brava, or Del Nort, which falls into the gulph abovementioned; on the south by the province of Panuco, or the county of Guasteca; and, on the west, by New Biscay; but says it has no towns, nor any considerable settlements; yet has many mountains, in which there are mines, whereof the most known are those of Cinalao to the north, and Guahate to the south.

NEW MEXICO, so called because of it's being discovered since the Old Mexico, or New Spain, which we last described, is sometimes stiled by the Spaniards a kingdom, and sometimes a province. It is bounded on the north by high mountains, beyond which is a country altogether unknown; by Louisiana on the east; by some of the provinces of New Spain on the south; and, on the west, by the gulph of California and the Rio Colorado.

But whether the limits on the north and east should be contracted or extended, is what we shall not pretend to determine, for there are no people that we know of to the north of New Mexico, nor is there a twentieth part of the country within the limits specified that is either cultivated or inhabited; nor is it any more certain how we might venture to extend the limits of it on the east side towards Florida, no one having attempted to fix the bounds between these two countries, except the French, who have introduced LOUISIANA into their maps, in the room of FLORIDA, bounding it with the British plantations on the east, and New Mexico on the west. The extent has not been discovered: however, this may be said, that what has been discovered extends 300 leagues north from New Biscay; and there is no less from the straights of California on the west, towards Florida and New France on the east.

As it lies in the midst of the temperate zone, it is a very pleasant climate; the summers are very warm, and the winters pretty sharp; but then the former are neither sultry nor unwholesome, and the latter are clear, without being intolerable. The weather, upon the whole, is, generally speaking, agreeable to the season, and refreshing to an European constitution.

The soil is beautifully interspersed with rising grounds, and with rivers well stored with fish; abounds both with fruit and timber-trees: produces turquoises, emeralds, and other precious stones, and has mines of gold and silver, and feeds all sorts of wild and tame cattle, especially cows. Here are also several sorts of fowl: and, in fact, it is said to be as pleasant, plentiful, and rich a country as any in the world. There are few great rivers in it, but several little ones run into the gulph of Mexico; and there are divers bays and creeks on that coast, which might easily be converted into ports.

The greatest part of this vast country is still in the hands of the natives.

Of the various nations in this large territory, mentioned by the Spaniards, the principal are the Apaches. These thinking themselves aggrieved by the Spanish government, about the close of the last century, made a general insurrection, and did a vast deal of mischief; but were at last suppressed, and have since been curbed by stronger garrisons. Mr. Dampier has more than once mentioned the POSSIBILITY OF PENETRATING HERE TO THE GOLD MINES, BY MAKING A DESCENT ON THE SHORE, OPPOSITE TO CALIFORNIA; AND, IT IS CERTAIN, ALSO, ON THE OTHER HAND, THAT THE SPANIARDS HERE WILL RUN NO LITTLE HAZARDS FROM THEIR NEIGHBOURS, THE FRENCH, [NOW THE ENGLISH] if the latter should come to have numerous settlements on the RIVER MISSISSIPPI. See CALIFORNIA, MISSISSIPPI.

The particular nations of this kingdom, or province, being not distinguished from one another by any certain limits, we cannot give any particular division of it into provinces and towns, as has been our method almost every where else, with relation to the principal places of trade; we must content ourselves, therefore, with shewing the face of the

country, from the best general account that we can find of it, which is from the Spanish travellers.

The following description of this country, is taken from the accounts given by father Alonso de Benavides, printed an hundred years ago at Madrid, with some small additions, from other persons who travelled here, as well as he, and from later accounts, which may be seen in Lact, Herrera, and others since them.

The way to it's capital, Santa Fé, (of which we shall presently speak) is through the province of Conchos, which is parted from New Biscay by the river of the same name. Next follow the Tobosos, Tarrahumares, Tepoanes, Tomites, Sumas, Hanos, and other savage nations, for 100 leagues north and north-west. Next follow the Apaches, a mighty nation; and here again we meet the north river, where New Mexico properly commences, and extends 100 leagues north from St. Anthony of Seneca, the first town of the Biroros, to the town of St. Jerome, in the province of the Taoros. New Mexico, properly so called, contained several nations in this order. At the north river begins that of the Piros, a civilized people, who are clad, dwell in houses, are subjects to their chiefs, and have abundance of Indian wheat, other grain, and cotton; the soil being fruitful and the air wholesome. The Tebas are next, inhabiting 15 towns; then the Queres, seven; and next the Tompires, 15; the chief of whom are the Chilili. Farther to the north are the Tanos, in five towns; and beyond them the Peicis, in one great town. Seven leagues west of them is the metropolis Santa Fé, where only 250 Spaniards, not above 50 of them soldiers, kept all this vast country in awe, only by the terror of their name; but their numbers are since mightily increased, not only there, but in all the other towns we mentioned. Not far from Santa Fé, towards the north river, live the Teoas, in eight villages, being the first who embraced Christianity, and most passionate lovers of the Spaniards. West of them are the Hemes; and to the north of them the Picaties; and beyond them the Taosits. Again, west of the Queres, is the town of Acoma, above-mentioned; and, 30 leagues farther west, the Zanis, in 12 towns; and, at the same distance, the Moquis: all of these are now Christians, whose lands are fruitful, and abounding in cattle and wild beasts, as do their rivers with excellent fish.

All this country of New Mexico, properly so called, is almost encompassed by the numerous and warlike nations of the Apaches, above-mentioned, differing from all the other natives in language, being clad in deer-skins, and living in tents, which they carry with them wherever they go.

Some geographers divide New Mexico into 15 provinces, many of the Spanish writers into 18, of which they give us barely the names; but the latest geographers seem to divide it only into five. On the other hand, some writers have subdivided it into 20, nay 25 provinces, and furnished us with the names of as many towns; but we find no description of any, but that which is by all agreed on to be the capital city, viz.

SANTA FE. It stands 130 leagues from the sea, near the source of that Rio Del Nort which runs a great way through the country southward, and then bending east, falls into the gulph of Mexico. It is said to be a rich city, regularly built, and is the see of a bishop, suffragan of Mexico, as well as the seat of the governor of the country.

California, though reckoned a part of New Mexico, yet we have treated it separately, for the sake of making such remarks which more particularly concern the interest of Great-Britain. See CALIFORNIA.

REMARKS before the last war, and DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

From this view of Mexico belonging to the Spaniards, we may pass a good judgment of the immense treasures of this part of America; and, consequently, how unspeakably beneficial these extensive territories must prove to the Spanish monarchy, when the commercial system which that court has adopted shall be brought to maturity. See the articles BISCAY, CATALONIA, FISHERIES, INDIAN-HOUSE of Spain, SPAIN, and SPANISH AMERICA, ACAPULCO, AMERICA.

The Spaniards, though an indolent nation, whose colonies were really so rich, so great, and so far extended, as were enough even to glut their utmost avarice, yet gave not over, 'till, as it were, they sat still, because they had no more worlds to search for; or, at least, 'till there were no more gold or silver mines to discover.

The Portuguese, though an effeminate, haughty, and, as it were, a decayed nation in trade, yet how do they go on daily increasing their colonies in the Brazils, in Africa, as well on the east side as on the west? And how do they increase their commerce in all those countries, by reducing the numerous nations in Melinda and Zanguebar, in Congo, in Angola, to the direction, œconomy, and to the government of commerce? whereby they subdue whole nations of savages to a regular life, and, by that means, bring them to be subservient to trade as well as to government.

But how little has Great-Britain done of this kind? How little have we gained upon the natives of America in all our colonies? How few of them are brought to live among us, how few to be subject to us? All our colonies seem to be carried on upon the mere strength of our own people, nor can we say that we have any one considerable nation reduced to intire obedience, and brought to live under the regularity and direction of a civil government, in all our plantations; a very few in New England only excepted.

As for new colonies and conquests, how do we seem intirely to give over even the thoughts of them, though the scene is so large, the variety so great, and the advantages so many? On the contrary, we seem to forget the glorious improvements of our ancestors, such as the great Drake, Cavendish, Smith, Greenfield, Somers, and, above all, the yet greater Sir Walter Raleigh, upon the foot of whose genius almost all the English discoveries were made, and all the colonies and plantations, which now form what they call the English empire in America, were established.—These we seem to sit down with, as if we had done our utmost, were fully satisfied with what we have, that the enterprizing genius was buried with the old discoverers, and there was neither room in the world, or inclination in the people, to look any farther.

Whereas, on the contrary, the world presents us with large scenes of trade, new platforms for business, enough to prompt our ambition, and even to glut our avarice; yet we seem to have little spirit for the adventure: and how should we, 'till our men in power are brought to revive this spirit? And the parliament, we are persuaded, will not want zeal to forward laudable endeavours.

Nor is there any want of people amongst us; on the contrary, here are thousands of families who want business, want employment, want encouragement; and many that want no stocks to carry with them, and are ready to go abroad, were the adventuring spirit revived, and some men fired with warmth for the undertaking, and but vigorous enough to make the beginning.

This is the way to raise new worlds of commerce, to enlarge and extend new funds of trade, to open doors for an increase of shipping and manufacture. The places are so many, and the advantages so great, for the making such attempts, that nothing is more wonderful of it's kind, than to see how backward we are to push on our own advantages, and to plant in the most agreeable climate in the world, in a manner so advantageous as never to be supplanted, and such as should make the English possessions abroad five times as great, as opulent, and as profitable to Old England, as they have ever been yet.

The description of these places, so proper for planting, so suited for commerce, and so qualified to enrich and aggrandize the British nation, is shewn throughout the course of this work; and, when the trading genius revives, and the adventuring spirit is restored amongst us, then it will appear there will neither want encouragement to such undertakings, or adventurers to embrace the encouragements which offer. Nothing is to me more evident, than that the civilizing the nations where we and other Europeans are already settled, bringing the naked savages to cloath, and instructing barbarous nations how to live, has had a visible effect already in this very article. Those nations call upon us every year for more goods than they did the year before, as well woollen manufactures as others. The Portuguese colonies in the Brazils, and on the east coast of Africa, are an unanswerable proof of this. The European manufactures now sent to those colonies, are above five times as many as were sent 30 or 40 years ago; and yet the European inhabitants in those colonies are not increased in proportion: we might give instances of the like in other places abroad, and that not a few: see in particular the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE in general, EAST-INDIA COMPANY of England, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, AFRICAN TRADE, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, BRITISH AMERICA, CALIFORNIA.

New planting colonies, and farther improving those already settled, will effectually increase this improvement: for like causes will have like effects: cloathing new nations cannot fail of increasing the demand of goods, because it increases the consumption, and that increased demand is the prosperity of our trade.

Here then is an undiscovered ocean of commerce laid open to us; and many specimens are humbly suggested throughout this work, which, if entered upon with the authority, power, and vigour of the public, would open such new channels of traffic among us, as it would be very hard for our manufacturers to overstock the markets, and as no petty prohibitions in Europe could stop the current of it.—This, we conceive, is one essential part of the grand commercial system which this nation ought steadily and resolutely to pursue.

It is surprizing, that in a nation where such encouragements are given for planting and improving, where colonies have been settled, and plantations made with such success; where we may truly be said to have filled the world with the wonders of our growing possessions, and where we have added not provinces only, but kingdoms to the British dominions, and have launched out to so great an extent of commerce,

since the days of our great Elizabeth: that now we should, as it were, put a full stop at once to all our great designs, check the humour of increasing, and, from a kind of mysterious unaccountable stupidity, turn indolent in this respect, when other nations are pursuing the contrary measures; not as if we found no more room to launch out, for the contrary to that is apparent; but as if we had enough, and sought no more dominions wherein to propagate and extend our maritime commerce.

In all other cases, and among all other nations, success encourages men to go on; increasing they endeavour to increase, *Crescit amor nummi*, &c. so in trade, the enlarging the bounds of a plantation, the swelling and thriving of commerce, and the advantages to the merchant and planter in all those things, certainly increases the desire of planting, enlarges commerce, and fires the merchant with the desire of extending his adventures, searching out new colonies, forming new schemes of trade, and pushing at new discoveries, for the increase of his trading advantages.

REMARKS on our article MEXICO since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of peace in 1763; occasioned by the reported infraction on the part of the Spaniards, of the XVIIth article of the said treaty, relative to our logwood cutters settled in the bay of Honduras. See our article LOGWOOD.

Let any gentleman peruse this our article of MEXICO or NEW SPAIN; let him consider only that part of it, LA VERA CRUZ, and he cannot but entertain a very high and exalted idea of the prodigious treasures of this part of NEW SPAIN: and must it not make the heart of a Briton glad, that he is soon likely to have an established near neighbourhood to a place as actually rich as it is represented, without exaggeration? Must not every Englishman rejoice, that now he is intitled to a situation in the BAY OF MEXICO at all; a situation, though not at present in a very wealthy condition; yet from its proximity to MILLIONS of MEXICAN TREASURES, may prove lucky enough to become instrumental in some measure, to put Britons one day in possession of those very treasures, which have excited Spain to treat this kingdom so ill for many years past. For if the Spanish dons should shew their supercilious airs against Englishmen, and shall dare to commit depredations upon them as they did in the times of a pacific British administration; should our Spanish neighbours presume again to cut off the ears of Britons, as they heretofore have done, in the exercise of their rightful navigation to, and from their own colonies, and shall offer to search British ships on the high seas, and molest our logwood cutters in their privileges of carrying on that trade, which they have so lately acknowledged our right to do: if the treasures of Spain make them forget themselves, we hope they will remember, that that very nation who lately dispossessed them of the HAVANNAH is able to do so again; nay, we conceive, that we are in a much better capacity to do it now than we were before the last war. For can the Spaniards flatter themselves that, on another rupture with them, we shall not make the best use of our near neighbourhood to that key of the Spanish Indies? Can they suppose that this nation will not render the PORTS OF ST. AUGUSTINE in the GULPH OF FLORIDA, as well as PENSACOLA and MOBILE in the GULPH OF MEXICO, and also the right of navigation to, and from the MISSISSIPPI, through that gulph, with their possession of the FLORIDAS, as beneficial as they will admit of? The Spanish ministry cannot think or suppose otherwise. And if the court of Spain should again resolve upon a fresh rupture with Great-Britain, we cannot doubt but the present near neighbourhood to the Havannah, will greatly contribute to enable us to retake the same, and that both at less danger and less expence than we were at in the last war. We may have a good fleet in the harbour of PENSACOLA, there being water sufficient for sixty gun ships; and even seventy gun ships, the largest requisite in that country in time of war, if they were built flat-bottomed, like the Dutch ships, might pass every where in that harbour. Nor would our situation at MOBILE be useless on such an occasion: and as the Floridas are likely to grow populous, and to receive strength from Georgia and South Carolina, &c. we should not be destitute of considerable aid of men and provisions to man and victual a good fleet, at far less expence than we have been obliged to do. Our fleets in the gulph of Mexico, together with another from Jamaica, would not find any great difficulty, we apprehend, to become once more masters of the Havannah; and if that should prove the case again, we can hardly believe that it would be in the power of Spain, and France acting in concert with them, to dispossess us: and if so, it is reasonable to think that the court of England will rather be inclined at any future peace, to keep it as a pledge for the future good behaviour of the Spaniards, than to restore it to them again; for Great-Britain, having for near these forty years experienced the maltreatment of the Spaniards, who have occasioned the nation to be burthened with MILLIONS upon MILLIONS of PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, cannot, consistent with her own safety and preservation, be supposed

confide in the Spaniards any more after their flagrant violation so suddenly of the DEFINITIVE TREATY. Nor would Spain dare to break the treaty, so soon especially; did they suppose, that we are not in a capacity to resent their treatment, and retake and keep the Havannah for ever after, with no less care than hitherto we have done our European Gibraltar; and if we determine to take and hold this key of the Spanish treasure, what hinders but we may become absolute masters of the whole Mexican gulph, and possess ourselves of the immense wealth of this part of America. We could then repossess ourselves of the bay of Campeachy on the one side of the gulph, as we are possessed of the Floridas on the other; and what hope could Spain have to dispossess us? The Mexicans could not resist the maritime force of England, and when we had the Havannah, France could not assist Spain to wrest it out of our hands; and therefore it seems no way unreasonable or visionary to suppose, that another immediate Spanish war, would put Great-Britain in the full possession of all the commerce and treasures of Mexico. Was this the case, such new acquisition of trade and wealth, would put us in a capacity to discharge those public debts, and annihilate those burthenome taxes, which the Spaniards have been instrumental to lay upon this kingdom: and without we do resolve to make ourselves amends for the prodigious expence this nation has put us to, since the peace of Utrecht, what will avail going to war with them more? We may as well set down tamely with insult after insult, 'till they shall repeat their depredations as formerly, search our ships on the high seas in their rightful navigation to and from our own colonies, and cut off the ears of Britons as they heretofore have done. We must expect a repetition of the like scene over again; and be contented with additional debts and taxes, 'till we can raise no more money to go to war at all, and then farewell the trade and navigation of these kingdoms!

After this nation has sustained the expence of 500 millions of money by the four last great wars, 'tis full time to think of reaping some equivalent compensation for so immense a burthen, which we have bore for so many years. And who is to intimidate us from possessing the treasures of Mexico for our reimbursement?

Our possessions in the gulphs of FLORIDA and MEXICO, seems to have laid a very good foundation for this further new acquisition; an acquisition, that would amply repay the expence if taken; and if the Spaniards once more, and so suddenly, and so ungenerously provoke us to quarrel with them, we are inclined to believe, it will prove of unspeakable benefit and advantage to this kingdom, by opening to us such new scenes of commerce we should never have thought of obtaining.

While this is writing, a letter from our colony of Georgia in North America concludes thus: 'We are certainly informed, that the French have ceded NEW ORLEANS, and all their territories on the west side of the MISSISSIPPI river, to the SPANIARDS; which is a very favourable event for these southern provinces, as the latter have no influence over the INDIANS, and are by no means that enterprizing people which the French are: and, in short, we are under no kind of apprehension of their disturbing our settlements. By this cession the French have now no possession of any part of the continent of NORTH-AMERICA.'

We may therefore, be the more likely one day, to get and keep possession of the Spanish Mexican treasures, if they provoke the crown of Britain to a fresh rupture with the Spaniards. See our article LOGWOOD.

MIDDLESEX, a county in England, is divided from Surry on the south by the Thames, from Essex on the east by the river Lea, and the Meere ditch, from Buckinghamshire on the west by the river Coln and the Shore ditch, and it has Hertfordshire on the north. It is not above 21 miles in length, scarce 15 in breadth, and not above 80 miles in circumference. It comprehending the two great cities of London and Westminster, and those rich villages of Hackney, Highgate, and Hampstead, on the north-side of those cities and their suburbs, it is by much the most opulent and populous county in England.

It's air in general is sweet and wholesome; and, as the whole county is made rich by the neighbourhood of those two splendid cities, so it's soil is extremely improved by their compost.

LONDON is the metropolis of England, the capital of all the British dominions, and the most renowned city in the whole world, as well for the numbers as for the wealth of it's inhabitants: for it's universal commerce, it's admirable polity, it's establishments for learning as well as trade. It is situate on the north-side of the Thames, with a gentle rise from that noble river, and stands on a gravelly loamy soil, which greatly conduces to the health of it's inhabitants. It is environed with fine kitchen-gardens, delightful plains, and beautiful elevations, that are adorned with a great number of splendid country-seats of it's citizens.

The dimensions of London within the walls, are 3 miles and 165 feet, but, taking in that world of buildings from Blackwall in the east to Tothill-fields in the west, and beyond Grosvenor and Hanover-squares, they are in length from Knightsbridge beyond Hyde-park corner to Poplar, 7 miles $\frac{1}{2}$,

and from Poplar along by the Thames to Peterborough-house beyond Westminster horse-ferry, above 6 miles $\frac{1}{2}$: and it's breadth, from the stones-end at Newington-butts in Surry, to Jefferies's alms-houses in Kingsland-road in Middlesex, 3 miles and 31 poles; though in other places, as from Peterborough-house to Montague-house, it is but 2 miles; and in some places not half a mile, as in Wapping. It's circumference, reckoning from Peterborough-house by Tothill-fields and the skirts of the town to Limehouse, is, at least, 18 miles. Various have been the conjectures as to the number of inhabitants. The most accurate accounts we have, reckon them between 7 and 800,000 within the walls, and it's dependencies without at 1,500,000.

Certain it is, that this city may boast itself to be the largest in extent, the most populous, and the best inhabited, and that by as civil, rich, and sober a people, their number being considered, as any in the world. And, for a general trade throughout the universe, all others must give her the precedence.

In order to give the reader a more distinct idea of the general commerce of this city, we shall subjoin an account of the several companies of the city of London, according to their precedence, beginning with the 12 principal ones, of one of which the lord-mayors have generally made themselves free at their election, if they were not so before; for they are not only the most ancient, but the richest, many of them having had the honour of kings and princes to be their members, the apartments of their halls being fit to entertain a monarch.

Companies.	Charitable gifts paid yearly, and privileges, &c.
1. Mercers - - - 3000	Exclusive of 20 per cent. paid yearly to the widows of subscribing clergymen during life, pursuant to a proposal accepted in 1698, when they settled a fund of 14,000 l. a year for that purpose.
2. Grocers - - - 700	
3. Drapers - - - 4000	
4. Fishmongers - - 800	
5. Goldsmiths - - - 1000	They had a privilege from Ed. IV. to inspect, try, and regulate all gold and silver wares throughout the kingdom, and to punish all workers in either that adulterated the same.
6. Skinners - - - 700	
7. Merchant-taylors - 2000	They were once styled Taylors, and Linen-Armourers.
8. Haberdashers - - 3500	
9. Salters - - - 500	In 1724, Mr. Betton, a Turkey merchant, left 26,000 l. in trust; one moiety of the profits of it to be always applied to the ransom of British captives from Moorish slavery; the other for the poor of the company, and to the charity-schools in the city and it's liberty.
10. Ironmongers - - 1800	
11. Vintners - - - 600	
12. Clothworkers - - 1400	
13. Dyers - - -	Hen. VII. made their wardens inspectors of sheep, lamb, and calves leather throughout the kingdom.
14. Brewers - - -	
15. Leatherfellers - -	By act of parliament 25 Hen. VIII. their wardens had the inspection of pewter throughout England.
16. Pewterers - - -	
17. Barber surgeons -	In the reign of Hen. VIII. the surgeons of this company, then but 19, were exempted by parliament from ward and parish-offices, and from military service.
18. Cutlers	
19. Bakers	The Brasiers are united to this company.
20. Wax-chandlers	
21. Tallow-chandlers	Queen Elizabeth incorporated the Pinners and Wire-drawers with them.
22. Armourers - - -	
23. Girdlers - - -	24. But-

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Companies.

Charitable gifts paid yearly, and privileges, &c.

24. Butchers

25. Sadlers

26. Carpenters

27. Cordwainers

28. Painter-Stainers

29. Curriers

30. Masons

31. Plumbers

32. Innholders

33. Founders

34. Poulterers

35. Cooks

36. Coopers

37. Tylers and Bricklayers

38. Bowyers

39. Fletchers

40. Blacksmiths

41. Joiners and Cielers

42. Weavers

43. Woolmen

44. Scriveners

45. Fruiterers

46. Plasterers

47. Stationers

48. Embroiderers

49. Upholders

50. Musicians

51. Turners

52. Basket-makers

53. Glassiers

54. Horners

55. Farriers

56. Paviers

57. Loriners

58. Apothecaries

59. Shipwrights

60. Spectacle-makers

61. Clock-makers

62. Glovers

63. Comb-makers

64. Felt-makers

65. Framework-knitters

66. Silk-throwers

67. Silkmen

68. Pin-makers

69. Needle makers

70. Gardeners

VOL. II.

This company has been highly honoured by the late prince of Wales, not only in accepting its freedom, but in condescending to be its perpetual master.

All brass weights made in London, or three miles from it, must be sized with the company's standard, and have their mark; the avoirdupois to be sealed at Guildhall, and the Troy at Goldsmith's hall. And the company are empowered by charter to view and search all brass-weights, and brass and copper-ware made within the said district.

It is only a company by prescription.

This company, which also includes booksellers, letter-founders, printers, and book-binders, have a stock which is employed in printing almanacks, primmers, psalters, many school-books, &c. of which they have the sole privilege, by virtue of a grant from the crown. They pay about 300l. a year in pensions and other charities.

The glass-painters are incorporated with them.

They are exempt from ward and parish offices, and have a spacious physic-garden at Chelsea; which, in 1721, was granted to the company for ever by Sir Hans Sloane, Bart. the lord of the manor, on condition of their paying a quit rent of 5l. and continuing it always as a physic-garden, and of presenting every year to the Royal Society 50 samples of different sorts of plants there grown, till they amount to 2000.

Companies.

Charitable gifts paid yearly, and privileges, &c.

71. Soap-makers

72. Tin-plate-workers

73. Wheelwrights

74. Distillers

75. Hatband-makers

76. Patten-makers

77. Glass-fellers and looking-glass-makers

78. Tobacco-pipe-makers

79. Coach and harness-makers

80. Gunsmiths

81. Gold and silver wire-drawers

82. Long bow-string-makers

83. Card-makers

84. Fan-makers

85. Woodmongers

86. Starch-makers

87. Fishermen

88. Parish-clerks

89. The carmen are a fellowship by act of common council, with the title of Free carmen of the city of London.

90. The porters, consisting of tackle and ticket porters, are another fellowship.

91. The wherry-men and lightermen of this city and neighbouring places, were, by act of parliament in the latter end of the reign of king William, constituted a society, to be under the direction of the court of lord mayor and aldermen.

Upon the whole, it appears, that the companies are 91, and they have 52 halls, and the number of liverymen, according to the account made out in 1728, is 8217. The sums of money yearly distributed in charity, by 23 of the companies only above-mentioned, amount to 23,655l. And, if but 40l. each be also given to charitable uses yearly by the remaining 68, which seems to be no extravagant supposition, take them one with another, the whole would amount to no less than 26,375l. per ann.

Of the incorporated societies of merchants, and of the shipping belonging to the port of LONDON.

1. The first society we shall mention is the RUSSIA COMPANY, first incorporated by queen Mary, anno 1555, and not only empowered to carry on an exclusive trade to all parts of the Russian empire, but likewise to all such countries as they should discover in those northern parts; which they did soon after much to their advantage, viz. the Cherry Islands, Greenland, Nova Zembla, Davies's Straights, and Newfoundland: and, in consideration of those valuable discoveries, their privileges were confirmed by parliament, and enlarged by king James I. but the company is not, at present, so considerable as it was, private merchants being admitted into the trade on payment of 5l. which has greatly contributed to extend this commerce. The Russia merchants export from England, particularly from the city of London, coarse cloth, long ells, worsted stuffs, tin, lead, tobacco, &c. and England imports from Russia, hemp, flax, linen-cloth, linen-yarn, Russia leather, tallow, furs, iron, potashes, &c. to a very considerable value. See the article RUSSIA.

2. The EAST-INDIA COMPANY, first incorporated by queen Elizabeth; but, about the beginning of the protectorate of Oliver Cromwell, it being imagined that the laying open their trade would be a very great benefit to the nation, it was therefore made general, and so continued till the year 1657, when the separate trade having proved fatal to the undertakers, they were, for the good of the whole, united to the company by the legislature. In 1698, a new East-India company was established by act of parliament, whereby the old company was dissolved, after a term of years; but, for the sake of their mutual interests, the companies were joined in 1702, and since styled, The United Company of Merchants trading to the East-Indies. The commerce of this great company being carried on from the city of London, has no little tendency to enrich that metropolis. For the nature and merits of this company, see the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE in general, and EAST-INDIA COMPANY in particular.

3. The **LEVANT, or TURKEY COMPANY**, was at first incorporated by queen Elizabeth, and their privileges confirmed and augmented in the reign of king James I. when they were empowered to trade to the Levant, or eastern part of the Mediterranean, particularly to Smyrna, Aleppo, Constantinople, Cyprus, Grand Cairo, Alexandria, &c. This trade is now open to every merchant who pays a small consideration. The whole is carried on from the city of London. The goods exported from hence to Turkey are chiefly broad cloth, long ells, tin, pewter, lead, steel, iron, &c. and the English merchants frequently buy up French and Lisbon sugars to transport thither, as well as bullion from Cadiz. The chief commodities imported hither from Turkey, are raw-silk, goat's wool, grogram-yarn, cotton-wool and yarn, dyeing stuffs of various kinds, rhubarb, galls, and other drugs, leather, cotton, &c. See **LEVANT TRADE**.

4. Here also the **AFRICAN COMPANY** is settled, which has proved more beneficial to this city and our American plantations, than to itself. See the article **ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY**.

5. The **HUDSON'S-BAY COMPANY**, incorporated by king Charles II. They carry on from the city of London chiefly, a profitable trade to all the places with Hudson's-Bay and Streights, where they have sundry factories, to which the natives bring their fine beaver, and other rich furs and commodities of the country, and exchange them for the English woollen manufactures, haberdashery, hard-wares, &c. See the article **HUDSON'S-BAY COMPANY**.

6. The most considerable by much of all the trading companies in this city, was that of the **SOUTH SEA**, established by act of parliament in the 9th year of queen Anne, for paying off a debt of 9,177,967 l. due from the government, and not provided for by parliament, for erecting a corporation to carry on a trade to the South Sea, and for encouragement of the fishery, &c.—By another the following year, the company (after the discharge of the debt due to them from the government) was made perpetual. In the year 1714, the capital of the company was enlarged by act of parliament to 10 millions, for which they received interest at 6 per cent.—In the never-to-be-forgotten year 1720, an act of parliament passed, to enable the said company to increase their capital, by redeeming several of the public debts. By the account of subscriptions upon this occasion, the capital stock of the company was increased from 10 to 33,543,263 l. 8s. 3d. For the effects hereof, see the article **SOUTH SEA COMPANY**, and **BUBBLES**.

By the first-mentioned act, the corporation was vested in the sole trade to and from all countries on the east side of America, from the river Oroonoko to the southernmost part of Terra del Fuego; and on the west side thereof, from the southernmost part of the said Terra del Fuego, through the South Sea to the most northern part of America, not exceeding 300 miles from the continent on the said west side (excepting Brasil, &c. in possession of the king of Portugal, and Surinam in that of the States General) and the company was to be the sole proprietors of all islands, forts, &c. which they should discover within those limits, to be held under the annual rent of an ounce of gold.—By letters patent also from the crown, one pound in every hundred pounds capital stock, was directed to be raised by the members, and employed in improving, enlarging, and carrying on the fishery of this kingdom for the use of the company.—In pursuance of the said first act, the proprietors of navy-bills and tickets, and army-debentures, were incorporated by the name of The Company of Merchants of Great-Britain trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the fishery.—And, on the peace that followed in 1713, queen Anne transferred to the said company the benefit of the assiento contract made with Spain. [See **ASSIENTO CONTRACT**.]

The company's application to trade with so large a capital, the effects of their traffic both to Greenland and the West-Indies, and causes thereof, and how much they might have contributed to the paying off, by the reduction of interest, the national debt, and establishing the sinking fund, will appear under the article South Sea company; where also will appear some secret history; which will shew how much the prosperity of this company has been regarded, and how greatly the trading interest of the city of London, as well as that of the whole kingdom, might have been promoted, in conjunction with that of the company. See **SOUTH SEA COMPANY**.

We now proceed to, though we mention it the last, the oldest of all the incorporated societies of merchants, who chiefly carry on their trade from the city of London; that is, the **Hamburgh company**. They were originally styled, the **MERCHANTS OF THE STAPLE**, i. e. of the wool-staple, and afterwards merchant-adventurers.—They were first incorporated by king Edward I. and, by leave of the duke of Brabant, made Antwerp their staple, or mart for the Low-Countries, where the woollen manufactures flourished more, at that time, than in any other country; for the company's

business, at first, seems to have been chiefly the sending of our English wool unwrought.

King Edward III. observing the prodigious trade of the Netherlands to proceed from that city's being made the staple for our wool, and what great sums were paid by England for the cloth that was made there of its own wool, removed the wool-staple, first to Calais, in his French territories, and then to several great towns in England, with a design to have our wool manufactured at home; but, unhappily for Britain, he was so deeply engaged in the French wars, that he did not pursue it.

Queen Elizabeth enlarged the trade of this company of adventurers, and empowered them to treat with the princes and states of Germany, for a proper place for the staple or mart of the woollen manufactures they exported, which was at length fixed at Hamburgh; from whence they obtained the name of the Hamburgh company. They had also Dort, in Holland, assigned them for another mart. This trade, at present, lies open for every merchant, on paying a trifling sum to the company; so that this society now have very little advantage from their incorporation. See the article **HAMBURGH**.

In order to encourage, and render the trade of this great city the more secure, both to the separate, as well as the joint adventurers, here is established, by act of parliament, two public offices, or corporations, for the insurance of ships and merchandizes, from hazards by sea, viz. The one called the **ROYAL EXCHANGE ASSURANCE** company, which is kept in a part of that building; and the other called the **LONDON ASSURANCE** company, kept near the Royal-Exchange.—See the article **ASSURANCE**.

Besides these assurance offices from the hazards at sea, it may not be amiss to shew the splendor of this city, to take notice that there are other public offices established, for insuring both houses, goods and merchandizes, from loss and damage by fire; which keep a number of firemen in pay, with silver badges of their respective offices, to assist in quenching fires: there are others again, of insurance upon lives, from which the subscribing survivor very often has a conformable dividend, upon the death of the relation or friend named in the policy, for paying a small yearly contribution while the deceased lived.

We shall now take a view of the **ENGLISH SHIPPING**, that trade to and from the port of London, from a list of all the ships that belonged to this city, which was taken in the year 1732. From the general register at the custom-house, it appears, that the total number of vessels is 1417, and of the men that navigate them, 21,797. And the number of ships that arrived at foreign parts, as well as from the several ports of Great-Britain, in one year from Christmas 1727, viz. British ships from ports beyond the sea, 1839. foreign ships, 213*, and coasters, 6837; in the whole, 8889. It is observed, that this number, prodigious as it is, has been considerably increased in divers years since: for in that part of the Thames, which is properly the harbour, and where the ships usually deliver and take in their cargoes, viz. that which is properly called the Pool, from Limehouse-reach to the custom-house quay, &c. there have been sometimes computed 2000 sail of all sorts, that really go to sea, besides barges, or lighters and yachts. And in the river, from London-bridge to Blackwall, are three wet-docks for repairing them, and 33 yards for building them; including the building of lighters, hoys, &c. but excluding all boat-building; wherry, and barge-building above-bridge.

* The average of the burthen of **FOREIGN SHIPS** has been pretty accurately computed at 86,094 tons, annually employed by **ENGLAND** (exclusive of those carrying provisions from Ireland). And the tonnage of British ships, belonging to England, in the foreign and coasting trade, at 320,000 tons; which, if actually employed, does not amount to four times the quantity of foreign tonnage; and hence a calculation may be formed, of the natural growing strength of our neighbouring maritime powers, so far as particularly relates to their trade carried on with England. See the article **NAVIGATION**.

Upon an estimate made of the share which London has in foreign trade, with regard to the rest of the kingdom, it has been judged to have about one fourth of the whole, at least, if a computation may be made by the produce of the customs, which are about three to twelve.

How considerable a figure this city makes in the government of the kingdom, appears by the influence her inclinations and actions have had upon the affairs of the whole nation, in past ages, as well as they have in the present. It is easy to perceive, that this city must have gradually arisen, from its first beginning to its present grandeur, through a long tract of successive times and ages, by the benefit of **TRAFFIC**, with the concurrence of the favour of princes, and likewise the convenience and advantage of its situation.

The number of people in London, render this city the center of foreign commerce; here a great quantity of goods, from all foreign countries, are brought in, because here is always a market,

market, and here they can be consumed; whereas, take all the other ports of England, many of them can send ships laden out, but few can bring them laden home; for example:

The city of Bristol is the most capable of this next to London, and even Bristol cannot always dispose of the loading of ships home; Yarmouth can send, perhaps, 8 or 10 large ships out to the Streights, viz. to Cadiz, to Malaga, to Leghorn, to Venice every year, laden with red-herrings. But if these ships load back with currants from Zant, oil from Gallipoli, silk and linen, raisins and oil from Messina, silk and wines, fine oils, anchovies, capers, &c. from Leghorn; silks, and pepper, and sulphur, and blocks of marble from Genoa, what shall they do with those at Yarmouth? They must all unlade, and deliver their cargoes at London, and in like manner of the rest; so that the bulk of London makes the trade of England, and those people are greatly mistaken, who imagine that the growing magnitude and splendor of this city, is too much for the whole country; alledging, that the nation is liver-grown, and must die of a pleura. The city, say they, drawing away the nourishment from the country, as a dropsy swells the body, but draws the nourishment away from the extreme parts.—But this should seem to be a mistake; the simile will not hold; for this swelling the body of the city, makes it the grand center of nourishment to the whole nation; and, as every part of the kingdom sends up hither the best of their produce, so they carry back a return of wealth: the money flows from the city into the remotest parts, and furnishes them again to increase that produce, to improve the lands, pay rent to their landlords, taxes to their governors, and supply their families with necessaries; and all this is the apparent effects of trade, derived from the metropolis.

Nor should we know any thing considerable of this trade, if the greatness of the city did not cause it; here the manufactures, as well as produce of the several counties, are amassed for sale, as well for the circulation of commerce at home, as the exportation to countries abroad.

Here ships from all parts arrive, and several of the most considerable branches of trade are confined to this city by law: the East-India trade is all settled here; the Greenland trade deliver all here; the Italian thrown silk is confined to be imported here, and here only, and at no other port in England: here the African company import a considerable part of their gold, as the South Sea company did also their silver when they carried on trade: in a word, London is the great gulph of the British trade; and, as it comes in here, so it goes out again from hence to all parts of the nation, circulating in home trade from the merchant to the consumer. Nor let us suppose that the influence of this city is small, at the remoter distances of the country, but just the contrary; for multitudes of people are employed in the extreme parts of England, for the supply of London, either with food or fuel, or manufactures, and that to a degree almost beyond credibility: for example:

COALS.

What a prodigy of trade does the bare bringing coals, from the north to London, keep up in the nation? Certain it is, that no less than 30,000 people are always employed underground, in digging them at Newcastle upon Tyne; a thousand sail of ships are employed in carrying them, and ten thousand seamen, lightermen, keelmen, and boatmen, in the loading, carrying, and unloading the coals.

PROVISIONS in general.

The trade carried on, with respect to the article of provisions only, is not the least considerable; the butter trade in Yorkshire and Suffolk; the cheese trade in Wilts, Gloucester, Warwickshire, and Cheshire, all remote from London, and all employed for the supply of London; where (according to the most moderate accounts) above fifty thousand tons of cheese is consumed in a year, and as much butter; with this difference only, that the butter is most of it made near London, that is to say, within 40 or 50 miles, the cheese generally from 70 to 150 miles.

The multitudes of people concerned in, and employed by these things in the most remote parts of the kingdom, are not to be conceived, much less calculated, but by those who understand the particular funds of provisions, and the places where they are made: how many lands do they cause to be cultivated and improved, by the vast stocks of cows fed on them? How many, by the numbers of black cattle fed in the farthest parts of England, every way, as in Lancashire and Westmoreland, the North-riding of Yorkshire, the counties of Lincoln, Norfolk, Suffolk, Kent, and Sussex? And such cattle too, as are to be seen in no other parts of the world. Again, the prodigious extent of grounds, in the wilder and remoter parts of Scotland one way, and Wales another, and the mountains of Yorkshire and Durham another; all employed in breeding, as the other are in feeding the stores of black cattle for the market in London.

The like may be said of the sheep, which take up whole coun-

ties and tracts of lands in several parts of the country; as in Leicester and Lincolnshire, Northampton and Bucks, the bank of Tees, and Rumney-marshes in Kent, all these for large sheep: Salisbury-plain, Dorchester, and Winchester, and Mariborough-downs, and all the open country between, for near 50 miles square, for middling-sized sheep; as likewise the Cats-would-hills, Leominster-fields, the south downs in Sussex, Bansted-downs, Newmarket, and Lincoln-heaths, whose numbers are numberless, and all for the supply of London.

What an infinite number of people do these employ? what millions of acres of land do they improve? and how do they create and propagate trade, even in the remotest corners of the island, all moved, supplied, and the trade supported by the prodigious demand of all these things at the capital city? not half of which would be felt, if the capital city and its adjacent multitudes were separated, and dwelt in ten or fifteen several cities, remote from one another, and every one subsisting, as it were, by itself; I say, though there would be the same number of people to feed, there would not be half the trade or business occasioned to feed them.

It is ordinarily said, that there are 30,000 higlars, and travelling market folks, as we call them, about this city, a poor sort of people that are wholly employed to bring butter, eggs, pigeons, and poultry, &c. to the London markets, and bring veal, pork, and smaller things up and down, from house to house, and every one of them almost have a horse, some more, some carts, &c.—The like of gardeners, whose number is prodigiously increased, and who now keep carts, and whole teams of horses, or large luggage boats upon the river, and employ an incredible quantity of land, for 10 miles round the city.

These are some of the benefits of a capital city, as to trade: we might give a great many examples of other advantages, which a conflux of people necessarily brings with it; but the magnitude of the English inland commerce is a testimony of it; the influence of the city upon it all has evidently been, not the support only, but the very birth and foundation of the trade itself.

The article of malt, and malt-liquor, affords another extensive branch of trade in this city. The number of inns, and public drinking and eating-houses, which are to be seen in London, and the parts adjacent, is even so scandalously great, that, should it be made public, strangers would hardly think it credible: but if we also consider the number that depend upon them, such as maltsters, malt-makers, brewers and their servants, horses, carriages, farmers, plowmen, &c. who all get their bread by the drinking trade in this city; reckoning from the sowing of the barley to the consumer of the liquor; how many thousands more would there still be, that would have their bread to seek, and new employments to look out for, if the drinking of malt-liquor was to be taken wholly out of trade, and the practice of it at once left off?

The city of Rostock, in the duke of Mecklenburg's country, is famous for its brewery, and for the great quantity of beer they brew there, and export to other countries; and, indeed, it is the principal trade of the whole port; yet I am informed, that there are two brewing offices in London, that brew a greater quantity of beer than all that city: and, if it is true, that there are two brewers in London, who brew each of them 1000 barrels a week, which make 104,000 barrels a year, I believe Rostock cannot go beyond it.

From the beer and ale, let us pass to the distillers of malt-spirits, who, in this city, do not consume less than 200,000 quarters of malt every year, besides 15,000 hogheads of cyder, in the distilling or drawing spirits. Add to this, all the several quantities of spirits extracted from melasses, from eager, and damaged wines, and bottoms; whose number we cannot easily guess at.

Consider, likewise, the wines, brandy, rum, cyder, and other liquors consumed in this city, which, according to some, is not less than 50,000 tons of wine, and 10,000 tons of brandy, cyder, and all other liquors.

The quantity of the woollen manufactures, consumed and trafficked in within this city, is immense. The wool and the oil used, are the great principles of this manufacture in general, and are brought from different channels to the hands of the manufacturers; and, indeed, pass a long way in the ordinary course of trade, before they meet at the clothier's house.—The oil chiefly comes from Gallipoli, a city in the gulph of Otranto in Italy, and in the kingdom of Naples, as likewise from Seville and Cadiz in Spain, and from Faro, Figuera, Lisbon, and Oporto, in Portugal.—We need not add, that this is imported by the merchant, bought by the tradesmen, and sold to the manufacturer.

The wool has many channels, as well from abroad as at home.—Wool from abroad makes only two articles. 1. Spanish wool, of which we need say no more than is said of oil; it is mostly imported in large quantities from Spain, by London merchants, is bought by London tradesmen, sold again to the clothier; being mostly worked up with the English wool, and mixed together, the Spanish being too fine and short, to use by itself, except in some particular goods. 2. Irish wool,

admitted

admitted to be imported.—We have sometimes, and in small quantities, a good sort of wool from Barbary, the African wool being of good substance, a long full staple, and not very coarse.—We have also sometimes Carmentia wool imported from Turkey, which is very good, but the quantity very small.—3. The English wool is the principal article of this manufacture.

The weavers of Spittlefields, London, send exceeding great quantities of wool into remote counties, to be spun; they particularly employ a great part of the poor of the whole counties of Cambridge, Bedford, and Hertford; nay, they even send large quantities into the north, as far as Westmoreland, to be spun, and the yarn is brought back in the same manner to London.

Besides the great consumption of the woollen manufactures in general, in London, the exports from thence to foreign nations is not less than three quarters of what is sent out of England.

The silk manufacture of Spittlefields is arrived to a greater degree of perfection, than that of any other nation. France long surpassed all countries in the world, and, indeed, engrossed a great part of the trade in Europe, in this general article of apparel; but, as we now vie with them in quality, it is to be hoped we may likewise do so in the cheapness; and then we cannot fail greatly to increase our exportations herein.

The hard-ware manufacture, and the trade in metals in general, within the city of London, and from that port to foreign countries, is an article of no little consideration. Our Birmingham hard-ware has arrived at so great perfection, that it beats that of the whole world, not only in the excellency of workmanship, but in point of cheapness also.—And, with regard to the quantities of tin and lead, these are not found in greater plenty, than they are in Great-Britain, in any state of Europe; and our exports, in these articles, from our metropolis, tend greatly to enrich the whole kingdom in general, as well as the citizens of London in particular.

The quantity of corn consumed in the city of London, and parts adjacent, is so great, and the way of it's being brought thither so different, that it is scarce possible to make an accurate computation of it: it is our felicity, in England, that, how great and grievous soever taxes have been, we are not yet come to a gabelle, or tax upon corn; as is the case of Italy, and many other countries, and may in time become our case, if wars and public perplexities increase upon us. Were that our case, an evil of this kind would have enabled us to have calculated, exactly, the quantity of corn brought to the London market, as well as to all the rest of the great corn markets in England.

It may suffice, at present, to observe, that besides the prodigious quantity of corn and meal, and malt, brought by sea, and by the navigation of the Thames, and other rivers; such as the Medway, the Lea, and several smaller rivers, to London, the like of which is not to be seen in the world; there is also a very great quantity, especially of meal and malt, brought by land-carriage, from the counties of Surry, Kent, Suffex, and Hampshire; for the wheat is carried by land, even beyond Winchester, to Farnham market, and from thence to the mills about Guildford, and all the adjacent country, and then to London by water.

In like manner wheat is brought from Northamptonshire; nay, from Harborough in Leicestershire, and from Bedford, to the great markets of Hempstead, St. Albans, and Hitchin; and being then ground at innumerable mills, in the county of Hertford chiefly, which abounds with such mills, is brought to London by land-carriage.

This vast carriage of corn and meal to London is a branch of trade, and is to be reckoned as such; for there are many farmers, and others that are not farmers, who keep teams of horses, on purpose to let them out, for the bringing of corn and malt to London; and generally these carriages return laden with coals, grocery, wine, salt, oil, iron, cheese, and other heavy goods, for shop-keepers, and tradesmen of the country, and it is a very great return they make for the mere expence of this carriage.

By the computations of the burials and christenings in this city, one may be enabled to compare the bigness and populousness of it with other great cities in the world. As, for example, in the year 1707, the christenings in the imperial city of Vienna, amounted to 3,963, and the burials to 4,354; whereas the burials in London, the same year, were 21,600, and the christenings 16,066.

Yet farther, to set forth the surpassing eminency of this city, on account of the vast numbers of people it consists of, Sir William Petty makes a comparison under divers heads, between that and Paris, now one of the most flourishing cities in Europe, and to exceed it in all these particulars following:

I. In the wealth and great estates of the inhabitants, the number of their servants, and greatness of their equipages. II. In the wholesomeness of the air. III. In the cleanly and more convenient way of living. IV. In the preference of the river Thames to that of Seine, both in pleasantness and navigableness, and in the wholesomeness of it's waters, and the great bridge of London built over it. V. In the shipping and foreign trade; London therein incomparably exceeding both

Paris and Roan. VI. In the cheapness of all the most necessary sorts of food, and the great variety and plenty of all sorts of drink. VII. In the cheapness, likewise, and goodness of fuel, and conveniency of stowage. VIII. In the magnificence of the churches; none at Paris being so great as St. Paul's hath been and now is, none so beautiful as king Henry the Seventh's chapel. IX. In the courts of inns and chancery, and the lawyers chambers: And, lastly, in the hospitals, so many and so richly endowed, and for the relief of multitudes of miserable and distressed people of all sorts.

Collected bodies of people are also a particular assistance to trade; and, therefore, to have one great and capital city in a kingdom is a very great advantage to trade, and much more than if the same number of people dwelt in several places. For example:

Suppose the city of London, and it's suburbs, to contain 1,500,000 people, as some have computed, though we believe that number to be much too large, it seems far more to the advantage of the whole kingdom, in respect to it's commerce, that it should be so, than that the same number of people were divided equally, and lived in 15 several cities, remote from one another.

It is the same as to navigation: it is much better that they have here one commanding port, one noble navigable river, than that they had, in their divided and remote situation, as above, 15 navigable rivers, one to every city.

Spain is a remarkable instance of this: there is no capital city, except that, or rather the village of Madrid, where the court resides, which is supposed to contain 300,000 people; but it has neither sea-port or inland navigation, no navigable rivers being near it; the nearest is the Tagus, or Toledo, which is not only distant 12 leagues, at least, but does not open into the sea in the same dominions, but in Portugal; so that it is no navigation at all as to Spain.

Spain has abundance of other populous cities and sea-ports in it, dispersed and remote from one another, as Seville, Granada, Valencia, Toledo, Cordova, and several others.

Seville has at least 300,000 people in it also, and several of the rest from 100,000 to near 200,000, at Cadiz, Barcelona, Malaga, Saragossa, Valencia, Granada, which last city our best geographers reckon to be very near as populous as Seville or Madrid; the best accounts we can meet with from the Spaniards themselves are as follow:

1. Madrid, 24,000 families, half of which are of nobility and quality, having from 20 to 30 and upwards in family, the rest being of the ordinary rate.

Besides estimating the king's household at the Pardo, which, including the ordinary guards, is said to contain always 12,000 souls. 2. Seville, containing 60,000 families, at six in a house, 360,000 souls. 3. Granada, 50,000 families. 4. Malaga. 5. Cordova. 6. Valencia. 7. Barcelona. 8. Saragossa. 9. Cadiz. 10. Majorca; each of these 15,000 families; which, with the poor and the religious houses, make far above 100,000 in each city.

The reason of naming these cities will appear presently: put them all together, they are not supposed to contain more people than the city of London, and those adjacent towns to London which depend upon their supply of provisions from the city, including also the ships in the river.

Now as these cities stand all remote from one another, and most of them in the most rich and fertile soil, or near the sea-coasts, or on the banks of navigable rivers, their supply of provisions, fuel, cloathing, equipage, furniture, and take it of as many kinds as you please, does neither come with difficulty, call for multitudes of hands to be employed in raising, procuring, fetching, or carrying them; nor does it influence the country to any perceptible degree, except, perhaps, for 20 or 30 miles round them. But were all these cities, that is to say, the number of the inhabitants included in them, all joined in one capital, suppose Madrid, and though you were to suppose Madrid had a noble navigable river coming up to it, such as the Tagus, or the Ebro, or the Guadalquivir, it is evident the whole kingdom of Spain, large and spacious as it is, for it may be reckoned almost 500 miles square, would be engaged and influenced, more or less, in supplying that one city with provisions.

All the sea coasts, and all the cities and ports upon those coasts, would be busied, and fleets of ships employed to furnish wine, corn, oil, fruits, and foreign importations of every kind, all to the capital port of Madrid.

All the inland provinces would be engaged and employed in ploughing and sowing the lands, to raise corn, planting vines and groves of olives, to make wine and oil for this great metropolis.

All the rich meadows and pastures would be improved to feed and fatten the black cattle, to nourish the cows, suckle the calves, and furnish beef, veal, and milk, butter, cheese, &c. and all the mountains, the forests, and plains, for breeding the black cattle and horses before they come to those rich pastures; also the plains must be covered with flocks of sheep, which are now dispersed and scattered a few and few together: and thus, as it is in England, every province would be providing something for the capital.

Nor is it a just objection to say, the same number of people will consume the same quantity of provisions, in whatever situation they may be placed; for, though the quantity should be the same, yet the influence upon trade, occasioned by it's being all pointed to one center, is such as quite alters the case, and would put the whole body of the people into motion, as it is in England. What fleets would there be employed to bring oil from Seville and Majorca, wine from Cadiz, Malaga, Alicant, Barcelona, and Galicia, &c. fish, wrought iron and steel, all sorts of weapons, fire-arms and artillery, from Bilbao and St. Antonia, and silk and wool from Segovia and Valencia, and the like from other parts?

What an infinite number of horses, mules, and carriages, and carriers, must be employed by land from all the inland provinces, to carry the product of the earth directly to Madrid, or, if too remote for that, to carry them to the several seaports where those ships and fleets were to take them on board! How is this the cause of employing a thousand sail of ships, and, perhaps, three times as many in England, to bring the coals from one place, salt from another, cheese from another, lead from the north, block-tin from the west, corn from Hull, from Lynn, and from all the coasts of Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Kent, Suffex, and Southampton; fish from all the seas on the east and south sides of the island, and so of the rest?

How many thousands, I might say hundreds of thousands, of men and horses are employed in the carrying and re-carrying to and from London the growth of England, and the importations of foreign countries? And how many of these would stand still and want business (nay, want bread, perhaps) if this great city was divided into 15 cities, as above, and they were situated in so many different places, remote from one another, where the country within 20 or 30 miles round them would be sufficient for them, and able to supply them, and where every port would import their own goods from abroad.

In a word, we should have a general want of business; whereas now all the world (in this city) are in a hurry, and fully employed, in carrying out and fetching in.

Particularly observe another article, the number of people at London makes this city the center of foreign commerce: here a great quantity of goods from all foreign countries are brought in, because here is always a market, and here they can be consumed; whereas, take all the other ports of England, many of them can send ships laden out, but few can bring them laden home, as before shewn.

To bring this to our subject: all these provisions expended at Madrid, what do they for the country as to trade? Some benefit they are, it is true, to the neighbouring provinces; so is our city of Bristol to it's counties: but how far in the country from them does that employment extend? How far do they feel the influence? Perhaps in Spain the country may be concerned in furnishing corn 20 or 30 miles, and cattle 40 or 50; but, after that, we find little or nothing of it.

At Bristol, indeed, they carry corn a great way, by water, down the rivers Severn and Avon, out of Gloucestershire and Worcestershire, and from the vale of Evesham; they likewise bring cyder from Herefordshire, down the Wye, Cheshire cheese by the Severn, out of Shropshire, and butter from South Wales, by sea: and so Bristol may, in some degree, affect all those counties.

But their black cattle are supplied from Somersetshire and Wales, and their mutton and corn, cheese and bacon, from Wilts and Gloucestershire, all counties just adjoining; and, after 20 miles from them, even in those counties, you scarce find any mention of Bristol: nay, one way, there are other cities and great towns that intercept the provisions; so that very little comes that road, except beef; I mean Somersetshire, where there are the city of Wells, the city of Bath, and the towns of Bridgewater and Froom; the latter more populous, perhaps, than both the two former put together, though cities.

Thus trade receives but little influence from such places as Madrid in Spain, or Bristol in England, except it be just in the adjacent counties, and within 20 or 30 miles of the place.

But bring this back to the great city of London, and consider the multitudes of people there, and the exceeding numbers which are gathered southward into the counties and towns for 30 or 40 miles round London, almost every way; how all the country round is made populous by the vast run of business occasioned by the neighbourhood of the city; inasmuch that it is supposed, if there is a million and a half of people in London and it's suburbs, there is at least half a million more in Middlesex, and in those parts of Essex, Surrey, and Kent, which lie so adjacent to London as to be within about 10 miles of it: now, for the supply of these two millions of people, we find the whole kingdom more or less engaged, and the wheels of trade are set a-going by it almost all over the island.

We take this proposition about great cities, and the number of people collected together making trade, to agree in some measure with what you may observe in the spring of the year, from the variety of the seasons; take a time of drought, and, when the earth, for want of rain, is dried, hard, and parched up, comes a light flying shower, and wets the surface a little,

and goes off; then comes a hot gleam from the sun, and licks it up; and by and by comes another dash of wet, and then more sunshine: and so on successively and alternately, several times a day, and for a week or a fortnight together.

These light flying showers answer no end, do little or no good; the sun dries it up as fast as it wetted, and, by the long intervals between, all the benefit is lost; the ground remains hard, sterile, and barren still; it is all one as a drought.

But would the same quantity of rain fall all in one shower, was there a weight of water sufficient to set nature at work, sink down to the root, and duly moisten the plants, give drink to the thirsty earth, and set the prisoners free, (I mean the seeds, which lie baked and blocked up in the earth, and cannot get out) then the earth is refreshed, and every thing thrives and flourishes as it should do.

I think the simile is pretty just: a small body of people do nothing as to this article of trade; they do not influence trade, even in proportion to their numbers; like a small stream of water to a mill, it not only will not make the wheel go at a proportioned rate, but it runs by, or under it, goes off in waste, and does not make the mill go at all; it runs all away to no purpose.

Here is a small city, and there a large town; they are good to depend upon the capital, and to have the capital, in many things, depend upon them; but they are not able to substitute a capital, and to stand in the room of it: when they come to have the general body, the whole nation's trade depend upon them, instead of a capital city, then they are nothing at all, they are of no importance.

They tell us France is so situated by the assistance of navigable rivers, that there are two and forty large cities which have all a communication with the great city of Paris by water, either by sea or river navigation; and what is the consequence? Not that these cities make Paris great and rich, but that all these cities are made rich and great by the city of Paris.

We say the same of London, though not as to river-navigation; but the whole kingdom of England, by it's communication with London, is the same; it is not the kingdom makes London rich, but the city of London makes all the kingdom rich. The country corresponds with the city, but the city corresponds with all the world; the country supplies the city with corn and cattle, that is to say, with provisions; yes, and if there was not such a city to take off and consume them, what would the country do? How must the product of the land be sold? How the rents paid? The land must lie waste and uncultivated, the cattle would run wild, and devour the country, or be starved and die: the country sends up their corn, their malt, their cattle, their fowls, their coals, their fish, all to London; and London sends back spice, sugar, wine, drugs, cotton, linen, tobacco, and all foreign necessities to the country; and, above all the rest, that useful drug called money: so that still it is the capital city that is the life of the country, and keeps them all in motion.

Again, the countrymen shear their sheep, sell their wool, carry it from place to place; the manufacturers set it to work, to combing, carding, spinning, winding, twisting, dyeing, weaving, fulling, dressing; and thus they finish their numberless manufactures. But what must they do with them? What could a Madrid or a Bristol do for them? Bristol could take off some, indeed, and does export a proportion with it's neighbours; but London is the center of the gross body of manufacture; London answers the end of every trade abroad, and of every manufacture at home; be it Manchester for cotton ware, Yorkshire for coarse cloth, kerseys, &c. Wilts and Gloucester for fine cloths; Norwich for stuffs; Wales for flannels; all goes to London, and all have their money in return from London.

London consumes all, circulates all, exports all, and, at last, pays for all; and this is trade: this greatness and wealth of the city is the soul of the commerce to all the nation; and, as there is the greatest number of tradesmen in this city that are to be seen in any place in the world, so they again support and supply an innumerable number of shopkeepers and tradesmen of every kind in the country, and in every part of the country.

It may be thought a little assuming to say, the city supports the tradesmen of the country, but the fact is plain; you cannot go to a shopkeeper of any note in the remotest town in England, but he holds some correspondence at London; or else he must be a mean tradesman, that buys his goods of some of his better-furnished neighbours, and they buy at London: so that the other may be said to buy at London too, only he does it at second-hand.

Nor is this all; but, as all these country tradesmen buy at London, so they all are in debt at London more or less; they all owe the London shopkeepers money; so that the whole country may in some respects be said to trade upon the city's stock, the London tradesmen giving them all credit.

It is, indeed, a little remote from the subject of inland trade, or else it is very remarkable and worth our observing, that the city of London trades with such an immense stock, that it may be said they give credit to all the world more or less; all the trades they carry on abroad, almost in every part of the world, are carried on by the strength of their stocks; they

do not receive the goods from abroad, and so make the returns back to the several countries from whence they come, but they send their own goods first out, and receive the goods of other countries back in payment.

Thus in all the ports of Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Turkey, the merchants of London have their houses (as they call them) there; the warehouses are piled full up to the ceilings with English bales; English stocks carry on the trade; in a word, we give credit to all the world.

Not a fleet of Portuguese ships from the Brazils, not the galleons or flota from New Spain, but a share of the gold of the first, and the silver of the last, is the product of English stocks, and belongs to London merchants, whose goods, sold upon credit at Lisbon and Cadiz, went first out to America to purchase that gold and silver.

Not a Turkey fleet, or a ship from Leghorn, Messina, or Genoa, how rich soever freighted with the finest raw and thrown silk, the choicest drugs and gums, but it is all the effects of the merchants of London, and in return for credit first given by the city of London.

It is the like in the plantation trade; all the New England trade, the Jamaica trade, the Barbadoes trade, it is all carried on by the stocks of the English merchants.

The sugars, the tobaccos, the furs, the turpentine, the cacao, the indico, and all the rest of the produce of our colonies, come home in return from all those islands for the goods long before consigned to them chiefly from London; so that, in fine, almost all the plantations are managed upon the stock and substance of the citizens of London.

To bring it all back to what we have observed before: as this vast correspondence abroad is thus carried on by the city of London upon its own stock, and they give credit to all the world; so, when those returns come back, they disperse all those goods again among the country tradesmen, and give them credit too; and this is the effect of a capital city: a capital city carries on a capital trade, and enriches and employs the whole country; which, if the same people dwelt in a divided and separate capacity, would not be the case at all.

So many deductions must be made from the home trade, that thousands, nay hundreds of thousands of people now employed in collecting the commerce thus to one place, would then be left without business, and by consequence without bread; as in the country, if the sheep fed all about the farmers houses as the swine do, or were domestics like their dogs, and not in flocks, requiring to be tended and directed, there would be no employ for all the shepherds, which in the west and northern parts of England are maintained by keeping, and waiting upon, and folding them; so the necessary attendance upon the trade, as it all goes up to, and comes back from London, how many thousands of people does it employ?

Moreover, this capital city is the grand source and support of the public credit of the whole state, as hath been experienced upon numberless occasions.—Here the circulating power of all the public funds, and the public revenue is constantly exercised, for the benefit of the kingdom in general, and for the convenience of its traffic.—This is the center of paper-circulation, by the means of that national and noble establishment the bank of England, and the high credit of its eminent and opulent bankers, who are not inferior, in point of wealth, honour, and sagacity, to those of any state or empire in the whole world.

What numbers of the greatest and most illustrious nobles of this kingdom have sprung from the city of London [see our article *COMMERCE*], and what some of the merchants of this capital have done for the support of the kingdom in general on the most critical emergencies, see our article *MERCANTILE COLLEGE*. However, to add another instance to what I have elsewhere said:—The parliament granted, says Rapin, king Richard II. a subsidy for the maintenance of the war: but it was clogged with this condition (which shewed they were resolved to be upon their guard during the minority) that the money should be lodged in the hands of Philpot and Walworth, two very noted *ALDERMEN* of LONDON, who were ordered to take care that it should be expended only in repulsing the French and Castilians, in league against England.—In the mean time the duke of Lancaster, who was vexed to see money, granted the king by the parliament, in the hands of two citizens of London, hastened not the getting ready the ships necessary for the defence of the coasts. This affected negligence gave occasion to a great many complaints. But he pleaded in his excuse that he could not form any project, lest it should not be approved of by those who had the management of the money. In fine, he importuned so the other regents upon that score, that the two aldermen were ordered to put into his hands the sums they had in charge. He promised, for his part, that the coasts should be better guarded, and the merchantmen protected. However, it was a good while before he sent a fleet to sea, because he expected from Bayonne some ships which were to join those he had equipped.

Whilst the fleet was getting ready, the earls of Arundel and Salisbury had orders to go to Normandy and take possession

of Cherbourg, which the king of Navarre had promised to deliver up to the English. Hardly were they got to sea, when they met some Spanish men of war, who fiercely attacked them, and did them some damage. Notwithstanding this, they put a garrison into Cherbourg, which opened the English an inlet into Normandy, as Calais did into Picardy. Before the fleet designed to guard the coasts was ready, a Scotch pirate, one Merier, seeing that the English neglected the northern seas, entered the port of Scarborough, and carried off the merchantmen that lay there. This success having inspired him with greater hopes, he cruized a long time in those parts, and took considerable prizes. The damages the merchants sustained, on this occasion, caused fresh complaints against the duke of Lancaster, who so ill performed his promise.

Philpot, whom I mentioned before, full of indignation to see the English merchants exposed to the ravages of this pirate, undertook to do, at his OWN EXPENCE, what the duke neglected to do with the public money. He fitted out some ships, on board of which he put a THOUSAND SOLDIERS, and, having found the Scotch pirate, he defeated him, took him prisoner, and returned in triumph to London. This action, which gained him the applauses of the people, offended the regent, who thought it of dangerous consequence to suffer a private person to undertake a thing of that nature without the government's leave. But he vindicated what he had done, with such good reasons and with so much modesty, that he was acquitted.—This, among many others mentioned throughout this work, is a memorable action of a LONDON MERCHANT to preserve the commerce of the nation!

As king Richard the II^d of England was very fond of pomp and magnificence, his expences far exceeded his revenues, so that he was forced to make use of several illegal methods to supply his occasions. He had a mind once to try the affections of the city of London, by desiring them to lend him only a thousand pounds sterling: but, though it was no great sum, they bluntly denied him*; which so mortified him, that not long after, there being a tumult† in the city, occasioned by a baker's boy, he deprived the city of its privileges, turned out the mayor, established a warden in his room, and removed the courts of judicature to York; and it afterwards cost the city no less than 10,000*l.* to recover its charter.

* It is said that an Italian merchant, who offered to lend him that sum, was mobbed, and, according to Rapin, cut to pieces.

† Our historians tell us, that this was the occasion of the tumult; a baker's boy, passing through Fleet-street with a basket of bread, a servant belonging to the bishop of London, as Caxton says (but, as Sir John Hayward says in his *Life of Henry IV.* to the bishop of Salisbury, wherein he agrees with Hollinghead and others) took out a loaf, and abused the boy, who demanded it, in such a manner as raised a mob, that threatened to fire the bishop's palace, into which he retired for shelter, till the magistrates came and suppressed them.

An order to the courts of justice at Westminster, to remove to York, dated at Stamford, March 13, 1392.

The establishment of a warden of London, in the room of the deposed mayor, dated June 25, 1392, at Nottingham-castle*. A receipt for 10,000*l.* sterling, paid to the king by the city of London, to regain his good-will, dated February 28, 1393, at Westminster.

* This warden was Sir Edward Dalyngrugge, who, being thought too favourable to the citizens, was quickly removed, and Sir Baldwin Baddington, a person of a rougher temper, put in his place, who by his prudent conduct pleased both the king and the city. It appears by the account we have of this reign, in the Compleat History of England, vol. i. and in that called the Life and Reign of King Richard II. compiled by a person of quality, and from the accounts of Knighton and Walsingham, that the bishop of Salisbury, having an old grudge against the citizens, who were generally reckoned favourites of Wickliff's doctrine, took the opportunity of the riot before-mentioned, to stimulate and heighten the king's displeasure against the city to that degree, that he threatened to raze it to the ground; but, at the mediation of some of the nobility, sent for the mayor, sheriffs, aldermen, and 24 others of the ablest citizens to his court, then held at Nottingham; where, impeaching one another in hopes to curry favour with the king, the mayor was committed to Windsor-castle, and thence to other goals. Mean time, the queen, the duke of Gloucester, the bishop of London, and other persons of distinction, interceding with the king heartily for the city, he was so pacified that he set out for London, being met from the city by 400 men on horseback, clad all in one livery, and innumerable multitudes on foot, a solemn procession of the clergy, and 500 boys in surplices, the balconies being hung with tapestry and pictures, the conduits flowing with wine, &c. Besides, they presented the king with a crown of gold of great value, and another of the same metal to the queen, together with a picture of the Trinity worth 800*l.* and several other great gifts, by which means they obtained all their old privileges: but, after all this, they were forced to pay 10,000*l.* or else they must have ventured the effects of the king's fresh

fresh displeasure. The bishop of London, who had such a great hand in the reconciliation, was not only highly honoured by the citizens all his life, but after his death; the mayor, aldermen, and companies, made nine processions a year to Westminster, where he lay buried, to pray for his soul. Mr. Rapin observes, that Richard lived to repent his severe treatment of this city, by which he entirely lost the citizens hearts, who afterwards convinced him, how dangerous it is for a king of England to have that metropolis for his enemy. Rymer's *Fœdera*.

And, how zealous the citizens of London were in bringing about the revolution, upon the abdication of the late king James, appears from what follows*:

* See the Revolution vindicated; in answer to the two memorials, and the protestation against the peace of Ryswic, and other papers published in king James's name. State Tracts of 1707, folio.

About ten o'clock, the lords spiritual and temporal about the town, came to Guildhall, and, sending for the lord mayor and aldermen, agreed on a declaration, which among other things bears—'That they did reasonably hope that, the king having issued out his proclamation and writs for a free parliament, they might have rested secure under the expectation of that meeting: but, his majesty having withdrawn himself, and, as they apprehended, in order to his departure out of the kingdom, by the pernicious councils of persons ill affected to the nation and their religion, they could not, without being wanting to their duty, be silent under those calamities, wherein the popish councils which so long prevailed, had miserably involved these realms; they did therefore unanimously resolve to apply themselves to his highness the prince of Orange, who, with so great a kindness to these kingdoms, so vast expence, and so much hazard, had undertaken, by endeavouring to procure a free parliament, to rescue them, with as little effusion of Christian blood as possible, from the imminent dangers of popery and slavery; and declare, that they will, with their utmost endeavours, assist his highness in the obtaining such a parliament, in which their laws, and liberties, and properties, and religion, might be secured, and the protestant religion and interest over the whole world supported and encouraged, to the glory of God, the happiness of these kingdoms, and the advantage of all princes and states in Christendom that may be therein concerned.—And such a parliament they would endeavour to have with all speed, they say, and so it seems were resolved not to wait till king James's return.

It was signed by 31 lords and bishops, and sent to the prince by four of their number.

This declaration of the lords was followed the same day by two addresses to the prince, one from the LORD MAYOR, COURT of ALDERMEN, and the COMMON COUNCIL, and the other from the lieutenantancy of LONDON. The first bears thanks to God almighty for having blessed his highness's endeavours with miraculous success, and thanks to his highness for appearing in arms to rescue these kingdoms from slavery and popery, and to establish, in a free parliament, their religion, laws, and liberties, upon a sure and lasting foundation. That they had hitherto looked for some remedy for those oppressions and imminent dangers from his majesty's concessions, and concurrences with his highness's just and pious purposes expressed in his declaration. But, herein, finding themselves finally disappointed by his majesty's withdrawing himself, they presumed to make his highness their refuge; and, in the name of the CAPITAL CITY, they implored his protection, and begged that he would repair to the city, where they assured him he would be received with universal joy and satisfaction, as quickly after happened. The lieutenantancy or militia of the city, in their address, expressed the deep sense they had of what they owed to him. That without his undertaking they had been undone; that it was their firm resolution to venture all that was dear to them, to attain the glorious ends of his declaration: that they had put themselves into such a posture, as with the blessing of God was sufficient to prevent all ill designs, and to preserve the city in peace till his arrival; which they desired he would hasten, for the perfecting the great work which he had so happily begun, to the general joy and satisfaction of them all. How well this lieutenantancy stood affected to the late king, and had proved firm to him till now that he abandoned them, is known.

Further REMARKS.

That the reader may entertain a just idea of the importance of this city to the commerce of the kingdom, we shall give him the description of the Royal Exchange of London, from our countryman, that inimitable writer Mr. Addison; for authorities have often more force than the strongest reasoning, or the clearest demonstration.

'There is, says he, no place in the town, which I so much love to frequent as the Royal Exchange of London. It gives me a secret satisfaction, and, in some measure, gratifies my vanity as I am an Englishman, to see so rich an assembly of my countrymen and foreigners consulting together upon the private business of mankind, and making this metropolis a

kind of emporium for the whole earth; I must confess, I look upon high change to be a great council, in which all considerable nations have their representatives. Factors, in the trading world, are what ambassadors are in the politic world. They negotiate affairs, conclude treaties, and maintain a good correspondence between those wealthy societies of men, that are divided from one another by seas or oceans, or live on the different extremities of a continent. I have often been pleased to hear disputes adjusted between an inhabitant of Japan and an alderman of London; or to see a subject of the Great Mogul entering into a league with one of the Czar of Muscovy. I am infinitely delighted in mixing with these several ministers of commerce, as they are distinguished by their different walks, and different languages. Sometimes I am jostled among a body of Armenians, sometimes I am lost in a crowd of Jews, and sometimes make one in a group of Dutchmen. I am a Dane, Swede, or Frenchman, at different times; or rather fancy myself like the old philosopher, who, upon being asked what countryman he was, replied that he was a citizen of the world.

Though I very frequently visit this busy multitude of people, I am known to nobody there but my friend Sir Andrew, who often smiles upon me, as he sees me bustling in the crowd, but at the same time connives at my presence, without taking any farther notice of me. There is, indeed, a merchant of Egypt, who just knows me by sight, having formerly remitted me some money to Grand Cairo; but, as I am not versed in the modern Coptic, our conferences go no farther than a bow and a grimace.

This grand scene of business gives me an infinite variety of solid and substantial entertainments. As I am a great lover of mankind, my heart naturally overflows with pleasure at the sight of a prosperous and happy multitude; inasmuch that, at many public solemnities, I cannot forbear expressing my joy with tears, that have stolen down my cheeks. For this reason, I am wonderfully delighted to see such a body of men thriving in their own private fortunes, and at the same time promoting the public stock; or in other words, raising estates for their own families, by bringing into their country whatever is wanting, and carrying out of it whatever is superfluous.

Nature seems to have taken a particular care to disseminate her blessings among the different regions of the world, with an eye to this mutual intercourse and traffic among mankind, that the natives of the several parts of the globe might have a kind of dependance upon one another, and be united together by their common interest. Almost every degree produces something peculiar to it. The food often grows in one country, and the sauce in another.

The fruits of Portugal are corrected by the products of Barbadoes, the infusion of a China plant sweetened with the pith of an Indian cane. The Philippic Islands give a flavour to our European bowls. The single dress of a woman of quality is often the product of an hundred climates. The muff and the fan come together from the different ends of the earth. The scarf is sent from the torrid zone, and the tip-pet from beneath the pole. The brocade petticoat rises out of the mines of Peru, and the diamond necklace out of the bowels of Indostan.

If we consider our own country in it's natural prospect, without any of the benefits and advantages of commerce, what a barren, uncomfortable spot of earth falls to our share? Natural historians tell us, that no fruit grows originally among us, besides hips and haws, acorns and pig-nuts, with other delicacies of the like nature; that our climate, of itself and without the assistance of art, can make no farther advance towards a plum than to a sloe, and carries an apple to no greater perfection than a crab; that our melons, our peaches, our figs, our apricots and cherries, are strangers among us, imported in different ages, and naturalized in our English gardens; and that they would all degenerate and fall away into the trash of our own country, if they were wholly neglected by the planter, and left to the mercy of our sun and soil. Nor has traffic more enriched our vegetable world, than it has improved the whole face of nature among us. Our ships are laden with the harvest of every climate. Our tables are stored with spices, and oils, and wines. Our rooms are filled with pyramids of China, and adorned with the workmanship of Japan.

Our morning's draught comes to us from the remotest corners of the earth. We repair our bodies by the drugs of America, and repose ourselves under Indian canopies. My friend Sir Andrew calls the vineyards of France our gardens, the Spice Islands our hot-beds, the Persians our silk-weavers, and the Chinese our potters. Nature, indeed, furnishes us with the bare necessities of life, but traffic gives us a great variety of what is useful, and at the same time supplies us with every thing that is convenient and ornamental. Nor is it the least part of this our happiness, that, whilst we enjoy the remotest products of the north and south, we are free from those extremities of weather which give them birth; that our eyes are refreshed with the green fields of Britain, at the same time that our palates are feasted with fruits that rise between the tropics.

For

For these reasons, there are not more useful members in a commonwealth than merchants. They knit mankind together in a mutual intercourse of good offices, distribute the gifts of nature, find work for the poor, add wealth to the rich, and magnificence to the great. Our English merchant converts the tin of his own country into gold, and exchanges his wool for rubies. The Mahometans are clothed in our British manufacture, and the inhabitants of the frozen zone warmed with the fleeces of our sheep.

When I have been upon the change, I have often fancied one of our old kings standing in person, where he is represented in effigy, and looking down upon the wealthy concourse of people, with which that place is every day filled. In this case, how would he be surprized to hear all the languages of Europe spoken in this little spot of his former dominions; and to see so many private men, who in his time would have been the vassals of some powerful baron, negotiating, like princes, for greater sums of money than were formerly to be met with in the royal treasury? Trade, without enlarging the British territories, has given us a kind of additional empire. It has multiplied the number of the rich, made our landed estates infinitely more valuable than they were formerly, and added to them an accession of other estates as valuable as the lands themselves.

It is said of England, by way of distinction, and we value ourselves upon it, that it is a trading country: and king Charles II. who, though he was not the best governor, was the best acquainted with the world of all the princes of his age, used to say, *THAT THE TRADESMEN WERE THE ONLY GENTRY IN ENGLAND*: his majesty spoke it merrily, but it had a happy signification in it. For

Our tradesmen, especially those of the great city we have been describing, are not as in other countries, the meanest of our people: some of the greatest and best families among not the gentry only, but even the nobility, have been raised from trade, owe their beginning and their estates to trade: and we may add, that these families are not ashamed, as they have no reason, of their original. See our article *COMMERCE*.

We have in England a numerous and an illustrious nobility and gentry, and it is true, also, that, not so many of those families have raised themselves by the sword as in other nations, though we have not been destitute of military heroes.—But trade and learning have been the true principal channels by which our gentlemen have raised their fortunes and splendor to the prodigious height we now behold them. As so many of our noble and wealthy families are sprung from trade, so it is true, that many of the younger branches of our gentry, and even of the nobility itself, have descended again into the spring from whence they flowed, and have become tradesmen: whence it is that we said above, our tradesmen in England, especially in London, are not, as in other countries, always of the meanest of the people. Nor is trade in this kingdom a mean employment: it is on the contrary, the readiest way for men to raise their fortunes and families: and, therefore, it is a field for men of figure and distinction to enter upon.

It reflects, therefore, not a little upon the understandings of those refined heads who pretend to depreciate that part of the nation, which is so infinitely superior in wealth to the families who call themselves gentry, and so infinitely more numerous. The wealth of the nation lies chiefly among the trading part of the people; though there have been a great many families raised by the late wars, by great employments, and by renowned actions abroad, to the honour of the English gentry; yet how many more families among the tradesmen have been raised to immense estates, even during the same period, by the attending circumstances of the wars? such as the cloathing, the paying, the victualling, and furnishing, &c. both army and navy? And by whom have the prodigious taxes been paid, the loans supplied, and money advanced upon all occasions? By whom are the banks and companies carried on? On whom are the funds levied, and by whom the public credit upheld? Have not the trade and tradesmen borne the burthen of the wars? Is not trade the inexhaustible fund of all funds, and upon which all the rest depend?

As is the trade, so in proportion are the tradesmen; and how opulent are tradesmen in almost all the several parts of England, as well as in London? How ordinary is it to see a tradesman go off of the stage, even but from mere shopkeeping, with from 10 to 40,000*l.* estate, to divide among his family? On the contrary, take the gentry in England in general, what with high living, which is grown so much into a disease, and the other ordinary circumstances of families, we find few of the lower gentry, that is to say, from 6 to 700*l.* a year downwards, but they are in debt, and in necessitous circumstances, and many of much larger estates, also. How are the ancient families worn out by excess and family misfortunes, and the landed estates possessed by a new race of tradesmen, grown up into families of gentry, and established by the immense wealth gained in the shop, the warehouse, or the counting-house? How are the sons of traders now ranked among the prime of the gentry? How are the daughters of London traders at this time adorned with the ducal coronets? Nay, many of our trading gentlemen at this time refuse to be ennobled, scorn being knighted, and content themselves

with being known to be rated among the richest commoners in the nation? And it must be acknowledged, that, whatever they may be as to court-breeding, and the external politesse, they, generally speaking, are inferior to none of the gentry in the knowledge of the world.

In how superior a port or figure, as we say, do our tradesmen live to what the middling gentry either do, or can support? An ordinary tradesman now, not in the city of London only, but in the inland counties, as well as the out-ports, shall spend more money by the year than a gentleman of 4 or 500*l.* a year can do, and shall increase his fortune every year too: whereas the gentleman shall, at the best, stand still, just where he began, nay, perhaps, decline; and as for the lower gentry, from 100*l.* a year to 300*l.* or thereabouts, though they are often high in their appearance, yet a shoemaker in London shall keep a better house, spend more money, cloath his family better, and yet grow rich too: is it not evident, therefore, where the difference lies? An estate is a pond, but trade is a spring.

This being the case in England, it is no wonder that our tradesmen fill the lists of our nobility and gentry; no wonder that the gentlemen of the best families marry tradesmen's daughters, and put their younger sons apprentices to tradesmen. And how often do these younger sons come to buy the elder brothers estates, and restore the family, when the head of the house, proving unhappy in his conduct, for want often of employment, has wasted his patrimony, and is obliged to make out the blessing of Israel's family, where the younger son bought the birth right, and the elder was doomed to serve him?

Trade is so far from being inconsistent with a gentleman in this kingdom, that it makes gentlemen, and has peopled this nation with gentlemen, and will continue so to do, while it shall be supported in proportion as it may be in neighbouring countries; for, after a generation or two, the tradesmen's children, or at least their grand-children, become as good gentlemen, statesmen, parliament-men, privy-counsellors, judges, bishops, and noblemen, as those of the highest birth and the most ancient families. See the article *COMMERCE*, and various other parts of this work.

They tell us a story of the old lord Craven, who was afterwards created earl of Craven by king Charles II. that, being upbraided with his being of an upstart nobility, by the famous Aubery, earl of Oxford, who was himself of the very ancient family of the Veres, earls of Oxford, the lord Craven told him, that he [Craven] would cap pedigrees with him [Oxford] for a wager: the earl of Oxford laughed at the challenge, and began, reckoning up his famous ancestors, who had been earls of Oxford for a hundred years past, and knights for some hundreds of years more. But, when my lord Craven began, he read over the family thus: I am William lord Craven, my father was *LORD MAYOR OF LONDON*, and my grandfather was the *LORD KNOWS WHO*; wherefore I think my pedigree as good as yours, my lord (meaning the earl of Oxford.) The story is to my purpose: for, let the grandfather be who he would, his father, Sir William Craven, who was lord mayor of London, was a wholesale grocer, and raised the family by trade; and yet no body doubts but that the family of Craven is, at this day, as truly noble as most.

In Italy, and especially at Venice, we see every day the sons of merchants, and other traders, who grow in wealth and estates, and can advance, for the service of their country, a considerable sum of money, viz. from 60,000 to 100,000 dollars, are accepted to honour by the senate, and translated into the list of the nobility; and in all ages the best princes have thought fit to reward the extraordinary merit of their subjects with titles of honour, and to rank men among their nobility who have deserved it by great and laudable actions, whether the dignity of their birth, and the antiquity of their families, intitled them to it or not.

The word tradesman, in England, does not sound so despicable as it does in other countries; and to say a gentleman-tradesman, is not so great an impropriety as some people are wont to think; and, indeed, as trade is now flourishing in England, the wealth of our tradesmen increasing, it is very probable a few years will shew us still a greater race of trade-bred gentlemen than ever England yet had.

The very name of an English tradesman will, and does already obtain in the world; and as our soldiers, by the late wars, gained the reputation of being some of the best troops in the world, and our seamen are at this day, and very justly too, esteemed the best sailors in the world: so the English tradesmen may, in a few years, be allowed to rank with the best gentlemen in Europe; and, as the prophet Isaiah said of the merchants of Tyre, That her traffickers were the honourable of the earth. Isa. xxiii. 8.

In the mean time, it is evident their wealth, at this time, out-does that of the like rank of any nation in Europe; and, as their number is prodigious, so is their commerce; for the inland commerce of England (and it is of those tradesmen and traffickers that we are now speaking of in particular, who carry on trade from the metropolis to the most remote parts of the kingdom) is certainly the greatest of it's kind of any of the globe; the consumption of all sorts of goods, both of our

manufacture

manufacture, and of foreign growth being so exceeding great. All this confirms, that trade in England neither is or ought to be levelled with what it is in other countries, or the tradesmen depreciated as they have been in some nations, and as some of our gentry would pretend to in England; but that, as many of our best families rose from trade; so many branches of the best families in England, under the nobility, have been put apprentices to tradesmen in London, and set up and followed those trades, when they have come out of their times, and have thought it no dishonour to their blood.

If I might be permitted, not only without offence, but with a most respectful intention, these observations might not injudiciously or sarcastically be applied to the ladies of this kingdom, many of whom are so scandalized at that mean step, as they call it, of marrying a tradesman, even a London tradesman: it may be modestly told them, for their humiliation, that, however they think fit to act, sometimes those tradesmen come of better families than their own; and oftentimes, when they have refused and contemned them to their loss, those very tradesmen have married ladies of superior fortune to them, and have raised families of their own, who, in one generation, have been superior to those nice ladies, both in dignity and estate; and have, to their great mortification, been ranked above them upon all public occasions.

The whole glory and greatness of England then being thus raised by trade, and in a great degree, by that of its metropolis, it must be unaccountable folly and ignorance in us to lessen that one article in our own esteem which is the only fountain from whence we all, take us as a nation, are raised, and by which we are enriched, and maintained with dignity and splendor. The scripture says, speaking again of the riches and glory of the city of Tyre, which was, indeed, at that time, the great emporium of the world for foreign commerce, and from whence all the silks and fine manufactures of Persia and India were exported all over the western world, That her merchants were princes; and in another place, By thy traffic thou hast increased thy riches, Ezek. xxviii. 5. Certain it is, that our traffic has increased our riches and our power; and it is also certain, that one principal foundation of all our traffic is the grandeur and magnificence, as well as the wealth, the honour, and sagacity of its renowned citizens of London.

And here, in justice to the well-intentioned and judicious writer, I would beg permission to recommend to candid perusal a performance * lately published, which does no less honour to the author, than he zealously intends glory and advantage to the city of London.

* An Essay on the many advantages accruing to the community from the superior NEATNESS, CONVENIENCE, DECORATIONS, and EMBELLISHMENTS of great and capital CITIES; particularly applied to the city and suburbs of LONDON. Addressed to Sir John Barnard, Knt. senior alderman and senior representative in parliament of the said city. Printed for Mr. Whitridge, at the Royal Exchange, 1754.

‘The decorations and fine embellishments of cities, says this ingenious gentleman, more especially of great and capital ones, whilst they reflect honour, state, and dignity on their sovereigns, their country, and their own particular magistrates and citizens, will ever be found productive of perpetual accessions of wealth and commerce, of people, power, and influence; seeing a general resort to, and residence at, such finely-adorned cities, by persons of high rank and opulence, will necessarily occasion much money to be brought thither, and will as necessarily bring much employment to their people *.’—And again: ‘A season like the present, says he, of profound peace and tranquillity, is undoubtedly the only proper one for the subject of this essay; a subject, as herein peculiarly applied to our great metropolis, not before handled by any, as far as I know. Whilst almost every considerable city beyond sea, and many of our own at home (as Dublin, Edinburgh, Bristol, Gloucester, Bath, &c.) are diligently embellishing and adorning, justly perceiving the substantial benefits arising therefrom, shall the city of London remain any longer supine and inactive, until it be rivalled, and in some manner eclipsed, by cities both abroad and at home, not even so considerable as one of her single wards!’

* See page 2.

‘Since the last general pacification, almost every nation in Europe is pushing into commerce, manufactures, and fisheries more than ever was known before. It therefore behoves us, who still hold the superiority in trade and navigation, not only to keep the ground which we gained by perseverance and industry, and have so long held, but which we are in no small danger of losing, by the indefatigable application of our most dangerous rivals in both; but likewise to study every means in our power to attract the rich and noble to resort to us, from every corner of Europe; whereby our commerce, manufactures, and shipping, our wealth and our people, would be greatly increased. These, and such-like considerations induced me to fall into this hitherto untrodden path*.’

* See Introduction.

In the application of these sentiments to the city of London in particular, the gentleman gives a summary view of the benefits which would result to the city from his design; which are comprized under the following particulars.

‘I. REPUTATION, singly considered, is unquestionably beneficial: but although the completion of our scheme be extremely well calculated for advancing our reputation and glory beyond seas, this would nevertheless be the least of its good consequences.

‘II. By the supposed general resort of foreigners to our metropolis, it is easy to conceive how great the additional demand would be for all the various necessities, conveniences; and superfluities, whether for nourishment, cloathing, equipages, plate, jewels, pictures, books, toys, medals, &c. for all which London would then undoubtedly be the general mart and staple.

‘III. Very considerable, also, would the additional employment be of our manufacturers, artizans, farmers, shopkeepers, labourers, &c.

‘IV. All which would necessarily tend to the prosperity and increase of our foreign commerce, navigation, and plantations, and, consequently, of our seamen, as well as of all the various occupations dependent on commerce, shipping, and plantations.

‘V. Another obvious consequence from the premises would be a proportionable increase of the public revenues, of customs, excise, &c. whereby our heavy national debt would be the sooner discharged.

‘VI. The increase of the rents of houses (as well as of their number and goodness) in London, and even of the rents and improvements of lands in the country, would be also another necessary consequence.

‘VII. And, as our manufacturers, artizans, farmers, and labourers, would find fuller employment, both in town and country, this would necessarily lessen our poor rate, at present so exorbitant, and so grievously burthensome to the bulk of our people.’

REMARKS in 1764.

Since the public spirited writer of the before-mentioned essay wrote the same, the city of London bears a different and more splendid aspect than what it did. The taking down the city gates has proved very ornamental; and the alterations about making to the Bank of England, are likely to add no little lustre to the center of our metropolis. Whether the first intimation hereof was derived from what the judicious gentleman observes in his essay, I cannot say; but it looks something like it. He says, ‘The Bank is a good house, but situated in too narrow a street; where a perpetual conflux of wheel-carriages of all kinds, occasions very frequent obstructions to business. This might in a good degree be remedied, if that prudent corporation would purchase and demolish four houses fronting their great gate; whereby a good coach and foot-way might be opened directly from thence into Cornhill, which would likewise open an advantageous view of the fine front of that structure.’

I cannot pass this essay over without noticing one thing this ingenious gentleman mentions, concerning ‘A MERCANTILE LIBRARY being placed in the MANSION-HOUSE to be consulted by all the citizens as occasion may require.’ I could wish that this our labour, might fall into the hands of this gentleman, and that he would turn to our article MERCANTILE COLLEGE, where he will find such a MERCANTILE LIBRARY as he recommends, might be of far more public utility than at the MANSION-HOUSE.

The duchy of MILAN in Italy. The Milanese is one of the fertilest provinces of Italy: it is bounded on the west by Piedmont, Savoy, and Montserrat, on the south by the Apennine mountains and the territory of Genoa, on the east by the states of Venice, Parma, and Mantua, and on the north by the territory of Valois, the Grisons, and Switzerland.

The whole country is well watered and very fruitful. Besides the rivers Tesino, Po, Adda, and Sessia, are many smaller, and several great lakes which furnish it with plenty of fish.

This duchy is commonly divided into the following 13 territories, viz

I. The MILANESE, properly so called, having the Comasco on the north, the Lodofan on the east, the Paviese on the south, and the Navorese on the west.

MILAN, the capital of the duchy, is not only well peopled, but is one of the most trading cities in Italy. Its principal manufactures are those of the filken and woollen, steel and iron work, prodigiously neat, especially sword hilts, snuff and tobacco-boxes, buckles, and the like. They likewise work very neat on a sort of rock-crystal, which is brought hither from the Alps, and Glacuris of Savoy, some pieces of which are large enough to be worked into fine looking-glasses of about 12 inches by 13: but this last kind is very difficult to work. The citizens here are very rich, and the gentry numerous.

II. The **PAVIESE** hath the Milanese Proper on the north, the country of Bobbio on the south, the Lodiese on the east, and the Laumellnese on the west; and so fertile, that it is commonly stiled The garden of the duchy of Milan. But here are no towns of any trade.

III. The **LODESAN** lies along the river Adda, between the Cremonese and Comasco. It hath Milan Proper on the north, the Paviese on the west, and the Placentine on the south, and is a very fertile and well-peopled district.

NEW LODI is a rich and populous town on the river Adda. They breed a vast quantity of cattle in the territory about it, and it is famed likewise for making excellent cheeses, and of a monstrous bigness, some of which weigh above 500 pounds, and far exceed the Parmesan in taste, as also for dried neats tongues, and a fine sort of earthen-ware, not inferior to the Dutch Delft.

IV. The **CREMONESE** has Parmesan on the south, the Mantuan on the east, Lodesan on the west, and the Bresciano on the north. It is fertile in good wines and fine fruits.

It's only place of note is the city of **CREMONA**.

V. **COMASCO**, or the territory and county of **COMA**, lies between the Bergamese, the Grisons, the Valteline, and the four Italian bailiwicks belonging to Switzerland.

VI. The county of **ANGHIERA** is situate at the foot of the Alps, between Switzerland and the territory of Valais on the north, Aosta on the west, and the Vercellese and Novarese on the south. It is small, but very fertile and well inhabited.

VII. The **NOVARESE** lies between the Milanese Proper, Piedmont, Sessia, and the Vigevenese, and is a fertile and pleasant country.

VIII. **VIGEVANESE**. IX. **LAUMELLINESE**. X. The **ALEXANDRINO**. XI. The **TORTONESE**. XII. The vallies of **SESSIA**. XIII. The **BOBBIESE**, or territory of **BOBBEIO**, in none of which are any trading towns worth mentioning.

MINERAL is a compound fossil, wherein there is something discoverable like metal, but not malleable; it being joined or compounded with some other fossil, as salt, sulphur, earth.

To write of metals and minerals, intelligibly and with tolerable perspicuity, is a task much more difficult than to write of either animals or vegetables. For those carry along with them such plain and evident notes and characters, either of disagreement or affinity with one another, that the several kinds of them, and the subordinate species of each, are easily known and distinguished, even at first sight; the eye only being fully capable of judging and determining their mutual relations, as well as their differences.

But in the mineral kingdom the matter is quite otherwise. Here is nothing regular, whatever some may have pretended: nothing constant or certain. Insomuch that a man had need to have all his senses about him, to use repeated trials and inspections, and that with all imaginable care and wariness, truly and rightly to discern and distinguish things, and all little enough. Here is such a vast variety of phenomena, and those many of them so delusive, that it is very hard to escape imposition and mistake. Colour, or outward appearance, is not all to be trusted. A common marcasite or pyrites shall have the colour of gold most exactly, and shine with all the brightness of it; and yet upon trial, after all, yield nothing of worth, but vitriol and a little sulphur; whilst another body, that hath only the resemblance of an ordinary pebble, shall yield a considerable quantity of metallic and valuable matter.

So likewise a mass, which to the eye appears to be nothing but mere simple earth, shall, to the smell or taste, discover a plentiful admixture of sulphur, allum, or some other mineral.

Nor may we with much better security rely upon figure, or external form. Nothing more uncertain and varying. It is usual to meet with the very same metal or mineral, naturally shot into quite different figures, as it is to find quite different kinds of them all of the same figure. And a body that has the shape and appearance of a diamond, may prove, upon examination, to be nothing but crystal, or fenelites: nay, perhaps, only common salt or allum, naturally crystallized and shot into that form.

So likewise, if we look into their situation and place in the earth, sometimes we find them in the perpendicular intervals, sometimes in the bodies of the strata, being interspersed amongst the matter whereof they consist, and sometimes in both. Even, if I may so speak, the gemmeous matter itself, with this only difference, that those gems, e. gr. topazes, amethysts, or emeralds, which grow in the fissures, are ordinarily crystallized, or shot into angulated figures: whereas, in the strata, they are found in rude lumps, and only like so many yellow, purple, and green pebbles.

Not but that even these, that are thus lodged in the strata, are also sometimes found crystallized, and in form of cubes, rhombs, and the like. Or if we have respect to the terrestrial matter, wherein they lie in those strata, here we shall meet with the same metal or mineral embodied in stone, or lodged in coal, that elsewhere we found in marl, in clay, or in chalk.

As much inconstancy and confusion is there in their mixtures

with each other, or their combinations amongst themselves. For it is rare to find any of them pure, simple, and unmixed, but copper and iron together in the same mass: copper and gold, silver and lead, tin and lead, yea sometimes all the six promiscuously in one lump.

It is the same also in minerals, nitre with vitriol, common salt in allum, antimony with sulphur, and sometimes all these together. Nor do metals only sort and herd with metals in the earth, and minerals with minerals, but both indifferently and in common together. Lead with spar, with calamine, or with antimony: iron with vitriol, with allum, with sulphur: copper with sulphur, with vitriol, &c. yea, iron, copper, lead, nitre, sulphur, vitriol, and, perhaps, some more, in one and the same mass.

In a word, the only standing test and discriminative characteristic of any metal or mineral must be sought for in the constituent matter of it; and it must first be brought down to that, before any certain judgment can be given. And, when that is once done, and the several kinds separated and extracted each from the other, the homogeneous mass of one kind is easily distinguishable from any other; gold from iron, sulphur from nitre, and so of the rest. But, without this, so various are their intermixtures, and so different the face and appearance of each, because of that variety, that scarcely any thing can be certainly determined of the particular contents of any single mass of ore by mere inspection.

I know that by experience and conversation with these bodies, in any place or mine, a man may be enabled to give a near conjecture at the metallic or mineral ingredients of any mass commonly found there, but this merely because he hath made trial of other like masses, and thereby learned what it is they contain. But, if he remove to another place, though perhaps very little distant, it is ten to one but he meets with so different a face of things, that he will be there as far to seek in his conjectures, as one who never before saw a native ore; until he hath here made his trial as before, and so further informed himself of the matter.

Metals being so very useful and serviceable to mankind, great care and pains hath been taken, in all ages, in searching after them, and in separating and refining of them. For which reason it is, that these have been accurately enough distinguished and reduced to six kinds, which are all well known.

But the like pains have not been taken in minerals, and therefore the knowledge of them is somewhat more confused and obscure. These have not yet been well reduced, or the number of the simple original ones rightly fixed; some of which are only compounds, the matter of two or more kinds being mixed together, and, by the different proportion and modulation of that matter, variously disguised and diversified, having been reputed all different kinds of minerals, and thereby the number of them unnecessarily multiplied. Of this we have an instance of the gem kind: where of all the many sorts reckoned up by lapidaries, there are not above three or four that are originals; their diversities, as to lustre, colour, and hardness, arising from the different admixture of other adventitious metallic and mineral matter. It is sufficient for my present design to remark in general, that those minerals, and ores of metals which are repositied in the bodies of the strata, are either found in grains, or small particles, dispersedly intermixed with the corpuscles of earth, sand, or other matter of those strata: or else they are amassed into balls, lumps, or nodules. Which nodules are either of an irregular and uncertain figure, such as are the common pyrites, flints, agates, onyx's, pebbles, cornelians, jaspers, and the more like: or of a figure somewhat more regular and observable, such as the belemnites: the several sorts of mineral coral, of the stelechites, and of the lapis mycetoides*: the astroites, or starry stone, as well that sort with the prominent, as that with the plane, and that with the concave stars: the fenelites, the echinated crystalline balls, with many more analogous bodies.

* Vulgarly called fungites.

Those which are contained in the perpendicular intervals of the strata are, either such as are there accumulated into a rude heap, without any particular form or order, being only included betwixt the two opposite walls or sides of the said intervals, which they wholly or partly fill, as there is a greater or less quantity of them; in which manner spar is usually found therein, and other minerals, as also the common ores of lead, tin, iron, and other metals, or else such as are of some observable figure. Of this sort are the sparry stiria, icecycles, called stalaetia*: the native saline icecycles, or sal stalaeticum: the vitriolum stalaeticum nativum: the vitriolum capillare: the alumen stalaeticum, and capillare: minera ferri stalaetica, which, when several of the cylindric stiria are contiguous, and grow together in one sheaf, is called brush iron-ore: and, lastly, the argentum arborescens & capillare.

* Or rather stagonitæ.

Hither also ought to be referred the crystallized ores and minerals, e. gr. the iron-rhombs: the tin grains: the mundic

dic grains: the tessellated pyritæ, or ludis Paracelsi: crystallized native salt, allum, vitriol, and sulphur. As likewise the gems or stones that are found in these perpendicular intervals, shot into cubes, into pyramidal forms, or into angulated columns, consisting sometimes of three; but most commonly of six sides, and mucronated, or terminating in a point, being either opaque or pellucid: or partly pellucid, and partly opaque and coloured, black, white, grey, red, purple, blue, yellow, or green, e. gr. crystal, the pseudo-adamantes, the Cornish stones, the Bristol stones, crystallized spars, the amethyst, the sapphire, the topaz, the emerald, and several others.

R E M A R K S.

With regard to the tokens and characteristics upon the surface of the earth, of such places as may be reasonably presumed to contain some kind of mineral or metalline earths of value, see the article MINEROLOGY.

MINERAL WATERS. These are chiefly of three kinds. Some are corporeal (we want a better word for it) others spirituous, and the rest both corporeal and spirituous. Those we call corporeal mineral waters, contain fixed and solid particles of minerals and fossils, which may be separated from the water, and seen with the naked eye; such as these are of two sorts: some carry large particles of minerals and fossils, which may be easily perceived in the water itself; nor are they, properly speaking, mixed with the water, and some have in them grains of gold, silver, &c. and, therefore, are called auriferous, argentiferous, &c. but such are not properly termed mineral waters, because they have not those particles mixed with them, but separate; neither do they receive any property from them: yet, because men admire such rivers, and their explication hath a great affinity with the description of mineral waters properly so called, we thought fit to mention them under the same heads; to which may be added bituminous fountains, &c.

Corporeal mineral waters are such as contain solid particles of fossils, but so minute that they are intirely mixed, and cannot well be distinguished by the sight, unless they are made to subside by art, or a long space of time, or by concretion are brought to a visible mass; such as salt and sulphureous fountains, &c. and chemical waters, in which metals are dissolved.

Spirituous waters are those that contain only such a volatile spirit as is found in minerals, but have no fixed particles in them; and, therefore, their composition can never be made visible.

We call those waters both corporeal and spirituous which contain not only fixed and solid particles of minerals, but also volatile and spirituous; of all which we shall give examples.

How mineral waters are generated.

1. If the water be carried under-ground with a rapid course, among metalline and mineral earths, which is easily loosened, it is evident that it washes particles from it, and may carry along with it grains of these minerals: and this is the generation of these corporeal mineral waters that hold grains in them.

2. If the mineral waters are imperfect, and not so closely joined as vitriol, sulphur, &c. or even salt, which, of their own nature, easily mix with water; and, if a rivulet of water runs through beds or mines of such minerals, or be strained through them (without a channel or duct) the water, when it breaks out at the fountain, will have small particles of these minerals mixed with it, and will be corporeal mineral water, of a subtle composition, according to the smallness of the atoms. Now, whether the water can in like manner dissolve or unite with itself the particles of metals, is to be questioned, because they are hard and solid, and, therefore, are not easily blended with water. This may be done, but not with simple or common water, but by vitriolic and salt spirituous water, like aqua fortis [see AQUA FORTIS] for that dissolves metals into atoms, and easily unites them with itself, so that they do not subside at the bottom, unless they be separated by art: in like manner, when such water runs through a metallic earth, it may dissolve the metalline particles, and unite them with itself; and thus are the corporeal mineral waters of the second sort accounted for and explained.

3. Before metals are formed in the bowels of the earth, steams and vapours are condensed about the extant corners of the rocks, to which they adhere, being at first but of a soft substance, and afterwards hardened by degrees; if, therefore, the water should gleet through the places where such vapours are in commotion, it becomes impregnated with them: and thus spirituous mineral and metalline waters are produced. Imperfect minerals also make mineral waters of their own nature, after another method, viz. when, being heated by a subterraneous, or their own proper heat, they send forth spirits and vapours, as sulphur, vitriol, salt, coal, &c. and such exhalations is always stirred up, where there are such minerals, among which the permeating water is impregnated with the spirit. Some think these spirituous waters may be generated by being only carried through a metallic earth, or by having their receptacles in it, or in their mines; but it is found to

the contrary by experience, that water receives no quality from metals and minerals, though they should be immersed in it a great many years. Therefore, rejecting this opinion, it is most reasonable to suppose, that these waters receive a certain spirit from the first principles of metals, as we may call them; or we may say, that such waters are impregnated with the subtle spirits of vitriol, salt, &c. by the help of which a spirit is extracted from hard metals; but we do not lay so great stress upon this latter cause, for a question will arise again, about the generation of this spirituous, mineral, vitriolic, and salt water.

From these together it appears, how mineral waters, both corporeal and spirituous, are generated.

There are innumerable kinds of mineral waters, according to the diversity of the particles they receive from different minerals.

We have explained how mineral waters receive these particles; from which their extraordinary qualities arise. Now, because there are divers kinds of minerals, it hence follows, that mineral waters are various, and almost infinitely different in their qualities, not consisting of one kind of water impregnated with only one sort of mineral, but of various kinds, mixed with various sorts. Wherefore mineral waters are either simple or mixed; and the mixed have two, three, four, or more sorts of fossils in them.

Hence are, 1. Metallic waters, as of gold, silver, copper, tin, lead, iron, &c.

2. Salt waters, as of common salt, nitre, allum, vitriol, &c.

3. Bituminous waters, sulphureous, antimonial, as of coal, ambergris, &c.

4. Waters proceeding from various kinds of earth and stones, viz. as lime-stone waters, chalk, oker, cinnabar, marble, alabaster, &c.

5. Mercurial waters, &c.

All these kinds of waters are to be understood three ways, viz.

1. Some of them are corporeal, either sensibly so, or by a refined and subtle commixture. 2. Others are spirituous. 3. Others are both corporeal and spirituous.

These differences may be applied to the several kinds of mineral waters. For example: there are golden waters, which are, 1. Corporeal, that carry grains of gold of such magnitude, that, with small trouble, they are discernible, by reason of their gross or coarse mixture. 2. Corporeal, that carry very minute particles of gold, well mixed with them; and, though the smallest particles of gold do, of their own nature, sink to the bottom of water, yet that there are such, appears from the aqua regia [see AQUA REGIA] in which gold is dissolved into atoms; but this aqua regia is not a simple water, neither does any water carry atoms of gold in it, unless it be before impregnated with other mineral particles. 3. Spirituous golden waters, that have engendered a spirit and vapour in the earth, from which gold is produced. 4. Golden waters, that are both corporeal and spirituous, viz. that have both atoms of gold, and the spirit that produces it.

Thus we are to apply this four-fold variety to all sorts of mineral waters, whether simple or mixed (from whence innumerable species are produced); for either the bodies of fossils, or their spirits, or the body of one fossil with the spirit of another, are mixed or engendered in the water: so leaden waters are of four kinds, viz. 1. Visibly corporeal. 2. Corporeal by a subtle mixture. 3. Tinctured by the spirit of lead. 4. Impregnated both with the body and spirit of lead. And these four participations of minerals are to be applied to mercurial waters, &c. and more especially to salt, vitriolic, and sulphureous waters, because in these nature itself displays a four-fold variety; though it is to be doubted whether there be corporeal particles of a subtle grain in metalline waters. Spirituous metallic waters are also very rare; but the water of salt, sulphur, &c. both corporeal and spirituous, is very common, because these fossils are found in greater plenty, and their particles are also sooner adapted to atoms, and dissolved by the water; beside, they frequently emit steams and vapours.

Let us explain this four-fold variety of participation by one example of gold.

In the country of Tyrol, and the neighbouring places, there are several rivers that carry grains of gold; and the Rhine, the Elbe, the Danube, and several other great rivers, do the like also, as other rivers do other metals and minerals. The Rhine carries grains of gold, mixed with clay and sand, in many places, but especially at these, viz. 1. Near Coire, in the Grisons country. 2. At Mayenfeld. 3. At Eglisan. 4. At Soking. 5. At the town of Augst, not far from Basle. 6. At Newburg. 7. At Saltz. 8. At Worms. 9. At Mentz. 10. At Bacherach. 11. At Bonn, &c. The auriferous rivulets which the Rhine receives, the reader may see in Thurnheuserus, and also those that run into the Danube and Elbe. Small grains of gold are found in the Elbe in these places: 1. At Lotomeritz in Bohemia. 2. At Purn. 3. At Dresden in Meisen. 4. At Torgaw. 5. At Magdeburg. 6. At Lawenburgh tower, about five miles from Hamburg. Several other auriferous rivers are given an account of in the forecited book of Thurnheuserus; and such as carry other metals and minerals. And these are auriferous corporeal

real waters of the first kind, carrying visible grains, which are not so properly called mineral, or golden waters, because the golden grains are not mixed with the water, but only carried in it by its rapid motion, the water itself being uncompounded with it.

2. Corporeal golden waters of fine mixture, whose atoms are united with the atoms of gold, like the chemical aqua regia which dissolves gold, and unites it by atoms to itself: for since it is possible that there may be in nature such water as this of the chemists, which may run through golden earth, or gold mines, it is reasonable to suppose that it eats out particles, and dissolves them into atoms, and unites them to itself; and from this cause proceed those (or such-like) golden rivulets as are described by Thurnheuserus, in his account of the Danube, Rhine, &c.

3. Spirituous golden waters are but very few, some of which, perhaps, are enumerated among the rest by Thurnheuserus; but these are not so much known, because golden earth and gold mines are very scarce; besides, where there are such mines, there is such a mixture of other minerals, that they are not perceptible. Nevertheless, there are some rivulets in the high Alps of Bohemia, that are said to participate of these golden spirits, as in the Frichtelberg mountains in Silesia. The hot baths also in the bishopric of Coire are believed to be impregnated with this kind of spirit; yet, because of the mixture of other minerals in a greater quantity, this quality is rendered less perceptible.

4. Golden waters that carry both the atoms and spirit of gold, are some of those rivulets mentioned by the abovenamed Thurnheuserus.

Let us also give an example of salt waters.

1. Corporeal salt waters, which carry gross and undigested particles of salt, are found in many places, and sufficiently known, as fountains, whose waters produce salt, and sea-water, from which salt is extracted by boiling.

2. Subtile corporeal salt waters, which contain salt dissolved in the minutest atoms, are such as are very salt, and yet very clear, as many salt fountains are, and sea-water that is thin and fine; though there is a great difference in this subtile mixture. Hereto may be referred the urine of all animals.

3. Spirituous salt waters, which do not contain the particles of salt, but only the spirit of it, are of such a nature, that, if several tons be ever so much boiled, they will not yield any salt. There are a great many of these in Germany, and other places, but they are seldom without mixture.

4. Corporeal and spirituous salt-waters, which contain the particles and spirit of salt. Almost all corporeal waters have some small portion of saline spirits in them, but few of them any quantity. Thus the fountains about the city of Saltzinge, near the Rhine, are saltier than other salt springs, and yet yields less salt, because their sharp and brackish taste is heightened by a spirit or volatile salt.

Hence it appears how this four-fold variety of participation is to be applied to the several kinds of mineral waters, viz. to vitriolic, allum, and lead waters, &c.

To enumerate the most remarkable varieties of mineral waters. In the foregoing propositions we have explained the kinds and differences of mineral waters, taken from their nature, which consist in having mineral particles in them, which they carry, or with which they are impregnated; but, because these varieties are not so perceptible to the senses, and there are several mixtures of minerals that cause various, and almost unaccountable properties in the waters, therefore they are not so easily known and distinguished by the vulgar; for waters (and other bodies) become famous among mankind, and receive their names from their manifest qualities, which strike and affect the senses, whose cause and explication are to be deduced from their composition and participation. There are, therefore, ten species of waters, or liquids, that flow out of the ground, which are commonly taken notice of by the vulgar: 1. Acid waters. 2. Bitter. 3. Hot. 4. Very cold. 5. Fat and oily. 6. Poisonous or deadly. 7. Coloured. 8. Boiling. 9. Waters that harden bodies, change their colour, or otherwise alter them. 10. Saline. 11. To these may be added such as are invested with other uncommon properties. All kinds of waters described by authors may be referred to one or other of these heads.

MINEROLOGY, that previous part of metallurgy, which teaches the ways of finding, judging, and digging of mines. Minerology is an art that requires a considerable compass of knowledge, before it can be practised to advantage; for, as this art includes the discovery, sinking, and working of mines, it requires a competent skill in the nature, effluvia, and effects of mineral matters, whether earths, salts, sulphurs, stones, ores, bitumens, gems or metals. It likewise requires a knowledge of the internal structure of the earth and its various strata, with a competent skill in subterraneous architecture, mensuration, hydraulics, levelling, and mechanics; without which, we can never judge what mountain, plain, or valley, is proper to be dug; in what manner to dig it; how to discharge the water that may flow in upon the works; how the beds of ore and stone will dip or run; how the various kinds of earths, marble, and other mineral or metallic matters, are to be cut through or broken; or how the gene-

ral process of mining should be conducted, in order to procure, with the least expence, or bring to open day, the principal matter or ore required.

And, even when all these difficulties are conquered, no more than half the work is effected; and the end can still be never obtained, without a tolerably exact knowledge of several chemical operations, viz. trituration, torrefaction, lotion, calcination, cementation, fusion, amalgamation, and the like: whence it may be laid down as a rule, that every directing metallist should not only be tolerably versed in the several parts of natural philosophy, but particularly be well acquainted with chemistry.

And, perhaps, it may not be improper to intimate, that many metallurgical attempts have miscarried, merely for want of a competent skill to conduct them. The under workmen, in this way, are generally a head-strong ignorant people, that cannot be managed without the use of some good political rules, and a knowledge much superior to their own. Yet, how little soever the art of minerology may have been understood, history affords us numerous examples of plentiful fortunes and immense treasures raised from mines, as well by private persons, as particular states and kingdoms. But the vulgar, and even philosophers not versed in trade, generally esteem the business of mining precarious, uncertain, and unprosperous; especially when compared with agriculture, or other arts, exercised more in the open day.

The truth is, mines are liable to many contingencies, being sometimes poor, sometimes soon exhaustible, sometimes subject to be drowned, especially when deep, and sometimes hard to trace. Yet there are many instances of mines proving highly advantageous for hundreds of years: the mines of Potosi are, to this day, worked with nearly the same success as at first: the gold mines of Cremona have been worked almost these thousand years, and our Cornish tin mines are extremely ancient: in general, the profit of mines, compared with that of agriculture, is immensely greater in the same time, so as to compensate largely for their want of certainty. Even lead mines generally yield twice or thrice the returns of the richest soils, improved in the ordinary manner, either by nature or art. What then shall we say of the mines that are rich in the nobler metals? The nett profit of the silver alone, dug in the Misnian silver mines of Saxony, in the space of eight years, is computed at a thousand six hundred and forty-four millions, besides seventy-three tons of gold*.

* See Pet. Albin. in Chronic. Misn. Miner. German.

Many mines have been discovered by accident: a torrent first laid open a rich vein of the silver mine at Fribourg in Germany. Sometimes a violent wind, by blowing up trees, or overturning the parts of rocks, has discovered a mine. The same has happened by violent showers, earthquakes, thunder, the firing of woods, or even the stroke of a plough-share, or a horse's hoof.

The art of mining does not wait for these favourable accidents, but directly goes upon the search and discovery of such mineral veins, ores, or sands, as may be worth the working for metal.

The artificial investigation and discovery of mines depend upon a particular sagacity, or acquired habit of judging, from particular signs, that metallic matters are contained in certain parts of the earth, not far below its surface.

The principal signs of a latent metallic vein seem reducible to general heads; such as (1.) The discovery of certain mineral waters. (2.) The discolouration of the trees or grass of a place. (3.) The finding of pieces of ore on the surface of the ground. (4.) The rise of warm exhalations. (5.) The finding of the metallic sands, and the like. All which are so many encouragements for making a stricter search, near the places where any thing of this kind appears. Whence rules of practice might be formed, for reducing this art to a greater certainty.

But, when no evident signs of a mine appear, the skilful mineralist usually bores into the earth in such places as, from some analogy of knowledge, gained by experience (or by observing the situation, course, or nature of other mines) he judges may contain metal.

This method of boring consists in the use of a sett of scooping-irons, made with joints, so as to be lengthened at pleasure; and thrust down to a considerable depth below the surface of the earth, so as, when taken out again, to bring back samples of the earth, or mineral matter, from the depth whereto the iron descended; much after the manner that samples of sugar are taken by the instrument called a REST, out of the hoghead.

After a mine is found, the next thing to be considered is, whether it may be dug to advantage. In order to determine this, we are duly to weigh the nature of the place, and its situation, as to wood, water, carriage, healthiness, and the like; and compare the result with the richness of the ore, the charge of digging, stamping, washing, and smelting. This is a matter of oeconomic prudence.

Particularly the form and situation of the spot should be well considered. A mine must either happen (1.) In a mountain. (2.) In a hill. (3.) In a valley, or (4.) In a flat. But mountains

tains and hills are dug with much greater ease and convenience, chiefly because of the drains and burrows, as the miners call them; that is, the adits, or avenues, may be here readily cut, both to drain off the water, and to form gangways for bringing out ore, &c.

In all the four cases, we are to look out for the veins, which the rains or other accidental things may have laid bare; and, if such a vein be found, it may often be proper to open the mine in that place, especially if the vein proves tolerably large and rich: otherwise, the most commodious place for situation is to be chose for the purpose, viz. neither on a flat, nor on the tops of mountains, but on the sides: for the mineralist is always to exercise his judgment, in due choice of a place to begin the work.

The best situation for a mine is a mountainous, woody, wholesome spot, of a safe easy ascent, and bordering upon a navigable river. And, such a place as this being the standard of goodness, all others may be judged of as they approach to, or recede from it.

Wood is indispensibly necessary for making the necessary instruments, engines, and huts; as also for fencing the pits, or avenues, and supporting the rock, where large caverns are made, by digging away the ore: and again, for supplying fuel to the melting works, unless where pit-coal will serve the turn. But, though no wood or coal should grow upon the spot, it may often be supplied by means of a navigable river, or cheap carriage. And thus there are some rich mines in the hotter climates, without so much as a shrub growing near them.

Plenty of water should never be wanting, and is best supplied by a river; whence it may be commodiously derived by pipes, into the lavadero's, smelting-huts, &c. or even brought into the burrows themselves, and made to work the subterraneous machines. These are conveniencies not constantly to be expected from casual rains, or the torrents of the mountains.

The roads and conveniencies of carriage, to and from the adjacent parts, must be likewise regarded, as well for the sale of the metal produced, as the conveyance of goods, and the necessities of life to the workmen: for it rarely happens, that provisions are afforded upon the spot where metals are found.

The places abounding with mines are generally healthy, as standing high, and every way exposed to the air: yet some places, where mines are found, prove poisonous, and can upon no account be dug, though ever so rich. The way of examining a suspected place of this kind is, to make experiments upon brutes, by exposing them to the effluvia or exhalations, to find the effect.

But a considerable advantage may sometimes be made, without the labour and expence of digging: for, as springs and rivulets are frequently the outlets of mines, it may happen that the sand of such waters shall be worth the washing for metal, in which manner large quantities of gold-dust are often procured: and hence it appears to be, that the sands of many rapid rivers contain gold; and even the sand of the sea in some places, though the latter in so small a proportion as seldom to be worth the washing. But the sand of such rivers wherein stamped ores are continually washed, may frequently deserve to be assayed.

The veins of a mine greatly differ from each other, in depth, length, and breadth. Some stretch obliquely from the surface towards the central parts of the earth, and these are called deep veins: others lie shallow and circular, so as to encompass a large space; these are termed spreading veins: others possess a great part of the space they lie in, both in length and breadth, and these are called accumulated veins, being no more than a space possessed by a group of fossils of one certain kind. But to give the history of veins, and fibres, which are smaller veins, their differences, their directions, their intersections, their different goodness, their discontinuations, their rising, falling, &c. would be a large work. Let it, however, be observed, that these things seem to proceed in a certain order, though the laws of them have not been well observed, so as to afford the sure rules of practice: whence it sometimes happens, that, after a vein has been successfully tried for some time, it dips, breaks off, or takes a different course, leaving the workmen as it were at fault.

When a vein of ore is found, and all things prepared for the work, if the vein be of the deep kind, it is first to be laid bare and a pit to be sunk upon it, at the mouth whereof a shed is to be raised, and a crane, or barrel and winch fixed, for craning up the ore. The pit is to be sunk either perpendicular or oblique, according as the vein happens to run.

It is also usual, in this case, to cut a burrow or adit, into the side of the hill. This burrow is usually cut twice as high as wide, that the workmen may commodiously pass along it with their barrows and burdens, being for that purpose usually about seven feet and a half high, and almost four feet wide. If this side pit reaches to the first pit, it becomes a true burrow, open at both ends, and thus renders the work more facile and commodious, as the ore may be now wheeled out in barrows, instead of being craned up to the mouth of the pit. After the same manner it is usual to dig many caverns into

the sides of the mountain, in order to scoop out the ore; so that sometimes there are thus several burrows made, to the ease and advantage of the work.

The art of digging the veins varies according to the nature of the vein, or according as it is soft or hard. The soft vein is generally dug with the spade, and turned out into wooden trays, placed underneath to receive it: but the hard veins are knocked out with a gad, or kind of chissel and hammer. But, if the ore is so hard as to be incapable of breaking in this manner, they usually soften it with fire, which has the power of rendering the hardest and most flinty stones brittle and friable. But a still more expeditious method is the working with gunpowder, by means whereof much of the hardest rock may be shivered and split in a very little time; a small parcel of powder being laid in a long hollow cut for that purpose, after the nature of a gun-barrel, and fired as it were at a touch-hole; a small vent, where the quick-match is applied, being left for the purpose, and the orifice being otherwise hard stopped up with clay.

The manner of pursuing and digging all sorts of veins, the ways of under-propping and discharging the water from the works, the sinking of air-shafts, curing of damp, and the like, to the best advantage, requires more philosophy than the generality of mere workmen, or the common miners have, though their experience may as much assist the theoretic philosopher, as the discernment of the latter may that of the former.

REMARKS ON MINEROLOGY.

We learn from the preceding enquiry, that, to practise mine-ology and metallurgy to advantage, a considerable knowledge in natural philosophy, as well as in the operations of chemistry, in relation to the point of metallurgy, is required. That many miscarriages, in mineral attempts, have been owing to the want of a competent skill of mechanics, hydraulics, and chemistry.

That the profit attending the scientific working of mines is generally greater, and upon the whole more considerable, than that of agriculture or merchandize.

That there are two ways of discovering mines, viz. by accident and by art: the latter whereof belongs to the intelligent mineralist.

That the art of discovering mines depends upon a certain sagacity, which may be acquired by use and practice; or upon the observation of particular signs, that generally denote a mine; and again upon the method of boring, according to some analogy of knowledge, gained by being conversant with the common appearances, situations, and other phenomena of mines.

That the art of discovering mines is reducible to rule, so as not to be mere conjecture, or guess-work.

That, in general, mines are to be first opened where a vein is, by accident, or otherwise, laid bare, especially if it prove large or rich: but, where no such encouragement appears, the side of the hill is principally to be chose for the opening.

That a deliberate consideration, and a competency of economical prudence, are usually required to determine beforehand, whether a mine, after it is discovered, may be wrought to profit.

That the most perfect situation of a mine is to be mountainous, woody, easy of ascent, healthy, bordering upon a navigable river, and good roads.

That metals may be sometimes obtained to advantage without digging, or barely by washing the sands of certain springs and rivers.

That mineral veins differ greatly from each other, and accordingly require different methods of digging, which may be reduced to standard rules of practice.

That the business of mining is improvable, by discovering better methods of preventing or curing the damp in mines, rendering poisonous mines wholesome, or defending the bodies of the workmen against their ill effects; as also by discovering better methods of raising or discharging the waters, following the veins, breaking the rock, getting up the ore.

Before we take leave of this article, what the learned Dr. Edward Browne says, with regard to the miner's compass, in his Travels through Hungary, Thessaly, Macedonia, &c. may deserve the attention of those, who may become adventurers herein.

‘ They [the miners] says he, work, towards one, two, or three of the clock; for the miner's differs from the mariner's compass, being not divided into 32, but into 24 points.— This is very true, not only in regard to the Hungarian and German miners, but with respect to our own coal miners: where, if you ask any of the workmen about the course of the veins, they answer you, that it dips towards six o'clock, which is utterly unintelligible to common people. The truth of the matter is, that the miner's and mariner's compass is founded upon different principles, though it is to be doubted, whether a method might not be found of using the mariner's compass to great advantage in mines; but at present we have not room to insist upon this, and shall therefore content ourselves with observing, that in the miner's compass the upper twelve o'clock answers to the meridian of the place

where the mine is, and from thence the hours are marked on each of the semicircles; so that six o'clock makes a quadrant on each side, and each of the hour lines is distant from the other 15 degrees; so that, in fact, the miner's compass is a kind of dial; and, when they say they have worked to such an hour, they mean that they work to such a point as the sun bears from them at the time of the day which they mention.'

'Kircher, in regard to this discovery of mines, says, we must allow, that all the signs for the discovery of mines, here mentioned, are founded on a weak bottom, and that there is none of those supposed marks, whereby one can be sure and certain, after you have discovered the place that contains ore, neither what quantity nor what kind it holds; for these signs will direct as well to sulphur, antimony, salt, mercury, lead, iron, copper, tin, as to silver and gold. But, by virtue of the WINCHEL-ROD, we may with confidence distinguish the one from the other, and know what kind of ore the mines contain: for, by holding in each hand a piece of gold, the rod which thereby attracts the atoms of the gold, will beat or move to no other metal; with silver it will do the same, as those who profess themselves professors of that art affirm: which we are afraid is a gross imposition, and that Kircher herein might be deceived by some of the artifices of miners, which leads us to take some notice of them.

'The operation with the virgula divina, says Mr. Gabriel Plattes*, is thus to be performed: some observe a set day and hour, with certain words and ceremonies at the cutting up of the same, which I have found to be little to the purpose. Thus I worked about Midsummer, in a calm morning: I cut up a rod of hawthorn of the same spring's growth, almost a yard long; then I tied it to my staff in the middle, with a strong thread, so that it did hang even, like the beam of a balance: thus I carried it up and down the mountains where lead grew, and before noon it guided me to the orifice of a lead mine; which I tried, having one with me with an hatchet of iron, and a spade; and, within two hours, we found a vein of lead ore, within less than a foot of the grass: the sign that it sheweth is to bow down the root-end towards the earth, as though it would grow there, near unto the orifice of a mine: when you see it do so, you must carry it round about the place, to see that it turneth in the spring still to the place, on which side soever you stand.

* See his Discovery of Subterranean Treasures, p. 4. 5.

The reason of this attraction, continues he, I conceived to be of kin to the loadstone, drawing iron to it by a secret virtue, inbred by nature, and not by any conjuration, as some have fondly imagined.

And the reason of this my opinion was, because that, in divers of my practical experiments, I have observed an attraction betwixt several things, like that of the loadstone and iron; and, if it were to good purpose, I suppose that I could shew more experience of that kind than any man in England.—But the truth of the sure discovery of valuable mines or minerals by such-like means as here pretended, has not yet been made experimentally appear to the satisfaction of the learned world.

FURTHER REMARKS ON MINEROLOGY.

OF THE DECEITS AND IMPOSITIONS OF MINERS, AND OTHERS IN LEAGUE WITH THEM, IN ORDER TO GUARD THE PUBLIC AGAINST THEM.

1. After the practising every art to induce adventurers to hazard their money and give the miners employment, they uphold the adventurer's spirit, from time to time, by fair promises and plausible appearances: and, when they find that people begin to be quite wearied out, they then think it time to produce some ore; which they frequently have conveyed under-ground from some other mine, to engage the adventurers still to keep them employed.
2. But, when no more ore appears, then they amuse people with the notion, that what they had discovered was only a leader to some vein, and that the vein could not be far off: thus they lead their dupes on, 'till, perhaps, they do at length really discover a vein of ore: but, that they may make the most of it to their own advantage, they will then tell the adventurers, that they find it is in vain for them to go on in that place any longer, for that they see no likelihood of reaping any advantage.—Thus the first adventurers are imposed on to desist, when they might carry on the work to profit, as they were drawn in to continue it, when there was not the least view of advantage.
3. The miners fixing their private mark upon the surface of the earth where the vein was discovered draw others in, for a time, to hazard their money in other places; and at length apply to some persons to work where the real mine is, for a fortnight, three weeks, or a month, for nothing; for that they are, by certain secret signs, known only to themselves, convinced, that there is a good vein there; and, provided they shall have such an extra-consideration, if they, in that

time, discover a mine, and have the sole working thereof, they will engage gratis. This naturally draws adventurers, the mine is really found, and those reap the sole advantage of it, who never hazarded one shilling in its discovery.

4. Artful and villainous projectors also are frequently in combination with the miners, to deceive people by the following arts:

1. These projectors prevail on the miners to give out that a valuable mine is discovered; samples of the ore are produced, and assays made by assay-masters of credit, who pronounce the ore to yield so much metal. This being confirmed by divers assays, numbers are seduced to hazard their money, in concert with the projector's emissaries, when the whole is sunk in the pockets of the infamous schemers and miners.

2. It has been said, that, in order to draw people into those adventures, some tons of ore have been often purchased from other mines, carried to places where there was none, and pretended to be there discovered. A wealthy gentleman, and of experience in mining in CORNWALL, was thus egregiously imposed upon by those villains, though he had the circumspection to go down into the mine himself, and see with his own eyes; and was, as I have been well informed, greatly reduced.

3. Another art said to have been practised by these deceivers is, the making of an artificial mineral, abounding richly with gold and silver.—This they do, by melting a portion of gold and silver with some sulphureous marcasite or mineral, and break the same in such a manner as to appear like a native mineral; by which, upon the assay's yielding real gold and silver, people are imposed upon.

These are the shameful impositions to which persons are liable; so that unless they live in the neighbourhood of places that abound with mines, can depend upon the fidelity of the miners, and have sufficient judgment themselves, and will venture thier persons down into the mines from time to time, there is no great dependance to be made upon the report of others.

Certain it is, that many have got great estates by mining; and if they reside upon the spot, and have competent skill to guard themselves against fraud and delusion, people may often stand a good chance of great gain for very little hazard.

MINES, are places in the earth, out of which metals, minerals, and other kinds of earth are dug.

So many different kinds of fossils as there are, so many various names have their mines, viz. gold-mines, silver-mines, copper-mines, iron-mines, coal-mines, salt-mines, and such as produce gems, &c.

The most celebrated gold and silver mines, are

1. Those of PERU and CASTELLA DEL ORO, which are the richest in the world, yielding gold and silver in abundance, and not being destitute of other metals; insomuch that the natives of Peru and the Spaniards used to boast, that this kingdom was founded upon gold and silver. [See the article PERU.]

Girava, a Spanish writer, affirms, that there were formerly mines about the town of Quitto, which produced more gold than earth. And, when the Spaniards made their first expedition into this golden country, they found several houses, especially in the regal city Cusco, which were all covered over within and without with plates of massy gold. And the officers of the Peruvian forces not only wore silver armour, but all their arms were made of pure gold. The most rich and advantageous mine of silver is in the mountains of Potosi, where 20,000 labourers are daily employed to dig it. These mines produce that vast quantity of gold and silver, which the king of Spain receives out of America every year, to the mortification of other kings and potentates; and which he therefore keeps fortified, with strong forts and garrisons.

2. There are excellent rich mines of silver in the JAPAN ISLANDS, whence they are called, by the Spaniards, the Silver Islands. There are also some mines of gold found there, but these are not so rich as formerly.

3. There were more plentiful gold-mines formerly in ARABIA, than at present.

4. In the mountains of PERSIA, and in CHINA, there are some silver-mines.

5. In GUINEA there are several mountains that produce gold, but they are remote from the shore, and the gold dust that is brought from thence, is not dug out of the ground, but gathered up and down by the natives. Their inland kings are however said each to possess his mine, the product of which he sells to the neighbouring merchants, and they again to others, 'till it reaches the sea-coast, where it is exchanged with the Europeans.

6. In MONOMOTAPA, there are found rich mines of gold and silver, and also in Angola, both of which are thought to be parts of one continued vein.

7. GERMANY excels the rest of the kingdoms of Europe for plenty of mines, of which some produce small quantities of gold, others abundance of silver, and a great many of them copper, iron, lead, vitriol, antimony.

8. SWEDEN is enriched with the best copper-mine of any hitherto discovered, it is in a vast high mountain, which they call Kopperberg, out of which as much copper is dug as makes up a third part of the king's revenue. Here are also numerous iron-mines, and some silver-mines, but the latter scarcely defray the expence of digging them.

9. There are mines of precious stones found in the island of CEYLON, and also in CONGO (where there is a silver-mine, and so much marble, that the earth under-ground is thought to be all marble) and in PERU, about PORTOVIGO, in SMARAGDINA, and in GUIANA, near the coast of which there is a small island called ST. MARIA, which yields a pretty deal of gold, if we may believe the Dutch. In the kingdom of GOLCONDA, there is a mine which yields precious stones, particularly diamonds in abundance, but it is not now dug.

10. In CHILI there are mines yielding gold, silver, and gems, but the warlike inhabitants, setting more by iron-weapons than gold or silver, have partly killed, and partly driven away, the Spaniards, and demolished the mines that were but newly begun.

11. The island of MADAGASCAR abounds in iron and tin, with a moderate quantity of silver, a little gold, but no lead. Wherefore the natives value leaden spoons above silver ones.

12. In the island of SUMATRA it is reported, that there are rich mines of gold, silver, brass, and iron, and that the king in one year, (viz. in 1620) received into his treasure 1000 pounds weight of gold.

13. In the PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, and in JAVA, HISPANIOLA, CUBA, and others, there are found mines of gold, silver, copper, and iron; and, in the mountains of SIAM, there are got gold, silver, and tin.

14. There are mines of salt in POLAND at POCHNIA, four miles from CRACOW (where large lumps of transparent white salt are cut out of the ground) in TRANSYLVANIA, in the county of TYROL, and in places near the CASPIAN SEA, not far from the river WOLGA, over-against the island KISTOWAT, where the Russians dig their salt and boil it to a more pure substance, and afterwards transport it to all parts of Russia. In CUBA, there is a whole mountain of salt. All the mountains in the island of ORMUS, at the mouth of the Persian gulph, are of salt, which may be gathered in any part of them, in such great quantities, that the very walls of their houses are built of crystalline salt. In a valley in PERU, about eighteen miles from LIMA to the northward, are found deep and large pits of salt, where every one may take away what quantity he pleases, because it continually increaseth, and seemeth impossible to be exhausted. In AFRICA there is no other salt used, but such as is dug out of pits or quarries, like marble, of a white, greenish, or ash-colour. All India fetch their salt from the great salt-mines of BAGNAGAR in COROMANDEL, &c.

In DERBYSHIRE, YORKSHIRE, FLINTSHIRE, in ENGLAND, there are considerable lead-mines, and some copper. CORNWALL abounds with tin-mines. SUSSEX, SOMERSETSHIRE, with iron, &c. SCOTLAND and IRELAND also, and the BRITISH PLANTATIONS in NORTH AMERICA, have numerous mines, many of which are wrought to great advantage.

Of the GENERATION of MINES.

Mines are commonly found in high mountains, because the heat does concenter and unite better there than in low grounds, and consequently there is a stronger fermentation for the production of metals.

The hardest, the weightiest, and most compact metals, are generated, when by fermentation there has been an entire separation of the gross parts; for they are only a coagulation of very subtile particles, and a strict union of these very small pores.

Metals lie in mines very often like great trees, which spread their branches towards all sides; whence it is, that many have thought they were nourished as plants and animals, by juices which run and circulate in the veins or vessels supposed to be within them; but, if the thing be examined narrowly, it may easily be conceived, that these branches of metals (which are called veins by those who deal in mines) happened only by the running of the metallic matter through several small canals, before it was coagulated; which may have been occasioned by the fermentation that swells the matter, and forces it to open the circumadjacent earth in divers places. This fermentation also raises very often (even to the top of the mountain where there is any metal) strings of some marcasite or metallic earth, which is taken as a great sign of metals by those who search after them.

Because it would be a very laborious and unpleasant work to dig for metals, without some reasonable assurance of finding them; therefore some have studied to know the several characteristics, by which it may be concluded, that such and such places do afford mines.

There are, indeed, sometimes mines, whose veins appear in the very surface of the earth, so that none can doubt of finding them. [See AFRICA.] But, if none others were sought after, we should not have such abundance of metals. Some

therefore of the following marks may be added to those already given for discovering mines.

First, It is to be considered whether the ridges and tops of mountains, their chinks, cavities, or pits digged in them, do yield any marcasites, or pieces of metal; for that is a sign there is a mine somewhere about: and, to find out the place, you must follow the string, or track, of these marcasites.

Another sign of a neighbouring mine is, when there are found, in the sand of any rivulet, or spring, small pieces of marcasites; for those have been carried off by the waters, which commonly come out of mountains; and so, by tracing the rivulet or water to it's head, you may come at last to the mine itself.

A third mark of a mine is, when abundance of hot waters, or waters which have a mineral taste, flow from a mountain, or any other place: for the places where metals are generated are always invironed with these waters, which is the occasion of no small trouble and difficulty to those who dig in mines.

A fourth sign of a mountain's having a mine in it is, when it is bare and barren, without trees, and having very few plants upon it; or when those that grow there are pale, and without any fresh colour: for the mineral vapours which arise through the pores of this mountain, burn the roots of these plants.

Indeed, sometimes metals are found in very green and fertile mountains, where there are many trees, and other plants; for the metallic vapours do either arise there in a less quantity, or are of a different nature, and so do not hinder the growth of plants in these mountains: or, perhaps, the mines lie at the bottom of them, or may be covered with some hard stone, which intercepts the exhalation of the vapours from the plants. Finally, some very skilful in mines pretend to know, whether there be any in a mountain, by adverting to the reflection of the sun-beams. There being so much water in mines, which necessarily must be drawn off, therefore they commonly rather begin at the foot of the mountain than at the top, because the waters may this way be more easily drained.

Then they dig a vault near to the foot of the mountain, which ought to be continued, in a straight line, the nearest way to the body of the mine; but many do often amuse themselves with the small veins of the metal which they meet with, and upon that account leave the right way, and so both lose their time, and spoil their work: besides that, they expose themselves to great danger; for they shake the soft stones, which, by this means, fall down in great quantity, filling up what they had digged, and sometimes crushing the very workmen. To avoid this accident, they use to prop the roofs of their vaults, or rooms which they dig, with great rafters of wood, to prevent the falling of the loose earth and stones, and then they work by proper instruments for loosening the metal itself.

Metals differ from other minerals in being malleable, which the others are not.

They are accounted seven, gold, silver, iron, tin, copper, lead, and quicksilver; this last is not malleable of itself, but is so mingled with the others, that it is thought to be the seed of metals.

Astrologers have conceived that there was so great an affinity and correspondence between the seven metals beforenamed and the seven planets, that nothing happened to the one but the other shared in it; they made this correspondence to happen through an infinite number of little bodies, that pass to and from each of them; and they suppose the corpuscles to be so figured, that they can easily pass through the pores of the planet and metal they represent, but cannot enter into other bodies, because their pores are not figured properly to receive them; or else, if they do chance to get admittance into other bodies, they cannot fix and stay there to contribute any nourishment; for they imagine that the metal is nourished and perfected by the influence that comes from it's planet, and so the planet again the same from the metal.

For these reasons they have given these seven metals the names of the seven planets, each according as they are governed: and so have called gold the sun, silver the moon, iron Mars, quicksilver Mercury, tin Jupiter, copper Venus, and lead Saturn.

They have likewise fancied that each of these planets has his day apart to distribute liberally his influence on our hemisphere: and so they tell us that, if we work upon silver on Monday, iron on Tuesday, and so of the rest, we shall attain our end much better than on other days.

Again, they have taught us that the seven planets do every one govern some particular principal part of our bodies; and, because the metals do represent the planets, they must needs be mighty specific in curing the distempers of those parts, and keeping them in good plight. Thus they have assigned the heart to gold, the head to silver, the liver to iron, the lungs to tin, the reins to copper, and the spleen to lead.

Thus you see, in short, what some of the most sober astrologers do fancy concerning metals; and they draw consequences from hence which it would be too long here to relate. I have told you what the soberest among them say; for nothing can be so absurd as what some of them would have us believe.—But this has been judged by the most esteemed philosophers mere whim and enthusiasm.

Never-

Nevertheless, if we could be satisfied that experience confirmed what these persons have offered to maintain, we might then have reason to think there were some likelihood in their doctrine, although their principles were found to be altogether false; but in truth there is nothing to confirm their opinion, and we find it every day plain enough, that the faculties and virtues are utterly false which they attribute to the planets and metals. The metals, indeed, are of good use in medicine, and excellent remedies may be drawn from them; but their effects may better be explicated by causes near at hand than the stars.

Working in metal is very ancient, even from the first age of the world; in the time of Tubal Cain, according to the testimony of Moses, they had got the art of working with a hammer, and they knew how to make utensils of tin and iron. It is very probable that, in the time of that lawgiver, they practised chemistry, because of the children of Israel, under Aaron, made themselves a golden calf; and Moses, after he came down from Mount Sinai, in a great wrath against the people, reduces this calf to ashes; which was, we may reasonably suppose, done by dissolution and precipitation, and mercury. See the articles METALS, METALLURGY, MINERALS, MINEROLOGY.

R E M A R K S.

As land produces more or less corn according to its goodness or fertility, and the labour employed in manuring it; so the mines of iron, lead, copper, coal, tin, silver, &c. produce more or less according to the richness of the veins, and of the labour of digging, drawing off the waters, melting, refining, &c. The labour of the silver miners is the dearest, by reason of the danger and mortality attending it; and the silver miners are esteemed to live, at a medium, but five or six years in that labour.

The value of metals is like every thing else, proportionable to the land and labour that enters into their production; and the price of them varies according to the demand and consumption, which depends principally on the fancy and manner of living of the proprietors of land.

If all the tin that is drawn annually out of the mines of Cornwall, and which commonly sells at London for about 100,000*l.* has every year a constant consumption and vent, the land and labour that enter into its production are equal to the land and labour that produce any other quantity of commodities which sell for 100,000*l.*

But if every body rejected the use of tin, and made use of earthen ware instead of it, it would cease to be in esteem, and to have a value, and the tin adventurers would discontinue the work of the tin mines.

Let us suppose in a state without foreign trade, that a regular and uniform quantity of copper is annually dug out of the mines for the common uses of life, as pots, kettles, pans, and kitchen ware, to replace the quantity of copper which is yearly consumed by fire, or worn away, and then that copper is begun to be made use of as money; this additional demand of copper will make it dearer, and encourage the digging out of the mines more of it than usual, and there will be more copper yearly required to replace that which is consumed.

All ordinary metals, as iron, lead, tin, copper, coals, &c. are consumed by fire, the computation of the land and labour that goes to their production. See the article LABOUR.

But silver and gold are not consumed by fire, and they wear out so slowly by friction and attrition, that they may be esteemed permanent metals in this regard, as well for their other qualities, as their volume, subdivision without waste, the impossibility of falsifying them, &c. They seem best fitted of any metals or commodities to serve for money.

If there were constantly an equal demand and consumption in a state of corn and wool, there would be also a constant proportion of value between them, supposing also an equal quantity of each to be constantly produced.

In this case, a measure of wheat would always bear a constant proportion of value to a pound of wool; and an accomptant might, by imagining aliquot parts, find out a common measure to know how much wool is worth so much wheat.

But, in regard the consumption of these and all other commodities, as well as their quantities in a state, vary frequently, or rather constantly, no accomptant or algebraist can fix any proportion of value between them.

Money alone (I do not here consider what is used for money) naturally finds out this proportion, and the quantity of money which is brought to market to barter for each kind of commodity, readily fixes the proportion of value that is between them all, *Quæ eadem uni tertio sunt eadẽm inter se.* Every body who brings his money to market knows what money he has to lay out, or, at least, what he intends to lay out for the expence of that day.

The working of mines is undertaken either by private persons, or by companies of such, or by corporations endowed with certain privileges, as the Mine-Adventurers, &c.

Further R E M A R K S.

The substance of what has been suggested for the advancement of mining, seems to be reducible to what follows, viz.

There is not any method that appears so conducive towards effectually carrying on works of mining and smelting, as that which is established in Sweden; there the whole business is under the direction and management of commissioners, in the same manner as there is in this kingdom a board of trade and plantations, where the principal branches are under the nicest regulations imaginable: they have two persons who are principally employed, and under whose direction are put all the machine works belonging to their mines; these again have mechanics under them, who are very industrious, and continually aiming at some improvements; then, in order to promote discoveries, they appoint people in every province and county, who are called minor metal searchers; because their daily employment and constant business, is to survey the grounds, and examine the mountains, for all kind of metal-line ores, minerals, veins, beds, &c.

Whatever discoveries happen to be made by these, they are instantly reported to the grand board; to which, if they seem likely to prove beneficial, orders are issued out immediately, and miners are set to work in the most advantageous manner: after the same method are all the other branches of this science carried on, in which the same spirit prevails.

In order to facilitate and accomplish the perfection of this science, and to range its laws in such a just order, so as to render the whole into a compleat body of mining and smelting, the following method, we apprehend, will not appear irrational or impracticable.

1. Both mining and smelting should be treated in an historical manner: a just account of them should be brought down from the earliest ages to this present time, in which particular notice should be taken, what improvements have been made, and what declensions and decays it has suffered, and in what ages and in what nations, they have happened.

2. A true theory must be established: the symptoms, which by experience have been confirmed to be characteristics, whether good or bad, should be laid down in their proper order; the rationale of them be given; those that are equivocal ranged under one class, and those that are univocal or pathognomonic under another: it should be shewn likewise, how they are dependent upon each other, or how one is the necessary consequent of the other: taking care, that the whole be demonstrated in such a plain and easy manner, that it may justly be said to be adapted to the meanest capacity, though founded upon an exact system of natural philosophy; so that a proper regard is to be taken, that nothing is asserted, but what may, and is made evident from the same principles.

3. All the branches of the mechanical part of mining, or the various ways of working under-ground, should be familiarly particularized, and made as clear as possible; the different methods of different countries be faithfully represented; for from every one of them something may be collected, towards improving our own: wherefore we must not forget to mention the tools, which, with all curious under-ground structures, should be delineated in a lively and intelligible manner upon copper-plates.

4. Draughts of all machines appertaining to mine-works, should, in like manner, be exactly exhibited upon copper-plates: in this branch we need not be ashamed to borrow from foreigners; amongst those that have been invented by the Swedes, we shall find a great many worthy of our observation; for they have excelled all other nations, particularly in one, which, in all respects, answer the end in a very surprising manner, without the assistance of ropes; as is particularly described by Mr. Swedenborg, in his *Regno Subterraneo*.

5. As the mineral veins of one country differ from those of another; for instance sake, we will mention two of the most material: veins on the continent are in long ranges and rakes, they are not there liable to bars or out-cuts; they, therefore, most commonly run pretty straight and certain, for as many miles as the course of the mountains will admit of; they are entirely unacquainted with beds and bellies in their mines, which are most commonly called Pipe-works: so on the contrary, in all islands, the ranges or rakes are seldom found to run in straight lines; their veins are very uncertain, seldom continue long; they are frequently impeded with bars or out-cuts of the rocks, and the ore is too often found in bellies and pipe-works: in fine, they have scarce any thing alike or common with those on the continent, except the underfets, which are generally the same in most places.

The same uncertainty and irregularity holds good, and extends itself even to the very rocks and mountains, which in this kingdom are different, in different counties; those in Flintshire are most commonly soft, those in Montgomeryshire hard, and those in Cardiganshire are in no respect like those of either place; these differences are ever to be cautiously weighed and considered, for they occasion a different method of scrutiny and examination, as well as a different one of working; nor can we borrow any light from our neighbours into this affair, the picture must absolutely be taken from the original: therefore, if any author should attempt to write a distinct treatise of this art, and describe the particular method of working which ought to be pursued in a particular county or soil, before he can pretend to render such an undertaking

taking complete and beneficial to the inhabitants, and proficients of the place he designs it for; he must survey the mineral mountains very carefully, that he may be able to compose his *Geographia Subterranea* in a correct and skilful manner; for, if this is not done, how can he be supposed to form his maps exactly true? How will he be able to describe the labouring part? How will he be capable of distinguishing the promising symptoms from those that are otherwise? How will he manifest the product of the mountains, and point out the way by which they may be worked to the best advantage? Yet all these things must be diligently observed, and punctually prosecuted; these rules must be strictly regarded by every writer that designs his labour to benefit the nation, to serve the proprietor, and to instruct the ignorant. In fine, he must follow the example of the accurate coast-surveyor, that not only points out the safest roads and harbours, but likewise manifests the dangerous shoals and rocks; therefore, let the subterranean geographer describe the barren, as well as the fertile mountain, for by that he will give us to understand the promising ore-bearing signs, and vice versa; for a good guide ought not only to be acquainted with the main road, through which he is to conduct his traveller, but he should also know the bye ones, that he may not be at a loss to get into the main one, if by any accident he should happen to be thrown out of it.

6. When he comes to the smelting part, he must lay down a general history of the produce of nature in the caverns of the earth; he must give us a description of the various sorts of ores and minerals, by shewing us not only the different properties which essentially distinguish one species from another, but likewise the diversity that may be found in each specie; these, according to their several degrees and natures, are to be distributed into proper classes, divided and subdivided under proper heads; giving to each its inseparable characteristics, whereby to distinguish it from the rest; telling us how and where they are commonly found, what appearances they afford when analyzed, what principles they are composed of, what mixed bodies they are incorporated with, what compositions and fluxes are most suitable to them, to free them from other heterogeneous mixture, and set at liberty their purest contents: in fine, it must be set forth after what manner they are to be treated, and what discoveries have been made in this respect in different ages; exhibiting exact draughts of furnaces that are and have been used in foreign countries as well as in our own, that choice may be made of those that are the best adapted for the purpose; pointing out their perfections and imperfections, that they may be farther improved, as the artist shall have occasion.

7. The mine and mineral manufactures are fully to be treated of, the materials that all are composed of be registered; how they are produced, and after what manner they are obtained in foreign countries, even in the common way of smelting, must be clearly set forth: these would make a considerable article in the trade and manufactures of this kingdom; for the materials of those commodities are to be met with in great abundance, in several parts of this country.

8. The whole work must be concluded, with giving compleat instructions on the art of assaying metalline and mineral ores in small quantities [see the article *ASSAY*]; nothing here should be omitted, which can in any shape be conducive to this purpose, for it is of very great and material concern.

If a treatise should be executed, that laid out a plain plan, founded upon a solid theory, the whole confirmed and established by experiments, it might reasonably be expected, that mining and smelting would undoubtedly raise their head; it might justly be concluded, that these two arts would soon come into a flourishing state in this kingdom; that they would in a few years gain the ascendancy, even over those where the mines are worked to the greatest perfection yet known.

MINORCA, an island in the Mediterranean Sea, situate about 100 miles south of the coast of Catalonia in Spain, and about 20 miles east of the island Majorca, and is 30 miles long and 12 broad.

The soil of this island is of several kinds; that of the hills and upper grounds, is of a colour nearly approaching to black. It is light, fine, and extremely fertile; and, though it is very thinly spread over the face of the rock, it yet produces tolerable crops with very little cultivation. It has a small intermixture of sand, which disposes it to separate freely before the plough; a quality very advantageous to the Minorquins, as it saves them a world of labour as well as expence.

The soil of the plains is far less fertile than that of the rising grounds. It is cold and clayey, and equally unfit for agriculture and pasture; and produces only a sour herbage, that is excessively distasteful to cattle, great plenty of spart (a kind of rushes) in many places, a variety of weeds. The vallies, indeed, have been enriched by the earth that has been washed on them from the adjoining hills to a great depth: but the hills have been impoverished by the same means, and in the same proportion. However, we frequently see stone-walls, that have probably stood many ages, run across the sides of the hills to detain the soil; and such hills yield good crops to

the very summit, which must otherwise have had their rocky entrails laid bare, as is visible, wherever this caution has been neglected.

Iron ore is so plentifully dispersed over the whole face of the earth, that it is not surprizing we find it in Minorca. Its ferruginous colour and great weight distinguish it, in many flat masses, of from four to ten inches diameter, in most parts of the island. But it is not converted to any use here, either on account of its unsuitableness to make iron alone, the scarcity of fuel, or the want of skill in the natives.

But of lead ore here is a mine at St. Puig, which has been worked to advantage within these 40 years, and the ore sent into France and Spain, for the use of the potteries of those countries. The proprietor discontinued his work on some small discouragement; and it must be owned, that these people are of all mankind the most easily put out of conceit with an undertaking, that does not bring them in mountains of present gain, or that admits of the slightest probability of disappointing their most sanguine expectations: nor will their purse admit of many disappointments; and thus their poverty co-operating with their natural despondence and love of ease, is the principal cause of their backwardness to engage in projects, though never so promising, for the improvement of their private fortune, and the advantage of the commerce of their country. This lead ore went under the name of Vernis among the natives, as it was wholly used by the potters in varnishing and glazing their earthen vessels.

There are few exports of any account, and they are obliged to their neighbours for near one third of their corn, all their oil and aguardiente, and such a variety of articles of less consideration, that nothing could preserve them from a total bankruptcy, but the English money circulated by the troops, which is exchanged for the daily supplies of provisions, increased by the multiplication of vineyards, the breeding of poultry, and the production of vegetables, in a proportion of at least five to one since the island has been in our possession.

It will not require many words to enumerate their exports: they make a sort of cheese, little liked by the English, which sells in Italy at a very great price; this, perhaps, to the amount of eight hundred pounds per annum. The wool they send abroad may produce nine hundred pounds more. Some wine is exported, and, if we add to its value that of the home consumption, which has every merit of an export, being nine parts in ten taken off by the troops for ready money, it may well be estimated at sixteen thousand pounds a year. In honey, wax, and salt, their yearly exports may be about four hundred pounds; and this comes pretty near the sum of their exports, which we estimate together at eighteen thousand one hundred pounds sterling per annum.

A vast balance lies against them, if we consider the variety and importance of the articles they fetch from other countries, for which they must pay ready cash. Here it may be necessary to withdraw some things from the heap, such as their cattle, sheep, and fowls, on which they get a profit; for the country does not produce them in a sufficient abundance to supply them, especially when we have a fleet of men of war stationed there.

Their imports are, corn, cattle, sheep, fowls, tobacco, aguardiente, oil, rice, sugar, spices, hard ware, and tools of all kinds, gold and silver lace, chocolate, or cacao to make it, tobacco, timber, plank, boards, mill-stones, tobacco-pipes, playing cards, turnery ware, seeds, soap, saddles, all manner of cabinet-maker's work, iron spikes, nails, fine earthenware, glass, lamps, brassery, paper, and other stationary wares, copperas, galls, dye stuffs, painters brushes, and colours, musical instruments, music, and strings; watches, wine, fruit, all manner of fine and printed linens, muslins, cambrics and laces; bottles, corks, starch, indigo, fans, trinkets, toys, ribbands, tape, needles, pins, silk, mohair, lanthorns, cordage, tar, pitch, rosin, drugs, gloves, fire-arms, gunpowder, shot and lead; hats, caps, velvet, cotton, stuffs, woollen cloths, stockings, capes, medals, vestments, lustres, pictures, images, agnus Dei's, books, pardons, bulls, relics, and indulgencies.

REMARKS ON MINORCA.

The Spanish dons here are above trade, and the rest of the natives are unable to exercise it to any purpose. Yet if this infatuated people would set themselves seriously to make the most of their native produce, a few years industry would enable them to traffic with their neighbours to advantage, and even to provide exports of considerable value for an English market. To instance in a few: the cotton shrub has been tried here, and succeeds to admiration: they have spart growing in many places, in sufficient plenty to make all their own cordage, and to spare. The tunny fish abounds on their coast, and they might easily fall into the method of curing it: by this the French of Languedoc and Provence, their neighbours, make a vast advantage.

They have abundance of olive-trees, yet they make no oil of the fruit, and are utterly ignorant of the right method of pickling it.

Some capers they pickle; and might, from the frequency of the plant, improve this into a very valuable export.

Hemp and flax do extremely well, and might be increased, and manufactured for exportation. Their canes and reeds are of use in the clothiers trade, but they export none; and they have great plenty of excellent slate, but do not work it. It might possibly answer to send their cantoon stone to England as ballast; but certainly their marble would be a valuable commodity with us, of which no country can boast a greater quantity in proportion, nor of greater beauty or variety, than this poor island.

Squills they have in abundance, mastic, aloes, and some other drugs, which they neglect.

Their bees thrive well, and should be carefully managed, and increased as much as possible; their wax is inferior to none, and their honey cannot fail of being extremely delicate and fine in a country abounding with such a variety of aromatic plants, and is, therefore, in high esteem every where.

They raise a little tobacco, but seldom half the quantity they consume; and they make a kind of snuff, in small quantities, which is in no respect inferior to that of Lisbon.

Their neighbours of Majorca make good advantage of their plantations of saffron, which these people use in their cookery, and yet will not take pains to raise it.

Their palm-trees, for want of a proper cultivation, produce no dates; and they send none of their fruit abroad, though they have it in their power to supply us with as good figs, prunes, almonds, raisins, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, and several other kinds, as any country in Europe.

But we will close these hints of what an industrious people might do to enrich themselves, and this indolent generation of men carelessly overlook, with the mention of salt, a ready-money commodity every-where, and of which they might easily make a thousand times the quantity they now do. Their method requires little trouble. There are a great many places on the coast of the island, where the rock is but little higher than the surface of the sea, and is flat for a great way together. In gales of wind the sea is beat all over these levels; and the salts have, by degrees, corroded the softer parts of the stone, and reduced it's face to an infinite number of small cavities, divided from each other by the more solid veins, which have resisted their impression.

These cavities they fill with water from the sea, by means of scoops, and one day's sun suffices to evaporate the water, and leaves the concreted salt dry in the cells. The women and children gather it in the evening, and carry it home; and the cells in the rock are filled as before.

Having instanced some of the natural produce of this island slighted by the inhabitants, which yet are capable of being improved into very valuable articles of commerce; we will attempt an estimate of the charge they are at in their importations.

From authentic papers, which contain an exact account of their harvests for thirty-seven years, it appears, that there are annually raised here 53,501 quarters of wheat, and, 22,683 of barley, one year with another.

Wheat is their only bread-corn, all their barley being given to their beasts. Of the last they seldom import any; but they have occasion for 35,000 quarters of wheat every year; which, at nine shillings each, amount to 15,750*l*. They import oil yearly to the value of 10,000*l*.

By an exact account of their aguardiente for 14 years, we find they import annually of this spirit a quantity that costs them 9250*l*. allowing only 10 per cent. for the profit of the farmers; and this, at six-pence a quart, makes their yearly consumption of this spirit to be upwards of 1540 hogsheds.

They import tobacco to the amount of 1200*l*. a year.

We may compute that their imports in linen and woollen goods of all kinds do not come to less than 15,000*l*. It is not possible to make a nice calculation of the value of all the residue of their imports, but we may reasonably set them at 20,000*l*.

So that here we have an annual expence of 71,200*l*. from which if we deduct 18,100*l*. the amount of their exports, the remainder, 53,100*l*. sterling, is a clear balance of trade against them.

To enable these people, in some measure, to support the charge of this great balance, we are to reckon the large sum of money yearly brought into the island, and spent among them by the troops; a sum that falls but little short of their whole balance; the greatest part of which goes to market for the common necessaries of life.

Every vintage produces 18,000 hogsheds of wine; and, if we allow for the clergy 2000 hogsheds, and for all the rest of the natives 1000, the remaining 15,000 hogsheds are sold, to the English, for 27,825*l*. in ready money, the price of a hoghead, taken at a medium, being 35 shillings.

This is a very considerable article in their favour; and they are so sensible of the advantage they draw from their vineyards, that they are continually enlarging them and increasing their number, notwithstanding they are taxed to near half their value.

They are, indeed, tied down to a set price for their red wine, and the asoracion, or rate, is settled the beginning of the year; but, for the little white wine they make, they are at liberty to drive their bargain as advantageously as they can.

It is certain this people can never be rich, unless they become industrious; the sea is open to them, as well as to their neighbours, on every side, who thrive by a foreign commerce, and yet not one of them can victual or navigate their vessels near so cheap as these slothful Minorquins, who lie in the center of so many trading ports, that it is amazing how they can have so long overlooked their true interest, and suffered themselves to be supplied with so many of the necessaries of life in foreign bottoms.

The Minorquins are naturally listless, and, if they contrive the means to keep their families from poverty, they are but little solicitous to enquire into the arts and manufactures by which sudden fortunes are acquired on every side of them. Tell them the Maltese are enriched by the quantities of cummin and annise-seed they export; remind them that the plant which produces the canary-feed grows spontaneously all over the island; or that a gum is produced from the mastic-tree, of very great value abroad (and though this tree is an incumbrance which they eagerly root out of their grounds) they treat you as a visionary, and, with a shrug of contempt, seem to thank heaven that they have no turn to whims and projects, but are contented to jog on in the plain track which their fathers trod before them.

MISSISSIPPI, MESSASIPPI, or MESCHASIPPI, a country of North America, bounded by Canada on the north; the British plantations on the east; the gulph of Mexico on the south; and the principality of New Mexico on the west. Mississippi river, which gives the name to the country, rises in Canada, and runs to the southward, till it falls into the gulph of Mexico. It is a large navigable river, said to run above 2000 miles; to which, as well as the adjacent country, the French lay claim, and have possessed themselves of part of the country ever since the year 1712, giving the river the name of St. Louis, and the country the name of LOUISIANA, and have made great efforts towards planting it, as it is a most fruitful and desirable country, of vast extent; though the east part of it, in reality, belongs to Great-Britain [see LOUISIANA,] and the west to the Spaniards, who have planted part of these countries long since, and are every day extending their settlements into it. The French raised the expectations of their people so high in relation to the immense riches that were to be acquired by planting it, and being settled so contiguous to the Spanish mines in Mexico, in the year 1719, that every one was ready to throw his money into the stocks, which the company sold at upwards of 2000 per cent. But the government seized most of the money, and the adventurers were ruined; which put a stop to the planting this country at that time; but it has been encouraged since; and, if the English do not oppose their encroachments, before they are too powerful on that side, they are like to be very troublesome neighbours to the British plantations.

REMARKS on the MISSISSIPPI before the last war.

This French Mississippi scheme, as well as the English South Sea scheme, tending to the destruction of fair and honourable commerce, and to the ruin of the public credit of nations, it will be expected that we should not slightly pass over a matter of this nature, in order to guard posterity against the like enormous bubbles.—See the articles BUBBLES and ACTIONS. The short history of this remarkable scheme is as follows, viz.

The regent of France having nothing more at heart than to discharge the state-bills, which amounted in value to some hundreds of millions, bethought himself, among other expedients, of erecting a company that should have the sole privilege of the trade of Mississippi, a large fruitful country in North America. Mr. Law, a Scotch gentleman, whose genius always carried him to the study of trade and money, contrived the plan of this establishment, which was made in 1717, of which he was appointed the principal director.

Every body was admitted to subscribe to this company; and the stock first proposed to be raised, was only sixty millions of livres, to be subscribed in state-bills. Nevertheless, though this was no great sum, and though the state-bills might be bought at between 60 and 70 per cent. discount, and were received at par, or without any loss in the company's subscriptions; yet, at first, people were not forward to subscribe, because they were still ignorant of the advantages which might accrue to them from the company.

The sixty millions being at length completed, the state enlarged the capital to a hundred millions, and granted the company the farm of tobacco, which produced four millions per annum, for the paying the interest of the said hundred millions, at the rate of 4 per cent.

The grant of this farm gave such a sudden credit to the subscribed bills (since called actions, or shares) that their price rose to a hundred and twenty, Mr. Law having so well managed the farm of tobacco, that the company made thereby considerable profits. Some time after the actions fell even to par, but they rose again in a few days.

After this, a new creation of actions was made, for the sum of 25 millions, which were delivered at 110. The companies of India and China were incorporated with that of Mississippi

Mississippi in 1719; whereupon the price of the actions rose from 100 to 200. About that time, the Mississippi company assumed the name of the India company.

When it appeared that the people of France took a relish to these actions, 'till then unknown in that kingdom, and that they were eager to lay out their money this way, being persuaded the company would make great profits, which would be divided among the owners of those actions, Mr. Law, in concert with the regent, formed a mighty project for enlarging the credit and profits of this company. An arrêt of the council of state was published for circulating bank bills to the value of 25 millions in the Mississippi company. To this advantage the state shortly afterwards added a grant of the coinage for nine years, and other specious encouragements.

These privileges made the actions immediately run up to 500; but they fell afterwards to 445, only upon the news of Mr. Law's being taken with a slight indisposition. After this, the actions rose again in a few days to 610, and soon fell to 560. All this happened a little after Midsummer, 1719.

The company finding their credit so well established, proposed to advance to the king a loan of 50 millions, in 15 monthly payments; and, in order to raise this sum, they obtained an arrêt of council for the creation of 25 millions of actions, upon the foot of 200 per action. But, as there was a considerable time allowed for the payments, and that the actions sold for three times that price, the company reserved to themselves a power to dispose of them, at what times they thought fit: whereby they kept in reserve a fund sufficient to buy merchandize, to build necessary ships, and settle good colonies in Mississippi; for thus the proprietors expected to receive very great sums from the sale of part of those actions, made at different times; the other part thereof having been at first delivered to the chief proprietors of the old ones, according to the purport of the arrêt.

About the end of August, the company proposed to the king to make another loan of 1200 millions of livres, at 3 per cent. interest; and, at the same time, to take the five great farms, paying to the state three millions and a half more than was given by the person who then held the lease, that is, 52 millions yearly, for the space of nine years, the term of the lease granted to the company. Out of this sum, they were every year to receive 36 millions, for the space of 25 years, for the interest of 1200 millions they had engaged themselves to advance to his majesty, in order to reduce to 3 per cent. the interest of the state debts upon the town-house of Paris, and others, which used to carry 4 per cent. which reduction saved the king 12 millions of livres yearly. The company's privileges were then prolonged to the year 1770.

The French fondly hoping that the company would get immense profits by trade, and principally by the direction of the general farms, which, 'till then, had been very illly managed, ran more than ever into these actions; so that, in a few weeks, they advanced to 1200.

Every thing at Paris then assumed a smiling countenance; money grew so common, that people did not know where to put it out at 3 per cent; the public securities, which before were at great discount, now sold for 10, nay, 15 above their par; the tradesmen had a greater vent for their goods; the workmen were better paid for their work; the value of land about Paris rose to 50, and even to 60 years purchase; many noblemen repaired their broken fortunes, and others grew very rich, by the great advantages they made in dealing in the actions of this new company.

Numbers of people never known in the world, and who sprung from nothing, were all of a sudden seen riding in their coaches, only by striking into this trade, by which, in a very few months, they had gained vast sums.

As the company had undertaken to lend the king 1200 millions, they found it necessary, in the month of September following, to raise 500 millions, by the sale of 50 millions of actions, at the rate of 1000 per action, which was ten times the original value of the actions.

The subscriptions were filled in a few hours; nay, they were obliged to return a third part that was subscribed above the sums, which amounted to 775 millions. The subscribers were not obliged to pay the whole sum all in at once, but in ten monthly payments; which, however, was afterwards altered for their convenience.

The first payment of these new subscriptions was sold the very next day at cent. per cent. profit.

In a few days afterwards, books were again opened to take in subscriptions for the like sum, upon the same conditions and restrictions as the former; and they were filled in as short a time.

The company's cashiers were forbidden, by an arrêt of council, to receive for those subscriptions, or in the nine payments remaining to be made for the last, any money or bank bills, but only state bills, or other the king's debts therein specified; which greatly raised the value of the effects royaux, or public securities.

This way of borrowing money, or rather of bringing into the company near 1000 millions of livres of the king's debts, having succeeded perfectly well, the company again opened their books for 500 millions more, and with the like success.

About that time, every action was divided into two parts, each valued at 5000 livres; for the rest, the actions were on paper, payable to the bearer; so that the owners might at any time exchange them for ready money, or bank notes, which were altogether as good, and more convenient than money.

The first payment of these three subscriptions, far from falling, rose considerably, that it quickly went at 1, 2, and even 300 per cent. profit; so that such subscribers as were willing to transfer their new subscriptions to other persons, did, in a few weeks, double and tripple, nay quadruple the money which they had advanced for that first payment.

Nevertheless, these last subscriptions sunk the price of the old ones, though the old ones were of the same nature, and as good as the last. The old subscriptions fell almost at once to 760, because the subscribers to the last wanting money to answer the second payment, which was so near, were forced to sell their first subscriptions.

The company, in order to put a stop to this fall, caused notice to be given at the bank, that they would repay them at 900. This advertisement gave such a support to the credit of those old subscriptions, that, in less than a month, they went at 1200, as before, and even rose higher, while the new actions fluctuated about 1300.

But, what contributed to it most, was, an arrêt of the council of state, allowing a longer term for the first payments that were to be made upon the new subscriptions. The whole sum borrowed by the company in these three new subscriptions being 1500 millions, they represented to his majesty, that the loan they were to make to the state amounting to 300 millions more than they at first proposed, it was reasonable the company should be allowed an annual interest of 45 millions, after the rate of 3 per cent. instead of the 36 millions already granted: to which his majesty consented.

Upon the whole matter, the sums of the several subscriptions made at different times, are as follow:

- 60 Millions of the first subscription,
- 40 Millions of the second,
- 25 Millions of the third,
- 25 Millions of the fourth,
- 50 Millions of the fifth,
- 50 Millions of the sixth,
- 50 Millions of the seventh;

300 Millions, the total of the actions.

When these actions sold at 1000, their total value amounted to 3000 millions of livres, of which sum the king did not owe the company much above half, which made the real and intrinsic value of every action to be 550.

We shall now give you an estimate of the sums which the company were said to have in their power to divide yearly, by which the subscribers were made to expect very good dividends. The company were to receive every year,

	Millions:
Out of the king's revenue	45
By the farm of tobacco	3
By the management of that farm	4
By the profits of the five great farms	30
By the coinage	5
By the East-India trade	12
By the timber and Mississippi trade some years after	7
	106

Without reckoning what some other branches were to produce, as the fishery, the refining and parting of bullion of gold and silver, the traffic of ingots of the same bullion, which the goldsmiths and merchants were obliged to buy of the company, and sell at a certain specified standard: So that the profits schemed to arise from all this, were to have been above 25 millions: for the state were to support the credit of the company, though at the expence of yielding up the profits of the bank, and several other privileges.

The advantages proposed to accrue to the king from the establishment of the India company, were set forth as follow:

The establishment of the India company in France, say the memoirs of those times, has not only been of infinite advantage to the subjects of the kingdom, by opening the purses of the rich, that strove who should put their money in first, but the king also has gained by it very considerably; since all the branches of his revenues must bring sums into his coffers, infinitely beyond what was ever known before, by reason of the circulation of the species, which is certainly three times greater than ever, as is manifest from the price of provisions, land, and merchandizes. The regent has found in the subscriptions of this company a source almost inexhaustible, whereby he has made large gifts in actions to the officers of the army, and the king's household, and to a number of private gentlemen, by which means they are grown rich. Mr. Law on his part, has done service to vast numbers of people, even

even to his enemies, in putting them in a way to make their fortunes. Since the circulation of the specie has been restored, the regent has taken off several taxes in Paris, and the provinces, so that all France shares the advantages of his happy administration.

By this scheme, the revenues of his most Christian majesty will increase 40 or 60 millions a year, and yet the people will be eased of many taxes, and of the burden of many useless officers, who have been actually paid back the money they gave for their places.

Now, if a judicious man will impartially judge of what hath passed, and what is now doing in France, in relation to commerce and the revenues, he must own, that from the remotest ages, history does not record any thing so inconceivable. One cannot reflect on this, without being brought to confess, that the prince who is at the head of affairs, knows how to make use of the readiest and most agreeable means of setting France in the most flourishing state it ever was in. Has not the world always said of him, that he had a superior genius, and fit for every thing? Besides the arts and sciences, to which he all his life devoted himself, he is a perfect master of accounts, without which he had never carried the affairs of France to the height they now are. Mr. Law's scheme had not succeeded so well under the reign of a prince, whose natural and acquired parts had been inferior to his who is now guardian of the royal authority.

The establishment of the royal bank of Paris.

Mr. Law set up the bank at Paris by the royal authority, some time before the establishment of the Mississippi. It was governed much like the bank of England, the regent having reserved to himself the inspection of their accounts: there was at first some difficulty in establishing its credit, the French having no notion of the convenience of an establishment so advantageous. But, as the regent was convinced of the great benefit that would accrue to the public from it, his royal highness took all the care imaginable to make them sensible of it. In a short time there were several arrêts in favour of the bank, the chief of which was that which required the officers who levied the king's taxes, to receive the bank notes in payment of the revenues. The French, seeming at length to be sensible of the convenience of making payments in notes payable to the bearer, it was ordered in the beginning of the summer 1719, that the bank bills should be increased to the sum of four hundred millions. It was permitted by the same arrêt, to the royal bank to set up bank offices in all the mint-towns of the kingdom, except Lyons, which declared against receiving any; yet soon after the merchants of Lyons, of their own accord, very earnestly solicited to obtain the privilege of a bank in their city.

The increase of bank bills to the sum of 400 millions of livres not being sufficient, a larger quantity were delivered out about the close of the same summer for 120 millions of livres, each bill being for the sum of 10,000 livres.

But even this was found insufficient to answer the demands that were daily made, which moved the regent to issue out an arrêt in October following, ordering the bank to give out to the value of 120 millions more, and that the notes should be likewise for 10,000 livres each.

The sum total of all the bills which the bank had issued out at the end of the year 1719, amounts to six hundred and forty millions, which exceeded the value of the bills circulated by all the other banks in Europe put together.

It will not be amiss to observe, that there were bank notes for small sums as well as great; some of ten, some of a hundred, and others of a thousand livres; those of ten thousand amounting but to two hundred and forty millions of livres.

Likewise a new addition of three hundred and sixty millions was ordered in bank bills, which, with the six hundred and forty millions before, amounted to a thousand millions of livres, making then above 38 millions of pounds sterling, upon the par of exchange; for the crown in specie of France, which was then current in that kingdom for five livres and two fifths, or an hundred and eight of their pence, was worth in weight and fineness but four shillings and three halfpence English money.

An ARRET, ordering in what manner payments shall be made, as well in Paris as in the provinces, and regulating the difference between bank money and the current coin. December 21, 1719. Extracted from the registers of the council of state.

The king having caused the several arrêts issued concerning the bank and the lowering of the coin to be laid before him, his majesty judged, that it would tend to the good of the state, and the benefit of his subjects, as well as to the advancing of the public credit, to put his people in a way to avoid the losses which are ordinarily occasioned by the variation in the currency of the coin. To which end, his majesty being in council, by the advice of the duke of Orleans regent, has ordered, and orders,

I. That the bank money shall be and remain fixed at five per cent. above the value of the current coin, at which price

bank bills shall be delivered out as well at the general office in Paris, as at the other offices in the provinces; the bearers of the said bills, after they shall be given out by the bank, being left at liberty to negotiate them at such higher rate as they shall find convenient.

II. It is his majesty's will, that beginning from the day of the publication of the present arrêt in the city of Paris, from the first of March next, in those towns where are offices of the mint, and from the first of April following in the other towns and places of his kingdom, the gold and silver coins, as well those struck pursuant to the edict of May 1719, as those struck this present month of December, shall not be offered nor received in payments; that is to say, the silver coins, but for payments under the sum of ten livres, and the gold coins but for payments under the sum of 300 livres; and that the payments above the said sums shall be made in bank bills, on the penalty to the offenders herein of confiscation of the amount of the payments, and of a fine of 300 livres.

III. It is his majesty's intention, that the India company pay in bank bills the produce of the imposts and duties which they shall receive; and as to the payments that they shall make in money for sums under ten livres in silver, and 300 in gold, which their officers may receive, the said company shall pay five per cent. augmentation; his majesty authorizing them to receive the said five per cent. from the persons liable to those duties, upon payments of sums under ten livres in silver, and 300 in gold.

IV. It is also his majesty's will, that reckoning from the day of the publication of the present arrêt, the payments of foreign bills of exchange, shall be made in bank bills; and this notwithstanding the arrêt of the 27th of May last, from which his majesty derogates.—Done in the king's council of state, his majesty therein present, held at Paris the 21st of December, 1719.

The grand support of this scheme was the great territory of Louisiana, otherwise called Mississippi. See the article LOUISIANA.

That we may have a just notion of the nature of this remarkable project, the following further account of the proceedings in France, for raising a PAPER CREDIT, and settling the Mississippi stock, may not, perhaps, be thought altogether useless.

It was many years ago, say the writers of those times, since the French court regretted the height of the public credit in England. They looked upon it as the great, and perhaps, the only advantage we had over them in war; namely, that by the established reputation of the public funds here, and the authority of parliamentary credit, whatever sum of money was voted in England, though the funds did not produce it many years, and though the loans were prodigiously great, yet the public could command the money in a few days, perhaps, in a few hours.

This was as much the terror of our neighbours, as it was the honour and advantage of England; and foreigners have been heard to say, That there was no getting the better of England by battle, no, though victory was always on their side. That, while we had thus an inexhaustible storehouse of money, no superiority in the field could be a match for this superiority of treasure; for money being the sinews of the war, it had long since been a received maxim, that the longest purse, not the longest sword, would be sure to conquer at last.

It was in vain that the late king of France, though he had an absolute command of the greatest, and, at first, the wealthiest nation in the world, tried all the arts that human wit could invent to raise a fund of credit in his kingdom; the whole council of France could never dictate to him the method how it should be done; this coy mistress, called Credit, could never be wooed; the more he pursued her, the faster she fled from him; and he had the continual mortification to see his national credit fall, even by the same methods which made our national credit rise; and our credit here grew daily, and at last increased to such a height, that from paying 12 and 14 per cent. for money, and struggling with infinite difficulties to get it brought in, we came to reducing the interest from 6 to 5 per cent. and after to have the public command of what money we pleased at 4 per cent. and had it brought in faster than we had occasion for it.

It is not possible to represent the projects, and infinite arts and practices, which the king of France used to command credit; all which were disappointed by the frequent exigencies of his affairs, forcing him to violate the faith and honour of his edicts: whereas in England, one parliament always voted the making good deficiencies, and no misapplication of money could be made, but every fund was kept sacred to its peculiar special appropriation: so that no man whatever having lent his money to the government on the credit of a parliamentary fund, has been defrauded of his property.

Thus the arbitrary government of the king of France, destroyed the very nature and fundamental principle of public credit; and the limited power of the crown of Great-Britain (the strings of the purse being in the hands of the parliament) has been the reason and foundation of such an immense boundless credit, that nothing can hurt or destroy it, unless

unless the parliament should invert their way of acting, and take into their hands the same absolute power, which it is their business to restrain, and wound and injure themselves; that is to say, the people whom they represent.

But fate and the fortunes of France, at the period we are speaking of, turned the tables, and we saw the same arbitrary power that in the late reign in France plunged them into an insuperable debt, and into an irrecoverable state of deficiency and discount, raised an inconceivable species of mere air and shadow, realizing fancies and imaginations, visions, apparitions, and making the mere speculations of things, act all the parts, and perform all the offices of the things themselves; and thus in a moment their debts were all vanished, the substance was answered by the shadow, and the people of France made the instruments of putting the cheat upon themselves: the name of the thing is made an equivalent to the thing itself, transposing the debts from the king to themselves, and being contented to discharge the public, owe the money to one another.

As this is the mere consequence of a boundless power in the king, by which he is made able to put every scheme, however impracticable in other places, in a course of operation there; so that every limitation of power, which is, in other cases our glory and advantage, is the reason why, let our credit be what it will, our debts remain, and must be diminished by the slow fire of parliamentary proceedings, and by no other way.

And thus for once in the world, tyranny has the whip-hand of liberty, for nothing can be done in England like this; even the parliament itself is limited, and there are its redeemable and unredemable funds, the last of which are a burthen, nothing but the number ninety-nine (years) * can put an end to: but in France they have an unbounded liberty to act as they please.

* The reader will observe, that this was the state of our funds at the time we are speaking of.

Let no man mistake me here, says our author, as if I were bemoaning the incumbrances of national privileges, and suggest, that it was pity we should be a nation of liberty with such a burthen of debt; on the other hand, let us be, say I, a free nation deep in debt, rather than a nation of slaves owing nothing; and, indeed, even in this the condition of France and England stands in a posture much to our advantage when compared together; namely France, a kingdom immensely rich as a government, wretchedly poor as a people; England, a government embarrassed in debt, exhausted of funds, and not able easily to get out of debt; but as a people immensely rich, rich in the particular and private wealths of the subjects; poor, that is to say, encumbered in debt, speaking of the public state of things, as a government; and yet with all this, while the public credit is upheld, we can never be said to be poor.

It remains now, that we look into this flagrant delusion of paying a nation's debts, as it is practising upon the ignorant people in France: never, in my opinion, was any number of people so hooked in to put a sham upon themselves, and then call it paying of the king's, or the public debts; for it is no more than a parcel of fools discharging the king of his debts, and owing it to one another. And this is another reason of this piece of magic in France; for the very want of credit in France, has been the reason of their obtaining the credit of paying their debts. This paradox shall be unriddled immediately, thus: had not the public credit been bad, had not the state bills, that is to say, the public credit, run at 60 to 63 per cent. discount, the people would never have brought themselves to part with them for the bonds, or shares in a new company, a brat of state, which has its life in the king's breath, and must die whenever that breath pleases to determine it.

Mr. Law, being first acquainted with the solid immovable state of credit in England, and seeing the fluctuating manner of things in France, plainly saw also, how easy it was to push these things there, which he could not so much as think of in England, without apprehensions of being pulled in pieces by the rabble. He wisely concluded, that a foundation of credit must be laid, before any sufficient project could be founded upon it, and so the first thing he did was the raising of a royal bank in France, by the concurrence of the king, whose sanction there, as the parliament would be here, was absolutely necessary for such a work.

Now let the schemes engrafted since, or then designed to be engrafted upon the foot of this beginning be what they will, it is evident Mr. Law made a right judgment, and that nothing could be projected for the public service of any kind, without an established credit to center somewhere.

It was impossible this should be grafted upon the government, the endeavours to bring it to pass before having been rendered abortive, by the frequent exigencies of that state, forcing them to break in upon royal edicts and royal promises; by which means the few men that had any money were made cautious, and were grown too wise to put it into hands, which they could not depend upon for the demand of it again, when it should be wanted.

It remained then to resolve, that credit could now be only raised upon the forming societies of private men, who were masters of cash, and able to support the credit they took, with whom it might be safe to venture the deposit of money; and who, by an exact currency of payments, might in consequence and by degrees, obtain the name and title of a safe fund, and become the basis of proper credit for the whole kingdom; a thing at that time greatly wanted, for the advantage of trade in France, as well as for the purpose designed by Mr. Law. This almost, by the nature of the thing, would be called a Bank, and would be managed by the first adventurers, in their own right, and independent of the king, or of any branch of the government; so that except by mere plunder, even all one as by rilling the city of Paris, the king could never lay his hand upon any thing, which was put into their keeping.

This was a well laid design, had there been no more projected than was pretended. For, upon the credit and capital stocks of the first subscribers, there was immediately a clear prospect of a running cash, established upon just foundations, and sufficient to answer all the business of France. When this scheme was shewn to the regent, he was penetrating enough not to see immediately, that it was too beneficial a thing not to be encouraged, as well for the credit of the nation in general, as for the use of the government in particular; and, therefore, received it with open arms, and assured Mr. Law of his favour and protection: and, as they found his first scheme capable of great improvements, he was encouraged to employ his thoughts effectually to those improvements, that something might be brought to pass for the public good, and especially to restore credit to France. In prosecution of this confidence, the bank was established, the patents were expedited for its foundation; the king begins the subscription, the duke regent follows, and innumerable others; they are empowered to take in a hundred millions original stock, and to give out bills for current cash payable at demand, and to the bearer, just after the manner in England. They lent money upon jewels, plate, and things of real value, and upon mortgage of lands at 3 per cent. interest; they discounted bills, and took in money, issuing bills of credit payable at demand; and it is inconceivable the mighty increase of business they had upon their hands in so little time, and the immense sums of money they had by them in specie.

Mr. Law having thus successfully finished this great affair, was at leisure to enquire what further projects might be founded upon this of a royal bank: he was too knowing not to have in his head the general idea of all those things which have happened since: but he knew, that such a fund of credit being once well established, nothing could miscarry that was founded upon it; for, as half the projects in the world become abortive, for want of ready money and credit, so when once a good project was supported with a flush of ready cash, they must be weak managers indeed, if they miscarry.

The first thing of moment he went upon, was the planting a colony in the West-Indies, or in North America. He knew, indeed, that the planting the Louisiana, or the country on the river Mississippi, would not produce any great effects, at least in his time: for the settling a colony, however prosperous in its beginning, is a work of time, and must take up ages. But Mr. Law, like a man of penetration, knew that two things would be absolutely necessary for this design: 1. To have the king approve it; and, 2. To make his scheme popular, to have something in view beyond not only what he could manage, but even beyond what he ever intended in the proposal. Having started the project of Mississippi, he branched it out in a different manner from all projects; for he did not descend from the Mississippi scheme as the general to the subsequent things as the particulars, but he ascended from the Mississippi scheme as a particular, to a West-India company as the general.

His next work was to propose the foundation on which the company was to be established, viz. a subscription of stock; and here he shewed his first masterly stroke, and that he had concerted all the steps and measures of his management from the beginning.

The public credit in France was still low, nor did the rising credit of the royal bank add any thing to it, but rather diminish it, and let the world see that private credit in France might revive, but public credit could not: the state bills, and annuities on the town-house loans, and all the paper circulation, were, at this time, exceeding low, namely, from 57 to 63 per cent. discount; it was, therefore, the easiest thing in the world to establish a fund for any new undertaking that was but tolerably promising, where the subscribers could be allowed to subscribe these dying credits at a par, and put that into stock at 100 livres, which cost the purchaser but 37 to 40 livres per cent. and this thing alone filled his first subscription.

We see the credit of the company rising to an immense height, by the assistance of the government, and the management of Mr. Law, their director; we see the following mysteries, or, indeed, miracles, wrought in the compass of a few weeks, things as incredible as the greatest impossibility in nature

could be thought to be; things which, when done, were as a dream, even to those that saw them; even the people who have the money in their hands, and who have received their ancient debts, so long given over, look amazed, and consider again and again, whether they are awake or asleep; the particulars are as follow:

First, we have seen them bring the people to refuse or decline payment, of what they would before have given half the debt to be secured of.

Secondly, The state bills, that were before little better than waste paper, made worth 10 and 20 per cent. above par.

Thirdly, We have seen them gain 1350 millions of money in less than a month's time, by selling the air, and putting a real value upon an imaginary value.

Fourthly, We have seen the king's revenues augmented to millions a year, by abating the taxes on the people.

Fifthly, We have seen the general farms raised four millions a year to the king, and yet 12 millions a year paid less by the people.

Sixthly, We have seen them pay 1500 millions of debt for the king, without one penny of money.

Seventhly and lastly, We have seen a private gentleman raise himself, by the dexterity of this management, to be the greatest subject in the world; to have all the nobility, the princes, the public ministers, and even the government itself, at his beck, and above 300 coaches in a morning at his levée, himself behaving with all the modesty imaginable; not elevated by his good fortune, nor discomposed by the application to so much business, but calm and serene, and always present to himself, answering briefly and pertinently to every new discourse, receiving 6 or 700 gentlemen in a morning, dispatching every body's business with a readiness inimitable, and every day producing new wonders in the great affair of the public, which was upon his hands.

As the advantages of public business thus flowed in, the credit of the stock necessarily advanced; and we were surprized in England, to find that every post the price started up whole hundreds in a day, till at length we saw the stock up at 1150 and 1200 per cent. and, after that, to 2050 per cent. Now was the time for Mr. Law to give the blow he had in view.

The multitude of people who came every hour to Paris, and run their money into the stock, made this project not rational only, but natural, viz. that they might enlarge the capital stock, by engrafting a farther subscription; and, that the new subscribers might have encouragement to subscribe, they should be allowed to subscribe at 1000 livres each, original stock. Pursuant to this resolution, an arrêt was published, empowering the company to take new subscriptions, upon the first foot of the stock for 50 millions, the subscribers paying 10,000 livres each; for which they had credit in the company's books, for one action, or share, of 100 livres original stock. Thus the company, receiving 1000 millions of livres for 50 millions original stock advance, were clear gainers by the subscription no less than 450 millions of livres; and this doubled by the second subscription of 50 millions, made the company's gain amount to 900 millions of livres; add to that a third, it made it 1350 millions.

Add to this, that the first stock of the company was much of it subscribed by the government itself, by the king, and by Mr. Law, as in the company's name; and, being sold afterwards at 1000 and 1100 per cent. put above 200 millions into their pockets, besides what Mr. Law was said to have gained for his private account.

From this time forward, the stock is grown up to a prodigy of 2050 per cent. It is true it sunk a little on the approach of the time of payment for the first three months, which was to be paid on the 1st of January, viz. 300 livres per share, and this, for want of money, sunk the stock to about 1850; but Mr. Law, who never wants a remedy for these diseases, immediately calls a meeting of the directors, and agrees to declare a dividend of profits, to amount to 6 per cent. upon the stock, which, though it be a trifle on the present advanced price, yet was really considerable in itself, and amounts to a very great sum, no less than six millions and upwards: however, it was agreed that the company really gained near 100 millions extraordinary, by selling her own subscriptions, and buying and selling her own stock; so that they were able very easily to divide 20 per cent. on the first stock, which would have been 1 per cent. upon the after-advance.

This is a brief account of the prodigious rise and greatness of the French India stock, to which we shall only add, that all the world ran to Paris; the prodigious sums strangers laid out in the stock, and the numbers that resorted to negotiate there, filled that city with money and people, and, consequently, with trade; and they tell us, there was nothing to be seen but new coaches, new equipages, new liveries, and buying new furniture; innumerable families were enriched by this surprizing advance of stock: in a word, there were no less than 1200 new coaches set up, and half a million of people more than was before; so that no lodgings were to be had; and they built new houses and streets in every place where they had room.

On the 30th of December, N. S. there was a general meeting of the India company, at the royal bank, at which were

present the duke of Orleans, regent of the kingdom, the duke of Chartres, and the duke of Bourbon. The company having first approved and confirmed what had been done in its name by the directors, since the last meeting, took into consideration several articles before them, and resolved, that the dividend for the year 1720 should be 40 per cent. upon the 300 millions of actions; and that the subscriptions, which made part of the 200 millions, should be intitled to the dividend of the years 1718 and 1719, at the rate of 4 per cent. per ann. as soon as they were full, and converted into actions. They likewise resolved, that, for the good of the public, and to give countrymen and foreigners an opportunity of buying and selling these actions, an office should be erected, wherein the company would buy and sell actions at fixed prices; which office was accordingly erected, the 2d of January, N. S. five days after, Mr. Law was sworn comptroller-general of the finances of France. But, whether his head turned giddy upon this stupendous elevation, it appeared soon after, by the various arrêts of council which he caused to be issued out, in relation to the coin, that he was not a little embarrassed.

REMARKS on our article MISSISSIPPI, since the last WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

Under our article of LOUISIANA, particularly in our REMARKS since the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, we have shewn the disadvantages, which our British colonies in North-America were under, in respect to their want of a sufficient quantity of good lands there, whereby our planters might raise variety of staple commodities, which we are, at present, obliged to take at a great expence from divers other countries, provided our people were situated in those fresh and good lands on the Mississippi for that purpose. Under this article, we shall continue the thread of our intended observations upon this material point.

Our article LOUISIANA is concluded, with observing, that if the present state and condition of our North-American colonies is not soon changed, by being put upon the planting and cultivation of such staple commodities as we are now compelled to take of other nations, we shall force these colonists into the arts of farming, manufactures, trade, and commerce, which would interfere with the commercial interests of Great-Britain.

Some of our colonies, perhaps, may imagine, they cannot subsist with these employments; which, indeed, would appear to be the case in their present state: but that seems to be as contrary to their true interest, as it is to their condition of British colonies. They have neither skill, materials, nor any other conveniencies, to make manufactures; whereas their lands require only culture to produce a staple commodity, provided they are possessed of such as are fit for that purpose. Manufactures are the produce of labour, which is both scarce and dear among them; whereas lands are, or may and should be made, both cheap and in plenty, by which they may always reap much greater profits from the one than the other. That is, moreover, a certain pledge for the allegiance and dependence of the colonies; and at the same time makes their dependance to become their INTEREST. It has been found by frequent experience, that the making of a staple commodity for Britain is more profitable than manufactures, provided they have good lands to work. It were to be wished indeed, that we could support our interest in America, and those sources of navigation by countries that were more convenient to it, than those on the Mississippi. But that we fear is not to be done, however it may be desired.

We wish we could say as much of the lands in FLORIDA, and on the bay of MEXICO, as of those on the Mississippi: but they are not so good, any thing contiguous to the coasts, however convenient they may be in other respects to navigation.

The most convenient part of those countries seems to be about MOBILE and PENSACOLA; which are, as it were, an entrepôt between our ancient settlements and the Mississippi, and safe station for our ships. The port of ST. AUGUSTINE in the GULPH of FLORIDA, will also be of no little utility to our navigation in these parts; and what the lands may be deficient in, in many respects, near the coast, the situation of the above-mentioned ports may jointly contribute to supply.

As the harbour of PENSACOLA will appear to be a considerable acquisition to Britain, it may be of some use to give the following account of it from F. LAVAL, royal professor of mathematics, and master of the marine academy at Toulon; who was sent to Louisiana, on purpose to make observations in 1719; and had the accounts of the officers, who took PENSACOLA at that time, and surveyed the place.

The colonies of Pensacola, and of Dauphin island, are at present on the decline, the inhabitants having removed to settle at Mobile and Biloxi, at New Orleans, where the lands are much better; for at the first the soil is chiefly sand, mixed with little earth. The land, however, is covered with woods of PINES, FIRS, and OAKS; which make good timber as well as Ship-Island. The road of PENSACOLA is the only good

good port thereabouts for LARGE SHIPS, and SHIP-ISLAND for small ones, where vessels, that draw from 13 to 14 feet water, may ride in safety, under the island, in 15 feet, and a good holding ground; as well as in the other ports, which are all only open roads, exposed to the south, and from west to east.

Pensacola is in north latitude $30^{\circ} 25'$, and is the only road in the BAY of MEXICO, in which ships can be safe from all winds. It is land-locked on every side, and will hold a great number of ships, which have very good anchorage in it, in a good holding ground of soft sand, and from 25 to 34 feet water. You will find not less than 21 feet water on the bar, which is at the entrance into the road, provided you keep in the deepest part of the channel. Before a ship enters the harbour, she should bring the fort of Pensacola to bear between north and south $\frac{3}{4}$ east, and keep that course till she is west, or west $\frac{1}{4}$ south, from the fort on the island of St. Rose; that is, till that fort bears east, and east $\frac{1}{4}$ north. Then she must bear away a little to the land on the west side, keeping about midway between that and the island, to avoid a bank on this last, which runs out to some distance west-north-west from the point of the island.

If there are any breakers on the ledge of rocks, which lie to the westward of the bar, as often happens; if there is any wind, that may serve for a mark to ships, which steer along that ledge, at the distance of a good musket-shot, as they enter upon the bar, then keep the course above-mentioned. Sometimes the currents set very strong out of the road, which you should take care of, lest they should carry you upon these rocks.

As there is but half a foot rising on the bar of Pensacola, every ship of war, if it be not in a storm, may depend upon 19, perhaps 20 feet of water, to go into the harbour, as there are 21 feet on the bar. Ships that draw 20 feet must be towed in. By this we see, that ships of 60 guns may go into this harbour; and even 70 guns ships; the largest requisite in that country in time of war, if they were built flat-bottomed like the Dutch ships, might pass every where in that harbour.

In 1719, Pensacola was taken by Mr. Champmeslin, in the Hercules man of war, of 64 guns, but carried only 56; in company with the Mars, pierced for 60 guns, but had only 54; and the Triton pierced for 54 guns, but carried only 50; with two frigates of 36 and 20 guns*.

* The admiral was on board of the Hercules, which drew 21 feet water, and there were but 22 feet into the harbour in the highest tides, so that they despaired of carrying in this ship. But an old Canadian, named Grimeau, a man of experience, who was perfectly acquainted with that coast, boasted of being able to do it, and succeeded; for which he was the next year honoured with letters of noblesse. DUMONT (an officer there at this time,) vol. ii. p. 22. BELLIN, from the French admiralty chests, makes but 20 feet of water on the bar of Pensacola. The difference may arise from the tides which are very irregular and uncertain on all that coast, according to the winds; never rising above three feet, sometimes much less. In 24 hours the tide ebbs in the harbour for 18 or 19 hours, and flows 5 or 6. LAVAL.

This road is subject to one inconvenience; several rivers fall into it, which occasion strong currents, and make boats and canoes, as they pass backwards and forwards, apt to run aground; but as the bottom is all sand, they are not apt to founder. On the other hand, there is a great advantage in this road; it is free from worms, which never breed in fresh water, so that vessels are never worm-eaten in it.

The many advantages that would ensue, from the well peopling of those southern parts of the continent with protestant foreigners, are hardly to be enumerated. We might thereby people and secure those countries, and reap the profits of them, without any loss of people; which are not to be spared for that purpose in Britain, or any of her dominions. This is the great use and advantage that may be made of the expulsion of the French from those northern parts of America. They have hitherto obliged us to strengthen those northern colonies, and have confined the people in them to towns and townships, in which their labour could turn to no great account, either to themselves or to the nation; by which we have, in a great measure, lost the labour of one half of the people in our colonies.

But as they are now free from any danger in their borders, they may extend their settlements with safety, disperse themselves on plantations, and cultivate those lands, that may turn to some account, both to them and to the whole nation. In short, they may now produce staple commodities for this nation, on which the interest of the colonies, and of the kingdom in them, chiefly depends; and which we can never expect from those colonies in their present situation.

The commodities which these southern parts of North-America promise to afford us, are HEMP, FLAX, and SILK, those great articles and necessary materials of very valuable manufactures; for which alone this nation pays at least a MILLION AND A HALF A YEAR, and could never get them

from all the colonies we have. COTTON and INDIGO in plenty, are also estimable. Not to mention COPPER, IRON, POT-ASH, which with HEMP, FLAX, and SILK, make a great balance of trade against the nation, and not a little contribute to drain it of its treasure; when we might certainly have those commodities from our colonies for manufactures, and both supply ourselves, and others with them: WINE, OIL, RAISINS, and CURRANTS, &c. those products of FRANCE and SPAIN, on which this nation expends so much of her treasure, to enrich her enemies and rivals in trade, might likewise be had from those her dominions, and export in return her manufactures for them, equivalent in time to what she does to FRANCE and SPAIN.

Britain thereby might cut off those resources of her restless enemies, secure her colonies for the future, and prevent such calamities of war as we have experienced, and cultivate the arts of peace.

Some have said that LOUISIANA, &c. is never likely to turn to any account, because the French have made so little of it.

But that objection, however common, will appear to proceed only from the ignorance of those who make it. No country can produce any thing without labourers; which it is certain, the French have never had in LOUISIANA, in any numbers sufficient to make it turn to any greater account than it has hitherto done. The reason of this appears not to be owing to the country, but to their proceedings and misconduct in it. Out of the many thousand people who were contracted for by the grantees, to send to LOUISIANA in 1719, there were but 800 sent; and of these the greatest part were ruined by their idle schemes, which made them and others abandon the country entirely. The few again, who remained in it were cut off by an Indian massacre in 1729, which broke up the chief promising settlements they had in the country, those of the NATCHES and YASONS, which were never afterwards re-instituted. Instead of encouraging the colony in such misfortunes, the minister, Cardinal Fleury, either from an ill-judged spirit of œconomy, or because it might be repugnant to some other of his views, withdrew his protection from it, gave up the public plantations, and must thereby, no doubt, have very much discouraged others. By these means, they have had few or no people in LOUISIANA, but such as were condemned to be sent to it for their crimes, women of ill fame, deserted soldiers, insolvent debtors, and galley-slaves, 'who looking on the country only as a place of exile, were disheartened at every thing in it; and had no regard for the progress of a colony, of which they were only members by compulsion, and neither knew nor considered its advantages to the state. It is from such people, that many have taken their accounts of this country; and throw the blame of all miscarriages in it upon the country, when they have been only owing to the incapacity and negligence of those who were intrusted to settle it*.'

* Charlevoix's Hist. N. France, Tom. iii. p. 447.

REMARKS on the MISSISSIPPI SCHEME.

That we may judge more fully of the effects of this extraordinary scheme, it will be necessary to consult the following French arrêts.

'The king having caused to be examined in his council, the condition to which the kingdom was reduced before the establishment of the bank, that he might compare it with its present condition: it has appeared to his majesty, that the high rate of money had done more damage to the kingdom than all the expences which the late king had been obliged to be at during the several wars: the avarice of the lender having risen to that height, as to demand more interest for a month than the laws allowed for a whole year.

This usury had even so weakened the kingdom, that his majesty's revenues were not paid, but by multiplying compulsions on those who were liable to pay them. The price of the products of the earth being hardly sufficient to pay the charge of the culture and the taxes, the proprietors received nothing for their lands. This general misery forced part of the nobility to sell their estates at a low price, to maintain themselves in his majesty's service; and the other part of the nobility had their lands seized. The king's favours were their only resource, and his majesty was not in a condition to grant them, and even could not pay the salaries of officers, and the pensions which had been granted for the reward of services. The manufactures, commerce, and navigation, were almost at a stand; the merchant and trader were reduced to bankruptcy, and the artificer compelled to abandon his native country, to seek employment among foreigners. Such was the condition to which the king, the nobility, the merchants, and the people were reduced, while none but the lender of money lived in plenty; and the kingdom was like to fall into a general disorder, had not his majesty applied a speedy remedy to these evils.

By the establishment of the bank, and of the India company, the king has restored things to good order: the nobility have found, in the increase of the value of their lands, means to make themselves easy: manufactures, commerce, and navigation, are re-established: the lands are cultivated, and the

artificer works. But, notwithstanding the visible advantages which those establishments have procured, there were persons malignant enough to form a design to destroy them: and this obliged his majesty to issue an arrêt of his council, of the 5th of March last, for supporting, by the decrying of money, the credit of those so useful and necessary establishments. By that arrêt his majesty reduced the different species of the India company's bills to one sort, and ordained that actions (or shares in the stock of that company) might be converted into bank notes, and those notes into actions, according to the proportion, which at that time was reckoned to be the most just with respect to the value of the coin. This decrying of money, and favouring of actions, empowered debtors to clear themselves. It remained for his majesty to find an expedient for employing the sums which were to be paid back to minors, to hospitals, to communities, and others the most privileged creditors: and, at the same time, for re-establishing the value of the coin in such proportion as might suit foreign commerce, and the vent of the products of the country. His majesty has provided for these several things by his arrêts, and particularly by his declaration of the 11th of March last, which orders the reduction of the value of the coin: but, as that reduction must necessarily produce a diminution, not only of the price of commodities, and of moveable goods, but also of the value of lands, and other immoveable estates, his majesty has judged the general interest of his subjects required, that the price, or nominal value of the India company's actions, and of bank notes, should be lessened, for maintaining them in a just proportion with the coin and other commodities of the kingdom, for hindering the too high value of coin from sinking the public credit; for giving, at the same time, to the privileged creditors, means for employing to the better advantage the sums which might be repaid to them; and, lastly, for preventing the losses which his subjects might suffer in commerce with foreigners. And his majesty has the more willingly resolved upon this deduction, because it will be even beneficial to the proprietors of the India company's actions, and of bank notes, for the dividends on them will be more to their advantage, and will be convertible into money of intrinsic value, which will produce at least 50 per cent. more in real coin, or bullion, after the reduction, than at present. Upon all which, the Sieur Law, the king's counsellor in all his councils, comptroller-general of the finances, having made his report, his majesty being in his council, with the advice of Mons^r. the duke of Orleans, regent, has ordained and ordains:

Article I. That the actions of the India company shall be reduced, that is to say, beginning from the day of the publication of the present arrêt, to 8000 livres; on the 1st of July to 7500 livres; on the 1st of August to 7000 livres; on the 1st of September to 6500 livres; on the 1st of October to 6000 livres; on the 1st of November to 5500 livres; and on the 1st of December to 5000 livres.

II. That the bank notes shall also be reduced, so that they shall not be received in payments, that is to say, from the day of the publication of the present arrêt, those of 10,000 livres but for 8000 livres; those of 1000 livres for 800 livres; those of 100 livres for 80 livres; and those of 10 livres for 8 livres: that, on the 1st of July next, the said notes shall be reduced, viz. those of 10,000 livres to 7500 livres; on the 1st of August to 7000 livres; on the first of September to 6500 livres; on the first of October to 6000 livres; on the first of November to 5500 livres; the lesser notes in like proportion; and, on the 1st of December of the present year, the said notes shall remain reduced and fixed, viz. those of 10,000 livres to 5000 livres; those of 1000 livres to 500 livres; those of 100 livres to 50 livres; and those of 10 livres to 5 livres.

III. His majesty foreseeing that those of his subjects who are possessed of considerable sums in bank notes, may convert them with advantage into the India company's actions, and being willing to favour such persons as have not fortunes sufficient to employ them that way, his majesty ordains, that, during the course of the present year, and 'till the 1st of January, 1721, the bank notes shall be received by the receivers of the tallies and other taxes, at the office of his majesty's farms, and even at the salt warehouses, at the full value the said notes were at before the reductions ordained by the present arrêt, yet without the abatement for the future of the 4 sols per livre, or of the 10 per cent. granted by the arrêts of the 29th of January, the 5th of March, and the 28th of April last. The said bank notes shall likewise be received for their full value, at the office appointed for the distribution of contracts for annuities for life, pursuant to the arrêt of council of the 16th of the present month.

IV. His majesty's will is, that all bills of exchange drawn or endorsed in foreign countries to be paid in France, shall be paid in bank notes, according to the currency and value of the said notes, known in foreign countries the day of the date of the said bills of exchange: and, for avoiding abuses and disputes which might arise, because the greatest parts of the endorsement made in foreign countries are without date, his majesty's intention is, that the bills of exchange made and payable in France, and which shall be endorsed in foreign countries, shall be likewise paid in bank notes, according to

the currency and value of the said notes at the time of the date of the bills. Done in the king's council of state, his majesty present, held at Paris the 21st day of May, 1720.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

R E M A R K S.

The stile and contents of the preamble of that arrêt shew, that the council of France thought their scheme beyond the possibility of miscarrying; and, therefore, begun to execute the last part of it, viz. to lower or raise their bank bills and actions of the company as they pleased, which they had substituted in the room of gold and silver. This did not succeed according to their expectation; for people refused to take bank notes; which occasioned so much disturbance and murmurings, that, on the 25th of May, the government was obliged to post guards in the market places, to prevent tumults. The parliament met extraordinarily, and sent deputies to make remonstrances against the arrêt aforesaid; and some of their deputies were appointed to confer with some counsellors of state, in the presence of the regent, to concert measures for preserving the public peace, and preventing the intire ruin of trade.

The first thing that was judged proper to be done, was to revoke the fatal arrêt of the 21st, which was accordingly declared void by an arrêt of the 27th, whereby the bank notes were declared to be current, as before the former arrêt. Commissioners were appointed to examine the books and cash of the bank; and the accounts of the India company; and, to proceed therein, payment was stopt at the bank the 29th of May, but they began to pay again the 1st of June.

On the 31st of May another arrêt was published for proroguing, to the 1st of July next, the lowering of the new species, which was to begin the 1st of June, pursuant to the declaration of the 11th of March, inserted above, and making current, for that time, the old species of gold and silver. By the same arrêt his majesty permits all his subjects, and others, to import gold and silver species bullion into the kingdom, which before was only permitted to the company. By another arrêt of the 1st of June, the prohibition published some time ago, forbidding people to keep by them above 500 livres in specie, and allowing the company to search all houses whatever, was taken off.

These dispositions removed, in part, the uneasiness of the people; and, in order to recover and support the public credit, which had been deeply wounded, the following arrêt of the council of state was published:

Upon the petition presented to the king in his council, by the general directors of the India company, in the name of the said company, setting forth, That, by the accounts they have delivered, it appears, that, by their several operations, and the actions they have called in again, and have now in their possession, they have a fund of above 300 millions of livres: that, in respect to their commerce, they have undertaken great things, advantageous for the proprietors and state: that they have increased their ships already sent out, or ready to sail to 105, without including brigantines and frigates, and have sent rich cargoes; and that, notwithstanding the multiplicity and quickness of their operations, their books have been found in the most exact order: that as to the administration of the trust committed to them within the kingdom, they have increased, beyond what could be expected from them, the produce of the farms, and the general receipts of the finances, by the good order, they have established therein: but that, in order to render more and more the establishment of the said company solid and advantageous to the proprietors, they are of opinion, it is necessary to lessen the number of the actions, and reduce them to 200,000, instead of the 600,000, which were created pursuant to the edicts of December 1717, and May 1719, and of the arrêts of the 27th of July, 13th and 28th of September, and 2d of October following: that the company having called in near 300,000 actions, and being in a condition to re-call what is wanting to make up that number, there remains nothing to be done for the execution of this project, but to suppress as well those 300,000 actions belonging to the company as the 100,000 belonging to his majesty; which said 100,000 actions being a profit made by his majesty, the company hope his majesty will give them this new mark of favour and protection, which will enable the company, by new operations, to discharge what they owe to his majesty and the bank, to call in, by these means, a considerable number of bank bills, and reduce them to the number his majesty shall think necessary for maintaining circulation and commerce: that with these views, and to second the intentions of his majesty in relation to the creation of rents or annuities on the town-house of Paris for 12,500,000 livres, making a capital of 500 millions, the said company offers to yield and make over again the 12,500,000 livres, part of the forty-eight millions which his majesty has assigned to the company on the aids and gabels, in deduction and for discharging the engagements contracted by the said company with his majesty: that the said company desire his majesty to authorize them to demand from

the proprietors, a supplement of three thousand livres per action, which supplement is to be voluntary; but such proprietors who shall pay the same, shall have a dividend of 3 per cent. at the rate of 12,000 livres per action; and that such who shall not think fit to pay that supplement or additional sum, shall have only the dividend of 200 livres per action, which was granted by the resolution of the company of the 30th of December last: that the condition of the company is such, that they may look upon the dividend of 3 per cent. as a fixed and certain revenue; and, that the public may be sure of it, the directors and many of the most considerable proprietors, who have joined them, humbly desire his majesty to give them leave to form a society of insurance, which shall have a stock of 20,000 actions, amounting at the rate of 12,000 livres each action, to two hundred and forty millions, the profits of which are the principal, and shall be answerable for the dividend of 3 per cent. to be paid to the proprietors; who shall advance the supplement aforesaid, and shall insure the dividend on the foot aforesaid of 3 per cent. and likewise for the 200 livres per action to those who do not furnish the said supplement; upon condition nevertheless, that the overplus of the profits of the company, beyond the 3 per cent. and 200 livres per action incurred to the owners of the said actions, shall belong to the society of insurance.—That to perfect and put that plan into good order, and give all the security that can be desired, it would be necessary, that an exact account be taken by such commissaries of the council as his majesty shall be pleased to appoint, of all the subscriptions, premiums, and actions, called in by the company, and now in their possession, to be burnt at the town-house, in the presence of the said commissaries, the provosts of merchants and eschevins.—That two hundred thousand bills, each of one action, with the dividends of three years, be made out, to be numbered from number 1 to number 200,000 inclusive, signed by one of the general directors and one of the commissaries appointed by his majesty, and sealed with the seal of the company, and that within a certain term, which shall be prescribed by his majesty, all the actions, in the hands of the public, be brought in to be converted into new actions, and that the old be afterwards burnt with the formalities aforesaid. For which his majesty being willing to provide, the report being heard, the king being in his council, with the advice of Mons. the duke of Orleans regent, has ordained and ordains.

This arrêt contains six articles, which are in substance as follow:

I. The king appointed commissaries to take an account of the number of the subscriptions, premiums, and actions, of the India company, which they have called in or converted into bank notes.

II. His majesty accepts the offers made by the said company, to make over again unto him the hundred thousand actions his majesty yielded to them by the arrêt of the 24th of February last, and in consequence thereof discharges the company from the nine hundred millions they had obliged themselves to pay to his majesty in ten years, for the cession of the hundred thousand actions aforesaid. And his majesty being willing to contribute, on his part, to the lessening of the number of actions, in order to reduce them to two hundred thousand, the number proposed by the company, ordains that the said hundred thousand actions shall be burnt, as also the three hundred thousand which the company proposed to suppress.

III. His majesty fixes the number of actions of the company to two hundred thousand, and declares they shall not be augmented upon any pretence whatsoever; and, to make up that number, orders two hundred thousand bills, of an action each, to be printed, with the dividend of the years 1721, 1722, 1723, numbered, signed, and sealed, as above, and all the old actions, premiums, and submissions, to be burnt in the presence of the commissaries of the council, provost of merchants, &c. Declaring farther, that all actions, subscriptions, or premiums, which shall not be brought in before the 1st of September next, shall be null and void by virtue of the present arrêt.

IV. The actions that are in the hands of the public, and those deposited and registered in the books of the company, are to be converted within that time into new actions.

V. The company is allowed to demand from the proprietors a supplement, or additional fund of three thousand livres per action, to be paid in six months; that is, five hundred livres per month; but such proprietors, who shall not think fit to furnish that additional sum, shall continue to enjoy their dividend of two hundred livres per action.

VI. His majesty approves and authorizes the society of insurance, proposed by the directors, to consist of the said directors, and as many proprietors of stock, as shall be willing to concern themselves therein: that the stock of the society be for twenty thousand new actions, which shall be forthwith deposited, for securing the payment of the dividend of such proprietors as will ensure the same therein, and the overplus of the said dividend is to belong to the so-

ciety of insurance. Done in the council of state, June 3, 1720.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

This reduction of two thirds of the actions, and the society for insuring the interest thereof, was regarded as the likeliest means to retrieve the public credit: but the people had been so frightened, that they would not meddle with bank notes, except in payment for their goods, which they raised four times above their real value, or upon a very great discount: but what effect this project had, we shall see hereafter; and shall here take notice, that Mr. Law resigned his office of comptroller-general of the finances on the 19th of May, and two officers of the Swiss guards were set upon him; but on the 3d of June they were ordered to leave him, and the duke D'Antin was sent to acquaint him, that he was to continue at the head of the bank, and of the India company: but, on the 7th of that month, the seals were taken from Mr. D'Argenson, and restored to the chancellor Dagueffau.

Soon after this, the government, finding that the public affairs did not take the turn they expected, seemed to be undoing by degrees what had been so lately done; and, at the same time, fell to using very extraordinary methods to oblige those who had remitted any money abroad, to re-call it into France, as will appear by the following unexampled ordinance.

The king's ordinance, requiring all his subjects who have remitted money into foreign countries to re-call the same, dated the 20th instant, is as follows:

His majesty being informed, that many of his subjects, who, in these latter times, have got considerable fortunes, forgetting what they owe to their country, instead of laying out their money in purchases in the kingdom, or promoting commerce and manufactures, have sent the greatest part thereof into foreign countries, and have concerned themselves in their trading companies; and that some others of his said subjects keep in the said foreign countries considerable sums in specie, with a design to place the same there, which has kept up the course of exchange to the advantage of foreigners, and has occasioned the exporting out of the kingdom a considerable quantity of specie: and his majesty, considering how much it is important to remedy an abuse so contrary to the laws of government, and at the same time so prejudicial to the state, and the necessity of providing against the same, however, without constraining the liberty of commerce, to which his majesty is always resolved to continue his protection; his majesty, with the advice of Mons. the duke of Orleans regent, has ordained and ordains, That in general, all his subjects, of what quality or condition soever they be, who are concerned in companies of commerce in foreign countries, shall be obliged to re-call their funds, and cause the same to be brought again into the kingdom within two months at the farthest, reckoning from the day of the publication of this present ordinance; which shall be likewise observed by those who have deposited any money out of the kingdom, excepting, nevertheless, the funds of bankers, which merchants and traders have there for their commerce, or for their own account, or the particular societies they have in the said foreign countries, upon a penalty to such as shall act contrary thereunto, of double the sum they have remitted into foreign countries: which penalty, whereof one half is to belong to his majesty, and the other to the informer, shall not be remitted or reduced, or moderated upon any pretence whatsoever. His majesty forbids, most expressly, all his subjects, of what quality or condition soever they be, to interest and concern themselves in any trading companies in foreign countries, or to place any money therein without his special leave; requiring the lieutenant-general of the police of Paris, the intendants of the several provinces, &c. to cause these presents to be observed, and to be read, published, and affixed, where occasion shall require, &c. Done at Paris, June 20, 1720.

Signed LEWIS,
And lower, PHELYPEAUX.

Mean while the affairs of the finances fell into so great disorder, that the court, seeing little hopes of retrieving them, applied to the parliament, whose deputies and the ministers of state had several conferences together. But the parliament refusing to come into the measures the court had projected, this produced an open rupture between them, and the parliament was removed from Paris to Pontoise in the following manner. On the 1st of July, by three in the morning, the musqueteers, the life-guards, the French and Swiss guards, and the archers of the marshal's were in arms; and a strong detachment was sent to the palace where the parliament meets, with orders to suffer no assembly there; and about the same time letters, under the royal signet, were sent by musqueteers to all the presidents and other members of the parliament, requiring them to repair to Pontoise (a place within six leagues of Paris) in forty-eight hours.

Upon the whole, this remarkable scheme created far more confusion in France, than there is at present, and proved the most gross and enormous cheat and imposition upon the public,

lie, that ever was hatched; nor is it to be paralleled, except by the famous æra of the South Sea year in England.

This tampering with the public credit, under colourable pretexts of raising mountains of treasures, always terminates in nought but empty bubble and chimæra, to the ruin of commerce and industry, and the useful arts, and therefore cannot be too much guarded against in all wise states: for which reason we have taken due notice of it. See the articles ACTIONS, BUBBLES, CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, MONIED INTEREST.

MODENA, a duchy in Italy, composed of several principalities, viz. the duchy properly so called; those of Reggio, of Mirandola, and Coreggio; the principality of Carpio; the feignories of Sassuolo, Trigalla, and the greater part of that of Carfagnano — It is bounded on the north by the duchies of Mantua and Mirandola; on the east with the Bolognese, and the territories of the Church; on the south with Tuscany and the republic of Lucca; and, on the west, by the duchy of Parma.

This country is fertile and delightful, produces plenty of corn, wine, and other valuable commodities, sufficient not only to maintain, but to enrich it's inhabitants, were they not so grievously loaded with taxes. But the misfortune is, that the dukes of it keep a court too splendid and magnificent for their income; so that they are obliged to rack their subjects, and reduce them almost to beggary, in order to vie with other princes in grandeur.

The duchy, or territory of Modena, properly so called, has it's name from it's capital; and, besides that and the dependencies of it, contains the country of Frignano, and part of Carfagnano. The chief towns of it are Modena, the capital, Bastia, Final, Frignano, Sestola, and Carfagnano.

MODENA is seated in a spacious plain, on a fine canal, between the rivers Panaro and Secchia, and is of a small oblong figure, nearer to a round. The city has nothing that shews the inhabitants to be rich, or to carry on any considerable commerce.

BASTIA is a small pretty town in the Modenese Proper, pleasantly situated on an island formed by the river Panaro, about 16 miles below the city of Modena.

FINAL, or **FINALE**, is likewise situated on an island made by the same river, on the north-east of Modena, and upon the confines of Mantua. It is often called Final Modenese, to distinguish it from a famed sea-port of that name on the coast of Genoa.

FRIGNANO, or **FRIGANO**, is a little city and territory in the same duchy, at the foot of the Apennines, on the frontiers of the Bolognese, near the spring head of the Panaro.

CARSIGNANO, **CARFENIANO**, **GRAFIGNANO**, the last territory in the Modenese Proper, situate at the foot of the Apennines, and between that duchy and the republic of Lucca. The territory runs on each side of the Secchia.

It's chief town, of no great note, is called **CASTEL NOVO DE CARSIGNANO**, with some other villages, part of which belong to the republic of Lucca.

CARPI, a city and territory in the duchy of Modena, with the title of principality, is fortified with a good castle, and did formerly belong to the house of Pio, who were lords of it. It is seated in a beautiful fertile plain, upon a canal cut from the river Secchia, about 11 miles north of Modena, and four from Correggio.

SASSUOLO, **SASSUOLI**, is situated on the river Secchia, and gives name to a lordship situate between Reggio, Modena, and Correggio, and is in the possession of a prince of the house of Este, who is commonly stiled marquis De St. Martino.

The principality of **REGGIO** takes it's name from the city of that name, called Regium Lepidi, to distinguish it from Reggio, another famed town in Calabria. It is situate in a very fertile plain, is well inhabited, and very rich, though it's air be not so wholesome as other parts of Italy.

The duchy of Modena, properly so called, comprehends one of the fairest and most fruitful countries in Italy, abounding with corn, wine, oil, and fruits, is very populous, and inhabited by an ingenious and industrious people. The small country of Frignano, bordering on the Bolognese, is annexed to it on one side, and part of the country of Carfagnano on the other, the rest belonging to the republic of Lucca. It is very mountainous, but far from being despicable, since in these mountains there are mines of great value; and the inhabitants are a race of people robust, hardy, and brave, as any in Italy. The duchy of Reggio lies west from that of Modena, and is by some accounted the more considerable duchy of the two, and, indeed, so it is, if we consider it's dependencies, such as the principalities of Correggio and Carpi, the former heretofore possessed by princes of the same name, and the latter belonging to the family of Pio. In the north-west corner of this duchy stands Bercello, upon the Po, formerly a place of great strength, yielded by the late duke of Modena, in 1701, to the imperialists, to facilitate their military operation in Italy, and, for that reason, besieged, taken, and intirely demolished by the French in 1705; nor has it been ever since restored to it's ancient condition.

The duchy of **MIRANDOLA**, including that of **CONCORDIA**, is about 20 miles in length, and five in breadth; it is a very

beautiful and a very plentiful territory, full of villages, and the country round about them thoroughly cultivated.

MIRANDOLA is strong by situation, and has been formerly well fortified.

The city of **CONCORDIA** stands on the Secchia, at the distance of six miles from Mirandola; between which cities there is a fine canal, called the Navilio, which facilitates the commerce of both.

These duchies were very great acquisitions to the family of Este, since their revenues are moderately computed at 100,000 crowns a year.

The whole estates of the duke of Modena have the duchies of Mantua and Guastalla on the north; the grand duchy of Tuscany on the south, together with the territories of the republic of Lucca; the Bolognese, and the duchy of Ferrara, on the east; and the duchy of Parma on the west. The extent of these countries, from south to north, is about 56 English miles, and they are about 50 miles in breadth, from west to east. The duke of Modena, in time of peace, enjoys a revenue of about 100,000 l. sterling a year at least, with which he maintains a very splendid court, and when his circumstances renders it requisite, can keep up a body of 8000 regular troops. The greatest inconvenience in the situation of his country is, that he has no communication with the sea; which might be easily removed, if he could recover, either by treaty or force, the duchy of Ferrara, which lies upon the gulph of Venice.

MOGUL EMPIRE. See **INDOSTAN**.

MOLDAVIA, a principality of European Turkey, bounded by the river Neister, which divides it from Poland, on the north east; by Bessarabia on the east; by the Danube, which separates it from Bulgaria, on the south; and by Walachia and Transylvania on the west; being 240 miles long, and 150 broad, situate in a good air and fruitful soil, producing corn, wine, rich pastures, a good breed of horses, oxen, and sheep, plenty of venison, game, fish, and fowl, and all European fruits, and is well watered with the rivers Danube, Pruth, Neister, &c.

The capital city is **JASSY**.

MOLUCCA ISLANDS. See **INDIAN ISLANDS**.

MOMBASA, a subdivision of Zanguebar, on the coast of Africa, a country subject to the Portuguese, which furnishes them with slaves, gold, ivory, rice, flesh, and other provisions, with which they supply their plantations in Brazil, &c.

MONEY.

Of the ORIGIN of MONEY.

In the most early ages, when trade was carried on, as there was no money, men used to barter one commodity for another, a custom that still obtains among the savage unpolished nations of Chili on the South Sea, in the land of Jesso in the East-Indies, and other barbarous countries. But, as such a method of bartering commodities was, on many occasions, attended with great difficulty, and always inconvenient, men agreed to make choice of one commodity, which being in general and constant esteem, an equivalent quantity of it might always remove the difficulty of bartering in kind.

The same opinion concerning the origin of money we find expressed very much to our purpose, in the first book of Aristotle's Politics, ch. 6. 'As all useful things, says he, could not, without great difficulty, be transported from place to place, it was resolved, by common consent, that, in bartering commodities, they should reciprocally give and receive some substance, which, being in it's nature applicable to the purposes of life, might, at the same time, be easily carried about.' From which words of Aristotle it is very plain, that the introduction of money was owing to the difficulty of bartering, as human society could not subsist without the exchange of necessaries, nor could this matter be managed without the use of money.

To determine, therefore, this substance that should be in universal and constant esteem, they made choice of gold and silver, not only because they were more valuable than other metals, but also because, in the various uses to which they might be applied, they were particularly adapted to the support and improvement of human life. But, because there was a considerable difference in the nature of these two metals, and gold was more precious than silver, both by it's intrinsic worth and greater scarcity, and also far exceeded the other in the expence that was necessary for working it, as appears by the tax that is paid to the sovereign lords of mines, who require no more than five in the hundred of gold, whereas they exact twenty in the hundred of silver; therefore a greater value was ascribed to gold. And, because the baser metal ought to be given in greater measure, that what was wanting in value might be made up in quantity; for this purpose it was necessary to fix the proportion between them, by a certain determinate rule: whence it is, that in the practice of commerce, though formerly the proportion of gold to silver was settled as ten to one, yet at present the matter is so regulated almost all over Europe, that one ounce of gold is reckoned equal in value to 15 of silver, or thereabouts. See the article **COIN**.

When this substance was agreed upon at first, as we have observed, the particular quantities of it were originally determined by their bulk and weight only; but afterwards, to save the trouble of proving this weight upon every occasion, it was coined into a certain form by public authority, and impressed with a mark of distinction, expressing the quantity each piece contained, so that it should always have the same determinate value, and be every-where the same, both for matter and weight.

In order to inquire more particularly into the nature of money, and the better to illustrate what we have further to offer concerning the effects it produces in trade, and the various advantages and disadvantages of one kingdom in respect of another, arising from money; it must be considered, that we are to distinguish two sorts of value in money; the one intrinsic, founded in the rate or value according to which it uses to pass: and though, in different places, on several pressing occasions, the extrinsic value of money may be raised higher, at the discretion of the supreme power, such is the nature of commerce, that in it money is never estimated but as to its intrinsic value; so that, in the course of trade, money can have no higher value than a mass of the same metal and quantity would have, if given in barter for any sort of goods. We must also observe further, that such is the custom of well-regulated kingdoms, that, when foreign money is suffered to pass current therein, so much is deducted from the extrinsic value as is necessary for defraying the charge of coining, and it never passes for more than its intrinsic value; and the intention of this regulation is, that the money of the state itself, which bears the stamp and authority of the prince, may always have the preference. From all which considerations it is extremely plain, that it is a matter of the utmost consequence that the system of money be settled under such fixed regulations, as that it may constantly keep pace with the course of trade, and never in the least deviate therefrom; it being certain, that no variation can ever happen in this respect, but it will, at the same time, produce a remarkable alteration in commerce.

After all, however certain it may seem that money is that which alone constitutes the riches of a nation, and it cannot be denied that, considered in itself, it has this prerogative, yet it will never discover its effects, if it is not put in motion by commerce; so that, as the body of a planet, being in itself opaque, would never discover to us its form and figure, if (according to that hypothesis) it did not revolve round the sun, whose light presents it to our view, we must form the very same judgment concerning money; which, it is certain, has in itself no power at all to increase and multiply, and thereby to form the riches of a kingdom, or even, on the contrary, to reduce it to poverty; for, if a prosperous or unfavourable motion were not communicated thereto by commerce, we should never be sensible of its effects. And, because we can no otherwise arrive at a clear and distinct knowledge of these effects but by a fixed and certain rule, which can shew with accurate exactness the situation of any kingdom, with regard to its internal and external commerce, that is, whether the balance of trade stands in equilibrio, or is inclined to either side: and seeing there is not a more infallible rule by which this knowledge can be attained than the course of exchange, see the article EXCHANGE.

REMARKS on the article MONEY.

Of the INCREASE and DECREASE of the ACTUAL QUANTITY of REAL or HARD MONEY in a STATE.

Let us familiarly consider the land estate of a country, where the general circulation is carried on by 2000 ounces of silver: this money passes through several hands, and always returns into those of the undertakers, whom we suppose the proprietors of it.

Let us likewise suppose, these undertakers have received 2000 ounces more for a present from Americans, so as that each undertaker has double the quantity of money he had before, and that the quantity of money in all becomes 4000 ounces of silver.

Each undertaker will endeavour to enlarge and augment the quantity of his business: so the farmer's commodities will grow dearer in the altercations, by the greater demand made by the undertakers: but, perhaps, this will not immediately double the price of things, because some of the farmers will at first be satisfied with a greater price than usual, but afterwards the price will double in the altercations; each undertaker will desire to live better than he did before, since he has got his additional sum, and, consequently, he will consume in his family more wine and meat than usual; therefore wine and meat will grow proportionably dearer than bread; and the farmers will endeavour to have more of these kinds the next season, since they yield in proportion a better price than corn, and, consequently, the corn will become scarcer, and grow dearer also.

This increase of consumption of the produce of land, which, on the footing now introduced, cannot maintain all the inhabitants, will make it necessary for some of them to seek their livelihood elsewhere. These will be chiefly turned away

by the proprietor of the land, who, having but 6000 ounces per annum for his estate, cannot maintain his family as before, since all commodities are grown dearer. The labourers and journeymen, remaining, not being able to subsist upon their usual wages, must have an augmentation, as well as the remaining servants of the proprietor: and, in all the changes this new quantity of money produces, the farmers seem to be the only gainers, and the proprietors the only losers. The undertakers, who buy their commodities and materials dearer, will be for turning the loss upon the consumers: but, as they are themselves consumers with respect to one another, they will find the expences in their families increase beyond the additional consumption of meat, wine, &c. they intended; and, when the money introduced into barter shall gradually have doubled the price of every thing, they will be obliged to retrench the said additional consumption, since their double quantity of money carries on but the same undertakings their single quantities carried on before; otherwise they will turn bankrupts, and be ruined, which is commonly the case, in regard people do not often care to retrench their expences; and then others, who have saved money, will set up in their places.

The proprietor, at the expiration of his lease, will demand 12000 ounces for his rent, instead of 6000: since the price of the farmers commodities is doubled; and, if he returns to his former manner of living, he will call back his servants, whom he had sent away, or have others in their place; and the new undertakers will live upon the same footing of consumption as the first, the farmers will have the same profits out of the lands that the farmers had at first, and all the dispositions of this estate will turn nearly to its primitive state, with this difference only, that the farmers, who saved money are richer, and the undertakers, who ruined themselves, are forced to turn journeymen to others, who are set up in their room, and that 4000 ounces circulate instead of 2000.

These changes, or something like them, commonly happen in a state, when a sudden quantity of money is introduced into the general barter; but, because money most commonly increases but slowly and gradually, commodities rise in their value insensibly.

Let us again suppose there are silver mines on this estate, that an undertaker farms them from the proprietor, or from the farmers, that the veins are so rich that he shall quickly get out of them the additional quantity of 2000 ounces on our hypothesis.

This new quantity of money will cause much the same variation in the price of all commodities, as we observed in the preceding example. The undertaker, or mine-adventurer, will increase his expence, and give great encouragement to the miners and others he employs. The facility wherewith he gets money will make him generous, and he will more cheerfully than before bestow money on the poor. The doubt he gives to those he employs will encourage them also to spend more than usual. All that are concerned under him feel the influence of his opulence, and consequently consume more commodities than usual. They will enhance the price of them in the altercations; and, which way soever these additional 2000 ounces of silver come into barter, they will raise the price of things. The circulating money will be 4000 ounces instead of 2000, and the price of commodities will be double. It may be worth while to observe here, that we may distinguish several channels and walks of circulation at market. The corn, or bread market, is proportioned to all the inhabitants in general, since the meanest workman must have bread, as well as the greatest lord. The wine-market corresponds to a smaller number of inhabitants, but yet is very considerable, since not only the proprietors of land and money pensioners and officers, but likewise several middling undertakers, tradesmen, and workmen, drink more or less wine. The butchers, or meat-market, is much the same. The wild fowl market, and that of rarities and delicacies, corresponds to a smaller number of inhabitants, as lords, wealthy proprietors, and others.

So that, if the additional money which is brought into a state is at first all in the hands of the wealthy sort, the price of wild fowl may very well rise, and continue high, without influencing the price of bread; and the price of wine and meat may rise long before bread grows dearer: but it will, at the long-run, affect the price of bread also.

Whenever the additional quantity of money decreases, it will create an additional expence proportionable, mediately or immediately, and enhances, consequently, the price of commodities.

If we suppose that 10 persons increase the expences of their family on the estate we mentioned before, that they raise the price of wine, meat, &c. in the altercations, without much affecting that of bread: the farmer will have another year more cattle and wines, and, consequently, less corn, and so corn will then grow also dearer.

There is generally a stock of every commodity in a nation exceeding the yearly consumption; which answers the sudden and extraordinary consumption; and, as that waxes, the commodities grow dearer, and the dearth again, if it continues, makes several families diminish their consumption, till things

things return to their primitive state as to the consumption. But the dearth of the commodities continues, since the quantity of money in barter corresponds to it, and a double quantity of money in the hands of undertakers, when the price of things is doubled, has but the same effect the single quantity had before.

If the additional quantity of money belongs to money-lenders, it will diminish interest, and at the same time increase the undertakings, which consequently will enhance the price of commodities, by an additional demand. The money-lenders will increase their expence and consumptions, and the additional undertakers will do the like; the demand for workmen in the several undertakings will raise the price of their wages; the price of things will keep up in barter, since the quantity of money continues to answer the advanced price, though several of the undertakers should break.

But, if an additional QUANTITY OF CREDIT * should by the acceleration of circulation, and barter by evaluation, make the 2000 ounces answer the same circulation as 4000, it will have pretty much the same effect as 2000 ounces increase of money. It will occasion an additional number of undertakers, who will increase the price of commodities, which will grow dearer in the altercations. These will enhance the consumption, &c. but, when some of them come to break, their example will stagnate circulation, and the ready money only will carry it on as before; and consequently money will grow scarcer, and commodities will grow cheaper, and the difficulties in circulation will make the undertakers sell cheaper than they bought, and several of them will break and diminish their consumption, &c. So that a sudden augmentation of credit may for some time answer the same ends and purposes, as the sudden increase of the quantity of money, but will not continue to keep up the price of commodities, as the real quantity of additional money does: but, when a quickness of circulation is gradually introduced into barter, and continues naturally in the manner and methods of carrying on the undertakings, we don't see why it may not have constantly the same effect in keeping up the price of things.

* This shews how injurious the effects of long personal credit are to trade in general. See the article CREDIT [PRIVATE CREDIT.] I cannot but think that a custom so injurious to trade in general, might and should be prevented.

I have enlarged upon these particulars and circumstances, to shew by what methods and steps in the detail of barter, an additional quantity of real money in a state increases the price of all commodities. As to the fact itself, it seems sufficiently proved by experience, and agreed upon by all hands. Mr. Locke lays it down as a principle, and frequently insinuates, that the price of all commodities is proportionable to the actual quantity of circulating money. But he seems to have clearly lost the view of this subject, when he supposes, nevertheless, that the profits and advantages made in a state increase without bounds, with the increase of the quantity of money: whereas it follows from his own principles, that, if the money is doubled, the price of commodities is also doubled, and consequently that a double quantity of money will buy but the same quantity of commodities, if they are doubled in their value. [For what occasions the rise of labour and commodities, see the articles DUTIES, DEBTS, [PUBLIC DEBTS], TAXES, LABOUR.]

Let us now examine how things find their proportion in a state, when the price of commodities rises, either by an additional quantity of money introduced into barter, or by the scarcity of commodities and bad years.

When there happens a great demand for any kind of commodities, several families will consume less of it than usual, by reason of it's dearth: a man who commonly eats three pounds of bread in a day, will subsist if he has but two pounds; and a state which maintains 1,000,000 of inhabitants, will, with little difficulty, and without any sensible hardship, maintain 1,100,000, and even 1,500,000 with difficulty and famine: but things will afterwards find their own proportion, and the inhabitants will proportion themselves in number to the means they find to subsist on, according to the manner of living of the place.

Hitherto we have not any where considered foreign trade; but, by a commerce with foreigners, a state may maintain a greater number of inhabitants than the land can maintain. For example:

The inhabitants of Provence may buy wool of the Spaniards, and pay the value of it with about a quarter part of the same wool manufactured; and export the other three quarters of it manufactured to Barbary, and bring home, in exchange for it, more corn than will answer the maintenance of all the workmen, undertakers, exporters, and importers, concerned in the whole commerce in question.

The little island of St. Dennis near Paris contains three parishes, the business of these inhabitants is mostly tanning of leather: the island produces nothing for their sustenance: they sell their labour in exchange for the produce of the lands of the continent, which maintains them: their tanned leather is mostly consumed at their doors [at Paris]. If it were

to be transported, and consumed in Italy, it would scarce maintain them, because of the expence of the remote carriage.

But the Dutch find means, by the cheapness of their navigation, to exchange their labour with remoter parts, where the produce of their labour is not voluminous; their manufactures of linen, their bleaching, their herring and whale-fishery answer the charge, and so does their sawed timber and shipping to some places; for their saw-mills, one with another, save the labour of 25 persons. See the article LABOUR. That circumstance contributes to the cheapness of their shipping, as well as the timber of the countries adjacent to the Meuse, Moselle, and Rhine, which falls down these rivers to them with little expence of carriage. So it is not surprising there are more inhabitants in Holland than their lands are able to maintain, but this cannot be increased in infinitum; but these latter considerations have insensibly carried me something from my subject.

The value of money, as well as of other commodities, arises from the quantity of, and demand for it. The quantity of silver, by the opening of the mines of Peru and Mexico being greater than gold, gave an extraordinary value to gold; and hence it was that in the 11th of king James I. the unity piece of gold was raised from 20 to 23s. On the contrary, a few years ago the demand for silver was so great, that we were obliged to lower the value of gold; and, in all probability, in a little time we shall think a farther diminution absolutely necessary. But it is not alone the quantity of gold and silver that lessens the demand for them, but the circulation too; a great trade, making a greater demand for industry and commodities than money, lessens it's value, and consequently raises the price of the other two.

Trade and credit, as they are inseparable in themselves, so they are the parents of circulation: money without these would be but a dead treasure in few people's hands, and consequently the community little the better for it. France is to England as 8 to 3, their specie perhaps proportionable, yet there is a greater shew of money in England than in France; but, if the circulation of France were equal to that of England, then she would appear of course so much the richer.

For more matter on this subject, see the articles BANKING, BARTAR, CASH, CIRCULATION, COIN, GOLD, SILVER, BULLION, EXCHANGE.

MONIED INTEREST, or MONIED PROPERTY.

The chief subject of what is now meant by the monied interest in this kingdom, is the national debt, see DEBT [NATIONAL DEBT]; and it is called monied property, only in opposition to the landed, and because of the facility of turning it into money; not that any body is weak enough to imagine, that there does exist, or that it is necessary there should exist, money enough in the kingdom to answer what is due to the public creditors.

That we may give a just idea of this debt, we shall consider, (1.) What the public debt is. (2.) To whom it is due. (3.) Whence came the money lent to the public. (4.) How far the public is affected by it. (5.) How and where that money was employed before it was lent the public. (6.) What has become of it since. (7.) What would be the consequence of paying it off. And, lastly, What will be the consequence of increasing it.

1. The public debt is a share out of the profits and expences of every inhabitant of Great-Britain; which he is bound to pay, without receiving any benefit or advantage for it, 'till the public shall be rich and honest enough to pay out of it's savings no less than eighty millions sterling.

Where a revenue consists in land, the owner feels, that, at two shillings in the pound, he gives away one tenth of his income; but does not so easily perceive, that he must still contribute out of the nine parts that remain: and a day-labourer is not sensible, that he gives a groat at least towards the public debt, out of his hard earned shilling. He must pay for his shoes, his light, his drink, his washing, &c. and, because he keeps no account with the exciseman, he never dreams that he contributes to his collections.

This tribute is squeezed out of the bowels of the people in the shape of taxes; and, besides what is applied to the national debt, like the wretch that is cast at law, they must pay for the expence of raising it, and must maintain a swarm of tax-gatherers; who, though they are, perhaps, as necessary as jack-catch, as an anonymous writer says, cannot fail to be looked upon as the instruments of oppressing the very country, which had a right to the benefit of their honest industry.

The public debt, then, is an absolute alienation, with privilege of redemption, of a considerable part of the means of subsistence of every individual in Great-Britain; which he would have a right to possess and bestow on himself and family, was it not for such debt, and which he is now obliged to pay to another because of that debt.

2. As to the second point, one must distinguish between those to whom the public debt is due at present, and those to whom it was originally contracted.

King William's war having involved this nation in an expence unknown 'till then, every invention was exerted to find

find out new methods of raising money. After every tax that history or speculation could suggest was imposed on the people, it was so contrived, that the money raised came vastly short of the demands for it; and the government had recourse to anticipations, and delivered over the nation to the mercy of usurers. Clerks, agents, brokers, money-scriveners, commissaries, Jews, and members of parliament, were allowed 30 or 40 per cent. for pretending to advance the public the very money they had already received, or just robbed it of.

In those times, it was usual to contract with the public to perform a certain service, suppose for 30,000*l.* one third down, and the rest payable at two different terms. The contractor, after receiving his 10,000*l.* down, either sold his contract to great advantage, or perhaps performed the whole service on credit. When the remaining payments became due, he, by another hand, advanced to the public, at 30 per cent. premium, the very money it had paid him a few months before. Thus, without being one shilling out of pocket, he contrived to make the public 10 or 15,000*l.* in debt to him: so abundant a harvest drew reapers and gleaners from every quarter. Things were contracted and paid for that never were furnished. False musters were winked at by sea and land. Every one aimed at his share of the plunder: no man pretended to check another, and to establish a precedent that might make against himself: the maxim was, To live, and let live; and the nation, like a town taken by storm, was given up to plunder. It was at this time that the word PERQUISITE grew into vogue. Those who did the real service, were forced to be content with their wages; but secretaries, paymasters, clerks, &c. had their perquisites.

The first proprietors, then, of that share of the profits of the industrious called public debt, were originally such who took advantage of the public folly; and, by furnishing them their own money at an extravagant premium, got annuities assigned them for it at 7 per cent. interest. These understood their trade too well, to spare ready money to those who had done real service. Instead of money, all such were obliged to receive debentures, which their necessities forced them to part with to usurers at 50 or 60 per cent. discount.

As soon as they found themselves possessed of these, they claimed all the merit and compassion due to the unhappy old soldiers, sailors, and other wretches they had starved out of them: and, instead of money, of which they knew they had left none unsqueezed out of the present generation, they were so very obliging, as to content themselves with having posterity delivered over to them in security for 7 per cent. interest, to be paid 'till the principal, which they never advanced, should be refunded.

After the peace, these gentlemen had got too high, and the people of England too low, to admit of enquiries. Public credit grew a cant word, and the law being debarred from enquiring into their titles, their securities were preferred to land, and found real purchasers; who actually, and bona fide, paid a new premium for what had cost the sellers very little.

The money lent the public came from ourselves, the very people whose industry it was employed to purchase, furnished the price that bought it.

The notion, that money was brought from abroad to purchase our taxes, is less true than imagined. Where could it come from? Not from Holland, France, Spain, or Portugal. Happy for us, the three first nations were drove to the same extremity, and were selling themselves as fast as we were, and the Portuguese had not then discovered the mines of Brazil. Vast fortunes have been made in England by foreigners, as well as natives; but it will be difficult to instance many considerable ones that have been imported. When the public funds were established, the certainty of gain might tempt some foreigners to lay out their money here; and so much the worse for us, since for every shilling they brought in, they were sure to carry out two. The different nations in Europe have run in debt, or borrowed, as they term it, near FIVE HUNDRED MILLIONS STERLING, SINCE KING WILLIAM'S WAR. No body can be so unreasonable as to imagine, that that money was lent them from abroad.

REMARKS ON MONIED INTEREST.

Whoever has frequented the Groom-porter's, will be at no loss to conceive, how a few money-lenders, with 200*l.* of borrowed money, must infallibly pick up all the money played for, and must, in time, get into the estates of every constant gamester.

My lord duke A shall play against my lord B. They shall bring each 1000*l.* in their pockets. On Monday the run shall be against his grace: he loses all his ready money: his money-lender C is at hand, to supply him with a rouleau of 50. The run continues; C has t'other and t'other rouleau at his service. The luck turns; C receives back his 150*l.* with thanks, and three guineas due to his kindly succour. On Tuesday, lord B comes to be in the same situation. He too has recourse to his money-lender D. This traffic is repeated every day through the year. Nothing so equal as luck: on casting up accounts, it will be found, that his grace and

my lord are each 5 or 6000*l.* out of pocket, and that C and D have got it. His grace gets at last into so bad a run, that he is out 100 rouleaus to C; and finds good natured C, not only willing to accept of a mortgage on his grace's estate for the 5000*l.* borrowed, but ready to lend him 5000*l.* more on the same security. Thus his grace has lost all his ready money, and mortgaged his estate for 10,000*l.* Has my lord B got it? No; he is in the same situation. But C and D have got all the others have lost, though they have found no treasure, discovered no philosophers stone, nor imported a single farthing from abroad.

We know there were at least fourteen millions of specie in England, when king William's war broke out. Most of that money must have been employed in trade, there having been then no more profitable way of disposing of it. When the public demands took place, there was more to be got by supplying them; and of course every wise man would take his money out of trade, and carry it to the Treasury, as the better market. There was at that time at least 20 or 30 per cent. to be got fairly, by supplying the government; the money paid was sure to return again in a few years, and, being lent again on new securities, it can be no wonder, that so profitable a traffic has, from a moderate stock, produced even eighty millions in sixty years.

In short, the people, who had no conception that it was possible to grind above two millions a year out of them, were now taught to pay six, besides the sums annually borrowed; and those who received that six millions, or rather those with whom it stopped, brought it back again to the Treasury, and it then became public debt. So far were we from receiving money from abroad, that it can, perhaps, be demonstrated from the constant course of exchange, that the expence of beaten armies, subsidies, and, above all, the interruption of trade, occasioned the sending vast sums out of the kingdom.

The public debt is attended with every dreadful consequence that can accompany any national calamity, of which we shall hint only at the most obvious of such as distinguish it. If it was payable only out of the rents of land, and of such as live on their means, it might be pretended, that since the industrious farmer must pay his rent, it is the same thing to the nation, whether it is wholly possessed by the esquire, or if one half of it is enjoyed by a stock-jobber. Even in that case, there would be a wide difference. But the rents of land are not in question: our taxes are chiefly paid out of the consumption of the industrious; and the farmer must pay his share out of his own particular profits, independent of what the esquire pays out of his estate.

A tax of 5 per cent. on any commodity, must raise the price of it above 8, [see the article DUTIES;] and, as our tradesmen work under the disadvantage of paying taxes for almost every thing they consume, they cannot afford their labour so cheap as those who pay considerably less, and of course must be underfold in the foreign market. In other words, if an Englishman consumes to the value of 6*d.* a day, and must pay 3*d.* for the privilege of doing so, he cannot live so cheap as the foreigner, who enjoys that privilege for a penny.

We inhabit the most plentiful spot in Europe, our people are allowed to be naturally industrious, yet our poor want employment. We have not mouths at home to consume our produce. Foreigners can afford to smuggle our wool at a vast expence, and to undersell us even in that manufactory. If we have still some trade left, thanks to the provident care of our ancestors, who settled our colonies, and to the singularity of our taste, that can accommodate itself with Portugal wine, which has secured to us a part of the trade of that country; which, however, daily declines at present. See the article PORTUGAL.

To judge fairly of the bad effect of our taxes, let us suppose ourselves released from them, or let us suppose all the money paid to the stocks and sinking fund given back in bounties to the manufacturers and exporters, and then let one imagine how many hands would be set to work at home, and whether we should not undersell all the world abroad.

The public debt has, in a great degree, intailed immorality and idleness upon the people; and the civil magistrate, whose chief office ought to be to restrain vice, is forced to connive at it. The revenue cannot be supported without encouraging idleness and expence, and licensing numberless public houses; most of which are to be considered as so many academies, for the acquiring and propagating the whole science of iniquity. It is from these academies that Newgate is peopled, and Tyburn supplied; but it is likewise from these, that a great part of the revenue arises. Pulpits may thunder against vice, and juries may hang criminals to eternity, while every means of corrupting the morals of the people is thrown in their way, it is in vain to look for reformation.

The public debt has opened the iniquitous traffic of stock-jobbing, and introduced a spirit of gaming amongst all degrees of men. The attention of the merchant is too much taken off from solid trade; he engages in what he fancies the more lucrative business of Exchange-alley, and leaves export and import to such as have patience to follow it.

The trade of the Alley, consists too much in conspiring to pick the pocket of every body not in the secret. Those who are, can make stocks rise and fall at pleasure, and pocket the difference. A has 5000*l.* to lay out. India stock is at 180. B transfers 100*l.* to C. at 179. Next morning he transfers another 100*l.* at 178. The price is set, and A buys 5000*l.* at 178. In a week or two A wants to sell. If the object is considerable, an article in the Hague Gazette is made to confirm, that the emperor of Monomotapa desires to be comprehended in the alliance of Petersburg. C transfers his 200*l.* back to B at 180; the market is settled again, and A sells out at 180. Thus their industry brings 2 per cent. in a few weeks. But who do they get it from? From women, younger brothers, and all such of the well-meaning people of England as will dabble in stocks, without being in the secret. It is from this scandalous commerce, that numbers of these meer money-jobbers have, in a few years, acquired millions among them; and, what is most provoking, they have the impudence to dub themselves merchants, and some real merchants have the meanness to suffer them to assume that title. One would imagine, that nothing but our necessities could make us wink at a practice so iniquitous and detrimental; yet there are some men absurd enough to fancy, that we are extremely beholden to these jobbers, for condescending to set up their trade amongst us.

The city of Bristol, or Birmingham, might, with equal reason, think itself obliged to a set of sharpers, who should bring a sum of money along with them, and set a Faro bank for all the citizens to pont at. Nor would it be more ridiculous in a country esquire to think to improve his carp, by throwing in a parcel of pike amongst them. We can only increase our people as we do our game, by discouraging poachers and destroying vermin.

There is an inconvenience attending the public debt, not inferior to any mentioned, which has escaped the notice of most people. The public debt has produced a difference of interests in this country, that we have lately suffered by, and, if not remedied, can have no end. It is the interest of the stockholders to involve the nation in war, because they get by it: it is the interest of landed men and merchants to submit to many evils, rather than engage in war, since they must bear the chief burden of it: and, however contemptible one may think the weight of the former, in comparison of that of the latter, it was their superior influence that involved the nation in the late frivolous war with Spain. The greater the debt, the greater the weight of the public creditors, and the louder their cry. And we may expect, that these worthy patriots will, on every proper occasion, renew their endeavours to keep us in the thralldom.—Deplorably precarious must the situation be, where one set of men must be undone, even by a necessary war, and another, of perhaps equal influence, impoverished by the best peace.

Amongst the bad effects of the public debt, we must not omit the particular loss the nation suffers by the share of it belonging to foreigners residing abroad. If they possess 20 millions of it, there is a dead loss to the kingdom of 600,000*l.* a year. If England was obliged to pay a tribute of that amount to France, or any other foreign country, every body would pronounce that we could not hold it long without being undone: and yet that tribute stands on a footing at present still more destructive to the nation, because there is no probability of getting free from it, but by paying above 35 years purchase, and because the foreign stockholders have a temptation to increase the tribute due to them, by applying their dividends to buy up more stock; of which, that we are to pay the dividends is CERTAIN: but the benefits we are to receive from letting their money remain with us is DOUBTFUL. Men not used to think of these subjects, talk of money like a vegetable, as if it were the nature of it to grow and increase. No doubt the particular man, who lends it out at interest, feels himself grow richer, and, perhaps, the persons who borrow it may lay it out so as to bring in a return. But it must stop somewhere; and, considered in itself, it does not grow, but wears. More of it than what is sufficient for the circulation and commerce of a nation is of no use, and brings no profit to the nation in general.

The fifth point to be enquired into is, how and where the money was employed before it was lent the public. It has already been explained, that the money supposed to be lent came chiefly out of the pockets of the very people who now pay interest for it: the public debt being an annuity out of the profits and consumption of every individual, before it was established, every body possessed and enjoyed all his gains. There was then no Exchange-Alley: those who frequent it had no existence; and, had there been no opportunity of exercising their genius that way, their necessities would probably have pointed out to them some other branches of industry, in which many of them might have been of use to the public, which they now prey upon. The ready money which circulates in the Alley, and, by being tossed backwards and forwards, is found sufficient, in such hands, to draw into it all the wealth of the kingdom, was, and, without our debts, would be employed in trade, in improving and extending our colonies, in public works, for use as well as ornament, and

might then draw in the wealth of other countries, where now it operates only on our own.

As to the sixth article, if money was brought from abroad to supply our demands, so I admit, that none has gone out on that score, further than so far as foreigners have taken advantage of our situation since that time, by buying in cheap, and selling out dear; for few of them shared in our general plunder: or, as our debt was contracted to support foreign wars, and to pay foreign subsidies, a great part of the money laid out that way may have remained abroad. Our debt affects us not so much by carrying our money abroad, as by putting it out of our power to work our goods cheap enough to get money for them in the foreign market. What makes it likely that our specie is greatly diminished within these 60 years is, that ten parts out of eleven of all the silver in circulation is either of king William's coinage, or before it; but paper currency makes a little money to do the business of a great deal; and it is certain there remains specie enough in the kingdom for all our occasions.

It follows, from what has been said, that, if the public debt was paid off, the profits of the manufacturer would be all his own. He would be exempted from paying at least 40 per cent. out of his gains. It would be equal, in every respect, to a bounty to that amount on all our productions, and of three-pence a day to the day-labourer, and so in proportion. With that advantage, we should be able to undersell our neighbours: our people would of course multiply: our poor would find employment: even the aged and disabled might earn enough to live upon: new arts and manufactures would be introduced, and the old ones brought to perfection: our most barren lands would be cultivated, and the produce of the whole insufficient to supply the demands of our people. See the article MANURE.

The stock-jobber, when paid off, would find employment for his money in trade and manufacture, and would find that turn to better account than their preying on the vitals of their country. He would then become an useful member of society. Rents would rise, and the country gentleman would be able to provide for his younger children. We should be able to restore morality amongst our people; and the immense increase of trade would furnish employment for every industrious man. Our colonies would share in the benefit; and many causes of jealousy between them and their mother-country would vanish. We should become formidable to our neighbours; for, besides the increase of our naval power, in case of a just cause of war, we should be able to advance much more money within the year than we have ever done by anticipation. Such of our blood-suckers as had no taste for honest industry, would probably go with their millions, and prey on our enemies, to our great emolument, and their perdition.

It may probably be objected, by men of narrow conceptions, that there was a time when we owed no debt, and yet this country was never richer, nor had it more trade than at present. Let such men recollect the state of this nation 60 or 70 years before king William's war, with respect to numbers, trade, shipping, wealth, and manufacture; and let them compare it with our situation when that war broke out, and then let them give a reason why we have not increased in the same proportion since that period. Trade was then in its infancy; our colonies were hardly established; those times had all the expence of them, and we all the profit; Ireland was then but little better than our settlements in America are now; we had no union with Scotland, and Portugal afforded but little money; each of these has opened a new source of wealth to us; and, with such advantages, ought we not to have thrived in the same proportion we did in the former period? Had it not been for the public debt, there can be no doubt but our improvements for the last 60 years must have surpassed those of the 60 years preceding.

If our debt does not diminish it must increase; and, if it does, one may pronounce with certainty, that nothing can preserve us but our neighbours being in the same unhappy situation, and that we shall only continue a great nation as long as they are so.

The stock-jobbers have the words PUBLIC FAITH and PUBLIC CREDIT constantly in their mouths; and want to establish it as a maxim, that they are both engaged to support their monopoly, at the expence of the whole body of the people. The advanced price of stocks is more a proof of the folly, than of the faith of the public; and, if people did not depend more on the first than the last, a redeemable annuity could never rise above par. The excessive premiums are owing to an opinion, that we want either the means or inclination to pay off our debts; such an opinion would not add to the credit of a private man; and how it should increase that of the nation, is difficult to be comprehended by those who do not clearly discern the consequences of these things.

Some people tell us too, that paying off our debts is annihilating so much property. On the contrary, it is purchasing at par, for the national benefit, what is supposed to be worth a great deal more; and the subject is not annihilated, but only transferred to the public from a private man, who might have employed it to the public detriment.

When the art of funding was first introduced, the common talk of mankind was, that the people of England must be undone. Some tell us, that the event has proved the vanity of that apprehension. The prediction has been verified, perhaps, in the strictest sense. All that could be meant by the assertion was, that the then possessors, and their posterity, must be undone, and their inheritance given away from them, and become the property of other men. It could never be their meaning, that the land would run away, or cease to be occupied by some body. At present, that is, 60 years after the Revolution, one tenth of the land of England is not possessed by the posterity or heirs of those who possessed it at that time; and if the extermination (as it may be justly termed) is not universal, it is only because there were a few overgrown estates, such as the Devonshire, Bedford, Curzon, &c. which were proof against the waste of luxury and taxes. Suppose the Turks were to over-run England, it might certainly be affirmed with propriety, that, if we did not drive them out, England must be undone; and yet, if they should prevail, the land would still remain, would still be occupied and cultivated, and possibly the trade of England would receive some advantages from the favour of other Mahometan nations, who are all great customers for the woollen, and most other manufactures: and it is more than probable, that a greater proportion of the property of the country would remain in the possession of the original inhabitants 60 years after such a conquest, than is now to be found in the posterity of those to whom it belonged at the Revolution. As the cause, I mean the public debt, still subsists, the present possessors must not expect a more durable establishment. Was the plague to rage in a city, and all the rich to perish, the poor would get possession of the houses and effects; but, if the infection continued to prevail, they would soon make way for others in their turn.

Let no body imagine that the people of England will suffer things to come to extremity, without making some effort to relieve themselves. If they have made no attempt of that sort hitherto, it has only been from the hopes that their burden would soon be made lighter, and from the just confidence they have had in those at the helm.

REMARKS ON THE MONIED INTEREST before the last WAR.

This is the strain of reasoning of many, in relation to the public debts of the nation, and particularly so in a late enquiry into the original and consequences of the public debt, said to be drawn up by a person of distinction. This piece being drawn up with too much severity against the public creditors, we have stripped it of a great part of its malignity, and yet have thought proper to retain so much of the substance thereof, as may give an idea, how obnoxious the monied interest is in the sight of some.

Suppose, however, that all, and much more in the like strain, might be true, with respect to the proprietors of the public stock; it can never be consistent with the general interest of the nation, to annihilate at once, as that writer proposes, the whole 80 millions of properties, which now belongs to the public creditors of the nation. This would be of infinitely worse detriment to the public, than the Mississippi or South-Sea schemes were; and would for ever after disable the nation from borrowing more money on the most pressing exigency, by giving such a blow to the public faith.

There is some use and advantage, notwithstanding, to be made of this gentleman's suggestion; and that is the only reason for our taking notice of it: the public creditors may be hereby forewarned of what may possibly enter into the heads of some other people, as well as into that of the author of this piece; and therefore this ought so to alarm the public creditors, as to excite them to think of every measure to obtain the lessening of the public debts, in a manner the least dangerous and oppressive to them; for, if they continue to increase, and remain undiminished, the taxes occasioned thereby, upon the trade and navigation of the kingdom, may one day be thought to render their property so highly detrimental to the public interests, that men in power may take it into their heads to relieve the nation from the weight of its taxes and incumbrances, by an absolute annihilation of all the monied property in the kingdom, occasioned by the funds. For, the writer before-mentioned strongly excites to a conduct of this kind, when he says, 'That in a like extremity, when the clergy had engrossed too large a share of the property of the country, Henry VIII. was obliged, for the relief of the people, to seize on their temporalities; and had the approbation of every lover of his country. That the grievance was by no means so intolerable at that time as now; because the clergy contented themselves with possessions in land, without pretending to a share in industry.'

'That as to violation of laws and public faith, it is in vain to urge these in cases of necessity. The first of all principles is self-preservation; nor could the ties of law and public faith be stronger in favour of stock-jobbers now, than of the clergy at the Reformation. That, as to public credit, we should have no more occasion for it; since the

'people, relieved from so heavy a burden, would, on an emergency, by submitting to the former taxes, be better able to raise money within the year, than can now be brought in by anticipating. And the greatest advantage of abolishing the debt would be, that it would secure us against running in debt for the future.'

It may be said, continues this writer, in objection to this scheme, that it would be dangerous to drive so powerful and so rich a body of people, as the owners of eighty millions, to despair. True it is, they are powerful at present, and their cry is loud, because they are possessed of eighty millions: but, when stripped of that, as would then be the case, they would be as inconsiderable, and as little listened to, as any other set of beggars. I do not say it would be wise or just in a prince to act this part. I only imagine it would be popular.'

How the public debts may be equitably and honourably discharged, without ever being obliged to come to such extremities, as what this author proposes; see our articles CREDIT, [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS, [NATIONAL DEBT], FUNDS, INTEREST.

This gentleman's way of reasoning may be made use of, some time or other, to reduce the interest of the public creditors, still lower than it is: unless they co-operate with the public, not only to prevent the further increase of the public debts, but the gradual diminution of the greatest part, if we cannot get rid of the whole of these we have; lest the oppressive taxes occasioned thereby, should one day stir up a spirit in the nation, to make use of a SPONGE instead of a SINKING-FUND.

REMARKS ON THE MONIED INTEREST since the last WAR, and the PEACE of 1763.

The last war having increased our PUBLIC DEBTS, from about 80 MILLIONS to upwards of 140 MILLIONS, and multiplied TAXES in proportion thereto, the MONIED INTEREST have in consequence augmented their stock property in the public funds. Were the taxes of the kingdom mortgaged to ourselves only, and the public debts contracted solely amongst the subjects of this realm, the whole of the interest money annually paid for our debts, would be property of his majesty's subjects, and would circulate amongst ourselves. Were our affairs so happily circumstanced, it would prove an extraordinary alleviance of our weighty incumbrances; tho' was that the case, it would be no reduction of the weight, which our whole commerce and navigation at present sustain: and if the circulation of the interest money in Great-Britain increased the spending money of the nation, and that increased our imports proportionably from foreign countries, the nation would be never the richer than it is, whilst we pay interest to foreigners for a proportion of our debts due to them. For however fashionable it may be for some people to magnify the increase of our trade, from the increase of the REVENUE OF CUSTOMS, this is no sure criterion thereof; such people deceive themselves and others too, unless that they can demonstrate the great increase of that branch of the revenue proceeds from the greater increase of our exports, rather than our imports. If, on the contrary, it should appear that we expend more money in the purchase of foreign wares than we receive by the sale of ours to foreigners, the kingdom grows annually poorer and poorer; and the higher the duties of imports swell, the greater confirmation it will be that we really do so.

Indeed, the advantages we receive from the article of freight, and the employment of shipping, will be some diminution of the evil, when our own shipping is engaged in our imports, pursuant to the act of navigation, and consistent with all our laws made for the encouragement thereof. But provided our exports decrease, these advantages may not be an equivalent compensation for our imports; we may still buy more than we sell upon the whole, and when what foreign goods are smuggled into the nation, are added to our legal imports that pay duties, our purchases are thereby still augmented, and the domestic consumption of our native commodities diminished.

These disadvantages under which our trade labours, are most certainly owing to the excessive pitch to which our tax-incumbrances are arrived; for the heightening the price of the necessaries of life, and the labour of our industrious poor in general, occasion such a superiority in the prices of our native commodities and manufactures in general; and while this continues to be the case of these kingdoms, our exports must diminish, while those of our rival nations, who can afford their goods in general considerably cheaper than we can ours, will increase. Such are the effects of increasing the public debts and taxes, and as some people, and those no bad judges, are of opinion that foreigners have not so little as one quarter part of our national debts divided amongst them, and that they do not drain off so little as A MILLION a year for interest money; this is a great drawback upon the national profits of our trade.

The only provision we have at present made by parliament for the discharge of the public debts, and the reduction of

our taxes, in that of the SINKING FUND. But as this fund, which, was to have been the redeemer of all others, is become mortgaged, and is now a collateral security for new contracted debts, since the year 1716; our hopes of the efficacious operation of that fund are blasted, and that whole fund may be sunk for interest of new debts, instead of sinking the principal of the old, as was originally intended: so that this sacred fund, which was designed to redeem others, stands in need of redemption itself, before the public can experience it's long wished for effects.

In the year 1733, such was the state of public credit, that the national creditors dreaded nothing more than to be obliged to receive their money from the sinking fund; interest was made to the administration by our monied corporations, which of them should be paid the last. Of which the ministry took advantage, and applied 500,000 l. out of the sinking fund: and this may be the case again, perhaps, should we be in a condition to discharge TWO OR THREE MILLIONS a year of the public debts. So that if we may judge from past experience, we ought to think of more effectual means to reduce our taxes, and not to wait the slow and precarious operation of the sinking fund. See INTEREST. That this is practicable, the author of this work is of opinion; and may be effected in less than half a dozen years, and that without any detriment to the public credit, without any alarm given to the public creditors, and with very great benefit to trade: and if his other avocations will admit of his turning his thoughts to a design of this nature, without personal injury to his private affairs, he may one day communicate himself upon this interesting occasion: otherwise he leaves those things, to those who are sure of being well recompensed for their application, the author of this performance never having been so; which will not be thought an encouragement to any one to concern himself about the public welfare, but to attend to his own.

Some Maxims relating to the Funds, and the Public Credit, by Sir JOHN BARNARD, Knt. published just before the Peace of AIX LA CHAPELLE.

I conceive that the prices of the funds do not in the least depend on the quantity of them, either taken in the gross, or any particular sort of them; that if they were double to what they are now, it would necessarily follow, that the prices would be lower; nor yet, if they consisted but of half what they do now, would the price be from thence increased.

It is therefore the quantity brought to market, compared with the purchasers, which rises or falls the prices of the funds.

Thus, if the quantity be so sold, exceeds the money to be laid out, the price may fall, until that fall produces purchasers, who would not be such at higher prices.

So, likewise, if the purchasers exceed the quantities to be sold, stocks must rise, until that rise produces sellers, which before were not sellers.

When the government have a necessity to create new funds, they must dispose of them at such prices as buyers may be found; and should use such methods in the sale, as are most likely to invite the greatest number of such purchasers as design to keep them.

When funds are sold directly, by the government, to persons who design to keep them, they are immediately out of the market, and affect the price no more than all that quantity of the public funds, which remains in the hands of persons who never think of selling them.

When funds are sold by the government to traffickers in stocks, who design to sell them again, the market continues in agitation, until the funds, by degrees, become settled in the hands of buyers, who keep them.

Those traffickers who buy to sell again, will have more encouragement, than is necessary to be given to those who buy with a design to keep: or else there would be no profit arising to them.

If, therefore, the government should deal directly with persons who buy to keep the funds, a good part at least of that immense profit, which is now made by these traffickers, would remain to the government.

There must be found, at least, buyers with an intention to keep; or else the traffickers could not get rid of what they buy.

Purchasers, with a design to keep, would much more willingly buy of the government, at any certain price, than they would buy of the traffickers at such price; because they would have a reasonable expectation, that it would be the lowest price that year.

If timely notice were given every year, there would probably come in buyers, with a design to keep, sufficient to take off all the funds created that year, provided they may come in freely at the original price.

If new-created funds were thus taken off every year, they would but very little affect the prices of funds at market.

One or two per cent. under the market-price, together with some ease in payment, may be sufficient to induce buyers,

with a design to keep, or take off all the funds to be created in a year.

It is not proper, that any of the payments should be fixed too near the end of the year, because it will interfere with the money to be raised the next year.

How many soever the payments may be, or whatever the times of payment, it is proper to allow a reasonable discount to those who will pay in any money before the times fixed; which discount may be saved, by not issuing of tallies on the land and malt.

It is more for the interest of the public, to have the money paid at such times as best suit the purchasers (which will be done, if a discount be allowed), than to have it remain to be paid at certain fixed times.

When the purchasers are not allowed a discount, they are unwilling to pay their money long before the prefixed days; and so lay out their money in something to bring interest in the mean time.

When, by this means, large sums are to be paid at certain times, if any accident happens, which casts a damp on public credit, people being under a necessity of bringing something to market to raise the money; this contributes greatly to hurt public credit.

There will be always large sums to be laid out in the funds, and more especially when they are lower than they have been at former times; which sums arise, in part, from the following causes:

Amongst people who live on their income, whether by estates in land, or in the funds, or in mortgages, there will be many who are always saving part of their income, and want to lay it out.

People, who thrive in trade, are willing, as they can spare money, to lay it out in something to support them more at their ease.

As war necessarily contradicts trade, and consequently so much money cannot be employed therein, as in times of peace, those who have large estates in trade, must have money gradually coming in; which, when the funds are reasonable, they may choose to lay out therein; and some, from this beginning, go on to draw all their money out of trade, to place it in the funds.

What is mentioned relating to people in England, holds the same with regard to people abroad; who, if the particular friends, with whom they correspond here, can procure for them new-created funds, on the original prices at which the government sells them, will give orders to those friends to purchase for them such funds.

The raising the rate of interest on new funds, occasions the fall in price of the old funds; which is a great prejudice to those who happen to be under a necessity of selling out.

It likewise raises the rate of interest between private persons, and also lowers the value of land; so that the whole community suffers thereby.

No money should be raised on the subjects, but what is absolutely necessary for the public good.

As the necessary money cannot now be raised without borrowing, the higher rate the interest is at, the more must the people pay.

If a higher rate of interest should ever be given to traffickers in stocks, than it might be raised at by open subscription, the people will receive a double injury, both by paying more taxes than are necessary, and also by being deprived of their just right of purchasing funds on the same terms with their neighbours.

The credit of the public depends much on the opinion of the people, and therefore great regard should always be had to preserve in the people a good opinion. Economy in management, and impartially in letting all persons alike into the purchase of the funds, will be the best means to keep up a good opinion in the people.

All people love to have a liberty of being purchasers at the original prices, whether they make use of it or not.

As all are partakers of the burden of new taxes, so none ought to be deprived of sharing in whatever benefits the public may find it necessary to give, to raise money on them.

Nothing contributes more to the revolutions in the prices of stocks, than the methods of late used, of contracting, with a few persons, for raising the supplies in a lump; and those persons having the sharing it out as they please.

Those revolutions, in the prices of stocks, make the proprietors uneasy, and out of humour, to see their property bandied about, for particular persons to get great estates.

This uneasiness begets a disgust in people to stocks: they see them yearly falling, and from thence apprehend greater falls; from whence many sell their stocks.

Those who are in a sort of possession of bargaining for new funds, at their own prices, whilst they can depend on having a good bargain every year, can have no interest to keep up the prices of the funds, any longer than until they sell good part of their bargain; and, as for the remainder, it may serve them to throw down the prices, against the time of a new bargain.

What cannot be done by barely selling out their stocks, they have other ways to bring about.

Let the price at market be never so low, although it may be by their own management, whilst they can make persons believe the money cannot be raised without agreeing with them, they will be sure to agree much under the market-price, and consequently run little or no risk of losing, and have a strong probability of excessive gains.

Some remaining part of what the traffickers purchase, being sold out at proper times, to lower the prices of stocks, likewise gives them a pretence to say, that the bargain was not so good as it was taken to be.

If money be raised by a lottery, large enough to let in every one, or by subscriptions open to every one, on the best terms for the public, all mankind will be on a level.

Those persons who keep their stocks, let the price be higher or lower, certainly act the most for the public good, and ought to receive the greatest encouragement.

Those dealers in stocks, who have large sums of money in hand, have certainly acted against the public good, by selling out their property in the funds; and yet are often the persons most favoured, and admitted to annual bargains.

The best way of supporting the prices of the funds will be, to let the people know, that for the future the money wanted shall be raised on the lowest terms possible, with an equal liberty to all persons to be purchasers.

If this method be constantly practised, such persons who sell their funds, in hopes to come in again cheaper, may find themselves mistaken.

This is certain, that the public selling new funds too cheap, tends to make all mankind have a worse opinion of the funds in general, than they would otherwise have.

If a person who has goods to sell, does not put a value on them himself, how can it be expected that others will value them?

Whenever the government shall have no occasion to create new funds, the money which will necessarily come to market to buy stocks, will inevitably raise the prices of all, let the quantity in being be never so large.

Therefore, it must be cheaper for the government, at any time, in compliance with the necessity of the times, to give a higher interest redeemable, than an interest something less with any part of such interest irredeemable; because, in the first case, they may reasonably expect, in a very few years, to reduce the interest on a level with the other funds.

If any should be of opinion, that giving a high interest for new funds will reduce the other funds in price, in proportion to the different rates of interest, I conceive it to be a great mistake.

If there were different funds, at the rates of 3, 4, and 5 per cent. all irredeemable, they would generally sell in exact proportion one to the other.

But, suppose the same funds all redeemable, they will never sell in proportion one to the other; because people will have in view the reduction of interest.

Suppose any quantity of new funds to be created, and sold in any one year, it will not occasion there being less money the next year, than if no such funds had been created; because as the government issues out all the money received, the same quantity of money will still be in private persons hands, as the year foregoing.

As the same quantity of money will be in being one year as the former, although it have shifted hands, the question with the possessors of it will be, what is the best use that they can make of it? And probably there will be persons enough disposed to come into the purchase of funds, to take off any new-created quantity, if it be free for every one to purchase at the government's price.

It is a very great hardship on merchants, who have foreign correspondents, when they cannot execute such correspondent's orders for new funds, on the same terms with their neighbours here, as by that means they are in danger of losing their future commissions, even in other affairs.

If the interest of the nation, in its public capacity, the interest of the creditors of the nation, and the interest of the individuals of the nation, are all promoted by open subscriptions, it must appear very strange, that the interest of a few persons, who have been acting against all three, should be preferred.

If the government should think it necessary to give advantageous terms for raising of money, equity would require, that it should be given to those who suffer most thereby; and, consequently, that the present proprietors of the funds should have the pre-emption before those who have sold their funds, and thereby contribute to create that necessity.

If no-body sold their property in the funds, but out of necessity, the prices would keep up very well, notwithstanding the annual creating of new funds.

Those persons who sell their property in the funds may be easily known, and whatever pretence they may make of zeal for the government, their actions speak the contrary: and although it would not be right to hinder any person from selling their property in the funds, in a fair way; yet surely there is no reason to reward them for so doing, by giving them fresh funds, immoderately under the market-price.

I think those persons who were large subscribers to the bargain, for raising the money for the year 1745, should have

made it appear, that they were in possession of their subscriptions, before they were admitted to be large subscribers for the year 1746.

If persons are admitted to subscribe largely one year, when they are known, or might have been known, to have parted with the sums subscribed for the former year, what is this but encouraging them to go on with a traffick highly detrimental to the nation?

Whenever, by any means, there happens to be a run on the Bank, it occasions many persons, although well-affected, to join in the run, for fear of losing their money; and gives an alarm to the Bank: and, if the Bank call on their subscribers for circulation, it adds to the difficulties.

I am of opinion, that as the Bank is now constituted, it is scarce possible for them to be drained of their money: many of their notes are so dispersed, that they cannot come in for payment for a good while; and men of sense, and affection for the government, will always do what lies in their power to support them: which, in some time, will put a stop to the run.

If the Bank find it necessary, they may give interest to those who will bring in money voluntarily, to be paid at a fixed time: which method will not affect credit, like a call to the subscribers; many of whom are not able to pay their money; or they may, at last, allow interest on their cash-notes, which I have seen practised with success.

But if, at worst, the Bank should be forced to stop payment, the inconvenience to the public would not be so much as some may imagine; because the debt owing by the government, is a sufficient security to their creditors, for the principal and interest, which, in that case, it be reasonable to allow; and would give such a currency to their notes, as few persons would refuse to take them in payment; which would, by degrees, restore their credit.

A proper quantity of exchequer-bills might be every year issued on the land and malt taxes, at a reasonable interest, to be sunk, in course, by the produce of the taxes on which they were issued.

The issuing such exchequer-bills, would supply, in some degree, the want of money; and could never occasion any run on the exchequer, not being payable on demand.

The inconvenience which arose, in former times, from issuing exchequer-bills, proceeded from the quantity being too large, and there not being a fund to sink them in a reasonable time.

People would be glad to take such bills in payment; because thereby they would be enabled to make interest of their running cash.

Those who contract with the government, would be glad to agree to have their payments in such bills; which would keep navy and victualling bills from being at discount; and, consequently, the government would buy their goods cheaper than when the contractors are at an uncertainty what they shall be paid in. See the articles **MONIED INTEREST**, **DEBTS**, [**NATIONAL DEBTS**,] **CREDIT**, [**PUBLIC CREDIT**,] **FUNDS**.

MONEMUGI, a kingdom in the south of Africa, has Zanguebar on the east, Monomotopa on the south, Motamba and Makoko on the west, and Abyssinia on the north, and partly to the east; though its boundaries that way cannot be exactly ascertained. It is divided into the following parts, viz.

MUJACO borders on Congo westward, on Nubia northward, on Abyssinia, and on Makoko southward. That the extent of this monarchy is very great, appears by the distant countries its confines extend to, and the sovereign's great power, by his being in continual war with his neighbour the king of Makoko. The people of Congo travel hither for elephants teeth.

MAKOKO, otherwise called **ANZICO**. Its boundaries northward, eastward, and southward, cannot be well ascertained. The people here do not till the ground, have no property, nor any settled habitation; but, like the Arabs, they wander from place to place, and subsist by plunder. They traffic in the kingdom of Angola, whither they carry slaves from their own country; and from Nubia, which they exchange for salt, glass-beads, silk, knives, and other wares. See the article **BARBARY**, and my **REMARKS** particularly.

GINGIRO, a potent kingdom, lies between Narca, the most southern kingdom of Abyssinia, and Makoko, and Cambate; north and east of the first of them, and west of the latter. The great river Zebec, that runs down to Makoko, almost invirons it. When the king here purchases any thing of foreign merchants, he pays them in slaves, and these are the sons and daughters of any family, which he takes at pleasure, without contradiction.

CAMBATE joins to this kingdom on the west, has Abyssinia on the north; Alaba, or the country of the Galas, on the east; and Makoko on the south. The country pays some acknowledgements to the emperor of Abyssinia, which is only voluntary.

ALABA, another large kingdom, still to the eastward of Cambate, inhabited by a cruel people, called Galas, and reaching to the coast of Zanguebar.

MONEMUGI PROPER, so called, lies in the torrid zone, and about the equinoctial line south of Makoko, west of Zanguebar, north of Monomotopa, and east of Congo, and of the northern parts of Monomotapa. To ascertain it's extent, is too difficult a task, being a country so little frequented. The country known, abounds with gold, silver, copper mines, and elephants. The natives clothe themselves in silks and cottons, which they buy of strangers, and wear collars of transparent amber-beads, brought them from Cambaya, which beads serve also instead of money; gold and silver being too common, and of little value among them. Their monarch always endeavours to be at peace with the princes round about him, to keep an open trade with Quitoa, Melinda, and Mombaza, on the east, and with Congo on the west, from all which parts the black merchants resort thither for gold. The Portuguese merchants report, that on the east side of Monemugi there is a great lake full of small islands, abounding with all sorts of fowl and cattle, and inhabited by negroes. They relate also, that on the main land eastward, they heard sometimes the ringing of bells, and that one could observe buildings, very much like churches; and that from these parts came men of a brown and tawny complexion, who traded with those islanders, and with the people of Monemugi.

This country of Monemugi affords also abundance of palm-wine, and oil, and such great plenty of honey, that above half of it is lost, the blacks not being able to consume it. The air is generally very unwholesome, and excessively hot, which is the reason why no Christians undertake to travel in this empire. De Lisle gives the division of this country as follows: 1. The Maracates, the Messaguaries, the kingdom of the Buengas, the kingdom of Masti, and that of Maravi.—But we are not acquainted with any particulars relating to these nations or kingdoms.

MONMOUTHSHIRE, in England, is bounded by part of Herefordshire on the north, Gloucestershire on the east, Glamorganshire on the west, and is washed on the south by the Severn, and is about 84 miles in circumference.

It's air is temperate and healthy, and the soil fruitful enough in general, producing as good wheat as any county in the kingdom, great quantities of which are shipped by the Bristol merchants for Portugal, and other countries. Coals are so plentiful here, that a horse-load costs but two-pence at the pit's mouth. The principal manufacture of the country is flannels.

MONMOUTH, the shire town, is a populous, handsome, and well-built town. It's principal traffic is with the city of Bristol, by means of the Wye.

CHEPSTOW is the port for all the towns that stand on the rivers Wye and Lug. Ships of good burthen may come up to it, and the tide comes in here with the same rage as at Bristol, it rising commonly 6 fathoms, or more, at the bridge.

ABERGAVENNY, on the river GAVENNY, is a handsome, well-built town, and drives a great trade in flannel.

PONTIPOLE, is a small town, noted only for it's iron mills.

MONOMOTOPA, a country in Africa, has the maritime kingdom of Sofala on the east, the river del Spiritu Santo on the south, the mountains of Caffraria on the west, and the river Cauma on the north, which parts it from Monemugi.

The air of this country is very temperate, the land fertile in pastures, and all the necessaries of life, being watered by several rivers; on the banks of which grow many fine trees, and sugar-canes, without any culture: and yet this fine country is not peopled throughout.—The inhabitants are rich in black cattle, which they value more than gold. There are here no beasts of burthen, but a vast number of elephants, as appears from the great quantity of ivory that is exported from this country.

There are here a great many gold mines; and the rivers that run through their veins, carry a great deal of gold dust along with their streams. The inhabitants dive to the bottom of the rivers and lakes, take up the sand, and carry it on the banks to separate the gold from it.

The negroes here, are tall, well-shaped, strong and healthy. They are much more lively than the people of Mozambique and Melinda. They are lovers of war, which is the trade followed by all those who do not apply themselves to commerce.

This country is divided into 7 provinces, or petty kingdoms, vassals to the king. They are Monomotopa Proper, Quiteve, Manica, Inhambana, Inhemior, Sabia, and Sofala. The places where there is any thing of trade, are

MANICA, which has Quiteve on the north, Sabia on the east, the river del Spiritu Santo on the south, and Caffraria on the east. The capital town is also called Manica, and to the south of it are gold mines.

SOFALA kingdom has Sabia on the south, Monomotopa Proper on the east, the river Cauma on the north, and the gulph of Sofala, which is part of the channel of Mozambique, on the east. From the mouth of the river of the Holy-Ghost, to cape Corientes, the soil is very even, barren, and desert: but from that cape to the mouth of the river Cumena, the country is fruitful, and very populous. The coast is very

low, and mariners discover their approach to it, not so much by their sight as by their smell, it abounding with fragrant flowers. Here are elephants, lions, and other wild beasts.

The inhabitants assert, that their gold mines yield above 2 millions of metigals per annum, each amounting to 14 livres French money; that the ships from Zedein and Mecca, carry off above 2 millions a year in time of peace; and that the governor of Mozambique, whose office lasts but three years, has above 300,000 crowns revenue, without reckoning the soldiers pay, and the king of Portugal's tribute: from hence Moquet concludes this to be the Ophir, whither Solomon sent ships every three years from Eziongeber to fetch gold; Eziongeber being thought to be Suez, a sea port on the Red-Sea. This conjecture is supported by several edifices, which seem to have been built by foreigners. Some think this to be confirmed by the authority of the Septuagint, who translate the word Ophir (2 Kings ix. 28.) by the word Σοφίρα [Sophira]. And, since liquids are often put one for another, Sophira does not differ much from Sofala. Besides, Thomas Lopez, in his India voyage, relates, that the inhabitants of this country boast that they have books which prove, that in the time of Solomon, the Israelites sailed every third year towards these parts to fetch gold. The inhabitants of Quitoa, Mombaza, and Melinda, come to this country in little boats, called zambues, with stuffs of blue and white cottons, silk stuffs, yellow and red ambergris, which they exchange with the people here for gold and ivory, and there sell them again to the subjects of Monomotopa, who give them gold in return, without weighing it. It is said, that when the Sofalese see ships coming, they light up fires, to signify that they shall be welcome. They know how to make stuffs of white cotton, but cannot dye them; and when they would make party-coloured stuffs, they unravel the dyed cloths of Cambaya, and mix them with white thread.

The capital city here, and the only one of note, is also called Sofala. It stands on a river of the same name, about 6 leagues from the sea-coast. The Portuguese are masters of this town, and built a strong fortress there, ever since the year 1500. Their chief trade here consists in ambergris, gold, slaves, and silk stuffs. The Portuguese likewise take care to have those mines worked, which lie to the south of the town.

REMARKS.

This is a spacious country, and little known to any but the Portuguese; and they appear to be wiser in relation to the conduct of their trade in Africa than any other of the European potentates, they having not contented themselves with erecting a few forts and factories, but have settled themselves upon the continent in great numbers, and brought the natives to clothe according to the European mode; which has created a considerable and profitable commerce to them. See the articles AFRICA, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, and PORTUGUESE AFRICAN TRADE.

MONOPOLIES are allowances of the king by grant, or otherwise, for the sole dealing in any thing, by which others are restrained from any freedom they had before. Though a monopoly may be more truly defined a kind of commerce usurped by few, and sometimes but by one person, to his or their private gain, and to the detriment of others.

Those used in this kingdom have been distinguished by three classes; first, reasonable, of trifles, as cards, or the like; unreasonable, as of flesh, fish, butter, or other things needful for man's sustenance; indifferent, of velvets, silks, spices, and other delicacies indifferent to be used or not. But all monopolies are contrary to the ancient and fundamental laws of this realm, and against the freedom of trade, &c. Wherefore it hath been held, that the king's grant to any corporation for the sole importing any merchandize, by our common law, is void.

Some are satisfied if it be by act of parliament; as when a society of private merchants have a privilege, by that authority, to sell or import certain commodities, and all others are excluded: but if by the king's prerogative, they take it to be a monopoly. Others would have all things at large in the course of trade, and no societies for any places of trade; for, by way of partnership, merchants might, say they, associate to make any voyages, without any regard to our trading companies, some of which are of great antiquity. And others make a difference between companies dealing in a joint stock or apart; affirming the management of a joint stock to be within the compass of a monopoly; yet would be content to tolerate it for the employment outward, but for returns would have a particular division of the goods they receive.

Judge Vaughan says, That, if the export or import of a commodity, or exercise of a trade, be prohibited only generally, by parliament, and no cause expressed, the king may grant a licence to one or more persons to export or import, or exercise the trade: for, by such general restraint, the end of the law is no more than to limit the over-numerous exporters, &c. in that kind, by obliging them to procure licences; which, therefore, shall not be accounted monopolies; the law im-

plying it, as well as if the prohibitory law had been, that no such exportation, &c. should be without the king's licence. Vaughan's Rep. 345.

Having given the substance of various opinions concerning what is monopoly, or not so, we shall now take particular notice of the great case of monopolies in the reign of Q. Elizabeth, as delivered by Sir Edward Coke. Queen Elizabeth intending that her subjects being fit for husbandry, should be exercised therein, and not in making playing-cards, by which card-playing was become more frequent, and especially among servants, apprentices, and poor artificers; by her letters patents of the 13th of June, in the 30th year of her reign, granted to R. B. Esq; full power, by himself, servants, &c. to provide and buy in any foreign parts, all such playing-cards as he thought good, and to import and sell them in this kingdom, and to enjoy the whole trade for 12 years. On an action of the case brought by the patentee against one for importing and making cards, contrary to these letters patents, notwithstanding the glorious preamble and pretence, it was resolved that this grant was void: for it is a monopoly, and against the common law, and divers acts of parliament; for all trades which prevent idleness (the bane of the commonwealth) and exercise men and youth, for the maintenance of themselves and their families, and for increase of their substance, to serve the queen when occasion shall require, are profitable to the realm: and the sole trade of any mechanic art, or any other monopoly, is not only a damage to those who exercise the same, but to all other subjects, the end of them being the private gain of the patentees: and there are three inseparable incidents to every monopoly, the price of the same commodity will be raised; it is not so good and saleable as it was before; and it tends to the impoverishment of divers artificers, and others.

And it is evident, by the act of 3 Edw. IV. cap. 4. that the importation of foreign cards was prohibited, at the grievous complaint of the poor card-makers, who could not live at their trades if such cards should be imported; and the said act provides remedy for maintaining the trade, because it maintained many families by their labour and industry; and the like provision is made in 1 Rich. III. cap. 12. and persons may not be restrained from exercising any trade but by parliament. Now, when the wisdom of the parliament has restrained, for public good, the importation of foreign manufactures, that the subjects may be employed therein; to grant the sole importation of them to one for private gain, or to divers without limitation, is a monopoly against the common law: and, therefore, the licence to have the sole importation and trade of cards, notwithstanding the act 3 Ed. IV. is utterly against law. Adjudged Trin. 44 Eliz. 11. Co. Rep. 84, 85.

King Edward III. by letters patents, granted to one John Peeke the sole importation of sweet wines into London; which grant, by stat. 50 Ed. III. was declared void. And queen Elizabeth having granted to certain patentees the sole coinage and transportation of all the tin in Cornwall and Devon, for 21 years, under a large yearly rent to be paid at the Exchequer, it was adjudged that this patent was a monopoly, anno 13 Jac. I.

In an action the plaintiff set forth, that, in the reign of Henry IV. there was a society of merchant-adventurers in England, and queen Elizabeth did incorporate them by that name, with privilege to trade to Holland, Brabant, Flanders, &c. prohibiting all others not free; and that the defendant did trade there without their leave, and imported goods to their damage, &c. To which the defendant pleaded the stat. 15 Ed. III. That the seas shall be open to all merchants to pass with their merchandize whither they please: the question was here, whether the king could restrain his subjects from trading to particular places? This case was not determined; but the better opinion was, that such a grant was void, it agreeing with lord Coke's definition of a monopoly: it is against the stat. of Ed. III. and expressly against the statute 21 Jac. I. The case of the East-India company is not like this, because that patent restrained the subject from trading with infidels, without leave; if it had been to restrain them from trading with Christians, it had been void. 3 Mod. Rep. 126.

By stat. 21 Jac. I. cap. 3. all monopolies, grants, letters patents, &c. for the sole buying, selling, and making of goods, and manufactures, shall be void: and persons grieved by the putting them in use, to recover treble damages and double costs, by action on the statute: and persons causing such action to be stayed before judgment, by any order, warrant, &c. except of the court where depending; or, after judgment had, causing execution to be stayed, by means of such order, &c. save only by a writ of error, incur a præmunire. But this act extends not to grants confirmed by act of parliament, nor to any charter to any corporation, company, &c. nor to grants of new manufactures, made to the inventors by patents for 14 years, nor to any grant of privilege for printing, or making salt-petre for gun-powder, or for casting ordnance, &c. and certain patents granted to divers persons are excepted.

And patents heretofore made for 21 years, or under, to the inventors of any new manufactures, not contrary to law, or

hurtful, by raising the price of commodities at home, are excepted.

All matters relating to monopolies, grants, &c. shall be examined and determined by the common law of the realm; and the using or procuring any unlawful monopoly, is punishable by fine and imprisonment at common law. 3 Co. Inst. 181.

It is held, that a new invention to do much work by an engine, is contrary to the statute, as turning many men to idleness. [See the article LABOUR.] And, concerning inventors of new manufactures, &c. on this statute it hath been determined, that they must be substantially NEW, and not barely an IMPROVEMENT of any old one, to be within the statute. 3 Inst. 184.

A grant of a monopoly may be to the first inventor, by the 21st of Jac. I. and, if the invention be new in England, a patent may be granted, though the thing was practised beyond sea before; the act being intended to encourage new devices useful to the kingdom, whether acquired by experience and travel abroad, or by study at home. 2 Salk. 447.

A person had a grant by patent from king Charles II. for the sole printing of blank writs and bonds, &c. for the term of 30 years; and one Dorrel, a stationer, having printed 500 blank bonds, an action was brought against him, who pleaded, That the company of stationers, for 40 years last past, had constantly printed them, and so made a general conclusion. It was argued, That the king hath a prerogative in printing, and may grant it exclusive to others; and that such grants had been made ever since printing was invented, of which several instances were given. Now the statute against monopolies, doth not reach this case, because of the proviso to exempt all grants of sole printing; and the king's inherent prerogative herein, when exerted, binds up all who were at liberty before. To this was answered, That the king hath such prerogative, but it must be in cases where no others can claim a property in it. On considering printing as an art exclusive from the thing printed, this patent is not good; for, if a man invents a new art, and another learns it before he obtains a patent, if afterwards granted, it is void: and this considered in relation to the blank bonds printed, it is not a new invention, and therefore the patent is void; for, where the invention is not new, trade shall not be restrained. And sole printing is a manufacture, an art the king cannot restrain; but, where it is of public concern, the prerogative may interpose.

The court of King's-Bench made a difference in this case, between things of a public use, and those public in their nature; and the court inclined the patent was not good. 3 Mod. 75, 76, 78. 2 Nels. Abr. 899.

It is agreeable to our common law, and the fundamental laws of all nations, to grant inventors of useful things privileges for 21, 14, 11, or 7 years; and as to the time granted, the thing itself should make the difference. But the general intention of all grants for manufactures, should be to set people on work, to recompense the inventor of the art, and that things may, in some respect, be cheaper to the subjects.

Patents may be granted to reward a projector, and be no monopoly, though the public liberty may seem restrained by it, but rather a common distribution, whenever it brings a general good to the nation. The statutes restraining from exercising divers crafts all who have not served an apprenticeship to the art they would exercise, do it to no other end, but that those arts might be brought to better perfection, and the things be good and serviceable.—These are the chief principles of law in relation to monopolies.

REMARKS.

Under the article COMPANIES, we have shewn the origin of those, which have related to our foreign trade; and, under the respective articles of such of those companies which are now in being, we have endeavoured, with all candour and impartiality, to state the reasonableness, or otherwise, of their being endowed with any sort of exclusive privileges.—[See the article ASSIENTO] particular REMARKS.

In regard to the case of the East-India company, in particular, we have, in general, considered the constitution of that corporation; and, although we have urged the necessity of supporting that company, yet we have also shewed, that, if they do not trade to all places within their charter, where it may be done to the advantage of the nation, private people should not be excluded from such traffic: they should, on the contrary, be encouraged therein to the utmost. See the articles EAST-INDIA COMPANY, and COMPANIES; see also the other particular companies that subsist.

It has been said, if that trade were enlarged, it would increase such a demand for woollen goods, for iron ware, and for every other branch of business in England, as would employ all the manufacturers, who are now starving, and thereby relieve the poor, by making them no longer so.—This might be demonstrated, by the many places that are not yet traded to by the English. The company trades in the Red Sea but to one port, that is, Mocha; but the Habazines empire, or that of Ethiopia, which lies on the west side of that sea, is not attempted to be traded to, although it is inhabited by many Christians,

Christians, and abounding with gold, myrrh, senna, aloes, civet, and numbers of rich dyeing and medicinal drugs, and other commodities; and they have no iron nor woollen goods but what are carried to them over-land from Egypt or Turkey, and which is mostly manufactured by the French, or at Damascus.

The company doth not trade to Siam, a rich and great kingdom; nor to Pegu, a kingdom that produces rubies, gum-lac, gum-dragon, and all the materials of the fine Indian varnish: the inhabitants are very industrious, and great trade might be made there. Tonquin is also a kingdom full of industrious people; and the kingdom of Cochin-China would give vent to a great number of commodities. The kingdoms of Japan and Corea are amongst the richest in the world; and with these the East-India company are said to have no commerce; and yet they abound in raw silk, gold, silver, spice goods, tea, porcelaine, japan. &c. nor need the company strive to gain access, since they have more trade already than they can turn their hands to.

The many spice islands unpossessed by the Dutch, and Mindanao, and other islands near the Philippines, unpossessed by the Spaniards, are a glorious field for the English commerce; numbers of adventurers might make their fortunes by such a trade, and hundreds of ships might be employed therein, to the great national emolument.—It is necessary for us to think of these things; for, if we do not, the Prussians, or others, will, the gain being so great; and the company cannot use their charter against foreigners, who are so saucy as not to obey an English act of parliament.—It has been further said, upon this occasion, That, if Scotland and Ireland had the liberty of trading to all parts of the globe, they, by the cheapness of their labour, and the number of their hardy and industrious people, among the former in particular, would under-trade foreigners, and open many markets, that are, at present, unthought of; and that this would increase the shipping and wealth of Great-Britain to an immense degree.

The attempts of the Scots nation before the Union, to open a trade to the East-Indies and America, particularly their settlement at Darien, were glorious; and the barbarous treatment they met with will ever be ignominious; for, had the Scots maintained the isthmus of Darien, and a free passage between the North and South Seas, within a colony of their own, Britain might, by this time, have been so powerful in America, as would have prevented the French from breaking the treaty of Ryswick, and, consequently, have prevented those wars which have been attended with so weighty an incumbrance on our whole trade. These disadvantages have been attributed to monopolizing companies; for, while the South Sea company subsisted as a trading corporation, they had a monopoly, though, perhaps, not so nationally injurious as some others, if we consider all the peculiar circumstances thereof. See the articles ASSIENTO, and SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.

But if the Scots, as well as the English, are excluded by the court of Spain from trading directly to Spanish America, it has been doubted whether our own East-India company have it in their power to exclude any ship trading to Japan from Edinburgh and Glasgow. It seems, that the company have never traded to Japan since their charter was confirmed by act of parliament; and, surely, if they thought it within their charter, they would have certainly attempted that trade, which is, perhaps, much more advantageous than any they now carry on. Certain it is, that trading to these countries would highly tend to the benefit of Scotland; and, therefore, it has been thought reasonable to require an explanation of what parts of the globe the people of North Britain are debarred trading to, by charters granted before the Union, or by acts of parliament made before or since; or whether the subjects born and dwelling in North Britain and Ireland, are bound by any act, unless it should mention those countries particularly.

The substance of what has been further urged in this kingdom against MONOPOLIES in general.

Besides the misfortunes arising from our taxes, we have some monopolies very destructive to a trading nation, and inconsistent with a free one, which encourage idleness, villainy, and extravagant demands for wages; whereby the many are deprived of their rights, without having committed any crime to forfeit them, and for the benefit of a few only: a country that suffers them cannot send its goods so cheap to a foreign market as its neighbours who should not, for never yet was a monopolized trade extended to the degree of a free one; therefore any country abounding in monopolies must decline in trade.

To apply this to Britain.

The trade of exporting woollens, and some other sorts of goods, with the trade to some particular countries given to companies, we monopolize to ourselves, and, in our abundant wisdom, pay all the charges of government; our fellow-subjects in Scotland pay but a trifle to the general support; in Ireland and the plantations nothing at all; these trade under the protection of fleets that cost them not a farthing: our land wars to maintain the ballance and liberties of Europe, at the risque of our own, cost them not a doit; all that we en-

deavour is, to starve them without expence, and ourselves with; for that is the case, we drive one part of our people out of trade by monopolies, and the other by taxes. We bleed ourselves almost to death, and think to recruit our spirits by devouring three millions of starved Irish and Americans, and, by excess of cunning, make the ruin general.

Exclusive companies prevent the increasing the vent of our manufactures abroad, consequently they starve our poor, as will appear by the following reasons:

By being all of them confined to London, the prices of the woollens they export are enhanced by long land-carriages up to town, with the additional charges of commission, warehouse-rent, portage, &c. much to the prejudice of their sale; and what materials of manufacture they import are dispersed over many parts of the kingdom, by the like expensive conveyance, to the great disadvantage of the nation in general.

It is not the interest of the East-India company to increase the quantities of the woollens they export, but rather to contract them (which we suppose was the reason for obliging them by their charter to export woollens to a certain value) for at all markets where there are any demands for goods, the smallness of the quantity naturally enhances the price; and, if the company can gain as much on 5000 cloths as on 10,000, is it not their interest to prefer the lesser quantity, on account of the less disbursement and risque? Though it is plain the nation would lose the sale of one half of the manufactures capable of being vended; whereas private traders pushing against one another, study to increase the vent of their goods, by selling at moderate profits, and making the quantities answer to themselves and their country.

The large charges the East-India and South-Sea companies, when the latter traded, are forced to be at for the salaries of the directors, governors, supercargoes, &c. besides what may slip through their fingers sometimes, must make these companies neglect all trades that will not yield extraordinary profits to defray them; which trades private merchants would be glad of, and turn to good account for themselves and their country, were they not debarred by exclusive charters. See a distinction, with regard to the South-Sea Company in particular, under the articles ASSIENTO [REMARKS], and SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.

Exclusive companies buying at home by directors, and selling abroad by servants, who may have an eye to their own or friends interest, and the foundation of all being the company's money, they cannot naturally be supposed to be so industrious, as those who trade only on their own stocks; therefore companies can never extend trade like private dealers, but it must decay where interlopers are admitted, of which our late Royal African company was a strong instance. What confirms the whole, is the prohibition of the East-India company against their servants carrying out cloth, which would be needless, did they not know that their servants can undersell them, for the company wants no money to supply all the cloth that can be vended with the usual profit. In the year 1741, a seizure was made in one of the out-ports of a large quantity of cloth designed for India, belonging to one of the company's servants, when at the same time, by the decay of our woollen trade, the poor's rates were at 8s. in the pound, in some of our clothing towns; from whence this absurdity arose, that whilst our clothiers were starving, the exportation of cloth was thereby made a contraband trade. It is impossible to make any enquiry into our companies, without taking notice of their vast villainies; which, as they have been made sufficiently public, few can be ignorant of; therefore the bare mention of them is enough, such as the fatal South-Sea scheme, that ruined thousands of families.—See the articles ACTIONS, and BUBBLES.

We need not to mention former directors, receiving salaries from companies, and, though contrary to law, being notwithstanding concerned in the Ostend trade to India, whereby they were cutting the throats of their benefactors; the selling goods by false samples, and buying them for their private accounts; carrying on private trade contrary to treaty, and bribing officers to wink at them with the company's money, and charged to account by the genteel name of presents, subjecting thereby the company's effects to seizures, and their country to perpetual jars. The rapaciousness of governors abroad, who, by engrossing goods, nay, even the necessities of life, have oppressed the people by arbitrary prices, and drove away our trade. Supercargoes, cheating by false invoices. Captains, quitting or losing ships, to defraud insurers and bottomry-lenders: are not these things written in the books of their chronicles? But the greatest mischief of all is, that the honesty of the people hath been corrupted, by having presented to their eyes roguery lightly punished, if not triumphant.

These companies have prevented the increase of our navigation, by their exclusive charters, debarring us from a free trade to 2 parts of the known world. The dominions of the Grand Seigneur, in Europe, Asia, and Africa, were, 'till lately, confined to the Turkey company. All South, and part of North America, from Vera Cruz to Carthagena, from Buenos Ayres round Cape Horn to California, that vast extent

tent of coast, were also, 'till lately, the portion of the South Sea company. Yet we have not found, that the nation is any thing the better for the annihilation of this latter monopoly; it is hoped, however, we shall in time, some how experience the benefit of it.

All the coasts of Africa, Asia, from the Cape of Good Hope to Japan, are the lot of the East-India company. And, what a small number of ports did they all trade to, and what a trifling navigation did they all maintain? There is a greater quantity of ship tonnage employed in the trade of the free port of Leghorn only, than all these three companies ever employed in their monopolies to $\frac{1}{4}$ parts of the world; like the fable of the dog in the manger, not eating themselves, but preventing those who would. For more matter, having an affinity herewith, see the article PATENTS.

MONTFERRAT, a duchy in Italy, is bounded on the north by Savoy, on the east by the Milanese, on the south by the territory of Genoa, and on the west by Piedmont. It is computed to be 26 miles in length, and 48 in breadth, and was formerly divided into the Mantuan and Savoyard Montferrat. Both countries are very pleasant and fertile, though hilly; and besides the great plenty of all necessaries, afford vast quantities and variety of game. It abounds in silk, corn, wine, and oil, wherein it has a pretty considerable trade.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE, in Wales, is bounded on the east with Shropshire and Radnorshire, on the south with Cardiganshire and Radnorshire, with Merionethshire on the west, and with Denbighshire, and part of Merionethshire and Shropshire on the north. It is computed to be in length from east to west 30 miles, in breadth from north to south 25 miles, and its circumference 94.

The air is sharp and cold on its mountains, but wholesome and pleasant in the vallies. On the north and west sides, where the former are most predominant, the soil is stony, and not very fruitful, except in the vallies between them; which are very pleasant, and afford corn, and plenty of pasture; but the south-south-east and north-east parts, which are more level, are exceeding fruitful, especially those parts that lie on the banks of the Severn, and are sometimes overflowed by it.

Its chief commodities are corn, cattle, horses, fish, and fowl. It has been long remarkable for a peculiar breed of horses, which are still larger here as well as their black cattle, than in some of the neighbouring Welsh counties, and are much valued in England.

Its principal rivers are the Severn, the Tanat, and the Turgh.

MONTGOMERY TOWN stands in a healthy air, is large and handsome, but the buildings are generally very indifferent, except a few fashionable houses that belong to some considerable families.

LLANIDLOS lies near the head of the Severn, and its parish, which is noted for mines of lead and copper, belongs to the diocese of Bangor: it has fairs in July and September.

MACHYNLETH, an ancient town in the diocese of St. Asaph, and has fairs on June 27, July 25, Sept. 29. and Nov. 13.

LLAVELLING, or **LHEN VYLLYN**, a considerable town, and has a good market for cattle, coney-wool, and other provisions, but stands low. Its fairs are in June, July, and September.

WELSHPOLE, a large well built corporate town, where is a noted manufacture of flannel. It has a fair in August.

Upon the whole, there is scarce a finer county in England, than these parts towards the Severn side.

MONTSERAT, one of the smallest of the Caribbee Islands, in the Atlantic Ocean in America, subject to England. See **BRITISH AMERICA**.

MORAVIA MARQUISATE, a principality of the kingdom of Bohemia, bounded by Silesia and Poland on the north and east, Austria and part of Hungary on the south, and Bohemia on the west. The north and west parts are woody and mountainous, but the rest is fair and champaign good soil, yielding much corn of all sorts, with wine, both red and white, and abounding with spacious towns and villages. The pastures are filled with horses, black cattle, sheep, and goats; and the woods with hares, foxes, wolves, and beavers. Its rivers abound with trout, crayfish, barbels, eels, jack, perch, and many other sorts of fish.

OLMUTZ, its metropolis, is 20 miles west from the borders of Silesia, 28 north-east of Brin, 80 north of Vienna, 45 south-west of Teschen, and 94 south of Breslaw. It is a small, but neat, well built, strong, and populous city; and has a trade, by means of its river Morawa, with Bohemia, Hungary, Poland, Silesia, and Austria.

BRIN is a pretty large well built town, and is held by some to be the capital.

IGLAW, or **GHLAWA**, is a pretty large, strong, well built, and populous town, on the borders of Bohemia. Its principal trade is in beer and coarse woollen cloth, which they make and dress themselves.

ZNAIM, or **ZNOGMO**, on the river Taya, not above 5 miles from the borders of Austria, has a pleasant soil and wholesome air; and being on the road from Prague to Vienna, brings a tolerable trade to it. There are many vineyards in the neighbourhood, which afford a pretty palatable wine.

MOROCCO and **FEZ EMPIRE**, in Africa; comprehending the kingdoms of Fez and Morocco, is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the north, by the river Fulvia, which divides it from Algiers on the east, by Bildulgerid on the south, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west, being about 500 miles long and 200 broad. It is a fine country, consisting of mountains and vast extended plains, none of them unfruitful: of the mountains, those of Atlas are the chief, extending from Algiers in the east to the ocean in the west, which from them has obtained the name of the Atlantic Ocean. Their soil produces good wheat, rice, and barley, and would yield a great deal more, if well cultivated, but only the Jews plant the vine; the olive also thrives here, and yields excellent oil. They have also dates, figs, almonds, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, and a variety of other fruits; nor do they want flax or hemp; but wood, especially timber, is scarce here. They have no ships of war, only some small piratical vessels, which they crowd with men, and take great prizes sometimes, especially the Saltee rovers; but as for merchant-ships, or foreign trade, they carry on none on their own bottoms.

R E M A R K S.

No flourishing trade or improvements can be carried on under a government so despotic, oppressive, and rapacious. The land is judged capable of producing a hundred times more than the inhabitants can consume, yielding three crops a year; yet, except within 3 leagues of a town, it has no proprietor; there is generally corn in the emperor's possession underground to serve the whole country five years. They who have a little money, are afraid to let it out upon interest, lest they should be reputed wealthy, and consequently become a prey; so they bury it with any furniture of value, nothing being seen in their houses but a mat or two to lie on, and a few ordinary things. Their traffic is of a piece with their agriculture; besides, the Moors having no immediate commerce with any foreign nation, nor any trading vessels of their own, the navigation is by European ships, and the Jews are the chief traders and factors, and by their immense profits make themselves amends for the exorbitant impost with which they are loaded.

The chief exports are tin, copper, wax, hides, wool, cordovans, honey, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, indico, gum arabic, gum sandrie, elephants-teeth, ostrich feathers, and fine masts. The exportation of corn is absolutely prohibited, as contrary to Mahomet's precept, though it is encouraged at Algiers and Tunis.

The duties on goods exported, are on wax, per hundred weight, twenty-five ounces; old copper, twelve; red Morocco skins, per half dozen; one ditto other colours, two blanquilles. Hides tanned or raw, each two ditto; wool, dates, almonds, gums, soap, per quintal, three ounces, tallow six ounces; mats per bale; six goat-skins in hair per bale; six calve-skins dressed or raw, one blanquille; sheep-skins per half dozen; two blanquilles are two-penny pieces, and four, when full weight, pass for an ounce; but they are so thin, clipped, and cracked, and the people so fraudulent that a stranger should provide himself with a pair of their scales, to weigh all he receives.

The most usual imports are linens, cloths, iron in bars, hard ware, brimstone, gunpowder, arms, and lead, which pay a duty of about ten per cent.

Their inland trade chiefly consists of caravans, two of which set out every year from Fez to Mecca and Medina, viz. one every six months, carrying woollen manufactures, of which they make some exceeding fine and beautiful, indico, cochineal, skins, and ostrich-feathers.

The English might put a stop to this trade from Mecca, by transporting silks from Turkey to Barbary by sea; and the emperor would certainly countenance the scheme, on account of the ten per cent. custom, on the importing these goods in European bottoms, and likewise as it would prevent so many people going to Mecca, where they often settle, accounting the Turks milder tyrants, and so of two evils prudently chusing the least.

They likewise send caravans to Guinea every year, consisting of many thousand camels, which the difficulty of the passage through deserts, without fodder, provision, or water, renders it necessary that every other camel be loaded with those necessaries. They carry to Guinea, salt, cowries, woollen manufactures, silks and oil, which they exchange for gold-dust, ivory, ostrich-feathers, and negroes. Some Turks of Algiers and Tunis trade thither in silks, cottons, striped stuffs, and fine fashes, from the Levant, and grow rich, as their birth exempts them from the common exactions. The tyranny of the government is said to be the motive of the Arabians continuing a wandering life, lest by living in fixed habitations, they should forfeit all property and liberty by the rapaciousness of the officers.

The ships trading to the Morocco dominions, pay one barrel of gunpowder for entrance, with twelve for loading and anchorage, and twelve to the captain of the port; vessels trading to and from Gibraltar, pay but half this duty, by indulgence

dulgence of Muley Ishmael, who, though so savage that he could neither read nor write, had a particular kindness for the English, on account of their frankness and bravery. English and French consularage is eight dollars. A French or Spanish vessel likewise, pays three dollars to a fraternity of Spanish friars, who assist them in spiritual offices.

Their whole navy consists of but three or four ships, mounting sixteen or twenty small guns, and a few row-boats; accordingly about thirty years ago, a single English small frigate, with an active commander, by taking some, and running others ashore, struck such a terror, that, as is related of other formidable warriors, the Sallee women used to quiet their untoward children, by telling them Delgarno was coming for them: yet the Christian powers, though the Barbary pirates are such a detriment to their commerce, are kept from exerting themselves with due force against these enemies, lest their suppression should be an over-balancing advantage to any particular state. It is a happiness that all the Morocco dominions do not afford one tolerable harbour; that of Sallee, which is the best, being almost dry at low, and not twelve feet deep at high water, besides a very inconvenient bar: better ports might be an inducement to their making a figure at sea, and become a greater annoyance.

The policy in the Moors is, that they will trade with any ship (though of a state at war with them) which comes to their ports. A convent of Spanish friars is likewise tolerated at Mequinez, for a yearly acknowledgement.

The emperor has a tenth of all corn, cattle, fruits, and produce of the soil; likewise the tenth of prizes, and all the captives. His whole revenue, ordinaries and extraordinaries, is computed at five hundred quintals of silver, each worth 385 pounds sterling: If the revenue of a monarch can be stated, who holds not his subjects lives and fortunes by the tenure of unmeaning addresses, or the good-will of a parliament, but frequently confirms his absolute prerogative, by the ruin and death of the most dignified persons in his dominions.

Of the union of the Christian powers, to extirpate these piratical states.

In speaking of Africa as it once was the seat of commerce for the whole world, we must look back as far as to the flourishing state of the Carthaginian government, but it shall be as short as can be desired.

It is true, as has been observed by a well informed writer on this subject, that the Romans (like the Turks in our time) were no friends to trade; they carried on their war for glory; like mere soldiers, they fought to conquer, and conquered to plunder, not to plant and people the world: so far were they from encouraging or improving the commerce and wealth of the nations they subdued, that they overthrew and destroyed the greatest trading cities in the world: such as Corinth, Syracuse, Carthage, and all the cities of Egypt and Africa: instead of encouraging trade and navigation, they murdered the merchants, burnt their ships, and carried away the people, which are the life and support of manufacture and trade.

On the other hand, the Carthaginians, as they had the richest soil and a numerous people (for Africa was then infinitely populous) they improved the first, and employed the last, to the utmost: their people were as rich as they were numerous; they carried on trade to all the parts of the world, planted colonies, built cities abroad, and ships at home: and wherever they came, whether by conquest or by consent, they planted the country not destroyed it, carried people to it, not away from it; and, in a word, made them rich, not plundered and starved them. Carthage and Corinth at that time, were the two great emporiums of the world; this carried on all the commerce of the west, and that of the east: Corinth managed the commerce of Asia, Persia, and India, and brought the wealth of the East-Indies, the spices, the silks, the calicoes, the gold, the diamonds, and, in a word, the whole Indian and Persian trade in caravans; part from Ormus and the gulph of Persia, to Bassora and Bagdat by water, and thence by caravans to Aleppo and Scanderoon; and so by sea to the gulph of Cenchrea and Corinth, another part of Trapezond in Armenia, and by the Euxine Sea through the straits of Bosphorus and the Hellespont, and through the Archipelago to the same gulph, and so to Corinth. Carthage, on the other hand, planted colonies, and extended their possessions upon the coast of Spain, as well within as without the Straights; built cities from New Carthage, now called Carthagena in Spain, to the Groyne, as well in the Mediterranean as in the ocean, and from Tangier, then a populous city of 100,000 inhabitants, to the Cape de Verde on the west side of Africa, and from thence into America itself; which, there is no room to doubt, was discovered, if not peopled, from Africa, by the indefatigable Carthaginians; and had never been lost and forgotten to this part of the world, if the Romans, those destroyers of commerce and navigation, had not so utterly ruined Carthage, not the city only, but the very nation, as not to leave them a name under heaven, and so of course caused all their remotest settlements to be abandoned, and, in consequence, at last for-

gotten; but that, by the way, it requires, and, indeed, deserves too long a digression for this place.

Now, when these two cities of Corinth and Carthage fell, (for they were destroyed by the Romans within a year of one another) the trade of the whole world received a mortal wound; and, as those cities never recovered, so the trade which was fixed among them, was divided and scattered, and, in effect, lost, for it never fully recovered itself.

The colonies which the Carthaginians planted, sunk and died away, and many of them lie in ruins to this day, especially on the side of the ocean from the Straight's mouth to cape None; for, as the Carthaginians planted colonies for trade, the trade being lost by the overthrow of the merchants in the mother-city Carthage, the new planted cities, and the sea-ports, were ruined of course, and perished, as a child starves when a nurse is taken from it.

It is true, the city of Carthage was rebuilt, and recovered itself in some degree, under the government of the western emperors; and especially as those emperors were Christians, and were encouragers of the industry and application of their subjects: then, indeed, the trading genius revived very much, especially in Africa; and the climate and soil of that country being particularly productive of many valuable things, and those things adapted to trade, the African merchants carried on a very considerable business; navigation also being their peculiar talent, they traded by sea to all the known parts of the world, but nothing like what they did before.

The principal branches of their commerce in those times, as we gather from the histories of the neighbouring countries, consisted, first, in exporting the growth of their country, and the manufactures of their people, just as it is with us in Britain: for the nature of commerce is ever and every-where the same. And, secondly, in importing again the product of other countries, either for their own consumption, or for re-exportation to remoter parts, which had not the same product. Their own product consisted chiefly in corn and cattle, and among the last, chiefly horses, of which they furnished great numbers to mount the Roman cavalry; for the Numidian horse were then, as the barbs and jennets (which are the same) are now, famed for their beauty, swiftness, and fine shapes, through all the Roman empire.

But above all, their products the most valuable were their wax and copper, in both which they still excel the whole world; also their corn, fruit, drugs, and rich gums, all which remain to them.

For manufactures, we do not, indeed, read much of their woollen manufactures: but the Carthaginians as well as the Egyptians (and both were Africans), are famed for the product of fine linen; and, it is to be supposed, the soil produced a very fine kind of flax, which, as the fund of that manufacture, they improved to great advantage, but that part is now lost.

As to their importations, we are assured they fetched tin and lead from Great-Britain, gold and wine from Spain, for Old Spain ever produced much gold; silks and fine East India goods from Corinth and Alexandria; what trade they had with Gaul (France) we do not find, but the other was very considerable, and is sufficient to our purpose. Thus stood their condition, flourishing in wealth and commerce, when the Romans, to the eternal infamy, not glory, of their very name, destroyed them all.

As by that the trade of the world received a mortal wound, so when it revived under the Roman and Grecian emperors, it was apparent all their recovery and increase, was owing to their commerce; that alone restored them, and enriched them; and they were, in Justinian's time, the most valuable branch of the western empire, with respect to the taxes they paid, and the many regiments, or rather legions, they raised, for recruiting the Roman armies under Belisarius, and other generals; and this continued long afterwards, even in the most declining times of the western empire.

But this rising wealth of Africa was too rich a bait for the times; the deluge of barbarous nations, which overthrew the Roman empire, broke in upon them also; and the Vandals over-running Spain, spread themselves into Africa, wasted and over run the fruitful plains, and destroyed the populous cities; and, in a word, trade sunk a second time, under the unsupportable burden of war, the Vandals, over-running all, ruined and possessed the country.

As the Vandals came in over the bellies of the native inhabitants, so some ages after them, the Saracens, Arabians, and Mahometans, came in over the heads of the Vandals.

With these, not the old Africans only were rooted out; not only religion, but at last trade too, sunk quite out of the country; for, as the followers of Mahomet are, wherever they come, like the Romans, the destroyers both of commerce and cultivation, so it was here.

Trade being thus, as it were, rooted out of Africa, the Moors spread themselves, by a rapid and irresistible torrent, over Spain and Portugal; and as for Africa, they have, by a strong hand, kept possession there ever since.

To apply this to our present purpose: These Mahometans, as we have said of the Turks, have very little inclination to trade; but, dwelling on the sea-coast, and being a rapacious and

and tyrannical people, void of industry or application, neglecting all culture and improvement, it made them thieves and robbers, as naturally as idleness makes beggars: they disdained all industry and labour; but being trained to rapine and spoil, when they were no longer able to plunder and destroy the fruitful plains of Valentia, Granada, and Andalusia, they fell to roving upon the sea; they built ships, or rather seized them from others, and ravaged the coasts, landing in the night, surprizing and carrying away the poor country people, out of their beds into slavery.

This was their first trade, and this naturally made pirates of them; for, not being content with mere landing and plundering the sea-coast of Spain, they, by degrees, being grown powerful and rich, made bold and audacious by their successes, they armed their ships, and began to attack, first the Spaniards upon the high seas, and then all the christian nations of Europe, wherever they could find them: thus this detestable practice of roving and robbing began.

What magnitude they are since that arrived to, what mischiefs they have brought upon the trading part of the world, how powerful they are grown, and how they are erected into states and governments, nay into kingdoms, and, as they would be called, empires, (for the kings of Fez and Morocco call themselves emperors) and how they are, to the disgrace, even of all the christian powers, treated with as such, is matter of history, and we shall meddle no more with it here, than is necessary to our present occasion.

The first christian prince, who, resenting the insolence of these barbarians, and disdaining to make peace with them, resolved their destruction, was the emperor Charles V. He was moved with a generous compassion for the many thousands of miserable christians, who were, at that time, kept among them in slavery: and, from a benevolent principle of setting the christian world free from the terror of such barbarians, he undertook singly, and without the assistance of any other nation, to fall upon them with all his power.

In this war, had he been joined by the French and English, and the Hanse-Towns, (as for the Dutch, they were not then a nation) he might have cleared the country; at least he might have cleared the sea-coasts of the whole race, and have planted colonies of christians in all the ports, for the encouragement of commerce, and for the safety of all the European nations.

But Francis the first, king of France, his mortal and constant enemy, envied him the glory of the greatest and best enterprise that was ever undertaken in Europe; a thousand times beyond all the cruises and expeditions to the Holy-Land, which cost Europe a million of lives, an immense treasure, during one hundred and twenty years, to no purpose. Though the emperor was assisted by no one prince in Christendom, the Pope excepted (and his artillery would not go far in battering stone-walls); yet he took the fortress of Goletta, and afterwards the city, and the whole kingdom of Tunis; and, had he kept the possession, it might have proved a happy fore-runner of farther conquests; but miscarrying in his attempt against Algier, and a terrible storm falling upon his fleet, the farther attempt was laid aside, and the kingdom of Tunis returned to its former possessors, by which means their piracies are still continued.

There seems to be a necessity, therefore, that all the powers of Europe, especially the maritime powers, should unanimously determine to free themselves from the insolence of these rovers; that so their subjects may be protected in their persons and goods, from the hands of rapine and violence; their coasts secured from insults and descents, and their ships from capture on the sea.

But this cannot be done effectually, but by rooting out these nests of robbers on the coast of Africa, or at least driving them from the possession of any of the towns, ports, and harbours, so that they may have no more ships to appear upon the sea.

The conquest, it has been apprehended, could not be attended with any great difficulty, if the English, Dutch, French, and Spaniards would unite to join their forces and fleets, and fall upon them in separate bodies, and in several places at the same time.

The general benefit of commerce would immediately follow, by settling the government of the sea-coast towns, in the hands and possession of the several united powers; so that, every one should possess the least in proportion to the forces employed in the conquests of it. The consequence of the success would soon be sensibly felt by the interested parties. For, certain it is, that the coast of Africa, some few places excepted, is a fruitful rich country; and though by its latitude it must be exceeding hot, and that (especially on the easternmost parts of it) there are many deserts and waste places given up to salt and sand, and fit only for the retreat of wild beasts, &c. yet, even in that part, there are valleys and plains interspersed among the wildest deserts, and which are fruitful, yield corn in abundance, and cattle, with several fruits and other productions, fitted not for the use of the inhabitants only, but for merchandize, and in quantities also sufficient for both.

The general product of the country, and in which the chief

wealth consists, and upon which a trade with them might be settled, if the country was in the hands of christians, is as follows; corn, salt, wool, horses, wax, honey, coral, copper, skins of beasts, drugs and gums, almonds, pomegranates, ostrich feathers, lions and leopards, provisions of sundry kinds. If the quantity of all these is so considerable as we find it to be, even now, under the indolence and sloth of the most barbarous people in the world; how may we suppose all those valuable things to be increased in their quantity by the industry and application of the diligent Europeans, especially the French, or Dutch, or English; all which nations joining in the conquest, we might reasonably suppose, should have their several and separate allotments of territory upon the coast, and in the country adjacent.

We might also reasonably suppose, that the Moors being, in the consequence of such a conquest, driven up farther into the country, (for we have not been proposing the rooting them out as a nation, but only the supplanting or removing them from a situation, which they have justly forfeited by their depredations upon other nations) and being obliged to seek their subsistence by honest labour and application; we may reasonably suppose, that even these may be taught to apply themselves to the cultivation of the earth, by the necessity of their circumstances, and be brought to increase the product, by their labour, for all those christian nations.

As the product of the country would thus be increased, and multitudes of people, encouraged by the advantages of the place, to go over and settle upon it, the manufactures and merchandizes of Europe would soon find a great additional consumption, and the many new ports and harbours, where those christian nations might settle, would be so many new markets for the sale of those manufactures, where they had little or no sale or consumption before: and the finding out new markets for the sale or vent of merchandize, where there were none for those goods before, is the great principle whereon to found the general advancement of commerce.

It may be said, indeed, that to vend our goods at new, or different ports only, may be no increase of commerce; or to send them to new and different places, because they may still be sent from thence to the same people, and to the same nations as the last consumers, who consumed them before.

Thus sending our English manufactures to Jamaica, to be sold there by the sloop-trade; that is, by clandestine commerce with the Spanish smugglers, or to the Spaniards of Carthagena, and the coast of Caraccas, is no new consumption, though it be a new market; because it is only selling to the same people, who would otherwise call for the same manufacture, and other goods from Old Spain, and they from England; so that it is as water issuing out of the same fountain, and running into the same gulph or pond, only by new channels.

Thus likewise the East-India company sending English broad cloth to the gulph of Persia, to be sent from thence to Ispahan, to Georgia, and other places in that country, to be sold to the Persians, and others, as the last consumers, is only supplying the same people, who were supplied before, with the same goods from Aleppo and Scanderoon; so that it is only taking the trade from the Turkey company, and transferring it to the East-India company, which is no increase of commerce, the last consumers being the same.

But this would not prove the case of the Barbary trade: it is true, we have some trade there now, and some places might, in some respects, be called the same markets: but, suppose these barbarians to be removed as above, from the populous cities and provinces of Algiers, Tunis, Tripoly, &c. and driven up the country, in order to suppress piracy and robbers; and suppose those cities, &c. peopled with a new nation, or new nations made rich by commerce, and the country adjacent cultivated and peopled after the manner of Europe, and those people living, cloathing, furnishing their houses and equipages, and feeding after the manner of Christian nations, let it be answered, what kind of commerce would there be then? Would it not be twenty times what it is at present? Besides, would not the success hereof be delivering Europe from the depredations of powerful thieves, and their commerce and navigation from the rapine of a merciless crew, who are the ruin of thousands of families, and in some sense the reproach of Christendom. The proposal is great, but far from impracticable: it is worthy being undertaken by the princes and powers of Europe, and what would bring infinitely more glory to the Christian name, than all their intestine wars among each other; which are the scandal of Europe, and the only thing that at first let in the Turks, and other barbarians among them. See ALGIERS, TUNIS, TRIPOLY.

MORTALITY [BILLS of MORTAITY.]

Under the articles ANNUITIES, LEASES, INTEREST, LIVES, we have considered the doctrine of annuities, according to the principles and computations of the learned Dr. Halley, De Moivre, Lee, &c. and others, who have treated the most judiciously on this subject. But, as the ingenious Mr. Simpson since their time, has considered this matter in another light, we think it necessary to add his sentiments also to what

we have already said; all which together, will comprehend in miniature, the substance of what has been communicated upon this head.

The value of an annuity for life, says he, depends upon the interest which money bears, and the probability of the life continuing a longer or shorter time; the former of which is generally settled by law, but the latter must be determined from observation.

Of all that has been hitherto offered for estimating the probability of the duration of life, nothing seems deduced with greater judgment and exactness, than the tables published by Dr. Halley and Mr. Smart for this purpose; which nevertheless, are both liable to several objections.

The doctor's table, being grounded on observations at Breslau, a place where the generality of people live to a greater age than at London, (as appears by comparing the bills of mortality here with those observations) can be no just measure of the probability of life in this place; and as to that of Mr. Smart, though it is indeed free from this objection, and founded on a very large number of observations, yet the great and continual afflux of people from all parts up to town, renders the deductions from those observations considerably different, in one part of life, from what they would otherwise be; and this Mr. Smart seems not, in his table, to have considered, or made any allowance for.

For these reasons, though I had determined to depend on, and make use of, this last gentleman's observations, in the ensuing pages (as, undoubtedly, the best for the city of London and parts adjacent); yet have I deemed it necessary to make some alterations, in the table of the probability of life from thence derived.

In doing this, I have supposed the number of persons coming to live in town after 25 years of age, to be inconsiderable, with respect to the whole number of inhabitants: and therefore the probabilities of life, for all ages above 25 years, the same as this author has made them; but they have increased the numbers of the living, corresponding to all ages below 25; so that they may, as near as possible, be in the same proportion one to another, as they would be, were they to be deduced from observations on the mortality of those persons only, that are born within the bills. Which was done, by comparing together the number of christenings and burials, and observing, by help of Dr. Halley's table, the proportion which there is between the degrees of mortality at London and Breslau, in the other parts of life, where the ages are greater than 25. I shall here subjoin the table, altered as above, then proceed immediately to the uses thereof.

A TABLE, shewing the probabilities of LIFE, from observations.

Note, The numbers marked * are supposed to die off yearly, and are what, in the succeeding pages, are called the decrements of life.

No. of Ages persons curr.	No. of Ages persons curr.	No. of Ages persons curr.	No. of Ages persons curr.
1280 born	462—20	294—40	130—60
410 *	7 *	10 *	7 *
870—1	455—21	284—41	123—61
170 *	7 *	10 *	6 *
700—2	448—22	274—42	117—62
65 *	7 *	10 *	6 *
635—3	441—23	264—43	111—63
35 *	7 *	9 *	6 *
600—4	434—24	255—44	105—64
20 *	8 *	9 *	6 *
580—5	426—25	246—45	99—65
16 *	8 *	9 *	6 *
564—6	418—26	237—46	93—66
13 *	8 *	9 *	6 *
551—7	410—27	228—47	87—67
10 *	8 *	8 *	6 *
541—8	402—28	220—48	81—68
9 *	8 *	8 *	6 *
532—9	394—29	212—49	75—69
8 *	9 *	8 *	6 *
524—10	385—30	204—50	69—70
7 *	9 *	8 *	5 *
517—11	376—31	196—51	64—71
7 *	9 *	8 *	5 *
510—12	367—32	188—52	59—72
6 *	9 *	8 *	5 *
504—13	358—33	180—53	54—73
6 *	9 *	8 *	5 *
498—14	349—34	172—54	49—74
6 *	9 *	7 *	4 *
492—15	340—35	165—55	45—75
6 *	9 *	7 *	4 *
486—16	331—36	158—56	41—76
6 *	9 *	7 *	3 *
480—17	322—37	151—57	38—77
6 *	9 *	7 *	3 *
474—18	313—38	144—58	35—78
6 *	9 *	7 *	3 *
468—19	304—39	137—59	32—79
6 *	10 *	7 *	3 *
462—20	294—40	130—60	29—80

Now, in order to shew the use of the foregoing table by an example, let it be required to find the probability, that a person of 36, lives 30 years longer, or attains to the age of 66 years; look in the table against 36 years and 66 years, and corresponding thereto, you will find the numbers 331 and 93 respectively; shewing, that out of 331 persons living of 36 years of age, only 93 of them arrive to the age of 66: therefore, seeing the whole number of persons living at the beginning of this term, is to the number remaining alive at the end of it, in the ratio of 331 to 93; the number of chances that a person of 36 years of age has to live 30 years longer, will be to the number of all the chances, that he has both to live beyond, and die within 30 years, in the same ratio of 331 to 93; and therefore $\frac{93}{331}$ is the measure of the probability required; the probability of the happening of any event, being always to be considered as the ratio of the chances which that event has to happen, to all the chances which it has both to happen and fail.

This being understood, suppose it were now required to find the value of an annuity of 100 l. for a life of 20 years of age, interest at 4 per cent.

Because the present value of 100 l. due at the end of one year (discount being allowed) is 96,15, it is plain, that so much would be the value of the first year's rent, was the purchaser sure to receive it; but the probability of his living one year, appearing from the table to be only $\frac{455}{462}$, the aforesaid sum 96,15, in order to make a just deduction out of it, for the contingency of his dying before the end of one year, ought to be diminished in the ratio of 462 to 455, or multiplied by $\frac{455}{462}$, which will reduce it to 94,70, equal to the true value of the first year's rent. After the same manner may the value of the second year's rent be calculated; for, since the probability of receiving this rent, or living two years is $\frac{448}{462}$, let this be multiplied into 92,45, the present value of 100 l. to be received at the end of two years, and the product 89,05, will be the true value of the second year's rent. And, by a like way of proceeding, the value of the 3d, 4th, 5th, &c. years rents, to the utmost extent of life, may be determined; and the sum of all these will be the required value of the annuity, which will be found to come out 1480 l. very near.

TABLE I.

For the valuation of annuities upon one life.

Age	Years purch. at 5 per cent	Years purch. at 4 per cent	Years purch. at 3 per cent	Age	Years purch. at 5 per cent	Years purch. at 4 per cent	Years purch. at 3 per cent
6	14.1	10.2	10.8	41	10.2	11.4	13.0
7	14.2	10.3	10.9	42	10.1	11.2	12.8
8	14.3	10.4	11.0	43	10.0	11.1	12.6
9	14.3	10.4	11.0	44	9.9	11.0	12.5
10	14.3	10.4	11.0	45	9.8	10.8	12.3
11	14.3	10.4	11.0	46	9.7	10.7	12.1
12	14.2	10.3	10.9	47	9.7	10.5	11.9
13	14.1	10.2	10.7	48	9.4	10.4	11.8
14	14.0	10.0	10.5	49	9.3	10.2	11.6
15	13.9	9.8	10.3	50	9.2	10.1	11.4
16	13.7	9.6	10.1	51	9.0	9.9	11.2
17	13.5	9.4	9.9	52	8.9	9.8	11.0
18	13.4	9.2	9.7	53	8.8	9.6	10.7
19	13.2	9.0	9.5	54	8.6	9.4	10.5
20	13.0	8.8	9.3	55	8.5	9.3	10.3
21	12.9	8.6	9.1	56	8.4	9.1	10.1
22	12.7	8.4	8.9	57	8.2	8.9	9.9
23	12.6	8.2	8.7	58	8.1	8.7	9.6
24	12.4	8.0	8.5	59	8.0	8.6	9.4
25	12.3	7.8	8.3	60	7.9	8.4	9.2
26	12.1	7.6	8.1	61	7.7	8.2	8.9
27	12.0	7.4	7.9	62	7.6	8.1	8.7
28	11.8	7.2	7.7	63	7.4	7.9	8.5
29	11.7	7.0	7.5	64	7.3	7.7	8.3
30	11.6	6.8	7.3	65	7.1	7.5	8.0
31	11.4	6.6	7.1	66	6.9	7.3	7.8
32	11.3	6.4	6.9	67	6.7	7.1	7.6
33	11.2	6.2	6.7	68	6.6	6.9	7.4
34	11.0	6.0	6.5	69	6.4	6.7	7.1
35	10.9	5.8	6.3	70	6.2	6.5	6.9
36	10.8	5.6	6.1	71	6.0	6.3	6.7
37	10.6	5.4	5.9	72	5.8	6.1	6.5
38	10.5	5.2	5.7	73	5.6	5.9	6.2
39	10.4	5.0	5.5	74	5.4	5.6	5.9
40	10.3	4.8	5.3	75	5.2	5.4	5.6

TABLE

M O R

TABLE II.

For the valuation of annuities upon two joint lives.

Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.	Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.
6	11.3	12.7	14.4	41	7.2	8.0	8.9
7	11.5	12.9	14.6	42	7.1	7.8	8.7
8	11.6	13.0	14.7	43	7.0	7.7	8.6
9	11.6	13.0	14.7	44	6.9	7.6	8.5
10	11.6	13.0	14.7	45	6.7	7.4	8.3
11	11.5	12.9	14.6	46	6.6	7.3	8.2
12	11.4	12.8	14.5	47	6.5	7.2	8.1
13	11.3	12.7	14.3	48	6.4	7.1	7.9
14	11.2	12.5	14.1	49	6.3	7.0	7.8
15	11.0	12.3	13.9	50	6.2	6.8	7.6
16	10.8	12.1	13.7	51	6.1	6.7	7.4
17	10.7	11.9	13.5	52	6.0	6.6	7.3
18	10.5	11.7	13.2	53	5.9	6.5	7.2
19	10.3	11.5	13.0	54	5.8	6.3	7.0
20	10.1	11.3	12.8	55	5.7	6.2	6.9
21	10.0	11.2	12.6	56	5.6	6.1	6.7
22	9.8	11.0	12.4	57	5.5	6.0	6.6
23	9.7	10.8	12.2	58	5.4	5.8	6.4
24	9.5	10.6	12.0	59	5.3	5.7	6.3
25	9.4	10.5	11.8	60	5.2	5.6	6.1
26	9.2	10.3	11.6	61	5.1	5.5	6.0
27	9.1	10.1	11.4	62	5.0	5.4	5.9
28	8.9	9.9	11.2	63	4.9	5.3	5.7
29	8.8	9.8	11.0	64	4.8	5.1	5.5
30	8.6	9.6	10.8	65	4.7	5.0	5.4
31	8.5	9.4	10.6	66	4.6	4.9	5.3
32	8.3	9.2	10.4	67	4.5	4.8	5.1
33	8.2	9.1	10.2	68	4.4	4.6	4.9
34	8.1	8.9	10.0	69	4.3	4.5	4.8
35	8.0	8.8	9.9	70	4.2	4.4	4.6
36	7.8	8.6	9.7	71	4.1	4.3	4.5
37	7.6	8.4	9.5	72	3.9	4.1	4.3
38	7.5	8.3	9.3	73	3.8	4.0	4.2
39	7.4	8.2	9.2	74	3.7	3.8	4.0
40	7.3	8.1	9.1	75	3.6	3.7	3.8

TABLE III.

For the valuation of annuities upon the longest of two lives.

Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.	Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.
6	16.9	19.7	23.3	41	13.2	14.9	17.0
7	17.0	19.8	23.4	42	13.1	14.7	16.8
8	17.1	19.9	23.5	43	13.0	14.5	16.5
9	17.1	19.9	23.5	44	12.9	14.3	16.3
10	17.1	19.9	23.5	45	12.8	14.2	16.1
11	17.1	19.9	23.5	46	12.6	14.0	15.8
12	17.0	19.8	23.4	47	12.5	13.8	15.6
13	16.9	19.7	23.3	48	12.4	13.6	15.3
14	16.7	19.5	23.1	49	12.2	13.4	15.1
15	16.6	19.3	22.9	50	12.1	13.3	14.9
16	16.4	19.1	22.6	51	11.9	13.1	14.6
17	16.2	18.9	22.4	52	11.8	12.9	14.4
18	16.1	18.7	22.1	53	11.6	12.7	14.1
19	15.9	18.5	21.9	54	11.5	12.5	13.9
20	15.7	18.3	21.6	55	11.3	12.3	13.6
21	15.6	18.2	21.3	56	11.2	12.1	13.4
22	15.4	18.0	21.1	57	11.0	11.9	13.1
23	15.3	17.8	20.8	58	10.9	11.7	12.8
24	15.1	17.6	20.6	59	10.7	11.5	12.5
25	15.0	17.4	20.3	60	10.5	11.2	12.2
26	14.9	17.3	20.1	61	10.3	11.0	12.0
27	14.7	17.1	19.9	62	10.1	10.8	11.7
28	14.6	16.9	19.7	63	9.9	10.5	11.4
29	14.5	16.8	19.5	64	9.7	10.3	11.1
30	14.4	16.6	19.3	65	9.4	10.0	10.8
31	14.2	16.4	19.1	66	9.2	9.7	10.5
32	14.1	16.2	18.9	67	8.9	9.4	10.2
33	14.0	16.1	18.7	68	8.7	9.2	9.9
34	13.9	15.9	18.5	69	8.5	8.9	9.5
35	13.8	15.8	18.3	70	8.2	8.6	9.2
36	13.7	15.6	18.1	71	8.0	8.4	8.9
37	13.6	15.5	17.9	72	7.7	8.1	8.6
38	13.5	15.3	17.7	73	7.5	7.8	8.2
39	13.4	15.2	17.5	74	7.2	7.5	7.9
40	13.3	15.0	17.3	75	6.9	7.2	7.6

M O R

TABLE IV.

For the valuation of annuities upon three joint lives.

Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.	Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.
6	9.7	10.6	11.7	41	5.5	6.1	6.8
7	9.9	10.8	11.9	42	5.4	6.0	6.7
8	10.0	10.9	12.0	43	5.4	5.9	6.5
9	10.0	10.9	12.0	44	5.3	5.8	6.4
10	10.0	10.9	12.0	45	5.2	5.7	6.3
11	9.9	10.8	11.9	46	5.1	5.6	6.2
12	9.8	10.7	11.8	47	5.0	5.5	6.1
13	9.6	10.5	11.6	48	5.0	5.4	5.9
14	9.5	10.4	11.4	49	4.9	5.3	5.8
15	9.3	10.2	11.2	50	4.8	5.2	5.7
16	9.2	10.0	11.0	51	4.7	5.1	5.6
17	9.0	9.8	10.8	52	4.7	5.1	5.5
18	8.8	9.6	10.6	53	4.6	5.0	5.4
19	8.5	9.4	10.4	54	4.5	4.9	5.3
20	8.4	9.2	10.2	55	4.4	4.8	5.2
21	8.2	9.0	10.0	56	4.4	4.7	5.1
22	8.1	8.9	9.8	57	4.3	4.6	5.0
23	7.9	8.7	9.6	58	4.2	4.5	4.9
24	7.7	8.5	9.4	59	4.1	4.4	4.8
25	7.6	8.3	9.2	60	4.0	4.3	4.6
26	7.4	8.1	9.0	61	3.9	4.2	4.5
27	7.3	8.0	8.8	62	3.8	4.1	4.4
28	7.1	7.8	8.6	63	3.7	4.0	4.3
29	7.0	7.7	8.5	64	3.7	3.9	4.2
30	6.8	7.5	8.3	65	3.6	3.8	4.1
31	6.7	7.4	8.2	66	3.5	3.7	3.9
32	6.5	7.2	8.0	67	3.4	3.6	3.8
33	6.4	7.1	7.9	68	3.3	3.5	3.7
34	6.2	6.9	7.7	69	3.2	3.4	3.6
35	6.1	6.8	7.6	70	3.1	3.2	3.4
36	6.0	6.7	7.4	71	3.0	3.1	3.3
37	5.9	6.5	7.2	72	2.9	3.0	3.1
38	5.8	6.4	7.1	73	2.8	2.9	3.0
39	5.7	6.3	7.0	74	2.6	2.7	2.8
40	5.6	6.2	6.9	75	2.5	2.6	2.7

TABLE V.

For the valuation of annuities upon the longest of three lives.

Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.	Mean age.	Years purch. at 5 per cent.	Years purch. at 4 per cent.	Years purch. at 3 per cent.
6	18.0	21.0	25.0	41	14.6	16.4	18.9
7	18.1	21.1	25.1	42	14.5	16.3	18.7
8	18.2	21.2	25.2	43	14.4	16.2	18.5
9	18.2	21.2	25.2	44	14.3	16.0	18.2
10	18.2	21.2	25.2	45	14.2	15.9	18.0
11	18.2	21.2	25.2	46	14.1	15.7	17.7
12	18.1	21.1	25.1	47	13.9	15.5	17.5
13	18.0	21.0	25.0	48	13.8	15.3	17.2
14	17.9	20.9	24.8	49	13.7	15.1	17.0
15	17.8	20.7	24.6	50	13.5	14.9	16.7
16	17.6	20.5	24.3	51	13.4	14.7	16.5
17	17.5	20.3	24.1	52	13.2	14.5	16.2
18	17.3	20.1	23.8	53	13.1	14.3	15.9
19	17.2	19.9	23.5	54	12.9	14.1	15.7
20	17.0	19.7	23.3	55	12.8	13.9	15.4
21	16.9	19.5	23.1	56	12.6	13.7	15.1
22	16.8	19.4	22.8	57	12.5	13.5	14.8
23	16.6	19.2	22.6	58	12.3	13.2	14.5
24	16.5	19.0	22.3	59	12.1	12.9	14.1
25	16.4	18.8	22.1	60	11.9	12.7	13.8
26	16.3	18.7	21.9	61	11.7	12.5	13.5
27	16.1	18.5	21.6	62	11.5	12.2	13.1
28	16.0	18.3	21.4	63	11.3	11.9	12.8
29	15.9	18.2	21.2	64	11.0	11.6	12.5
30	15.8	18.0	21.0	65	10.8	11.4	12.2
31	15.6	17.8	20.8	66	10.5	11.1	11.8
32	15.5	17.7	20.6	67	10.2	10.8	11.5
33	15.4	17.6	20.4	68	9.9	10.5	11.2
34	15.3	17.4	20.2	69	9.6	10.2	10.9
35	15.2	17.3	20.0	70	9.3	9.9	10.5
36	15.1	17.2	19.9	71	9.0	9.6	10.2
37	15.0	17.0	19.7	72	8.7	9.2	9.8
38	14.9	16.9	19.5	73	8.4	8.9	9.5
39	14.8	16.7	19.3	74	8.1	8.6	9.1
40	14.7	16.6	19.1	75	7.8	8.2	8.7

Here follow the practical solutions of several problems, depending on the foregoing tables.

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PROBLEM VIII.

To find the value of an annuity for an assigned life.

SOLUTION.

Look out the given age in Tab. I. and against it, towards the right-hand, under the proposed rate of interest, will stand the number of years purchase, which an annuity upon that life is worth.

EXAMPLE.

Let the given age be 18 years, and the rate of interest 4 per cent. then looking against 18, under 4 per cent. I find 15.2, equal the number of years purchase required.

PROBLEM IX.

To find the value of an annuity upon two assigned joint lives.

SOLUTION.

CASE I.

If the two lives be equal, see Tab. II. with the common age, and against it you will have the value required.

CASE II.

If the given ages be unequal, but neither of them less than 25, nor greater than 50 years, take half the sum of the two for a mean age, and proceed as in Case I. *

* This and the following solutions are so contrived, as to be always depended on to less than $\frac{1}{4}$ of a year's purchase.

CASE III.

If one or both ages be without the limits above-mentioned, but so that the difference of the values corresponding to those ages, be not more than $\frac{1}{3}$ of the lesser; let $\frac{1}{6}$ of that difference be added to the said lesser value, and the sum will be the value sought.

Generally, be the difference of the values what it will, multiply it by $\frac{1}{2}$ the lesser of the two values, dividing the product by the greater; then the quotient, added to the lesser value, will give the true answer very near.

EXAMPLE of CASE I.

Let the two given ages be each 18, and interest at 5 per cent. then in Tab. II. against 18, under 5 per cent. is 10.5 years purchase.

EXAMPLE of CASE II.

In which the rate of interest is supposed as above, and one of the two ages 34, the other 48, therefore the half sum of the age is 42, against which stands 7.1.

EXAMPLE of CASE III.

Where one age is supposed to be 15 years, the other 29; here against 15 years will be found 11.0, and against 29, 8.8, the difference of which two values is 2.2, and $\frac{1}{6}$ thereof, equal to 0.88; this therefore, added to 8.8, gives 9.68, or 9.7, for the answer.

EXAMPLE of CASE IV.

Let the rate of interest be 4 per cent. and one age 11 years, the other 68. The values corresponding to these ages, are 12.9 and 4.6, their difference is 8.3, which multiplied by 2.3, will be 19.09, this divided by 12.9, quotes 1.5, which therefore, added to 4.6, the lesser value, gives 6.1, equal the value sought.

PROBLEM X.

To find the value of an annuity upon two lives, that is to continue as long as either of them is in being.

SOLUTION.

CASE I.

If the lives be equal, find the given age in Tab. III. and against it, under the proposed rate of interest, will be the number of years purchase required.

CASE II.

If both ages be between 25 and 50, take half their sum for a mean age, and proceed as in Case I.

CASE III.

If one or both ages be without the limits mentioned in the last case, but the difference of values corresponding to those ages, as found in Tab. III. be not more than $\frac{1}{2}$ part of the

M O R

lesser, take half the sum of those values for the value required.

Generally, let the given ages be what they will, find the value of the two joint lives by Case IV. Prob. IX. which subtract from the sum of the values of the two single lives, and there will remain the required value of an annuity upon the longest life.

EXAMPLE of CASE I.

Wherein the two given ages are each supposed 50 years, and the rate of interest 4 per cent. Here against 50 years, in Tab. III. under 4 per cent. stands 13.3, shewing the number of years purchase which an annuity is worth for two such lives.

EXAMPLE of CASE II.

Suppose one age 30 years, and the other 46, then the half sum of the ages will be 38, answering to which, under 4 per cent. stands 15.3.

EXAMPLE of CASE III.

Let the two proposed ages be 6 and 21 years; then against 6 years will be 19.7, and, against 21, 18.2, the half sum whereof is 18.95, equal to the number of years purchase required.

EXAMPLE of CASE IV.

Let one age be 11 years, the other 68, and the rate of interest as in the preceding examples; then the value of the two joint lives, by Case IV. of the last problem, will be found 6.1, and the values of the single lives, by Problem VIII. equal to 16.3, and 6.7, the sum of which two, decreased by 6.1, is 16.9, equal to the value required.

PROBLEM XI.

To find the value of an annuity upon three joint lives.

SOLUTION.

CASE I.

If all the lives be equal, find out the given age in Tab. IV. and against it, under the proposed rate of interest, will be the number of years purchase required.

CASE II.

If all the three ages be between 15 and 55 years, and the difference between the greatest and least of them not more than 15 years, take $\frac{1}{3}$ part of their sum for the mean age, and proceed as in Case I.

CASE III.

If one or more of the proposed ages be without the limits mentioned in the last article, but the difference of the values answering to the greatest and least of them, not greater than half the least; then to the sum of the two greater values add twice the least, and take $\frac{1}{4}$ of the sum for a mean value required.

Generally, be the ages what they will, multiply the sum of the three corresponding values by the square of the least of them, reserving the product; multiply the two greater values into each other, and to the double of the product add the square of the lesser values; divide the reserved product by this sum, and subtract the quotient from twice the lesser value; the result will be the value sought.

EXAMPLE of CASE I.

Let each age be 35, and the rate of interest 3 per cent. then in Tab. IV. against 35, under 3 per cent. stands 7.6, which is the number of years purchase that an annuity is worth for the three joint lives.

EXAMPLE of CASE II.

Let the three given ages be 20, 25, and 33 years. Here $\frac{1}{3}$ of the ages will be 26, corresponding to which, under 3 per cent. stands 9.0.

EXAMPLE of CASE III.

Where the proposed ages are 7, 15, and 33 years; against these stand 11.9, 11.2, and 7.9, therefore the sum of the two greater values is here, 23.1; this added to twice the lesser, gives 38.9, the $\frac{1}{4}$ of which, or 9.725, is the value sought.

EXAMPLE of CASE IV.

Let the three ages be 13, 31 $\frac{1}{2}$, and 53 years, and interest 4 per cent. then the values answering to those ages will be 10.5, 7.3, and 5.0; the sum whereof is 22.8, which multiplied by 25, the square of the least of them, gives 570, to be reserved. Again, the two greatest values multiplied into each other, produce 76.65, the double of this added to 25, the square of the least, will be 178.3, by which dividing 570, the reserved product,

M O R

product, there comes out 3.2; this subtracted from 10, the double of the least value, leaves 6.8 for the value required.

PROBLEM XII.

To find the value of an annuity upon the longest of three lives.

SOLUTION.

CASE I.

If the lives be all equal, seek the common age in Tab. V. and against it, under the proposed rate of interest, will be the number of years purchase required.

CASE II.

If none of the ages be less than 10, nor greater than 60 years, and the difference between the greatest and least of them not more than 15 years, to twice the sum of the two least add the greatest, and take $\frac{1}{2}$ part of the sum as a mean age.

CASE III.

If the difference of the greatest and least values, found against the proposed ages in Tab. V. be not more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of the least, then, to twice the sum of the two greatest values, add the least, taking $\frac{1}{2}$ part of the sum for a mean value.

Generally, find the value answering to the greatest of the given ages in Tab. III. and the values corresponding to all the three several ages in Tab. V. and let the difference of the two values, answering to the greatest age, be taken and reserved; let the square of the greater of these two be divided by the product of the two other remaining values; multiply the square of the quotient by the reserved difference, then this last product, added to the value of an annuity for the two youngest lives, will be the value required.

EXAMPLE of CASE I.

Let the three ages be each 35 years, and interest 4 per cent. then in Tab. V. against 35, under 4 per cent. stands 17.3, for the number of years purchase required.

EXAMPLE of CASE II.

Let the proposed ages be 16, 24, and 30 years, then will the mean age be 22 years, and the number of years purchase required 19.4.

EXAMPLE of CASE III.

Suppose the three ages to be 28, 35, and 44, then the three corresponding values will be 18.3, 17.3, and 16.0, and therefore twice the sum of the two greater added to the lesser, is 87.2, which divided by 5, quotes 17.44 for the answer.

EXAMPLE of CASE IV.

Let the given ages be 20, 36, and 60; and interest as in the preceding examples: here, the value found against 60 years in Tab. III. is 11.2, and those against 20, 36, and 60, in Tab. V. 19.7, 17.2, and 12.7, respectively; wherefore, taking 11.2 from 12.7, we have 1.5 for the difference to be reserved: now the square of 12.7, divided by the product of 19.7, and 17.2 is 0.5, the square of which, multiplied by 1.5, the reserved difference gives 0.375; this added to 17.0, the value of an annuity for the two youngest lives (as determined by Case II. Prob. XI.) will give 17.375, or 17.4, for the number of years purchase, which an annuity is worth upon all the three lives.

REMARK.

That the reader may not entertain any scruple concerning the exactness of the methods of solution hitherto laid down, for estimating the values of annuities upon two or more unequal lives; I shall here, according to my promise, endeavour to make it appear, that those solutions may be always depended on as very near the truth. In order to this it will be requisite to reverse the two hypotheses laid down in Corol. II. and IV. Prob. I. wherein the probabilities of life are supposed in a geometrical and in an arithmetical progression, and to compare the values of equal fictitious lives, computed according to those hypotheses, with the corresponding values in the tables, for real lives, computed from actual observations, and then to consider from thence, how the values ought to differ in lives that are unequal. Accordingly, let the value of each of the equal lives, whether considered as real or fictitious, be supposed equal to any number of years purchase, as 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 successively; and let the rate of interest be at 4 per cent. then will the corresponding value of two equal joint lives be as in the following little table; whereof the first column expresses the value of each of the single lives, and the second, third, and fourth columns, the value of the joint lives, according to observations, and the two foresaid hypotheses respectively.

M O S

Value of one single life.	Value of two joint lives, per Tab.	Value of two joint lives, per 1st hypot.	Value of two joint lives, per 2d hypot.
7	4.7	3.9	4.9
8	5.4	4.6	5.6
9	6.1	5.3	6.4
10	6.8	6.1	7.1
11	7.6	6.9	7.9
12	8.5	7.8	8.8
13	9.5	8.7	9.7
14	10.5	9.7	10.6
15	11.5	10.6	11.6

Now, by inspecting this table, we may observe, first, that the value of the joint lives, according to the last of the two hypotheses, is a small matter greater than the value of the same lives, as deduced from real observations, but never by more than about $\frac{3}{10}$ of a year's purchase; and, secondly, that, on the other hand, the value of the joint lives, according to the first hypothesis, is always less than the true value deduced from observations, and that at least by $\frac{7}{10}$ of a year's purchase. Hence we may infer, that the probabilities of life, as given in the table of observations, do not come so near a geometric progression as to an arithmetic one (which, in some measure, appears from the table itself) and, consequently, that the value of an annuity upon real lives, whether equal or unequal, will differ little from the value derived from the last hypothesis, but something more from the former. Let us, therefore, now see what the differences will be, in two unequal joint lives, by the general rule before given (in Prob. IX.) from whence we shall be enabled to judge of the exactness of that rule. What these differences are, may be seen by the following table, which exhibits the values of the joint lives, according to each of the three foresaid ways; wherein the value computed by the rule, compared with those derived from the hypotheses, appears to agree so exactly, throughout the whole table, with what has been above observed, with respect to the true value, as to sufficiently prove, that the rule itself must be very near the truth. But if this rule be near the truth, the two particular ones preceding it must be so too, being so contrived as to always bring out nearly the same value with the general one; but with this difference, that as the general one, for the most part, gives the answer a little too small, the first of these always makes it a little too great, though neither of them scarce ever err by more than $\frac{1}{10}$ of a year's purchase.

Value of the two single lives.	Value of the two joint lives, per rule.	Value of the two joint lives, per first hypoth.	Value of the two joint lives, per second hypoth.
6 and 8	4.5	3.8	4.7
6 10	4.8	4.3	5.0
6 12	5.0	4.6	5.2
6 14	5.2	4.9	5.4
6 16	5.4	5.2	5.5
8 10	6.0	5.3	6.2
8 12	6.4	5.8	6.7
8 14	6.7	6.3	7.0
8 16	6.9	6.7	7.2
10 12	7.5	6.8	7.8
10 14	8.0	7.5	8.3
10 16	8.4	8.1	8.7
12 14	9.3	8.6	9.5
12 16	9.9	9.4	10.1
14 16	11.4	10.6	11.5

In the same manner it may be made to appear, that the other rules for three joint lives, and the longest of two or three lives, are likewise very near the truth; but I shall content myself here with giving one or two instances, in annuities upon three joint lives. Let there be three equal lives, and the value of an annuity upon each of them 14 years purchase, and interest at 4 per cent. then will the value of the joint lives, by Tab. IV. come out 8.3, but, by the two hypotheses, 7.3, and 8.5, respectively. Again, let the lives be supposed very unequal, so as to be worth 6, 10, and 16 years purchase, then will the value of the joint lives be, by the general rule, 4.5, but, according to the hypotheses, 3.84, and 4.63; which examples, agreeing so well with each other, and with what has been abovesaid, tend greatly to evince the accuracy of the rules, or, at least, to shew that they are consistent with the table of observations. Simpson's Annuities upon Lives.

MOSKITO COUNTRY, is situated in North America, between 85 and 88 degrees of west longitude, and between

13 and 15 degrees of north latitude; having the North Sea on the north and east; Nicaragua on the south; and Honduras on the west; and, indeed, the Spaniards esteem it a part of the principality of Honduras, though they have no colonies in the Mosquito country. When the Spaniards first invaded this part of Mexico, they massacred the greatest part of the natives, which gave those that escaped into the inaccessible part of the country an insuperable aversion to them; and they have always appeared ready to join any Europeans that come upon their coasts, against the Spaniards, and particularly the English, who frequently come hither, and the Moskitomen being excellent marksmen, the English employ them in striking the maratee fish, &c. and many of the Mosquito Indians come to Jamaica, and sail with the English in their voyages.

R E M A R K S.

These people are so situate between morasses and inaccessible mountains, and a coast full of rocks and shoals, that no attempts against them by the Spaniards, whom they mortally hate, could ever succeed. Nevertheless they are a mild inoffensive people, of great morality and virtue, and will never trust a man who has once deceived them. They have so great a veneration towards the English, that they have spontaneously put themselves and their lands under the protection and dominion of the crown of England. This was first done when the duke of Albemarle was governor of Jamaica, and the king of the Moskitoes received a commission from his grace, under the seal of that island; since which time, they have not only been steady in their alliance with the English, but warm in their affections, and very useful to them on many occasions.

When their king dies, the next male heir goes to Jamaica, to certify that he is next in blood, and receives a commission in form from the governor of Jamaica to be king of the Moskitoes, 'till which he is not acknowledged as such by his countrymen. So fond are these people of every thing that is English, that the common people are proud of every christian or surname given them by our seamen, who honour their chief men with the titles of some of our nobility.

Quere, Might not some valuable settlements be made by the English among these people, that would produce logwood and other dyeing woods, and many valuable commodities besides? See the article LOGWOOD.

MUNSTER, in Ireland. This province lies open to the Vergivian Sea on the south and south-west, and the Atlantic on the west; and is bounded on the east and south-east with the Ocean and province of Leinster; and, on the north, with the province of Connaught: its circumference, including the great windings and turnings, is above 600 miles.

It enjoys a mild temperate air, has many excellent bays and havens, and rich towns, and the soil, in general, fruitful. Its commodities are cattle, wood, wool, and fish; of which last it abounds with all sorts, especially herrings and cod.

It is divided into the five counties following, viz.

I. WATERFORD county, which has Wexford on the east; Cork on the west; the ocean on the south; and the river Shure on the north, by which it is parted from Kilkenny and Tipperary. In some parts it is pleasant and fruitful, but mostly mountainous, and of a barren coarse soil.

WATERFORD is as conveniently seated for trade as any port in the world; it has a good harbour, and ships of burthen come up close to its fine key, though it is a good distance from the sea, Gallway contends with this city for priority, and claims the preference as to trade; though, as Waterford outdoes it in bulk and people, so it is thought it does in commerce; particularly Waterford drives a very great trade with England, which Gallway cannot have, by reason of its situation.

DUNGARVAN stands upon a bay of its own name, with a narrow tide haven, and a commodious road for ships; but it is a town of no consequence, and of little business.

TALLAGH is a handsome flourishing town, in a fine fruitful vale, near the river Bride, which being navigable from hence to Youghal, renders this a place of good trade.

II. The county of CORK, has Waterford on the east; Kerry on the west; Limeric on the north; and the Vergivian Ocean on the south. It is partly woody and mountainous, and partly fenny, yet has many good towns, abounds in fine rivers and good harbours, is both rich and populous, and the inhabitants industrious. A copper mine was lately discovered near Cork, which is likely to turn to very good account.

The first considerable sea-port, next to Waterford, is YOUGHAL, or YOUGHIL, a place of good trade, at the mouth of the Broadwater. The convenience of the harbour, which has a good well-fenced key, and the fertility of the adjacent country, draws so many merchants hither, that the town is pretty populous and rich.

CORK is a fine, large, populous, and wealthy city, being thought the richest in Ireland except Dublin. The town stands up the river, about 15 miles from the sea, where the mouth of the harbour is two miles broad. The great ships generally ride at a place called Passage, about six miles below the city; but smaller vessels come quite up to the key. It is the chief port for merchants business in the kingdom; and there is

more beef, butter, and tallow shipped off here, perhaps, than in all the other ports put together, as well for our own colonies as for France, and the butter for Flanders and Holland in particular. This occasions a great resort of ships always to this port, particularly those bound to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee Islands, which put in here to complete their lading.

KINSALE is a populous and rich town, in a fruitful soil, near the mouth of the river Bann, or Bandon, with a trade the most considerable of any on this side of the island, next to Cork. Many good ships belong to it, and a great quantity of provisions is exported from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and the English islands in the West-Indies. It has an admirable harbour, and a good bay without it.

DOWNHAM'S BAY, so called from a neighbouring village, is a large and commodious retreat for ships in a storm, and lies on the north side of the Miffen-Head.

III. The county of KERRY, has that of Cork on the south and east; Limeric on the north; and the Atlantic Ocean on the west.

TRALEY is a thriving corporation, and the shire-town; it stands on a bay of the same name.

DINGLE has a good harbour, very convenient for trade; the bay near it is one of the largest in Ireland, and has several harbours.

MAIR, or KILMARE river, is a bay on the south-east corner of the county, which is a safe harbour for the greatest ships.

KILLARNY is a thriving pretty market-town, near which is a considerable lead mine.

IV. The county of LIMERIC has Tipperary on the east; Cork on the south; part of Tipperary on the north; and Kerry on the west. It is fruitful in all sorts of corn and rape, has a large breed of cattle, and is well inhabited, but has few remarkable towns.

The city of LIMERIC stands on the Shannon, which is navigable very near to it for ships of burthen, though it stands almost 50 miles within the point called Louphead. It is a rich and populous city. Though here are some merchants to whom belong ships, it is not so famous for its wealth as its strength. The chief trade it used to drive was to France, but a pernicious one to the fair trader, viz. the carrying out wool, and bringing in wine and brandy by stealth.

V. The county of TIPPERARY is bounded on the west with that of Limeric; on the east with Queen's county and Kilkenny; on the south with those of Cork and Waterford; and, on the north, with King's county. The south part is fruitful, and well inhabited; the west is well watered, and both abound in good pastures, and furnished with the greatest and best flocks in Ireland; the north part is barren and mountainous.

CLONMELL is a rich and populous town, with a market of good resort, on the river Shure.

MUSÆUM, originally signified a place in the palace of Alexandria, which took up a fourth part of the city; so called, as being destined to the Muses, and the Sciences. Here were lodged, in colleges, a great number of learned men, who were of various sects, and applied to different sciences; and each college had a handsome revenue appropriated to it. The Ashmolean Musæum, at Oxford, is a magnificent pile, erected at the expence of the university, for the promotion of several parts of curious and useful knowledge.

The musæum of the late Sir Hans Sloane, Bart. contains a great variety of the production of nature and art, and has been lately purchased by the public, for the benefit of the nation; and, as it may be rendered of no less general benefit to trade, than to the advancement of natural knowledge, and experimental philosophy, our readers may not be displeased if we give a genuine account of

The NAMES and NUMBERS of the several things contained in the MUSÆUM of Sir HANS SLOANE, Bart.

The library, including about 347 volumes of drawings and illuminated books, 3516 volumes of manuscripts, together with the books of prints, consists of about 50,000 volumes.

Medals and coins, antient and modern, about	32,000
Antiquities, viz. urns, instruments, &c.	1,125
Seals, &c.	268
Camea's and intaglio's, &c. about	700
Precious stones, agates, jaspers, &c.	2,256
Vessels, &c. of agates, jaspers, &c.	542
Crystals, sparrs, &c.	1,864
Fossils, flints, stones, &c.	1,275
Metals, mineral ores, &c.	2,725
Earths, sands, salts, &c.	1,035
Bitumens, sulphurs, ambers, ambergreese, &c.	399
Talcs, micæ, &c.	388
Testacea, or shells	5,843
Corals, sponges, &c.	1,421
Echini, echinites, &c.	659
Asteriæ, trochi, entrochi, &c.	241
Crustacea, or crabs, &c.	363
Stellæ marinæ, &c.	173
Fishes,	

Fishes, and their parts	-	-	-1,555
Birds, and their parts; eggs and nests of different species,	-	-	1,172
Vipers, serpents, &c.	-	-	521
Quadrupedes, &c.	-	-	1,886
Insects	-	-	5,439
Humana, as calculi, anatomical preparations, &c.	-	-	756
Vegetables, as seeds, gums, woods, roots, &c.	-	-	12,506
Hortus ficcus, or volumes of dried plants	-	-	334
Miscellaneous things, natural, &c.	-	-	2,098
Pictures and drawings, &c. framed	-	-	310
Mathematical instruments	-	-	55

All the above particulars are entered and numbered, with short accounts of them, and references of several writers who have heretofore wrote about them, in 38 volumes in folio, and eight in quarto.

R E M A R K S.

Nature, and all her wonderful productions, having ever been looked upon by the wisest and best men as the great book of God, it becomes a duty incumbent on mankind to read and study that book, which we are assured can never mislead or deceive, if we are happy enough to understand it.

Natural history describes numberless of the productions of nature, which the various parts of the known globe afford; and those who have judiciously collected any variety of particulars in the fossil, vegetable, and animal kingdoms, have contributed to render this divine book [the universal scripture of the Supreme Being] the more intelligible: and those who have modestly studied to understand the qualities and uses of but few of these infinite productions, have conspicuously discovered the digitus Dei in whatever exists throughout the whole creation: and such searchers into the works of the Almighty, have not only contributed to give mankind in general more just and exalted ideas of the first cause, but have themselves generally proved the most useful, the wisest, and best of men, and their great example has influenced numbers to follow it.

So wonderfully numerous are the distinct particulars of universal nature, that I can hardly think we have yet made any great progress in her alphabet; and much less do we know, I am afraid, of her syllables and sentences; for, 'till we well understand our christ-cross-row, we shall not be able to read to any great purpose.

What I would be understood to mean by the alphabet of nature, is not only the numberless distinct specified matters of nature, but the real properties and qualities of subjects; for it is not the mere collection of the works of nature, that will afford just ideas of their inherent excellencies, and, therefore, we shall ever be at a loss thoroughly to understand their usefulness, unless we are equally assiduous to comprehend the properties of particulars, because, without that, we shall always remain ignorant of their general uses.

The little knowledge we have of this kind seems to be included under the two articles of agriculture and medicine; for in those arts there may be some small degree of certainty, upon ordinary occasions; but, if any thing extraordinary happens, how are the wisest baffled and confounded? The greatest physicians confess their ignorance in the infallible cure of diseases, the greatest philosophers own their insufficiency to prevent a blight, and thereby preserve nature's productions against natural inclemencies, &c.

If therefore, we could exhibit to one view, on the surface of the earth, all subterranean productions within her bowels; if we had before us all vegetable nature, from the hyssop on the wall to the cedar of Lebanon; if the myriads of animals were collected together into one ark: if nature was thus ranged, as it were, in array before us, for contemplation, should we not rather be lost in astonishment, at the unspeakable variety, than be able, by MERE INSPECTION, to judge rightly of the qualities of the simplest and most contemptible matter before us? We might, perhaps, by racking our brains for ages, make shift to give names in all languages to a few of those wonders; but what advance would this be to the discovery of their general virtues and uses throughout all nature? We are delighted with the sight of a diamond of the first water and magnitude, and may use it as an external ornament; so we may be pleased with the appearance of gold, which too much captivates us all; but to look upon these things in a trafficable light only, and as they are subservient to the mere grandeur of life, is highly undervaluing these objects of nature.

It is true, one principal use of these collections is, the consideration of their being objects of traffic; but, if their natures and qualities were more studied, as their uses to mankind would multiply in proportion, the same objects, would administer an infinite greater variety in point of commerce.

But, notwithstanding all those collections that have hitherto been made, in all repositories both at home and abroad, we have grounds to believe that very much more matter, which has been yet unhandled, may still be brought to light, even in the most civil and most peopled countries; whose underground treasures have been accurately pried into, whose cities, islands, rivers, and provinces, have been described by the labour of geographers: it is not to be doubted, we conceive, but still there may be an infinite number of creatures over our heads, round about us, and under our feet, in the large space of the air, in the caverns of the earth, in the bowels of mountains, in the bottom of seas, and in the shades of forests, which have hitherto escaped all mortal senses. In this the microscope alone is enough to silence all opposers. Before that was invented, the chief help that was given to the eye by glasses was only to strengthen the dim sight of old age; but now, by the means of that excellent instrument, we have a far greater number of different kinds of things revealed to us than were contained in the visible universe before; and even this is scarce yet brought to perfection.

As a trading nation, we cannot be too assiduous in searching after these productions of nature, which will afford objects of traffic in any shape, or materials for the improvement of the old, or the invention of new manufactures.—But the mere external form of things does not always signify to us what properties they may have, and in what variety of cases they may be importantly, beautifully, and profitably applied.—

There is no great matter, therefore, to be learned by these productions, by mere inspection only; and the greatest repository would prove of little benefit to the community, if it is to be considered only as a raree show, or for the virtuoso to ramble over, and merely to repeat the names of; as if he was really knowing in all the qualities, uses, and applications of these things in nature, which he affects to be so familiar with.

—The natural historian, and the collector of nature's works, are very serviceable, as they bring the objects of creation to light, which otherwise might remain for ever hid from our view.—Wherefore the mere naturalist, who studies nature no further than her outside, is not the most useful philosopher; such an one would scarce be instrumental to the breeding of a lapidary or a smith, much less to the inventing of new manufactures or new arts, to the advantage or delight of mankind. A Bacon, a Boyle, a Boerhaave, would look upon the objects of nature with a far different eye to what the mere external naturalists do; they only burthen their memory with the names of things, and affect to be knowing in them; whereas the others would inform us of the qualities and beneficial applications thereof in all respects, and shew themselves to be thoroughly knowing, while the others only pretended to be so. Such may dub themselves with the titles of connoisseurs and virtuosoes, and make great parade of their extraordinary knowledge; but when we enquire of what use they have been to society, what valuable discoveries they have made in nature to benefit mankind, their talents to the community are far less serviceable than those of the lowest mechanic.

What I would infer from hence is, that those repositories we have for the productions of nature are made a very mean and a scandalous use of, if they are maintained with great shew and expence, only for the amusement of the useless and superficial virtuoso. However, we have great reason to believe that this will not be the case of the Sloanean Museum, lately purchased by the public, for the public use and advantage, it being under the direction and management of so many honourable persons, and especially many of those of the Royal Society, who have given testimony of their talents to make useful and important experiments upon the works of nature, for the benefit, delight, and ornament of mankind.

Nor are the collections with regard to the works of art to be less attended to in a commercial state, than those of nature; for having all curious machines, &c. ranged with relation to every distinct mechanic and manufactural art, and proper admission given to all artists, or improvers of art, they might, from narrowly inspecting those that had been invented, make either considerable improvements thereupon, or from thence derive such notions as might enable them to discover new ones of divers kinds.—But, as we shall have occasion to speak more at large upon this point, under the article ROYAL SOCIETY, we refer the reader thither.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE continued.

WITH respect to MALT, see the article CORN.

MALT imported from beyond sea, forfeited, or the value, pursuant to the annual malt act.

The bounty is to be allowed after the rate of thirty quarters, and no more, for every twenty quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt, for exportation; as shall appear by certificate from the proper officer, with whom the corn or grain, intended to be made into malt for exportation, was entered. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 14, 15.

Relanded in Great-Britain is forfeited, with treble the value, besides the penalty of the bond. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 15. and since continued yearly with the malt act.

WITH REGARD TO MARINERS.

MARINERS: No mariner, or person, serving on board any privateer, or trading vessel, employed in any of the British sugar colonies in America, or being on shore there, or at sea in any of those parts, shall be liable to be impressed by any officer belonging to a man of war (unless such mariner shall have deserted from such ship of war) under the penalty of 50l. 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 1.

Every master of a trading vessel or privateer in those parts, before he receives any mariners into his service, is to make diligent enquiry, whether such mariner hath deserted from any of his majesty's ships of war; any master receiving a mariner who hath deserted, without reasonable endeavouring to discover the same, to forfeit 50l. 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 2.

Every master of such trading vessel or privateer, before departure from any port in the said sugar colonies, is to deliver to the chief officer of the customs an exact list of all his men, containing names, ages, and description of persons; neglect thereof, the master to forfeit 10l. for each man so

omitted; the officer of the customs to return to the said master an attested copy of such list: on the death or alteration of any seaman, such list to be immediately altered accordingly, and delivered to the naval officer, or chief officer of the customs in any port where the ship may arrive. All such lists to be produced, and shewn to the captains and other officers of his majesty's navy. 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 3, 4. For more matter hereon, see our article MARINERS.

OF MEDITERRANEAN PASSES at the Custom-House.

MEDITERRANEAN PASSES. Counterfeiting, altering, or erasing them, or knowingly uttering or publishing such counterfeited, altered, or erased, passes, is felony without benefit of clergy. 4 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 1.

OF MERCHANTS AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

MERCHANTS put out of their turns, without express order or approbation of the superior officers, penalty double costs and damages. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 34.

One of the bills of every entry inwards and outwards must, in order to prevent the colouring of strangers goods, be subscribed by the MERCHANT, his own servant, factor, or agent, with the mark, number, and contents of every parcel of such goods, as are rated to pay by the piece or measure, and the weight of the whole parcel of such goods as are rated to pay by the weight. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 10.

Cockets, or certificates outwards, to be in the MERCHANT's possession, after he has paid the duty, till he ships his goods, and then to be delivered, with the marks and numbers to the searchers. See rule 25, at the end of letter A. See also latter end of letter G, and ditto of S, and ditto of P.

N.

N A P

NAPLES, a kingdom of Italy, and by far the largest state there. It is bounded on the north side by the Adriatic Sea, on the south by the Tuscan, on the west by the Ecclesiastical State, and on the east by the mouth of the Adriatic and the Mediterranean.

The air, soil, &c. are extremely delightful and excellent in most places, and the country in general is very rich, fertile, and well watered with rivers and springs, which flow through it from both sides of the Apennines; these rivers are, indeed, commonly so rapid, that they may rather be called torrents.

The land produces excellent wines, especially that emphatically called *lachrymæ Christi*. They have likewise in several parts, plenty of corn, oil, rice, and pretty good pasture; and the Neapolitan horses are in no small request. Their almonds, olives, figs, citrons, oranges, granates, grapes, and other fruits, are very good, and in great plenty; and so is their flax, hemp, pulse, anise, coriander, and other seeds. The air is, indeed, in some places, excessively hot, especially on the south side of the Apennines, where the mountains reflect the sun's heat with such vehemence, that it is hardly to be borne in the three or four hot months of the year, but the north side of them is quite temperate, healthy, and delightful. They are sometimes annoyed with the locust.

The far greater part of the provinces into which this kingdom is divided, have an advantage peculiar to themselves. For instance, the air of the hither principality, is so serene and healthy, that people live in it to a prodigious age; and the farther principality abounds in cattle more than any other, and all its fruits are excellent. The Basilicate is famed for its fine saffron, honey, and wax; Calabria for its plenty of good manna; and the hither, for corn, wines, and mulberries, and the farther for its fine honey and beautiful horses. Otranto is said to produce as much oil, as would supply all Italy. Molise abounds with such quantity of venison, that it sells cheaper there than beef or mutton. The territories of Lavoro, Campania, and some others, are blessed with so rich a soil, and excellent temperature, that they produce the same flowers twice a year. The Abruzzo, especially the hither, besides being the coolest part of the kingdom, produces great quantity of corn, wines, oil, and saffron. The other three provinces not only come short of all those conveniences mentioned in the rest, but have, moreover, some grievous disadvantages peculiar to them: as in the Capatmate the soil is dry, sandy, and in many places barren, and the climate unhealthy: in Apulia the heat is so excessive, and the people and cattle plagued with such swarms of venomous flies, that it is scarce inhabitable. In the province of Bari the air is pretty temperate, but the people are greatly infested with scorpions, vipers, and serpents, especially the tarantula, which renders their territory as uncomfortable as that of Apulia.

Of the COMMERCE of NAPLES and SICILY.

Naples, the capital of the kingdom of the same name, is a very considerable trading city, and the goodness of its port draws thither a great quantity of foreign shipping: they are daily, under the present reign of Don Carlos, endeavouring to render the same more and more grand and magnificent: its principal trade consists in divers sorts of silk stuffs, raw silk, knit silk stockings and waistcoats, such whose cloaks are of silver and gold, oils of various sorts, sulphur after the Calabrian manner, rosemary flowers, anniseed and coriander seed, dried raisins, raisins of Corinth, figs and olives, tartar, soap, dried orange and citron peels, essences and quintessences of all kinds.

The weight of Naples is called *rottolo*, and is of two kinds, as that of Lucca, but of different weight.

100 rottoloes great weight, make a little more than 185 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$ at Paris and Amsterdam, and 100 rottoloes small weight, make but 65 $\frac{3}{4}$ pounds in those two cities; so that 100 pounds in Paris and Amsterdam, make but 54 rottoloes great weight, and 152 small weight.

The canne is the measure for silk and woollen stuffs; the canne is 8 palms, 100 cannes or 800 palms make 310 ells of Amsterdam, and 30 cannes $\frac{1}{2}$, or 258 palms $\frac{1}{2}$ of Naples.

N A P

The palm at Amsterdam makes $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell, and four lines² French royal measure, and the canne three ells $\frac{1}{8}$ and six lines less, of the same measure.

Corn, and other grain, are sold by the *carro*, of 36 tomoli, being 40 rottoloes great weight; one *carro* and a half, or 54 tomoli, make a last of Amsterdam.

They keep their accounts in ducats, tarins, and grains; the ducat is five tarins, and the tarin 20 grains: thus the ducat of the kingdom is 100 grains, and 12 piccioli the grain; there are also carlins, 10 of which make one ducat.

All bills of exchanges between Amsterdam and Naples are negotiated by the way of Leghorn, Venice, or Genoa. The par of exchange with Genoa is 118 ducats per 100 piastres of eight rials, bank money, or four livres 10 sols of Genoa, bank money, per ducat.

REMARKS.

A treaty of peace, commerce, and navigation, concluded at Constantinople the 7th of April, 1740, between the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, and the Ottoman Porte, by Chevalier Finochietti, minister plenipotentiary of his Neapolitan majesty to the Porte.

Art. I. All trade shall be free between the subjects of the contracting powers, and it shall be permitted to them to trade with the same liberty and privileges as all other allies in friendship; to sell their merchandizes, repair damages sustained by their shipping at sea, or other accidents, and purchase provisions, &c.

II. Our subjects and their shipping shall pay, in all the ports of the Ottoman empire, 3 per cent. at the custom-house, as well as the other duties paid by other powers; and the subjects and ships of the sublime Porte shall, in our dominions, pay the same duties, and in the same manner, as those of other powers do.

III. Our minister residing at the Porte shall be allowed to establish consuls in all the ports and maritime places of the Ottoman empire, and be granted all prerogatives and franchises due to his rank, and our consuls interpreters, and those dependent on them, shall have the same privileges that other nations enjoy.

IV. In case of the death of any merchant, or other of our subjects, in what place soever of the Ottoman empire, his effects shall not be confiscated, nor shall any one seize or possess themselves thereof; but the effects of the deceased shall be remitted to our minister or consuls, to be disposed of according to the will of the deceased; and, if he died intestate, to the partners of the deceased residing in the same place; and, if there be no consuls or partners in the place, his effects shall be intrusted with the judge of the place commonly called the *cadi*, who shall afterwards remit the whole to such person as our minister at the Porte shall appoint, and nothing shall be paid to the *cadi* but what is called the *resmi*: the same shall be practised towards the trading subjects of the Ottoman empire.

V. If any dispute, or law-suit, happens between our consul and interpreters, and the sum amounts to 4000 aspers, the suit shall not be brought before any tribunal of the provinces, but be referred to the sublime Porte. Merchants, and other of our subjects, or those who shall be under our banner, who have any law-suits or controversies with those of the Ottoman Porte, be it on account of the sale, purchase, or any other negotiation of merchandizes, or for whatever other reason, shall be obliged to have recourse to the judges: if none of their interpreters be present, the judges shall not receive the information, nor determine the affair; and, if the debts or securities are not legally proved by authentic vouchers, the debtor shall not be molested. If any differences happen between our merchants, they shall be examined and determined by our consuls and interpreters, according to our law and ordinary constitutions. And the like practice shall be followed towards the subjects and merchants of the Ottoman empire who may reside in our dominions.

VI. The Ottoman Porte shall be allowed to establish in our territories an attorney general, commonly called *sach bender*, for

for the security and protection of their trading subjects who shall reside in our dominions, and he shall dwell at our capital of Messina.

VIII. Pilots, and others skilful in the art of navigation, being in our respective ports, shall give, as soon as required, all aid and assistance to ships that have suffered by a tempest; and the merchandizes, shipwrecks, and other effects, belonging to those that have been cast away, shall be intrusted to the most neighbouring consuls, to be afterwards restored to the masters of such ships.

XIII. No persons, merchandizes, or effects, belonging to our subjects, or those under our banner and protection, shall be molested, unless they have been engaged with the corsairs, enemies of the Ottoman empire, or enlisted into their service; but they shall be permitted to pass freely with their effects. And, in case a ship provided with our licence, happens to be taken by a corsair of the Ottoman empire, the merchandizes, subjects, and effects shall be restored.

XV. If any of our subjects be catched in a contraband trade, they shall be used no worse than the subjects of other nations are upon the like occasions. Our merchants shall, in their way of traffic, make use of such brokers as they think fit; and whosoever forcibly interferes therein, shall be severely punished. Our ships sailing to the scales of the Levant, or to the ports of the Dardanelles, shall not be searched otherwise than those of other friendly powers.

XVI. Ships belonging to the Ottoman empire shall not be pursued or molested in the sight of our coasts; nor shall they pursue or molest those in friendship with us.

XVII. The sublime Porte shall strictly forbid all her subjects, especially those of Dulcigno, Albany, or others, sailings, from committing any hostilities against our ships or vessels of any kind; which, on the contrary, shall be received as friends in all the scales and ports of the Levant; and those nations shall be permitted to trade freely in our dominions.

The sublime Porte shall communicate these articles to the regencies of Algiers, Tripoli, and Tunis, and they shall take all proper measures to regulate a free and unmolested commerce and navigation between our kingdoms; and there shall be sent, as well on the part of the Porte as of ours, a minister, who shall jointly treat upon the plan of the present articles.

XVIII. It shall not be permitted, in time of war, to arm foreign vessels in the respective ports of the contracting powers, nor any privateers to take out commissions to serve under the banner of the enemy. In case one of these vessels are taken, the commander, as an example to others, shall be hanged at the mast of his ship, which also shall be good prize, with all her effects, and the sailors shall be enslaved.

Neither the one or the other of the contracting potentates shall grant commissions but to their own subjects, or to those who are settled in their states.

XIX. Our minister and consuls shall be allowed to demand the ordinary duty of consulage on all the merchandizes which pay the duty of custom, and which are imported under our banner, in the same manner as it is demanded on the part of other friendly powers; nor shall our subjects be hindered from loading merchandizes on board their ships, except, nevertheless, powder for cannon, arms, and other contraband goods.

XX. The sale and purchase of merchandizes shall be carried on by our subjects, and those who are under our protection, in the same manner as those of other powers in friendship do. They shall not be obliged to use other monies than those which are generally current, nor shall any duty but what is common be required on the exportation of monies.

XXI. Any ship loaded and ready to depart, shall not be detained on account of any intended law-suit, but the dispute shall be determined without delay by the consul.

Our subjects shall be treated in all cases expressed, or otherwise, in this treaty, in the same manner as those of all other nations in friendship with the Porte.

If we cannot prevent the vessels of Malta, of the Pope, of the Genoese, and those of the Inquisition of Spain, with commission from his Catholic majesty, from sailing in the Archipelago, we will give advice thereof to the Porte by writing, that they may take their measures in conformity. This article shall be inserted in the treaty. See LEVANT TRADE.

Of SICILY in particular belonging to the kingdom of Naples.

SICILY, the largest of the Italian islands, is situate between 12 and 16 degrees of east longitude, and between 37 and 39 degrees of north latitude, being about 170 miles long, and 100 broad. It lies in a warm, but pleasant and healthful climate. It is separated from Calabria in Italy only by the straight or faro of Messina, which is not seven miles over in the narrowest part; but from Messina on the coast of Sicily, to Reggio on the continent, which is the usual passage, it may be 12 or 15 miles over. The country is divided into mountains and vallies, in which there are abundance of springs and rivulets, that make both hills and vallies exceeding fruitful, and which occasioned it's being called the granary of Rome. The produce of the island is corn, wine, oil, silk, and excellent fruits, of which they export great quantities, but chiefly in foreign bottoms; their present monarch, of

French extraction, applies himself with great diligence to increase their shipping and foreign commerce, and has opened a trade with Turkey, which they never had before, being, like the Spaniards, perpetual enemies to the Turkish empire. Mount *Ætna* in this island is a vulcano, which, by it's fiery eruptions and earthquakes, has overturned several of their cities, particularly those of Syracuse and Catania, on the eastern coast of the island. This mountain is so high, that it is surrounded with a circle of snow towards the top, great part of the year; but, advancing a little further, we come to the grand vulcano, from whence there issues flame and smoke. This is a basin, or cavity, about six miles in circumference, the sides whereof are incrustated with sulphur, from whence there sometimes issues a pure flame; and the noise of this burning pit is inconceivably dreadful. This hill is much larger than mount Vesuvius in Naples, viz. about 70 miles in circumference at the bottom; and the eruptions from it have been more frequent and more terrible than those of Vesuvius. The kingdom of Naples, as well as this island, was anciently called Sicily; whereupon Don Carlos has revived the former name, and styles himself king of the Two Sicilies.

MESSINA is the greatest trading city in all Sicily; the great trade carried on there in silk, and the good situation of it's port for all shipping from the Levant, draws thither a great number of foreigners, which makes the trade flourish. There was no appearance of it's losing it's reputation, when it passed under new dominion, by the treaty of Utrecht; and the manufactures that the duke of Savoy established at Turin, and in several places of his ancient territories, excited the jealousy of the workmen of Lyons and Tours, and was prejudicial to the sale of their finest stuffs.

But the revolutions in Sicily, occasioned by the Spaniards invasion thereof in 1717, and which afterwards, by the cession of the duke of Savoy, passed under the dominion of the house of Austria, drew the foreign trade to Sicily, which was yielded to him by the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt.

Sicily changed masters again in the year 1735, in favour of Don Carlos, his present Neapolitan majesty, the son of Philip. V. king of Spain; and the trade of this island has greatly flourished under his sovereignty.

The greatest part of the silk manufacturers dwell in the suburbs of Messina, which spreads itself along the sea coast, on the side of the faro; and there is a very spacious place, encompassed with workhouses, for the organzine silk, which is a very estimable branch of that manufacture.

The Genoese, Florentines, and Lucians, are chiefly masters of the whole silk trade of Messina, which draws foreigners there in great numbers.

Another disadvantage to foreigners attending this commerce, is, that the Messinians are principally their own factors, and will not suffer, as is done at other places, strangers to settle there for that purpose; there are, notwithstanding, some French and English families, and those of other nations, who have houses of trade among them.

The trade in linens of all sorts, both for apparel and the table, imported, is very extensive, and carried on with great facility for credit, the Italians having first introduced the custom of trading generally on credit, at two, three, or six months for their imports, but sell their own goods for ready money.

The payments for silk, and other merchandizes, is commonly made in Spanish rials, brought from Spain, Genoa, and Leghorn.

When the merchants do not chuse to risque specie by sea, they may take bills of exchange for Messina and Palermo, where you may easily draw for the fair of Novi in Genoa, with little disadvantage; you may likewise occasionally remit from Lyons to Novi, with some profit.

The chief trade of the city of PALERMO consists in silk and silk manufactories, crude sulphur, tartar, and fine sponges; a great quantity of wheat also comes from thence, and many other parts of Sicily; from whence Marseilles, and the greatest part of the cities of Italy supply themselves.

There comes from hence likewise a great quantity of manna. The rottolo is the weight of Palermo; it is of two sorts, the small and the great weight; 100 rottoloes great weight make 141 pounds $\frac{2}{3}$ of Paris and Amsterdam, and 100 rottoloes small weight make only 65 pounds of the same cities.

The canne is their long measure. It is divided into 8 palms; they measure silks and cloths indifferently therewith, which is not very customary in Italy: 100 cannes of Palermo make 287 ells $\frac{2}{3}$ of Amsterdam, and 100 ells of Amsterdam make 33 cannes $\frac{2}{3}$ of Palermo.

There are three measures for grain of all kinds, the salme, the tomolo, and the mandilo; 16 tomoli make the salme, and 4 mandiloes the tomolo.

10 Salmes $\frac{1}{2}$
117 Tomoli $\frac{2}{3}$
685 Mandiloes $\frac{1}{3}$ } make the last of Amsterdam. Savary.

A new memoir upon the general trade of Sicily, from Savary.

Their accounts in Sicily are kept in ounces, tarins, and grains; an ounce is worth 30 tarins, and the tarin 20 grains: besides there.

there is a crown consisting of 12 tarins, or two crowns and a half, which make an ounce.

Formerly, the ounce was imaginary, nevertheless, while the Germans were masters of that kingdom, they coined both silver and gold money, and the gold coin is current under the present government.

There are two kinds of weight in Sicily, the great and small weight, both of which are called cantarre: the cantarre is composed of 100 rottoloes; the great weight is of 33 ounces; each rottolo of the small weight has but 30 ounces, which makes a difference of 10 per 100; they reckon 100 rottoloes or cantarres small weight, to a little less than 200 pounds of Marseilles weight.

There is besides the pound, which is composed of 12 ounces; so that two ounces and a half, make one rottolo small weight, or two pounds $\frac{3}{4}$ make the rottolo great weight.

Their merchandizes commonly are sold by the rottolo, and very little by the pound, among which are silk and some fine drugs. Those which are sold by the great weight are all sorts of salt fish, cheese, and fruits: there are nevertheless some little towns, where the small weight only is used.

The following coins are current in Sicily, besides those of foreign countries, viz.

All Portugal money: also the Spanish pistole is worth 45 tarins, or one ounce and a half; the old French pistole, and that of Savoy, is worth one ounce and 14 tarins, or 44 tarins. The French pistole d'or sol, is worth one ounce 23 tarins, and 10 grains.

The Venetian sequin rupee being full weight, is worth 26 tarins; according to the order of the king; nevertheless, there is always an agio more or less, as they are wanted, which never advances beyond 26 tarins and a half. The other Venetian sequins are worth 26 tarins, for which there is very seldom an agio. They take sometimes the Genoese sequins for 24 tarins, though they make some difficulty.

The Florentine and Hungarian sequins are also current there, and are worth 25 tarins; very few of the first are seen there, because there is some loss in their importation.

The genouines are worth 17 tarins, the ducaton 14 tarins 8 grains, the philippes 12 tarins 16 grains, the lenterines 12 tarins, the rose piastres 11 tarins and a half, the sevillanes 12 tarins.

All the coins are weighed, and they pay what they are deficient, viz. 7 grains for a pistole that wants a grain, and so in proportion; observing, that if they are too light by 12 or 15 grains, they are not passable. It is the same for silver coins, and they pay a grain for every two grains deficiency, but they generally refuse to take them when they are not full weight.

Of the MEASURES of SICILY.

Corn is measured by salmes, the same as barley, large and small beans, pease, and small nuts. There are two kinds of salmes, the general salme, and the great salme, which differ from one another $\frac{1}{8}$; so that one great salme makes 1 and $\frac{1}{8}$ of the general salme; nevertheless, when it is spoken of salmes principally for corn, it is always understood the general salme, and if of the great salme it is explained; all pulse is sold by great salmes. The general salme makes 1 and $\frac{3}{4}$, or 100 general salmes make 175 charge at Marseilles.

Oil is measured by cassis, which weigh commonly 12 rottoloes $\frac{1}{2}$ great weight, and 5 cassis and $\frac{1}{2}$ make the millerolle of Marseilles. There are some places where it is sold by the cantarre, and prices are fixed in proportion.

Wine is measured by the salme, but there are salmes of different qualities: the salme of Messina holds 126 measures, which are called cartouches, and weigh from 22 to 24 ounces. That of Syracuse differs $\frac{1}{8}$, so that 1 salme and $\frac{1}{8}$ of Syracuse makes 1 salme of Messina. There are some other different salmes, nevertheless these two salmes are made use of, in case of exportation, which commonly is done from Mascali, Melazzo, Syracuse, or the Faro of Messina, which are the places where they load, and the measure is different only at Syracuse.

All the cloths, silks, and linen, are measured by the canne of 8 pans, each pan making 10 inches and 2 lines: the French ell makes 4 pans and $\frac{1}{2}$, and 3 Holland ells make a little less than one canne of Sicily.

R E M A R K S.

The balance in Italy is thought to concern the interests of Great-Britain; [see the article MEDITERRANEAN] to which we have hitherto shewn a just and laudable regard; and, indeed, distance in this respect is of little consequence, more especially to a maritime power. Our commerce in the Mediterranean and in the Levant, is of very high importance, and we cannot but be sensible, that whatever alterations have been felt in the Italian balance, have likewise affected those branches of our commerce in a very sensible degree; so that whatever steps we have taken, either during the continuance of peace by negotiation, or in time of war, by supporting the only prince in Italy, who declared for the common cause, and was true to his own interests, which were likewise ours, were right and just measures, and have no doubt left those

impressions, which we hope will never be effaced by any arts or intrigues whatever.

The injuries our merchants not long since sustained, and the great insult offered to the nation by the corsairs of Barbary, will not allow us to doubt, that it is our true interest to keep the Italian states firmly united to us, that when occasion requires, they may afford us all the conveniencies in their power towards chastizing these infidel states, as our using vigorous measures in such cases, and sending a powerful fleet occasionally into the Mediterranean, will contribute not a little to make us respected by the Italian potentates, as well as to obtain justice from those pyritical governments, which is a thing scarce to be expected from milder measures. See the article MOROCCO.

In the Spanish war, in the year 1742, the Neapolitans experienced the weight of the naval power of Great-Britain. The behaviour of France in protecting the Spanish fleet occasioned us to take every advantage we were able. The king of Naples had then joined his father's troops with his forces, which amounted to 20,000 men, and they were, in every respect, in much better condition than those of Spain. It was, therefore, of great importance at this time to oblige the king of Naples to adhere strictly to that neutrality which he professed. For this purpose, admiral Matthews dispatched captain Martin, as commodore, with a squadron of ships, with bomb-vessels, and tenders, to the bay of Naples, with a message from his Britannic majesty, importing, that his Sicilian and Neapolitan majesty, having violated his neutrality by joining his forces with the declared enemies of Great-Britain, of the queen of Hungary, and the king of Sardinia, with whom his Britannic majesty was in alliance, he, the commodore, was sent to require the king of Sicily, not only to withdraw his troops from acting in conjunction with those of Spain, but to promise, in writing, not to give them any further assistance in any respect; adding, that if his Sicilian majesty should delay giving the proposed satisfaction, he had orders to bombard Naples.—But the court of Naples thought proper to comply with the spirited demands of the British court. For it is incredible, into what a consternation our fleet threw the capital of that monarch. The history, perhaps, of no country can parallel the quickness, the decision, and the importance of this expedition, which was undertaken with so inconsiderable a force, against a powerful prince, sitting in his capital, and surrounded by 300,000 subjects. It is an illustrious proof, how unavailing the pride of the finest city in the world, is against the very frown of a people that has the command of the sea. See NAVAL POWER, and SEA BRITISH.

NATIONAL ACCOUNTANTSHIP.

Under the articles ACCOUNTANTSHIP, BANKING, DEBTOR and CREDITOR, LEDGER, MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP, I have endeavoured naturally to introduce the reader into this useful art, by representing the same in variety of familiar lights, with a view to shew him how it was applicable to every kind of business, from the most distinguished merchant and tradesman, to the private gentleman and greatest nobleman.

If what we have said under the several heads enumerated be duly attended to, and thoroughly comprehended, no gentleman of distinction can be at a loss to understand, what may further be said, in relation to the best method of keeping the ACCOUNTS OF THE NATION, the surest way of unravelling any accounts of this nature, and discerning every kind of misapplication of the public money, and every designed misconstruction of acts of parliament, in order to alienate the national funds from the real design of their primitive establishment, and thereby to occasion such alteration in those funds, that has defeated, or may hereafter defeat any the most wise and upright intentions of the legislature to maintain the public credit, and honourably to discharge the public debts. Nothing can more apparently shew the necessity of something of this kind, than the great debates for many years together, both within doors and without, during the administration of the late Right Hon. Sir Robert Walpole, afterwards Lord Orford, more particularly in regard to the application of the SINKING FUND, to other purposes than the redemption of the principal money-debt; for, had the primitive sense of the acts of parliament been immediately significantly explained, in the adjustment, regulation, and stating the public accounts of the nation, there could not have been a possibility of mistaking the original meaning of the acts of parliament; for such is the supreme excellency of the art of accountantship, that if the MONEY AFFAIRS of the kingdom are justly and faithfully stated in the PUBLIC ACCOUNTS, according to the true and solid principles of that art, I will presume to say that no such like intemperate debates could ever happen as then did, the natural and pristine cause of the rise and establishment of any fund could never be mistaken, and no party feuds and animosities take place among our representatives, in their deliberations upon the nature of the funds, and the uses and application thereof at all times, and upon all occasions. And how this may be done, I intend one day to shew, and to do myself the honour must humbly to submit a NEW SCHEME OF NATIONAL ACCOUNTANTSHIP, to the consideration

sideration of the honourable house of commons. For the present I shall only refer to the article REVENUE [PUBLIC REVENUE].

NAVAL AFFAIRS. Not only the preservation of that share of commerce we possess, but it's future advancement, depend on the good condition and the wise regulation of our naval affairs, and not only so, but the very being of Great-Britain as an independent empire and a free people, depend upon the constant superiority of it's maritime power.—We should be held inexcusable, therefore, if in a work of this kind, we passed over an article of such high concernment to the interests of commerce.

Whoever would be fully informed concerning the figure which England has made in all ages in maritime affairs, may find abundance of curious matter in Selden's *Mare Clausum*, and from his time to ours, we may trace a series of facts, in Lediard's or Burchet's *Naval Histories*. I shall take notice of two remarkable periods of our ancient maritime story, because some useful observations may be made in comparing them, both with other nations and with ourselves, in our present situations.

We are told that Edgar, king of this island, had four thousand ships; by the terror of which he subdued Norway, Denmark, all the islands of the ocean, and the greatest part of Ireland. These instances of his power, are specified in a record * cited by that great lawyer Sir Edward Coke, in the preface to his fourth Report. This monarch made a naval progress yearly round this island, and once took it in his head to cause eight conquered kings to row his barge on the river Dee. But it seems that some of his successors have had such ministers, as either neglected to keep our fleets in repair, or were afraid to make use of them: for, at several periods of time, since the days of king Edgar, we find that this kingdom has been miserably insulted on the seas, and even successfully invaded by other nations.

* *Altitonantis Dei largiflua clementia, qui est rex regum & dominus dominantium, ego Edgarus Anglorum Basileus, omniumque insularum oceani quæ Britanniam circumjacent, cunctarumque nationem quæ infra eum includuntur. Imperator & dominus, gratias ego ipsi Deo omnipotenti regi meo, qui meum imperium sic ampliavit & exaltavit super regnum patrum meorum qui licet monarchiam totius Angliæ adepti sunt a tempore Athelstani, qui primus regum Anglorum omnes nationes, quæ Britanniam incolunt sibi armis subegit nullus tamen eorum ultra fines imperium suum dilatare aggressus est, mihi tamen concessit propitia divinitas cum Anglorum imperio, omnia regna insularum oceani cum suis ferocissimis regibus usque Norvegiæ, maximamque partem Hiberniæ cum sua nobilissima civitate de Dublinæ Anglorum regno subjugare. Pref. to 4th. Co. See also Rapin's History of England, in the life of Edgar.*

The British Neptune slept, or slumbered, most part of the time, from the reign of king Edgar, to that of queen Elizabeth: in her days he sprung up with vigour, being roused by Spain, which was then the greatest maritime power on earth. From queen Elizabeth to our time, our naval strength has gradually increased, insomuch that at this day, the Spanish fleets opposed to ours, would make a very contemptible figure on the ocean: we now have it in our power to lord it over the watery world. It may be worth our enquiry, to know how these fluctuations have happened in the dominion of the seas.

The tasks and course of life of seafaring men are not to be learned in an instant; their employment is a laborious and dextrous employment, to be acquired only by application and industry. Money will buy all naval stores except mariners, but unless a succession of them be preserved, no wealth will be able to purchase them. The surest, the cheapest, we may justly say, the only profitable method of supporting such a succession, is to have perpetual occasion for a multitude of seamen in a course of foreign traffic. It is indeed probable, that Edgar's amazing power at sea was, for the most part, owing to his own great genius, attended with indefatigable endeavours in training up, and year by year augmenting the number of his mariners; for in those days, England had no great share of foreign commerce, people generally contenting themselves with the produce and manufacture of their native country. This great prince must, therefore, have grievously oppressed his vassals to enable him to keep up so great an armament; and it is no wonder that it dwindled in succeeding reigns, because it had not that solid aliment, trade, to nourish it.

The success of the Spaniards in America, caused their shipping to increase beyond all their neighbours; they had occasion in their beginning there, for great numbers of transports, to carry not only men, but also horses and other cattle, and stores of every kind, to their new conquests. Add to which that Sicily, and a great part of Italy belonged to them at that time. The communication with these last-mentioned places was by sea, so that they had a considerable part in the increase of the Spanish naval power. In this flourishing condition they continued for a great part of the long reigns of their Philip the II^d, and of our Elizabeth. She had not a fleet

able to give their armada battle: her ships, indeed, were light and nimble, the Spanish, though larger and more numerous, were unwieldy; therefore the lighter vessels being in no danger of a chase, fought or stood off as they saw occasion. But this advantage would not have been sufficient, if Providence had not interposed a tempest for the protection of England.

The queen knew to what causes she owed her danger and her deliverance, and became more attentive than ever to plant colonies in America. Death prevented her from executing her great designs; but some of her best and wisest subjects, and most gallant seamen, had entered so deeply into the plan, and laid it so nearly to their hearts, that what she had intended in the settlement of Virginia, was in a good measure effected in the reign of king James the Ist, though the undertaking was a great † difficulty upon his timorous councils, because the Spaniards, of whom he stood in servile awe, did not approve of it. But his shame, with much debate, barely got the better of his fears, and that mine of treasure was opened to Great-Britain.

† See a Short Collection of the most remarkable passages from the original to the dissolution of the Virginia company.

This, with what else has since been executed in favour of England; both on the continent and in the islands of that new world, has added such a weight of maritime force to the natural strength, which we owe to our situation, that we are able, by wise management, to give law to the ocean. Spain indeed, has greater countries and more subjects in America, than we have, and yet does not navigate in that trade a tenth part of the shipping that we do. By a lucky kind of poverty, our dominions there have no mines of gold or silver: we must be, and ought to be, contented to deal in rum, sugar, rice, tobacco, horses, beef, corn, fish, lumber, and other commodities that require great stowage; the perpetual carriages of these, employ above 100,000 tons of shipping. The value of 5000*l*. in these wares loads a vessel, which in the Spanish trade would be freighted homeward with half a million of pounds sterling.

Thus has the Almighty placed the true riches of this earth on the surface of it, our sugars, rice, and tobacco, &c. are more real and permanent wealth, than their richest minerals. They are wealth, which create a power to defend our possession of them: and, without a sufficient force to defend that, the possession of all wealth is precarious. Should not Great-Britain, therefore, be ever attentive to the true interest of our American plantations? Will not such measures prove an eternal increase to the tonnage of British shipping? See BRITISH AMERICA.

The Dutch were esteemed all the last century, the only match for England on the seas; but, as a great part of their strength was merely artificial, it subsides like the vivacity of a wretch, who has raised his spirits with a dose of opium. Commerce, and that wealth and power which attend it, may be either absolutely in the power of a state or empire, considered in and by itself, without regard to it's neighbours, which we call natural wealth, power and commerce; or they may depend upon treaties with other states, or be owing to their connivance, which, pro tempore, amount to a tacit agreement: these latter species may be called technical wealth, &c. Such was the fishery of the Dutch, which they enjoyed by the inactivity of some of our English kings: and this must decline of course, if we vigorously support our fisheries of every sort, because of our superior treasures of this kind on the banks of Newfoundland and on our own coasts. Another branch of their artificial strength was, that by the indolence of all nations, they were for a time the carriers of the universe: but the world is grown wiser, other nations begin to work for themselves; and the Netherlands will sadly find, that this temporary fund of strength must also fail them. Their only natural foreign wealth and strength is their East-India trade; part of this is truly their own, because the land that produces spice is in their possession: but when the two former branches shall be cut off, they will find that possession every day more and more precarious.

Thus the British empire has a natural wealth in itself, and in it's dependent members, but it has also for many years past, enjoyed an adventitious, or artificial traffic. We have been employed by all the world in the woollen manufacture, but other nations have begun of late to clothe themselves and their neighbours too. It is a fond fancy in us to imagine, that there are no fleecy sheep in the world but our own, or that the rest of mankind will not learn the mystery of working in wool.

We feel this trade decreasing daily, and yet there are those among us, who would argue against demonstration. But when they hope, by any laws of Great-Britain to hinder foreign nations from falling into the woollen manufacture, they may as well solicit an act of parliament to prevent their grass to grow, and to intercept their sun-shine. We will consider one objection before I leave this point, because some imagine that we are secure in this trade, against the endeavours of all foreigners: say they, we make better goods than can be made with any foreign wool, unless it be mixed with ours.

ours. Be it so. But then, does our great wealth and income by that trade consist only in our finest goods? Have not the English merchants complained, that Ireland has undersold us in coarse goods at Lisbon; that because their wares are coarse, they can be afforded cheaper, therefore they have a ready market, while ours, that are finer, but dearer, may rot in the warehouse? What says our Russia Company? Has not Prussia supplanted us in the clothing of the Muscovite army? Who can be ignorant of the extensiveness of the woollen manufactories of France, if they consult what I have said, under the article FRANCE? We have sent armed sloops to check the Irish, but who will restrain the French, Germans, and Prussians? The multitude don't much value the fineness of their garments, they only desire to be warm; it is the cloathing of the millions that produces millions of money, and this is what other countries will certainly have their share in.

Is not this a time to cast our eyes upon our natural wealth, and to augment it as fast as possible? If Muscovy supplies its own woollen goods, or is supplied by any other foreigner, it ought to make us resolve to bring our naval stores from North America; if Spain and Italy refuse our drapery, we may reject their silks, their raisins, oil, wine, olives, and divers other merchandizes, and be supplied from Carolina and Georgia, with proper management.

We have been credibly informed that a gentleman, not long since deceased in this kingdom, was the first person who made pitch in America; the people whom he conversed with then, looked on this experiment as a chimera, but it proved so real, as to reduce that commodity above one half in its value.

France has not the same advantage as Great-Britain, in its situation for maritime affairs: that country is extended wide within land, and has not the benefit of being penetrated by many deep creeks, or navigable rivers; on half its borders it is bounded with the continent, and the good harbours of France are but few, compared with the numbers of ours. See BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN]. These reasons of our capacity for constant superiority over them in maritime affairs in general, served to prevent their increasing in North America as fast as we did; and there is another special reason, viz. we have had the navigation of North America in us, by the larger traffic of our early settlements, and even of the French sugar-colonies, which we supply in a great measure, with lumber, horses, and provisions, though this trade may not be so nationally beneficial as some are wont to think. We have five souls on the continent for one of theirs; their principal settlement is in a climate too cold, and not very fruitful; and yet they contrive all imaginable methods of augmenting their numbers: they intermarry with the natives, and convert them; and the French king supplies 2000 persons yearly with money to enable them to go thither, without being afraid that he shall drain his country of people.

It is easy to demonstrate, that we can afford to send people abroad better than France and Spain. They have in each of those kingdoms more than 100,000 cloistered females, not permitted to propagate their species; and the number of males in a state of celibacy is still abundantly greater, as it comprehends their secular and regular clergy, and a considerable part of their great armies, who resolve against marriage, because of the uncomfortable prospects they have with regard to their progeny.

It may be said indeed, that though these do not marry, yet many of them get children; but it must be admitted, that the usual fate of that kind of propagation is, to be destroyed secretly, either before or after the birth; and the former of these crimes frequently procures barrenness in the women. We have entered into the consideration of the loss by the celibacy of their males, that nobody may imagine the computation of their deficiencies should be made upon their cloistered females only.

And yet let us take a short view of their losses upon that calculation, allowing a monk, or a priest, for an husband to each immured woman. The most exact rules in this kind of arithmetic are as follow:

First, the people who go on in an ordinary course of propagation and mortality, and are not visited with some extraordinary destructive calamity, grow double in their number in 100 years.

Secondly, thirty-three years are a sufficient allowance for a generation, or three generations to 100 years. Now, Since the Reformation, we will say, about 200 years are elapsed, at which time celibacy was abolished in England.

Therefore, in that time, France has lost more than five generations of its inhabitants, at the rate of 200,000 in each generation, besides the accumulated numbers of cent. per cent. for each hundred years, which loss must be reckoned upon the second century, as interest upon interest; so that the 200,000 individual persons who were under the vow in France, 180 years ago, will, 20 years hence, be a negative upon their numbers to the value of 800,000 people.

They who understand a little arithmetic, may divert themselves by computing the amount of all the parts of this loss of people in the five generations.

My aim, from what has been said, is to rectify the notions of some of my countrymen, upon an affair so important as our commerce; to point out the differences between a natural and an artificial trade; to instance them in our neighbours compared with ourselves; to shew the industry of the French to rival us in America; in spite of their geography and their religion; and to inculcate that our strength depends on our SHIPPING, and our shipping on our wide-extended colonies, which have neither gold nor silver, and, for that very reason, confirm us the more powerfully in the dominion of the seas.

It is an observation worthy the serious attention of every Englishman, that empire has always followed trade, travelling, as it were, from one part of the world to another, as commerce has shifted its station; and, in all countries, still growing or declining in power in proportion as traffic has been encouraged or disregarded.

Cicero ad Attic. says, *Qui mare teneat eum necesse rerum potiri.* This is the opinion of a very great man, who had been at the head of affairs in a most powerful state, above 1700 years ago and the practice of all great princes who have lived since that time, and have ever designed either to extend their dominions, or to render themselves considerable to their neighbours, fully proves the observation to be true.

The Romans (who aspired to nothing less than universal empire) while their conquests were confined within the narrow bounds of Italy, were so much prejudiced with the notion of a landed interest, that, as Livy relates, they thought it scandalous for a man of fashion to exercise any merchandize: and in consequence of that prepossession, they were not in a capacity to make any figure by sea, an element little practised by them, and less understood. But this notion lasted only 'till they had an opportunity to look more abroad into the world; then experience taught them, as they came to quarrel with the Carthaginians (who at that time, were the great trading people) that commerce was necessary to establish their empire; and that not only their conquests were at an end, but the possession of the territories they had conquered were precarious, unless they could acquire and secure to themselves the dominion of the sea.

If the dominion of the sea is absolutely necessary to a people who aim at empire, of how much greater moment is it to a nation whose grandeur, whose wealth, whose very being depends upon COMMERCE and NAVIGATION? It is with the highest reason, therefore, that we ought to look upon every wrong done to our trading subjects, and on every attempt towards establishing a NEW MARITIME power in Europe, as the most fatal, and, therefore, the most unpardonable injury to a nation, whose glory consists in being mistress of the sea, and whose strength lies in trade.

The nations recorded in history to have been at any time possessed of the empire of the sea, have always esteemed a neighbouring prince's offering to set up a naval power, by building more ships of war than were requisite to secure the trade of his subjects from piracies, &c. to be as just a foundation of political jealousy, as the raising of new forts upon his frontiers, or the levying of a formidable army in a time of profound peace: and, therefore, they have always taken measures either to prevent such attempts, or to destroy them in their birth. This was the practice of the Romans: and this has been the policy of his majesty's royal predecessors, the kings of England.

The Romans, as soon as they had acquired the sovereignty of the sea, (which they thought not dearly purchased with the loss of above 700 ships) immediately entered upon measures to preserve so valuable an acquisition. They grew watchful over their new dominions, and were soon alarmed by the smallest umbrages, from any power that did but seem to interfere with them in naval affairs. It was from these political considerations, that they would not admit the Carthaginians to fit out any fleets, and that they forbid Antiochus (at that time the greatest king in the east) to build more than 12 ships of war. See the articles AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, and OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

It is not an empty title which the kings of England have always taken to themselves, of being supreme lords and governors of the ocean surrounding the British shore, but a right which they have constantly maintained at the expence of numerous fleets. In that famous accord made between our great king Edward I. and Philip the Fair of France, it appears, that the French king was by him called to an account for piracies committed by his subjects within the British seas: and, by that memorable ordinance made at Hastings, in the reign of King John of England, the honour of the flag (ever claimed by the English) is decreed to take place universally, not barely as a civility, but as a right to be paid (cum debita reverentia) with due deference.

There is no occasion for troubling my readers with a detail of examples to the present purpose, since nothing is more known in our English history, than that our kings have ever been jealous of their neighbours making use of any pretext to increase their naval strength; and have accordingly judged it of the greatest importance to frustrate such designs though at the

risque of a war: for what less did our immortal queen Elizabeth risk, when she sent to the French king, to prohibit his building any more ships of war than what he then had, without her leave first obtained. This was an instance of wisdom and resolution worthy a princess who claimed the sovereignty of the sea.

Maritime trade, and in wholesale, has nothing in itself but what is honourable. Antiquity furnishes us with illustrious testimonies in favour of those who practised it. Solomon, king of Israel, according to scripture history, carried on a great trade abroad. Solon, that great legislator of Athens*, who was of one of the noblest families in that flourishing republic, being, by the father's side, descended from Codrus, the last king of Athens†, in order to repair the decays of fortune, into which his family was fallen, by the excessive liberality of his father, chose rather to carry on trade, than to take money from rich persons, who offered him large sums, and promised never to allow him to be in want.

* He lived 598 years before Christ.

† Plutarch's life of Solon.

Now at that time, says Plutarch*, after Hesiod, no handicraft was shameful; no art nor trade made any distinction between men. Merchandize especially was honourable, because it opens a communication with barbarous nations, affords the means of making friendship and alliance with kings, and leads to the knowledge of an infinite deal of things, which would be unknown without it. There have been merchants founders of great cities; as Proteus, who founded Marfeilles, after having gained the friendship and esteem of the Gauls who lived upon the banks of the Rhône. We are told also, that the wise Thales and Hippocrates, the mathematicians, applied themselves to commerce, and that Plato defrayed the charges of his journey into Egypt, by selling oil in that country.

* M. Dacier's translation.

Cato the censor*, that Roman Demosthenes, a man of such rigid and delicate sentiments of virtue and honour, thought it not below him to acquire an estate by commerce: wholesale trade, he said, depended chiefly upon the mind, whereas trade in retail gave only employment to the hands. As all the acts of the mind are noble, the laws, which have neglected the distinction and illustration of trade in retail, for certain moral reasons, have honoured and distinguished wholesale trade.

* Plutarch's life of Cato; he lived 196 years before Christ.

As a proof that commerce had nothing in it base and derogatory among the Romans, the emperor Pertinax exercised it the greatest part of his life, and even after he was emperor. Caracalla*, in the cruel massacre he caused to be made at Alexandria, had great regard to the body of merchants, who were very numerous in that city: in giving orders to all foreigners to remove from it, he excepted the merchants, and allowed them to stay there at liberty. Alexander Severus, from a view to make trade flourish in Rome, and to bring in merchants thither, granted them large immunities. Maximinus himself carried on trade with the Goths, &c.

* History of the Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients, by M. Huet, cap. 57. no. 9, 11, 12, and 13.

We have given occasionally a multitude of other examples, throughout the course of this work, which shew us that great men have thought it no disparagement to them to acquire great estates by trading: such examples are common among the Greeks and Romans; these people had as delicate notions of honour as we. The Venetians, in order to train up the sons of their nobility in the knowledge of the navy, oblige the merchant ships that sail into foreign countries to take always two of them, whom the captain is obliged to maintain at his table, without being bound to any work, but only to take notice how the ship is wrought, and what observations are made by the pilots.

In fine, trade was so honourable among the Ancients, that the emperors granted it a particular protection. They honoured the cities that signalized themselves in commerce, or in building ships, or that were famous for some considerable sea-port. These cities caused their medals to be stamped either with a ship, or with a prow, or sometimes with a Neptune and his trident, or with a dolphin. Such were the medals of Tyre* and Sidon, of Byzantium, of Leucate, Chelidonium, Syracuse, &c. History of the Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients, chap. xlv. no. 15. p. 273.

* The Scripture, Ezek. xxvii. furnishes us with a glorious testimony of the riches and maritime forces of the city of Tyre, which the prophet extols, as well as her sailors, her shipping, her great trade, &c. But this might be the old Tyre; the new city far surpassed it, according to the late M. Huet, in his History of the Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients, chap. viii. no. 4. p. 33. According to Herodotus, the Tyrians came from the Lydians.

REMARKS.

How the French regard their maritime affairs.

France, as well as the Roman empire, says Monsi. Dutot, has maritime and trading towns that deserve medals, and are undoubtedly of consequence to be honoured and protected, because they have signalized themselves in trade, and by building of ships. Nay, she has some that has done more; and, though they have neither lands nor manufacture, have found a way to carry on navigation. They are accustomed to hazards; their ships have braved the dangers of the main; they have grown formidable to their neighbours, by harrassing them continually, and by weakening them to such a degree, that those enemies, in revenge of their losses, swore the destruction of one of those cities; and, for that effect, invented that formidable machine, so celebrated, which was to reduce it into ashes. What wonders have been done by the courageous inhabitants of that city, equally distinguished in it's warlike and trading capacity, in defiance to all the efforts of the enemies to the crown? Bound to some rocks, they had found a way to render it inaccessible on all sides; to build fortresses, which secure their port; in a word, to make the rocks a prodigy of art, and an eternal monument of a genius for war, matched with a genius for trade. How many excellent sea captains have been produced in that city, and some others like it, which cultivate trade! How many ships have they built and fitted out! What noble sailors! What excellent artists! How many young combatants have they trained up*! And then how much gold and silver have they brought into the kingdom! Their ships happily arriving from the South Sea in 1709, brought home gold and silver bullion to the amount of thirty millions, which was a supply to the state of so much the more importance, as those cities lent the king fifteen millions in a very pressing exigence. This is what we are told by the minister of the finances himself, in the 13th page of his Memoirs. What spoils of the enemy have those trading towns brought home, ruining the commerce of our neighbours, and securing our own! Shall the nobility then [hear the Frenchman, Britons!] most of whom live idly in their castles, be thought more serviceable to the state, more brave, more warlike, than those heroic citizens? How would the republics of Greece and Rome have heaped honours and rewards upon citizens so worthy of that name!

* I shall take leave to remark here, that several of the privateers and seamen whom the city of St. Malo made use of during the course of queen Anne's wars, were Normans. Among them who manned their ships, and distinguished themselves in fight, there were many from that province: at this day several Maloine families are natives thereof.

The maritime forces of the Romans contributed not a little to their great power. Accordingly we see in the Digests, some laws which inform us how much they applied themselves to sea affairs in certain conjunctures, even during the heat of their wars. The exemptions from all municipal charges, which they granted to the citizens to invite them to build ships and cultivate trade, are invincible proofs of their having been perfectly sensible, that maritime force and commerce were necessary to the preservation and advancement of their power.

Cardinal Richlieu, who had so extensive views for aggrandizing the state, found no way more effectual to promote the power of the king, and the riches of the nation, than to improve navigation and trade; and, indeed, there is no other that can bring us in gold and silver. That great statesman shews us very well the necessity and usefulness of a power by sea*. According to him, trade has a necessary dependance upon that maritime power.

* The Political Testament, chap. 9. sect 5. l. 6.

After having shewn the advantages which the English would have over us, if our weakness by sea should cut us off from all means of attempting any thing to their prejudice, our author cites, by way of example, the insult offered by that proud nation [observe monsieur again] to the duke of Sully, sent by Henry IV. into England, in quality of ambassador extraordinary; and he counsels Lewis XIII. to put himself in such a posture, that he may not suffer the like again. He shews all the advantages of a powerful navy; he proves the usefulness of it and of trade, by the example of the Dutch, who owe their power only to their navy and their trade. It was in the time of his ministry, that Lewis XIII. made that glorious statute of February 1, 1629; where, in order to induce the subjects to carry on sea-trade, he declared by the 452d article, That the gentlemen, who should apply themselves to that commerce in their own persons, or by substitution of others, should DEROGATE NOTHING FROM THEIR NOBILITY, &c.

It was upon these same principles that the great Colbert, that faithful minister, protected arts and manufactures. Here were at that time in France a great many factors and commissioners from foreign traders, and very few merchants. He looked

looked upon societies or companies * as the most proper means to engage the French to carry on trade by themselves: and, as among all the examples of commerce that are extant in the several parts of the world, there is none richer nor more considerable than that of the East-Indies; he discovered thereby the importance of navigation and of long voyages; he observed that those voyages not only were indications of the power of a state, but also an infallible means of introducing plenty into it. He was of opinion, therefore, that it suited with the glory of the king, and the interests of his people, to undertake that trade, which Henry IV. and Lewis XIII. could not carry to it's perfection. He determined the king to form the same design in 1664, and to spare nothing for the accomplishment of so great a work, which might be ranked among the most famous transactions of the reign of Lewis le Grand. He formed the East-India company, he protected it with all his power, assisted it with his money, and took upon himself the heaviest charges of the execution, though he would have no share in the profits of the success. You will even find in father Charlevoix, the jesuit's History of Japan, that knowing the Japanese received in their ports only Dutch ships, and would traffic neither with the Spaniards nor the Portuguese, upon account of their professing the Catholic religion, whereby they became odious to them, this minister proposed that the emperor of Japan should be told, that the king of France had a great many subjects who followed the religion of the Dutch; and that if he thought fit, the king would send ships to him manned by none but those of that religion †. This is called thinking like a minister. The project, however, did not succeed, by reason of the prejudice of the Japanese government, which is terribly apprehensive of strangers, having got intelligence of what passed in the East and West-Indies.

* This is the first step by which all maritime nations cut out their branches of foreign trade; and it is the best way for all new branches to be first established, because companies will hazard what private men will not.

† See Observations upon modern writings, Tom. X. p. 305.

In this manner did that great minister encourage traders to apply themselves to maritime commerce, and to build ships proper for long voyages. That company was not the only one he formed; he established one for the West-Indies, for the trade in the Levant, and for that in the North Seas. He laid out himself for the improvement of the old manufac-

tures, and established new ones; in fine, he gave powerful protection to trade, arts, and manufactures, which he justly considered as the most effectual means to increase the power of the king, and the riches of the kingdom. And, indeed, to say it over again, there is no other way that can bring us in gold and silver.

M. Colbert had the satisfaction to see, that his pains and endeavours were not fruitless, he left trade in a flourishing state: but after him, the face of things very much changed, commerce was ruined, and all the expences he had laid out for the establishment of the East-India company, and what were laid out since his time by his successors, who were no longer sufficient to make that trade advantageous.

Navigation, which is the soul of commerce, procures always a vast profit to the state. The building of ships, their victualling and stores, considerable articles of expence, which, being laid out within the state, furnish several inhabitants with the means of living and enriching themselves. It employs all the inhabitants of the sea-coasts, who can hardly be useful in any other way; and, for want of this navigation, are in a manner necessitated to serve in foreign countries; this is what happened, whenever we gave over sea trade. By losing them we sustain a double loss; our coasts become desolate, our navigation languishes, and that of our foreign neighbours increases at our expence. Prohibitions against SAILORS going out of the kingdom are useless: they are born only for sailing, the sea is their element; if we do not employ them that way ourselves, no prohibitions will prevent their going elsewhere to seek for employment.

But we are told, the maintenance of a powerful navy costs the state immense sums of money, which it is unable to support.

To remove this prejudice, we must shew by an accurate and well calculated detail, what was the monthly expence of the French navy in 1681, the most flourishing one that France ever had. Here is an exact summary thereof below *.

This navy, as we know, was as splendid and magnificent as it was powerful. It consisted of 115 ships, of the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth rates, of 24 small frigates, 8 fire-ships, 10 barca longas, and 22 pinks, making in all 179 ships; consisting of 7080 pieces of cannon, 1028 major officers, 7955 marine officers, 20,618 mariners, 10,904 soldiers, the whole crews being 39,477 (the 1028 major officers not included).

* The SUMMARY.

Rate of the ships.	No.	Guns.	Maj. officers.	Marine officers.	Sailors.	Soldiers.	The whole crews.	Pay per month.	Victualling per month.	Cost of the equipment per month.
1st Rate	12	1080	108	1232	4132	2486	7850	118,086l.	65,483l. 10s.	183,569l. 10s.
2d Rate	21	1518	189	1719	4470	2661	8850	142,776 10s.	74,782 10s.	217,559
3d Rate	36	1928	251	2350	6142	3008	11,500	188,329	98,105	286,434
4th Rate	26	1088	156	1167	2713	1570	5450	93,942	46,758 15s.	140,700 15s.
5th Rate	20	608	119	681	1427	682	2790	55,091	24,356	79,447
Totals	115	6222	823	7149	18,884	10,407	36,440	598,224 10s.	309,485 15s.	907,719 5s.
Small frigates	24	400	125	446	937	497	1880	42,397 15s.	16,721 5s.	59,119
Fire-ships	8	74	16	80	160		240	6064	2130	8194
Barca longas	10	43	20	90	190		280	6204	2475	8679
Pinks	22	341	44	190	447		637	14,253	5838	20,091
Totals	179	7080	1028	7955	20,618	10,904	39,477	667,143 5s.	336,650	1,003,793 5s.
Gallies	30					3010	3010	72,322 15s.	26,930	99,252 15s.
The whole navy thereof cost							42,987	739,466	363,580	1,103,046

Whose monthly pay when they were equipped, amounted to the sum of	667,143 00 00
And the victuals per month cost	336,650 00 00
Which makes the sum of	1,003,793 00 00
The 30 gallies, all of them likewise armed, whose whole crew were 5600 slaves, 2400 sailors of one class, 935 of another *, and 3010 soldiers, cost for their pay and victualling	99,252 15 00
Pay and victualling extraordinary	108,967 15 00
The expence of that whole navy armed and equipped, would therefore cost per month the sum of	1,212,013 10 00
Supposing the whole to be equipped for six months of the year, a thing which never happens every year, that formidable navy would cost	7,272,081 00 00

* Mariners de rang and mariners de rambades, names taken from the parts of the galley to which we have nothing correspondent in English.

Had all things risen in proportion to the specie in France, says our author, we might say that this expence at present would amount to 12,933,920 livres; because 7,272,081 livres of that time, are exactly equal to 12,933,920 livres of the present. But all things have not risen in proportion to the specie: the salaries or pay of the sea-officers, are much the same as they were in 1681; a seaman of the first class has no more than 15 livres per month; those of the second 13 livres 10 sols, and so of the rest. Provisions are not dearer at this day than they were. This being the case, the pay and

victualling of 39,477 men, who were in the afore said 179 ships (not including 1028 major officers) and of the 10,985 men, who were in the above-mentioned gallies, making 50,462 men, which amount, as we have seen, to 7,272,081 livres of that time, would hardly cost more at this day. The additional expence, if it can be called one, will only respect the construction and equipment of the ships and gallies, which we don't comprehend in this calculation, and which, to a mere trifle, might be made up by the saving of those years, when only a part, or at least not the whole, of that navy is armed,

armed, for the whole navy is not armed or equipped every year; when at sea, it is there for ordinary only six months of the year; or when it is not, or but a part of it, the expence is not so high; what is short of it amounts to a good deal, and at the long-run, perhaps, more than compensates the charges of the construction, rigging, and arming of those ships.

Another CALCULATION.

It is agreed among those who know what the construction and equipment of ships is, that a man of war of 60 guns, equipped and victualled for a year, pay, &c. costs 600,000 livres.

	Livres.
Now the pay and victualling for a crew of 500 men for one year, and the pay of the major officers, amount to 160,000 livres, at least they exceed 159,000 livres	160,000
This sum subtracted from the 600,000 livres above, the remainder 440,000 livres is for the construction, the equipment, guns, &c. of the ship. And the common duration of a ship is 20 years, we must therefore reckon for every year only	22,000
A ship of 60 guns, compleatly equipped in war, costs therefore per annum at most but	182,000
Consequently 100 ships of that kind would cost 18,200,000 livres per annum: but such a navy is at sea at most but six months of the year. A man of war of that kind, is able to carry provisions for 500 seamen, only five or six months at most. Now the pay and provisions of that ship for six months amount only to	80,000
The construction and rigging as above	22,000

It would therefore be only 102,000

And for 100 ships, 10,200,000 livres per ann. supposing the whole to be equipped six months of the year, which never happens every year; thus we may say, that a navy of 100 ships of 60 guns, would not cost ten millions, communibus annis, all things included; an expence not to be laid in the balance with the honour and advantage, which would accrue from thence to the nation.

In 1681, the expence of 7,272,081 livres, was not more than France was able to bear; the king, however, at that time, had only 116,873,476 livres of revenue*. He enjoys now at least 200 millions: therefore, you will say, he is better able to support that expence, than he was in 1681. That is true if we look only to the tale of pieces, which is at present more than it was then by 83,126,524 livres: but, if we consider that these livres are not the same, we shall find our error.

* See Chap. II. art. 5.

	Marks.
For the 116,873,476 livres in 1681, at 28 livres the mark of silver, made to Lewis XIV. a yearly sum of	4,174,052 $\frac{5}{7}$
And the 200 millions of livres which Lewis XV. enjoys at present, consist of livres, whereof 491. 16s. go to the mark; consequently his present majesty receives only the sum of	4,116,466

Therefore Lewis XV. receives the yearly sum of 7,865,825 livres less than Lewis XIV. received, amounting to 57,586 $\frac{5}{7}$

Lewis XV. is therefore really less rich with his larger tale of 200,000,000, than Lewis XIV. was with his smaller one of 116,000,000, though the people are not thereby more eased, abstracting from the price of commodities which has risen. This is a very plain proof, that the rise of the numerical value of money has been disadvantageous to the king and people as debtors. But this does not hinder France from being able to furnish out the expences of a powerful navy; it will be easy for her, if she has a mind, even without burdening the people with new taxes, to find 8, 10, and 12,000,000 a year, if they be necessary for the maintenance of that navy. This expence is the more necessary to France, as she never will be powerful, respected, nor feared by her neighbours, till she is mistress of the sea. All the forces she may or can have by land, will never produce the same effect. An army of 20,000 men upon that liquid plain, would procure to her more honour and profit than 200,000 men by land.

The Ancients knew, that their power and riches absolutely depended upon maritime forces. They were no less persuaded than Themistocles had been, and than Pompey was afterwards, of the truth of this great maxim, He who is master of the sea, is master of all*.

* History of the Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients, chap. xvi. No. 14. And the French Mercury, Tom. III. p. 226.

The answer given by the oracle of Delphi to the Athenians, to fortify their city with wooden walls, to defend themselves

against the invasion of Xerxes, is an advice which all conquerors have taken to themselves, and which Lewis XIV. made use of so successfully, that his power by sea was become formidable to the English, Dutch, and Spanish, as that of his grandfather was weak and contemptible; witness the affront offered by king James to the duke of Sully, which we have mentioned above.

* Notes of Amelot de la Houssaye, p. 238. of the second volume of cardinal d'Offat's Letters.

The indispensable necessity France lies under to maintain a powerful navy, is also fully confirmed by a discourse upon that subject, delivered by an old servant of the crown, quoted in the 13th tome of the French Mercury, p. 209, & seq. By the letter of cardinal d'Offat of the 16th of October 1596, to M. de Villeroy, minister and secretary of state*; by the counsel which Antony Perez gave to Henry IV. and by that which cardinal Richlieu gave to Lewis XIII. as we see it in the 9th chapter of the second part of his Political Testament, sect. 5. Now, if in order to be more powerful by land, we must be stronger by sea, and if the prince who is the master of the sea is infallibly umpire of his neighbours, there is no room for demurring: whatever expence a powerful fleet may cost, we ought to lay it out preferably to other things which are less important, since the interest and grandeur of the king, the good of his people, and the security of the state require it. France may have 100,000 seafaring people, the soldiers of the navy not included. It is her interest to employ and maintain these seamen, they are useful and valuable subjects to their country. I shall here give a particular account of all those who were through the several coasts, and in all the districts of the kingdom, according to the reviews of them which were taken by the commissaries in the month of January 1713, amounting to 92,450 men, viz.

* It is the 84th in that collection of letters published in 5 volumes in 12mo, with notes, by Amelot de la Houssaye, p. 237, & seq. of the 2d tome.

	Captains, masters	5585	
	For working the ship	3225	
	For the steerage	1577	
Sea-officers.	For the gunnery	3329	16,610
	For the carpentry	1643	
	For the caulking	721	
	For the sails	530	
	At 15 livres per month	8253	
Sailors*.	At 13 livres 10 sols	7153	
	At 12 livres	7247	41,278
	At 11 livres	5861	
	At 10 livres	12,764	
	The unexperienced seamen in all the districts		11,276
	Ship boys ditto		10,920
	Invalids ditto		12,366

Total of all the seafaring people in all the districts of the kingdom. 99,450

* They receive no more pay at this day. Provisions, or grain in general, is not dearer now than in 1681. Thus the additional expence cannot fall upon the pay and victualling, it can only respect the building and rigging of the ships.

Now the major officers, such as lieutenant-generals of naval armies, commodores, captains, lieutenants, ensigns, &c. of ships; are not included in this calculation; thus we have more than a HUNDRED THOUSAND SEAMEN, without reckoning the soldiers and the gardes marines*.

* These are gentlemen distributed through the several seaports, to be instructed at the king's expence in the knowledge of navigation, and whatever belongs to it, who serve as volunteers, out of this body the sea-officers are generally chosen. Is it not very surprising to hear people say, that the French cannot man a fleet equal to that of Great-Britain?

The land forces cost much more than this powerful navy, and they are neither capable of bringing us so much honour nor profit; they can neither make the French flag be respected nor feared so far; they are no sort of protection to our foreign trade, which is the only means of aggrandizing and enriching the state. All the forces we can have by land, will never free us from subjection to maritime powers, nor put us in a condition to humble the pride of those haughty islanders, who believe and call themselves the kings of the sea. [Observe how Britons are here treated!] This we are only to look for from a powerful navy, able to dispute that empire with them, and to oblige them to pay the first honour to the FRENCH FLAG; an honour which is due to it by a just claim, as we shall endeavour to make appear. Attend, Britons, again! Cæsar, in his Commentaries, speaks of the northern Gauls*,

* These are at this day the inhabitants of Normandy and of the Low-Countries. They have always been famous for navigation. See Thuanus's History. According to the geographical state of Normandy by Maffeville, Tom. II. p. 688. we owe to the Normans. The discovery of Guinea, found out by the inhabitants of Dieppe in 1364.

The conquest of the Canaries, by John de Bethencourt, lord de Grainville in the county of Caux, in 1420, and not in 1348, as the author of the History of Navigation alledges, Tom. I. p. 69. In 1479, the privateers of that province took from the enemy 80 ships loaded with corn and herrings. The History of Normandy by Maffeville, Tom. IV. p. 318.

The discovery of the third continent of the world, known under the name of Terra Australis, made in 1504, by Capt. Gouneville of Lisieux.

The discovery of Canada, made anno 1508, by Thomas Aubert of Dieppe.

According to Mezeray, Tom. II. p. 665 of his large History, Guillemot's edition, the people of Dieppe have always had the glory of the sea among the French; and anno 1556, with 19 ships they beat 22 Flemish, larger and better provided in artillery and fireworks, they carried several of them to Dieppe. He adds, that the Normans had more men, than the Dutch were wont to fight with cannon-shot, and the Normans with short arms and by boarding. Thuanus gives the same account of them. And it was by order of king Henry II. that they set out and attacked that fleet. Geographical State of Normandy by Maffeville, Tom. I. p. 142. According to the History of Navigation, Tom. II. p. 19. chap. IV. Nambue, a cadet, of a good family in Normandy, and captain of a king's ship, was the first of all the Europeans, who projected the design, with success, of forming a colony in the American islands, anno 1625.

And, in fine, the discovery of Louisiana, made in the year 1676 or 1680, by La Salle Cavalier of Rouen.

We might place at the head of the achievements of the Normans, their conquest of England, anno 1066, and that of the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, made anno 1070, by the lords of Houteville, of the diocese of Coutances.

as those who understood commerce and navigation, the best of any who were then known, without even excepting those of Marseilles. He highly extols the dexterity of their pilots; he glories in having transmitted to the Romans the manner of building ships, and of navigating, as practised by the northern Gauls. Vegetius has written upon their naval discipline. Sidonius speaks to the advantage of their mariners; he makes them as expert as the pilots of other nations; he says, they know how to obey, as they know how to command. At that time the English knew nothing of navigation; Cæsar says, they had only little canoes of ozier for their fisheries, and for navigating along their coasts.

It is very much to the honour of our nation, that ancient historians find there the oldest and the most expert sailors. Ought not this to put it beyond debate that the first honour is due to the French flag?

At that time, commerce was not looked upon as derogatory to the nobility; it was, on the contrary, the original and support thereof. The Gauls made no distinction in the affair of commerce and navigation; the nobles, as well as the plebeians, traded equally. The trading people, far from being excluded from offices and employments, were, on the contrary, invested with them, as having greater ability and experience than others; for, as commerce and navigation enrich persons, so they make them, also, more capable than others of MANAGING AFFAIRS, and, consequently, fitter for posts and offices*.

* Father Lamy, in his Dissertations upon the Sciences, says, There are none who reason in general with so much good sense and justness, as a merchant does with respect to the affairs of commerce. The reflections and calculations which he is continually obliged to make, accustom him to think. See our article MERCANTILE COLLEGE. And quere, Whether such a course as I have there humbly proposed, would not accomplish persons of distinction for the greatest posts of trust and honour in the state, better than the ordinary scholastic method of education? And whether being a few years conversant with real traffic, would not prove the most useful college for such men of public business?

But the wars with which the Gauls were harrassed for several ages, having too much distinguished from others those who bore arms, by their services and posts, as by the riches which they acquired by the spoils of the enemy; and these having given over commerce, to devote themselves solely to arms, commerce remained only with the populace. A distinction so rivetted by long use, that, whatever laws the kings have made to engage those whom we call the nobles, to cultivate maritime and wholesale trade, by making it compatible with the privilege of their birth, they have always preferred to an honourable commerce, a dull inactive life of IGNOMINIOUS POVERTY, despising the examples of the Ancients, of the English, the Dutch, the Genoese, &c. who, considering commerce in a quite other light than we, live in a happy plenty.

It is navigation and commerce that renders Great-Britain so rich, so powerful, and have enabled that island to counter-balance all the powers of Europe; and yet that country is not equal in extent to the half of France.

It is also navigation and commerce that makes Holland so powerful, though it's dominion extends only over seven little provinces, which produce not the twentieth part of what is necessary to the inhabitants; and yet they put to sea a prodigious number of ships, and maintain considerable armies by

land; which has made that small country, as it were, the general treasury of all the nations which their policy has found a way to unite against us; and who, without the assistance of money from Holland, would not be long of breaking their union*.

* That nation has at all times artfully improved every occasion that offered in favour of their commerce, and remarkably the interest that we had in 1678 to disunite her from her allies. This unhappy circumstance determined the king to grant her a renewal of old treaties, and to allow her to explain them as she pleased; which she joyfully accepted, and, in consequence thereof, the treaty of Nimeguen was agreed to, April 10, 1678.

After having said, in the sixth article of that treaty, that the subjects on either side should enjoy a full and intire liberty of commerce in Europe, in all the bounds of each other's dominions, the Dutch added to the former ones that we find in the seventh article: this article is of so much importance and advantage to them, that they have again extended it in the treaty of commerce made at Utrecht, April 11, 1713. This particular regard which the Dutch shew to this article, lets us see that they hold for almost nothing the rest of the treaty, provided we put in execution this article, which is as favourable to them as it is contrary to the interest of our commerce: for this article they made no scruple to withdraw from their allies at Nimeguen, and to be the first who signed the treaty of Ryswick.

By means of this article, the Dutch enjoy the fertility of our country, and all the advantages of the French subjects: they make a very advantageous use of it, to the prejudice of the natural subjects, and without contributing in any thing to the support of the state. Besides the advantages which this article procures them, they take from the king even the liberty of granting any particular favour to his own subjects, unless, at the same time, he gratifies with it the Dutch merchants: and, by the ninth article, we, in a manner, renounce the Levant trade in favour of the Dutch, who are become the masters of it. The Dutch are not ignorant, that, upon the remonstrances and complaints of the subjects, the sovereign, who owes them justice preferably to foreigners, is always in the right to make what regular tions he thinks proper for the good of the state. To conclude, this article included in the treaty of Utrecht, was limited to 25 years, and consequently it expired April 11, 1738.

Genoa, that formerly magnificent city, has but a small compass of dominion; would she ever have been in a condition to support so many wars, were it not for the riches that commerce and navigation procured her? In what vast expence has she been engaged for many ages, to resist the Venetians, and other people in Italy, to whom her prosperity gave umbrage? How many seditions at home amongst her inhabitants? How many tumults and commotions excited by those famous names of Guelphs and Gibelines? How much must all these have cost her? What vast expence has she been put to by the rebellion of Corsica for these many years past? That article alone, we are assured, amounts to upwards of 30 millions: she is still flourishing after all, and abounds with every thing: in the mean time, she has no other resource but from commerce.

There are numbers of other examples we might cite; but these I take to be sufficient to shew us, that France would reap vast advantages from commerce and navigation, if the taste for commerce could be further promoted in France*. What noble families would then be raised!

* The erection of the India company is a pretty sure means to engage the French to carry on our commerce, and to give them a taste for it; this is a blessing to the state. The maritime trade, which it carries on with success enough, sets us at liberty from the servile tribute we paid to our neighbours before it's erection, to be supplied with things we wanted: they took advantage of our supineness, to enrich themselves at our expence.

At all times, the English and Dutch have endeavoured to get us to demolish any considerable sea-ports we have had in the channel. These ports give umbrage to them, and extremely incommode their commerce. But their continual opposition is an invincible proof, that it would be beneficial to our commerce and navigation to have at least one secure retreat for our ships, towards the middle of that bay. Cardinal d'Orléans was sensible how necessary this was; for, in his 90th letter, dated December 18, 1596, he says to M. de Villeroy, to whom he writes, That it is of very great importance to us, that we have men of war in that straight. Now, we can have no ships there without a port for their retreat; I have always heard it said, that, with a little expence, we might make an excellent one at La Hogue, in Lower Normandy. This is the place in the world most proper for raising an important fortress, either for commerce or for ships. It would hold a great many of them; there they would lie in security, and sheltered from every dangerous wind, by making a mole of about 2 or 300 toises, of the great or small redoubt of Morfalines, towards the port of La Hogue, leaving, at the foot of that fort, a convenient entrance for the port, and by digging the bay which the mole would inclose.

We might even cause the port to be cleansed by the river Saire, which is but about the distance of six or seven toises from

from it, and which might easily be turned into it. That port would then be very considerable, and well situated; it has an admirable road; and all who are acquainted with the affairs of the navy, and with navigation, agree, that we ought to labour at it, and improve the advantages of that place, notwithstanding the opposition of our neighbours; for, the more they set themselves in opposition to it, the more ought we to be sensible that it tends to our advantage. We ought by no means to be afraid of them; this would be to do them too much honour: in a word, there it is we must have a port. The late marshal de Vauban was of this mind; he has, as I am told, laid down the whole plan and scheme of this work. The low jealousy of other sea-ports towns has opposed it; perhaps the interest of the state, and of commerce in general, has not been sufficiently consulted, which ought always to prevail over private motives; but private interest has always numbers of advocates, and the general interest has but few. To make peace, in order to procure to ourselves all the advantages of an extensive commerce, is to make war upon our enemies. Let us have no more to do, therefore, with those victories that are gained by ruinous means; let glory sleep and be at rest. It is in the heart of our plains that industry shall open to us easy paths to greater conquests. May propitious heaven preserve to us a prince whose wisdom measures his glory by the happiness of his people, and a worthy minister, who seconds his views with so much zeal and extensive discernment. France, superior by the advantages of her commerce, shall make neighbouring states know, that she is as capable of raising her power by peace as by war.

REMARKS ON NAVAL AFFAIRS before the last war.

We have now seen what has been urged in France*, to spirit up that notion to use every endeavour to augment their maritime prowess; and we have no little reason to fear that they will one day arrive at so great a height therein, as may give them the superior dominion over the seas, which they have so long struggled for. Our author insists, that every power ought to bow down to the French flag, and that this is a right and an homage due by all the powers upon earth to the fleets of this Grand Monarch. Many, too many, I am sensible, will laugh at this, and treat it as the mere gasconade of a Frenchman; others, who are really acquainted with the extent of the maritime commerce of the kingdom, the number of seamen they can raise for the equipment of their fleets, and the daily increase of their royal navy, by the almost constant purchase and building of ships abroad and at home, will not think so meanly as some are wont to do, who ought to know better of the naval strength of this neighbour kingdom. Before the last war, was it not sanguinely propagated by some, that the French had no trade, none that ought to give Great-Britain the least umbrage? Has not experience taught us the contrary? Some will yet say, that France has no seamen to man a fleet any thing formidable, nor any ships fit to look the British navy in the face. I am afraid these people talk without book.—Under this head we can only touch the outlines, as it were, of a matter of this concernment; we shall resume the subject hereafter, under the articles SALLORS, SEA DOMINION, and SHIPPING, where we shall endeavour to give an authentic account of the French marine, and of the whole constitution of their naval affairs, leaving others to make comparisons. The author is the last person in the kingdom who would wantonly spread groundless alarms; he has taken some pains to inform himself, not only of the commercial policy of this nation, but of the foundation now laid to raise it's maritime power to a pitch that may some time make Britain tremble, however omnipotent she may think herself by sea at present.—The consequence hereof, I cannot help owning, as a friend to the liberties of mankind, appear to me with an aspect I should not chuse to describe at present.—It is my business to state what is represented to me for facts, before the public; if the danger is at greater distance than we can presume to foresee, none will blame our vigilance, and honest zeal for the public interests, who really wish well to the trade and liberties of these kingdoms.—Do we not see the greatest part of Christendom enslaved by ecclesiastical, civil, and military tyranny? Have we not long enough experienced the refractory politics of the court of Spain? What cardinal point has the nation gained of Spain, from the treaty of Hanover to that of Aix la Chapelle, to make us any compensation for the numerous millions they have occasioned us to spend, and for the thousands and ten thousands of lives they have obliged us to sacrifice? Rather than act with cordiality and justice towards Great-Britain, in consideration of what she has as well borne from her, as done for her, are not depredations still made on our merchants? And we wish that she may not appear ready to join with the first power that may draw the sword against us, instead of doing us right in point of our trade and navigation? Glad shall we be if these apprehensions prove groundless. We, however, think it our duty not to conceal them, but modestly submit them to others.

* See Reflexions Politiques sur les Finances & Commerce de France.

Under the article BRITISH AMERICA, we have set forth the

claims and encroachments of the French in the new world.—We have experienced, by our recent accounts from North-America, that our fears on that occasion have not been chimerical; and what will be our fate in relation to the negotiations touching the adjustment of limits upon the continent, as well as in regard to our island colonies, we do not yet seem to be satisfied.—Under the articles FRANCE, FRENCH AMERICA, and divers other parts of this work, we have represented from facts indisputable, the nature and extent of the French commerce and navigation, and what strides they have actually made to universal empire: we have done the like under the chief provinces of Spain, and shewn, that, instead of doing right to the trade of these kingdoms, she is only studying to advance her own, and that she is absolutely changing her system, from a passive to active commerce, and increasing her maritime strength; all which forebodes still greater and greater evils to this nation in particular.—In regard likewise to the barrier of the Dutch, we have represented, under the article HOLLAND, how importantly necessary it is to secure, without delay, a good BARRIER to the States General.—Their marine, we well know, is far from being in a respectable condition: so that if France and Spain should unite their naval forces against us, we must stand, as it were, alone; we can have no timely and effectual aid by sea from our natural allies, and very little by land, if their barrier continues unsettled till a fresh war breaks out; their councils seem some how perplexed and distracted, by machinations that are apparent to every man who will vouchsafe to open his eyes.—In a word, we wish the affairs of a certain nation may not be so conducted as they are, with a view chiefly to throw dust in the eyes of another nation, that she may be lulled into a lethargy, or diverted from the pursuit of her own safety and preservation, till the PROPER TIME may come for the great blow to be struck, by the secret increase of a maritime force, that may prove formidable to all Europe.—Hitherto, all other means have failed them; their military alone they find will not effectually answer their restless intentions; nothing will humble the haughty islanders but a superior naval force, and that they seem determined, at all events, to have, and therefore have been, imperceptibly, at it were, augmenting the same, ever since the late peace, by purchasing English ships, building others both at home and abroad, and filling their magazines with naval stores.—These things have been doing, and are daily doing; but that we should not clearly discern their doings; that this nation should, as much as possible, be kept in ignorance of those measures, and our sight eclipsed from seeing the gradual rise of their naval power, we wish that pretended, instead of real schemes of distraction, may not have been hatched and kept alive, till they think the happy crisis is come.—We wish these conjectures may prove visionary; but is it not right rather to be upon the Qui vive than otherwise? In our negotiations since the peace, have we met with that cordiality and disposition necessary to adjust and terminate these misunderstandings between the two crowns? On the contrary, have we not just cause to suspect that they mean nothing less than to settle those points amicably? Upon the whole, Great-Britain should seem, as she is at present circumstanced, to have nothing to trust to but the increase of her naval power; and, if we take the proper measures to supply ourselves with NAVAL STORES of every kind, the money we spend on this occasion will spring from ourselves, and circulate among ourselves, and thereby our very NAVAL EXPENCES may be made instrumental to the increase of the riches of the nation, while they are augmenting it's NAVAL POWER. However paradoxical this, at first sight, may appear, it is nevertheless true: for, if our naval stores are all raised within ourselves and our plantations, will they not all spring from our own lands, and the labour of our own people? And are not the produce of our lands, and the arts and labour of our people, the great source of all our treasures? Suppose, in order to maintain the British navy in a state of superiority, requisite to encounter every danger wherewith we might be surprized, the nation was to be at an extraordinary expence of half a million a year, for ten years together; if we took no article whatever which concern our naval affairs from foreign nations, this would be half a million a year clear and absolute gain to the nation, and such a real increase of her treasures; for if our own lands were so cultivated as to produce every species of timber necessary for the occasion, as well as we have all provisions within ourselves; and if we could provide ourselves with all pitch, tar, turpentine, and hemp for cordage and sail-cloth; if we could also supply ourselves amply with iron of all kinds, proper for the purpose, and every other individual article, from the shipwright and grazier, even to the very ship chandler; would not every one interested in the supply be gainers, in proportion to the additional national expence, from the landed gentleman to the very caulker and rigger by such increase of naval strength? And, while the nation actually possessed an increase in her quantity of shipping, equivalent to the additional expence incurred, we do not see how the nation could be any greater loser by such extra-expence, than what may be allowed for wear and tear, &c. because the

the whole is the additional produce of our lands, our own labour, and our own arts.

If, indeed, by our contracts for naval stores, the nation is imposed upon, and made to pay 50, or cent. per cent. more for them than they are intrinsically worth; in such case, the loss to the nation is so much more than the article of mere wear and tear, as the nation is actually defrauded of.—Now, if this be the true state of the matter, we have no reason to apprehend that such an additional expence incurred, and paid within the year, could ever prove injurious to the nation, unless the taxes for that purpose were so laid, as to prove a clog and incumbrance upon our trade; for if thereby the price of our labour, arts, and manufactures, was increased in proportion to the yearly incurred national expence, then the nation might lose in the vent of it's commodities at foreign markets, more than it gained by the augmentation of it's royal navy.—This, among numerous other reasons given throughout our work, should seem to shew, that the present constitution of the public revenue is as little calculated to promote the increase of our naval, as of our commercial power; and, therefore, that it may one day become necessary to think of so gradually changing the present system of the revenue, that it's necessary plight and condition may ever go hand-in-hand with the advancement of our trading interest, as well as the increase and splendor of our royal marine.—This is what all wise and honest men, who are true friends to their country, wish to see happily accomplished; and this is one great point that we shall most sincerely endeavour to promote, with due submission to the judgment of the public.

Certain it is, that the surprizing success of the French in navigation (to which, but in our fathers days, they were almost absolute strangers) is, in our opinion, principally owing to the excellent laws and ordinances which have been established, within little more than half this century, in that kingdom, for the regulation of all maritime affairs; in which their summary and easy method of proceeding has been found to be very beneficial to all that have had occasion to be concerned in it: for the government finding that the only means to have a powerful navy, was to encourage trade and navigation amongst private persons, nothing was omitted that could, in any manner, tend to the advancement of commerce.

And, indeed, if we consider the prodigious increase of the naval strength of France within these 70 years last past, we are obliged to acknowledge, that they have been very industrious in promoting trade; and if, likewise, we examine the measures they have used, we shall find them to be such as seldom, if ever, missed of the desired success, because particular care has been taken to remove every impediment that might obstruct the progress and improvement of their navigation, and the good execution of whatever ordinances they made for that purpose.

We can hardly suppose that any man of sense can take amiss what we say here to the advantage of the naval laws and constitutions of France, as if we hereby seemed to have less respect than we ought to have for those of England. Though the French be enemies to us, we should not be so much enemies to ourselves, as to reject the use of good laws, merely because they are in force amongst them, or have been devised by them. Whatever our practice may be, I can assure you, that they are nevertheless taken with good laws that are enacted in bad governments; and they have, in their affairs of trade, consulted all the laws and statutes in force in every part of Europe, and, by retrenching what therein was superfluous or inconvenient, and supplying what was deficient, with proper regulations for every subject, they have certainly compiled the most complete system of laws for trade and navigation that ever Europe saw. Nor would it in the least derogate from our honour to follow their example in many things worthy of imitation, since all the world acknowledges the reasonableness of that useful maxim,

Fas est & ab hoste doceri.

The French are now so thoroughly convinced of the folly of their forefathers, in despising and neglecting commerce, that, at the beginning of queen Anne's war, an edict was published, tolerating gentlemen to trade by wholesale, either in the mercantile, or any other way, which, 'till then, was never heard of in France: on the contrary, if a gentleman only married a merchant's daughter, he derogated from his quality, of which they were so ridiculously jealous, that neither merit nor money could induce them to marry below their own condition: but, by the above-mentioned edict, traffic is made consistent with nobility; which has had as successful effects as that nation could desire.

Nor is there, at present, a shorter way for a man to make his fortunes in France, than by projecting any thing that may tend to the benefit of commerce. The famous Colbert was indeed raised to the post of sur-intendant of the finances, by the character that cardinal Mazarine gives of his extraordinary talents for that employment; but his capacity in advancing the interest of the kingdom, by the improvement of commerce and navigation, rendered him a man so necessary at court, that the king neither undertook, nor suffered others

to undertake, any thing considerable of that nature, without his advice and approbation. He was the principal contriver of the excellent regulations for exchange and commerce in France: and, in a word, being acknowledged by all to be a competent judge of all such matters, a perfect deference was ever had to his opinion about every thing that had any relation to trade.

However, that accomplished minister being sensible, that (considering the other great affairs of state, with which the manifold dignities he deservedly possessed at court necessarily obliged him to be taken up) he could not apply himself so much as he desired to the improvement of the national traffic, which was his darling study; yet he so highly encouraged the industry of other fit persons, and so favourably received every proposition made for it's advancement, that the hopes of preferment setting people's brains a working, the naval and mercantile polity of France was soon reduced into such a system, that could not fail to render it flourishing and prosperous almost all the world over.

Amongst other methods that have been taken for the prosperity of navigation, and the increase of navigators, schools are erected in several places of the kingdom, in which all persons that will repair thither, are taught the theoretical part of sailing, and all things belonging thereto, by the most accomplished mathematicians that the kingdom can afford, who have very HANDSOME SALARIES FROM THE GOVERNMENT FOR THAT SERVICE, which they must perform gratis to all that desire to be instructed: and, what is more, so very desirous are they of providing themselves with able and skilful seamen, that, upon the humble request of any young man desirous to learn navigation, and wanting means to subsist without some other business, during the time that must be employed in that study, A COMPETENT SUBSISTENCE IS ALLOWED HIM BY THE GOVERNMENT; so that instead of paying for the knowledge he acquires in such a useful art, by which he procures a certain livelihood for his life-time, he is paid for his trouble in learning a profession which may easily enable him to subsist handsomely, and frequently to make his fortune. Thence it is that France is very well provided with a great number of able and sufficient PILOTS, GUNNERS, MASTERS, &c. and all other sea officers, both for the service of the king and the merchants; and whether we consider the strength of the French navy, the number of their merchant ships and mariners, or the state of their foreign plantations, the extraordinary effects of the means they have used to encourage navigation will be obvious.

Upon the whole; from an impartial survey of the commercial and naval affairs of this kingdom, one of the greatest causes to which we may justly attribute all the advantages of the French in trade, is the wisdom of their mercantile and naval laws; whereby all persons have been encouraged to engage their money in trade, and so have extraordinarily improved both their own and the public treasure.

REMARKS ON NAVAL AFFAIRS since the last WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By our successes during the last war, and the new acquisitions obtained by the peace, both from France and Spain on the American continent, and likewise of the NEUTRAL ISLANDS, that are annexed to the crown of these kingdoms; we may rationally enough hope for an increase of our mercantile shipping, by the general increase of our North American commerce, as well as that of the islands of the GRENADOES, ST. VINCENT, TOBAGO, and DOMINICA: and whether that of France may not decrease in proportion as our trade and navigation shall augment, in consequence of the losses they have sustained in America, is a matter that nearly concerns us. For if it does not, and France shall keep up and preserve the same degree of general trade and mercantile navigation, and thereby uphold as great a degree of royal naval power as they possessed before the last war, we have obtained no advantage over them; on the contrary, by entailing on ourselves, so great an increase of PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES as the last war has cost us, we have so loaded and encumbered our whole commerce, while that of France has not been so to the like degree; though it is to be feared, the GREATER CHEAPNESS OF FRENCH COMMODITIES, and the GREATER DEARNESS OF ENGLISH ONES, will enable France to increase their foreign trade in proportion as ours shall diminish.

To prevent which effectually, it is to be wished that our rulers will embrace every possible measure that can be suggested to give IMMEDIATE RELIEF to our trade, by exonerating the same from as much of the burthen of taxes, as can be devised, and found practicable. For if that is not done, and without delay too, France will soon gain more by dint of COMMERCE, than they have lost by the war; foreign nations giving those the preference in their dealings, who can afford to sell their commodities the cheapest; and the immensity of our present debts and taxes rendering English commodities so much dearer than those of France, whose expences during the last war bore no proportion to those of Great-Britain, their wares in general must necessarily be

so much cheaper compared with ours, that foreigners will not be able to purchase ours, and therefore must be obliged to have those of our commercial competitors: the consequence must inevitably prove the loss of all our trade with foreign nations; and what then will avail all our plantation improvements, be they e'er so much extended? If they are enlarged to a degree to enrich and aggrandize the continent of America, may not this in the end ruin the mother-kingdoms? Will not such riches in America, enable the Americans to manufacture every material they shall be able to produce? If they do, will not their greater cheapness of commodities be as detrimental to this nation as that of France? That this injurious effect also, may not follow from our new acquisitions, too much care cannot be taken to prevent those colonies turning to any sort of manufactures that shall at all interfere with those of Great-Britain and Ireland; every improvement that must be suffered to be made on the continent of America, must be restrained to the MATERIALS FOR MANUFACTURES, and those such only that the three kingdoms are not able to afford themselves, and that we are under the necessity of importing from foreign nations: and even with regard to this point, it must be considered, that unless we will take some proportion of the produce of foreign nations, they will cease to take any of ours, and there will be an end of our reciprocal commercial connections.—It must not be forgot neither, that if we diminish greatly in our importations of foreign commodities, our public revenue, the REVENUE OF CUSTOMS, will immediately feel the effects of it, and what will become of the PUBLIC CREDIT? And as we shall decline in our imports from foreign nations, as we may increase in them from our own American plantations, and still keep up the same DUTIES OF CUSTOMS on the one, as we have done on the other, this may prove a great discouragement to our improvements on the American continent.—These things are not suggested to intimidate us from attempting every wise improvement that can and ought to be made in America; these observations are made, with no other intent than to manifest, that the most consummate wisdom is at this time requisite in the conduct of our commercial interest, consistent with those of every other kind.

NAVAL STORES comprehend all those particulars which are made use of, not only in the royal navy, but likewise in every other kind of navigation: as timber and iron for ship-building, also pitch and tar, hemp, cordage, sail-cloth, gunpowder, ordnance, and fire-arms of every sort; also all ship-handlery wares, &c.

R E M A R K S.

The principal support of this nation, and the preservation of it's commerce and liberties, depending upon the constant respectable plight of it's mercantile, as well as royal marine, nothing can be more desirable than for the nation to be in a condition to furnish and supply itself amply and cheaply with every kind of naval stores; for, if we could once be happy enough to effectuate this, even the public by such like national debts, provided they remained in the hands of the subjects of Great-Britain, and no interest money for the same was carried out of the kingdom, could sustain no greater detriment thereby, than what arose from the weight of such interest-money lying, by way of taxation, upon our commerce.

It is well known, that we formerly received our supply of pitch and tar from Sweden: but the Swedish merchants, knowing that the best tar and pitch was made in their country, thought they had an opportunity given them to engross it to themselves, and to send it abroad in their own shipping, and sell it to their neighbours at their own prices. In order thereunto, they formed a tar-company, who engrossed the whole; and several severe laws were enacted, that no makers should sell to any but them, and that no ships, either foreign or their own, should load any but for their account, and by their order.

This monopoly gave great uneasiness to our merchants, who thought it a hardship to be debarred bringing home what pitch and tar they had occasion for in their own shipping; for losing that navigation, was putting a number of ships out of employment, and, consequently, paying our neighbours for work whilst our people were unemployed.

They made several complaints, but to no purpose, 'till the year 1703, a war being then declared with France, and, consequently, a royal navy to be fitted out.

Upon examination it was found, that there was not then pitch and tar enough for an immediate supply.

Hereupon several letters were wrote to Dr. Robinson, afterwards bishop of London, then queen Anne's envoy at the court of Sweden, upon that occasion: to which the doctor returned an answer from Warsaw, the 4th of August, 1703, to Sir Charles Hedges, then secretary of state. This letter was copied out, and given to several merchants, that they might see how much it was in the power of the king of Sweden either to forward the fitting out the royal navy of England, or to keep it in harbour.

That we may judge from FACTS what has been our case, I have transcribed the letter.

S I R,

' I just now received your honour's letter, of July the 6th, with orders that I should earnestly press the king of Sweden to give such directions about the delivery of pitch and tar, as that her majesty may know what she has to trust to therein. Upon this subject I humbly take leave to repeat what I have formerly writ your honour, that, on the 17th of March last, I transmitted to the king of Sweden her majesty's letter about this business, and sent it, with a large deduction, to count Piper; whereupon, on the 20th of March, his majesty writ to the college of commerce at Stockholm, that they should give all due assistance to the English factors employed to buy up that commodity for her majesty's service; that for ready money they should be supplied as well with what was wanting for the two former years, as what was desired for this: which letter I sent to Stockholm, where it was in due time received.

Not long after, count Piper told me, The directors of the tar trade had represented it to the king as a great grievance, that they should be obliged to deliver at Stockholm any pitch or tar for the use of the English navy, for that they could to much more advantage carry it thither, and sell it themselves.

I pressed the count very earnestly, that at least the king's letter, which was already sent, might be complied with for this year, and that, if the like was desired for the future, we should give them time for deliberation, whether they thought fit to gratify the queen therein or not.

I had hopes this fair request would not have met with any difficulty; but have lately heard from Mr. Jackson, it has been wholly rejected, and that the directors of the tar trade have declared they will export to England, and elsewhere, all their pitch and tar for their own accounts, and that her majesty's navy shall be supplied at the market-price fixed. This I take to be all her majesty has to trust to on that side; and my humble opinion is, no relief from hence can much mend the matter.

For as it can hardly be expected any new order from the king of Sweden (if procured, which is uncertain) can arrive at Stockholm 'till some time in September; so it is not sure it will then be obeyed more than hitherto, especially considering that, by that time, the transportation of pitch and tar from Finland to Stockholm will be almost over, and the directors will have to say, that they have not the quantity desired.

It would also fall into a hazardous winter voyage, and, in all human appearance, not answer her majesty's occasions; wherefore I am much in pain what resolutions to take.

To repeat her majesty's request to no purpose, and where there may be a tolerable pretence for not complying with it, seems to me to be very improper; and I humbly hope your honour will be of that mind.

Mr. Jackson writes me, in his letter of July 1, That a good sum was then offered to facilitate the matter, but he had no hope it would succeed; I also believe it will not, the count Wrede being so little inclined to contribute, in any case, to a good intelligence between England and Sweden, and none else having any authority in those matters: and, therefore, if these endeavours also fail, I cannot perceive her majesty can, with any certainty, be supplied otherwise than either by buying pitch and tar of those directors, at such a price as they will sell it at in England, or by seizing what they send, whether found by sea or in port, and taking it at a reasonable price. The king of Sweden did the same last year by lead bound for Dantzick; and our merchants there write me, they apprehend it may be so this year also.

The reclaimers, not insisting upon the advantage they might have had by carrying their lead to Dantzick, offered it at the same price the admiralty of Sweden paid for the last lead they bought; but, instead of that, were obliged to let fall one sixth, and without any composition for the bringing up and detention of their ships. Against this may be objected, That thereby the present occasion may be served, but the uncertainty become greater for the future.

To this I can only answer, That the Swedes must always, by themselves or others, ship out their pitch and tar; and we shall, therefore, hereafter be at so much certainty as now. Besides, as those directors have for many years monopolized and reserved to themselves the transportation of all pitch and tar that goes to Holland; so I judge they intend to do in regard to England also, which, if so, would fall hard both on our traders in that commodity, and on our shipping employed hitherto in a good proportion to fetch it: beside that the price in England would be what the monopolizers pleased.

These inconveniencies will, I hope, be considered, and remedied one way or other. I am also of opinion, that, if the war with Muscovy be of any long continuance, and inroads be made into Finland, as most probably will, Sweden will not have such quantities of pitch and tar to send abroad as the occasions of Europe require. Courland furnished some formerly; but, while the Swedes are masters there, none can be expected thence.

It is but very little, and not good, that Norway yields; and I suppose there is but very little certainty it can be had from Muscovy.

What difficulties there are in making and bringing it from New England, I am not acquainted with, but take it for granted, England had better give one third more from thence, than have it at such uncertainties, and in so precarious a manner, from other countries, &c.—The end of Dr. Robinson's letter to Sir Charles Hedges, secretary of state, the 4th of August, 1703.

Further REMARKS before the last WAR.

The Swedes were so fond of their new monopoly of pitch and tar, that an English ship had not been there for six or seven years: and that, when some of our merchants residing there made application to the tar company for a loading of pitch and tar upon an English bottom, offering them their own price in ready money, no interest could prevail, unless the captain would give security not to carry the said loading to London, Lisbon, or any other port where the company had a factory.

The people of England soon took the alarm; the merchants made strong application for making these commodities in our plantations, and therefore that matter was brought before the parliament, who gave encouragement for importing pitch and tar from our plantations, which soon produced very great quantities from thence; they so much increased therein, that we received twice as much as the nation could consume, and were thereby enabled to export great quantities to the Straights, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Bremen, and Hamburg.

The bounty given by the government, amounted to a large sum yearly; but what we re-exported and sold to our neighbours, made the kingdom amends for that disbursement; and it brought down the price so low, that both pitch and tar have been sold with us for one third part of the price we once paid for Swedish pitch and tar: and, if this way of supplying ourselves from our own plantations had not been fallen upon, nobody knows how high the Swedes might have raised their price upon us, besides the uncertainty of having them at any price. What was feared soon came to pass, a war in the Baltic was begun, great numbers of our ships were seized on frivolous pretences, and carried into Swedish ports, and condemned as prize, to the unspeakable damage of the merchants of this kingdom.

The lords commissioners of trade being sensible of the great advantage of supplying ourselves with pitch and tar from our own plantations, sent to the merchants to give them an account what other naval stores might be produced and brought from thence.

Their lordships were informed, that if encouragement were given, and the people put in a proper way to begin, all other sorts of naval stores, as well as pitch and tar, might be brought from thence; that the Swedes had laid a new duty on iron of near 25 per cent. and that the interruption of our trade in the Baltic had greatly distressed our iron manufactures for want of iron to carry on their business: and farther, that the Danes had raised their boards from eight or nine dollars, to eighteen dollars per hundred: that undertakings of this nature (as in the case of pitch and tar) would at least lower the prices, and lessen the imports of Danish and Swedish commodities, which then drew from us a most prodigious sum of money. And lastly, it was manifest, that unless we imported about 20,000 tons of foreign iron per ann. our manufactures could not be compleatly carried on.

For, in the two years before the war began in the Baltic, viz. 1714 and 1715 (in which years we had a free trade with Sweden) above 40,000 tons of iron were imported; and, though in the two following years above 23,000 tons was imported, yet that being short of a sufficient supply, it created terrible complaints among the manufacturers.

Now 20,000 tons of iron, at 12l. per ton, comes to 240,000l. and the boards and timber we received at their advanced price, came to 200,000l. more; and, if they found we could not otherwise be supplied, they would raise the price on us.

Besides all this, it was further urged, that the Danes and Swedes had usually the navigation of all their own boards and timber, &c. in their own shipping; which employment qualified them to breed up seamen, and consequently upon any irruption, to fit out ships for war and privateers to annoy our trade; and, if so great an advantage as bringing the said commodities from our plantations could be brought to pass, it would augment our navigation to the plantations to more than double what it then was, and not only be an additional employment to our ship-builders, and all others concerned therein, as well as to our sailors and seamen, but increase the consumption of our provisions, and other necessities for victualling and fitting out the said ships; and that as our navigation increased, that of Sweden and Denmark must of course decline, and our new supply of seamen prove a proportionate additional strength to the naval force of this kingdom, which sailors will be ready on all occasions to man out our fleets.

That in the navigation we then carried on to our plantations, it often happened that the crops of tobacco and sugar, &c. fell short, so that many of the ships were forced to come home dead freighted, and some lie a whole season for the next crop, which (if encouragement was given for bringing timber and naval stores from our plantations) would, upon such disappointments, be sure of a loading.

These accounts were received with great satisfaction by their lordships; and the merchants, to promote so good a work, waited on the ministry at the board of trade, who heard and thoroughly examined what the merchants had to offer.

After their lordships had been attended at a great many meetings, and received full satisfaction, that it would be greatly for the advantage of this nation, to be supplied with naval stores from our own plantations, and very much enlarge the exportation of our woollen and other manufactures to these plantations, a motion was made for bringing a bill into the house; which was accordingly agreed to, and passed the commons with a clause, That no person or persons within the said plantations, or any of them, shall manufacture any iron wares, of any kind whatsoever, out of any fows, pigs, or bars whatsoever, under the penalty of

one part to such person or persons as shall seize or sue for the same, to be recovered in any of his majesty's courts of record at Westminster, or court of Exchequer in Scotland, courts of admiralty, or other courts of record in the plantations, &c. the proof to lie on the possessor. By this clause, no smith in the plantations might make so much as a bolt, or spike, or nail.

This clause must, indeed, have put the colonies into a most miserable condition, the smith being above all other trades absolutely necessary for carrying on all other employments: among the rest, that of ship-building had by it been utterly destroyed, though by this article they make a great part of their returns to England for purchasing our manufactures.

And there was another clause added in the house of lords, That from and after the 25th of December 1719, no forge going by water, or other work whatsoever, shall be erected or kept up in any of the said British plantations, for the making, working, or converting any fows, pigs, or cast iron, into bar or rod iron, upon pain, that if any person from thenceforth erect or keep up, or cause to be erected or kept up, any such forge, or other work, for the use or purpose aforesaid, such person so offending, being thereof lawfully convicted in any of his majesty's courts of record at Westminster, or in the court of Exchequer in Scotland, or in the court of admiralty, or other court of record held in such plantation, where the offence shall be committed, at the pleasure of the informer, shall, for such his or her first offence, suffer six months imprisonment without bail or mainprize, and for every other such offence shall suffer six months imprisonment without bail or mainprize; and all governors or commanders in chief of the said plantations, and every of them, now and for the time being, are hereby strictly required not to suffer such forge, or other work to be erected, or kept up, in any of the said plantations within their respective governments, contrary to the true intent and meaning hereof; and, if any of the said governors or commanders in chief, shall willingly or wittingly offend or be negligent in doing his duty herein, upon complaint and proof made thereof before his majesty, his heirs and successors, or such as shall be by him or them thereunto authorized and appointed, by the oath of two or more credible witnesses, the said governor, or commander in chief, so neglecting or offending, shall be removed from his government.

This second clause must have ruined all those iron works in the colonies, to the great loss of the proprietors of them, and given the French a much fairer handle to tempt them into their settlements which join to ours, than the scarcity of iron gave them to entice away our artificers.

Which being duly considered, those persons that were solicitous for the benefit of the public, desired the bill should be dropped that session, that the members of both houses might have time fully to inform themselves of the advantages thereof. Those gentlemen who chiefly opposed this undertaking, were concerned in iron works, who, on the before-mentioned interruption of the trade with Sweden, raised their iron to an extraordinary price: they did all they could to obstruct the bill; they reported, it would hinder the exportation of wrought iron to the plantations, that it was only a trick of some stock-jobbers, and that it was carried on by some persons that had a grant from the crown of some part of Nova Scotia, &c.

All which were groundless insinuations; for there never was a design of making a stock of it, nor were any stock jobbers ever concerned in the soliciting it, much less did any person concerned whatsoever, think of a grant from the crown; neither was Nova Scotia the place intended for carrying on the aforesaid business, or thought to be proper for the said undertaking.

But, as the people of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Carolina, &c. were under great necessities for English manufactures, and an incapacity of providing commodities to pay for them, preventing the English merchants from send-

ing them those large quantities that might be a sufficient supply; and, as inevitable necessity put them upon manufacturing for themselves, therefore this NEW EMPLOYMENT OF PROVIDING NAVAL STORES, WAS PROPOSED TO TAKE THEM OFF THE MANUFACTURES THAT INTERFERED WITH OUR OWN.

At length, however, the wisdom of parliament judged it expedient to grant a bounty on pitch and tar, which we shall see hereafter.—This was but a small advance to supply ourselves with naval stores in general.

Hemp and flax are so useful in navigation and trade, that we cannot possibly do without them; the first for cordage of all sorts, the latter for making sail-cloth, as well as for the linen manufactures that are carried on in this kingdom; and the late Czar of Muscovy being sensible we must have our supply of hemp, &c. from him, did, as the Swedes by their pitch and tar, make a monopoly of it in a manner; and the Russians had their own price for it, in ready money or bills of exchange, and the rest in such goods as they thought fit.

Upon which it was urged by those who understood the public interests, (1.) That the necessity we were under for those commodities, ought to put us upon all imaginable care and study how to provide them, lest we should happen to be under the same necessity for them, that we were in the year 1703 for pitch and tar, when the government of Sweden, as observed, absolutely refused to let us have them for our ready money, otherwise than in their own shipping from their tar-company here at their own price, and only in such quantities as they thought fit. Upon that disappointment, the government, by allowing a considerable encouragement for carrying on the manufactures of pitch and tar, had sufficient quantities from our own plantations; and it is greatly to be desired, the like encouragement was given for raising hemp and flax; for since we have plantations where hemp and flax and all sorts of naval stores may be raised, with so many and so great advantages to this kingdom, it would be unaccountable to leave us dependent and at an uncertainty for them, and to be supplied only by a prince that will be paid for them just as he pleases.

(2.) That it is very well known, our land in general is too dear for raising hemp and flax, and what is grown here (though it is tough and makes strong linen) neither dresses so kindly, nor whitens so well as that which grows in warmer climates. In Russia the best hemp and flax grow in the southernmost parts of the kingdom, where the summer is hot, and the air clear, and yet the flax is not accounted so good as that which grows in Egypt or Italy.

Egypt has always been esteemed for its linen, and now supplies Leghorn with quantities, and the coast of Syria, Asia Minor, Smyrna, Constantinople, and other great cities, have a supply of hemp and flax from thence.

All our colonies (which run twelve or fourteen hundred miles in length, and all the way border upon the sea) have very hot summers, the southernmost parts of them lie near the same latitude with Egypt, and the north part much about the same with Ancona, or Bologna in Italy, where excellent hemp and flax grow, therefore we have the greatest prospect to receive mighty supplies of hemp and flax from them. Part of the land in the colonies is very rich, and of so small value, that there will be opportunity of breaking up fresh as often as there is occasion to change the ground; which, if laid down, will recover itself again without the charge of manuring, as we do here, to the very great damage of our ploughing lands. Nothing impoverishes land more than hemp and flax, and though it is manured, that alone will not do so well, for the land ought to be changed after three or four crops, and generally the finest and fattest pieces are converted to that use.

Those great conveniences of having land so very cheap, and so fine a climate, which we know produces excellent hemp and flax, so commodiously situated along the sea-coast, with such numbers of large rivers running up the country to the most inland settlements, where provisions may be raised at so small a charge, and where work may be done by the labour of slaves, almost as cheap as it is in India, give ground to hope, that we may manufacture linen here cheaper than any part of Europe can import them upon us; and the colonies be as profitable to us, by raising rough materials to carry on the linen manufacture, as the Sussex and other downs are for supplying wool for that manufacture, the profits of which we have valued ourselves so much upon, that we have set the rest of Europe to be our competitors therein.

However, a great deal of the value we set upon it proceeds from mistake, we think abundantly more of it than it really is; the foreign linen and Flanders lace, linen yarn, and naval stores imported into this kingdom, being supposed to amount to more than the exports of all our woollens. The manufacture of linen in Brittany, and other parts of France, forty years ago, was thought to be better to them than the woollen to us; for it was generally allowed we took above a million a year from them, and Portugal, Spain, and the Spanish West-Indies, twice that value, besides what other countries took.

Indeed, they have in some measure lost their trade with us; we now receive little from thence, but what comes by stealth, or under the denomination of Swiss linen through Alsatia,

their cambrics excepted, of which I have elsewhere taken notice. And now the emperor of Germany's hereditary countries, and other parts of the empire, have gained the supplying of us, which has made them very rich and powerful. Now, as the woollen manufacture, especially the coarse part, has spread itself of late into several parts of the kingdom, which has exceeded the demand, and caused great stocks to lie by, if those rough materials of hemp and flax were prepared in our plantations, the people in North-Britain and Ireland, &c. would soon find the advantage of falling upon and advancing that manufacture; the laborious and coarse part being performed abroad, the rest would invite not only the poor and necessitous, but people of better circumstances to employ their time in it.

If these propositions are heartily put in practice, we may hope, that by providing the aforesaid rough materials, we should have the delightful prospect of seeing trade flourish; for, as the silk and linen manufactures, where brought to perfection, are altogether as profitable to those nations, as the woollen now is to us; and as we increase in our linen manufactures, those of Silesia, and all the emperor's hereditary countries, from whence we take such quantities, must abate of course; their people will also resort to us, and help to carry them on; for it has always been observed, where new manufactures are set up, and take away part from another country, the manufacturers will likewise remove: this was the case of the Flemings, when queen Elizabeth gave such great encouragement to have the woollen manufacture removed hither; and ours when we had that inundation of China and India wrought silks, our weavers went to Holland, Flanders, France, &c. and several streets in Spitalfields were almost desolate; and when those silks were prohibited, the manufacturers returned again.

It has been computed, that the Russians export to England and all other parts, in hemp and flax, above the value of a million a year. If hemp and flax be so valuable a product for merchandize with them, there seems to be much greater prospect of enriching ourselves, by raising them in our plantations.

1. Because they will not be subject to any land-carriage, but shipped immediately from the place of growth.

2. Because land is much cheaper in our plantations than in the south parts of Russia.

3. The climate being equal with that in Egypt and Italy, is supposed to produce hemp and flax preferable to theirs.

Sir Josiah Child says, That in the plantations of sugar and tobacco, every white man there employs four persons at home; he means, we suppose, in providing clothes, part of their food, and all sorts of utensils for carrying on their business. If sugar and tobacco employ such a number of hands at home, certainly every person employed in the plantations in raising and dressing hemp and flax, must, by his labour there, return more than twice the advantage that can be produced by sugar and tobacco; for they are manufactured in the plantations, the refining the sugar, and cutting tobacco, with the little quantity that is rolled, excepted; whereas flax and hemp are materials for employing all idle hands, and of consequence the poor's rate will soon be abated, and the nation will find in a little time what they save yearly thereby, will be more than sufficient to encourage the people to begin that employment.

We mention part of the poor's rate, because they must be maintained by our lands, if employment is not provided for them; and abundance are thrown upon the parishes for want of work, others make that a pretext for their begging from place to place: but, where workhouses have been built, though materials for employing the poor are scarce, yet some public-spirited men have there maintained them for half the expence they were at before those workhouses were erected. [See the article POOR.]

This shews what good œconomy can do, and the happiness it is to those places, which have such gentlemen to direct and assist them. We may observe here, that together with the produce of hemp and flax, silk may be raised by the same hands, [see the article SILK,] and not interfere the one with another; for, after the sowing of hemp and flax, the mulberry-leaves come to be in perfection for feeding the silk-worms; and the silk-harvest (as it is called) is over before hemp and flax are ripe: thus the persons employed in the silk may turn their hands to that of hemp and flax, the breaking and dressing of which, may be work for them all the rest of the year. The stocks and utensils to be employed in them, will cost but a small matter. If such a public spirit prevailed now for promoting the general interest of the nation, as did in our nobility and gentry upon the first settling of our plantations, I am persuaded, that we may raise sufficient quantities of rough materials for carrying on all our home manufactures.

And, if once we come to be amply supplied with hemp and flax by the aforesaid methods, every place will be filled with flax-dressers, and the overseers of the poor of every parish, where the wool-spinning trade is not carried on, may very easily come at hemp and flax, which they will find as profitable to them, as the woollen is to the other; and the more distinct

distinct the employment is, the better, for many inconveniences have attended one manufacture interfering with another; beside, there will be an intercourse of trade created, by one part of the kingdom supplying the other with their distinct manufactures; this will give full employment to the whole kingdom, and an universal cheerfulness to every body: for the poor are never happier, nor their minds easier, than when they have full employment; and when they are employed, riches are diffused over the nation.

It has been a common opinion, that we have above a million of people in the three nations destitute of work; but, if those rough materials should come to be raised in our plantations, there need not be one idle person. Suppose that one million of people were put upon manufacturing those rough materials, and each person earned but 1 d. a day, and allowing but 300 working days in a year, it would amount to 1,250,000 l. Now, as we have already said, the importation of foreign linen, Flanders lace, and naval stores in general, amount to more than all our woollens exported; it is astonishing that so wise a nation as this, does not take care to regulate those matters effectually, and have the greatest part of those linens made in the three kingdoms. See the article LINEN. All other nations of Europe are so wise, as to make linen enough for their own use, Portugal, Spain, and what is imported into Italy, excepted; and, if the government does not take care to put those poor people into proper regulations and employments, they must continue in misery and want.

Setting up the making of pitch and tar in our plantations, was very advantageous; there was, indeed, very great encouragement given to begin that undertaking, which had it's desired end, and vast quantities of pitch and tar were imported; and it is hoped the proper encouragement will be given for every other kind of naval stores, that the Swedes and Russians, &c. may not retain so considerable a share of the importation of that commodity upon us.

Our plantations in America abound with vast quantities of timber, and the navigation from New England, Nova Scotia, or Newfoundland, is not more tedious, nor at a greater distance from us than the bottom of the Bothnic gulph, or Petersburgh: but those places have been long in trade, and having a constant demand from us for that commodity, they always have great stocks of timber ready squared, and boards lying ready to load a ship of five or six hundred tons in ten or twelve days; but hitherto we have never had stocks lying ready in our plantations, nor due encouragement for building large bulky ships, such as are used by the Danes and Swedes, who sail with a few hands, and at a small charge. What timber we have had hitherto come directly to England, has been rather put on board to fill up, when tobacco or other merchandize has not been to be had; and therefore, no care has hitherto been taken to make a regular trade, which may deserve further consideration. See the article TIMBER.

They have iron-stone all along the Continent, from the southernmost parts of Carolina, to the northernmost part of New England, in great plenty; some of it, upon trial, has made extraordinary good tough iron, and very good steel.

No part of the world abounds more with prodigious quantities of wood, nor has more rivers and streams than that part of the Continent. There is so much wood, that the great charge of the planter is to clear the ground.

And, as no one undertaking consumes so much wood as plenty of iron works, if they were erected, the land would be cleared of the wood, the air purified, the ground made fit for hemp and flax, and the best timber might be preserved for bringing home.

In charcoaling the wood, there will be a very good opportunity of drawing pitch and tar out of the pine-trees; and no wood, according to the best observation, makes better charcoal for iron works: and all this without any other charge, than providing fuel for the iron works; such a dependency have these operations one upon another.

And, as there are so many circumstances that attend the making iron in our own plantations, if due and effectual encouragement be given*, it may be brought to a very great perfection, and such quantities made, as to exceed in value any other product of our plantations.

* It is but within these few years that they have had any encouragement for the making of pig and sow iron, which is extended to pig.

Iron is a commodity of universal use, staple, and certain in all parts of the known world; consequently as much to be valued as silver or gold; a commodity that will be carried every-where as ballast, at little or no charge.

And, whereas the Dutch do supply Portugal, the Straights, and Turkey, with great quantities, if we could be so happy as to have a full supply from our own plantations, either by adventurers from hence, who would lay out their estates in erecting iron works, or in exchange for the woollen or other manufactures, which we export to those places; we should not only ballast our ships with iron, but export great quantities, not only all over the Straights and Turkey, but even

to India and Africa, and soon become masters of a good part of the trade.

And, as we were once dependent on the Swedes for pitch and tar, we must remain so still to them for iron, as we must to Norway and to them for boards and timber, and to Muscovy for hemp, unless some effectual care is taken to relieve us from such a dependency: it may one day prove highly dangerous, as it heretofore has done, to depend upon any power whatever, for any essential branch of our naval stores.

Further REMARKS on the benefits we may reap from North America, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

That our plantations are really able to furnish a sufficient quantity of hemp, flax, tar, pitch, turpentine, fir, timber, deal-boards, masts, yards, pipes, and hoghead-staves, fully to supply the whole demand of Great-Britain and Ireland, has been taken for granted by many; so as that we should suffer no scarcity, or want of those goods, though we should absolutely prohibit their importation from any other place, after they become once well established, in regard to NAVAL STORES in general.

By being able to furnish ourselves, must be understood thus; for we must not speak more for them, than our plantations do for themselves; and it is necessary to be very exact and explicit, in what we call the first principles: we would not be understood to mean, that, at present, they have hands enough to fell and cut out the quantities of timber, &c. draw and extract the tar and turpentine, split out the staves, &c. raise the hemp, and make the iron necessary for our ample supply; for that may still be a difficulty for want of hands, but that this is not invincible, see the articles PEOPLE and POOR; but we mean that the country and the woods, have a sufficient quantity of all these; that they are not to be planted, or waited for till grown; they have a boundless extent of woods, as well on the hills as on the plains, unexhausted, and, indeed, unexhaustible; which are sufficient for all our demands, and much more.

Likewise we do not say or insist, that they do now produce or plant a sufficient quantity of hemp and flax to supply our demand; but that they have land enough, sufficient in strength of soil, and sufficient in quantity, and which, by cutting down the woods, would daily increase: this we think is undoubted.

The countries where this supply of timber and naval stores would be produced, are, in a word, the whole English part of the continent of North America, viz. New England, New York, East and West Jersey, Pennsylvania, and all the country, whether possessed or no, upon the great river of Delawar, as far as that river is navigable.

All the colonies of Virginia and Maryland, to the bottom of the bay of Chesapeake, all the colonies of North and South Carolina, and all the rivers thereof; in which last colony alone, they tell us, there is as much fir timber growing, as in all the kingdom of Norway.

Likewise it is to be added, that, mutatis mutandis, the coin and value of payment considered, they will be able to furnish all these things as cheap as the east country and Norway trade does furnish them.

These things granted, the proposal for amply supplying ourselves with naval stores, has been reduced to a narrow compass; for it has been urged, that all the difference then between England (the market) and our colonies, the producers of these goods, lies in the price of the freight, occasioned by the distance of the place, and length of the voyage; how to bring this to a par, is the whole of the enquiry: and this is to be done by the several methods following.

N. B. Bounties and payments of dead money to the importer for encouragement, has been rejected by some, as being a mere charge upon the nation, though not upon the particular buyer of the goods, and is not by any means to be called a lessening the disparity, only it removes the burthen from private hands to the public, which is not sufficient; and should it extend to all the importations, would be a burden too heavy to bear, even for the whole nation.

The only weight, therefore, we would lay, say the proposers, on the public, and even that but for a while, is to take off the duties entirely from all those species of goods (not to repeat them) and prohibit the importation from other places; and not this last part neither, till the colonies were fully entered into the trade.

Then for the freight; we are to suppose, that the freight of all these articles, from the east and north seas, stands now at a medium of forty to fifty shillings per ton, call it more or less: and suppose the freight of the same goods from the colonies should then stand at a medium of six to eight pounds per ton, so that the freight would be three times as much one way as the other: it is true, this is a very considerable article, and especially considering them likewise to be all bulky goods. But two articles will immediately contribute towards, if not be a full equivalent to, this excess of freight.

First, Taking off the duty upon importation here, which being very high, suppose it for argument sake to be 20 per cent.

may fairly be calculated at one half of the difference, and must be found by the importer in the price of his goods at market.

Secondly, Laying an impost, suppose it to be about ten per cent. upon all the importations of English goods into those colonies, and this, we conceive, will be equal to the other half: the money so raised to be paid to the commanders of the ships, in such proportions as shall be adjudged by the public, and upon so much tonnage only, as is laden upon them of such particular goods.

The colonies will never complain of such a duty, because it is in a manner paid to themselves, and is but taking the money out of one pocket, and putting it into the other; the growth of their country will be exported (indeed the waste growth, for they burn a great part,) their own people will be employed, and will be prodigiously increased, and these two are of the last importance to them; that give them but an assurance of these, they may give you assurance, that in a few years they will be the greatest, and most prosperous colonies in the world.

I acknowledge, I despise (with the utmost contempt of their ignorance) the suggestions of those times, when this glorious scheme of New England's prosperity was laid aside some years ago, from a pretended jealousy of those colonies growing too powerful, and making themselves independent; insinuating, because they were independent in a religious profession, they wanted to be so in government; whereas first, the very thought, besides a worse principle it began in, viz. of party malice, was to the last degree weak and foolish; since it is evident, the prosperity, and, indeed, the very being and subsistence of New England in matters of trade, consists in, and depends wholly upon their union with, and subjection to Great-Britain, as the principal growth of their country, which is the only article that supports their commerce, is taken off but by the English, and the same of the rest: for example,

The provisions of North America are the mere growth of the country, such as flour or meal in barrels, pease, malt, rice, and tobacco; beef and pork, pickled and barrelled; sheep and horses alive; beer in casks and in bottles; white fish salted and dried, and salmon barrelled; besides lumber, for building and repairing as well houses as ships, and ships and sloops ready built and finished.

These all are the product of the country, and the labour of the people in the colonies of New England, New York, the two Jerseys, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Carolina; without this export, those colonies would perish. It is true, the islands would starve for want of the provisions too, at least at first: but, on the Continent, if the islands did not take off their product, the lands, which they have been at a vast expence to cure, and clear, and plant, would lie useless and uncultivated; the swine, which the woods feed for them by thousands, would over-run them with their multitude, and be worse to them, in time, than the bears and the wolves; their plantations would produce more of every thing than their mouths could devour, or than they could find markets to vend them at; their timber would stand, indeed, where it was, for no body would fell it to have it, and they may set their woods on fire, as they did formerly, to clear the land of them.

In a word, this being their case, their interest ties them to England, though their duty should not; and, to separate from England, would be to be undone.

Then carry the same argument on to the purposed commerce, for timber, naval stores, &c. this would still bind them the faster to their dependence on England, for no nation in Europe could give them the same encouragement. We need not enlarge upon this article here, it is evident to all that understand trade.

Let us then return to the proposal: having thus stated the equivalent, by which the government may be reimbursed what they shall be out of pocket for the complete trial, it remains only to give a brief account of the advantages of such a commerce: take them in a few short heads.

I. Instead of the trade for deals and timber, tar, masts, &c. which we carry on now with Norway, almost all for ready money, and which carries out more silver in specie, nay, in our very coin, crowns and half-crowns, than the East-India company itself, however little notice has been taken of it: we say, instead of this disadvantageous trade, we should then receive all the same goods in exchange for our own manufactures, and they would be purchased of, and produced by the labour of our own people, the industrious planters, subjects to the government of his majesty of Great-Britain.

II. Instead of having at least two-thirds of these goods brought over in foreign bottoms, Danes and Swedes, and the ships navigated by foreign seamen, to whom we pay dead freight in the like ready money, and which they carry away in specie, as before intimated, it would be wholly brought to us in our own ships, New England built, and navigated wholly by our own seamen.

III. Instead of a very few English ships, which now use the Norway trade, this new commerce would at least employ a thousand sail of ships every year, and all the year, and most

of them ships of burden: so that, besides the benefit of building, repairing, and fitting out so many ships, it would be a new nursery of seamen to us, having always 15 to 20,000 seamen employed therein.

IV. The colonies would be increased in people beyond expressing; and, consequently, not only the consumption of provisions would be increased there, which is, as said before, the grand fund of their prosperity, but the consumption of manufactures, and all European exportations to them, would be increased in proportion.

By the calculations which have been made, it is supposed that not less than 100,000 men would be employed in the woods, in cutting and felling timber, deals, masts, yards, &c. in the managing and planting of hemp and flax; in the extracting and drawing off the tar; and in preparing all the articles mentioned, to be fetched from thence on account of this trade; and besides the building ships among them, an article so considerable, as well deserves to be handled by itself.

V. It would effectually furnish those colonies with returns for England, which they are now greatly distressed for, in order to pay the balance of their trade with England; the quantity of our manufactures which they take off, infinitely exceeds what they have of their own growth to send us in return: whereas, in case of such a trade for the produce of their country, they would be at about a par with us, and we should always be able to call for as much goods from them as would pay ourselves.

VI. By this means they would receive silver in great quantities from Jamaica, and the other islands, for all that trade would be clear gain to them; and that silver also would remain with them, which now it cannot do, the bulk of it being snatched up for returns to England in specie, though it be sometimes to their great disadvantage; so that, in consequence of this commerce, there would be a circulation of current money in the colonies on the Continent, a thing they have too long been strangers to.

It would take up a volume by itself to lay open all the glorious schemes of improvement in trade which would be the consequence of such a business, and particularly THE INCREASE OF OUR MANUFACTURES HERE, BY THE DEMAND OF GOODS FROM THENCE, WHEN THE NUMBERS OF PEOPLE IN THOSE COLONIES SHOULD BE THUS INCREASED: let any one calculate that is able to judge of these things by what it is already, what it must necessarily be on an increase of people: let them compute the exportations to the colonies on the continent at present; let them consider those exportations to be as they really are, one intire improvement, derived from mere nothing, or next to nothing, in the LAST HUNDRED YEARS, for then it was all an embryo, and some of them were not in being as to trade, viz. New York and the Jerseys, conquered but in 1666 from the Dutch, Pennsylvania not above 70 years growth, Carolina and Georgia less.

Let them tell us, or but guess at for us, what a glorious trade to England it would be to have those colonies increased with A MILLION OF PEOPLE, TO BE CLOATHED, FURNISHED, AND SUPPLIED WITH ALL THEIR NEEDFUL THINGS, food excepted, only from us; and tied down for ever to us, by that immortal, indissoluble band of trade, their interest, which wisely regulated, need never injure, but unspeakably benefit that of the mother-kingdom.

Let them consider, that all those people must fetch from Great-Britain only, their cloaths, woollen, linen, cotton, and silk; all their haberdashery; all their manufactures of hard ware, wrought iron; brass, &c. all their heavy ware, such as cast iron and brass, guns, mortars, shot, shells, pots, cauldrons, bells, battery, &c. all their clock-work, watch-work, even so much as their toys and trinkets; all their house-furniture, kitchen-furniture, glass-ware, upholstery-ware, tin-ware; in a word, almost every thing we make, and every thing we import: it would be endless to repeat it.

How preposterous must those notions be, and how oddly must they think, if they can be said to think at all, who suggest mischief from the increase of our colonies! Do any other nations act thus? Do even the Spaniards think their empires of Mexico and Peru, Chili and St. Martha, too many and too great, though a hundred times as large as those we are naming, and though they drain even Spain itself of people? Were the French jealous of the number of their people in the vast countries of Canada and Louisiana before they lost them? Did they not, and do they not study, by all means possible, to increase them, and to extend their plantations? See the articles BRITISH AMERICA and FRENCH AMERICA. Might we not with wise management have people enough to spare? Do we not increase till we are ready to eat up one another, we mean in trade? And can we not spare enough of the unprofitable part of our people, those who are rather said to starve among us than to live? who, if they were well settled there, would be industrious, thrive, and grow rich; and it is by the industrious that trade is supported, and wealth increased.

Let us no more amuse ourselves, and raise the vapours with our phlegmatic thoughts about every little German incroachment on our manufactures, and the prohibitions of a few petty princes in the North: here we can raise a consumption

N A V

of our manufactures, superior to all the obstruction they can give us; here our manufactures will never be prohibited; here the demand for ever will be increasing with the people; it is like a mill built by the lord of the manor, it grinds for all his tenants, and is kept going by his own stream; so that on one hand, it can never want work, and, on the other, can never want water.

We have no room to say more, though we scarce know when to leave off. We will conclude with observing, in a few words, that here is the greatest opening for a very great advancement of our trade, and the easiest to put in practice, that ever was proposed, or perhaps can be proposed to this nation; and, till we enter heartily and vigorously into it, in its full latitude, we ought never to complain of the decay of our trade, or of the want of a vent for our manufactures.

As the increase of commerce and people in our colonies is, in consequence of our property in them, an increase and improvement of our trade in England, and, in particular, an increase of the consumption of our manufactures; so it is a natural inference, and evident to demonstration, that an increase of colonies must have the same effect, PROVIDED, I MEAN, THAT OUR COLONIES ARE DULY REGULATED IN SUBSERVIENCY TO THEIR MOTHER-KINGDOM, BUT NOT OTHERWISE.

We may, therefore, lay it down as a fundamental maxim, that additional colonies, where the people may plant and settle to their advantage, is a visible improvement to our national trade.

Employment of our people, or, as we call them, our poor, is the great support of our VERY BEING AS A NATION; without it, the poor will eat us up, the parish-rates will devour not the produce of our land only, but the land itself; and the church-wardens will call upon you for 20s. in the pound for your beggars.

This employing of the poor is the effect of OUR MANUFACTURES; but, as our manufactures employ the poor, so trade carries off THE MANUFACTURES, or else they would soon over-run the consumption, and come to a full stop: THE MANUFACTURES SUPPORT THE POOR, FOREIGN COMMERCE SUPPORTS THE MANUFACTURES, AND PLANTING COLONIES SUPPORTS THE COMMERCE.

Here you dispose of your increasing numbers of poor; they go there poor, and come back rich; there they plant, trade, thrive, and increase, even your transported felons, sent to Virginia instead of Tyburn; thousands of them, if we are not misinformed, have, by turning their hands to industry and improvement, and, which is best of all, to honesty, become rich substantial planters and merchants; settled large families, and been famous in the country; nay, we have seen many of them made magistrates, officers of militia, captains of good ships, and masters of good estates.

This way, therefore, we may dispose of the growing numbers of our poor to an inexpressible advantage, as well to a public as a private one: it is a private advantage, as it is really a benefit to the poor that go freely and voluntarily. We would not be thought to insinuate the transportation of the poor; that would be sending them away because they are poor; but those who being destitute of employment here, that are willing to seek it abroad, would have a visible advantage, and would soon give encouragement to others to follow them, and thousands of such families would raise themselves there by their industry, and grow rich; for, WHERE WAGES ARE HIGH, AND PROVISIONS LOW, as is the case there, the labourer must be idle, or extravagant, or thrive, and grow rich; and the consequence of the diligent labouring man there is always this, that, from a MEER LABOURER, HE BECOMES A PLANTER, and settles his family upon the land he gains, and so grows rich of course.

The advantage of the public we have spoken of, though but briefly: we shall only add here, that, besides the increase of commerce and people, it necessarily makes an increase of seamen; all this growing commerce, to and from our colonies, must be carried on by sea; all the commerce they can have there, one colony with another, must be the same: the first by large ships of force, the last by sloops, ketches, and small ships. The increase of the people increases the trade; the increase of the trade increases the number of ships, and the increase of ships calls for an increase of seamen: thus your strength, as well as wealth, grows with your colonies, the climax is very agreeable in prospect.

Whence that the advancement of our established colonies, and settlement of new ones must prove highly beneficial; which is, without question, extending the commerce; it is enlarging the field of action; it calls in more hands to assist in the public prosperity; it employs profitably the unprofitable numbers of your poor, and lays a foundation of more extended trade, INDEPENDENT OF ALL OTHER NATIONS; WHICH IS NOW BECOME A PRINCIPLE OF POLICY TO BE THE MORE STEADILY PURSUED, AS OTHER NATIONS ARE DAILY ATTEMPTING TO INJURE OUR TRADE, BY SETTING UP ARTS AND MANUFACTURES FOR THEMSELVES, AND PROHIBITING THE IMPORTATION OF OURS.

N A V

The PREMIUMS, or BOUNTY, that have been granted by parliament on NAVAL STORES imported.

I. From the British plantations in America.

By 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 10. §. 1, 8. first granted from 1 Jan. 1705; to 1 Jan. 1714.

By 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 1. thence continued to 1 Jan. 1725.

By 8 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 1. hence only further continued to 1 Jan. 1741:

2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 3, 18. granted from 29 September 1729, to 29 September 1742.

13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1. thence continued (as to masts, yards, and bowsprits, tar, pitch, and turpentine) to 25 December 1750; and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament.

During the aforesaid terms of years, the several sorts of naval stores hereafter mentioned, imported directly from any of the British plantations in America, in any ship that may lawfully trade, manned as by law is required, are to enjoy the following bounty, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Hemp, water-rotted, bright and clean, the ton containing 20 hundred weight	6	0	0
Masts, yards, and bowsprits; the ton, allowing 40 feet to each ton, girt-measure, according to the customary way of measuring round bodies	1	0	0
Clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of dross or water, and fit in every respect for making of cordage, the ton, containing 8 barrels, and each barrel to gauge 31 ½ gallons, to be well hooped and fitted up	2	4	0
Tar, Clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of dross or water, and fit in every respect for making of cordage, made from trees prepared according to the directions hereafter mentioned, the ton, containing 8 barrels, and each barrel to gauge 31 ½ gallons, to be well hooped and fitted up on the exportation thereof	4	0	0
Pitch, clean, good, merchantable, and well conditioned, not mixed with dirt or dross, the ton, containing 20 gross hundreds nett pitch, to be brought in 8 barrels of equal size	1	0	0
Turpentine, clean, good, and merchantable, clear of dross and water, the ton, containing 20 gross hundreds nett turpentine, to be brought in 8 barrels of equal size.	1	10	0

Which premiums are to be paid by the commissioners of the navy, by bills to be made out for the same, and delivered to the importers within 20 days after the discharge, or unloading of the ship, in order to be paid in course, upon certificates of the respective chief officers of the customs where imported; to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and seals of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or collector of his majesty's customs, and naval officers, or any two of them, residing within any of his majesty's said plantations, testifying, that, before the departure of the ship, the person lading the same had made oath before them, That the said stores were truly and bona fide, of the growth and produce of his majesty's said plantations; and, with respect to the high bounty on tar, expressing, That it has appeared to them, the persons so certifying, by the oath of the owner, or maker of the tar, which certificate was granted, that the tar therein mentioned was made from green trees prepared for that purpose, after the following manner: that is to say, that, when such trees were fit to bark, the bark thereof was stripped eight feet, or thereabouts, up from the root of each tree, a slip of the bark of about four inches in breadth having been left on one side of each tree; and that each tree, after having been so barked, had stood during one year at the least, and was not before cut down for the making of tar; and that the said tar was made without mixture of any other tar therewith: as likewise, upon oath to be made by the master of the ship, at the port of importation in Great-Britain, That the same were shipped within some of his majesty's plantations in America, and that he knows, or believes, that the said stores were the produce of the said plantations. 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 10. §. 1, 2. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 2. 8 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 1, 4. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 4, 12.

But the aforesaid certificates of the chief officers of the customs are not to be made out for the premiums on pitch, until the same be freed from dirt or dross; nor for any tar that is not fitting to be used for making of cordage, and shall not be freed from dross and water; and unless such pitch and tar be clean, good, merchantable, and well conditioned. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 16. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.

And the said officers of the customs, before they make out such certificates, are to examine the pitch, by opening the heads of the barrels, sawing of the staves in the middle, and breaking

ing the barrels, or by such other means as they shall think proper, to discover whether the said pitch is good and merchantable, not mixed with dirt or dross; and also to examine and search the said tar, to discover whether the same is clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, and clear of dross or water, and fit for making of cordage. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 17. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.

II. From North Britain, or Scotland.

By 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 2. first granted from September 1713, to 1 January 1725.

By 8 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 1. hemp only further continued to 1 January 1741.

By 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 13. granted from 29 September 1729, to 29 September 1742.

By 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1. thence continued (as to masts, yards, and bowsprits) to 25 December 1750, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament.

During the aforesaid terms of years, the naval stores hereafter mentioned, imported from North Britain into South Britain, in any ship built in Great-Britain, are to enjoy the following bounty, viz.

Hemp, water rotted, bright and clean, the ton containing 20 hundred weight	1. s. d.
Trees of 12 inches diameter and upwards, fit for masts, yards, or bowsprits, regularly converted, and turned at least into eight squares, sound, fresh, and in good and merchantable condition, the ton, allowing 40 feet to each ton, girt measure, according to the customary way of measuring round bodies	6 0 0
	1 0 0

Which premiums are to be paid by the commissioners of the navy, by bills to be made out for the same, and delivered to the importers within twenty days after the discharge or unlading of the ship, in order to be paid in course; upon certificates of the respective chief officers of the customs where imported; to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and seals of the comptroller and collector of the customs, and the naval officer, or any two of them, residing at the port or ports of exportation in North Britain, testifying, That before the departure of the ship, the persons concerned or employed in cutting down the aforesaid trees, or any two of them, had made affidavit in writing, before such comptroller and collector, and naval officer, or any of them, that such trees were truly and bonâ fide, of the growth and produce of North Britain; and specifying in the said affidavit, the particular number, quantity, and quality of the trees, together with the time when they were cut down, the names of the proprietors, and the places where the same did grow; as likewise, upon oath to be made by the master of the ship, at the port of importation in South Britain, that the same were truly laden in North Britain, and that he knows or believes, that the said trees were of the growth of North Britain. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 2. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 13. Persons counterfeiting, or making false affidavits, or certificates, of the growth of the trees or hemp, in order to obtain the premium, are to suffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury, and to forfeit 100l. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 4. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 14.

Comptrollers, collectors, or naval officers, making false certificates, are to forfeit their office and 50l. to be imprisoned a year without bail, to suffer such corporal punishment as the court of Exchequer shall think fit, and to be incapable of serving again in the customs. 13 & 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 8. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 4. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 14. Masters or owners of ships knowingly importing foreign trees fit for masts, &c. as of the product of North Britain, in order to obtain the bounty, are to forfeit 100l. together with the ship and furniture. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 5. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 15.

From the British plantations and Scotland.

Upon the landing of the aforesaid stores and trees, the pre-emption or refusal must be offered and tendered to the commissioners of the navy; and, if within twenty days after such tender, they shall not contract for the same, the importers may otherwise dispose of them. 3 & 4 Ann. cap. 10. §. 4. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 3. 8 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 3. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 6, 13.

No fee, gratuity, or reward, may be demanded or taken by the officers of the customs, for the examining, viewing, or delivering any of the aforesaid naval stores, or for making or signing certificates, in order to receive the premium; upon forfeiture of office and 100l. and to be rendered incapable of serving his majesty. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 18. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.

And, if any of the aforesaid naval stores (except hemp) or trees, shall be again exported, the exporter must, before entry thereof, produce to the collector, &c. of the customs, at the port of exportation, a receipt from the treasurer of the navy, or his cashier, subscribed by his comptroller, or his

chief clerk, signifying that the full amount of the aforesaid premium had been repaid to him; on failure whereof, such stores may not be exported: and, if such stores are fraudulently exported without repayment of the premium, they are forfeited, and double the value. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 7, 9, 16.

And if, upon the exportation of the aforesaid stores, doubts shall arise concerning the growth, product, or manufacture, the onus probandi shall lie on the owner or claimer thereof, 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 10, 16.

By an act of the 24th of Geo. II. entitled, An act to continue several laws therein mentioned, &c. there is the following clause for continuing the like encouragement on the importation of naval stores, from the year 1750 to 1757. This act is further continued to 1764.

During the late war, an act passed in the year 1745, to allow the purchase for his majesty's use, of naval stores brought into this kingdom on board neutral ships, by any of his majesty's ships, and to allow such stores to be landed and entered during the continuance of the wars with France and Spain, or either of them. See the end of this letter N, for the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS, &c.

NAVARRRE, is a kingdom in Spain, divided from France on the north by the Pyrenees, which also cut it into two parts, distinguished into Upper and Lower; the former, much the larger, and on the Spanish side, is the kingdom we shall particularly speak of; the other, beyond these mountains, by much the smaller, and belonging to France, is bounded by the territory of Labour on the north; by the Pyrenees, which divide it from Spanish Navarre, on the south-west; and by the principality of Bearn in Gascony on the east; and is about 30 miles long, and 15 broad, and one of the barrenest provinces in France.

Spanish Navarre borders upon Biscay and Old Castile on the west; on Castile and Arragon on the south; and eastward upon Arragon. It's length is about 90 miles from north to south, and about 80 in breadth, from east to west. It is divided into five districts, viz. Pampelona, Tudela, Estela, Olite, and Longueſſa, which are parted by prodigious high and uncouth mountains, yet yielding good corn and grain, wine, oil, honey, fruit and herbs, and affording plenty of food and pasture for their cattle, besides an infinite number of fowl, both wild and tame. The mountains produce, also, metals and minerals, and had formerly several rich silver and gold mines, though, at present, they are either neglected or exhausted.

NAVIGATION.

Of the practical art thereof, in relation to ship-sailing.

What a complete treatise of that art ought to contain, according to Sir William Petty.

1. What arithmetic, in whole numbers and fractions, as also in decimals and logarithms, is necessary for the same; and what books are best for teaching so much thereof.
2. What vulgar, practical, mechanical geometry, performable by the scale and compass, is sufficient.
3. What trigonometry, right-lined and spherical, will suffice.
4. How many stars are to be known.
5. What instruments are best for use at sea, with the construction of them, and the manner of using them.
6. The whole skill of the magnet, as to the directive virtues thereof, and all the accidents that may befall it.
7. The hydrography of the globe of the earth; the perspective of the coasts, and the description of the under-water-bottom of the sea.
8. The knowledge of winds and meteors, so far as the same is attainable.
9. The history and skill of all sorts of fishings.
10. The art of medicine and surgery peculiar for the sea.
11. The common laws of the admiralty, and jurisdiction of the sea.
12. The several victuallings and cloathings fit for seamen.
13. The whole science of ebbing and flowing, as also of currents and eddies at sea.
14. Dromometry, and the measures of a ship's motions at sea.
15. The building of ships of all sorts, with the several riggings and sails for each species, and the use of all the parts and motions of a ship.
16. Naval œconomy, according to the several voyages and countries.
17. The art of conning, rowing, sailing, of all the several sorts of vessels.
18. The gunnery, fire-works, and other armatures peculiar to sea and to sea fights.
19. The art of loading and unloading the chief commodities to the best advantage.
20. The art of weighing up sunk ships and goods, as also of diving for sunk goods in deep water.
21. The general philosophy of the motion and figures of the air, the sea, and of seasons; of timber, iron, hemp, brimstone, tallow, &c. and of their several uses in naval affairs.
22. An account of five or six of the best navies of Europe, with that of the arsenals, magazines, yards, docks, &c.
23. An account of all the shipping able to cross the seas belonging to each kingdom and state of Europe.
24. An account of all the chief commercial parts of the world, with mention of what commodities are originally carried from, and ultimately to, any of them.
25. An account of the chief sea-fights, and all other naval expeditions and exploits, relating to war, trade, or discovery, which have happened in this last century.
26. Of the most advantageous use of telescopes for several

several purposes at sea. 27. Of the several depths of the sea, and heights of the atmosphere. 28. The art of making sea-water fresh and potable, and fit for all uses in food and physic at sea.

REMARKS.

I am not acquainted with any book written upon the subject of navigation according to this extensive plan proposed by Sir William Petty. The best book that has fell in my way upon this subject, is that lately wrote by the judicious Mr. J. Robertson, F. R. S. the mathematical master at Christ's Hospital, London; to which we refer the reader, after giving an extract therefrom upon one of the most material parts relating to practical navigation.

Of a ship's reckoning, in regard to the art of conducting of ships from one part of the world to another.

A ship's reckoning is that account whereby, at any time, it may be known where the ship is, and on what course or courses she is to steer to gain her port.

Dead-reckoning, is that account deduced from the occurrences wrote on the log-board.

The log-board is a painted black board, whereon is wrote in chalk whatever is thought worthy of note from day to day; and, for a proper disposition of such notes, the board is divided into five columns: the left hand one contains 24 hours, from the noon of one day to the noon of the next; in the second and third columns are the knots and fathoms the ship is found to run per hour, set against the hours when the log was hove; the fourth column contains the courses the ship steers; and in the fifth, or right-hand column, is wrote the winds; the alteration of the sails, the business doing aboard, and what other remarks the officer of the watch thinks proper to insert: for it should be observed, that it is usual to divide a ship's company into two parts, called the starboard and larboard watches, who alternately do the duty of the ship, for four hours and four hours.

The log-book is a book ruled like the log-board, in order to contain the daily copies of the remarks wrote on the log-board; which is the only authentic record of the ship's transactions; and these are, by the persons who keep journals, transcribed every day at noon into their log-books, from whence they make the necessary deductions relative to the ship's place.

But, as the ship's motion is liable to be disturbed from a variety of causes, such as continual deflection from the course set, by the ship's playing to the right and left round her center of gravity, and the unequal care of the helmsmen; the distance being faulty, on account of tumbling seas, rolling with or against the ship; the unsteadiness of the wind, unknown currents, sudden storms, and many other impediments, which seem impossible to be surmounted; consequently her place, according to the dead-reckoning, may be justly doubted, and, therefore, mariners try every day to find the latitude their ship is in, by observations on the sun or stars; and, if the latitude obtained by observation, and that found by the dead-reckoning, agree, it is presumed the ship's place is well determined; but, if they disagree, the account of LONGITUDE MUST BE CORRECTED*; and, for the latitude, that found by observation is always to be depended on.

* The latest method, and the simplest, that has ever been proposed for this purpose, is that lately communicated by the Rev. Mr. Richard Locke; the certainty or uncertainty of which, if I am rightly informed, is now trying experimentally. See the articles COMMANDERS OF SHIPS and LONGITUDE, where what Mr. Locke has hitherto offered to the public is given at large: and, if it should prove true in practice, will certainly render the whole practical art of navigation extremely easy and secure, and bids fair, according to some, for the real discovery of that great desideratum, the Longitude at Sea: but the certainty hereof being doubted by some mathematicians, the matter must be left to repeated and infallible experience, where we leave it.

Various methods of correcting the reckoning or longitude.

Consider whether the difference may not have been occasioned by a current, and, if it is possible, try it (by the method described below *) or make such an estimate of its setting and drift as may be judged reasonable; then with the setting and drift, as a course and distance, find the difference of latitude and difference of longitude, with which increase or diminish the dead-reckoning; and if the latitude, thus corrected, agrees with the latitude by observation, then the longitude thus corrected may be safely taken as true, and so the ship's place determined.

* Of sailing in currents.

A CURRENT, or TIDE, is a progressive motion of the water, causing all floating bodies to move that way towards which the stream is directed.

The setting of a tide or current, is that point of the compass towards which the waters run; and the drift of a current is the rate it runs per hour.

The setting and drift of the most remarkable tides and currents are pretty well known; but, in unknown currents, the usual way to find the setting and drift is thus:

Let three or four men take a boat a little way from the ship, and by a rope fastened to the boat's stern, let down a heavy iron pot, or loaded kettle, into the sea, to the depth of 80 or 100 fathoms, where it can be, whereby the boat will ride almost as steady as at anchor: then heave the log, and the number of knots run out in half a minute will give the miles which the current runs per hour; and the bearing of the log shews the setting of the current.

Exam. Suppose a ship, in 24 hours, finds, by her dead-reckoning, she has made 96 miles of diff. latitude north, and 38 miles of departure west; but, by observation, finds her difference of latitude is 112, and on trial finds a current; which, in 24 hours, make 16 miles of diff. latitude north, and 10 miles of departure east: required the ship's departure?

Diff. lat. by account 96 m. N.	Depart. by acc. 38 m. W.
Diff. lat. by current 16 m. N.	Depart. by curr. 10 m. E.

True diff. lat. - 112 m. N.	True departure 28 m. W.
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Here the dead-reckoning, corrected by the current, gives the diff. latitude 112 miles, which is the same as found by observation; therefore the departure, 28, is taken as the true one.

The error in the dead reckoning is usually attributed to unknown currents; for, by various causes yet undetermined; there are many counter-motions of the water in the open seas; as well as those observed near the shores, where the motions may be tolerably well accounted for. Some of the observed currents in the great seas may, perhaps, be owing to the tide's following the moon, and to the libratory motion the waters may have thereby; and the unsettled setting and drift of these currents may possibly depend on the change in the moon's declination: however, it is well known from observations, that the trade-winds occasion a considerable current within their limits, particularly within the torrid zone, where the motion is perpetually towards the west, at the rate of about eight or ten miles a day: but, at the extremities of the trade-winds, or near the latitudes of 30 degrees north and south, it is likely that the currents are compounded of the said western motion, and of one towards the equator: therefore all ships sailing within these limits should allow a course each day for this current.

If, when all currents have been allowed for, there should still be a difference between the observed latitude, and that given by account, then a further correction must be made.

The business of correcting a sea-reckoning is a very precarious operation, and, at best, is little more than guessing; for, by ought that appears, the ship may be either to the eastward or westward of the point wherein the reckoning places her, and the mariner not be able to pronounce with certainty whether; however, the following methods are usually taken: if the difference of latitude is much more than the departure, or the direct course has been within three points of the meridian, then it is most likely the error is in the distance.

And if the departure is much greater than the difference of latitude, or the direct course is within three points of the parallel, or more than five points from the meridian, the error may be ascribed to the course.

But, if the courses are in general near the middle of the quadrant, the other may be either in the course, or in the distance, or in both.

For, to cause an alteration in the difference of latitude, the first of these cases requires a greater error in the course than can well be supposed to have been committed; in the second case, the distances must be so faulty as would scarce escape observation; and, in the last, it is often doubtful whether to attribute the error to the course or distance, but is as usually corrected in both.

First method.

When, by the dead-reckoning, the difference of latitude is more than once and a half the departure: or, which is the same, when the course is less than three points: to the difference of latitude, and the departure by account, find the course. With this course, and the difference of latitude by observation, find a new departure. With the new departure, and the co-middle latitude, find the difference of longitude.

Exam. Yesterday noon we were in latitude $39^{\circ} 18'$ north, and, by an observation, are this day noon in latitude $37^{\circ} 48'$ north; our dead-reckoning gives 106 miles of southing, and 64 miles of easting: required the ship's true difference of longitude?

By the traverse table.

The difference of latitude 106, and the departure 64, gives the course $2\frac{3}{4}$ points. The course $2\frac{3}{4}$ points, and the difference of latitude by observation 90, gives a departure of 54. The co-middle latitude $51^{\circ} 27'$, and true departure 54, gives the difference of longitude 69.

Second method.

When, by the dead-reckoning, the departure is more than once and a half the difference of latitude, or the course is more than five points.

With the difference of latitude and departure by account, find the distance. With this distance, and the difference of latitude by observation, find the true departure. With the co-middle latitude and true departure, find the difference of longitude.

Exam. Yesterday noon we were in latitude $48^{\circ} 52'$ north, and were to day noon in latitude $50^{\circ} 18'$ north; our dead-reckoning shews we have made 68 miles of northing, and 112 miles of westing: required the true difference of longitude the ship has made?

By the traverse table.

The difference of latitude 68, and departure 112, gives 132 for the distance. The distance 132, and difference of latitude by observation 86, gives the true departure 100. The co-middle latitude $40^{\circ} 25'$, and true departure 100, gives 155 miles for difference of longitude.

Third method.

When the difference of latitude and departure by account are nearly equal, or the direct course has been between three and five points of the meridian.

To the difference of latitude and departure by account, find the distance. With this distance and difference of latitude by observation, find another departure. Take the half sum of the two departures for the true one. With the co-middle latitude and true departure find the difference of longitude.

Exam. These last 24 hours we have made 84 miles of northing, and 76 of easting; we were yesterday noon in latitude $52^{\circ} 40'$ north, and are this noon in latitude $54^{\circ} 22'$ north: what difference of longitude has the ship made?

By the traverse table.

To the difference of latitude 84, and departure 76, the distance is 113 miles. With the distance 113, and difference of latitude by observation 102, find a departure 47.7. The sum of the two departures 76 and 47.7 is 123.7, it's half is 61.8. To the co-middle latitude $36^{\circ} 29'$, and true departure 61.8, the difference of longitude is 103.

The difficulty of finding the longitude at sea has inclined many persons to attempt the solution of this most useful problem: some with no other view than the great advantage which the art of navigation would derive from their labours; others, and by much the greatest numbers, who have exhibited their thoughts on this subject, were visionary whimsical men, only lured by the hopes of the appointed reward: but Dr. Halley having collected a great multitude of observations made on the variation of the needle in many parts of the world; he, by the help of the latitude and longitude of the places of those observations, was enabled to draw on a mercator chart certain lines, shewing the variation of the compass in all those places over which they passed at the time he published, in the year 1700; and, consequently, the longitude of any of those places could be found by the chart, having it's latitude, and the variation of the needle in that place given.

Fourth method.

To find the longitude at sea by the variation chart.

Find the variation of the compass, for which see art. 1076, in Mr. Robertson's tract. Draw a parallel of latitude on the chart, through the latitude found by observation; and the point where it cuts the curved line, whose variation is the same with that observed, will be the ship's place.

Exam. A ship finds, by a good observation, that she is in the latitude of $18^{\circ} 20'$ north, and that the variation of the compass is 4° west: required the ship's place?

Take from the graduated meridian the distance between the equator and the latitude of $18^{\circ} 20'$ north; lay a ruler along the equator, and slide one point of the compasses along it's edge, till the other point cuts the curve of 4° west variation, and the intersection gives the ship's place, whose longitude will be found to be about $27^{\circ} 10'$ west from London.

There are two considerable inconveniencies which attend this method.

First, That, wherever the variation lines run east or west, or nearly so, this way of finding the longitude becomes imperfect: but, among all the trading parts of the world, this imperfection is at present found chiefly on the west coasts of Europe, between the latitudes of 45° and 53° ; on the eastern shores of North America, and in some parts of the Western Ocean and Hudson's Bay, lying between the said shores; therefore, for the other parts of the world, a variation chart may be esteemed as of the greatest use.

But the variation curves, even where they run east and west, may be sometimes applied to good use in correcting the latitude, when meridian observations cannot be had, as it frequently happens on the northern coasts of America, in the Western Ocean,

and about Newfoundland: for, if the variation can be obtained correctly, then the east and west curve, answering to that variation on the chart, will shew the latitude.

Secondly, As the deflection of the magnetical meridian from the true one is subject to continual alteration, therefore a chart, to which the variation lines are fitted for any year, must in time become useless, unless new lines, shewing the state of the variation at that time, be drawn on that chart: but, as the change in the variation is very slow, therefore new variation charts being published every 10 or 12 years, will answer the purpose wanted.

In the year 1746, Mr. William Mountaine, F. R. S. and Mr. James Dodson, fitted the variation lines to Dr. Halley's chart, for the year 1744. As these gentlemen had collected several thousands of observations to work upon, they were enabled to perform this business with great correctness; insomuch that, wherever their chart has been used, it was found of very great importance, even to the saving a ship in the Indian Ocean; and it is much to be wished they were in more general use.

Fifth method.

To find the longitude from celestial observations.

The difference of longitude between two places may be determined by knowing the difference between the times that any remarkable appearance in the heavens is seen in those places*.

* The difference of longitude between two places is estimated by the difference of time, allowing an hour to every 15 degrees of longitude, and one minute of time for every 15 min. of a degr. or a degr. for every 4 min. of time.

Example. Having at 6 h. 48. p. m. observed at sea a certain appearance in the heavens, which I knew was seen the same instant at 3 h. 25 m. p. m. in London: required the difference of longitude between the places of observation.

From	6 h. 48 m.		3 h. = 45 degr.
Take	3 35		13 m. = 3 15

Leaves	3 13 = diff. time.	Sum	48 15 = diff. lon.
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And, because the hour of appearance at London was least, therefore I knew myself to be at the eastward of London.

For, as these appearances consist in the appulses, that is, the approaches of the heavenly bodies to one another, or their passage by one another; and these appulses when they happen, are seen at the same instant of absolute time to all parts of the earth where they are visible: therefore, by knowing the relative times of the day when such appearances are seen in two distant places, the difference between those times is known, and consequently the difference of longitude between those places.

There are every year published several almanacks, or ephemerides, wherein are noted the eclipses of the sun and moon, the times of the planets rising, setting, and southing; the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, and the times when other celestial appearances may be seen at the places for which those ephemerides are calculated: now a mariner having one of these almanacks, if he observes at what time any of these appearances happen in any part of the world he may be then in, will readily know his longitude.

Among the satellites of Jupiter, one or more is eclipsed almost every night; for they disappear either in going behind Jupiter, or in passing before him; and the instants of such immersions and emersions may be seen by a refracting telescope of about 8 or 9 feet long, or by a reflecting one of about 9 inches focal length. The reflecting telescope is much more commodious at sea, on account of it's shortness; but the metals are very subject to be tarnished by the moist air.

To determine the longitude of any place from celestial observations, it is necessary that the time of the day be well known in that place where the observation is made; and among the various methods proposed for this purpose, none seems more fit to be practised at sea, than the method by equal altitudes; for no regular deductions can be made, without knowing the precise time of noon. Now, as clocks and watches undergo considerable alterations from the motion of a ship and the change of the climate; they ought to be carefully examined, and their gain or loss per day ascertained, whenever they are to be used in the correcting of the longitude; and this need not be done very often, only at such times when the ship may be supposed through storms or bad weather, to be considerably out in her dead-reckoning.

At such times, the ship lying by, let the sun's altitude be taken at any time in the forenoon, set down that time and altitude: in the afternoon, watch for the sun's having the same altitude exactly, and note down that time; then the half sum of these two times, is the time shewn by the clock or watch when it was noon in that place.

As it is possible that an altitude, equal to one taken on the eastern side of the meridian, cannot be observed on the western side by the interposition of clouds, it is therefore best to take several in the forenoon, or on the east side, in order to have the greater probability of securing a corresponding altitude on the western side, or afternoon; and, if several observations

variations of equal altitudes can be made on both sides of the meridian, it will be best to take the mean time corresponding to each pair of equal altitudes; and if the means all agree, it is an evident sign that the observations were well made: but should they disagree half a minute or so, then it is best to add together all the times of noon, and divide the sum by the number of times, and the quotient may be taken for the true time of noon in that place, as shewn by the clock or watch.

In the taking of these equal altitudes of the sun, it will be most convenient to have them at a distance from one another not exceeding 4 or 5 hours; because then there will be no occasion to correct the latter altitude, by the alteration in declination during that time.

The true time of noon being obtained, then the time that any planet, or other celestial body passes the meridian, may be thus known: on the evening following, let one or more altitudes of the planet be taken, which set down with their respective times; and on the next morning, note down the times when that planet has the same altitudes: the half sum of these two times, will be the time when the observed planet passed the meridian of that place; and, if several observations have been taken, find the mean of them, as before for the sun: but, if the planet observed be the moon, whose declination may be considerably altered between the times of the observations, then let a proportional part of her daily variation in declination be added to, or subtracted from, the time found for her passing the meridian, according as the moon is receding from, or approaching to, the elevated pole. And, if there is reason to suspect that the clock or watch gains or loses every day, let the times of two equal altitudes of the sun be taken next day, and the noon thereby determined: then the difference between the times of noon both days, as shewn by the clock or watch, will be it's daily variation; and the time of the planet's passing the meridian, must be increased or diminished by a proportional part of that variation.

Now, by having a table or an ephemeris, containing the times when the moon passes the meridian of a certain place, and by having from observation the time when she passes the meridian of any other place, the difference between the longitudes of those two places may be thus found:

Seek in the ephemeris for the time of her southing on the given day, and that of the following day, and take their difference; also take the difference between the times of the tabular southing and the observed one, on the same day; then say:

As the daily difference is to the observed difference, so is 360 degrees to the difference of longitude sought.

For, as the whole difference arises in a day, or by the running through 360 degrees, consequently any part of that difference will require a proportional part of 360 degrees.

Example. Suppose at sea, the moon was observed to pass the meridian on the 18th day of June 1753, at 57 minutes after one in the morning: required the longitude of that place?

At London the moon passes the meridian on the 18th of June, at 1 hour 47 minutes, and on the 19th day, at 2 hours 31 minutes, the difference is 44 minutes; and the observed time is 10 minutes later than at London.

Then as 44 min.: 10 min.: : 360°: $\left(\frac{3600}{44} = \right)$ 81 deg.

49 min. Which shews that place to be 81 deg. 49 min. to the west of the meridian of London.

As the tables of the moon's motions are not yet arrived at the wished-for accuracy, consequently the times of her passing the meridian of any place, as shewn by an ephemeris, are not so true as they might be, and therefore the difference of longitude found by the time of the moon's southing, may err about 2 degrees; and should the time of her passing the meridian be ill observed: the error may be much greater: it has therefore been proposed to keep an account of longitude by a time-keeper, or kind of clock, that should always shew the true time under the meridian of some one place; consequently, was the time of the day found in any other place, compared with the time then shewn by such a clock, the difference of longitude between those places would be determined: but the difficulties attending the construction of such an instrument, have been hitherto found too great to be overcome. Indeed, the ingenious Mr. Harrison has removed some of, if not all, the capital obstructions; and his judicious friends suspect he will entirely perfect his most elaborate machine: he has received some gratuities from the public, for the advances he has already made towards the solution of this intricate problem of the longitude; and it is wished he may merit the whole reward allotted by the government for the discovery of this so much desired acquisition in navigation.

Upon the whole, it appears that there are many means by which a ship's place may be found at sea, nearly exact enough for navigating her to places whose longitudes are almost as incorrectly known as the ship's place; and, was the method of finding the longitude at sea correctly known, the ships must then keep as good a look-out for land as they do now,

and also keep their account of dead-reckoning: therefore, would seamen put in practice all the precepts that are given them for this purpose, they might proceed on their respective voyages, and (which is suspected now to be the case) have very little concern about the perfecting the discovery of the longitude.

Of a SEA-JOURNAL.

A sea journal is a book, wherein is truly entered the most remarkable daily occurrences relating to the ship during her voyage outward and homeward. There are various ways of keeping sea-journals, according to the different notions of mariners concerning what articles are to be entered.

Some writers direct the keeping such a kind of journal, which is only an abstract of each day's transactions, specifying the weather, what ships or lands were seen, accidents on board, the latitude, longitude, meridional distance, course and run: these particulars are to be drawn from the ship's log-book, or that kept by the person himself, for most good mariners keep private log-books.

Other authors recommend the keeping but of one account, including the log-book and all the work of each day, with the deductions drawn therefrom: this method is used in Mr. Robertson's treatise, on account of representing to the beginner the whole of each day's work: but when he is well versed in this method, he may abridge what part of it he pleases: although it is conceived that a journal neatly kept, with all the particulars of the work commodiously ranged, would give more satisfaction to those who might have occasion afterwards to inspect it, than a journal containing the heads only, and all the intermediate parts suppressed.

The method chose by Mr. Robertson to introduce the young mariner into this most capital part of navigation, is, by shewing him first how to work a few separate days works independent one of the other, and then to proceed to a continued journal of several successive days works; for the doing of which, it was judged necessary to premise the following observations.

I. That the day is supposed to begin at noon, and the day's work relates to the transactions done in the time between the noon of one day and the noon of the following day.

II. If there is an observation for an amplitude or an azimuth, let that amplitude or azimuth be worked as shewn between art. 1070 and 1076, in Mr. Robertson's treatise, and then find the variation as shewn at art. 1077 in the same tract; taking care in these operations, that the declination of the day be fitted to the proper time and longitude, as shewn art. 964, 965, in the same author.

III. Correct each course by the variation thus found, as at art. 1078, also correct these corrected courses by the proper allowance for lee-way, as shewn at art. 1080, 1081.

IV. Write these corrected courses in a traverse table, sum up the knots and fathoms belonging to these hours the ship kept on the same course, and write the several sums as distances in the traverse table against their respective course.

V. Complete the traverse table as by art. 695, find the present latitude and longitude, as shewn in art. 786, 787, of Mr. Robertson, and the examples, in art. 1128, & seq. and then will the ship's place be obtained by dead-reckoning. See Mr. Robertson's treatise, entitled the Elements of Navigation: containing the Theory and Practice, with all the necessary Tables. To which is added, A treatise of Marine Fortification. For the Use of the Royal Mathematical School at Christ's Hospital, and the Gentlemen of the Navy.

REMARKS.

That the reader, who is desirous of understanding the art of navigation, either to the perfection of the theory to which it has hitherto been brought, or only to understand the same in a mere practical light, without concerning himself with the mathematical elements whereupon the art is grounded, we recommend him to the above-mentioned excellent treatise, in the commendation of which too much cannot be said. But, as the learned author has himself given a just idea of his own performance in few words, we cannot give it it's due recommendation in a better manner, than introducing his own

ADVERTISEMENT.

As it may be expected that four kinds of readers will look into this book, it was thought convenient to point out to some of them, the places where they may meet with what they more particularly want.

First, Those who have made a proficiency in the mathematics, will, it is likely, examine in what manner the subjects are here treated, and whether any thing new is contained therein: it is conceived, that such readers will find some things which may recompence them for their trouble, in almost every one of the books.

Secondly, Those learners who are desirous of being instructed in the art of navigation in a scientific manner, and would chuse to see the reason of the several steps they must take to acquire it: to such persons, it is recommended that they read the whole book in the order they find it. Or, if the learner is very young, he may omit the fourth book 'till after he is master

master of the fifth and sixth. Adult persons, and those under the direction of a master, may, if they please, read the eighth book immediately after the fifth, and read the sixth, seventh, and ninth books in succession.

Thirdly, That class of readers, which, with too much truth may be said, comprehend most of our mariners, who want to learn both the elements and the art itself by rote, and never trouble themselves about the reason of the rules they work by: as there ever will be many readers of this kind, they may be well accommodated in this work; thus, if they are not already acquainted with arithmetic and geography, let them read the five first rules of arithmetic, to page 20; thence proceed to the definitions and problems in geometry, from page 42 to 55. In the book of trigonometry, read pages 83, 84, 85, 86, 92, 93, and from 98 to 108: the whole of book V. In book VI. he may read to page 267, and as much more as he pleases. In book VII. let him read the sections III, IV, V, VI. from page 368 to page 407. In book VIII. he may read section III. and as many problems in the Vth and VIth sections as he can, and let him read the whole of the ninth book.

Fourthly, That set of readers who will not be at the pains of learning any thing more than how to do the practice of a day's work, such may herein meet with the practice almost independent of other knowledge. Let such persons make themselves acquainted with section VIII. of book V. and the use of the table at page 200; then learn the use of the traverse table at the end of book VI. which he will find exemplified between pages 243 and 274; also he must learn the use of the table of meridional parts at page 423: after which he may proceed to book IX. where he will find ample instructions in all the particulars which enter into a day's work. But, as with this scanty knowledge of things he will not clearly see every part of book IX, he may omit the articles 1059, 1091, 1106, and the XIth and XIIth sections.

NAVIGATION.

Some of the principal LAWS that have been enacted, relating to the trading NAVIGATION of ENGLAND.

According to the common right of mankind, the navigation through the world, is no less free and open to every one, than the air; and hence it, proceeds, that passage by sea to and from all Christian countries, is and hath been so indifferently permitted to all nations, not being professed enemies: and none can be prohibited to sail in the main sea, unless in places where the waters are as royalties, which the Venetians claim in some of their territories and jurisdictions, and other princes and states by prescription. *Lex Mercat. Malines*, 124, 130. If a ship bound for Venice do enter into the river of Lisbon, and there deliver goods or merchandizes, and afterwards entering into the straits of the Mediterranean Sea, be driven by contrary winds to some other place or island in the said seas, and after that make her discharge at Venice, all this time of the voyage is considered as one navigation, and the master of the ship hath committed no fault, if he departed from the first port at the time limited. *Ibid.* 124.

As to ships in general, there have been many statutes made for increasing and preserving them, and improving the navigation of this kingdom: by 5 Rich. II. c. 3. it was enacted, That none of the king's subjects should bring in or carry out any merchandize, but in English ships, on pain to forfeit all merchandize otherwise conveyed, or the value thereof. But 6 Rich. II. c. 8. ordains, That the statute before-mentioned shall only take place where able ships of the king's allegiance may be found, otherwise the merchants may hire other ships, notwithstanding that statute.

By 4 Hen. VII. c. 10. No Gascoign or Guiene wine, &c. shall be imported into this realm but in English vessels, on pain of forfeiture: and none shall freight any merchandize in any stranger's ship, if he may have sufficient freight in the same port, in a denizen's ship, under the penalty of forfeiting all merchandize not thus shipped, to be divided between the king and the seizer. This act shall not extend to any ship having merchandize on board, that is forced by tempest into any port of this kingdom, so as the owner thereof make no sale of the merchandizes here, except only for necessary victuals, or repairing of the ship and tackle.

The stat. 32 Hen. VIII. c. 14. ordains, That Gascoign or Guiene wines, or Thoulouse woad, may be brought into this kingdom in any other ships, as well as English, notwithstanding the act of 4 Hen. VII. And by this statute, a rate was ordained of what should be paid for the freight or portage of the several sorts of merchandizes, in ships from the port of London to other places, and from thence to London.

By 1 Eliz. c. 13. If any owner of any merchandize, shall in the time of peace, embark or unload any part thereof (masts, pitch, tar, and corn only excepted) out of or into any ship, other than an English bottom, he shall pay custom as an alien: and no Englishman shall cross the sea in any hoy, &c. with any goods or merchandize, on pain to forfeit the same, to be divided between the king and the prosecutor. But merchants, at their several shippings of cloth out of the Thames twice in the year, may embark merchandize in a

stranger's ship, so long as there are not English ships enough and convenient to convey such merchandize into Flanders, Holland, Zealand, or Brabant, &c.

By the act of navigation, 12 Car. II. c. 18. it is enacted, That no goods shall be imported into, or exported out of, any territories belonging, or which may hereafter belong, to his majesty, his heirs and successors, in Asia, Africa, or America, in any other ships but such only as belong to the people of England, or Ireland, Wales, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, and whereof the master and three fourths of the mariners are English, on pain to forfeit all the goods and commodities, and the ship or vessel with all its furniture; one third part whereof to the king, another third to the governor of the country where such default shall be, if seized there, otherwise that third also to the king, and the other third to him that will seize or sue for the same. And commanders at sea, having commission from the king, are to bring in as prize, ships offending contrary hereunto; and in such case of condemnation, one moiety shall be to the use of such commanders and their companies, and the other moiety to the king.

No goods of the growth or manufacture of any countries belonging to Muscovy, or of the produce of the Turkish empire, shall be imported into England, Ireland, Wales, or town of Berwick, in any ship or vessel, not English built, or not belonging to the people of some of them, and navigated as aforesaid; except vessels of the built of that place of which the goods are, or of such port where they can only be, or usually are shipped, the master and three fourths of the mariners being of the said country, on pain of forfeiting the ship and goods, to be divided and disposed as abovementioned: and all wines of the growth of France or Germany, and divers goods and merchandize from Spain, Portugal, Russia, &c. which shall be imported into the places aforesaid, in any other ship than what doth belong to England, Ireland, &c. and are navigated as aforesaid, shall be deemed aliens goods, and pay accordingly. *Stat. ibid.*

And no foreign built vessel shall pass as a ship belonging to England, Ireland, Wales, &c. till the owner makes appear to the chief officers of the customs, in the port next to the place of his abode, that he is not an alien, and take an oath that it was bona fide bought of such persons, expressing the sum given, and the time and place, when and where, &c. and that no foreigner hath a share therein. Also none shall load in any bottom, whereof strangers are owners, part owners, or master, and of which three fourths of the mariners at least are not English, any goods whatsoever from one port or creek of England, Ireland, Wales, Guernsey, Jersey, or town of Berwick, to another port of the same, on pain to forfeit such goods and vessel. *Ibid.*

The 22 and 23 Car. II. c. 11. ordains, That where any goods shall be laden on board any English ship of the burthen of 200 tons or upwards, and mounted with sixteen guns or more, if the master yields up such ship or goods to any Turkish vessel, or any pirate, without fighting, upon proof thereof in the admiralty, he shall be incapable of taking charge of any English vessel, &c. And masters of English ships, though not of that burthen, nor mounted as aforesaid, that shall yield to a Turkish ship or pirate (not having at least double number of guns) without fighting, shall be liable to the penalties of this act: if any inferior officers or mariners of a ship, shall refuse to fight when commanded, or utter words to discourage others, they shall lose all their wages due, and be imprisoned, not exceeding six months, &c. and mariners laying violent hands on their commanders to hinder them from fighting in defence of their ships, shall suffer death as felons.

When any English ship shall have been defended by fight, and brought to her port, in which fighting any of her men have been wounded, the judge of the admiralty, or his surrogate, &c. where the ship shall arrive, upon the petition of the master and seamen, may call so many as he shall be informed to be adventurers or owners, and by advising with them, levy upon the respective owners such sums as himself and the major part of them then present shall judge reasonable, not exceeding two per cent. of the ship and goods; which money shall be distributed among the master, officers, and seamen, or the widows and children of the slain, according to the direction of the judge, with the approbation of three or more of the owners or adventurers. *Ibid.*

By the 5th and 6th W. and M. c. 24. Every person that shall within such a time, build, or cause to be built, any ships of three decks, containing 450 tons, and mounted with 32 pieces of ordnance, having ammunition, &c. proportionable, shall, for the first three voyages which the said ships shall make to any foreign parts, receive one tenth part of the customs called the subsidy of tonnage and poundage, payable for merchandizes exported and imported in such ships: but if, after the end of the three first voyages, any of the ships so built, shall be altered or put into another form of building, whereby they shall become less defensible than they were at first, then they shall be forfeited and lost.

By 2 Ann. c. 9. During the war with France, owners of ships might navigate with masters, and one half of the mariners English, as if the master and three fourths of the men

had been so: also by 3 and 4 Ann. c. 13. any ships might be navigated by foreign seamen; and foreigners serving on board any English ship for two years, were to be deemed natural-born subjects, &c.

By 4 Geo. I. c. 12. and 11 Geo. I. c. 29. If any captain, master, officer, or mariner, belonging to any ship or vessel, shall wilfully cast away, burn, or destroy the ship to which he belongeth, or in any wise direct or procure the same to be done, with intent to prejudice a person that shall have underwritten any policy of insurance thereon, or any merchant who shall load goods therein, or any owner of such ship or vessel, the persons offending being lawfully convicted thereof, shall be adjudged guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

*See the article ASSURANCE.

The 5th of Geo. II. c. 20. enacts, That no commander of any ship outward bound shall receive on board any gunpowder, either as merchandize, or store for the voyage (except for his majesty's service) before such ship shall be at Blackwall in the river Thames; and all masters of ships coming into the river, shall put on shore all powder, either before the arrival of their ships at the said place, or within 24 hours after they came to an anchor there, upon pain of forfeiting 5 l. for every 50 pounds weight of gunpowder found on board, and in the like proportion for a less quantity. And no guns shall be kept loaded with shot in merchant-ships between London-bridge and Blackwall, or fired before the rising, or after the setting of the sun, under the penalty of 5 l. and for every gun so fired 10 s. And if any pitch, tar, rosin, or other combustible matter, shall be heated or melted by fire in any ships, every person so offending, shall for every offence forfeit 5 l. And the ships are liable to search by an elder brother, appointed by the master, wardens, and assistants of the Trinity-house at Deptford.

And, in case any ship shall be laid up or moored in the mouth; or any other part of St Saviour's dock (except ships as shall be loading or delivering their cargoes, and others not exceeding two at one time, that shall lie at Shipwright-Yard at the north-west corner of the said dock, during the time they shall be repairing) the master of every such ship shall forfeit 20 s. for every day the same shall continue to be laid up and moored, to be recovered and levied as the other penalties inflicted by this act, before two justices of peace, subject to appeal to the quarter sessions.

By 6 Geo. II. c. 29. Masters of ships lying in the river Thames, having occasion for ballast, shall pay 12 d. per ton colliers, other ships 15 d. and foreign ships 19 d. to the corporation of the Trinity-house at Deptford, who shall pay ballast-men 9 d. a ton for raising and carrying it, &c. And such ballast-men delivering more or less ballast than mentioned in tickets, or without order, shall forfeit 2 s. 6 d. per ton. Also working in lighters not marked and allowed, or counterfeiting any gauge-mark, they shall forfeit 10 l. leviable by two justices of peace, by distress, &c. And it shall be lawful for any master of a ship to appoint two persons, whereof his mate to be one, to go on board any lighter bringing ballast to such ship, to inspect the marks thereof; and every ballast-man shall immediately before the delivery of ballast to any ship, trim such lighter, so as to make the same swim at equal marks, at the stem and stern, and pump all the water out, &c. And the master, wardens, and assistants of the Trinity-house, are to make good to the master the quantity or value of ballast which shall be found deficient, or forfeit 50 l. one moiety to the poor, and the other to the person suing for the same.

The 7th of Geo. II. c. 15. ordains, That no owners of any ship shall be liable to answer any loss by reason of embezzlement, by the master or mariners, of any goods or merchandize which shall be shipped on board, or for any act done by them without the privity or knowledge of such owners, further than the value of the ship, and amount of the freight during the voyage, where such embezzlement, or other malversation of the master or mariners, shall be committed: and if several persons shall suffer damage by the means aforesaid, and the value of the ship, &c. shall not be sufficient to make compensation, then the freighters shall receive satisfaction in average, in proportion to their respective losses, to be ascertained on a bill in equity exhibited for a discovery thereof, and of the value of such ship and freight, &c.

But nothing in this act shall discharge any remedy, which any person may have against the master and mariners, in respect of any embezzlement. See the articles SHIPPING, SEA LAWS, MARINE TREATIES, OLERON'S LAW, RHODIAN LAWS, FREIGHT, ASSURANCES, and particularly the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS, at the end of every letter.

A MEMOIR that may be necessary to be referred to occasionally.

The case of British merchants, owners of ships, and others, relative to the employment and increase of BRITISH SHIPPING AND BRITISH NAVIGATORS.

The spirit and tendency of all the laws which have been made in relation to the navigation of these kingdoms, clearly shew, that the principal view and aim of the legislature, has ever

VOL. II.

been to increase and encourage BRITISH SHIPPING AND BRITISH NAVIGATORS.

That nevertheless, THE FREIGHTS between these kingdoms and several countries in Europe, have been almost wholly engrossed by FOREIGN SHIPS, because foreigners will always give the preference to ships of their own country; and those who are merchants or factors residing here, having connections, or perhaps engagements, with some of their countrymen at home, who are owners of shipping, always have employed their OWN SHIPS BEFORE OURS, not only when the prices of both were the same, but even in some instances, when British ships have been offered to load at a CHEAPER RATE THAN FOREIGNERS WOULD AGREE TO. From which it may be inferred; that the prices paid for freighting ships with those goods, are a sufficient encouragement for our owners, and that such freighting voyages would be sought after by them. Nor is it to be apprehended, that the exportation of merchandize can be lessened, by confining it in some measure to BRITISH VESSELS, because few or none of those foreign owners are the freighters, but merchants (who are unconcerned in shipping) are the real proprietors of these cargoes.

And the necessity of contriving some means for maintaining our wonted superiority, as a MARITIME POWER, appears the more evident at this juncture, when an universal spirit and uncommon ardour for IMPROVING TRADE, NAVIGATION, and NAVAL STRENGTH; PREVAILS THROUGHOUT EUROPE; which is manifested, by the various nations thereof purchasing ships from us, and by the great number of hands employed in building new ships of their own; and it may not be improper to observe, that their own built ships are allowed different degrees of remission from DUTIES AND CUSTOMS ON THEIR CARGOES, IN PROPORTION TO THE NEWNESS OF THE VESSEL, 'till they have been occupied sixteen years. And such like bounties and encouragements, may in time ENABLE FOREIGNERS TO OUTVY US IN SHIPPING; for, in proportion as the number of their ships and sailors increase, ours must become unemployed, and consequently diminish. And, indeed, had it not been for the NAVIGATION ACTS, our merchants shipping would, at this time, have been very inconsiderable.

That the increase of our sailors is not the only advantage that depends upon the increase of our shipping; for our shipwrights, caulkers, and sailcloth-makers, would meet with full employment and encouragement at home, and have no occasion to seek their bread in foreign countries; and, in general, all trades depending upon the building and employment of shipping be proportionably benefitted, to the great augmentation of the inland revenues, and advantage of the landed interest, which always rises and falls with the increase and decay of trade. Besides, a greater importation of pitch, tar, hemp, timber, and other commodities used in building and equipping ships would be promoted, which must increase his majesty's customs. Whereas none of these advantages accrue FROM FOREIGNERS, who never REFIT OR VICTUAL THEIR SHIPPING HERE, but in cases of absolute necessity.

That our knowledge and acquaintance with the navigation in foreign seas and on foreign coasts (some of which for want of experience we are unacquainted with) will consequently be improved in proportion to the greater DIVERSITY OF OUR VOYAGES; by which means seamen may be trained up capable of navigating ships of war in those, at present unfrequented, seas and coasts; which may in some measure countervail the advantage foreigners have, in being so generally acquainted with ours.

That bounties and debentures, in the original institution of them, were calculated for the benefit of trade in general; and under that general head, must certainly be included the shipping and navigation of these kingdoms, which ought therefore to have the benefit and advantages arising from such encouragements, and which they undoubtedly will, by limiting and confining the exportation of goods, on which bounties and debentures are given, TO BRITISH SHIPS AND VESSELS. And when any government thinks proper to grant an encouragement to the exportation of some particular species of goods, it is but reasonable that the advantages resulting from it should be enjoyed by its own subjects only, and not by foreigners.

The frauds committed upon the revenue, by the relanding of BOUNTY AND DEBENTURE GOODS, would be more easily detected, if British vessels were obliged upon their return home to produce vouchers of the DELIVERY OF THEIR CARGOES, or be punished for fraud or neglect; whereas foreigners, that never return to a British port, may practise THESE FRAUDS UPON THE REVENUE with impunity.

That the liberty allowed to foreigners to export OUR BOUNTY AND DEBENTURE GOODS, with other SORTS OF MERCHANDIZE by way of back freight, and the profit arising from it, is manifestly the encouragement and inducement to them to load so considerably in these kingdoms; whereas were that liberty (as to bounty and debenture goods) allowed to British ships only, we might ourselves enjoy the great profit which they now draw from us, and at the same time the manufactures and goods of this country, on which there are NO

BOUNTIES OR DRAWBACKS, might continue to be exported on FOREIGN BOTTOMS. Nor will these reasons be invalidated by objecting, that a British ship would with difficulty, or perhaps not at all, get a back freight from the port to which she might carry our bounty and debenture goods; because it has been found by experience, that a vessel, after she has once undergone the expence of her first out-fit, might even go in ballast to another port for a back freight, with sufficient profit; as in the case of many of our CORN SHIPS, whose cargoes being landed in the Mediterranean, or other places, they proceed thence to British America in ballast, in order to procure a lading home. Another advantage arising from the increase of our shipping, which would be occasioned by this limitation is, that our discharged seamen and marines will meet with immediate employment, and a more EXTENSIVE PLAN BE LAID FOR THE TRAINING UP OF SEAMEN FOR THE BENEFIT OF THE PUBLIC IN CASE OF EMERGENCY. Benefits which, without such a limitation, will naturally result to foreigners, to the proportionable diminution of the navigation and security of these kingdoms.

That the EXPORTATION OF PROVISIONS FROM IRELAND HATH been almost ENTIRELY ENGROSSED BY FOREIGNERS in foreign bottoms, whereas were that trade to be confined to BRITISH SHIPS ONLY, it would tend manifestly to the employment and increase of British shipping; nor would the exportation of provisions from thence at all be lessened, because foreigners cannot be so well supplied from any other country: neither would this be any impediment to foreigners, for few of them take in provisions at Ireland on voyages to their plantations or settlements, but send ships to Ireland merely to carry provisions to their own European ports, and there victual out their vessels for their voyages and settlements; which freight would employ a considerable number of OUR OWN SHIPPING. And should it be objected, that those limitations in time of war may be a disadvantage to trade, yet this objection may easily be obviated, by vesting a power in the crown to dispense with, alter, or enlarge the limitation during such war; and perhaps too it may be objected, that such a limitation may be of dangerous consequence to the trade and commerce of these kingdoms: but this limitation is not to be considered as a general prohibition, for it is proposed to extend no further than the exportation of SOME PARTICULAR GOODS, on which BOUNTIES AND DEBENTURES HAVE BEEN GRANTED BY PARLIAMENT, and to IRISH PROVISIONS, and would leave the navigation in other respects as free and open as ever to foreign ships, for the exportation of all other goods and manufactures.

That freights will not be enhanced by these limitations, since the number of vessels at present unemployed, and numbers of others which would be built in consequence of this encouragement, would always be sufficient to export those kinds of goods, upon as easy or easier terms than they are at present exported by foreigners, who frequently come here in ballast, in order to export bounty or debenture goods, and of that species with which of necessity they must provide themselves from hence, as being only to be had of us.

Should it be alledged, that the profit of freightage is the only inducement foreigners have to take some kinds of goods from it, yet inducements of so pernicious a consequence should be avoided, as this trade tends so manifestly to increase THEIR SHIPPING, and of course their NAVAL POWER, whereby they may soon become our equals, and compel us to increase OUR MARITIME FORCE, though for no other use than to PREVENT THEIR SUPERIORITY, even when we are (from our natural resource) less able to support or bear the expence of such an increase.

That importations into these kingdoms will be more considerable in British vessels, which by these means may afford to freight back upon easier terms than foreigners, without any diminution of foreign commerce, since FOREIGN COMMODITIES are imported into these kingdoms without any regard to the vessel that brings them, but merely for the benefit arising from our markets.

That confining the exportation of CORN TO BRITISH SHIPPING, has been productive of no loss or inconveniency to us, but on the contrary many good effects have been experienced from it, by the number of our shipping, which has been, and

is employed therein; whence it may be reasonably concluded, that a GENERAL LIMITATION OF BOUNTY AND DEBENTURE GOODS TO BRITISH SHIPPING, will be of a still further and proportionable advantage to these kingdoms.

And experience has shewn, that seamen employed in the European navigation have ever enjoyed a greater degree of health, and better constitutions, than those employed in the East-India, West-India, American, or African trades, which have been fatal to a great number of young, stout, and valuable seamen; and the devastation occasioned by the mortality of seamen in those climates, has been supplied only by the nurseries of seamen in Europe; and, as those distant countries import and send hither merchandize entitled to a drawback on exportation, our European navigation should be employed in such exportation; otherwise we have no equivalent relative to our navigators, for supplying the trade of India, Africa, and America, with such numbers of seamen. That the most valuable seamen for the service of the public in the navy, are those bred up in the MERCANTILE EMPLOY, who are no expence to the nation, but a considerable benefit; because by their labour they maintain themselves and enrich their employers, and also serve as a natural resource for the defence and protection of this island. It is not quite certain how many ships are employed by this nation, but it is generally believed, that the number belonging to England trading over sea, is about 2000 sail great and small, amounting in the whole to about 170,000 tons; and the coasting vessels in England may consist of about the like number, and contain about 150,000 tons: and, by the list annexed is shewn, to what foreign countries or states the ships therein mentioned belong, together with the number of their voyages, their names, and the tonnage of each foreign ship employed in bringing goods to England, in one year before the war in 1741, one year during the war, and one after the peace of AIX LA CHAPELLE: which list is brought to a lead, and shews the total of those particulars, and also the tonnage of the repeated voyages, added to that of the first voyage. It likewise ascertains the whole foreign tonnage of each year, the voyages and tonnage that have increased since the war, by being compared with the year before the war, and an average made on the three years; by which may be formed a calculation of the ships belonging to England, with the foreign ships really employed in carrying freights for England.

The average of the burthen of foreign ships is 86,094 tons annually employed by England (exclusive of those carrying provisions from Ireland); and the tonnage of British ships belonging to England in the foreign and coasting trade is 320,000 tons, which, if actually employed, does not amount to four times the quantity of foreign tonnage: and hence a calculation may be formed of the natural GROWING STRENGTH OF OUR NEIGHBOURING MARITIME POWERS, so far as particularly relates to their trade carried on WITH ENGLAND.

Upon the whole, therefore, it will surely appear, that, by limiting the exportation of BOUNTY AND DEBENTURE GOODS TO BRITISH SHIPPING ONLY, no prejudice will arise to the trade and commerce of these kingdoms; but on the contrary, the happiest and most desirable effects will result from it, in the greater encouragement which will be necessarily given to artificers in general, to our manufactures of British sail-cloth, to all trades depending upon the building and employment of shipping; and by it the skill and experience of our seamen will become more extensive, and even universal IN THE NAVIGATION OF FOREIGN SEAS, and a less encouragement will be given to foreigners to INCREASE THEIR SHIPPING: and thereby also the revenues of the crown from inland duties and customs will be more considerably improved, and frauds in the latter more easily detected, and the landed interest in general will partake of these benefits arising from it; and (which is of the utmost importance to the nation) a foundation will be laid, not only FOR THE INCREASE AND EMPLOY OF BRITISH SHIPPING, but also of BRITISH NAVIGATORS, trained up and made a ble and skilful for the service of the public in all emergencies; from whence the necessity of an act of parliament, as a foundation for producing these beneficial consequences, is very apparent.

NAV

H O L L A N D.

DENMARK.

1743.			1747			1749.		
Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
1	Anne & Margaret	177	3	Arundahl	420	1	Andrew and Eliz.	510
3	Grundhal	440	5	Catherina	355	2	Arundahl	500
1	Anne & Catherine	400	3	Andrew and Eliz.	500	1	Anna Catherina	460
2	Andrew and Eliz.	450	1	Anne	300	1	Angel Gabriel	50
1	Anhalt	40	1	Anchell	40	1	Anna Dorothea	190
1	Anna Catherina	40	2	Antonetta	240	2	Anna Catherine	140
1	Anna Catherina	60	4	Anne & Catherine	40	1	Andrew	100
1	Anna Catherina	75	2	Angel Raphael	60	1	Andrew and Eliz.	450
4	Angel Raphael	60	1	Antonetta	120	1	Anne & Dorothy	40
2	Alicia and Maria	40	1	Andreas	400	1	Angel Raphael	60
1	Angel Gabriel	40	1	Anne & Christian	40	1	Anna Catherina	40
1	Angel Gabriel	100	1	Angel Gabriel	50	3	Angel	120
1	Anna Sophia	60	4	Anth. Cath. Marg.	80	2	Antonetta	150
2	Concord	200	1	Anna Catherina	50	1	Abraham	70
1	Antonetta	150	1	Alida Catherina	40	5	Barth. Maria	50
1	Anne	90	1	Brothers	365	3	Count Reus	350
2	Catherine	400	1	Benjamin	250	3	Claas Berthell	300
1	Christian Sextus	80	1	Bert. Catherina	40	2	City of Christiana	440
1	Catherine	120	2	Berte Marie	40	3	Concordia	100
2	Dorothea	60	3	Catherine	260	3	Catherine	130
3	Ebenazar	400	3	Claas Berthell	319	2	Christiana	80
1	Emanuel	445	3	Count Reus	300	1	Christian Maria	70
2	Ebenazar	160	2	Catherine & Brid.	300	2	Content Child	100
1	Emanuel	70	3	Christiana	500	1	Catherina Briget.	250
1	Free Unity	430	2	Charitas	40	1	Charitas	120
1	Emanuel	150	1	Christian Sextus	80	2	Catherine & Eliz.	70
1	Fortune	60	1	Catherine Berget	150	1	Crown'd P. Louisa	200
1	Fortune	30	1	Catherina	130	1	Christian Sextus	80
3	Hope	350	1	Catherine	130	1	Dolphin	30
1	Hope	40	3	Catherine & Eliz.	350	1	Dramen	140
1	Hobo	30	1	Content	80	4	Elizabeth	400
2	Helwigg Cather.	70	1	Christiana Maria	70	1	Emanuel	120
2	Hope	100	1	Catherina	150	3	Emanuel	50
2	Hope	60	1	Content Child	80	1	Emanuel	150
1	Hope	150	2	Crown'd Prince	70	1	Ebenazar	240
3	Hope	40	1	Christiana	90	3	Emanuel	150
2	Laurence	214	1	Dorothea Christ.	90	2	Emanuel	80
1	Lady Betty	45	1	Dove	40	2	Ebenazar	90
1	Lodovicus	130	5	Emanuel	40	2	Elizabeth & Cath.	180
1	Merchant	300	2	Elizabeth	60	2	Emanuel	60
1	Mary Sophia	120	1	Emanuel	440	1	Elia nor	120
1	Mary	60	3	Ebenazar	400	3	Else Maria	50
2	Norway Bear	100	2	Elizabeth & Cath.	410	2	Edel Maria	60
5	Peter and Bridget	300	6	Emanuel	60	1	Elen Boletza	100
1	Prince Frederic	350	2	Emanuel	140	2	Ebenazar	120
2	Providence	300	4	Ebenazar	90	2	Fortune	399
1	Providence	300	1	Evenninghed	72	2	Frederic Louisa	500
1	Providence	460	1	Eliz. & Cather.	180	3	Fortune	60
2	Patience	400	3	Edele Dorothea	120	5	Fortune	70
3	Peter and Anne	300	2	Fortune	70	1	Frow Maria	70
2	Prince Frederic	450	1	Fortune	50	1	Fortuna	120
1	Providence	250	1	Grer Reus	40	1	Frow Bauhilla	70
1	Patience	450	1	Hope	100	1	Francis and Jane	100
2	Providence	456	4	Hope	60	1	Frances Cæcilia	50
2	Crown'd Prince	50	5	Hope	100	2	Frederic Quintus	150
1	Catherine	70	2	Helrigg & Cath.	100	1	Frances Christiana	85
1	Fortune	20	1	Hope	80	2	Fortune	50
1	Four Brothers	60	1	Hope	140	1	Gromstadt	120
1	Hope	100	1	Hunter	92	1	Haubart	40
1	Lady Clara	100	2	Hope	100	1	Hope	400
1	Prophet Jonas	80	1	Hope	150	1	Hope	100
3	Queen Anne	300	1	Haabet	40	4	Hope	54
1	Rebecca and Eliz.	100	2	Inger Mar. Kest.	80	1	Halfmande	80
2	St. Johannes	428	1	Jager	92	1	Haabet	60
2	Salvator	500	2	Ambrosia	90	1	Helena	40
2	Sun	301	4	Concordia	100	2	Hope	50
1	St. Johannes	428	1	Christian & Susan	80	4	Hope	110
1	St. Peter	50	2	Dolphin	120	2	Helwig Catherina	100
2	St. Peter	100	1	Ebenazar	180	1	Justitia	250
2	Severinus	60	2	Elin Bolotha	150	1	Johannes & Anne	450
1	Sun	304	3	Hope	400	1	Jacob	40
4	St. Anne	70	2	Ingeboe Maria	80	1	Jomfrew Christina	150
1	Salvator	130	1	Juffrow Silla	50	1	Justitia	200
2	Sufanna	40	1	Jarlesburgh	160	1	Ingeber Maria	80
2	Sophia Magdalen	35	4	Laurence	300	1	Juffrow Christina	60
2	St. Anne	30	3	Laurence & Mary	300	1	Ingleborg Maria	90
2	Three Brothers	509	1	Lady Catherine	460	2	Laurence & Mary	350
1	Two Sisters	450	1	Lewis	50	1	Laurentius	344
1	Two Brothers	400	2	Laurentius	100	1	Lady Mary	50
2	Two Brothers	378	1	Lorentz	100	1	Lady Marina	60
1	Three Brothers	15	2	Lady Catherine	100	1	Laurence	340
1	Three Sisters	310	1	Lady Helena	80	1	Lady Brigetta	60
82 Carried forward		16070	82 Carried forward		12860	82 Carried forward		12762

1743.

Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	82 Brought forw.	30070
1	True Catherine	120
2	Young Tobias	80
1	Young Peter	80
1	Lady Anne	120
1	Providence	200
1	St. John	50
2	Unity	400
2	Elizabeth & Cath.	120

1747.

Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	82 Brought forw.	12860
1	Lady Burgitta	50
3	Mart. and Louisa	450
4	Mermaid	50
3	Mary	50
1	Maren Maria	90
1	Metta Catherina	60
1	Maria Hellena	100
2	Mariner	60
1	Marg. Christiana	130
2	Mar. and Elizab.	70
1	Memoria	50
1	Mar. Catherina	140
3	Nich. and Anne	500
1	Norway Merch.	280
2	Norway	180
1	Old George	250
3	Princess Louisa	450
4	Prince Frederic	450
3	Providentia Dei	340
5	Patience	400
3	Peter and Anne	300
1	Peter and Bridget	300
3	Providence	450
3	Prince Christian	400
2	Providence	200
1	Providence	350
1	Providence	313
1	Pagten Englin	40
1	Princess Louisa	140
1	Prophet Jonas	150
1	Peter and Marg.	150
1	Peter and George	150
1	Pugina Elizabeth	160
1	Providentia	200
2	Petrus	225
1	Prince Christian	100
1	Princess Louisa	170
1	Queen Anne	300
1	Richard and Anne	450
1	Regina Elizabeth	212
1	Rifor	90
1	St. Johannes	400
3	Salvator	500
3	St. Anne	300
2	Spes & Fortuna	400
1	Sebella Maria	24
1	Sandfleet	25
2	St. Peter	100
1	Severinus	100
3	St. Peter	50
1	St. Peter	80
1	St. Johanna	50
1	St. Paulson	60
1	St. Andreas	100
1	St. Johannes	428
1	St. Anne	100
2	St. Johannes	80
1	St. Peter	60
2	St. Jorgen	50
1	St. Johannes	50
1	Sufanna Marg.	60
3	St. Anna	70
1	Sufanna Christia.	100
1	St. Nicholas	76
1	Sophia Magdalen	30
3	Sufanna	64
1	St. Thomas	120
1	St. Mary's Church	90
5	Two Brothers	400
1	Two Brothers	140
3	Two Sisters	450
1	Treunity	430
1	Three Brothers	340
1	Talmodighed	320
1	True Christian	130
1	Two Sisters	200
1	Two Sisters	100
2	Three Brothers	100
4	Three Brothers	50
1	True Norw. Man	100
3	Three Brothers	50
5	Unity	400
2	Vreede	120
1	Vigilance	400
1	Ufrow Elizabeth	50
3	Ufrow Maria	160
1	Young Tobias	80
1	Anna Dorothea	40
1	Anna Sufanna	70
1	Angel and Jacob	150
1	Anna Christian	50

1749.

Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	82 Brought forw.	12762
2	Laurentius	100
1	Merchant	440
3	Mariner	60
2	Memoria	80
1	Maria Hellena	100
1	Mary and Elizabeth	55
1	Mermaid	50
2	Norway	120
1	Noble Maria	60
3	Norway Lion	350
2	Norway Merch.	280
1	Norway Bear	120
1	Newbridge	50
2	Providentia	300
4	Peter and Anne	260
2	Princess Louisa	370
1	Providentia	350
1	Providentia	460
2	Providentia Dei	376
1	Patience	400
1	Prince Christian	130
1	Pugina Elizabeth	160
2	Providence	180
3	Providentia	200
1	Prince Jorgan	120
1	Patriarch	30
1	Pearle	100
2	Peter and Marg.	100
1	Peter	83
1	Peter and Anna	150
1	Patience	400
1	Providence	450
1	Prince Frederic	440
1	Reolandine	70
1	Sarah	145
1	Salvator	500
1	Spes & Fortuna	350
2	Severinus	100
1	St. Anne	100
1	St. Nicholas	50
2	Sally Johannes	50
4	St. Anna	70
2	St. Jacob	70
5	Sufannah	60
1	Spice Hope	60
2	St. Michael	80
1	Severinus	100
1	St. Olaus	50
1	St. Maria	50
1	St. Peter	50
1	St. Anna	140
1	St. Johannes	200
1	Two Sisters	350
3	Three Brothers	350
1	Talmodighed	420
1	Three Brothers	360
1	Two Brothers	330
1	Two Sisters	400
1	Two Sisters	300
2	Three Brothers	350
1	Three Brothers	500
1	Three Brothers	80
1	Trofast Norman	150
1	Two Brothers	50
3	Franen	40
1	Three Brothers	60
3	Froem Ingeberg	90
1	True Brodilla	70
1	Trifoldigg	50
1	Three Brothers	340
1	Three Brothers	400
1	Twelve Sisters	60
1	Vrade	120
1	Unity	400
1	Unity	430
2	Unity	500
1	Ufrow Maria	100
3	Unity	150
2	Unity	430
2	Unity	80
1	Young Bella	400
3	Young Tobias	80
5	Anna Catherina	60
1	Feedes	110
1	Alletta Maria	40
1	Anna Sufanna	70
1	Adventure	40
1	De Stendo Softice	200
2	Dorothea Christia.	60
1	Gree Revonsloe	170
1	Hope	120

90 Carried forw. 17240

173 Carried forw. 29757
4 P173 Carried forw. 30291
DENMARK.

N A V

N A V

D E N M A R K.

1743.			1747.			1749.		
Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	90 Brought forw.	17240		173 Brought forw.	29757		173 Brought forw.	30291
			1	Eliz. and Maria	100	2	Hope	80
			1	Encighet	150	3	Maria	40
			1	Frow Helena	80	2	Nofcowbungo	30
			2	Hope	60	4	St. Johannes	50
			1	Hoffneg	100	1	St. Anna	50
			1	Margaret Marie	90	1	St. Ildute	40
			1	Norca Bungo	30	1	Ufrow Martha	144
			1	Nieuwar Young	120	2	Maria Margareta	60
			1	Prince Frederic	150			
			1	St. Johannes	100			
			1	Henry	70			
			1	St Bartholomew	150			
			1	Young Daniel	150			
			1	Poltillion	140			
			1	St. John	100			
			2	St. Peter	210			
			1	St. Johannes	400			
			2	Twelve Sisters	50			
			1	Prince of Orange	130			
	90 Ships	17240		192 Ships	32137		181 Ships	30785
	51 Repeat. Voy.	11741		144 Repeat. Voy.	31931		111 Repeat. Voy.	16597
141	Total	28981	336	Total	64068	292	Total	47382

S W E D E N.

1	Affurance	140	1	Anna Maria	100	2	Affurance	150
1	Elizabeth	150	1	Affurance	100	1	Andreas	180
1	May	100	1	Andreas	100	1	Anna Margareta	170
1	St. Johannes	100	1	Allen Ham	90	1	Anna Maria	130
1	Three Crowns	100	1	Bona Fida	140	1	Anne Galley	100
1	Dienikiet	150	1	Clara Maria	90	2	Christiana	80
1	Three Brothers	180	1	Concordia	150	1	Catherina Maria	150
1	St. Nicholas	8	1	Dorothea	160	1	Comercian	160
			1	Dorothy	160	1	Der Friede	100
			1	Enighet	150	1	Director	285
			1	Mercury	120	1	Exportation	400
			1	Enighet	80	1	Frow Jullyberg	120
			2	Catherina	100	2	Friede	200
			1	Fredericus	80	1	Hoppet	70
			1	Fabriqueur	150	1	Hazard	90
			1	Frow Christian	140	1	Harmony	150
			1	Frow Halliburg	110	2	Ida and Catherine	180
			1	Goodmit.ope	300	1	Johannes Freder.	100
			1	Hopped.	80	1	Magdalen Dorot.	150
			1	Fredericus Primus	120	1	Maria	60
			1	Johannes	19	1	Hazard	70
			1	Levant Frigate	250	1	North Star	100
			1	Louisa Ulrica	60	2	Prince Frederic	150
			1	Larke	110	2	Prince Gustavus	120
			1	Lady Regina	80	1	Sulpenden	120
			1	Mercury	170	3	St. Johannes	60
			2	Mary	40	3	Satisfaction	130
			1	Neptune	350	1	St. Bartholomew	130
			1	North Star	120	2	St Olaus	50
			1	Neptune	108	1	St. Paul	80
			1	Prince Gustavus	100	1	St. Peter	150
			1	Prince Gustavus	400	3	St. Johannes	100
			1	Ringend Jacob	100	1	St. Nicholas	100
			1	Rickson Stander	400	1	Three Brothers	180
			1	Sarah Burgetta	50	1	Three Crowns	100
			1	Sollin	50	1	Vigilantia	120
			4	St. Johannes	100	1	White Lamb	70
			1	St. Peter	80	1	Rofe	90
			1	Sarah Gretta	60	1	St. Nicholas	80
			1	Three Crowns	100	1	Anne	120
			1	Ulrica Elianora	90	1	Anna Christiana	60
			1	Vigilance	50	1	Ahn	30
			1	Walford	140	2	Concordia	30
			1	Adolphus Freder.	84	1	Catherine	90
			1	Blue Lily	70	2	Emanuel	60
			1	Catherine	70	1	Fama	50
			1	Crown'd P. Louisa	200	1	Jubella	80
			1	Charity	100	1	Lady Regina	90
			1	Ebenazar	140	1	Patientia	40
			1	Gronitadt	80	1	Regina and Eliz.	160
			1	Maria Margaret	60	1	St. Peter	100
			1	Regina and Eliz	160	1	Mercurius	175
			1	Sextus Quintus	100	1	Marg. Benedicta	300
			1	St. Johannes	70	1	Patientia	40
			1	St. Peter	30	1	Samuel	250
			1	St Nicholas Ch.	140	1	St. Thomas	100
			1	Fran Adelair	52			
			3	Two Brothers	40			
			1	Lady Mary Christ.	200			
			2	Lady Elizabeth	70			
			1	Epenflan	100			
			1	Maria	60			
	8 Ships	928		62 Ships	7373		56 Ships	6800
	Repeat Voy.			8 Repeat. Voy.	590		15 Repeat. Voy.	1600
8	Total	928	70	Total	7963	71	Total	8400

H A M B U R G

N A V

N A V

H A M B U R G H.

1743.			1747.			1749.		
Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
1	Anna Catherina	170	1	Anna Maria	200	2	Anna Maria	200
1	Anna Maria	200	2	Anna Catherina	170	1	Anna Catherina	160
1	Anna Maria	160	2	City of London	250	1	Anna Margareta	250
2	City of London	240	2	City of Hambro'	250	2	Agnetha	53
5	Flying Mercury	160	1	Catherine	140	1	City of London	240
1	Franciscus	60	1	Flying Mercury	150	1	City of Hambro'	250
2	Hambro' Exchan.	160	5	Fortuna	180	1	Dordregit	190
3	Hambro' Arms	250	2	Hope	200	1	Enigheet	100
3	Hope	180	1	Hambro' Arms	240	1	Fortune	150
3	Lady Elizabeth	320	1	Hambro' Exchan.	350	1	Fortune	100
2	Lady Sufanna	220	1	Juffrow Catherina	70	1	Hambro' Exchan.	240
1	Lady Maria	60	1	Juffro Cat Else	80	2	Harmen	140
3	Margaret	170	1	Jofias Gertrude	120	1	Hambro' Arms	250
4	Mary	160	1	King of Prussia	150	1	Hope	80
2	Regina	150	1	Lady Elizabeth	240	1	Hoope	68
3	St. Peter	170	3	Margaret	70	1	King of Prussia	100
2	St. Peter	140	5	Mary	160	2	Lady Elizabeth	240
2	St. Paul	200	1	Margaret	80	2	Lady Sufanna	200
2	St. John Evangelist	170	3	Regina	150	2	Margaret	170
1	St. John Baptift	120	1	Rofe	150	1	Mary	150
3	Unity	170	2	St. Paul	220	2	Regina Dorothea	250
1	Ufrow Catherina	40	2	St. John Evangelist	170	1	Regina	150
1	Vineyard	200	3	St. Peter	160	3	St. Paul	200
2	Unity	40	1	Wappen Van De.	60	1	St. John Evangelist	170
1	Young Peter	100	1	Young Peter	110	1	St. Antonio	200
			1	Young Otta	160	1	St. John	70
			1	Young Chriftian	65	1	Three Friends	60
			1	Lady Sufanna	240	1	Twee Sisters	80
			4	Unity	250	2	Unity	250
						1	Vreede	100
						1	Young Otto	160
	25 Ships	4010		29 Ships	4835		31 Ships	5026
	27 Repeat. Voy.	4960		23 Repeat. Voy.	4130		9 Repeat. Voy.	1738
52	Total	8970	52	Total	8965	40	Total	6764

F R A N C E.

1	Adrian Maria	70	1	Amelia	70
1	Conquerant	70	1	Afcenfion	40
1	Countefs	160	1	Count Dan. Kiolt	80
1	Diligence	58	1	Charles	15
1	Duke du Maine	45	1	Chavillman	30
1	Duke de Harcourt	100	1	Charles	30
2	Elizabeth	24	1	Dorothea Maria	30
2	Friendship	80	1	Francis	40
1	Industry	60	1	Grace d'Dieu	15
1	Lion Viellant	60	1	Genevieve	50
1	Lady of Goodne.	40	1	La Paix	40
1	Mary and Anne	70	1	La Maria Auguft.	30
3	Mary and Jane	40	1	Maria Julian	50
1	Post-Horfe	3	1	Princcfs Brazil	60
1	Adventure	40	1	Postillion	100
1	Bleffed St. Anne	60	1	Prince Conti	60
1	Catherine	40	3	Society	48
1	Don d'Dieu	40	1	Samfon	35
2	Francis and Anne	40	1	St. Lorus	30
1	John and Thomas	40	1	St. Jofeph	60
1	Jane and Mary	70	1	St. Anne	40
1	Lefre	40	1	Sun	240
3	Mary René	45			
2	Mary and Cathar.	40			
1	Mary and Francis	45			
1	Mary and Jofeph	40			
1	Mary and Cathar.	40			
1	Mary and Jofeph	50			
1	Mary and Grace	40			
1	Mary and Francis	50			
1	Maly and Vincent	40			
1	Mary and Jofeph	40			
1	Mary	50			
1	Mary and Jane	40			
1	Proteft	40			
1	Postillion	40			
1	Reunion	18			
1	Rinnet	30			
1	St. Peter	40			
3	Society	35			
1	St. Louis	40			
2	St. Francis	4			
2	St. Michael	4			
1	St. Nicholas	3			
1	St. Lewis	2			
3	St. Francis	4			
1	St. Pierre	42			
2	St Peter	40			
2	St. Barbe	62			
	49 Carried forw.	2174		22 Carried forw.	1193

NAV

NAV

FRANCE.

1743.			1747.			1749.		
Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
	49 Brought forw.	2174					22 Brought forw.	1193
1	St. Ives	50						
1	St. Vincent	40						
1	St. Michael	70						
2	St. Anna	50						
2	St. Mark	40						
2	Sufannah	40						
1	St. John	40						
1	St. Reno	40						
1	St. Joseph	40						
1	St. Valentine	50						
2	Society	40						
1	St. Anne	50						
1	St. Anne	30						
1	St. John Baptift	80						
1	St. Louis	60						
1	St. Peter	60						
1	Will. Francis	12						
1	Watchful Lion	40						
1	Amazona	80						
1	Anne and Mary	40						
1	Count de Charol.	100						
2	Imperial Eagle	50						
1	Mary and Vincent	40						
1	Providence	80						
1	Providence	40						
1	Rowland	30						
1	St. Michael	40						
1	St. Ives	20						
1	Angelic	20						
1	Marie Anne	60						
	79 Ships	3606					22 Ships	1193
	21 Repeat. Voy.	772					2 Repeat. Voy.	96
100	Total	4378				24	Total	1289

PRUSSIA.

1	Anna Dorothea	60	1	Albe Bartholom.	100	1	Albe Bartholom.	100
1	City of Colberg	110	1	Black Eagle	190	1	City of Colberg	110
1	Lady Sophia	112	1	Catherina Elizab.	120	1	Cr. Pr. of Prussia	180
1	Prince Frederic	110	1	Florent. Constant.	180	1	Commandment	100
2	Pilgar	140	2	Fountain	290	1	Freder. Amelia	120
1	Palm-Tree	120	1	Good Hope	100	1	St. Peter	120
1	St. Paul	150	2	Jacob	140	1	St. Peter	100
2	Unity	100	2	John Christian	160	4	Two Brothers	200
2	Young Tobias	150	2	Johan Charlota	120	2	Two Brothers	180
1	Maria	120	2	Love	160	1	Love	50
			2	Lady Margaret	150	1	Commandment	180
			1	Lady Lavinia	220	2	King of Prussia	180
			1	Margaretta	140	1	Prince of Prussia	30
			1	Postillion	140	1	Sufanna	120
			1	Margar. and Hel.	190	1	Queen of Prussia	90
			1	Providence	190	1	Unity	100
			2	Sufanna	140	1	City of Camin	180
			1	St. Michael	220	1	General Vansack	120
			3	St. Peter	100	1	Lady and Cather.	140
			1	Silver Hammer	150	1	Beehive	160
			1	White Lamb	140			
			2	Beehive	120			
			1	Commandment	140			
			1	Florentine Agath.	130			
			1	Cornhemp	235			
	10 Ships	1172		25 Ships	3965		20 Ships	2560
	3 Repeat. Voy.	390		10 Repeat. Voy.	1480		6 Repeat. Voy.	860
13	Total	1562	35	Total	5445	26	Total	3420

DANTZICK.

1	Anne Elizabeth	240	1	Anna Constantia	220	1	Anne and Elizab.	240
1	Anna Maria	240	1	Anna Maria	260	1	Andreas	44
1	Anna Maria	440	1	Anne and Elizab.	250	2	Cather. Constant.	200
1	Fountain	180	1	Anna Maria	362	1	Father and 2 Sons	260
1	Lady Sufanna	100	2	City of Colberg	120	1	Friendship	200
1	Oldcastle	140	1	Catherina Const.	190	1	Juffrow Virginia	229
1	St. George	260	1	Constant. Florent.	185	1	Lady Florentina	260
1	Soli Deo Gloria	180	1	Diligence de Vor.	180	1	Le Efferme	105
1	Young Charles	190	1	Father and 2 Sons	300	1	La Sol de	200
			1	John Baptist	70	1	Levina and Eliz.	290
			1	Juffrow Dorothea	128	1	Palm-Tree	120
			1	Lady Sufanna	160	1	Silver-Hammer	150
	9 Carried forw.	1970		12 Carried forw.	2425		12 Carried forw.	2298

DANTZICK.

N A V

N A V

D A N T Z I C K.

1743.			1747.			1749.		
Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
1	9 Brought forw.	1970	2	12 Brought forw.	2425	1	12 Brought forw.	2298
			2	Lady Florentia	290	2	{ Three Crow. }	80
			2	Lady Ann Virg.	280	1	{ Herrings }	
			1	Lady Helena Con.	300	1	Young John	90
			1	Leferm	160			
			1	Le Bon Experien.	200			
			1	Palm-Tice	120			
			1	Portillion	80			
			1	Red Lion	200			
			1	Soph. Charlotta	290			
			1	Three Cro. Herr.	100			
			1	Touny da Bourd	150			
			1	Young Nathaniel	190			
	9 Ships	1970		24 Ships	4785		14 Ships	2468
	Repeat Voy.			4 Repeat. Voy.	880		2 Repeat. Voy.	280
9	Total	1970	28	Total	5665	16	Total	2748

P O R T U G A L.

1	Bon Dispatch	60	1	City of Bourdeaux	100	1	Anna	120
1	Guardian Angel	30	2	Cæcilia	60	1	Anna Cornelia	120
1	Lampadofa & Al.	50	1	Dear Garden	50	1	Eurdgal	130
1	Lelrios Arms	25	1	Evendracht	140	1	{ Fran. de Eff. }	
1	La Johan. Jacoba	100	1	Fortune	150	1	{ S. Pedro Al. }	90
1	{ N. S. de Rof. }		1	Heerlg. Runder	40	1	Louisa Galley	120
1	{ & St. Dom. }	40	1	Helena	70	2	Lady Catherine	80
1	Noftra Seignora	120	3	Justus Henricus	150	2	Lady Elizabeth	140
1	N. S. da Carma	40	1	Lisbon Pacquet	75	1	Mary Auguft.	70
1	Noftra Dame	30	1	Maria	80	1	N. S. de Conceica	70
1	Robert	30	1	Neptune	150	2	{ N. S. de Pin. }	
2	St. Antonio	112	1	N. S. Sca. d'Alm.	60	1	{ Fran. S. An. }	50
1	{ St. Francisco }		1	N. S. de Bon Viay	50	1	{ & Almas }	
1	{ d'Aff. & St. }	100	1	N. S. de Rof. Aug.	80	1	{ N. S. Del. St. }	20
2	{ Ped. d'Alc. }		1	N. S. de Pic. des Al.	60	1	{ An. & Alm. }	
1	St. John	100	1	{ N. S. de Far. }	70	1	{ N. S. Remc. }	60
1	St. Philip	80	1	{ St. An. e Al. }		1	{ & St. Barn. }	
1	{ S. An de Lif. }	100	1	N. S. de Nazareth	100	1	{ N. S. d'Agi. }	90
1	{ St. Vefart }		2	Norway Packet	90	1	{ St. Antonio }	
1	St. Jef. de Ped. Al.	30	1	N. S. de Concedia	50	1	N. S. Reforia	60
1	St. Francis	50	1	N. S. de Buon Suc.	70	1	{ N. S. de Re. }	70
1	St. John Baptift	65	1	N. S. Rofaria	60	1	{ St. Barnardo }	
1	St. Pedro	240	1	N. S. de Bon Via.	60	1	Salvator	50
			1	N. S. d'Inda y Al.	80	1	St. Philip	60
			1	{ N. S. Caba c }	120	1	St. An. & Almas	100
			1	{ S. Ritta }		1	St. Domingo	70
			1	N. S. da Trinidad	50	1	St. Philip	70
			1	{ N. S. Delar. }	60	1	Two Sisters	100
			1	{ e St. Fran. }		1	Snello	60
			1	{ N. S. de Ro. }	110	1	N. S. Debon	70
			1	{ S. de Baffing }				
			1	{ N. S. de Ro. e }	40			
			1	{ S. M. d'Dios }				
			2	Providence	70			
			1	Plough	100			
			1	Prudentia	200			
			1	Sufannah	60			
			1	St. Johannes	130			
			2	St. Vin. & St. Jo.	50			
			2	Sarah	140			
			1	Sophia Amelia	100			
			2	St. Domingo	120			
			1	Sarah Felix	150			
			1	St. Andreas	80			
			1	St. An. & Almas	60			
			1	St. Rofene Aug.	90			
			1	St. Antonio	40			
			1	St. Anthony Alma	30			
			1	St. Therefa de Jef.	70			
			1	{ St. Seb. & St. }	89			
			1	{ Jof. y Alm. }				
			1	St. Laurence	130			
			1	St. Anne	80			
			1	S. de Pedra Almas	30			
			1	Vreyhiçt	160			
			1	Vrow Jacoba	140			
			1	Young Johannes	90			
			1	St. Anne & St. An.	90			
			1	St. Bernardo	50			
	19 Ships	1402		53 Ships	4624		23 Ships	1830
	2 Repeat. Voy.	192		8 Repeat. Voy.	830		3 Repeat. Voy.	270
21	Total	1594	61	Total	5454	26	Total	2100

B R E M E N.

1	Christian	160	1	Christian	150	1	Concord	120
2	Concord	160	1	Charity	180	3	Chrillian	150
1	Catherine	140	1	Concord	200	1	Charitas	200
1	Commandment	160	1	Diederish	70	2	Christiana	70
1	Christian	150	1	George	160	1	Endraght	80
1	Dorothy and Eliz.	70	1	Gebither	100	1	Catherine	140
	6 Carried forw.	840		6 Carried forw.	860		6 Carried forw.	760

N A V

N A V

B R E M E N.

1743.			1747.			1749.		
Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.	Voy.	Ships Names.	Tons.
3	6 Brought forw.	840	2	6 Brought forw.	860	1	6 Brought forw.	760
2	Gregorius	160	1	Harmione	130	1	George	200
1	George	200	1	Hannah	150	1	Good Harmony	120
1	Lady Anne	60	1	Juffrow Maria	40	1	King David	35
1	Philip	80	2	Hope	150	1	Lady Catherine	150
1	Sincerity	180	1	Mercurius	150	1	Mercury	200
1	White Pigeon	200	3	Neptune	130	1	Two Brothers	140
			2	Peace	150			
	12 Ships	1720		13 Ships	1760		13 Ships	1605
	4 Repeat. Voy.	680		5 Repeat. Voy.	690		3 Repeat. Voy.	370
16	Total	2400	18	Total	2450	16	Total	1975

F L A N D E R S.

1	Dacgerrat	320	1	Fame	40			
4	St. Francisco	40	1	Liefde	70			
4	St. Clement	40	1	Maria	30			
	3 Ships	400		3 Ships	140			
	6 Repeat. Voy.	240		Repeat. Voy.				
9	Total	640	3	Total	140			

N A P L E S and S I C I L Y.

2	Mary	120	1	Immaculate Con.	305	1	{ St. Fran. de	
			2	Madon. de Rosar.	200		Paulo alla	
			1	St. Ancello	160		Antonio de	170
			1	St. Maria de Lauro	200		Portatorio	
	1 Ship	120		4 Ships	865		1 Ship	170
	1 Repeat. Voy.	120		1 Repeat. Voy.	200			
2	Total	240	5	Total	1065	1	Total	170

R U S S I A.

3	Claas Berthel	319	1	Two Honours	50	2	Pagten's Angel	40
						2	Two Uffrow	100
	1 Ship	319		1 Ship	50	1	Uffrow Anna	160
	2 Repeat. Voy.	638					3 Ships	300
3	Total	957	1	Total	50	5	2 Repeat. Voy.	240
							Total	440

P O P E's D O M I N I O N S.

1	Petronella Galley	200						
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S P A I N.

						1	{ N. S. de Vic. }	60
							& St. Anto. }	
						1	N. S. de Nazareth	100
						1	N. S. de Pas	70
						1	N. S. de Begona	40
						1	N. S. de Rosario	40
						2	Pr. of Brazil	100
						1	St. John Bonadv.	50
						1	St. George	50
						1	{ S. Juan Y'lan- }	80
							bena bentru. }	
						1	St. Joseph	30
						3	St. John Baptist	40
						1	St. Miguel Y'Alm.	60
						1	St. Joseph	40
							13 Ships	760
							3 Repeat. Voy.	180
						16	Total	940

G E N O A.

1	Young Harman	114						
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V E N I C E.

			1	San Spiridion	305	1	Immaculate Con.	360
				Virginia del- }				
			1	la Gratia, S. }	305			
				Anna & St. }				
			1	Jean Baptist }	150			
				Young Henderick				
			3	Total	750	1	Total	360

S A R D I N I A.

			1	Hingelaas	90			
			3	St. Nicholas	60			
				2 Ships	150			
				2 Repeat Voy.	120			
			4	Total	270			

NET

NET

The foregoing L I S T brought to a Head.

The country to which the ships belong.	Year ending.	Ships, their						Total amount in the year						Increased in the year 1749, compared with the year 1743.	No. of foreign voyages annually made, comp. on the average of the 3 years 1743, 1747, and 1749, exclusive of Spain			
		First voyage.		Repeated voyages.		First and repeated voy.		1743.		1747.		1749.						
		No.	Tonn.	No.	Tonn.	No.	Tonn.	No of ships	Tonn. made.	No of ships	Tonn. made.	No of ships	Tonn. made.					
Holland	1743	45	4861	39	4080	84	8941	45	8941	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	85	8588
	1747	66	5992	45	4550	111	10542	-	-	66	10542	-	-					
	1749	45	4344	17	1938	62	6282	-	-	-	-	45	6282					
Denmark	1743	90	17240	51	11741	141	28981	90	28981	-	-	-	-	}	151	18401	256	46810
	1747	192	32137	144	31931	336	64068	-	-	192	64068	-	-					
	1749	181	30785	111	16597	292	47382	-	-	-	-	181	47382					
Sweden	1743	8	928	-	-	8	928	8	928	-	-	-	-	}	63	7472	49	5763
	1747	62	7373	8	590	70	7963	-	-	62	7963	-	-					
	1749	56	6800	15	1600	71	8400	-	-	-	-	56	8400					
Hambro'	1743	25	4010	27	4960	52	8970	25	8970	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	48	8233
	1747	29	4835	23	4130	52	8965	-	-	29	8965	-	-					
	1749	31	5026	9	1738	40	6764	-	-	-	-	31	6764					
France	1743	79	3606	21	772	100	4378	79	4378	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	62	2833
	1747	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-					
	1749	22	1193	2	96	24	1289	-	-	-	-	22	1289					
Prussia	1743	10	1172	3	390	13	1562	10	1562	-	-	-	-	}	13	1858	24	3479
	1747	25	3965	10	1480	35	5445	-	-	25	5445	-	-					
	1749	20	2560	6	860	26	3420	-	-	-	-	20	3420					
Dantzick	1743	9	1970	-	-	9	1970	9	1970	-	-	-	-	}	7	778	17	3461
	1747	24	4785	4	880	28	5665	-	-	24	5665	-	-					
	1749	14	2468	2	280	16	2748	-	-	-	-	14	2748					
Portugal	1743	19	1402	2	192	21	1594	19	1594	-	-	-	-	}	5	506	36	3049
	1747	53	4624	8	830	61	5454	-	-	53	5454	-	-					
	1749	23	1830	3	270	26	2100	-	-	-	-	23	2100					
Bremen	1743	12	1720	4	680	16	2400	12	2400	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	16	2275
	1747	13	1760	5	690	18	2450	-	-	13	2450	-	-					
	1749	13	1605	3	370	16	1975	-	-	-	-	13	1975					
Flanders	1743	3	400	6	240	9	640	3	640	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	4	260
	1747	3	140	-	-	3	140	-	-	3	140	-	-					
	1749	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-					
Naples	1743	1	120	1	120	2	240	1	240	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	2	491
	1747	4	865	1	200	5	1065	-	-	4	1065	-	-					
	1749	1	170	-	-	1	170	-	-	-	-	1	170					
Ruffia	1743	1	319	2	638	3	957	1	957	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	3	482
	1747	1	50	-	-	1	50	-	-	1	50	-	-					
	1749	3	300	2	140	5	440	-	-	-	-	3	440					
Spain	1743	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	-	-
	1747	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-					
	1749	13	760	3	180	16	940	-	-	-	-	13	940					
Pope's dominions	1743	1	200	-	-	1	200	1	200	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	-	-
	1747	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-					
	1749	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-					
Genoa	1743	1	114	-	-	1	114	1	114	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	-	-
	1747	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-					
	1749	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-					
Sardinia	1743	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	}	-	-	-	-
	1747	2	150	2	120	4	270	-	-	2	270	-	-					
	1749	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-					
Venice	1743	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	}	1	360	1	370
	1747	3	750	-	-	3	370	-	-	3	370	-	-					
	1749	1	360	-	-	1	360	-	-	-	-	1	360					
Repeated voyages								304	61875	477	112447	423	82270	240	29375	603	86094	
								156		250		173						
								460		727		596						

NEGROLAND. See AFRICA, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, ANTILLES ISLANDS.
 NETHERLANDS, [The UNITED NETHERLANDS,] or the UNITED PROVINCES of the NETHERLANDS.
 Previously to the perusal of this article, the reader is desired to consult what we have said under AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, FLANDERS, and HOLLAND.
 The United Netherlands consist of the several provinces of Holland, Zeland, Friezland, Groningen, Overijssel, Gelderland, with Zutphen and Utrecht, and are bounded by the German Sea on the north and west, by the circle of Westphalia in Germany on the east, and by Flanders, Brabant, and the dukedom of Cleves on the south, lying between 3 degrees 20 min. and 7 degr. 30 min. east long. and between 51, 35 min. and 52 degrees 40 min. north lat. and are about 50 miles long, and much the same in breadth; including the Zuyder Sea, which takes up a considerable space within these limits. This is a level country, and cut through with numerous canals, which form numerous small islands, subject to be overflowed by inundations of sea and land floods, which are kept out, at a great expence, by the means of dykes. As a part of the country has been lost by inundations, so much more has been gained by damming out the sea. Sir William Temple says, that the sea may one day have it's own again. The air of this country is very bad, by reason of abounding

with so great a degree of humidity. As to the soil of the provinces which lies near the sea, particularly on the west coast of Holland; their meadow and pasture is most of it under water in winter, which, in summer, is either dried up, or the water thrown out with wind-mills, and leaves a fat slime, which makes the soil very fruitful, whereon they fatten the lean cattle they purchase in the north, and make prodigious quantities of butter and cheese; but the country does not produce corn enough for their subsistence: yet they have as great plenty of it as any nation in Europe, and likewise of the produce of every country; these provinces containing magazines of every thing the earth produces, that is trafficable. But in regard to their trade, we shall begin with their
 FISHERIES. See our general article FISHERIES, and HERRING-FISHERY, and HOLLAND Emanuel Van Meteren, the Dutch historian, informs us, that in 1610, there went from Holland 1500 busses upon the herring-fishery. The author of Batavia Illustrata tells us, that one year with another, the number of these busses does not exceed 800; but those are from 30 to 50 tons, whereas in Van Meteren's time, they were only from 20 to 30 tons: so that though the number of vessels that may be now employed be not so great, yet this is more than made up in their size: there is a greater quantity of fish taken at present, more hands than ever employed, and a proportionable consumption

consumption of every thing that depends on their fishery. The importance of the herring-fishery will appear very great to any one that considers how many different parts of commerce it gives motion to, and how great a number of people depend on each of them. There are here two seasons of the herring-fishery; the first continues for a month or five weeks, on the coast of Scotland, from the latter end of June to the latter end of July; the second holds from the middle of September to the latter end of November, on the coast of England, about Yarmouth and Leostoff.

The inland fishery of the Dutch is also of no little consequence to them. Their lakes and rivers afford all kinds of fresh-water fish; and those proper to the sea, are taken on every part of their coast, with which their markets are plentifully supplied: what is more than competent for home consumption, is pickled, and added to their cod and herrings for exportation.

What the trade of the United Netherlands was, in the time of Sir William, we have in his account thereof; which, with remarks suitable to its present state, will give the reader a good idea of its present compared with its former condition, will also shew the difference, and point out the cause.

'Tis evident, says Sir William, to those who have read the most, and travelled farthest, that no country can be found, either in this present age, or upon record of any story, where so vast a trade has been managed, as in the narrow compass of the four maritime provinces of this commonwealth; nay, it is generally esteemed, that they have more shipping belongs to them, than there does to all the rest of Europe. Yet they have no native commodities towards the building or rigging of the smallest vessel; their flax, hemp, pitch, wood, and iron, coming all from abroad, as wool does for cloathing their men, and corn for feeding them.

Nor do I know any thing properly of their own growth, that is considerable, either for their own necessary use, or for traffic with their neighbours, besides butter, cheese, and earthen wares. For havens, they have not any good upon their whole coast: the best are Helvoetsluys, which has no trade at all; and Flushing, which has little, in comparison of other towns in Holland: but Amsterdam, that triumphs in the spoils of Lisbon and Antwerp, (which before ingrossed the greatest trade of Europe and the Indies) seems to be the most incommodious haven they have, being seated upon so shallow waters, that ordinary ships cannot come up to it without the advantage of tides, nor great ones without unlading.

The entrance of the Texel, and passage over the Zuyder-sea, is more dangerous than a voyage from thence to Spain, lying all in blind and narrow channels; so that it easily appears, that 'tis not an haven that draws trade, but trade that fills an haven, and brings it in vogue. Nor has Holland grown rich by any native commodities, but by force of industry; by improvement and manufacture of all foreign growth; by being the general magazine of Europe, and furnishing all parts with whatever the market wants or invites; and by their seamen being, as they have properly been called, the common carriers of the world*.

* The Dutch have lost a very considerable part of this beneficial traffic since the peace of Utrecht.

Since the ground of trade cannot be derived from havens, or native commodities, (as may well be concluded from the survey of Holland, which has the least and the worst; and of Ireland, which has the most and the best of both) it were not amiss to consider, from what other source it may be more naturally and certainly derived: for if we talk of industry, we are still as much to seek, what it is that makes people industrious in one country, and idle in another.

I conceive the true original and grounds of trade to be, great multitudes of people crowded into a small compass of land, whereby all things necessary to life become dear, and all men who have possessions, are induced to parsimony; but those who have none, are forced to industry and labour, or else to want. Bodies that are vigorous, fall to labour; such as are not, supply that defect by some sort of inventions or ingenuity. These customs arise first from necessity, but increase by imitation, and grow in time to be habitual in a country; and wherever they are so, if it lies upon the sea, they naturally break out into trade, both because whatever they want of their own, that is necessary to so many men's lives, must be supplied from abroad; and because, by the multitude of people, and smallness of country, land grows so dear, that the improvement of money, that way, is inconsiderable, and so turns to sea, where the greatness of the profit makes amends for the venture.

This cannot be better illustrated, than by its contrary, which appears no where more than in Ireland; where, by the largeness and plenty of the food, and scarcity of people, all things necessary to life are so cheap, that an industrious man, by two day's labour, may gain enough to feed him the rest of the week; which I take to be a very plain ground of the laziness attributed to the people: for men naturally

prefer ease before labour, and will not take pains, if they can live idle. Though when, by necessity, they have been inured to it, they cannot leave it, being grown a custom necessary to their health, and to their very entertainment: nor, perhaps, is the change harder, from constant ease to labour, than from constant labour to ease.

This account of the original of trade agrees with the experience of all ages, and with the constitutions of all places, where it has most flourished in the world; as Tyre, Carthage, Athens, Syracuse, Agrigentum, Rhodes, Venice, Holland, and will be so obvious to every man, that knows and considers the situation, the extent, and the nature of all those countries, that it will need no enlargement upon the comparisons.

By these examples, which are all of commonwealths, and by the decay or dissolution of trade in the six first, when they came to be conquered, or subjected to arbitrary dominions, it might be concluded, that there is something in that form of government proper and natural to trade, in a more peculiar manner. But the height it arrived to at Bruges and Antwerp, under their princes, for four or five descents of the house of Burgundy, and two of Austria, shews it may thrive under good princes and legal monarchies, as well as under free states.

Under arbitrary and tyrannical power, it must of necessity decay and dissolve, because this empties a country of people, whereas the others fill it; this extinguishes industry, whilst men are in doubt of enjoying themselves with what they get, or leaving it to their children; the others encourage it, by securing men of both; one fills a country with soldiers, and the other with merchants, who were never known yet to live well together, because they cannot trust one another. And as trade cannot live without mutual trust among private men, so it cannot grow or thrive, to any great degree, without a confidence both of public and private safety, and consequently a trust in the government, from an opinion of its strength, wisdom, and justice; which must be grounded either upon the personal virtues and qualities of a prince, or else upon the constitutions and orders of a state.

It appears to every man's eye, who hath travelled Holland, and observed the number and vicinity of their great and populous towns and villages, with the prodigious improvement of almost every spot of ground in the country, and the great multitudes constantly employed in their shipping abroad, and their boats at home, that no other known country in the world, of the same extent, holds any proportion with this in numbers of people; and if that be the great foundation of trade, the best account that can be given of theirs, will be by considering the causes and accidents that have served to force or invite so vast a confluence of people into their country. In the first rank may be placed the civil wars, calamities, persecutions, oppressions, or discontents, that have been so fatal to most of their neighbours, for some time before, as well as since their state began.

The persecutions for matter of religion, in Germany, under Charles V. in France, under Henry II. and in England, under queen Mary, forced great numbers of people out of all those countries, to shelter themselves in the several towns of the seventeen provinces, where the ancient liberties of the country, and privileges of the cities, had been inviolate under so long a succession of princes, and gave protection to these oppressed strangers, who filled their cities both with people and trade, and raised Antwerp to such an height and renown, as continued till the duke of Alva's arrival in the Low-Countries.

The fright of this man, and the orders he brought, and arms to execute them, began to scatter the flock of people that for some time had been nested there; so as, in a very few months, above a hundred thousand families removed out of the country.

But when the seven provinces united, and began to defend themselves with success, under the conduct of the prince of Orange, and the countenance of England and France, and the persecutions for religion began to grow sharp in the Spanish provinces, all the professors of the reformed religion, and haters of the Spanish dominions, retired into the strong cities of this commonwealth, and gave the same date to the growth of trade there, and the decay of it at Antwerp.

The long civil wars, as first of France, then of Germany, and lastly of England, served to increase the swarm in this country, not only by such as were persecuted at home, but great numbers of peaceable men, who came here to seek for quiet in their lives, and safety in their possessions or trades; like those birds that, upon the approach of a rough winter-season, leave the countries where they were born and bred, fly away to some kinder and softer climate, and never return till the frosts are past, and the winds are laid at home. The invitation these people had, to fix rather in Holland, than in many better countries, seem to have been, at first, the great strength of their towns; which, by their maritime situation, and the low flatness of their country, can, with their sluices, overflow all the ground about them, at such distances, as to become inaccessible to any land forces. And this natural strength has been improved, especially at Amsterdam,

Amsterdam, by all the art and expence that could any ways contribute towards the defence of the place.

Next was the constitution of their government; by which neither the States-General, nor the prince, have any power to invade any man's person or property within the precincts of their cities. Nor could it be feared, that the senate of any town should conspire to any such violence; nor if they did, could they possibly execute it, having no soldiers in their pay, and the burghers only being employed in the defence of their towns, and execution of all civil justice among them.

These circumstances give so great a credit to the bank of Amsterdam; and that was another invitation for people to come and lodge here, what part of their money they could transport, and knew no way of securing at home. Nor did those people only lodge monies here, who came over into the country, but many more who never left their own: though they provided for a retreat against a storm, and thought no place so secure as this, nor from whence they might so easily draw their money into any parts of the world.

Another circumstance was, the general liberty and ease, not only in point of conscience, but all others that serve to the commodiousness and quiet of life; every man following his own way, minding his own business, and little enquiring into other men's; which, I suppose, happened by so great a concourse of people of several nations, different religions and customs, as left nothing strange or new, and, by the general humour, bent all upon industry; whereas, curiosity is only proper to idle men.

Besides, it has ever been the great principle of their state, running through all their provinces and cities, even with emulation, to make their country the common refuge of all miserable men, from whose protection, hardly any alliances, treaties, or interests, have ever been able to divert or remove them. So as, during the great dependance this state had upon France, in the time of Henry IV. all the persons disgraced at that court, or banished that country, made this their common retreat; nor could the state ever be prevailed with, by any instances of the French ambassador, to refuse them the use and liberty of common life and air, under the protection of their government.

This firmness in the state has been one of the circumstances that has invited so many unhappy men out of all their neighbourhood, and, indeed, from most parts of Europe, to shelter themselves from the blows of justice, or of fortune.

Nor, indeed, does any country seem so proper to be made use of upon such occasions, not only in respect of safety, but as a place that holds so constant and easy correspondencies with all parts of the world, and whither any man may draw whatever money he has at his disposal in any other place; where neither riches expose men to danger, nor poverty to contempt; but, on the contrary, where parsimony is honourable, whether it be necessary or no; and he that is forced, by his fortune, to live low, may here alone live in fashion, and upon equal terms (in appearance abroad) with the chiefest of their ministers, and richest of their merchants: nor is it easily imagined, how great an effect this constitution among them may, in course of time, have had upon the increase both of their people and their trade.

As the two first invitations of people into this country, were the strength of their towns, and nature of their government, so two others have grown with the course of time, and progress of their riches and power. One is the reputation of their government, arising from the observation of the success of their arms, the prudence of their negotiations, the steadiness of their councils, the constancy of their peace and quiet at home, and the consideration they hereby arrived at among the princes and states of Christendom. From all these, men grew to a general opinion of the wisdom and conduct of their state, and of its being established upon foundations that could not be shaken by any common accidents, nor consequently in danger of any great or sudden revolutions; and this is a mighty inducement to industrious people to come and inhabit a country, who seek not only safety, under laws, from justice and oppressions, but likewise, under the strength and good conduct of a state, from the violence of foreign invasions, or of civil commotions.

The other is, the great beauty of their country (forced in time, and by the improvements of industry, in spite of nature) which draws every day such numbers of curious and idle persons to see their provinces, though not to inhabit them. And, indeed, their country is a much better mistress than a wife, and where few persons, who were well at home, would be content to live; but where none, that have time and money to spare, would not for once be willing to travel; and as England shews, in the beauty of the country, what nature can arrive at, so does Holland, in the number, greatness, and beauty of their towns, whatever art can bring to pass. But these, and many other matters of speculation among them, filling the observations of all common travellers, shall make no part of mine, whose design is rather to discover the causes of their trade and riches, than to relate the effects.

Yet it may be noted hereupon, as a piece of wisdom in any kingdom or state, by the magnificence of courts, or of public structures; by encouraging beauty in private building, and the adornment of towns with pleasant and regular plantations of trees; by the celebration of some noble festivals or solemnities; by the institution of some great marts or fairs; and by the contrivance of any extraordinary and renowned spectacles, to invite and occasion, as much and as often as can be, the concourse of busy or idle people from the neighbouring or remoter nations, whose very passage and intercourse is a great increase of wealth and of trade, and a secret incentive of people to inhabit a country, where men may meet with equal advantages, and more entertainments of life, than in other places. Such were the Olympicks and other games among the Grecians; such the triumphs, trophies, and secular plays of old Rome, as well as the spectacles exhibited afterwards by the emperors, with such stupendous effects of art and expence, for courting or entertaining the people; such the wiles of New Rome; the jousts and tournaments formerly used in most of the courts of Christendom; the festivals of the more celebrated orders of knighthood; and, in particular towns, the carnivals and fairs; the kermesses, which run through all the cities of the Netherlands, and, in some of them, with a great deal of pageantry as well as traffic, being equal baits of pleasure and of gain.

Having thus discovered, what has laid the great foundation of their trade, by the multitude of the people which has planted and habituated industry among them, and, by that, all sorts of manufacture; as well as parsimony, and thereby general wealth: I shall enumerate, very briefly, some other circumstances that seem, next to these, the chief advancers and encouragers of trade in their country.

Low interest, and dearth of land, are effects of the multitude of people, and cause of so much money to lie ready for all projects, by which gain may be expected, as the cutting of canals, making bridges and causeys, levelling downs, and draining marshes, besides all NEW ESSAYS at FOREIGN TRADE, which are proposed with any probability of advantage.

The use of their banks, which secures money, and makes all payments easy, and trade quick.

The sale by registry, which were introduced here and in Flanders, in the time of Charles V. and makes all purchases safe.

The severity of justice, not only against all thefts, but all cheats and counterfeits of any public bills (which is capital among them), and even against all common beggars, who are disposed of either into workhouses, or hospitals, as they are able or unable to labour. See the article POOR.

The convoys of merchant-fleets into all parts, even in time of peace, but especially into the Straights; which give their trade security against many unexpected accidents, and their nation credit abroad, and breeds up seamen for their ships of war.

The lowness of their customs, and easiness of paying them, which, with the freedom of their ports, invite both strangers and natives to bring commodities hither; not only as to a market, but as to a magazine, where they lodge 'till they are invited abroad to other and better markets.

Order and exactness in managing their trade, which brings their commodities in credit abroad. This was first introduced by severe laws and penalties, but is since grown into custom. Thus there have been above thirty several placarts about the manner of curing, pickling, and barrelling herrings. Thus all arms, made at Utrecht, are forfeited, if sold without mark, or marked without trial. And I observed in their India-House, that all the pieces of scarlet, which are sent in great quantities to those parts, are marked with the English arms, and inscriptions in English; by which they maintain the credit gained to that commodity, by our former trade to parts, where it is now lost or decayed.

The government managed either by men that trade, or whose families have risen by it, or who have themselves some interest going in other men's traffic, or who are born and bred in towns, the soul and being whereof consists wholly in trade, which makes sure of all favour, that from time to time grows necessary, and can be given the government.

The custom of every town's affecting some particular commerce or staple, valuing itself thereupon, and so improving it to the greatest height: as Flushing, by that of the West-Indies; Middleburgh, of French wines; Terver, by the Scotch staple; Dort, by the English staple and Rhenish wines; Leyden, by the manufactures of all sorts of stuffs, silk, hair, gold and silver; Haerlem, by linen, mixt stuffs, and flowers; Delft, by beer and Dutch porcelain; Surdam, by the built of ships; Enchuyfen and Mazlandsluys, by herring-fishing; Friesland, by the Greenland trade, and Amsterdam, by that of the East-Indies, Spain, and the Straights. The great application of the whole province to the fishing-trade, upon the coasts of England and Scotland, which employ an incredible number of ships and seamen, and supplies most of the southern parts of Europe with a rich and necessary commodity. See the articles FISHERIES, and HERRING-FISHERY.

The last I shall mention, is, the mighty advance they have made towards engrossing the whole commerce of the East-Indies. [See the article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY] by their successes against the Portuguese, and by their many wars and victories against the natives, whereby they have forced them to treaties of commerce, exclusive to all other nations, and to the admission of forts to be built upon freights and passes, that command the entrances into the traffic of such places. This has been achieved by the multitude of their people and mariners, that has been able to furnish every year so many great ships for such voyages, and to supply the loss of so many lives, as the changes of climate have cost, before they learnt the method of living in them: by the vastness of the stock that has been turned wholly to that trade, and by the conduct and application of the East-India company, who have managed it like a commonwealth rather than a trade, and thereby raised a state in the Indies; governed, indeed, by the orders of the company, but otherwise appearing to those nations like a sovereign state, making war and peace with their greatest kings, and able to bring to sea forty or fifty men of war, and thirty thousand men at land, by the modestest computations. The stock of this trade, besides what it turns to in France, Spain, Italy, the Straights, and Germany, makes them so great masters in the trade of the northern parts of Europe, as Muscovy, Poland, Pomerania, and all the Baltic; where the spices, that are an Indian drug, and European luxury, command all the commodities of those countries, which are so necessary to life, as their corn; and to navigation, as hemp, pitch, masts, planks, and iron.

Thus the trade of this country is discovered to be no effects of common contrivances, of natural dispositions or situation, or of trivial accidents; but of a great concurrence of circumstances, a long course of time, force of orders and method, which never before met in the world to such a degree, or with so prodigious a success; and, perhaps, never will again. Having grown (to sum up all) from the situation of their country, extended upon the sea, divided by two such rivers as the Rhine and the Maes, with the vicinity of the Ems, Weser, and Elbe; from the confluence of people out of Flanders, England, France, and Germany, invited by the strength of their towns, and by the constitutions and credit of their government; by the liberty of conscience, and security of life and goods (subjected only to constant laws); from general industry and parsimony, occasioned by the multitude of people, and smallness of country; from cheapness and easiness of carriage, by convenience of canals; from low interest, and dearth of land, which turn money to trade; the institution of banks; sale by registry; care of convoys; smallness of customs; freedom of ports; order in trade; interest of persons in the government; particular traffic, affected to particular places; application to the fishery; and acquisitions in the East Indies.

It is no constant rule, that trade makes riches; for there may be a trade that impoverishes a nation: as it is not going often to market, that enriches the countryman; but, on the contrary, if, every time he comes there, he buys to a greater value than he sells, he grows the poorer the oftener he goes: but the only and certain scale of riches, arising from trade in a nation, is the proportion of what is exported for the consumption of others, to what is imported for their own.

The true ground of this proportion lies in the general industry and parsimony of a people, or in the contrary of both. Industry increases the native commodity, either in the product of the soil, or the manufactures of the country, which raises the stock for exportation. Parsimony lessens the consumption of their own, as well as of foreign commodities; and not only abates the importation by the last, but increases the exportation by the first; for, of all native commodities, the less is consumed in a country, the more is exported abroad; there being no commodity, but, at one price or other, will find a market, which they will be masters of, WHO CAN AFFORD IT CHEAPEST: such are always the most industrious and parsimonious people, who can thrive by prices, upon which the lazy and expensive cannot live.

The vulgar mistake, that IMPORTATION OF FOREIGN WARES, IF PURCHASED ABROAD WITH NATIVE COMMODITIES, AND NOT WITH MONEY, DOES NOT MAKE A NATION POORER, is but what every man, that gives himself leisure to think, must immediately rectify, by finding out, that, upon the end of an account between a nation, and all they deal with abroad, whatever the EXPORTATION WANTS IN VALUE, to balance that of the IMPORTATION, must of necessity be made up with READY MONEY. By this we find out the foundation of the riches of Holland, as of their trade by the circumstances already rehearsed: for never any country TRADED SO MUCH, AND CONSUMED SO LITTLE. THEY BUY INFINITELY, BUT IT IS TO SELL AGAIN, EITHER UPON IMPROVEMENT OF THE COMMODITY, OR AT A BETTER MARKET. They are the great masters of the Indian spices, and of the Persian silks; but wear plain woollen, and feed upon their own fish and roots. Nay, they sell the finest of their own cloth to France, and buy coarse out of England for their own wear. They send abroad the best of their own

butter, into all parts, and buy the cheapest out of Ireland, or the north of England, for their own use. In short, they furnish infinite luxury, which they never practise; and traffic in pleasures, which they never taste.

The gentlemen and officers of the army change their cloaths and their modes like their neighbours. But among the whole body of the CIVIL MAGISTRATES, the MERCHANTS, the RICH TRADERS, AND CITIZENS IN GENERAL, the fashions continue still the same; and others as constant among the seamen and boors: so that men LEAVE OFF THEIR CLOATHS, only because they are worn out, and not because they ARE OUT OF FASHION.

Their great foreign consumption is French wine and brandy; but that may be allowed them, as the only reward they enjoy of all their pains, and as that alone which makes them rich and happy in their voluntary poverty, who would otherwise seem poor and wretched in their real wealth. Besides, what they spend in wine, they save in corn to make other drinks, which is brought from foreign parts. And, upon a pressure of their affairs, we see now for two years together, they have denied themselves even this comfort, among all their sorrows, and made up in passive fortitude, whatever they have wanted in the active.

Thus it happens, that much going constantly out, either in commodity, or in the labour of seafaring men; and little coming in to be consumed at home, the rest returns in coin, and fills the country to that degree, that more silver is seen in Holland, among the common hands and purses, than brass either in Spain or in France; though one be so rich in the best native commodities, and the other drain all the treasures of the West-Indies.

By this account of their trade and riches, it will appear, that some of our maxims are not so certain, as they are current, in our common politics. As first, that example and encouragement of excess and luxury, if employed in the consumption of native commodities, is of advantage to trade: it may be so to that which impoverishes, but it is not to that which enriches a country; and is, indeed, less prejudicial, if it lie in native than in foreign wares. But the custom or humour of luxury and expence, cannot stop at certain bounds; what begins in native, will proceed in foreign commodities: and though the example arise among idle persons, yet the imitation will run into all degrees, even of those men by whose industry the nation subsists. And besides, the more of our own we spend, the less we shall have to send abroad; and so it will come to pass, that while we drive a vast trade, yet, by buying much more than we sell, we shall come to be poor: whereas, when we drove a very small traffic abroad, yet, by selling so much more than we bought, we were very rich in proportion to our neighbours.

This appeared in Edward the IIIrd's time, when we maintained so mighty wars in France, and carried our victorious arms into the heart of Spain: whereas, in the 23th year of that king's reign, the value and custom of all our exported commodities amounted to two hundred and ninety-four thousand, one hundred and eighty-four pounds, seventeen shillings and two pence. And that of imported, but to thirty-eight thousand, nine hundred and seventy pounds, three shillings and six pence. So as there must have entered that year into the kingdom in coin, or bullion (or else have grown a debt to the nation), two hundred and fifty-five thousand, two hundred and fourteen pounds, thirteen shillings and eight pence. And yet we then carried out our wools unwrought, and bought in a great part of our cloaths from Flanders.

Another common maxim is, that if, by any foreign invasion or servitude, the state, and consequently the trade, of Holland, should be ruined, the last would of course fall to our share in England. Which is no consequence: for it would certainly break into several pieces, and shift, either to us, to Flanders, to the Hanse Towns, or any other parts, according as the most of those circumstances should any where concur to invite it (and the likeness to such) as appear to have formerly drawn it into Holland, by so mighty a confluence of people, and so general a vein of industry and parsimony among them. And whoever pretends to equal their growth in trade and riches, by other ways than such as are already enumerated, will prove, I doubt, either to deceive, or to be deceived.

A third is, that if that state were reduced to great extremities, so as to become a province to some greater power, THEY WOULD CHUSE OUR SUBJECTION RATHER THAN ANY OTHER; or those, at least, that are the maritime, and the richest of the provinces. But it will be more reasonably concluded, from what Sir William has said in his former discourses on this state, that though they may be divided by absolute conquests, they will never divide themselves by consent, but all fall one way; and, by common agreement, make the best terms they can for their country, as a PROVINCE, if not as a STATE: and before they come to such an extremity, they will first seek to be admitted, as a Belgic circle, in the empire (which they were of old) and thereby receive the protection of that mighty body, which (as far as great and smaller things may be compared) seems the most like their own state in it's main constitutions, but especially in the freedom or sovereignty

verignty of the imperial cities. And this I have often heard their ministers speak of, as their last refuge, in case of being threatened by too strong and fatal a conjuncture.

And, if this should happen, the trade of the provinces would rather be preserved or increased, than any way broken or destroyed by such an alteration of their state, because the liberties of the country would continue what they are, and the security would be greater than now it is.

The last I will mention is of another vein: that if the prince of Orange were made sovereign of their country, though by foreign arms, he would be a great prince, because this now appears to be so great a state. Whereas, on the contrary, those provinces would soon become a very mean country. For such a power must be maintained by force, as it would be acquired, and as, indeed, all absolute dominion must be in those provinces. This would raise general discontents, and those perpetual seditions among the towns, which would change the order of the country, and anger the property of private men, and shake the credit and safety of the government: whenever this should happen, the people would scatter, industry would faint, banks would dissolve, and trade would decay to such a degree, as probably, in course of time, the very digues would be no longer maintained, by the defences of a weak people against so furious an invader; but the sea would break in upon their land, and leave their chiefest cities to be fisher-towns, as they were of old.

Without any such great revolutions, I am of opinion, that trade has, for some years ago past its meridian, and begun sensibly to decay among them: whereof there seems to be several causes, as first, the general application that so many other nations have made to it, within these two or three and twenty years. For, since the peace of Munster, which restored the quiet of Christendom in 1648, not only Sweden and Denmark, but France and England, have more particularly than ever before, busied the thoughts and councils of their several governments, as well as the humours of their people, about the matters of trade.

Nor has this happened without good degrees of success; though kingdoms of such extent, that have other and nobler foundations of greatness, cannot raise trade to such a pitch as this little state, which had no other to build upon; no more than a man, who has a fair and plentiful estate, can fall to labour and industry, like one that has nothing else to trust to for the support of his life. But, however, all these nations have come, of late, to share largely with them; and there seem to be grown too many traders for trade in the world, so as they can hardly live one by another. As in a great populous village, the first grocer or mercer that sets up among them grows presently rich, having all their custom, 'till another, encouraged by his success, comes to set up by him, and share in his gains; at length so many fall to the trade, that nothing is got by it; and some must give over, or all must break*.

* This would be just, if the world did not afford a perpetual increase of traffic.

Not many ages past, Venice and Florence possessed all the trade of Europe; the last by their manufactures, the first by their shipping: and the whole trade of Persia and the Indies, whose commodities were brought (those by land, and those by the Arabian Sea) to Egypt, from whence they were fetched by the Venetian fleets, and dispersed into most of the parts of Europe: and in those times, we find the whole trade of England, was driven by Venetians, Florentines, and Lombards. The Easterlings, who were the inhabitants of the Hanse-Towns, as Dantzic, Lubec, Hamburg, and others upon the coast, fell next into trade, and managed all that of these northern parts for many years, and brought it first down to Bruges, and from thence to Antwerp. The first navigations of the Portuguese to the East-Indies, broke the greatest of the Venetian trade and drew it to Lisbon: and the revolt of the Netherlands, that of Antwerp to Holland. But in all this time, the other and greater nations of Europe concerned themselves little in it; their trade was war; their councils and enterprizes were busied in the quarrels of the Holy Land, or in those between the popes and the emperors (both of the same forge, engaging all Christian princes, and ending in the greatness of the Ecclesiastical State throughout Christendom): sometimes, in the mighty wars between England and France, between France and Spain: the more general between Christians and Turks; or more particular quarrels, between lesser and neighbouring princes. In short, the kingdoms and principalities were in the world, like the noblemen and gentlemen in a country; the free states and cities, like the merchants and traders: these at first despised by the others, the other served and revered by them; 'till, by the various course of events in the world, some of these came to grow rich and powerful by industry and parsimony; and some of the others, poor by war and by luxury: which made the traders begin to take upon them, and carry it like gentlemen, and the gentlemen begin to take a fancy of falling to trade.

By this short account it will appear no wonder, either that

particular places grew so rich and so mighty, while they alone enjoyed almost the general trade of the world; nor why not only the trade in Holland, but the advantage of it in general, should seem to be lessened by so many that share it.

Another cause of its decay in that state may be, that, by the mighty progress of their East-India company, the commodities of that country are grown more than these parts of the world can take off; and consequently, the rates of them must needs be lessened, while the charge is increased by the great wars, the armies, and forts, necessary to maintain or extend the acquisitions of that company in the Indies. For, instead of five or six East-India ships, which used to make the fleet of the year, they are now risen to eighteen or twenty (I think two and twenty came in one year to the United Provinces). This is the reason why the particular persons of that company in Holland make not so great advantage of the same stock, as those of ours do in England; though their company be very much richer, and drives a far greater trade than ours, which is exhausted by no charge of armies, or forts, or ships of war: and this is the reason, that the Dutch are forced to keep so long and so much of those commodities in their magazines here, and to bring them out, only as the markets call for them, or are able to take off; and why they bring so much less from the Indies, than they were able to do, if there were vent enough here: as I remember, one of their seamen newly landed out of their East-India fleet, in the year 1669, upon discourse in a boat between Delft and Leyden, said, he had seen, before he came away, three heaps of nutmegs burnt at a time, each of which was more than a small church could hold, which he pointed at in a village that was in sight.

Another cause may be the great cheapness of corn, which has been for these dozen years or more, general in all these parts of Europe, and which has a very great influence upon the trade of Holland. For a great vent of Indian commodities (at least the spices which are the gross of them) used to be made into the northern parts of Europe, in exchange for corn, while it was taken off at good rates by the markets of Flanders, England, France, Spain, or Italy; in all which countries it has of late years gone so low, as to discourage the import of so great quantities, as used to come from Poland and Prussia, and other parts of the north. Now, the less value those nations receive for corn, the less they are able to give for spice, which is a great loss to the Dutch on both sides, lessening the vent of their Indian ware in the northern, and the traffic of corn in the southern parts.

The cause of this great cheapness of corn seems to be, not so much a course of plentiful and seasonable years, as the general peace that has been in Europe since the year 1659 or 60; by which so many men and so much land have been turned to husbandry, that were before employed in the wars, or lay wasted by them in all the frontier provinces of France and Spain, as well as throughout Germany, before the peace of Munster; and in England, during the actions or consequences of a civil war: and plenty grows not to a height, but by the succession of several peaceful as well as seasonable years.

The last cause I will mention, is the mighty enlargement of the city of Amsterdam, by that which is called the New Town; the extent whereof is so spacious, and the buildings of so much greater beauty and cost than the old, that it must have employed a vast proportion of that stock, which in this city was before wholly turned to trade. Besides, there seems to have been growing on for these later years, a greater vie of luxury and expence among many of the merchants of that town, than was ever formerly known: which was observed and complained of, as well as the enlargement of their city, by some of the wisest of their ministers, while I resided among them, who designed some regulations by sumptuary laws; as knowing the very foundations of their trade would soon be undermined, if the habitual industry, parsimony, and simplicity of their people came to be over-run by luxury, idleness, and excess. However it happened, I found it agreed by all the most diligent and circumspect enquiries I could make, that in the years 1669 and 70, there was hardly any foreign trade among them, besides that of the Indies, by which the traders made the returns of their money without loss; and none, by which the common gain was above two or three in the hundred. So, as it seems to be with trade, as with the sea (its element) that has a certain pitch above which it never rises in the highest tides, and begins to ebb, as soon as ever it ceases to flow; and ever loses ground in one place, proportionable to what it gains in another.

REMARKS before the last WAR.

There is nothing clearer, than that it is the true interest of this republic to live in perfect harmony with Great-Britain, inasmuch as both countries have continually reaped the greatest advantages, when this union has subsisted; and have both felt the bad effects of being set at variance, and employing their maritime forces against each other, through the intrigues of their common enemies. It is, indeed, true, that each of these powers have an equal interest in commerce;

but

but while they live upon good terms, and consult their respective interests only, they can, without any difficulty, regulate the views of their subjects, so as to prevent their clashing with each other; and for the common benefit of both, which in the present situation of things is far easier than in former times; and of greater consequence than ever, considering the new schemes that are every day formed, and forming in different parts of Europe, with a tendency equally prejudicial to the trade of both.

Under the articles *FLANDERS* and *HOLLAND*, we have in our observations thereon shewn the necessity, the absolute and indispensable necessity in Great-Britain, to contribute all in her power to support and maintain a good barrier for the preservation of the Netherlands against the dominion of France: to enforce which principle still the more sensibly, we have also under the article *FRANCE*, shewn the extraordinary encroachments of that nation in point of territory since the time of Monsr. Colbert, as well as the surprizing increase of their commerce and navigation from that period.—And, as the barrier of the Dutch still remains unsettled, it still remains necessary to corroborate what we have urged under the heads before-mentioned—This we shall do from the authentic transactions of the parliament of England.

The sense of the commons upon this occasion, can no way be better seen, than from their own journals, and therefore I shall give the reader a short abstract of them.

In the beginning of 1677, the commons did directly, and in very pressing terms, represent to the king, that the minds of his people were very much disquieted with the dangers arising from the manifest growth and power of the French king; especially by the acquisitions made, and like to be made by him, in the Spanish Netherlands: in preservation and security whereof, say they, we humbly conceive the interest of your majesty, and the safety of your people, are highly concerned; and therefore we most humbly beseech your majesty to take the same into your royal care, and to strengthen yourself with such stricter alliances, as may secure your majesty's kingdoms, and preserve the said Spanish Netherlands, and thereby quiet the minds of your majesty's people.

And when the lords, who concurred with the commons in this address, would have had particular mention likewise made of Sicily, it being of great importance to our trade, that Sicily be not in the hands of the French king; the commons disagreed to it for this reason, because, 'the special mentioning of Sicily, would seem to put less weight upon the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands; the conservation of which they conceive to be of much more moment to his majesty's kingdoms, than that of Sicily. For though it may be of great importance to our trade, that Sicily be not in the hands of the French king, yet the safety of his majesty's kingdoms is not so immediately endangered thereby, and therefore it ought not to be equally insisted on.'

The king agreed with his parliament, in owning the great importance the conservation of Flanders was of to England; but the rest of his answer, which shewed his aversion to enter into a war for its defence, was so little satisfactory, that a motion was immediately made for a second address to his majesty, to enter into a strict and speedy alliance with the confederates; and, in pursuance of this motion, the house did about a fortnight after (March 30) in a second address implore his majesty, 'that he would be pleased to take timely care to prevent those dangers that may arise to these kingdoms by the great power of the French king, and the progress he daily makes in the Netherlands and other places; and that he would not defer the entering into such alliances as may obtain those ends, promising fully to assist his majesty if he should be engaged in a war in pursuance of such alliances.'

Within three days after the king's answer to this address, April 13, the house made a third address, to assure his majesty, that 'they would with most cheerful hearts proceed both then and at all other times, to furnish his majesty with such large supplies upon this occasion (to preserve the Netherlands and check the growth of France) as might enable him, by God's assistance, to maintain the alliances they had advised, against all opposition whatsoever.'

This address, upon the king's answer to it, was immediately followed by a fourth, April 16, assuring his majesty of their duty and affection; and that he might not only depend upon the supply he desired, but upon all such assistances as the posture of his affairs should require: 'in confidence whereof, say the commons, we hope your majesty will be encouraged in the mean time to speak and act such things as your majesty shall judge necessary, for attaining those great ends we have formerly represented to your majesty.'

These repeated addresses from so loyal a house of commons, sufficiently shew how much the nation was alarmed, upon the dangers to which they saw the Netherlands exposed.

The commons were so bent upon this point, as a matter of the last consequence, that they would take no denial: which made the court resolve upon adjourning them for five weeks. But what passed in this interval, did not make the commons alter their sentiments, or less earnest in the pursuit of them.

When they met again, May the 21st, they fell into very warm debates, and resolved to advance still one step farther in a matter of so great concern; which was, to address his majesty to enter into a league offensive and defensive with the States, and to make other fit alliances against the growth and power of France, and for the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands: and in this address they tell his majesty, how highly sensible they are of the necessity of supporting, as well as making, the alliances desired in their former addresses; 'which we still conceive, say they, so important to the safety of your majesty and your kingdoms, that we can't, without unfaithfulness to your majesty, and those we represent, omit upon all occasions humbly to beseech your majesty, as we now do, to enter into a league offensive and defensive with the States, &c.' And that no time might be lost in doing this, they give his majesty this reason among others, the great danger and charge which must necessarily fall upon your majesty's kingdoms, if, through want of timely encouragement and assistance, the States, or any other considerable part of the confederates, should make a peace with the French king (the prevention whereof hitherto, say they, must be acknowledged to be a singular effect of God's goodness to us); which if it should happen, your majesty would afterwards be necessitated with fewer, perhaps with no alliances, to withstand the power of the French king, which has so long and so successfully contended with so many and potent enemies; and whilst he continues his overbalancing greatness, must always be dangerous to his neighbours; since he would be able to oppress any one confederate, before the rest could get together, and be in so good a posture of offending him as they are now, being jointly engaged in a war; and if he should be so successful as to make a peace, or disunite the present confederation against him, it is much to be feared, whether it would be possible ever to reunite it. At least it would be a work of so much time and difficulty, as would leave your majesty's kingdoms exposed to much misery and danger. Having thus discharged our duty in laying before your majesty the dangers threatening your majesty and your kingdoms, and the only remedy we can think of for preventing it, and quieting the minds of your people; we most humbly beseech your majesty to take such resolutions, as may not leave it in the power of any neighbouring prince, to rob your people of that happiness they enjoy under your majesty's gracious government. Then they oblige themselves not only by their promises with great unanimity renewed in a full house, but by the zeal and desires of those they represent, and by the interest of all their safeties, most cheerfully to give his majesty speedy and plentiful supplies.

This earnest and importunate address, which was presented May the 26th, expressed not only the sense of a very full house, but indeed of the whole nation; which gave it so much weight, that the court saw they should be forced to comply with it, unless they betook themselves to the last refuge in such cases, and immediately put an end to the session. The parliament, therefore, was accordingly dismissed, and not suffered to sit again 'till the end of January 1677-8. But, though the court could interrupt the sitting of the parliament as they pleased, it was not possible to change their sentiments; and they no sooner met again, but they resumed their former debates with more earnestness, if possible, than before. For as that long interval, in which they had not been suffered to have an opportunity of interposing their councils with his majesty, had given the French so much farther leisure to finish their designs upon the Netherlands; the nation was so much the more alarmed, and in a new address Jan. 31, they 'humbly desire his majesty, with the highest zeal for his honour, and the safety of his people, not to admit of any treaty of peace, whereby the French king shall be left in possession of any larger dominions and territories, or of any greater power than what he retained by the Pyrenean treaty; less than which, they conceive, can't secure his majesty's kingdoms, and the rest of Europe, from the growth and power of the said king, but that he alone may be able to disturb the peace thereof whensoever he is inclined to attempt it.—And they farther desire, 'that in all treaties in order to the obtaining that end, his majesty would be pleased to provide, that none of the parties that shall join with him in making war for that purpose, may lay down their arms or depart from their alliances, until the said king be reduced, at least, to the said treaty.'

The commons had reason to hope for a compliance with this address; the king having in his speech acquainted them, that he 'had made, according to their desire, such alliances with Holland, as were necessary for the preservation of Flanders; that since a good peace could not be had by fair means, it should not be his fault if it were not obtained by force of arms; that if he be supported by them, he will not be weary 'till Christendom be restored to such a peace, as it shall not be in the power of any prince alone to disturb.

But, whatever influenced the councils of the court, this address met with no better reception than their last. They had been then told, that 'what they did was an invasion of the prerogative;' and now they were told, not only the same thing, but, what is more surprizing, that 'the king having asked

asked the advice of both houses, can't act upon any that does not come jointly from both.' The commons, however, not rebuked with his treatment, persevered; immediately voted a good supply, and upon March 14th resolved to address his majesty, 'That to quiet the minds of his subjects, and encourage the confederates, he would be pleased immediately to proclaim and enter into an actual war against the French king, promising constantly to stand by and assist his majesty with plentiful supplies:' to which address they desired the concurrence of the lords; but, before it could be entirely obtained, they were adjourned to the middle of April, and from thence to the 29th; when the lord chancellor acquainted them in the king's name, 'That the States, whom he had long found weary of the war,' (and, indeed, had made so, for they were quite discouraged from expecting help from England, when they saw the zeal and spirit of the nation entirely defeated and eluded by the court) 'were making haste to get out of it, and were entered upon considerations of accepting such a peace as France had thought fit to offer, though it be without his majesty's consent or privity; a peace as ill for themselves and the rest of Christendom, as their enemies could wish.' And in this difficult conjuncture the king desires their advice (when it is too late) and resolves to pursue it now; though their giving it before in time, when it would have been of the greatest consequence, was made a high crime. It is not my business to expose the insincerity of the court in this whole affair: they who would see this, need only read Sir William Temple's Letters and Memoirs; a person of undoubted reputation and authority, and who was in those times his majesty's ambassador in the Low-Countries.

But I cannot but observe from these words, what a character the king gives of that peace that was a little after concluded at Nimeugen; and what made that peace so ill a one, was the leaving so much of Flanders in the possession of France, and the remainder so much exposed by a weak and insecure barrier.

But to proceed: the commons, who were willing to hope, that if the court were sincere, things might be yet retrieved, came, May 4, to two resolutions, which they laid before the king, without staying to put them into the usual form of address, by reason of the importance of the affair, and the exigency of the time. In the first, they 'declared the league made with the States to procure a peace between the two crowns upon certain terms therein specified, not to be pursuant to their addresses, nor consistent with the good and safety of the kingdom:' and yet by these terms (had France been obliged to accept them) Tournay, Condé, and Valenciennes, were to be restored, together with the dukedom of Lorraine. The other resolution was, to desire his majesty 'forthwith to enter into the confederacy for the vigorous carrying on of the present war; and, particularly, that effectual endeavours might be used for continuing the States in the confederacy; and that no peace might be made with France, without general consent first had.' And, upon the king's refusing to give any answer 'till he had the concurrent advice of both houses, they immediately resolved to address his majesty to give a speedy answer to their last address, and to remove those counsellors who advised the answers to their former addresses of the 26th of May and 31st of January, or either of them; 'by which answers, they say, his majesty's good subjects had been infinitely discouraged, and the state of his affairs reduced to a most deplorable condition:' they mean the progress of the French in Flanders, and the great jealousy and uneasiness that gave the nation. And, notwithstanding the king told them May 23, that things were driving violently on towards a peace, yet still, to prevent so much of Flanders remaining in the hands of France, they resolved, if his majesty would then enter into a war against the French king, they were, and always would be, ready to assist him. But these and all the other efforts the commons could make, could not force the court into right measures, or prevent an ill peace; and served only to vindicate themselves to posterity, from having any hand in it; and this I presume it will be allowed they have done.

It is impossible to read this short account of the proceedings of the commons, and not observe of how very great importance they thought the saving of Flanders was, to the safety and security of this nation. This was so plainly the known and certain interest of England, that all the arts the court could use, could not divert them from pursuing this point. This was the first parliament that was chosen after the Restoration, which continued sitting above 17 years; and cannot be suspected either of not having a true regard for the prerogative, or a due deference for the sentiments of the court. But the interest and safety of their country was so much concerned in the preservation of Flanders, that this consideration carried them into these measures in opposition to the ministry, in which they steadily and unalterably persevered; and the nation was entirely with them; the point they pressed against the court, having apparently no other foundation, than their hearty zeal and concern for it's true interest. And the king himself thought fit, when it was too late, to express at least the same concern they did, and to concur in the same sentiments; as appears from his speech to them not long after, in

which he opens his heart freely to them, and tells them he was, 'resolved to save Flanders, either by a war or a peace, as the greatest FOREIGN INTEREST of this nation.' The nature and importance of a good barrier to the Netherlands, will be best judged of from the barrier treaty itself, of which at present we should by no means lose sight.

The BARRIER TREATY between her majesty queen Anne and the States-General.

Her majesty the queen of Great-Britain, and the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, having considered how much it concerns the quiet and security of their kingdoms and states, and the public tranquillity, to maintain and to secure on one side the succession to the CROWN OF GREAT-BRITAIN, in such manner as it is now established by the laws of the kingdom; and, on the other side, that the said States-General of the United Provinces should have a strong and SUFFICIENT BARRIER * against France and others, who would surprize or attack them: and her majesty and the said States-General, apprehending, with just reason, the troubles and mischiefs which might happen, with respect to this succession, if at any time there should be any person or any power who should call it in question; and, if the countries and states of the said lords the States-General, were not secured by such a barrier; † for these said reasons, her majesty the queen of Great-Britain, though in the vigour of her age, and enjoying perfect health (which God preserve to her many

* [Against France and others.] These words [and others] ought not, it was said, by those who did not like it, to have been added in the treaty, the design of the treaty being to secure the barrier of the States against France only. That the first and chief design of a treaty for the barrier, was to secure it against France, I readily allow, because the first and chief danger is from thence; but if it is the interest of England that it should be secured at all, it is certainly the interest of England that it should be secured against others as well as France. If the barrier be lost for want of such security, whoever the invaders be, England as well as Holland loses the protection it gives them against France; and therefore it is our interest, as well as theirs, that it should be secured on all sides, and exposed to the least danger possible.

And, since the States oblige themselves to assist in maintaining the Protestant succession, not only against France, but against all others that shall attempt to disturb it; there is the same reason her majesty should give as full a guaranty to the States, for securing their barrier against all that shall attack it. The interest of both is reciprocal, and therefore the engagement ought to be so too. Nor can any inconvenience arise, from making the guaranty general against all invaders; because the obligations of mutual assistance, cannot by this treaty take place on any other occasion, but then only, when her majesty or the States shall be attacked on account of the succession or barrier. And therefore if the barrier be not attacked, though the States be invaded in any other part, her majesty is not engaged hereby. It will be pretended, perhaps, that there is no reason to apprehend any danger from any power besides France: but first, that is not true; for France, by her intrigues, has formerly engaged some princes of the empire in a war against the Dutch, and may do so again. But if it were true that nothing was to be apprehended from any other power than France, it is necessary the treaty should be made general, if it were only to guard against the mean and pitiful evasions that crown is always ready to make use of to carry on her ambitious designs. Of which it will be sufficient to give one memorable instance, which is to the present purpose. In the year 1701, when the French forces had seized the whole Spanish Low-Countries, and had by lines and forts entirely cooped up the States on that side; not content with this, to cut off the States from all communication with the empire, France sent, in concert with the elector of Cologne, a great body of troops into most of the strong towns belonging to that elector, and yet at the same time declared they would observe the peace and treaty of Ryswick, and therefore these troops were called auxiliary troops of the circle of Burgundy. Where now is the difference whether the king of France attack the Dutch in his own name, or whether his troops do it under the name of any body else? The troops are the same, and the danger all one. If this treaty therefore were not made general against all invaders, such an evasion might defeat the intention of it even against France itself. Thus much for the reason of this addition; and that the reader may be further satisfied, he need only have recourse to the 16th article, by which the defence of the succession and the barrier, is left general and unlimited.

† The reason why these words [and the abovesaid queen, &c. duly reflecting upon the advantage which France has always made use of, &c. for want of necessary and reasonable preliminaries being well established among the allies] were left out in the treaty, will appear by observing, that the counter-project then made was formed before the preliminary treaty in 1709, whereas this of the barrier was not made 'till after it; and therefore this clause was properly left out, the intention of it having been fully answered and complied with in the preliminary treaty, signed by the Queen, the Emperor, and the States.

years), out of her usual prudence and piety, has thought fit to enter, with the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, into a particular alliance and confederacy; the principal end and only aim of which, shall be the public quiet and tranquillity; and to prevent, by measures taken in time, all the events which might one day excite new wars. With this view it is, that her British majesty has given her full power, for agreeing upon certain articles of a treaty, additional to the treaties and alliances that she already has with the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, to her ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary, Charles viscount Townshend, baron of Lynn Regis, privy counsellor of her British majesty, captain of her said majesty's yeomen of the guard, and her lieutenant in the county of Norfolk: and the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, to the Sieurs John de Welderen, lord of Valbrugh, great bailiff of the Lower Retuwe, of the body of the nobility of the province of Guelder; Frederic baron of Reede, lord of Lier, St. Anthony and Tirsec, of the order of the nobility of the province of Holland and West Friezland; Anthony Heinsius, counsellor pensionary of the province of Holland and West Friezland, keeper of the great seal, and superintendant of the fiefs of the same province; Cornelius Van Gheet, lord of Spanbroek, Bulokestein, &c. Gideon Hocus, canon of the church of St. Peter at Utrecht, and counsellor elect in the states of the province of Utrecht; Hessel Van Sminia, secretary of the chamber of accounts of the province of Friezland; Ernest Ifferfum, lord of Osterhof, of the body of the nobility of the province of Overysfel; and Wicher Wichers, senator of the city of Groningen; all deputies to the assembly of the said lord the States-General, on the part respectively, of the provinces of Guelder, Holland and West Friezland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friezland, Overysfel, and of Groningen and Ommelands; who, by virtue of their full powers, have agreed upon the following articles.

ARTICLE I.

The treaties of peace, friendship, alliance, and confederacy, between her British majesty and the States-General of the United Provinces, shall be approved and confirmed by the present treaty, and shall remain in their former force and vigour, as if they were inserted in it word for word.

ARTICLE II.

The succession to the crown of England having been settled by an act of parliament passed the twelfth year of the reign of his late majesty king William III. the title of which is, An act for the further limitation of the crown, and better securing the rights and liberties of the subject: and lately, in the sixth year of the reign of her present majesty, this succession having been again established and confirmed by another act made for the greater security of her majesty's person and government, and the succession to the crown of Great-Britain, &c. in the line of the most serene house of Hanover, and in the person of the princess Sophia, and of her heirs, successors, and descendants, male and female, already born or to be born. And, though no power has any right to oppose the laws made upon this subject by the crown and parliament of Great-Britain; if it should happen nevertheless, that under any pretence, or by any cause whatever, any person, or any power or state should pretend to dispute the establishment which the parliament has made of the said succession in the most serene house of Hanover, to oppose the said succession, to aid or favour those who shall oppose it, whether directly or indirectly, by open war, or by fomenting seditions and conspiracies against her or him to whom the crown of Great-Britain shall descend according to the acts aforesaid; the States-General of the United Provinces, engage and promise to assist and maintain, in the said succession, her or him to whom it shall belong by virtue of the said acts of parliament, to aid them in taking possession, if they be not then in possession, and to oppose those who would disturb them in the taking such possession of the said succession.

ARTICLE III.

Her said majesty and the States-General, in consequence of the fifth article of the alliance concluded between the emperor, the late king of Great-Britain, and the lords the States-General, the 7th of September 1701, shall employ all their forces to recover the rest of the Spanish Low-Countries.

ARTICLE IV.

And further, they shall endeavour to conquer as many other towns and forts as they can, in order to their being a barrier and security to the said lords the States.

ARTICLE V.

And whereas, according to the ninth article of the said alliance, it is to be agreed amongst other matters, how and in what manner the States shall be secured by means of this barrier, the queen of Great-Britain shall use her endeavours to procure, that in the treaty of peace it may be agreed, that all the Spanish Low-Countries, and what else shall be found necessary, whether of conquered or unconquered places, shall serve as a barrier to the States.

ARTICLE VI.

That to this end their high-mightinesses shall have the liberty

to put and keep garrison, to change, augment, and diminish it as they shall judge proper, in the places following: namely, Newport, Furnes, with the fort of Knocke, Ypres, Menin, the town and citadel of Lisle, Tournay and its citadel, Condé, Valenciennes, and the places which shall from henceforward be conquered from France. Maubeuge, Charleroy, Namur and its citadel, Liere, Hali to fortify, the ports of Perli, Philippe, Damme, the castle of Gand, and Dendermonde; the fort of St. Donas being joined to the fortifications of the Sluice, and being entirely incorporated with it, shall remain and be yielded in property to the States. The fort of Rodenhuyfen on this side Gand shall be demolished.

ARTICLE VII.

The said States Generals may, in case of an apparent attack, or war, put as many troops as they shall think necessary in all the towns, places, and forts, in the Spanish Low-Countries, where the reason of war shall require it.

ARTICLE VIII.

They may likewise send into the towns, forts and places, where they shall have their garrisons, without any hindrance, and without paying any duties; provisions, ammunitions, arms and artillery, materials for the fortifications; and all that shall be found convenient and necessary for the said garrisons and fortifications.

ARTICLE IX.

The said States-General shall also have liberty to appoint in the towns, forts, and places of their barrier, mentioned in the foregoing sixth article, where they shall have their garrisons, such governors and commandants, majors and other officers, as they shall think proper; who shall not be subject to any other orders, whatsoever they may be, or from whomsoever they may come, relating to the security and military government of the said places, but only to those of their high-mightinesses (exclusively of all others); still preserving the rights and privileges, as well ecclesiastical as political, of king Charles the III^d.

ARTICLE X.

That besides, the said States shall have liberty to fortify the said towns, places, and forts which belong to them, and repair the fortifications of them, in such manner as they shall judge necessary, and further to do whatever shall be useful for their defence.

ARTICLE XI.

It is agreed, That the States-General shall have all the revenues of the towns, places, jurisdictions, and their dependencies, which they shall have for their barrier from France, which were not in the possessions of the crown of Spain, at the time of the death of the late king Charles the III^d; and besides, a million of livres shall be settled for the payment of one hundred thousand crowns every three months, out of the clearest revenues of the Spanish Low-Countries, which the said king was then in possession of; both which are for maintaining the garrisons of the States, and for supplying the fortifications, as also the magazines, and other necessary expences, in the towns and places above-mentioned. And that the said revenues may be sufficient to support these expences, endeavours shall be used for enlarging the dependencies and jurisdictions aforesaid, as much as possible; and particularly for including with the jurisdictions of Ypres, that of Cassel, and the forest of Niesse; and with the jurisdiction of Lisle, the jurisdiction of Douay, both having been joined before the present war.

ARTICLE XII.

That no town, fort, place, or country of the Spanish Low-Countries, shall be granted, transferred, or given, or descend to the crown of France, or any one of the line of France, neither by virtue of any gift, sale, exchange, marriage, agreement, inheritance, succession by will, or through want of will, from no title whatsoever, nor in any other manner whatever, nor be put into the power or under the authority of the most Christian king, or any of the line of France.

ARTICLE XIII.

And whereas the said States-General, in consequence of the ninth article of the said alliance, are to make a convention or treaty with king Charles the III^d, for putting the States in a condition of safety, by means of the said barrier, the queen of Great-Britain will do what depends upon her, that all the foregoing particulars, relating to the barrier of the States, may be inserted in the aforesaid treaty or convention; and that her said majesty will continue her good offices, till the above-mentioned convention between the States and the said king Charles the III^d, be concluded, agreeable to what is before-mentioned, and that her majesty will be guarantee of the said treaty or convention.

ARTICLE XIV.

And, that the said States may enjoy from hence forward, as much as possible, a barrier for the Spanish Low Countries, they shall be permitted to put their garrisons in the towns already taken, and which may hereafter be so, before the peace be concluded and ratified. And, in the mean time, the said king Charles the III^d, shall not be allowed to enter into possession of the said Spanish Low-Countries, neither entirely nor

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nor in part; and during that time the queen shall assist their high-mightinesses to maintain them in the enjoyment of the revenues, and to find the million of livres a year above-mentioned.

ARTICLE XV.

And whereas their high-mightinesses have stipulated by the treaty of Munster, in the fourteenth article, That the river Schelde, as also the canal of Sas, Swyn, and other mouths of the sea bordering thereupon, should be kept shut on the side of the States.

And in the fifteenth article, That the ships and commodities going in and coming out of the harbours of Flanders, shall be and remain charged with all such imposts and other duties, as are raised upon commodities going and coming along the Schelde, and the other canals above-mentioned:

The queen of Great-Britain promises and engages, That their high-mightinesses shall never be disturbed in their right and possession, in that respect, neither directly nor indirectly; as also that the commerce shall not, in prejudice of the said treaty, be made more easy by the sea ports, than by the rivers, canals, and mouth of the sea, on the sides of the States of the United Provinces, neither directly or indirectly:

And whereas by the 16th and 17th articles of the same treaty of Munster, his majesty the king of Spain, is obliged to treat the subjects of their high-mightinesses as favourably as the subjects of Great-Britain and the Hanse-Towns, who were then the people the most favourably treated; her Britannic majesty and their high-mightinesses promise likewise, to take care that the subjects of Great-Britain and of their high-mightinesses, shall be treated in the Spanish Low-Countries, as well as in all Spain, the kingdoms and states belonging to it, equally, and as well the one as the other, as favourably as the people the most favoured.

ARTICLE XVI.

The said Queen and States-General oblige themselves to furnish, by sea and land, the succours and assistance necessary to maintain, by force, her said majesty in the quiet possession of her kingdoms, and the most serene house of Hanover in the said succession, in the manner it is settled by the acts of parliament before-mentioned, and to maintain the said States-General in the possession of the said barrier.

ARTICLE XVII.

After the ratification of this treaty, a particular convention shall be made of the conditions by which the said queen, and the said lord the States-General, will engage themselves to furnish the succours which shall be thought necessary, as well by sea as by land.

ARTICLE XVIII.

If her British majesty, or the States-General of the United Provinces, be attacked by any body whatsoever, by reason of this convention, they shall mutually assist one another with all their forces, and become guarantees of the execution of the said convention.

ARTICLE XIX.

There shall be invited and admitted into the present treaty, as soon as possible, all the kings, princes, and states who shall be willing to enter into the same; particularly his Imperial majesty, the kings of Spain and Prussia, and the elector of Hanover. And her British majesty, and the States-General of the United Provinces, and each of them in particular, shall be permitted to require and invite those whom they shall think fit to require and invite to enter into this treaty, and to be guarantees of its execution.

ARTICLE XX.

And, as time has shewn the omission which was made in the treaty signed at Ryswick in the year 1697, between England and France, in respect of the right of the succession of England, in the person of her majesty the queen of Great-Britain now reigning, and that, for want of having settled in that treaty this indisputable right of her majesty, France refused to acknowledge her for queen of Great-Britain, after the death of the late king William the Third, of glorious memory: her majesty the queen of Great-Britain, and the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, do agree and engage themselves likewise, not to enter into any negotiation or treaty of peace with France, before the title of her majesty to the crown of Great Britain, as also the right of succession of the most serene house of Hanover to the aforesaid crown, in the manner it is settled and established by the before-mentioned acts of parliament, be fully acknowledged as a preliminary by France, and that France has promised, at the same time, to remove out of its dominions the person who pretends to be king of Great-Britain; and that no negotiation nor formal discussion of the articles of the said treaty of peace shall be entered into, but jointly, and at the same time, with the said queen, or with her ministers.

ARTICLE XXI.

Her British majesty, and the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, shall ratify and confirm all that is contained in the present treaty, within the space of four weeks, to be reckoned from the day of the signing. In testimony whereof, the under-written ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary of her British majesty, and the deputies of the lords the

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States-General, have signed this present treaty, and have affixed their seals thereunto.

At the Hague, the 29th of October, in the year 1709.

(L. S.) Townshend. (L. S.) J. V. Welderen,
(L. S.) J. B. Van Reede,
(L. S.) A. Heinsius,
(L. S.) G. Hocus,
(L. S.) H. Sminia,
(L. S.) E. V. Ittersum,
(L. S.) W. Wichers.

The separate article.

As in the preliminary articles signed here at the Hague the 28th of May, 1709, by the plenipotentiaries of his Imperial majesty, of her majesty the queen of Great-Britain, and of the lords the States-General of the United Provinces, it is stipulated, amongst other things, that the lords the States-General shall have, with intire property and sovereignty, the Upper Quarter of Guelder, according to the 52d article of the treaty of Munster, of the year 1648; as also that the garrisons which are or hereafter shall be on the part of the lords the States-General in the town of Huy, the citadel of Liege, and in the town of Bonne, shall remain there till it shall be otherwise agreed upon with his Imperial majesty and the empire. And as the barrier which is this day agreed upon in the principal treaty, for the mutual guaranty between her British majesty and the lords the States-General, cannot give to the United Provinces the safety for which it is established, unless it be well secured from one end to the other, and that the communication of it be well joined together; for which the Upper Quarter of Guelder, and the garrisons in the citadel of Liege, Huy, and Bonne, are absolutely necessary: experience having thrice shewn, that France having a design to attack the United Provinces, has made use of the places above-mentioned, in order to come at them, and to penetrate into the said provinces. That further, in respect to the equivalent for which the Upper Quarter of Guelder is to be yielded to the United Provinces, according to the 52d article of the treaty of Munster above-mentioned, his majesty king Charles III. will be much more gratified and advantaged in other places, than that equivalent can avail. So that, to the end the lords the States-General may have the Upper Quarter of Guelder, with intire property and sovereignty, and that the said Upper Quarter of Guelder may be yielded in this manner to the said lords the States-General, in the convention or the treaty that they are to make with his majesty king Charles III. according to the 13th article of the treaty concluded this day; as also that their garrisons in the citadel of Liege, in that of Huy, and in Bonne, may remain there, until it be otherwise agreed upon with his Imperial majesty and the empire. Her majesty the queen of Great-Britain engages herself, and promises by this separate article, which shall have the same force as if it was inserted in the principal treaty, to make the same efforts for all this as she has engaged herself to make, for their obtaining the barrier in the Spanish Low-Countries. In testimony whereof, the under written ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary of her British majesty, and deputies of the lords the States-General, have signed the present separate article, and have affixed their seals thereunto.

At the Hague the 29th of October, 1709.

(L. S.) Townshend. (L. S.) J. V. Welderen,
(L. S.) J. B. Van Reede,
(L. S.) A. Heinsius,
(L. S.) G. Hocus,
(L. S.) H. Sminia,
(L. S.) E. V. Ittersum,
(L. S.) W. Wichers.

The second separate article.

As the lords the States-General have represented, that in Flanders the limits between Spanish Flanders and that of the States, are settled in such a manner as that the land belonging to the States is extremely narrow there; so that, in some places, the territory of Spanish Flanders extends itself to the fortifications, and under the cannon of the places, towns, and forts of the States, which occasions many inconveniencies, as has been seen by an example a little before the beginning of the present war, when a fort was designed to have been built under the cannon of the Sas Van Gand, under pretence that it was upon the territory of Spain. And as it is necessary for avoiding these and other sorts of inconveniencies, that the land of the States upon the confines of Flanders should be enlarged, and that the places, towns, and forts should, by that means, be better covered; her British majesty entering into the just motives of the said lords the States-General in this respect, promises and engages herself, by this separate article, that, in the convention that the said lords the States-General are to make with his majesty king Charles III. she will so assist them as that it may be agreed, that, by the cession to the said lords the States-General of the property of an extent of land necessary to obviate such-like and other inconveniencies, their limits in Flanders shall be enlarged more conveniently for their security, and those of the Spanish Flanders removed

moved farther from their towns, places, and forts, to the end that these may not be so exposed any more. In testimony whereof, the under-written ambassador extraordinary, and plenipotentiary of her British majesty, and deputies of the lords the States-General, have signed the present separate article, and have affixed their seals thereunto. At the Hague, the 29th of October, 1709.

(L. S.) Townshend. (L. S.) J. B. Van Reede,
(L. S.) A. Heinsius,
(L. S.) G. Hocuft,
(L. S.) H. Sminia,
(L. S.) E. V. Ifferfum.

REMARKS, on this article of NETHERLANDS, since the last WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

In the late war from 1740 to 1748, the Dutch lost their chief barrier; and although the States-General remained neuter, and looked on with indifference, while an unnatural rebellion was carried on in this kingdom in favour of a popish pretender to the British crown; yet when the peace of Aix la Chapelle was concluded, Great-Britain gave up the capital conquest of CAPE BRETON made that war from France, to the end that the States-General of the United Provinces, might be put again in full and peaceable possession, such as they enjoyed before that war, of the towns of Bergen-op-Zoom, and Maestricht, and of all they possessed before the war in Dutch Flanders, Brabant, Holland, and elsewhere. And the towns and places in the Low Countries, the sovereignty of which belonged to the empress queen of Hungary and Bohemia, wherein their High Mightinesses have the right of garrison, were evacuated by France to the troops of the republic at the same time. With article of the TREATY of AIX LA CHAPELLE made in the year 1748.—Thus Great-Britain expended THRESCORE MILLIONS of money, and thereby run THIRTY MILLIONS more in debt during that war, and entailed proportionable TAXES upon her trade in general, without receiving any advantage by that war, not so much as securing to herself the RIGHT OF NAVIGATION TO AND FROM HER OWN COLONIES, without being SEARCHED BY THE SPANIARDS, nor securing her RIGHT TO THE LOGWOOD, which were the points for which we entered into that war with Spain.—In this manner have these kingdoms increased their PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, and made themselves TRIBUTARIES TO FOREIGN CREDITORS!

In the last war likewise, the Dutch acted a part to the advantage of our enemies, by carrying on and protecting their trade for them, while they did all the injury they well could to that of Great-Britain during that war: so that during the two last great wars, we have been deprived of the alliance of the Dutch, while they have reaped the full advantage of a neutrality; and we have trebled our NATIONAL DEBTS AND TAXES since the peace of Utrecht, and have thereby reduced our whole commerce and navigation almost to a state of ruin and destruction, unless we preserve them by means of the last DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, and now in time of peace, reduce those IMMENSE TAXES with which the nation is loaded. If this essential point is not accomplished, and that too without delay, our ENGLISH COMMODITIES will continue so EXCESSIVELY DEAR, that foreigners will not be able to purchase them, while those of France will be EXCESSIVELY CHEAP, in comparison thereto, that those of the latter will find their way into every nation in the world, and ours continue a drug upon our hands. By these means, France will gain THE DOMINION IN UNIVERSAL TRADE, though we have gained it in territory, and thus the nation must at length be undone. See our last REMARKS on our article NAVAL AFFAIRS, FLANDERS, HOLLAND, DUTIES, LABOUR.

NEUFCHATEL and VALLENGIN COUNTIES, are bounded by the bishopric of Basil on the north; by the lake of Neufchattel on the east; by the canton of Berne on the south; and by the Franche Comté in France on the west; being about 40 miles long, and 20 broad, subject to the same prince, and form together one little state; for they are a free independent people, though they have a prince at their head. No laws are made but by the three estates; no taxes raised, or magistrates appointed, but by the states. The whole country is of the reformed religion, except two Roman Catholic villages. Upon the death of the dukes of Nemours, sovereign of Neufchattel, anno 1707, there were many competitors, but the states made choice of the king of Prussia to succeed her, who derived his title from the house of Orange and Châlons. The country produces some good wine, but is for the most part a maintainous barren soil.

NEUTRAL ISLANDS in AMERICA. See LEWARD ISLANDS.

NEW CASTILLE. See CASTILLE.

NEVIS,

NEW ENGLAND,

NEW JERSEY,

NEW YORK,

NEWFOUNDLAND, an island in the Atlantic ocean

in America, between 55 and 61 degrees of west longitude, and between 47 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and separated from New Britain, or Eskimaux, by the narrow straight of Belleisle on the north, bounded by the ocean on the east and south, and by the bay of St. Lawrence on the west, lying about 40 miles north east of CAPE BRETON, now belonging to Great-Britain. See AMERICA for the treaty of 1763. This island is of a triangular form, 350 miles in length from north to south, and 200 miles in breadth at the base, from east to west, where broadest.

The seas adjacent to Newfoundland produce an infinite store of WHITE FISH, which the English and French catch upon the banks or sands, so called, overagainst the island. They bring them on shore to cure and prepare for market, and so sell them to other merchants, who come in other ships to buy the fish, and carry them to the Straights, to Spain, and Italy, as also to Portugal. The French are allowed by the treaty of Utrecht to cure their fish on some parts of the island: and by the last treaty of 1763, they have acceded to them the small islands of Miquelon and St. Pierre, for the shelter of their Newfoundland fishermen, on express condition that they are not to erect any fortifications at either of these small islands, nor to keep above 50 men there for the police. The property and sovereignty of the whole island of Newfoundland belongs to the British government.

The cod fishery here is very great. See our article COD FISH. The quantity of salmon also is very great here, and the fish large and good. These fisheries occasion several buildings for the cure of the fish, and as well of dwelling-houses as warehouses and fish-houses, on the banks of the creeks and rivers, where the fisheries are erected; and they have their several boundaries in those rivers made out by ships and wears, for ascertaining the property of the places respectively, as also for the more easy taking the fish.

These buildings increasing, were not the cold so excessively severe, and the country itself so inhospitable and barren, that it discourages the people from planting, would certainly cause towns or villages to be built in those places, and would bring numbers of people to settle there, rather than go back to England every winter, and return again every spring; which is, besides the hazard of the sea, exceeding chargeable and troublesome to the fishermen themselves.

But it cannot be avoided, unless numbers of people resolved to settle together, and to assist one another as a company, as was the case in the first planting the colonies New England and Virginia, and other places; where, 'till a sufficient quantity of land was cured and planted, the people could not subsist themselves without constant supplies from Europe, both of men, cattle, and provisions.

The British fisheries at Newfoundland is chiefly carried on by the merchants in the west of England, of Pool, Weymouth, Lime, Southampton, and other parts there.

N. B. Those who go to the banks to fish, that is, to catch and cure, are called fish-boats, and Newfoundland ships; or, in the seamens language, Newfoundland men, or bankers: but those vessels sent by the merchants to buy fish, and carry it off from thence to Spain, Italy, &c. as above-mentioned, are distinguished by sack-men, and the voyage is called going FOR A SACK: and when a master of a ship says he is bound for Newfoundland, or for the banks, 'tis customary to ask him, What, do you go to fish, or go for a sack? that is to say, to catch fish, or to buy.

REMARKS since the last War, and Treaty of Peace of 1763.

In the late petition of the merchants and traders concerned in the British Newfoundland trade, to the honourable the house of commons, it was represented that there were employed in the fisheries 1500 fishing boats, which remain at Newfoundland, above 150 banking vessels of the larger size for catching the fish, and 300 sail of other mercantile shipping generally employed, in carrying the fish and the oil produced therefrom to foreign markets and to the British plantations, and in bringing home the returns from thence, either in the produce of foreign countries, or of that of our American colonies, or directly carrying the produce of our plantations, pursuant to acts of parliament made to tolerate the same directly to foreign markets.—That these several branches of trade connectively considered, did not employ fewer than 20,000 of his majesty's subjects in every office relative to this capital fishery.—That so wisely had the legislature regulated this branch of the British navigation, as to render it a constant nursery for the increase of seamen, the same breeding at least between 5 and 6000 fresh seamen annually. For that by the acts of parliament made in the 10th and 11th years of the reign of king William III. it is enacted, That masters of ships bound to Newfoundland, shall carry at least one fresh landman in five; in bye fishing boats and vessels, the masters shall carry at least two fresh men in six; that is, one who has never been at sea before, and one who has made no more than one voyage: and the said masters of ships and fishing vessels are obliged to make oath thereof accordingly before the collector of the port, who is to give them a certificate of their compliance with the said acts of parliament;

parliament; which shew how considerable a maritime nursery for British seamen these fisheries have proved to these kingdoms.—That upon the whole, there was not fewer than 16,000 persons employed in the catching, the curing, the sorting, and packing of the fish, in such a merchantable manner as to preserve the credit and reputation of this fishery throughout Europe and America; and that the said 16,000 persons by means hercof, became thorough bred seamen; and that the shipping employed as bankers, or the larger sized fishing vessels on the banks of Newfoundland, together with the shipping also employed in carrying the fish and oil to market, and bringing the returns, do not employ less than 4000 seamen more.—That the British merchants and traders, who provide so large a number of fishing vessels, and other shipping, to transport the fish to the Streights and Italy, Spain and Portugal, and to the British plantations in general, and who are at the expence of maintaining so many thousand of his majesty's subjects, erecting stages, flukes, wharfs, warehouses, and dwelling houses for the residence of the inhabitants on the island, who purchase all manner of utensils, and salt for curing the fish, and hire artists experienced in the best methods of curing, sorting and packing them to the best advantage, must necessarily occasion a considerable capital stock to be engaged in this trade at Newfoundland.—That this commerce gave daily bread to a large body of the inhabitants in, or neighbouring upon the chief towns in the west of England, from whence this trade is principally carried on: as ship-carpenters, smiths, sail and canvas makers, caulkers, block-makers, rope-makers, line and twine-makers, net-makers, tunnel-makers, pump makers, compass makers, basket-makers, fish-hook-makers, butchers, brewers, bakers, ironmongers and nailors, shoemakers, hatters, and all concerned in the clothing way, both in linen, woollen, and hosiery, and numerous other kinds of tradesmen and mechanics, whose chief subsistence depends on the towns of Pool, Dartmouth, Topsham, Tinnmouth, Bristol, and all along the coasts of Devonshire and Dorsetshire, from Southampton to the land's end; also in the islands of Guernsey and Jersey, and the isle of Wight, where there reside many merchants and traders, who are interested in this trade.

The whole of this petition, which was signed by many hundreds of the merchants and traders in the west of England therein concerned, manifests the importance of this trade to the nation in general.

By the treaty of peace concluded at Paris the 10th day of February 1763, the 5th article declares, that 'the subjects of France shall have the liberty of fishing and drying on a part of the coasts of the island of Newfoundland, such as is specified in the 13th article of the treaty of Utrecht; which article is renewed and confirmed by the present treaty (except what relates to the island of CAPE BRETON, as well as to the other islands and coasts in the mouth and gulph of St. Lawrence;) and his Britannic majesty consents to leave to the subjects of the most Christian king, the liberty of fishing in the gulph of St. Lawrence, on condition that the subjects of France do not exercise the said fishery, but at the distance of three leagues from all the coasts belonging to Great-Britain, as well those of the continent, as those of the islands situated in the said gulph of St. Lawrence. And as to what relates to the fishery on the coast of the island of CAPE BRETON, out of the said gulph, the subjects of the most Christian king shall not be permitted to exercise the said fishery, but at the distance of fifteen leagues from the coast of the island of CAPE BRETON; and the fishery on the coasts of NOVA SCOTIA or ACADIA, and every where else out of the said gulph, shall remain on the foot of former treaties.'

By the 6th article of the said treaty, 'the king of Great-Britain cedes the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, in full right, to his most Christian majesty, to serve as a shelter to the French fishermen; and his said most Christian majesty engages not to fortify the said islands, to erect no buildings upon them, but merely for the convenience of the fishery, and to keep upon them a guard of fifty men only for the police.'

By the 18th article of the said treaty, 'his Catholic majesty desists, as well for himself as for his successors, from all pretensions which he may have formed, in favour of the Guspiscoans, and other his subjects, to the right of fishing in the neighbourhood of the island of Newfoundland.'" See FISHERIES, COD FISHERY.

NEWS-PAPERS are too well known to need description. They are become so numerous in Great-Britain, and her plantations, as to afford employment to many, to be instrumental in the consumption of large quantities of paper, and tend, by the stamp and advertisement-duties thereon, to the benefit of the public revenue.

REMARKS.

On the use of NEWS PAPERS.

The curiosity of mankind, to know what passes in the world, naturally leads them to the perusal of these papers; and the

more authentic the accounts given, the greater reputation has such news-papers. Besides the gratifying a laudable curiosity, these papers frequently convey the materials of obtaining a good knowledge of men and things, even in their mere narratives of the ordinary occurrences, and thereby furnish numbers, especially among the busy world, with constant topics of conversation; wherein they would often be at great loss to bear a share, were it not for these diaries of public intelligence: and, indeed, they frequently afford notable subjects for engaging amusement, as well as exercise of the understanding; for they sometimes contain extraordinary phenomena of nature, and such occurrences that draw the attention, even of the philosopher, statesman, and divine. The political contents of these papers, as they respect the transactions and negotiations of foreign states as well as our own, are not wholly useless to those who have discernment to make proper advantage of them, and more especially so, when FACTS are offered to public consideration. And that the people have a right to be informed of whatever nearly concerns the interest and honour of the nation, should seem to be inferred, from the establishment of the paper called the Gazette, which is published by authority.

Most nations, at present, turning themselves to the advancement of their commerce and navigation, it becomes necessary that the people of Great-Britain should be well informed of the measures which they shall, from time to time, take upon these occasions, our interest, as a commercial state, being so nearly, and so importantly concerned: for if the people of England are kept in ignorance of the progress which her competitors make in trade, how can they keep pace with them? How can they guard against the greatest evils that may thereby attend various branches of their traffic? If the mischief take root before they are apprized of it, it may be too late to apply to the legislature for requisite encouragement to counteract their rivals, or prevent the ill effects spreading to a degree they might for want of timely information. The trade of the nation may be as much injured for want of this, as the wisest measures of an able minister defeated for want of seasonable intelligence.

The necessity and reasonableness hereof, will hardly be doubted by any; but the question is, how we are to come at such preservative information? We cannot have more convenient channels to convey such intelligence through the kingdom, than news-papers; but to come at that which is authentic, and can be safely depended on, is more to be desired, I am afraid, than expected. Yet the difficulty to obtain such, will soon vanish, if we put in execution the proper means; on which I shall give my humble opinion.

The thorough knowledge of trade is no such light and trivial matter, as too many are wont to think; which we conceive is sufficiently demonstrated throughout the course of this work; it requires some talents as well as application, to be well grounded in these studies. And who shall be able to give the people of Great-Britain a just and right state of the trade of foreign countries, but those who understand it? Persons who do not, are disqualified to represent matters of this nature in their true view, so as to answer interesting designs towards their country: the mere dead narrative of a political measure will not always fully convey the consequences, detrimental to us, that may attend it. Matters of trade are greatly involved in circumstance, and of a very complicated nature; and to represent them comprehensively, they should be displayed in every aspect and relation; otherwise the omission of a single circumstance may misguide a whole nation.

Those who represent his majesty at foreign courts in the supreme capacity, are not, we are afraid, always the best accomplished to transmit the true state of affairs of this nature to their own country. They generally move in a sphere too distant from the converse of traders, and think it beneath them, either to associate with mercantile people, or think once seriously of the subject of commerce; which they esteem as much below them, as they do the traders practically concerned therein.

The ministers who bid the fairest to communicate useful intelligence of this kind, are those who act in the capacity of consuls; for they generally not only act in the capacity of merchants, but likewise in a judicial capacity, and have daily opportunities of experiencing what advantages in trade competitors may have over us in foreign nations: and the experienced merchants, with a tolerable share of letters, should seem to be the best qualified to answer these desirable national purposes. See our articles CONSUL and CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, and MERCHANT'S COURT, or COURT MERCHANT.

That many of these gentlemen are duly accomplished to give the nation the best information of this kind, if they had encouraging appointments, I know from my own experience; having held a correspondence with several of them for these twenty years past, as I do at present. Nor can I but think, as before intimated in my REMARKS on the article CONSUL, that the office of consulship is the best preparative to accomplishment for the ambassador, where our commercial interests are to be taken care of. The secretaryship to an

ambassy is, at present, esteemed the principal qualification of experience, requisite as introductory to the ambassadorship. But if the ambassador knows nothing of trade himself, the secretary will find little of that kind in his dispatches from whence he can derive any useful knowledge. We think no men so well qualified for an admiral or a general, as those who have run through the channel of inferior offices; nor can any one make an able minister of state, without having passed through all the proper requisites to his information, and his experience in public business.

That some one should reside in foreign nations, who can give proper accounts of the state of trade, will hardly be gained by any; nor should those accounts be secreted from the people, will be affirmed, we believe, by few. How then are they to be communicated to the public? As this should be done by authority, that the nation may not be misled, nothing can be a more proper channel of conveyance than the Gazette. But when have we any thing of this nature contained therein? Whether this would not prove one of the most important uses of a news-paper, is submitted to those who may think proper to take notice of it.

The usefulness of these vehicles of intelligence is in nothing more obvious, than by the advertisements contained therein, which relate to general trade, and shipping, and other conveniences of the public business. It is not many years since it was thought mean and disreputable, in any tradesman of worth and credit, to advertise the sale of his commodities in a public news paper; but as these apprehensions were founded only on custom, and not on reason, it is become now fashionable for very eminent tradesmen to publish their business, and the peculiar goods wherein they may deal, in the news-papers, by way of advertisement: nor do I see what disgrace there can be in this. For do not the great trading corporations apprize the public of their sales, in the public news-papers? Do not the monied companies find it the easiest, the most effectual, and the least expensive way to inform the proprietors of the public funds of their transactions by this channel? Nay, do we not, by this means, receive all our intelligence from the several great offices in the state, belonging to the public revenue? Is not even such intelligence as the government itself thinks proper to communicate to the people, done by the Gazette, a news-paper published by authority? In a word, advertisements in these papers seem, on the general, to be of no less utility to the public, in the concerns of real business, to the trading and busy world, than the common news is to the meer saunterer and gossip; the former furnishes matter of profit to some, the latter matter of amusement and chit-chat to others.

Besides these uses, there is another in these papers, which should by no means be passed over in silence. We mean the essays that are, from time to time, communicated to the public therein. And the articles of news seem to be a natural decoy to draw great numbers to the reading of those short dissertations, who, perhaps, scarce read any thing else; and who, indeed, was it not for our news-writers, might happen to forget to read at all; whereby our churches might be much thinner than they are, when some thousands of the people should be quite ignorant of the discipline of their common-prayer-book. So that, in this sense, our news-writers are of advantage to the cause of religion; and truly it must be acknowledged, that, for many years past, the public have had many excellent though concise lectures wrote to them in news-papers upon the subject of moral virtue, religion, and the conduct of life in every capacity. And numbers are induced, over their coffee, to throw their eyes, for a few minutes, on a short essay, wrote with wit and vivacity, who scarce read any thing else in the twelve-month. We need not intimate the advantages that the public in general has received from our essay-writers in this shape; the mere mention of the Tatler, Guardian, Spectators, and numerous other very judicious and excellent performances since, sufficiently prove it.

Nor have we derived less benefit, in the general, from occasional writings in this mode, upon government and the administration of public affairs. The Freeholder, Cato's Letters, and many other admirable pieces, in defence of liberty and public virtue, leave this no matter of doubt. The privilege of writing and speaking his sentiment, on matters of religion and the affairs of government, is esteemed by the Briton the great palladium of liberty, although that glorious privilege may be sometimes shamefully abused, and prostituted to the most ignominious purposes. This is only the abuse of the most invaluable right, and the law is open to punish libellous offenders when they merit it; and this, together with the privilege of the press, being allowed to antagonists, are the only antidotes that can ever be administered to check the poison, consistent with the enjoyment of public liberty; for when once any administration in this kingdom, endeavours to suppress by violence, what they cannot do by law, there is an end of all our liberties, and we may as well be governed by French arrêts, edicts, and lettres de cachet, and the inquisition, as by such ministerial tyranny, which strikes at the root of all that is dear to us.

Of the Abuses of NEWS-PAPERS, with respect to public affairs.

It is not to be admired that in the ordinary way of collecting news, there should be frequently committed some mistakes, from misinformation; and what of this kind is personal and injurious to any man's reputation, is punishable by law; and the expence, as it ought, falls upon the proprietors of the paper, unless the printer is circumspect enough to be indemnified for the defamation he is induced to publish: but nothing tends more to the ruin of a paper, than it's being the vehicle of scandal.

The forging of false news, in relation to public affairs, by fictitious paragraphs of news formed abroad, and translated from the foreign papers, or by pretended accounts of things transmitted in private letters, and put into our news-papers, is another abuse of a very enormous nature; for if this political lying be practised to make the people believe, that our foreign affairs are in a better situation than they really are; this public deceit can have no good consequences, but may prove highly detrimental; because it may possibly misguide some of our representatives, who might be instrumental, by their counsel in parliament, or otherwise, to set our affairs with other nations to rights, when they happen not to be so. But while they are kept in the dark by delusion, and amused from day to day, and year to year, with such accounts from foreign courts, which the event proves to be grossly fallacious, these mean temporary expedients can only more and more embarrass the nation, instead of extricate it from any difficulties under which it may labour.

We would not be understood to suggest that it is always necessary, the public should know the great arcana of state; this might be attended with still greater evils than deluding the people with lies and forgeries; for such openness of conduct might, and certainly often would, give other nations an opportunity to defeat the best laid designs for the honour and interest of the kingdom. Wherefore, at critical conjunctures, it may be more for the public interest, to let the people know nothing, than to be amused and deceived by false appearances. For in this nation, where the proprietors of our public funds possess so large a share of the national wealth, the stocks are, at certain times, suddenly affected with almost every puff of news; and if they are raised by artifice, this proves injurious to all but those who are in the secret, who make their advantage by the delusion of the rest. See the articles STOCK-JOBBER, and BUBBLES, and ACTIONS. However, making things better than they are, is not so detrimental to the public, as making them worse than they really are. For, if, by the artifices of malevolent men, such news shall be coined, and pretended to be authentically transmitted to them from foreign courts, as may distract our affairs, and occasion the nation to lose all our weight at foreign courts; if this should be the case at any extraordinary crisis of the public affairs, such conduct, practised by men of weight and influence with the people, may be attended with very dangerous consequences; it may clog and impede our negotiations, augment the public expence, and give other nations advantages over us, that may prove highly derogatory to the honour, and unspeakably detrimental to the commerce and navigation of the kingdom.

That the public interests have, on certain occasions, greatly suffered by such like practices, I am afraid there is too much reason to believe; and especially during the period of the administration of the late right honourable Sir Robert Walpole, afterwards lord Orford. During that time no minister ever met with a more violent opposition, both from within doors and without. Whether there was sufficient cause for such conduct towards that gentleman, I shall not take upon me here to determine; certain it is, that his adversaries have been charged extremely home with the forgery of a series of FALSE NEWS, with regard to our foreign affairs, which they published in their paper called the Craftsman; and they have been charged also with making this FALSE NEWS the chief pretext and foundation of the greatest part of all their political dissertations, to inflame the passions of the people, and to hunt down that able minister.

The tract wherein the gentlemen in the opposition at this time, were charged with such conduct in their public news-paper before-mentioned, is intitled the D'ANVERIAN HISTORY * of the affairs of Europe, for the memorable year 1731, &c. As the author takes into consideration, the principal articles of what he calls the forged news contained in the Craftsman for a whole year together, we must refer the reader to the pamphlet itself, we not having room to do justice to the performance in that respect. However, as there is one passage therein, which I think is quite new, and seems to have a tendency as well to preserve the liberty of the press, as to detect those who shall, at any time hereafter, abuse that invaluable privilege against future administrations; it may,

* If I am rightly informed, the writer of this piece was the late Mr. Lyons, the author of the Infallibility of Human Judgment, &c. The D'anverian History was printed for J. Roberts, London, 1732.

perhaps, prove very acceptable to many to meet with it in this work; for it is as much every honest man's duty to protect and vindicate able and upright ministers of state, as to expose and worry down, by the power of the liberty of the press, those who deserve the contrary character.

The author, after charging the writers of the *Craftsman* with a long series of falsehoods, observes as follows, viz.

' This is what passes among the greater part of the common people, for the state of our affairs, and the transactions of the government. This is the D'anverian way of proving ministers of state weak and wicked! this is the use these good patriots have made of the liberty of the press! and thus have they put it in the utmost hazard of being lost; for some thousands of those deluded people have votes for members of parliament, and with this account of the conduct and actions of the king and ministry, do they design to send them into the field of election, in order to distress the government, either by chusing such representatives as may represent the passions and emotions they have worked the electors up to, or to inflame them into immediate tumults and insurrections; and that this cannot be prevented, they hope, by any way but suppressing the *Craftsman*, and consequently all others, who shall write on government affairs.

' Thus is this estimable liberty of the press come to it's crisis, if not to a period; and this dangerous attack is made upon it by these treacherous patriots, who make a noise with the word Liberty, while they are tricking and betraying us out of that valuable branch of it, which conduces so much to the security and defence of the rest. For, in their popular news-paper, they have brought it to this, either they will impose such things of their own invention for the transactions of the king and ministry, as may bring them into contempt with the people; or they will force them to restrain the liberty of the press, and then they have it done more effectually.

' And what more exquisite joy can these envious patriots feel after several years vain attempts, than to have it in their power to say, this king, parliament, and ministry, have made such an infringement on liberty; for thus do they make it difficult to carry on any political affairs abroad, or civil at home, under such bold insults and interruptions as they work people up to, and, indeed, boast they have worked them up to; and this is the last desperate effort of persons raging with disappointed malice.'

After this the author comes to his expedient.

' But, I think, they may be yet once more disappointed; for there is one remedy, or an expedient at least untried, which may, perhaps, preserve to us this liberty of the press, and yet prevent their mischievous proceedings. We have an office called a Gazetteer, in the secretary of state's office, whose business we expect should be to transmit things of this nature to the people; and he, or one in his office, may be appointed, or at least permitted, to observe these abuses in intelligence, and take the same method to prevent the people from being imposed on, and the government from being misrepresented, as all others do, from noblemen down to the meanest mechanic, who do themselves justice in the same news-paper, in which they find themselves wronged by short advertisements upon the facts.

' For example, we find the *Craftsman* of Dec. 11, 1731, which we last examined, insinuates, by way of reproach, that the new works of Dunkirk were not demolished: durst he have had the thought of affirming such a thing a year and a quarter after this demolition, if he knew the Gazetteer would have sent either that letter of Dec. 11, 1730, or that of Feb. 26 following, and half a guinea with it, or whatever should be the price of an advertisement of that length, and obliged him to publish it: and let it be considered what effect this must have had on his long railing political letters, as well as on his false news: and here is no occasion for one word of introduction or argument, only the bare narrative inserted and published from any other disinterested news-paper. I shall here take the liberty to shew, that this is not only a proper and natural way, but it is the way which must be taken, or something worse will, under another administration; that is, a total suppression of any news-paper but what the court shall think proper. For, though this ministry have struggled through business (not without great difficulty) in spite of these interruptions; having a reputation established by many years, and a series of success, very much owing to the steadfastness and uniformity of his late and present majesty; yet another ministry, who cannot at first have these advantages, will never venture on any material and doubtful affairs in difficult times, with the power in their avowed enemies hands of engrossing near all the intelligence; and with this D'anverian precedent, of the use which may be made of it: and ministers of state never want enemies, and those too of the most turbulent and daring spirit, nor do the common people inclination, to hear and credit every ill thing which can be said of them; the mischief is therefore arrived to that height and danger,

' that a remedy must be speedily had, and that the methods hitherto taken are none we shall soon see.

' 1. The prosecuting the offender, as Mr. Francklin, the printer of the *Craftsman*, lately was, brings no remedy nor removal of the grievance, rather increases it, as appears by his printing more in number, after his trial, than a little before; for his paper has got the ascendancy of attention, and he securely persists in it, that he is unjustly dealt by, as in the last we examined of Dec. 11, where he justifies his news, and complains to the people, that he is prohibited from giving them such foreign intelligence as he conceives they ought to have; and if he had not some thousands who credit this, so many thousands of his journal would not continue to be sold. Therefore, to make such prosecution have it's due effect, the generality of the people are to be convinced that the indictment is just; that is, that such libel is false, malicious, and scandalous, the falsity must appear to them; but whilst he commands very near all the intelligence they have, how can they see the falsity? And out of these deceived people the jury is chosen. But if, in May last, after it had been perceived that he had several weeks omitted to insert the treaty of Vienna, (for I would have given him some time, on purpose to have exposed him the more) the heads of it had been published for him in his own paper; where he would have found vindicators of this Hague letter, for which he was prosecuted, and the other vile accounts of things, which then would have appeared to be false in fact, though he continued to justify it by them? Whereas, for want of this, nine tenths of the people do not know to this day, but that he was prosecuted only for some bold and indecent reflections and freedoms, taken with the king and ministry, on certain negotiations and treaties, little imagining that it was for FORGING and INVENTING treaties and negotiations.

' 2. These prosecutions do not put a stop to their proceedings. Mist and Wolf, the present principal proprietors of *Fog's* journal, are fled their country; yet their journal is still carried on, and as virulently as ever, and it's gain is rather outdone than rivalled by the prosecution, than interrupted or reduced by any *Craftsman*, of the proprietors: it may now, indeed, bring in not above four or five hundred pounds a year, instead of eighteen hundred, or more, which it once did: but it is a scandal-shop, ready to receive and vend sedition in, and will never be laid down while there is an enemy to the British constitution capable of writing scandal in English; and such a comfortable livelihood is produced by it, though the present proprietors and writers may die, or be removed. So that we have at present these two principal weekly papers (for there are others of lesser note who find a gain in it) whose professed course, and openly avowed intention, is to bring the government into contempt; and what use any foreign nation, whose interest and design it is to be our enemies, and embarrass our affairs, by dividing us among ourselves, may make of them, I have already observed, page 67.

' 3. The taking them up by the messengers, and binding them over for three terms, has contributed more than any other thing to make the paper popular, and increase it's gain; and this costs them, at most, but four guineas: and this piece of journal-craft has been often practised, purposely; when the paper has seemed a little dull, and sunk in number, then get something wrote which may provoke a secretary of state to send the king's messengers for the printer or publisher, it makes a new noise, and revives again. Another piece of this art and mystery of journal-craft, is to procure an answer; if it is by some eminent or popular hand, it does excellently well for the proprietors; for then, perhaps, a new edition of the journal (wrote against) is printed, and as many sold as at first; besides, that the writer is, by this means, thrown into a thread of argumentation, which makes his writing easy, and, by the additional gain, more pleasant too. Not that I would be understood that these answers and arguments have not been of great use; for some have been convinced by them: besides, that they are sure to furnish friends of the government with proper materials for defending it; but to think of convincing these patriots out of their malice, or the writers and proprietors out of 1600 or 1800l. per annum, is a jest.

' Here has been now one prosecution against him, I admit a chargeable one too, on which he is fined 100l. and a year's imprisonment, which (by the way) is in the King's-Bench, where he has the liberty of the rules; I say, all this chargeable prosecution cannot amount to above a quarter of a year's gain of the paper. I have no occasion to enter into the progress of an exact calculation, except it was disputed, it is sufficient to allow, in a round computation, 10,000 in number weekly, and three farthings per paper clear profit; but their usual number was not less than 12,000, or 13,000 for a long time, even till since May 22, 1731; when, in a course of disputation with the author of the *Free Briton*, and others, his patrons were detected in so many falsities in facts, as well in his journals as other pamphlets, that his paper lost a great deal of it's credit, sinking

in a short time near 4000 in number; that is, from 13,000 to less than 9000: about the time of his trial, it rose a little again; but, notwithstanding this prosecution, the paper is still carried on in it's utmost malignancy, thus profitable, and thus popular, being read by no less than four hundred thousand of the good people of Great-Britain, allowing no more than 40 readers to a paper.

4. These prosecutions are no remedy for his omissions; and this mischievous artifice seems hitherto to be unserved: he has worked his readers up to an opinion, that his paper contains a much more perfect account of the state of the nation, both at home and abroad, than any other; besides scandalizing most with being partial and ministerial papers: and this is generally credited, because it is wrote under the patronage of gentlemen of distinction, whose understandings they cannot doubt, and whose fortunes set them above writing for gain; which is indeed true: but the people are not aware that the gentlemen trouble themselves very little with putting things in form, though they may often furnish materials and protection to the writer. But the course of the paper is performed by an hireling, who does it for gain and a livelihood; and it is he we mean, when we mention the secretary or the author: and if this author will not insert some things, who can force him? And by what law is he punishable? Thus he thinks it not proper to tell his readers of a negociation at Moscow, where the differences relating to trade are adjusted, nor of the utter abolition of the Ostend East-India trade,—nor of the discharging the Hessian troops,—nor the Spaniards breaking and imprisoning their governors in the West-Indies, for encouraging the depredations of the guarda costas,—nor of the care which has been taken to make Gibraltar invincible and inaccessible, and abundance of such things which he, as proprietor of his paper, may omit without breach of any law; and what remedy have we for this, but writing them in his own paper for him? But then, what would Mr. D'anvers do for subjects for his fine harangues and declamations, and what a deal of his excellent wit and satire should we be deprived of?

5. This method can be of no use to a weak and corrupt administration; for, if real evil and foolish things are transacted, there is no concealing them, while the bold spirited anti ministerial writer has his liberty of relating and commenting upon them, which by this means may be preserved, and even further indulged and protected, and there is no fear of wanting such: for bad ministers, as well as good, have their opposers. However, for the better preserving this liberty, the government's intelligencer may be restrained not to take up more than half a column; or, suppose a column at most, which is a twelfth part of one of these journals; and if he paid for the space he occupied, as other advertisers do, here can be no trespass on the proprietor's room for writing, nor invasion of his property; and I never yet saw a case which would take up above half this room, nor can I perceive there would be occasion for this ten times in a year: for the expectation of such a contradiction would be almost a sufficient check upon these forgers of false news.

Some object to me, that they would refuse such advertisement, and laugh at such an offer; and really, I am of the objector's opinion, if it is in their power to refuse it, and should continue long so; any enemy of our constitution would laugh to see us so fond of liberty in the nation, and prostitute it to the caprice of every angry malecontent, who shall attempt to destroy the government, which is the defence of it, by dividing us amongst ourselves, and against it, whilst we not only stand idly by and see this, but encourage these incendiaries and traitors to it, by permitting them to get such ample revenues as a thousand or two thousand pounds sterling per ann. for doing it, and we to have neither ingenuity nor authority to prevent the mischief. This would, indeed, make such an one laugh, but other laugh than this I can't see. Suppose, for example, he had been desired to have published an extract of the declaration done at Seville, June 6, 1731, (which see in it's proper place) and money had been sent to have paid for the room it would occupy, as for an advertisement, there is no doubt but he would have refused it if he could, for it would have confuted more than half the papers he wrote for two years: but in what manner would he have laughed at this? And in what manner, or for what reasons, would he have told his readers he refused this?

He would also most certainly have refused to publish a pre-sentment of the Craftsman and Fog's Journal, and other libels, by the grand jury of Middlesex, on July 7, 1731. But I should, nevertheless, think it highly necessary, that his readers, and in his own paper too, should (as well as other articles of London news) see some such extract of it as follows.

Complaining of that presumptuous and unprecedented licence, which has been assumed by some state-incendiaries for a few years past, of inflaming by false, seditious, and scandalous libels, the minds of the common people with pretended grievances, and alarming them with imaginary dangers;—from whence such mischiefs may flow, as may be of

pernicious consequence to this nation and people, by fixing in foreign powers an opinion that we are divided among ourselves, which may give grounds to extravagant demands in negociations on their parts, and thereby occasion an increase or continuance of our taxes, in order to secure our own rights, and preserve his majesty's honour*. See the D'anverian History, from whence this is quoted.

* See more reasons for thus advertising, as well as examples of it, in a pamphlet by the same author, price 6d. entitled, Liberty and Craftsman, published in December, 1730.

The principal LAWS relating to NEWS-PAPERS and PAMPHLETS.

I. Stat. Westm. 1. 3 Edw. I. cap. 34. None shall publish or counterfeit any false news, whereby discord or slander may grow between the king and his people, or the great men of this realm. And he that so does, shall be kept in prison, until he hath brought him forth into the court which did speak the same.

II. Stat. 2 Rich. II. stat. 1. cap. 5. Of counterfeiters of false news of prelates, dukes, earls, barons, and other nobles and great men of the realm, and also of the chancellor, treasurer, clerk of the privy seal, steward of the king's houses, justices of the one bench or of the other, and other great officers of the realm; it is defended that none contrive or tell any false things of prelates, lords, and others aforesaid, whereof discord or slander might rise within the realm; and he that doth the same shall be imprisoned, till he have brought him forth that did speak the same.

III. Stat. 12 Rich. II. cap. 11. When any such mentioned in the statute Westm. 1. cap. 34. and 2 Rich. II. cap. 5. is taken and imprisoned, and cannot bring him forth that did speak the same, he shall be punished by the advice of the council. By stat. 10 Ann. cap. 19. All papers called pamphlets, shall for every half sheet pay a halfpenny; if larger than a half sheet a penny, and if larger than a whole sheet, and not six sheets in octavo, or in a less page, or not exceeding twelve sheets in quarto, or twenty sheets in folio, 2s. sterling for every sheet of paper in one printed copy; and for every advertisement in the London Gazette, or other printed paper made weekly public, one shilling. And they are to be stamped accordingly.

Offences in printing, selling, or exposing to sale, any pamphlet, &c. against this act, may be heard and determined by two or more justices within their jurisdiction. At any time within three months after the offence, upon complaint made, they may summon the offender and witnesses, and may examine them on oath; or for not appearing, upon proof of notice given, may proceed, though the offender doth not appear and give judgment. And, if convicted either upon view of the justice, or upon such information, may issue warrants to levy the penalty of 10l. on the goods of the offender by distress and sale, if not redeemed within six days: and if such distress cannot be had, may commit him till the penalty is paid. Those who are grieved may appeal to the next quarter-sessions, who may examine witnesses upon oath, and finally determine, and may then issue warrants to levy the penalty.

The penalty may be mitigated by the justices, but then the officers and informers must be allowed their reasonable costs and charges over and above the said mitigation, and so as the mitigation must not be less than a fourth part of the fine over and above the said cost and charges.

Persons sued for putting the act in execution, may plead the general issue, and give this act and any special matter in evidence, and if he recover shall have treble costs.

Printing a pamphlet above one sheet, published within the weekly bills of mortality, and not carrying it within six days to the head office for stamping; and if printed elsewhere, and not brought to the head collector of the stamp duties within fourteen days, the printer and publisher shall lose the profit of the copy of such pamphlet for which the duty is not paid, and shall forfeit 20l. with full costs.

If the printer's or publisher's name is not printed thereon, the penalty is likewise 20l.

One moiety of these penalties is to the crown, the other to the informer. But some news writers taking advantage of the paragraph in the act 10 Ann. cap. 19. wherein for all pamphlets larger than one whole sheet, and not exceeding twenty sheets in folio 2s. for every sheet of paper in one printed copy, and no more, was to be paid, contrived their news-papers so as they took up one whole sheet, and one half sheet, and no more; by which means they for many years paid only 3s. for each whole impression of their news-papers. Which being taken notice of in parliament, a clause was inserted in a statute made 11 Geo. I. whereby all journals, mercuries, and news papers, printed on one sheet and half a sheet of paper, shall not for the future be deemed or taken as pamphlets, to be entered and pay only 3s. for each impression thereof; but there shall be paid for every sheet of paper on which any journal, mercury, or other news-papers whatsoever shall be printed, a duty of one penny, and for every half sheet thereof one half-penny, during the term mentioned

mentioned in the act 10 Ann. cap. 19. to be levied in the same manner, and subject to the same penalties, &c. as in the said act of 10 Ann. cap. 19. or any other act relating to those duties is contained.

Since this another act of parliament has taken place, laying an additional duty on news-papers; and yet there appears no less propensity after news than before, and the number of news-papers have increased, as well as that of advertisements in general. See ADVERTISE.

NEW SPAIN, see MEXICO.

NICARAGUA, see MEXICO.

NICOBAR ISLANDS, situate in the Indian ocean in Asia north of the island of Sumatra, at the entrance of the bay of Bengal; 300 miles west of the further peninsula of India, between 92 and 94 degrees of east longitude, and between 7 and 10 degrees of north latitude, the largest of these islands, which gives name to the rest, and lies farthest south, is 40 miles long and 15 broad. This country is almost covered with wood, and produces no corn, but they have a fruit which they boil, and serves them instead of bread; they have also cacao-nuts, plantains, and other tropical fruits, on which they live with the fish they take, but seem to slight flesh, though they have hogs and poultry enough, with which they supply the ships which touch here: and yet these people, as well as their neighbours of the Andeman islands, were reported to be cannibals, when the Europeans first visited them. The natives, in return for the provisions they furnish ships with, take iron, tobacco, and linen, and don't seem to have any commerce with the nations of the adjacent continent.

NIGRITIA, see AFRICA.

NITRE, or SALT-PETRE. It is probable, that the nitre of the ancients, was either the Egyptian natron, or a salt, found in the earth in a gray compact mass, or else the natural borax, or the salt which is drawn from the water of the river Nile, and many other rivers. And it may be, that all these salts are divers kinds of their nitre, but the nitre of the moderns is nothing else but salt-petre, and this is that of which we shall speak.

Nitre is an acid salt impregnated with abundance of spirits out of the air, which render it volatile; it is taken from among the stones and earth of old ruined buildings. Some of it is likewise to be found in cellars, and several other moist places, because the air doth condense it in those places, and easily unites it with the stones.

Nitre is also sometimes made by the urine of animals, falling upon stones and earths. Nay, some have thought, that all salt-petre comes from that cause, whereas we see every day, that some of it is taken out of places, where there never came any urine at all. There is also found in dry weather in hot countries natural salt-petre, against the walls and rocks in small crystals, which are separated by sweeping softly those places with a broom; this is preferable to the ordinary salt-petre for the making of gunpowder, it must be chosen neat in crystals, easily taking fire upon kindled coals.

A good and well esteemed salt-petre is imported from the East-Indies, principally for gunpowder; it is said, that the same is found in great quantities near Pegu, and that it is observed to elevate from certain barren lands in white crystals, as near one another as the grass, so that one may easily gather and purify the same, which is like to our purified salt-petre.

The great and violent flame which happens so soon as salt-petre is flung upon the coals, and the red vapours which it yields when reduced into a spirit, have caused the chemists generally to believe that this salt is inflammable, and consequently fully loaded with sulphur, because sulphur is the only principle that flames; but, if they had suspended their judgments herein, until they got more experience on this subject, they would not only have known that salt-petre is not at all inflammable in its nature, but they would even have doubted whether or no any sulphur does enter into the natural composition of this salt; for, if salt-petre were inflammable of itself, like sulphur, it would burn where there is no sulphur, for example, in a crucible heated red-hot in a fire; but it will never flame therein, use what quantity of it you please, and let the fire be ever so great. It is true, indeed, if you throw salt-petre upon kindled coals, it makes a great flame, but this is only through the sulphureous fuliginosities of the coals, which are violently raised and rarified by the volatile nature of nitre.

As for any sulphur that is thought to be contained in salt-petre, it can't be demonstrated by any operation whatever; for the red vapours that come from it are no more inflammable than the nitre, when they are not mixed with some sulphureous matter; and it is far from probable, that this salt contains no sulphur, if we consider its cleanness, transparency, acidity, and cooling quality, which have no manner of affinity with the effects of sulphur, which are commonly to make a body opaque, to take off acidity, and to heat.

Of the purification of salt-petre.

To purify salt-petre, is to deprive it of part of its fixt salt, and of a little bituminous earth which it contains.

Dissolve ten or twelve pounds of salt-petre, in a sufficient quantity of water; let the dissolution settle, and filtrate it; then evaporate it in a glass or earthen vessel, to the diminution of half, or until there begins to appear a little skin upon it; then remove your vessel into a cool place, stirring it as little as may be, and leave it there 'till the morrow, you'll find crystals which you must separate from the liquor; evaporate this liquor again to a skin, and set the vessels in a cool place to get new crystals, repeat the evaporations and crystallizations, until you have drawn all your salt-petre.

Note, That in the last crystallizations, you'll have a salt altogether like unto sea salt, or sal gemme, keep it apart, it may serve to season meat with.

The first crystals are the pure salt-petre.

You may, if you please, dissolve and purify salt-petre several other times in water, observing every time what I said before, for to render it more white, and purify it from its sea-salt.

Salt-petre purified is a great aperitive, it cools the body by fixing the humours that are in too much motion, and drives them by urine. It is given in fevers, in gonorrhœas, and many other diseases; the dose is from ten grains to a drachm in broth, or some appropriate liquor.

REMARKS.

The first purification that is given to salt-petre is this: the stones and earths that contain it are grossly powdered: they are boiled in a great deal of water, to dissolve the salt-petre: the dissolution is filtrated, and then poured upon ashes, to make a lixivium; after it hath been poured upon the ashes several times, it is evaporated and crystallized.

If instead of pouring the dissolution of salt-petre upon ashes, one is content to let it evaporate upon the fire in a cauldron or other vessel, 'till it adheres to the skimmer, which must be soaked in it, and 'till it appears in the consistence of oil of a yellowish or brown colour, it will be a greasy and thick liquor, which the artists call mother of salt-petre, or water of the sea.

The salt of the ashes which mixes with the salt-petre augments its fixed part, for notwithstanding the salt is alkali, yet it changes nature, because its pores have been filled by the acid of the salt petre. This nitre salt, drawn by this first purification, is called common salt-petre; the last salt taken thence must not be mixed with the first, because it is almost fixed, and not so good: if one distils the same in the manner as salt, an acid spirit will be drawn thence, which is a species of aqua regia, or a dissolvent of gold.

The earth from whence one has drawn the salt-petre being exposed to the air, and stirred from time to time, impregnates again with the same species of salt.

The long crystals which we see in salt-petre come from its volatile part, for that which crystallizes itself last, is fixed like sea-salt, and retains the figure thereof.

The salt-petre, though never so well refined, always contains a salt like to mineral salt, or sea salt, but in less quantity.

When salt-petre is boiled a long time in water, and over a great fire, some part of the spirit evaporates, and there remains at last nothing but a salt like unto sea salt, or sal gemme, which serves to prove that salt-petre is only a sal gemme, fuller of spirits than the other.

When you would crystallize a salt, you must dissolve it in a convenient proportion of water; for if there should be too much, the salt would be weakened too much, and not able to coagulate; and if, on the contrary, there should be too little, the crystals would be confused. Therefore, to make them fair, you must take your vessel off the fire, when you perceive a little skin upon the liquor, which is a mark to shew, that there remains a little less liquor than is convenient to keep all the salt dissolved, and thus when it comes to be set in a cool place, it will not fail to fix.

Acid salts, and among them the volatile, do crystallize in much less time than others.

In purifying a great quantity of salt-petre, put it into one or more great and tinned cauldrons, and pour upon it a necessary quantity of common water to dissolve it, put fire underneath, and when the salt is melted and the liquor begins to boil, take off with a skimmer the first scum, which is called the dirt of salt-petre; continue to boil this liquor softly, 'till it has acquired more consistence; afterwards put in a little white vitriol or allum in powder to clarify it, and there will appear at the superficies a black scum, which will thicken; this must be separated by little and little with a skimmer, as exactly as possible: when the liquor is cleared of this scum, pour it boiling with great ladles or otherwise, into another high and strait vessel, which is to be covered with a piece of cloth, to preserve its heat for some time, and hinder its cooling too soon; and it must not be stirred in an hour and half or two hours; during which time it precipitates to the bottom of the vessel yellow dregs like lees, and the liquor becomes clear and good; which is afterwards separated from these dregs, whilst it is yet somewhat warm, pouring the same by inclination into earthen bowls or basons. These vessels are to be covered with a cloth, and the liquor is not to be stirred in a day or two, 'till the salt-petre is congealed in great, fine, clear,

clear, white, and transparent crystals, which are ordinarily of a six angular form; afterwards these crystals are taken out of the bowls, and are put into a tub pierced at the bottom, where they are drained: this is the refined salt-petre.

Let the remaining liquor evaporate upon the fire about one half, and then let it cool, and there will be formed crystals not quite so fine as the first; the same proceeding is continued 'till all the salt-petre is taken away, but the last crystals, which are in a little quantity, must be set apart, because they contain much fixed salts.

The same refined salt-petre is purified a second time, not only to separate from it some small portion of filth, which, perhaps, sticks there, but also to clear it of it's fixed part, then it will not so easily be subject to run with moisture.

The salt-petre must be chosen well refined, in long, neat, and transparent crystals, cooling the tongue when applied to it, and much flaming when thrown upon burning coals.

Salt-petre cools the body, by reason that being an acid it depresses the humours, which by their too great motion did hurt the body, and so precipitates them by urine; for the volatile salts and sulphurs that all bodies are full of, are easily fixed and quieted by acids.

Of the spirit of nitre.

Spirit of nitre is a liquor very acid and corrosive, drawn from salt-petre.

Powder and mix well together two pounds of fine salt-petre, and six pounds of potter's-earth dried; put this mixture into a large retort, either of earth or glass luted, set it in a close reverberatory furnace; set to it a great capacious basin, or receiver, and give a very little fire to it for four or five hours, to make all the phlegm come forth, which will distil out drop by drop. When you perceive there will distil no more, throw the phlegm away that is found in the receiver, and having refitted it, lute the junctures, and increasing the fire by little and little to the second degree, there will come forth spirits, which will fill the receiver with white clouds; then keep the fire two hours in the same degree, after that increase it to the greatest violence you can give it, and so the vapours will come red; continue the greatest fire 'till there come no more, the operation will be ended in about fourteen hours. When the vessels are cold, unlute the junctures, and pour your spirit of nitre into an earthen bottle, which you must stop with wax.

Spirit of nitre is used for the dissolution of metals, it is a good aqua fortis [see AQUA FORTIS]; and the corrosive virtue of other waters of this nature, doth chiefly proceed from the nitre that enters into their composition.

REMARKS.

You might, as some do, mix four parts of potter's-earth with one part of nitre, when you would draw it's spirit; but you will succeed better, and with less difficulty, by observing the preceding directions; for the earth does here serve only as an intermedium to separate the parts of this salt, to the end that the fire operating more easily upon it, may draw it's spirits; and therefore it is a very needless business, to use more of the earth than is necessary towards this effect. Besides, this over great quantity of earth may serve to weaken the spirits, and by taking up too much room, may hinder the drawing such quantity, as otherwise you would with the same retort. The phlegm is thrown away, because it only serves to weaken the spirit. The white vapours proceed from the volatile part of the salt-petre, and are a weaker sort of spirit; but the red ones proceed from the fixed part, and are the strongest spirit: for which reason, the fire is made so very violent towards the latter end. Of all salts, nitre is the only one that yields red vapours.

When you use here the best salt-petre, there remains nothing in the retort but only earth.

On boiling several times in water a good while the earth that remained after the distillation of the spirit of nitre, and after evaporating of the filtrated decoction, you will find no salt at bottom. But sometimes a little vitriol, in the same manner as in several clayey grounds.

It has likewise been observed, that out of two pounds of purified nitre, a pound and fourteen ounces of liquor, in phlegm and spirit, may be drawn.

A third part of the retort, wherein the operation is performed must remain empty, and the receiver must be very large; for otherwise these spirits coming hastily forth, would break all to-pieces for room to move in.

NIVERNOS, or **NEVERS**, a province in France, bounded on the east by Burgundy; on the south by Bourbonnois; on the west by Berry; on the north by Gâtinois. It is pretty fertile in wine, corn, and fruit; there are also many woods, and mines of iron. It is watered by several rivers, three of which are navigable, namely the Loire, the Allier, and the Yonne. It's extent is about 17 leagues, from north to south, and about 12 from east to west. The only place where there is any considerable trade is at

NEVERS, the capital city, situate on the river Loire, near it's confluence with the Allier and the rivulet of Nierre. This city is famous on account of the great quantities of glais white iron, and fine earthen ware manufactured here.

NORFOLK, in England, has Suffolk on the south; Cambridgeshire on the west; is washed by the German Ocean on the east and north, and is in circumference about 140 miles. The air is of various temperatures in the several parts of it, and has a greater variety of soil than is, perhaps, in any other county; but even it's worst, namely the fens, marshlands, and sandy heaths, are exceeding profitable.

The chief rivers of this county are the Yare, Thyrn, Waveney, Ouse, and Bure, all abounding with fish, the last of which is noted for excellent perch. There is a great herring-fishery on the coast, which begins in September, and brings great trade and treasure to Yarmouth: mackarel are also caught here in the spring in vast quantities; so that here are every year two great markets for herrings and mackarel.

Woollen and worsted stuffs, with stockings, are their chief manufacture; and they are in most places so diligent in nourishing and increasing their stocks of bees, that honey in these parts is very plentiful. Jet and ambergrease are sometimes found on it's coast.

NORWICH city stands near the conflux of the Winther and Yare, which is navigable from hence to Yarmouth, 30 miles by water. The inhabitants are wealthy, and the city populous, having a great trade itself, and adds not a little to that of Yarmouth, by the vast cargoes of coal, wine, fish, oil, and all other heavy goods, which it has from thence by the Yare. It's manufactures are, generally speaking, sent to London, though they export considerable quantities also to Holland, Germany, Sweden, Norway, and other parts of the Baltic and Northern Seas. They consist in great variety of worsted stuffs, as says, bays, ferges, shalloons, &c. in which they carry on a vast trade; and are lately come to weave druggets, crapes, and other curious stuffs: of all which it is said, this city vends to the value of no less than 100,000l. a year. All hands are daily employed, and even children earn their bread in this manufacture. Eight wardens of the worsted-weavers, four out of the city, and four out of the neighbouring country, are annually chose, and sworn to take care that there be no frauds in spinning, weaving, or dyeing the said stuffs. Here is another company of woollen manufacturers, called the Russia company. The weavers here employ all the country round in spinning yarn for them, of which they use many thousand packs from other counties, even as far as Yorkshire and Westmoreland. A calculation was lately made, from the number of looms then at work in this city only, that there were not less than 120,000 people employed, in and about the town, those who spin the yarn included. There is a stocking manufacture also here, which has been computed at 60,000l. a year.

GREAT YARMOUTH is a large, well-built, populous town, much increased of late years in buildings, shipping, and people, and greatly superior to Norwich in situation, traffic, and wealth; it's great commerce to France, Holland, and the North and East Seas, and, above all, it's herring-fishery, make it the greatest town of trade on all the east coast of England, except Hull; for, besides all it's other trade, it has the whole herring-fishery, where, including the little town of Leostoff, 50,000 barrels, which some magnify to 40,000 lasts, containing no less than 40,000,000 of red herrings, are generally cured in a year. These are mostly exported by the merchants of Yarmouth, the rest by those of London, to Italy, Spain, and Portugal. During the fishing-season, all vessels that come for that purpose from any part of England, as great numbers do from the coasts of Kent and Sussex, Scarborough, Whitby, &c. are allowed to catch, bring in, and sell their fish, free of all toll or tax, as the freemen of Yarmouth are.

They have also a fishing-trade to the North Seas, for white-fish, called the North Sea cod, and a considerable trade to Norway and the Baltic, for deals, oak, pitch, tar, hemp, flax, canvass, sail-cloth, and all manner of naval stores, which they consume, for the most part, in their own port, where they build a great number of ships every year.

LYNN is seated at the mouth of the Ouse, where it falls into the sea, little after it has received several lesser rivers, which gives it a navigation for trade into the very heart of the kingdom, almost as high as Northampton; by which means it commands the trade of several inland counties, which it supplies, especially with coals and wine, this being the greatest port of importation for those articles of any place on all the eastern coast of England, from London to Berwick. In return for this, Lynn receives back all the corn which those counties produce, and therefore is, next to Hull, the greatest port for the exportation of that commodity. The merchants of Lynn have the fame of a great correspondence, and of carrying on a considerable foreign trade, especially to Holland, Norway, and the Baltic, and also to Portugal and Spain. The harbour is safe when ships are entered into it, but difficult to come at, by reason of the many flats and shoals in the passage.

CROMER, on the coast, is a pretty large town, chiefly inhabited and frequented by fishermen, especially for lobsters, which are caught here in great quantities, and carried to Norwich, and sometimes also to London.

WORSTED is remarkable for the invention and twisting of that sort of woollen-yarn and thread which is from this place so called, as cambrics and calicoes take their names from the towns where they were first made. Here is also a manufacture of worsted stuffs and stockings, both knit and wove.

ST FAITH's, a village between Norwich and Cromer, is noted for a fair of lean cattle, scarce to be equalled in the kingdom, they being brought hither in great droves out of the north of England and Scotland, and sold to the Norfolk graziers.

CLAY has a harbour for ships, on the same coast as Cromer, and large salt-works, where very good salt is made, and sent all over the country; and sometimes to Holland and the Baltic.

MARHAM and **WELLS** are two towns on the same coast, in each of which there is a very considerable trade carried on with Holland for corn, which this part of the county is very full of, besides the great trade drove hither from Holland in return.

WIMONDHAM, or **WINDHAM**, is a little town, whose inhabitants, both old and young, are generally employed in making spigots and faucets, spindles, spoons, and the like sort of wooden ware.

Peculiar laws relating to Norwich and Norwich stuffs.

By 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 5. in Norwich, and the county of Norfolk, there must be 12 wardens and 30 assistants chose, who, within 14 days after notice thereof must take an oath before the mayor faithfully to discharge their office. If they refuse, or die within the year, the master weavers may choose others. Raym. 192.

Half of the wardens are to be chosen on Whitsun-Monday. by the greater part of the master-weavers in the city: half of the assistants on the same day, by the greater part of the weavers of the county.

Seven of the wardens and assistants may meet when they please, or as often as desired by the assistants. Fourteen days before they intend to meet, the wardens of the city must give notice to those in the county when they intend to meet, by setting such notice upon the door of their sealing-hall.

Two of them may search in the public places for sale, and seize defective yarns, and, within 20 days afterwards, bring them to a trial by jury, who may impose fines on the yarn not exceeding half the value, to the use of the poor of the trade. By-laws being made and confirmed by the mayor and two justices of the city, and three of the county (quorum unus) must be published four times in a year, at four assemblies for trade, and may impose fines not exceeding 10s. for every offence.

Any one disturbing them, convicted by oath of one witness, or by his own confession, before the mayor, or a justice of peace of the city or county, forfeits 40s.

At their four assemblies for trade, they are to account before the mayor and one justice of the city, and two of the county, for what fines and forfeitures they have received, and what they have expended about the trade, and what remains, by the said mayor and justices to be divided as they shall direct, between the poor of the trade of the city and county.

The jury must consist of 12 artificers, half of the city, and half of the county, and must be empannelled by precept from the mayor or deputy; and, if any being summoned, refuse to appear, forfeits 5s. to the poor of the trade.

All stuffs in which there is wool, must be under the regulation of wardens and assistants, and must be brought to Weavers-Hall in Norwich, before they are exposed to sale; and, if found good, then sealed; if defective, they must be tried by a jury, &c. who may set fines not exceeding half the value of the stuffs, for the use of the poor of the trade, and detain them till paid, and sell them, if not paid within 40 days after trial.

They in whose possession unsealed stuffs shall be found, forfeit 40s. per piece, and the maker or seller 4s. for selling them unsealed, to the use of the poor of the trade.

If wardens seal stuffs which shall be found defective by jury, such jury may set fines on the wardens of 40s. for every stuff, but wardens shall have double damages for unjust vexation.

Persons convicted before the mayor, or a justice of the city or county, by confession, or oath of two witnesses, of counterfeiting the seal, or sealing therewith, or removing the seal from one piece to another, forfeit 20l. Every one must have his proper mark upon every piece made by him, or forfeit 3s. per piece to the poor of the trade.

The forfeitures are to be levied by distress, &c. by warrant from the mayor or justice, or by action of debt, indictment, or information. All yarns and worsted must be reeled on a reel of a yard about, and every reel-stuff must have fourteen leas.

By stat. 9 Geo. I. cap. 9. it is enacted, That all manufacturers, or makers of stuffs made of wool, or in which there is any mixture of wool, and all makers of worsted into yarn, who are not journeymen or servants for hire, master-weavers and master woolcombers, and all persons dealing or employing servants and journeymen in any such manufactures, or

having any interest, share, or partnership therein, living in Norwich, shall be made free, and admitted freemen of that city, on their request to be made at any assembly of the corporation of the said city, paying not exceeding 5l. for such admission and freedom; and all persons to be made free shall take the usual oaths, or, being Quakers, shall take the solemn affirmation.

If any person (except servants and apprentices during their service) who is any such manufacturer or dealer, &c. presume to exercise any of the said manufactures, or be otherwise interested therein, not being made free, and being convicted thereof on a prosecution commenced within six months after the fact committed, he shall forfeit 10l. for every calendar month he shall exercise any of the said manufactures, or be concerned therein, next after the third quarterly assembly of the said corporation, to be recovered by action of debt, &c. brought by the chamberlain, for the use of the mayor, sheriffs, citizens, and commonalty of the city, in any court of record at Westminster.

NORMANDY, in France. This province, or duchy, is bounded on the north by the British Channel; on the west by part of the same, and by Brittany; on the south by Maine, Perche, and Beauce; and on the east by the Isle of France and Picardy: its whole circuit being of about 240 leagues, the greatest part of which is on the sea-coast. This country abounds in pastures, and is extremely fruitful in corn, flax, and several kinds of fruit; and has also mines of iron, and some of copper, and other metals. They have a considerable trade in corn timber, coals, hay, cattle, and herbs proper for dyeing, as madder, woad, &c.

ROUEN, the capital of the province, is situated on the north bank of the river Seine, in which the tide flows so high, that ships of above 200 tons can come to the key here. The trade carried on in the city and district is very considerable and extensive: it consists in woollen and linen cloths, leather, hats, paper, and a great many other merchandizes. The woollen manufactures, which employ many thousand workmen, are very advantageous to the province; but, as they are here chiefly sold within the kingdom, are only so far profitable to the nation in general as they prevent the money being sent abroad. But the linen manufactures of many sorts, which are exported into Spain, are extremely so, because the returns are generally made in cash.

ELBEUF, a large and populous borough on the river Seine, famous for the manufactory of cloths set up here in 1667.

DIEPPE is a noted sea-port on the shore of the British Sea, at the mouth of the river Betune. The town is reasonably large, and inhabited by seafaring men, reckoned skilful in their profession; mechanics that make curious works in ivory; and merchants who drive a considerable trade to foreign parts, especially Newfoundland in America. The chief trade here consists in herrings, with which they supply Paris, and the province of Normandy: they also fish for whittings, mackerel, and oysters. There is also a manufactory where they make tobacco-rolls, which employs daily some hundreds of hands.

HAVRE DE GRACE is a strong sea-port, at the mouth of the Seine, and a place of good trade, several merchants inhabiting here who trade to Newfoundland, and other places.

CAUDEBEC is a pretty well peopled town. A small river runs through it, divided into several canals, on which stand divers mills of great use to the tanners and leather-dressers here: among other manufactures, they make here a kind of hats, which are very much esteemed on account of their resisting the rain.

FESCAMP is situated on a little river, eight leagues from Havre, and 12 from Dieppe. Their trade consists in woollen cloths, ferges, linens, laces, hats, and tanned leather. They also send some ships to Newfoundland, and a few barks to the herring-fishery.

EU, on the banks of the river Bresle, has a pretty good trade, by means of their manufactures of ferges, and other woollen stuffs, linens, and laces.

ST. VALERY is a large sea-port town, on the coast of the British Channel. They make here also linens and woollen stuffs, and send some vessels to the herring and cod-fisheries.

AUMALE is seated near the river Bresle. The ferges made here are very much esteemed: they make also a coarse sort of woollen stuff, called frocks, for the use of the common people.

LISIEUX is a fair and large city. Several manufactures of linen and woollen stuffs afford the inhabitants a competent livelihood.

HONFLEUR, at the mouth of the Seine, has above 60 ships belonging to it that trade to Newfoundland and the French colonies in America. They make here also a great many laces.

BAYEUX is an ancient city, on the river Aure. They had set up here manufactures of cloths, ferges, and stockings, which succeeded extremely well; but the high taxes the merchants were forced to pay, obliged them not only to abandon these manufactures, but also to leave the city, and to settle elsewhere.

CAEN is a large and well-built city, and a place of good trade, vessels of burthen coming up to the bridge.

VIER is a neat city, on a river of the same name, with a considerable trade, consisting chiefly in drapery goods manufactured here: they have also paper-mills.

COUTANCES is a pretty large and populous city. There is here a large suburb, inhabited by a great number of tradesmen, particularly tanners and dyers.

The chief trade of GRANVILLE, a good sea port town, consists in salt-cod, which they fish and cure on the coast of Newfoundland, and oysters and other fish, which they catch on the neighbouring coast.

CARENTAN has some trade, because vessels of a pretty large size can come up here at high water.

CHERBURG is a small port, but pretty good, admitting vessels of 300 tons: they build here some merchant ships.

ALENÇON, on the river Sarthe, in a fruitful plain, is a fair and large city, and chief place of a generality*, which is not less considerable than the two others of the same province, with regard both to the variety and importance of its trade.

* Besides the geographical division of France into provinces, there is, for the better administration of the king's finances, another division of the kingdom into what they call generalities, of which there are 24, according to Mons. Furetiere, in each of which there is an office of the treasuries of France, with a receiver-general of the finances, and an intendant of justice, or commissary.

The manufactory of the linens which are called cloth of Alençon, because they are wove in that city and in its neighbourhood, is still considerable, though the flourishing condition in which it was formerly, has suffered great alterations by the long wars, and the want of hemp, which was either bought up for the sea-service, or which the husbandmen cease to sow their lands with, to put corn in its stead.

The brionnes, another sort of linen very much esteemed, though somewhat dear, are made at Bernay, at Lisieux, and at Brionne, from which last place they have got their name.

In the whole election, or district, of this last town, as also at Ponteau de Mer and Bernay, they make a great many linens of flax, which are sold under the name of blancards.

The linens of which the warp is of hemp, and the woof of flax, and which they call cretonnes, are manufactured at Lisieux.

At Domfront, Vientiers, and in their neighbourhood, they make none but coarse linens, which they sell before they are blanched; they are sometimes called canvass, but improperly, the true canvass being much coarser and more ordinary.

Of all those linens, the finest, strongest, and whitest are sent to Paris; the clearest are designed for Rouen, whence they are exported to Cadiz, to be sent from thence into Spanish America; and the coarsest are kept for the use of the country.

The manufactory of French point, which, in the generality of Alençon, they call vélom (velin), because of the velom or parchment on which it is wrought, have also been affected by the long wars of the reign of Lewis XIV; it is, however, still kept up with some reputation at Alençon, and in its neighbourhood, the magnificence, or the luxury, of the French being sufficient to support it, even in time of war; but it flourishes chiefly in time of peace, by the great quantity of those points that is exported into foreign countries.

There is also a great deal of drapery and woollen stuffs manufactured in the generality of Alençon, as the reader will see in the several articles of the most considerable towns within this division.

The woollen stuffs called a frock by the French, which serve for dressing the common people, are made at Lisieux, Bernay, Orbée, and in the villages of Fervaques and Tardonet, whence they are sent into the provinces of Perche, Maine, and Poitou. Besides the wool of the country which is used in those several manufactories, the weavers get a great deal also from the neighbouring provinces. They make in this generality, one year with another, 50 or 52,000 pieces of woollen stuffs, of which there above 15,000 marked or stamped every year at the fair of Guibray only.

The pins made at Laigle and at Conches, the iron, steel, copper, and brass wares made in the last-mentioned town, the tanneries of Argenton, Vomontiers, Conches, and Verneuil, the manufactory of wooden shoes, the large timber, boards, and small timber, conveyed to the sea by the rivers Drac and Tonques; the fattening of fowl, of which they send vast quantities to Paris, as also of butter and eggs, and the salt-petre of the election of Argenton, are pretty considerable branches of the trade which is carried on in the generality of Alençon. But there are two other branches of commerce which procure greater profits still to this part of Normandy; these are the manufactories of glass, and the iron-forges.

As for the manufacturing of glass, it is esteemed a noble profession, none but gentlemen having the liberty to keep glass-houses: they may be interested in this manufacture without derogating from their nobility.

The chief glass-houses in this generality are, that of Nonant, in the forest of Exines, that of Fortilambert, in the forest of Mortpinson, and the two which have been set up in the little district of Thimerais.

In the two former of these glass-houses they make crystal glass, with the stone called by them chambourin, and fern-glass: in the two last they make hardly any but fern-glass, and a few crystal works.

As for the forges, the most considerable are at Chansegray, Varennes, Carouges, Rannes, Conches, and Bonneville; this last, though it has been set up only since the beginning of the eighteenth century, equals, if it does not surpass the old ones, with regard to the good quality of its iron, and of the works made there.

The neighbourhood of Domfront, and the little country of Houlme, are the places where the mines abound most, and from which they take the greatest quantity of mineral matter for the keeping up of those forges.

We ought also to reckon as a pretty considerable branch of the commerce of this generality, the great number of horses which they feed in the pastures of the country of Auge, and which are sold at the fairs of Caen and Guibray: nor ought we to omit the fattening of cattle, which is afterwards sent to Paris, or to the markets of Seaux, Roan, Neubourg, and the other chief cities of Normandy. We speak of the horses of this province in other places.

The manufactories of the city of Alençon, are of strong ferges, $\frac{2}{3}$ of a French ell wide, of flamines $\frac{1}{2}$ an ell wide, of crapes of the same breadth; but they make not much above 100 pieces of all these stuffs together per annum. They have nevertheless a pretty considerable trade in small woollen stuffs, as druggets, tiretaines, and flamines of several stuffs: but these are wove in other places, and there are marked or stamped above 800 of them, one year with another, at the hall or office of Alençon.

We have already mentioned the manufactory of French point; we shall only add here, that most of the women in this city work at it, besides a great many more, who are dispersed in the neighbouring villages: so that above 800 persons are employed in that manufactory, which affords a trade of above 50,000 livres per annum. Most of this point is sold at Paris, whence they send part of it to the chief cities of the kingdom, and into foreign countries.

The manufactory of linens, which from this city are called linens of Alençon, is still pretty considerable there, though much less than it was before the Protestants of France were forced to leave their native country; there being a great many of them among the weavers, and among the merchants who dealt in those linens. They reckon, however, that the produce of this trade amounts still to above 60,000 livres yearly, and this manufactory employs above 400 workmen in the city only, besides those of the country parishes. Most of these linens are sent to Paris.

The tanneries of Alençon are pretty much esteemed; they are of the number of those, whose leather, according to the regulations, is to be sent to Paris.

There are three considerable fairs kept at Alençon: the one on Candlemas-day, the second the first Monday in Lent, and the third at Midlent. The markets are kept three times a week, namely, every Monday, Thursday, and Saturday.

TALAISE is a small town, situate on the little river Ante. They make here and in the adjacent villages, light woollen stuffs, fine linen cloths, laces, and other works, for which they have a pretty good trade, and the neighbouring lands produce plenty of corn.

ARGENTON is situate on the banks of the river Orne. The trade of this city consists chiefly in corn, linen cloths, hats, and tanned leather.

EVREUX is seated in a very fruitful plain near the river Eure. It is a very ancient city. The inhabitants trade in cloth, ferges, and other woollen stuffs; they also make here linen cloth, and sell a great deal of corn.

BEAUMONT LE ROGER, is a borough where they make woollen stuffs and linen cloth. This town is separated only by a stone bridge over the Rille, from a large borough called Vielle, in which they bleach a vast quantity of linen.

VERNEUIL on the river Aure, trades chiefly in drapery wares, buttons, and corn.

VERNON, on the Seine, is a place of trade, which consists chiefly in corn, wine, linen cloths, and woollen blankets.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE is an inland county, situate in the centre of the kingdom of England, and bounded on the south by Buckinghamshire, on the west by Warwickshire and Oxfordshire, on the north by Leicester, Rutland, and Lincolnshire, and on the east by the counties of Bedford, Huntingdon, and Cambridge; and is in circumference about 120 miles.

The air is exceeding pleasant and wholesome, and the soil very fruitful, both in tillage and pasturage, and abounds with sheep and other cattle, wool, pigeons, and salt-petre. Its manufactures are ferges, tammies, shalloons, boots, and shoes.

PETERBOROUGH, reckoned the least city in the kingdom, stands on the river Nen, which is navigable to it by barges, in which they import coals, corn, &c. and export to the amount of 6000 quarters of malt in some years, besides many other goods; but especially of the woollen manufacture, either of cloth or stockings, in which the poor are constantly employed.

NORTHAMPTON, the county-town, stands at the conflux of the Nen, and another rivulet. The horse-market here is thought to exceed any other of the kind in England, being reckoned the center of all in the kingdom, both for saddle and harness. Its most famous manufacture is shoes, of which great quantities are sent beyond sea; and next to that stockings. It is the dearest town in England for fuel, where, 'till the river Nen be made navigable, which is now undertaken to Peterborough, no coals can come by water, and little wood grows on the land.

WELLINGBOROUGH, on the same river, is a large populous trading town; the greatest trade it carries on is in corn, for which its market is risen on the decay of that of Higham-Ferrers. Nevertheless, here is also a manufacture of lace, so considerable, that it is said to return 50l. a week into the town, one with another, and therefore may be reckoned the second town in the county.

TOWCESTER is a handsome populous town. The inhabitants here, of all ages, are employed in lace, and a manufacture of silk.

KETTERING is also a handsome town of good trade, pleasantly situate by the river that runs into the Nen. Near 2000 hands are said to be employed here in the manufacture of ferges, shalloons, and tammies, especially shalloons.

NORTH CAROLINA. Under the article **BRITISH AMERICA**, we have given a succinct account of the commerce of the colonies in America belonging to these kingdoms; and have, among the rest, taken notice of North Carolina; but it seems, from the information I have since received from some honourable persons, well acquainted with that province, that the account I have given thereof, is imperfect, and therefore I have here taken the first natural opportunity that has offered, to supply that deficiency from the authentic materials which I have had the honour to receive for that purpose through the hands of the **ATTORNEY GENERAL** of that province.

This province, says my intelligence, is divided into 21 counties, all of them being large and extensive; and they are settling very fast by the outellers of the other colonies, whose vicinity to the Indians in the French interest, rendered their situation very precarious and dangerous. By an accurate computation made in the year 1751, the white inhabitants then amounted to 35,000 at least; but the negroes did not exceed 5000.

There are six principal thriving towns in it, which are rightly named and placed in our map of North America. See the **MAP** at the end of the first volume. In the northern and southern parts of the province, the soil is different, the former being a rich mould, and the latter mostly sandy; which makes their produce different likewise. The commerce of the southern district consists chiefly in pitch, tar, turpentine, and lumber; and lately they have attempted to make indigo, and raise rice with good success.

Their only port is Cape Fear, which is a very safe and short navigation; and will easily admit vessels of 500 tons. Upon this river are the two towns of Brunswick and Wilmington situated; the first containing about 50, and the other about 100 houses. In both these are very good wharfs, and safe lying for shipping.

Nearly in the center of the province is Newbern, the metropolis, situated on Neuse river; which, being lately made the seat of government, is a very prosperous place, and consists of 200 houses at least; their commodities are the same as at Cape Fear; but their navigation is not near so good: to remedy which, there is a proposal now in agitation for cutting a canal, between 2 and 3 miles, in order to make a water communication with Port Beaufort, which will not only admit vessels of very large burthen, but is situated so near to the ocean, that, in an hour's time, vessels of any burthen may be cleared out to sea.

The commerce of the northern district consists chiefly of tobacco, beef, and pork, which they salt and send to the West-Indies; also Indian corn, very good English grain, some lumber, and naval stores; and here likewise are raised hemp and flax, which will soon become a considerable article of their trade.

Their port, though at a good distance, is an excellent one, called Ocacock; but between this and them there is shallow water, where there are always lying convenient vessels for lightening such ships as draw too great a depth of water. This port serves for the three towns of Newbern, Bath Town, and Edenton. Bath is situated on Pantico river, and the nearest to the ocean of the three; has an agreeable aspect from the river, and has some good houses in it. But the most beautiful situation of all, is that of Edenton, or Albemarle Sound. In this town the general assembly of the province, and courts of justice were formerly held; and at this time it is the great rendezvous of the Virginia merchants, who find their account in carrying on a very large trade with the northern parts of this province.

The trade of this district to England, is chiefly in the hands of some Liverpool merchants, who supply them with negroes and European goods, in exchange for their commodities. The timber is so plentiful and good, and there are so many

convenient streams, that the building of vessels must turn to good account, and doubtless will be attempted by and by. Some samples of excellent silk have been sent home from this place; but for this, as well as other profitable articles, there is wanting a public purse, or fund, to enable particular persons to support the expence and hazards of their first essays; without which, it will be the work of after-ages to make it a particular branch of their trade.

The government of this province is constituted after the true model of that of England, and consists of his majesty's governor, the council, and the representatives of the several counties and towns. The chief justice, attorney-general, secretary, and other officers are appointed from home, and have their respective salaries out of his majesty's royal revenue of quit-rents.

By the following list, we shall perceive how considerable a place of trade this is at present; and, from the particular kinds of produce, may be judged what it must soon be. As few years ago, it was almost scandalous to be known to be of this country. It was the jest and scorn of the other colonies, but is now a growing rival, and become an object of their envy and jealousy.

An account of the number of ships and vessels entering inwards, and clearing outwards in the several ports of North Carolina, for the years 1750 and 1751.

	1750.	1750.	1751.	1751.
	Inward.	Outw.	Inward.	Outw.
Brunswick,	82	88	97	98
Beaufort, includ- } ing Newbern, }	65	67	76	76
Bath,	33	19	30	35
Roanoke, or E- } denton, }	74	79	58	77
Currituck,	2	2	2	2
	256	255	263	288

A true list.

Ben. WHEATLEY, Naval-Officer.

REMARKS before the last WAR.

The attentive reader will observe, that, throughout the course of this work, after the representation of the state of trade, we have shewed the danger our colonies on the continent of America are in, from the near neighbourhood of the French, and from their encroachments upon the British rights there, and the American Indians in alliance with them: we have likewise shewed the insecure and precarious state of our island colonies, provided the pretensions of the French upon St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Tobago, should be complied with by the crown of Great-Britain. What we have urged upon these important and interesting points, may be found under the following articles, viz. **BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA or NEW FRANCE, COLONIES, FRENCH AMERICA, LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, PLANTATIONS**. And still further to evince the real political system, that the court of France has steadily pursued, from the time of Monf. Colbert to the present day, see the articles **FRANCE, FLANDERS, NAVAL AFFAIRS**, and also the article **MAP**. And whether the present system of the court of Spain, towards that of Great-Britain in particular, does not perfectly coincide with that of France in these respects, whereof we have treated under the several preceding heads, may be judged by consulting the following articles, **BISCAY, CASTILLE, CATALONIA, FLORIDA, LOGWOOD, MEXICO, MEDITERRANEAN, SPAIN, SOUTH SEA COMPANY, WEST-INDIES**. And if it shall be found, upon due attention given to our plain and faithful representations, that these two courts seem, at least, to act in concert, in order to **DISTRESS AND RUIN, IF IT BE IN THEIR POWER, THE WHOLE BRITISH COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION IN AMERICA**, it is certainly needful that we should be upon our guard, and take the alarm. Some mistaken people may, perhaps, suspect me of a design to plead for a war, under pretence of asserting the **BRITISH RIGHTS**. But I most solemnly protest a thought of that nature is so contrary to my intentions, and so foreign to my inclinations, that I heartily and sincerely wish, if consistent with our honour, interest, and safety, we may ever avoid one. Nor can any one, who has done me the honour (as numbers of the greatest personages in this, and other kingdoms have done) to peruse, with candour and impartiality, what I have humbly submitted to the public consideration, have the least reason to entertain any such suspicion of my intentions: on the contrary, we might shew, not only from a variety of palpable instances, but from the general tenor of the work, that nothing more remote ever entered into our thoughts. We have endeavoured to shew the folly and infatuation of going to war, 'till every other measure in our power is tried to avoid one. We have shewed that we have never yet got any thing by wars, but a **LOAD OF DEBTS AND TAXES**; for the ho-

nourable redemption of which we have ever pleaded; but this cannot be done in a time of war.—It is true we have displayed the policy of France, in relation to their acquisitions, and the foundation laid for the increase of their commerce and maritime power, in a light wherein they never before appeared in this nation. Can any one uncandidly judge this to be done with a view to quarrel with that kingdom? We have laid open their commercial policy, with intent to point out what therein may deserve our imitation; as well as to put the nation upon its GUARD AGAINST THE CONSEQUENCES, which must inevitably attend such wise and profound measures as that kingdom has taken for the prosperity of their trade, and the rise of such a NAVAL POWER, as may one day make this nation tremble.

In this light the policy of the French appears to me, from entering very minutely, as occasion offered, into their conduct, in regard to these capital points: and, indeed, to talk about that, or any other state in general, as we have hitherto always been wont to do, is to deceive ourselves; and, therefore, the more particular and distinct our knowledge is of the COMMERCIAL POLICY OF OTHER NATIONS, the less shall we be ever liable to be misled and imposed on in our public conduct towards them. But nothing of this kind, perhaps, could have been so effectually done, as in a work of this nature, and that conducted upon the plan whereupon I have endeavoured to execute it; because one part of the work explains, illustrates, and confirms the truth of the other, though considered in various and different lights; than which, nothing of this kind can admit of a greater degree of probability, if not of certainty.

That we have no intention to embroil the nation, either with France or Spain, &c. the reader is desired to turn to our articles DUTCH WEST-INDIA COMPANY, LOGWOOD, and MEXICO, and he will meet with an expedient, under the article LOGWOOD, humbly submitted to consideration, to reconcile those misunderstandings amicably, that we have so many years had with the court of Spain; and time will shew, whether our suspicions are ill-grounded. In relation also to France, we have only spoken plain truths, with great decency and moderation, and as often with great honour to the wisdom of that kingdom, as with contempt of their insincere conduct towards Great-Britain and other nations on certain occasions. See our article PLANTATIONS, relative to the perfidy of France, for above this century past.

We have judged necessary to mention these things here, lest what we are about further to urge against the conduct of the French in North America, should be misconstrued. For what we have foreseen for some years since, in regard to the insecurity of our colonies on the continent of America, seems to draw towards the fulfilment; which appears from the following authentic speech of the honourable Robert Dinwiddie, Esq; his majesty's lieutenant-governor, and commander in chief of the colony of Virginia, to the general assembly of the said colony, on the 14th of February, 1754. And, as North Carolina is a near neighbourhood to Virginia, and this is a very recent occurrence, and confirms our suspicions, with respect to the candour and uprightness of French measures, we judge it useful to introduce the same under this head; and we shall give the speech at large, as it has been transmitted to England from Virginia.

Gentlemen of the council, Mr. Speaker, and gentlemen of the house of burgeses.

‘ Nothing less than a very important concern, could have induced me to call you together again, after so short a recess; but the dignity of the crown of Great-Britain, the welfare of all the colonies on this continent, and more especially of this dominion, engage me to have your advice and assistance, in an affair of the greatest consequence.

Major Washington, who was sent by me to the commandant of the French forces on the river Ohio, being returned, informs me he found that officer at a fort they had erected on a creek running into the Ohio, and that they were then preparing all necessaries for building another fort on that river; that they had two hundred and twenty canoes made, and many more rough hewed to be made, in order to transport, early this spring, a great number of regular forces, not less than fifteen hundred men, with their Indians in friendship with them, down the river Ohio, in order to build many more fortresses on it; and that they proposed Logg's town to be the chief place of their rendezvous.

Major Washington further reports, that he asked why they had seized the goods of the traders, and sent their persons prisoners to Canada; to which the commandant answered, “ that his orders from their general, the governor of Canada, were, not to permit any English subjects to trade on the waters of the Ohio, but to seize their goods and send them prisoners to Quebec.” He also asked the reason of taking Mr. Frazier's house from him, which he had built and lived in upwards of twelve years? He said, “ that man was lucky that he had made his escape, or he would have sent him prisoner to Canada.”

These transactions are entirely inconsistent with the treaties, subsisting between the two crowns, and contrary to my in-

structions from his majesty, whereby I am directed to prevent any foreign power, settling or building any fortresses on his majesty's lands.

Add to the afore-mentioned unjustifiable insults of the French, the cruel and barbarous murder, in cool blood, of a whole family in this dominion, man, wife, and five children, no longer ago than last month; and very lately a poor man on the south branch of Patowmack, robbed of his son. These depredations were said to be done by the French Indians; but if I be rightly informed, some of the French subjects always go with the Indians on these incursions, and are both privy to, and instigators of, their robberies and murders.

How compassionate must then be the distressful situation of that poor unhappy family; surrounded by a crowd of miscreants, dreadfully running on to perpetrate the most savage barbarities, inexorable to the parent's intreaties, insensible to the cries of the tender infant, basely determined to destroy, without provocation, those who could not resist their violence. Think you see the infant torn from the unavailing struggles of the distracted mother, the daughters ravished before the eyes of their wretched parents; and then, with cruelty and insult, butchered and scalped. Suppose the horrid scene compleated, and the whole family, man, wife, and children (as they were) murdered and scalped by these relentless savages, and then torn in pieces, and in part devoured by wild beasts, for whom they were left a prey by their more brutal enemies.

But how must your indignation rise when you extend your view to the abettors of these villainies! Such are the people whose neighbourhood you must now prevent, or with the most probable expectation think to see, in the bosom of your country, these evils, that you as yet have only the melancholy tidings of from your frontiers.

Consider the bloody villains, thievishly lurking about a man's plantation, and where they dare not attack like men, basely, like vermin, stealing and carrying away the helpless infant, that happened to wander, though but a little distance from his father's threshold.

I assure you, gentlemen, these insults on our sovereign's protection, and barbarities on our fellow-subjects, make deep impressions upon my heart; and I doubt not, as you must hear them with horror and resentment, but you will enable me, by a full and sufficient supply, to exert the most vigorous efforts to secure the rights and assert the honour and dignity of our sovereign; to drive away these cruel and treacherous invaders of your properties, and destroyers of your families, and thereby to gratify my warmest wishes in establishing the security and prosperity of Virginia, on the most solid and permanent foundation.

I must earnestly recommend to you his majesty's commands, for a proper supply, the immediate necessity whereof, at this time, I desire you will seriously consider, and by a ready and effectual compliance, recommend yourselves and the country to his royal favour.

This is your part, gentlemen.—What I could, before your meeting, I have done, for the public; and by the advice of the council I have arrayed some part of the militia, which I have ordered up to the Ohio with all possible expedition, to build a fort there, at the forks of Monongahela. And as his majesty's gracious present of thirty pieces of cannon, eighty barrels of powder, and other ordnance stores suitable are arrived, I have sent ten of the cannon, and a proportion of ammunition to Alexandria, to be from thence transported as soon as possible to the Ohio.

I have wrote to the neighbouring colonies for their aid and assistance, which I have good reason to expect; but I must observe to you, that their eyes are fixed on your proceedings, and I hope you will engage them, by a laudable example, to contribute sufficiently for the common cause.

The late occasion having suggested to me some defect in the “ act for making provision against invasions and insurrections,” I think proper to observe to you, that the pay is very unequally proportioned, being too high for the soldier, and too low for the officer; and there is no provision made for a doctor, a commissary of stores, and several other requisites.—I think it would be better to pay the militia in money than tobacco, by which there may be a saving to the country, and the men better satisfied.

Gentlemen of the council, and gentlemen of the house of burgeses.

I look upon the safety and welfare of Virginia to depend on your counsels and determinations, at this critical juncture, which, therefore, ought to be uninterrupted by any avocations from prejudice, or unseasonable divisions, at all times the bane of public consultations, but which, at present, would be particularly fatal; and I doubt not, when you seriously consider the importance of what is laid before you, you will find duty, honour, and your own preservations, all united, to engage you to exert your efforts equal to the occasion.

The season for entering upon action being so near at hand, your session can be but short; and I desire to conclude with an earnest exhortation to concord and expedition, lest if we be divided, or slow in deliberation, our enemies may seize the time we lose, and render any future efforts ineffectual.

N O R

And in all measures for his majesty's service, and the good of this colony, you will have my ready and zealous concurrence.'

February 16, 1754.

To the honourable Robert Dinwiddie, Esq; his majesty's lieutenant-governor, and commander in chief of the colony of Virginia.

The humble address of the council.

SIR,

'We his majesty's faithful and loyal subjects, the council of Virginia, now met in general assembly, beg leave to return your honour our hearty thanks, for your kind speech at the opening of this session.

We cannot forbear to express our just indignation at the unwarrantable encroachments, and hostile proceedings, of the French; and, at the same time, to testify our approbation of the prudent steps already taken by your honour, for the defence and security of the colony.

Our ardent zeal for the support of his majesty's crown and dignity, and our tender regard for the welfare and prosperity of our country, will incline us, by a cheerful concurrence with the house of burgesses, to exert our most vigorous efforts to support and effectuate your honour's proceedings, in what we agree to be the common cause of all the British colonies upon the continent, and more especially of this dominion: and we assure your honour, that in all our consultations, we will proceed with that harmony and dispatch that the importance of the subject, and advanced season require.

We cannot conclude without our earnest prayers, that your honour's constant labours may be crowned with their deserved success; and our warmest wishes, that our country may long continue to flourish under your honour's administration; from whence we may with reason hope to see her security and prosperity established, on the most solid and permanent foundation.'

To which his honour was pleased to return the following answer:

Gentlemen of the council,

'I return you my sincere thanks for your kind address, and do assure you it gives me great pleasure, that the steps I have taken in the present situation of our affairs meet with your approbation.

Your ardent zeal for his majesty's crown and dignity, and your regard for the prosperity and welfare of our country, with your intentions of concurring with the house of burgesses, to exert the most vigorous efforts for supporting me in my proceedings against the enemy, call for my most unfeigned thanks.

And I have not the least doubt of your proceeding with harmony, dispatch, and resolution, on the present emergency.—I am much obliged for your prayers for success to my endeavours, which I assure you shall always be with a view for the welfare and prosperity of this dominion; and I hope, by our conduct, that our enemies will see we are not disunited, but closely connected in defence of our rights and liberties.'

Virginia, ff.

By the Hon. Robert Dinwiddie, Esq; his majesty's lieutenant-governor, and commander in chief of this dominion.

A proclamation for encouraging men to enlist in his majesty's service, for the defence and security of this colony.

Whereas it is determined that a fort be immediately built on the river Ohio, at the fork of Monongahela, to oppose any further encroachments or hostile attempts of the French, and the Indians in their interest, and for the security and protection of his majesty's subjects in this colony: and, as it is absolutely necessary that a sufficient force should be raised to erect and support the same, for an encouragement to all who shall voluntarily enter into the said service, I do hereby notify and promise, by and with the advice and consent of his majesty's council of this colony, that over and above their pay, two hundred thousand acres of his majesty the king of Great-Britain's lands, on the east side of the river Ohio, within this dominion (one hundred thousand acres whereof to be contiguous to the said fort, and the other hundred thousand acres to be on or near the river Ohio) shall be laid off and granted to such persons, who by their voluntary engagement, and good behaviour in the said service, shall deserve the same. And I further promise, that the said lands shall be divided amongst them, immediately after the performance of the said service, in a proportion due to their respective merit, as shall be represented to me by the officers, and held and enjoyed by them, without paying any rights, and also free from the payment of quit rents, for the term of fifteen years. And I do appoint this proclamation to be read and published at the court houses, churches, and chapels, in each county within this colony, and that the sheriffs take care the same be done accordingly.

N O R

Given at the council chamber in Williamsburg, on the 19th day of February, in the 27th year of his majesty's reign, anno dom. 1754.

ROBERT DINWIDDIE.

GOD save the KING.

That we may judge of the intended measures of the French in relation to our North American colonies, it is confidently said, that by letters lately received from Virginia, brought over by the ship Seahorse, Capt. Jump, we are informed, that the French have erected FIVE FORTS, and garrisoned them with 1500 regular troops, on the part of the British territory at the back of Virginia, which is nearest to Quebec, contrary to treaties. It is imagined that this breach of faith will be attended with very serious consequences.

REMARKS ON NORTH CAROLINA since the last WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

This work was first began soon after the treaty of AIX LA CHAPPELLE; and having pretty vigilantly attended to the conduct of the court of France from that time, towards GREAT-BRITAIN, we thought it our duty to give a faithful representation thereof, from time to time, as we proceeded herein, to the end, that where our COMMERCIAL INTEREST was likely to be concerned, the nation might be duly apprized and alarmed, when that interest was in imminent danger. Our conduct in this respect, was regarded by many, and commended as becomingly zealous; others put a less favourable construction upon it, and declared our apprehensions of a fresh war with France, so soon as we did, after the peace in 1748, were chimerical and visionary, and that our labours were rather of the incendiary kind than otherwise: all which have proved mistakes on our censurers sides; yet we have not a little suffered in our private affairs by our honest declaration of bold truths, all which the event has proved to be true, so far as they related to the injurious intentions of France towards our North American colonies.

I had also, so far as the same regarded our commercial speculations for the benefit and advantage of these kingdoms, attended to the conduct of the court of Spain, and from thence likewise prejudged, that court would join France sooner or later, after the commencement of the French war; which was condemned by some as a premature suggestion, though verified by the event: nay, so minutely had we observed the conduct of the Spanish court, that we apprehended they would revive the claim of the Guipuscoans to a share in the Newfoundland fisheries, which came to pass accordingly, and by the xviiiith article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, his Catholic majesty desists, as well for himself as his successors, from all pretensions which he may have formed, in favour of the Guipuscoans, and other his subjects, to the right of fishing in the neighbourhood of the ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

These things are not intimated, to induce our readers to entertain any extraordinary opinion of our foresight: they are noticed only to excuse ourselves in the eye of those, who judged once unfavourably of our occasional observations; and who, on that very account, have done us unspeakable personal injury, for which they can never make us a compensation were they disposed so to do: but this we never expect. We still live, and perhaps, we may presage some other things, that may not be less disagreeable to those who regard their own interest, and their own ambition in preference to that of the public good and prosperity: and if events should hereafter happen to turn out as we apprehend they will, we can only attribute it to our honest impartiality in representing things as they appear to us, from the evidence of FACTS and EXPERIENCE. See our article MEXICO, FLORIDA, INDIAN AFFAIRS, and others to which from thence we refer.

NORTHUMBERLAND in England, is a maritime county bounded on the south by the bishoprick of Durham, on the north by Scotland, on the west by Cumberland, and part of Scotland, and on the east side it is washed by the German Ocean, and is about 150 miles in circumference. The air is in general pleasant and healthy; as for the soil it is various, being very fruitful on the sea-coast if well manured and cultivated. The west parts are indeed mountainous, but afford good pasture for sheep.

It abounds more with coal, especially about Newcastle, than any other county in England. It is almost impossible to express the vast trade brought into this county by the exportation of coals to all parts, inasmuch that London alone, before there was half the number of brewers and distillers that there is now, was said to consume 600,000 chaldrons in a year.

Its chief rivers are the Tyne and Tweed, which last so abounds with salmon, that the fishermen often take great numbers of them at one draught.

NEWCASTLE, the county town, stands on the north bank of the river Tyne.

By the sale of its coal to other parts of England, and other merchandize, it is become the great emporium of the north parts

parts of England, and a good part of Scotland, and is the fairest and largest town of the north next to York. Ships of any reasonable burthen load and unload at it's key. But the coal-ships generally load below, between the town and Shields, or at Shields, which is seven miles distant, the coals being carried to them in large lighters called keels, of which so many are employed, that the keelmen are reckoned above 6000. The town is extremely populous and very wealthy, and is said to have the greatest public revenue in it's own right, as a corporation, of any town in England, it being computed at no less than 8000 l. a year.

This place is famous for grind-stones, much better than those that used to come from Spain, which are of too soft a grit, and therefore not so useful for many purposes. There is such a demand for them, that scarce a ship stirs from this port without them. Besides many glass-houses, a considerable manufacture has been lately set up here, of hard ware and wrought iron, after the manner of that at Sheffield.

MORPETH, on the river Wentsbeck, has a good market on Saturday for corn, cattle, and all necessary provisions; but that on Wednesdays is the greatest in England for live cattle, except Smithfield.

BERWICK, at the mouth of the Tweed, is the last town in the north of England, a county and town of itself, and though situate on the north side of the river, is included in Northumberland. It is a large well built populous town. Here is a noble salmon-fishery as fine as any in Britain, they being the fish that are carried by land on horses to Shields, to be cured, pickled, and sent to London, where they are cried for Newcastle salmon. Here is also a considerable manufacture of fine stockings. The harbour is but mean, neither is there any good riding in the offing near the bar, for the shore is steep and rocky.

NORTH SHIELDS, is a populous town at the mouth of the Tyne, chiefly inhabited by sailors and masters of ships, as such port-towns generally are. The river here forms a little bay, which is a deep safe road for the colliers, of which 400 sail are sometimes lying here laden.

NORWAY, is bounded on the south by the entrance into the Baltic, called Schager-Rack, or Categate, on the west and north by the Northern Ocean, and on the east it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; but they are commonly by historians stiled the Dofrine Mountains.

This country lies between the 5th and 31st degrees of longitude east of London, and between the 57th and 71 30 of north latitude, so that it extends about 5 degrees and a half beyond the polar circle: and the longest day in the most northern parts, is above two months. It's length, all along the coast, from Wardhus in the north-east, to the Naze in the mouth of the Baltic, is about 1080 miles; but it's breadth is unequal, being about 180 miles in some places, and not near so much in others. It's situation, chiefly in the most northern part of the temperate zone, and partly in the frigid zone, renders the air extremely cold, and the soil barren. It produces little or no corn, which is imported thither from other countries to Berghen, the only town which has the privilege to distribute it into the rest of the kingdom.

The most southern parts, indeed, produce some wheat; but the rest of the country is sandy and gravelly, and has nothing but rocks, woods, and mountains; so that it's wealth consists chiefly in the vast forests and mighty fir-trees, whose usefulness in building, makes the merchants of England, Holland, and other nations, flock thither to purchase them. The earth has mines of iron, copper, and some silver, which, with pitch, tar, and fish, whereof great quantities are taken on the coast, are the commodities of this country. In the vallies they have a good breed of black cattle, and of small horses, very swift, and capable of fatigue.

Norway is divided into four governments, or prefectorships, which are those of Aggerus, Berghen, Drontheim, and Wardhus; besides that of Bahus, which is subject to Sweden, and the several islands depending on Norway.

The province of AGGERUS is the south east part of Norway, and is situated between the province of Berghen on the west, from which it is separated by vast mountains, Dalcarnia and Bahus which belong to Sweden on the east, the mouth of the Baltic, called the Categate on the south, and the province of Drontheim on the north. It's extent from south to north is about 300 miles, and from east to west in the south part about 120; but it grows narrower northward, 'till it ends in a point. The land is mountainous and woody, but the vallies are tolerably fruitful, being watered by many lakes and rivulets, which pass through the country, and fall into the Baltic: it is divided into six particular governments, viz. Agdesincen, Hallingdal, Hammer, Hannemark, Rommeritkir, and Tellemack. There are several sea-ports, particularly Fieckesen, where the fishing-trade affords a pretty considerable income.

CHRISTIANA, the chief city of this province, seated at the bottom of a narrow bay, and is 30 miles distant from the Baltic, and about 110 from Schagen cape in Jutland, to the north. This is a place of good trade for fir-timber, pitch, &c. Great quantity of mackarel is caught here, and much

pearl; of which Henricus Arnoldi, a Dane, gives the following account. Their shells are like those of muscles, but larger, and the fish like an oyster, which produces a great cluster of eggs, like those of cray-fish, some white and some black. These eggs when ripe are cast out, and grow like the shell, from whence they came: but sometimes it happens, that one or two of those eggs stick fast to the side of the matrix, and are voided with the rest; which being fed by the fish, in time they grow into pearls of different sizes, and imprint a mark, both in the fish and in the shell, of the same figure with themselves.

FREDERICKSHALL stands on the Categate, at the mouth of the river Glammen, which Mr. Voltaire calls Tistendall, which rises in the Dofrine mountains, in the province of Drontheim, and having passed through that of Aggerus, falls here into the sea, and by the conveniency thereof affords this city a pretty good trade. It is about 50 miles distant from the town of Aggerus towards the south-east, and is very well fortified and of such importance, that it is reckoned the key of this kingdom.

SALTZBERG is a small town on the river Drammon, which falls into the bay of Christiana, from which city it is about 15 miles distant to the north. It has a pretty considerable trade from the neighbouring copper and iron mines.

SKREN, or SCHEEN, a few miles from Tonsberg, stands on the Categate; both these towns are places of good trade, by means of the above-mentioned mines. A silver one was discovered in the neighbourhood under the reign of Christian IV. but it appears it is no rich one, since it is not worked at present.

BERGHEN province, takes up the most southerly, and almost the whole westerly part of Norway, and is surrounded by the sea on the south, south-west, west, and north.

The chief towns of trade here are as follow:

1. BERGHEN, an ancient and famous sea-port, stands on a crooked bay called Jellefiord, into which vessels enter by a narrow straight named Carmesundt, which is bordered on each side with high rocks for several miles together. This town is 137 miles distant from Christiana, to the north-west. The bay here is so deep, that vessels of above four hundred tons can enter it, and come to load and unload before the merchants warehouses.

The inhabitants are partly natives of this country, and partly Germans and Danes, whom the conveniency of this town for trade has drawn thither, this being the principal mart and magazine for several merchandizes; divers sorts of fine furs, vast quantities of hides, tallow, fir-timber, &c. being brought hither from the neighbouring provinces, and shipped off to foreign parts. The inhabitants drive also a considerable trade in stock-fish, which are taken on these coasts and in the lakes in January, and dried in the open air.

The privileges granted by the king of Denmark to strangers make them flock to this town, and import thither those necessities of life which the country does not produce; as wheat, rye, biscuits, beer, wine, brandy, &c. which they exchange for the merchandizes above-mentioned. There is at Berghen a factory called the cloister, in which a community of merchants live, who are stiled monks, though they wear no particular habit, and have nothing in common with monks, except that they are not married.

STANANGER, the chief town of the district of the same name, stands in the bay called Buckenfiord, which is very spacious, and full of small islands, and is 180 miles distant from Berghen to the south, and 100 from Christiana to the west. The harbour is very large and safe, and it would have a greater trade than it has, were it not for the neighbourhood of Berghen.

DRONTHEIM is the largest government of Norway, it lies along the coast of the North Sea, being about 500 miles in length, from south to north. It has the North Sea on the west, the government of Wardhus on the north, that of Berghen on the south, and on the east it is separated from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains. It extends from the 61st to the 69th degree of latitude: it's greatest breadth from east to west, is not above 120 miles, and in many places it is much less. The country is mountainous, woody, cold, and barren; so that though it be large, the towns are not very considerable. This whole country is very thinly peopled, and not cultivated but along the sea shore, 'till within 25 or 30 miles from it.

The most considerable towns here are as follow:

DRONTHEIM, formerly the capital of Norway, is seated on the coast of the Northern Ocean, on a little gulph at the mouth of the river Nidar, from whence it was anciently called Nideosia. It is about 220 miles distant from Berghen to the north-east. It has a harbour pretty well frequented by small vessels, though very incommodious for large ones, the entrance being obstructed by rocks. This town has a pretty considerable trade, consisting in small masts and fir deals. They also ship off here a large quantity of copper, the mines of which are eighteen or twenty miles distant from this town, near the village of Steckby. At the distance of six miles from those mines, there is a silver one belonging to the king. The other merchandizes exported from thence are, iron, tar, furs,

N O R

furs, ashes, goat-skins, &c. and they import in exchange, spices, wine, brandy, vinegar, cheese, tobacco, coarse cloths, and a great many old rixdollars. The country round about is very barren; and even wood is so scarce, that a little beyond the town, the people are obliged to use fish-bones for fuel, and for several utensils.

LEERSTRAND is about 10 miles distant from Drontheim to the south.

STRONDEN lies on the river Nider, 40 miles above Drontheim towards the south-east.

SCOERDALE is about 20 miles distant from Drontheim to the north-west, on the other side of the same bay.

OPDAL lies at the bottom of a narrow bay, 40 miles from the ocean, and about 65 from Drontheim to the south.

ROMSDAEL, or ROMSDALEN, stands on the bottom of another bay, 40 miles from Opdal to the west, and 70 from Drontheim to the south-west.

SOLENDÆL stands on another bay, about 30 miles from Romfdael to the south-west.

These are all places of some trade.

Between the islands of Sallere and Vero, is the famous gulph or whirlpool called MAELSTROM, in lat. about 68 degrees, said to be 40,000 geometrical paces in circumference. Seamen call it the Navel of the sea, Umbilicus maris. Several authors give the following description of it: it is, say they, fatal to ships that come too nigh in the time of flood, when the sea, for two leagues round, forms such a terrible vortex, that it swallows up every thing that comes near it; and during the six hours of ebb, it throws out the water with such violence, that the heaviest bodies cannot sink if thrown into it, but are cast back again by the impetuous streams. Vessels swallowed up by this whirlpool are cast up again shattered to-pieces, being dashed against the rocks within it. Between the ebb and the flood there is an interval, during which ships can safely sail over it, the water being then still, but, during the ebb and flood the water makes, they say, a prodigious noise. Francis Neri, an Italian, who travelled into Norway, observes, that there is no whirlpool here, but only a rapid current, which makes a great noise during the six hours of flood, which noise is occasioned by the water's dashing against several small islands, or rocks, which repel the streams now to the south and then to the north, so that they seem to whirl about. During the ebb the water is so still, that small boats can cross from one island to another without any danger. This account is more rational, and more agreeable to truth, than the poetical relations given us by several travellers, and particularly by the German author of the *Curiosus Antiquarius*, who give us a most frightful description of this pretended whirlpool.

WARDHUS is bounded on the north and west by the ocean, on the east by Muscovite Lapland, and on the south-west by the government of Drontheim. Its extent from east to west is about 310 miles, and 200 from south to north, that is to say, to the north cape, including the islands. It is divided into two parts: the western and maritime is called Finmark, and the east and southern Norwegian, or Danish Lapland. It being the most northern part of Norway, we cannot expect here much produce of the earth, or plenty of people, and consequently no cities or considerable towns that make any figure in history.

WARDHUS, situated in an island called Ward, from whence this province has its name. It is the seat of the governor, and is, properly, nothing but a castle, with a street or small town of cottages, inhabited by fishermen. The island lies on the north-east point of Norway, near the borders of Muscovite Lapland, and is small, being but 14 or 15 miles in circumference. It is about 3 or 4 miles distant from the continent. The castle is so old that it falls to ruin, and has no manner of fortifications, though it was built to protect the fishermen's huts, of which there are great numbers along the coast. The inhabitants of this and the neighbouring islands, live upon dried stock-fish, and have neither bread nor beer but what is brought them from other parts by the English and Dutch ships, that come this way for fish.

BAHUS, though yielded to the Swedes in 1658, by the treaty of Roschild, is yet reckoned a part of Norway, for which reason we think it proper to give an account of it in this place. It is the most southern province of Norway, and is a narrow track of land, lying on the coast of the Schager-Rack, or Categate, about 90 miles in length from south to north. It has West-Gothland on the south, Dalia on the east, the government of Aggerus on the north, and the Categate on the west. Its breadth is not proportionable to its length, being in some parts but ten miles broad, and in none above 25. The country is fruitful enough, but a great part of it is taken up by large lakes. It is divided into two parts, Island and Wickfiden.

The chief places are,

MAELSTRAND, or MARSTRAND, the capital of Wickfiden, is a strong town built on a rock, is a kind of peninsula, about 10 miles below Bahus; it is a place of great trade for herrings, and other sea fish.

There are a great number of islands besides those we have already mentioned, along the coast of Norway, but they are

N O R

not considerable enough to deserve a particular account. See DENMARK.

Trade between ENGLAND, NORWAY, and DENMARK.

Norway and Denmark take from England guineas, crown pieces, and bullion, a little tobacco, and a few coarse woollens of small value.

England imports from Norway, &c. vast quantities of deal-boards, timber, spars, and iron. We pay them a very great balance, and their rebuilding great ships of burthen, destroyed in the war between them and Sweden, has again pretty well re-established them in the navigation and freight of their timber, and greatly increased their balance upon this nation. See NAVAL STORES, and DENMARK.

REMARKS before the last WAR.

Frederic IV. king of Denmark, was always inclined to promote the welfare and trade of his subjects, and took care of every thing that might contribute to their benefit; but, towards the end of his life, it was thought he listened too much to projectors, who induced him to enter upon schemes which were not always attended with the consequences he expected from them. He died, however, at the age of 60, greatly regretted, on the 2d of October, 1730.

His son, the late king Christian VI. ascended the throne of his ancestors with universal reputation. He had, in his father's life-time, been very attentive to the concerns of the East-India company, and had been, in a great measure, the support of it, which induced the people to hope that a particular regard for trade would be the principal view of his reign; and so indeed it proved.

At his accession to the government he made many changes, but all of them in such a manner as to give great satisfaction to his subjects, who were particularly pleased with his abolishing a farm that had been established in his father's time, for vending wine, brandy, salt, and tobacco, which was very burthensome to the subject, however advantageous to the prince. Such as were interested in the farm offered to advance larger sums if it might be continued; but the king answered, It brought in but too much, since his subjects complained of the EXACTIONS which it occasioned.

He soon after erected a COUNCIL OF TRADE, whose business is to examine all proposals that are made for extending it, in order to give such encouragement as may be necessary for carrying them into execution. He likewise sent for workmen out of Holland, and other countries, at his own expence, to establish manufactures in Denmark, and took every other step for their encouragement that his people could either desire or expect. Amongst others, he erected a ROYAL BANK, which has been attended with many advantageous consequences; was always careful to keep his fleet and army in a proper condition to render him respected by his neighbours; and, to prevent the expence occasioned thereby from becoming burthensome to his people, he from time to time also made treaties of subsidy with foreign powers, which brought in large sums, without exposing him to the necessity of taking any share in the quarrels either in the North or Germany.

His son, Frederic V. the present possessor of the throne, succeeded to it July 26, 1746, in the 23d year of his age; he espoused, about three years before, the princess Louisa of Great-Britain, by whom he has an heir apparent, born January 18, 1749. Upon his first taking the reins of government into his hands, he thought fit to make a few alterations, very judicious in themselves, and acceptable to his subjects. He has steadily pursued his father's maxims, in maintaining peace, improving the trade, and encouraging the industry of his subjects. His application to business, joined to a constant and well-regulated œconomy, has enabled him not only to live within the bounds of his revenue, but to make very considerable savings. In this, however, he has conducted himself as a wise and good prince, or rather in such a manner as to become a model to those of his own rank, who generally aspire to so sublime a character; for he has demonstrated that this did not arise from avarice, or a natural nearness of temper, but from a noble and true royal principle of doing whatever might contribute to the public good: for in those provinces of his dominions that have suffered by inevitable calamities, such as the mortality among their cattle, and the inclemency of seasons, he has remitted even his just rights. He has expended very considerable sums for encouraging and promoting NEW MANUFACTURES, and he has discharged a large debt due from the crown.

This, though in itself very extraordinary, considering the sum, and the short time he has reigned, has been attended with a circumstance too singular to be omitted. The creditors of the crown, as soon as they were informed of his majesty's design, endeavoured to prevent it, by humbly representing, that, if he was displeased at the largeness of their interest, they were content to accept of 4, instead of 5 per cent. which had been hitherto paid them; but his Danish majesty answered, That having the money in his coffers, where it could be of no service to the public, he

chose to discharge their obligations; but that he would take it as a favour done to himself if they would lend the money he now paid them, at a low interest, to his subjects, which might enable them to extend their COMMERCE, and improve the NEW MANUFACTURES.

It is incredible to what a degree his own and his father's peaceable and prudent administrations, have contributed to the benefit of the countries belonging to the crown of Denmark, and how much the face of affairs is changed within so short a time. NEW PORTS have been opened, which has been owing to the opening NEW CHANNELS OF TRADE; the shipping of the Danes has been more than doubled, and the revenues of the crown have increased in the same proportion within that small space. The court is splendid without profusion, the king rich without oppression, the ministers attentive to the duties of their respective stations, not only from the example of their master, but from the sense they have that a contrary behaviour would infallibly draw upon them immediate disgrace. Adored at home, and respected abroad, the king is only attentive to preserve and promote the happiness of his subjects, in which he places his own.

The laws of this country have been deservedly in reputation, as lying within a very narrow compass, a moderate quarto containing them all; and the administration of justice is so well looked after, that suits of law in this country are but few, and those very speedily determined. The king makes and repeals laws, as to him appears necessary for the good of his subjects; but the crown has always used this power with much moderation and discretion: so that, as Denmark may be truly said to be the only legal absolute government in Europe, perhaps in the world, the people have had less reason to regret the change made by themselves than could well have been expected; and, if their monarchs copy after the example of their present king, the Danes will feel fewer evils from the want of liberty, than in other nations are produced by the abuse of it.

The kingdom of Norway, which remains united to that of Denmark, is of great consequence; and, under the last and present reign, there have been great improvements made in its trade, and the inhabitants have been used with more indulgence than formerly. The same thing may be said in regard to Iceland, and other islands belonging to the crown of Denmark, which have been of late years put in all respects into a much better condition than they were; so that their commodities come to a better market, their manufactures are in a much better flourishing condition, and the number of their inhabitants, towns, and shipping, is continually increasing; whereby, in the space of another century, if no wars break out, or unforeseen confusions happen, the Danes will become quite another people, and their monarchs make a greater figure than they have for some ages past*.

- * We have in this month of October 1764, an account from Copenhagen, that upwards of 1400 persons were daily employed in the Danish royal woollen manufactory; that they produced last year 66 pieces of good cloth; and in other woollen fabrics there are, in the whole, about 4000 men at work. There are likewise 16 silk fabrics, where 938 persons are at work; of the said 16 the royal is the largest, there being 105 looms, which employ 335 persons.

REMARKS ON NORWAY since the last WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

The balance of trade between England, Norway, and Denmark, being reckoned at least to the disfavour of this nation 300,000 l. per ann. it is to be hoped now, that no measures will be left unpractised to furnish ourselves from North America, with every species of TIMBER that continent will produce, either requisite for HOUSE-BUILDING in England, or for SHIP-BUILDING; and thereby save that balance, we have so long paid to Denmark for Norway timber. Most certainly we may; and the building of large bulky ships for that purpose, will prove an additional valuable nursery for our seamen, and enable us the better to keep and preserve, and make proper advantage of our new acquisitions on the American continent.

It is allowed by those that knew the plantations, that the most proper places in the colonies for supplying the royal British navy, are the provinces of Main, New Hampshire, and the Massachusetts in New-England. Therefore, if those three provinces were entirely appropriated to that use, the other parts of our extended colonies would sufficiently supply not only Great-Britain and Ireland, but even Portugal and Spain, with the same quantities that they now use, or may use, perhaps, to the end of time, provided we admit and encourage young trees to grow, after we have cut down the old; which will take us up centuries to do.

It may be observed, that the little quantity of land that is accessible in that mountainous rocky country of Norway, has supplied not only Great-Britain and Ireland, Spain, Portugal, France, and Flanders, with timber, but even Holland itself with piles for their dykes, sea-walls, and foundations

for houses, which are thought to be more than are growing upon all the accessible ground of Norway. The greatest part of Europe is supplied with pipe, hoghead and barrel staves from Germany, and the Dutch with oak timber for building their ships, and manufacturing into clapboard and wainscot by their saw-mills, with which they not only supply this nation, but several other parts of Europe; and yet the Germans are so far from apprehending any danger of not being supplied with the increasing growth of their oak timber, that they would esteem it a particular happiness to have their people employed in cutting it down, and hauling it to places of navigation. The forest of mount Libanus, which is but a small tract of land, the wooded part of it not so big as Yorkshire, has supplied amazing quantities of timber. Solomon, in his time, employed a great number of hewers of wood for building the temple. The Tyrians, Sidonians, and all that coast, were supplied with timber from thence for their BUILDINGS and SHIPPING; and history tells us, that Alexander the Great was supplied with timber from thence, for carrying on his bank from the main land to the island of Tyre; and all succeeding ages have been constantly cutting down the timber, and yet, it is said, there is as good there as ever.

If those places have furnished Europe and Asia with such vast quantities for so many ages, and the timber cut down constantly supplied with a growth of new, what may not be expected from so large, so immensely large a tract of ground, so well replenished with trees and navigable rivers as our plantations are? These instances are given to obviate the mistakes some gentlemen are under, who think our forests in America can be hurt by cutting down our timber.

Some have made it a doubt, whether it is prudent in us to let Portugal, Spain, or the Straights, have boards and timber from our plantations; alledging, that if they are supplied, they may build merchantmen and ships of war, and may, in time, interrupt our trade and navigation; forgetting, we must suppose, that the Dutch will supply them with as much German oak as they want.

The Spaniards themselves have great quantities of extraordinary oak, and fine large pine-trees fit for masts, especially in Arragon and Catalonia, near the Ebro and Segra; but such is their indolent temper, that if they can purchase what they want with money, they care not to stretch out a hand to help themselves; and it might not be good policy in us, to stir them up to a necessity of becoming industrious.

The value of timber among ourselves has given gentlemen that notion, because it fetches a great price in this island, it must consequently be valuable all over the world. But if they were in America, and there beheld the great labour of the planters to clear the ground of the wood, and the vast number of fine timber trees that are hauled together and burnt, before it can be fit for any use, they would certainly think it abundance of prudence to have it cut up into boards and other uses, and transport to Portugal and Spain what we could not dispense with amongst ourselves in Great-Britain, and the money remitted to England; for there is no merchandize more profitable to the nation than timber, being the most bulky, and consequently employing the greatest number of SHIPS and SAILORS, with a very small part of the NATIONAL STOCK, which is sufficient to give it all imaginable encouragement.

This merchandize is what has bred the king of Denmark so many sailors, and enabled him to fit out a ROYAL NAVY, and his subjects of NORWAY to build so great a number of BULKY SHIPS, by which they have enriched themselves to a much greater degree than the farmers of the fertile country of Poland have done by their corn. If this TIMBER TRADE has been so advantageous to them, why may it not be rendered so likewise to England, by means of her vast colonies now on the American continent? We have for the most part the same markets; we shall thereby have opportunities exceedingly to enlarge and extend our navigation; and the wages of a sailor very much exceed those of a ploughman, labourer, or manufacturer; their food and cloathing are from ourselves; and if they carry a loading of timber from the plantations to Spain, Portugal, or the Straights, &c. and RETURN TO ENGLAND, not only the merchant's profit, but the profit of the owners of the ship, and the sailors wages, would be all brought home, and spent here.

The advantage a TIMBER TRADE would be to us between our plantations and the Straights, &c. would be considerable. We cannot see but a thousand acres of TIMBER GROUND in America, may be made more beneficial to England than a thousand acres of CORN LAND within ourselves. Let us suppose a thousand acres of corn land may produce thirty crops of corn in fifty years; and that every crop may yield in Holland, being our most certain market for corn, 4000 l. for every year of the said thirty years, which is 120,000 l. We will suppose, that twenty acres of WOOD-LAND in America may afford timber enough to load four ships of six hundred tons each, and their cargoes carried to Spain or Portugal, &c. and each sold for 900 l. each. These thirty-six hundred pounds are all produced by the manufacture and labour of our own poor, and national stock in this shipping.

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These 1000 acres, suppose it would take fifty years in cutting, and fifty crops, at three thousand six hundred pounds per crop, is one hundred and eighty thousand pounds.—We have allowed double the quantity of land necessary to produce four ships loading of timber. It is very well known there is such a propensity in the land of America to run into wood, that when it has been tilled so long, that it would bear nothing, yet it has, within the space of thirty years, been loaded with a vast number of trees, many of them above a yard and a half in girth, six feet from the ground. Timber grows there so very quick, as we are informed, that they are at their full growth in a few years. The clearing the lands in America, in places the most advantageous to navigation, would not only be thoroughly beneficial to these kingdoms, &c. and save us the balance which we now pay to Denmark, but would bring us in a very considerable one in our favour: and not only so, it would tend to lay the country open in time, and put the Indians more in our power, there appearing an absolutely necessity to do this to bring them into subjection, if no amicable means will avail to that purpose. This, with our navigation on the river St. Lawrence, the Ohio, the Mississippi, and in the bay of Mexico, will enable us to collect vast quantities of timber, and produce us the like of pitch and tar, and the under-wood make charcoal for our iron furnaces there. All which together must be of no inconsiderable emolument to Great-Britain, and will prove instrumental with the raising other materials for manufactures in England, to give constant employment to all the inhabitants we can people our new and old acquisitions with, and thereby keep and preserve them in a due and reasonable state of dependence and subserviency to their mother kingdom.

NOTARY PUBLIC, is a person, usually a scrivener, who takes notes, or makes a short draught of contracts, obligations, or other writings and instruments. Stat. 27 Ed. III. cap. 1. At present we call him a notary public who publicly attests deeds or writings, to make them authentic in another country, but principally in business relating to merchants: they make protests of foreign bills of exchange, &c. [see **BILLS of EXCHANGE**]; and noting a bill, is the notary's going as a witness, to take notice of a merchant's refusal to accept or pay the same.

R E M A R K S.

The learned civilian Domat observes, That a distinction between a voluntary and a contentious jurisdiction, obliges us to take notice of a particular kind of officers, whose functions are of a very great and very frequent use, and who have a kind of voluntary jurisdiction, without any share of the contentious jurisdiction, which are the public notaries: for the function of notaries imply two characters of a voluntary jurisdiction: the first consists in this, that their presence and their signature serves as a proof of the truth of the acts which are sped in their presence; and that whereas in the writings, which are called private, that is to say, which are signed only by the parties, their signatures being unknown in courts of justice, it is necessary to verify them, if they are called in question; the signatures of notaries, who are public officers, carry along with them the proof of the truth of the acts which they sign; and the second of these characters consists in this, that the acts which contain some obligation of one party towards another, being signed by a notary public, give a right of mortgage on the estate of the person who is bound, which a private bond or obligation, signed only by the party, would not give: and since it is in France the authority of justice that gives the mortgage, it is by virtue of a kind of jurisdiction that notaries have this function, that a mortgage is acquired by the means of their signature; and it is because of this voluntary jurisdiction, that, in some of the provinces of France, it is usual for the notaries to insert in the acts sped in their presence, that those who are parties to them have duly submitted themselves, and are condemned to perform what they promise: by which words they intend to signify this voluntary jurisdiction, to which the contracting parties submit themselves*.

* The function of notaries, in France, implies this kind of jurisdiction, which is signified by the royal seal, of which they are the depositaries for sealing the acts: and this seal is presupposed in the acts which are not sealed.

Il n'est rien de plus beau qu'un Notaire honnête homme,
Mais dans ce corps on a vu de tout tems
Se glisser des fripons parmi d'honnêtes gens.

Bour. Esop. Richelet.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE in England, has Lincolnshire on the east, Leicestershire on the south, Derbyshire on the west, and Yorkshire on the north; and is in compass 110 miles. It enjoys as healthy, mild, and pleasant an air, as any part of England. It is well watered with rivers, the chief of which are the Trent and the Idle. The soil is various, the east side being very fruitful both in corn and pasture; but the west is generally woody, in some places producing nothing but coal, and some lead. The chief commodities are cattle, corn, malt, wool, coal, wood, liquorice, cheese, butter,

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leather, and tallow. The chief manufactures are stockings, glass, and earthen wares; and it is noted for strong ale. **NOTTINGHAM**, which gives name to the shire, and a town and county of itself, is reckoned one of the neatest in England, and has as good a trade as most inland towns. It stands on the river Trent, which has at a great expence been made navigable to it by barges. Glass and earthen wares are made here; but its chief manufacture is weaving frame-stockings: the best malt is made here of any town in these parts.

EAST RETFORD is an ancient borough, in the midst of a large plantation of hops, in which, and in barley, it drives a great trade, though not so considerable as formerly, because Worksop has got much of it away.

NEWARK UPON TRENT is a handsome well-built town, of pretty good trade in corn, cattle, wool, &c.

MANSFIELD is a large populous town, in the forest of Sherwood, which drives a great trade in malt, and has a market well stocked with corn, cattle, and other marketable goods.

WORKSOP is a small town, near the head of the river Ryton, with a market noted for plenty of liquorice and malt.

NOVA ZEMBLA, or **NEW LAND**, which the Dutch call the island of **VEYGATS**, is situated in the North or Frozen Ocean, between 50 and 80 deg. of east long. and near the north pole; separated from the province of Samojeda, in Russia, by a narrow strait called the Straights of Veygats. Whether it be an island, or part of some great continent, is uncertain, no ships having ever passed to the northward of it, though many attempts have been made to find out a north-east passage to China that way. The Dutch, indeed, passed the Straights of Veygats, south of Nova Zembla; and wintered on the east side of it, anno 1596, but did not find it practicable to sail further, for the fields of ice they met with. There are no constant inhabitants here; but the Samojeds and Ostiaks climb over the mountains of ice in the straits, when they are frozen over, and hunt elks and rein-deer here, at proper seasons.

NOVOGOROD, in Russia. This duchy is situate on the east of Pleskow, and the lake of Ladoga on the north; on the east the duchy of Belozeca, and Twere; and the province of Rzeva on the south.

It is called Novogorod Veliki, or Superior, to distinguish it from the Inferior, or Nizi Novogorod. Its extent from east to west, on the southern part, is computed to extend near 250 miles, but grows more and more narrow towards the north. Its chief produce is corn, flax, hemp, wax, honey, and leather; in all which it drove a considerable traffic, when it was governed by its own princes, though, even then, it was very often obstructed by its wars with Muscovy; but, since it is become under its subjection, it is much decayed of its flourishing condition.

The city of **NOVOGOROD VELIKI**, capital of this province, called by the French **NEUGARD**, and by the Dutch **NEW GARTEN**, stands on the Wolohova, and is a large and considerable place, very populous, and well fortified.

NOYONNOIS, a province in France, was formerly a part of Picardy, but under the government of the Isle of France, and is bounded on the north by Vermandois, part of which belongs to the election of Noyon; on the east by Laonois; on the south by Soissonnois; and on the west by the bailiwick of Roie in Picardy. There are here but two cities of any note, viz.

NOYON, situate on the declivity of a hill, of an easy descent, on the rivulet Vorfe, which, at a quarter of a league's distance, falls into the Oise. It is seven leagues distant from Soissons to the north-west, five from Laon to the west, and 16 from Paris to the north. It is a pretty large city, containing about 4500 inhabitants, and is well situated for inland trade, which consists here in wheat and oats, which they send to Paris; they have also manufactories of linen cloths, lawns, and tanned leather.

CHAUNY is situated on the river Oise, near the borders of the Isle of France, three leagues distant from Noyon to the east, and something less from La Fere to the south. It is a royal city, and the seat of a castleward.

NUBIA, the kingdom of, in Africa, is bounded on the north by Upper Egypt; on the east by the Red Sea; on the south by Ethiopia, from which it is separated partly by the Nile, and partly by a long ridge of mountains, and the desert of Gorham; and on the west it is bounded by the kingdom of Goaga.

This country, though under so hot a climate, being wholly within the torrid zone, is yet in many places, especially on each side of the Nile, very fruitful, the inhabitants being much given to agriculture, and producing some fine fruits, plenty of corn, and sugar-canes; but of this last they seem not to know the use rightly, so that it bears little or no value, either among the natives or foreigners.

The chief commodities this country affords, are gold in great quantity, and very fine musk, ivory, sanders, and other medicinal woods.

DONGALA, the metropolis of the kingdom, is said to be very populous, and to contain about 10,000 houses, but most of them meanly built, of wood and mud only. The inhabitants, however, are rich, and drive a considerable commerce with

their own commodities, more especially sanders and musk, for arms, linen cloth, and other wares.

SINNAR, another large city, said to contain 100,000 souls, stands on the western bank of the Nile, about 250 miles south of Dongala. They trade in gold, musk, elephants teeth, and other commodities, for which they receive in exchange spices, silks, cottons, and other merchandizes from India; for they make no use of money in all their commerce, though they have variety of coins among them. See **AFRICA**.

NUTMEG. The nutmeg is an aromatic nut, the kernel of a fruit, of the size of a green walnut.

The nutmeg is of two sorts, the male, or long nutmeg, and the female, or common nutmeg.

The tree that bears the nutmeg is of the bigness of the peach-tree, and the leaves have a very near resemblance to those of the same tree, except that they are shorter and narrower; after which comes the fruit.

This tree, according to Mr. Tavernier, is not planted, but grows by means of certain birds, or fowls, which swallow the nutmegs whole, and throw them out again, without having digested them; and the nutmeg being then covered with a viscous and gluey matter, and being cast upon the ground, takes root, and produces a tree, which it would not have done if set in the manner of others.

The nutmeg is likewise a commodity which none but the Dutch are masters of, because it grows nowhere but in the isles of Nero, Lentour, Poulcay, Rosgain, Poleron, Granaping, and Dame island, in the great island of Banda in Asia.

It is remarkable, that so little a quantity of land should furnish all the world with nutmegs; but it is not hard to be believed, when one considers that these isles are so stocked with nutmeg-trees that it is almost incredible; and besides, they lie in so good a climate, that the trees are always laden with flowers and fruit, and they have three crops a year, viz. in April, August, and December; but that of April is much more valued than those which are got in August or December; and the climate is so temperate, that the men live to a hundred and twenty years of age, and have nothing to do but eat, drink, and sleep, and walk about, while the women employ themselves in separating the outer fruit from the nutmeg, drying the mace, and breaking the shells wherein is the nutmeg, being the chief commodity of the country, and almost all they live by.

The nutmegs we sell are nothing but the kernels of the fruit, which are covered with a hard, thin, and blackish shell; without this shell there is found a covering, which is thin and reddish, of a sweet smell, and aromatic taste, and is what we call mace, but vulgarly, and improperly, the nutmeg-flower. After the mace, there is a green pulpy fruit, that is of no use. From this it is to be observed, that the nutmeg has three wrappings, or coverings, viz. the shell, the mace, and the pulpy fruit, and not barely two, as a late author has observed; and the thing is so evident, that, if any person will give himself the trouble to cut a preserved nutmeg in two, he will find the three parts which I have been speaking of above.

The trees which bear the female, or common nutmegs, grow not but in cultivated, or improved lands; but those which produce the long nutmegs grow in woods and forests, which makes the Dutch call them wild nutmegs; but they are little used, because they are almost without taste or smell, and void of any virtue; and for this reason they are seldom brought hither.

As to the common nutmegs, we ought to chuse such as are heavy, firm, hard, and of a full plumpness, of a light grey, whose inside is finely marbled, and reddish, and such as are of a fat oily body, which are the signs of their newness, and which, being grated, afford a sweet flavour, and, put into the mouth, yield a warm, piquant, aromatic taste. As to the little hole that is met with so very common in nutmegs, it is a vulgar error to believe that that makes them lose their virtue, for there is no nutmeg without it, as may be seen when the thin rind is raised.

The use of the nutmeg is so well known, it would be needless to say any thing of it; we shall only add, that it is valued in medicine, and being beat up with sugar, there is a powder made of it, which is admirable, taken in warm white wine, for curing of catarrhs and rheums, that proceed from cold causes; and this is called the Duke's Powder. The usual quantity is to put two ounces of nutmegs to a pound of sugar, and some add cinnamon.

The inhabitants of the isle of Banda make a confection of the green nutmegs, which is brought to us by the way of Holland, sometimes with syrup, and sometimes without. These are one of the best preserves we have, being very proper to strengthen and invigorate the stomach, and to restore a natural heat to age; but their chief use is to carry to sea, particularly by the inhabitants of the northern parts, where they are much esteemed, the people there being great lovers of these sorts of warm sweet-meats.

As to the oil of nutmegs by expression, that which is brought us frequently from Holland is no better than fresh butter; for which reason the apothecaries ought to make it themselves, rather than buy it at such a cheap rate, when it is good for nothing. The true oil of nutmegs ought to be of a thick consistence, of a golden yellow, a sweet aromatic smell, and a warm poignant taste.

The manner of making this oil is so easy, and hath been so long known to every artist, that it would be superfluous, at this time of day, to pretend to teach it; only this may be observed, that, when it is expressed, it will be liquid and clear; but, when cold, it coagulates, and becomes yellowish, of a solid consistency, and that it will yield a double quantity of oil this way, from the same weight of any other spice, fruit, or seed whatever.

There is likewise another oil, made by distillation, which is a white clear oil, very fragrant, and has double the strength and virtue of the former; and whatever the nutmeg has singly in itself, is hereby highly exalted; so that four or five drops is a dose, in any proper vehicle, wherein it becomes cephalic, neurotic, stomachic, cordial, hepatic, uterine, and alexipharmic; it is good against all cold diseases of the head, nerves, womb, &c. expels wind, and cures griping of the guts.

The mace that grows round the nutmeg has all the same virtues; disperses wind, helps concoction, cures stinking breaths, strengthens the child in the womb, stops fluxes and vomiting: it is of thinner parts than the nutmeg, and, therefore, more piercing. The oils by expression and distillation are made the same way as those of nutmegs. Chuse such as have the largest blades, the highest and freshest colour, and the cleanest you can get.

As to the bark of the trunk, and the branches of the nutmeg-tree, it is so little used, that it is not worth speaking of, and is seldom brought hither, by reason of its great likeness to the white costus, both in figure and taste. Some sell costus for the nutmeg-bark, but of this beware.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE continued.

With regard to NATURALIZATION.

NATURALIZATION by act of parliament—Provision must be expressly made in the bill exhibited for that purpose, that the persons therein mentioned, shall not be thereby enabled to be of the privy-council, or members of either house of parliament, or to take any offices or places of trust, or to have any grants of lands, tenements, or hereditaments from the crown. 1 Geo. I. c. 4. § 2.

Aliens, or persons not born within his majesty's allegiance, or naturalized, or made free denizens, may not be merchants or factors in the plantations, upon forfeiture of all their goods and chattles; $\frac{1}{3}$ to the king, $\frac{1}{3}$ to the governor, and $\frac{1}{3}$ to the informer. 12 Car. II. cap. 15. § 2.

With regard to NAVAL STORES.

NAVAL STORES imported from the British plantations and

Scotland, for the premium and regulations, see NAVAL STORES. NAVAL STORES if afterwards exported, the said premium must be repaid,

—Imported from Russia—A true account thereof to be laid before both houses of parliament every session, by the commissioners of the customs, under their hands. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 6. § 4.

With regard to the NEWFOUNDLAND TRADE.

NEWFOUNDLAND TRADE, free to all his British subjects. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 25. § 1.

—Masters of ships bound thither, to carry at least one fresh man in five; of by-boats, to carry at least two fresh man in six; that is, one that has made no more than one voyage, and one that never has been at sea before; and are to make oath accordingly before the collector of the port, who is to give them a certificate thereof. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 25. § 9, 10.

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OA K. The oak is a tree, known to all the world, as well because of it's durableness, as for the different uses made of it. This tree is the emblem of virtue, strength, firmness, and duration, and was therefore, by the Ancients, dedicated to Jupiter. Some pretend that this tree is a mortal enemy to the olive and the walnut-tree; so that neither of them can live near it.

The first thing, and the most considerable we have from the oak, is the mistletoe, which is an excrescence that is found growing to the said tree: this production appears extraordinary, in that the oaks do not produce the mistletoe in all places: there are few that I know of, in this respect, like those that are met with betwixt Rome and Loretto; especially near a little village named Foligni, about the midway. This excrescence resembles the branch of trees, and is of a solid, heavy substance, of a greenish brown outwardly, and of a yellowish white within.

The branches are hard and compact, and bear several little sprigs which intermingle with each other, and from whence arise a great many longish, thick leaves, that are semicircular, of a pale green; the berries are white, resembling our little white currants; and these berries contain a viscous humour, which the Ancients used to make glue with. The mistletoe continues always green, during the time it remains upon the tree; chuse the largest, heaviest, and best fed; you may know, if it be true, by the deep colour within, but the surest way is to see that some part of the oak hangs to it. They attribute a great many virtues to the mistletoe of the oak, and the Ancients revered it, and held it sacred, as well as the tree itself. Julius Cæsar and Pliny say, that the Druids assembled themselves under these trees to perform their devotion; these Druids inhabited the countries we now call Villa de Dreux, near Chartres, whence it is evident, that there have been oaks which bore mistletoe in France.

This mistletoe, taken inwardly, is esteemed an excellent remedy against the palsy, apoplexy, falling sickness, and worms: it is also an ingredient, in many compositions, for external uses, as ointments, plasters, &c. as a resolvent. The berries are acrid and bitter, and their juice is good to ripen abscesses, and hasten their suppuration.

Mistletoe is also the basis of the pulvis ad guttetam.

It is found growing upon many other trees, as well as the oak; but it's virtues are supposed not to be so great when it is taken from any other tree.

All the parts of the oak contain a great deal of oil and essential salt; the bark and leaves are astringent and resolvent, good in the gout, sciatica and rheumatisms, used in fomentations, and taken inwardly in decoctions to stop diarrhoeas and hæmorrhages.

The second thing we have from the oak, is a little plant we call polypody of the oak, which is like what we have from walls: this sort of plant grows from places where the branches of the oak are forked, by means of some small earth that lights there, and the water which drops upon it: it grows likewise upon the stump of the said tree. We rarely use this polypody, because it is not so proper, since that is much better which grows upon old walls; which is the sort that is sold about Paris. Chuse the root such as is new, plump, dry, brittle, of a reddish tawny colour on the outside, and greenish within, sweet and sugar-like, inclining something to a liquorish taste.

Quercus vulgaris, the common oak, is a thick, strait, durable tree, spreading it's branches wide; the trunk is covered with a thick rugged bark; the leaves are large, longish, and broad, deep slashed or indented, hanging upon short stalks; the flowers are in long shells or husks, composed of little threads hanging upon one another by a fine fiber or string; these husks leave no fruit behind them, the fruit growing in other parts, which are the acorns, that are about the size of the olive, of an oval, or cylindrical figure, contained in a hard grey cup, called in Latin, *cupula seu calix*; this acorn is covered with a hard rind, that is smooth and shining; green at first, but yellowish as it grows riper: within this rind we meet with a sort of kernel, or hard fleshy seed, composed of

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two lobes. The acorns hang upon the tree by long or short slender stalks, and their taste is astringent.

All the parts in the oak contain in them a good deal of oil and essential salt: the acorn, called in Latin, *glans quercina*, is likewise employed in medicine. Chuse such as are large and plump, separated from the rind, and dried gently; but take care of worms, to which they are subject; let them be reduced to powder before using: they are astringent, and proper to appease wind cholicks, and the fluxes of women newly delivered.

Polypodium, or common polypody, hath a root, taking a very slight and superficial hold of the earth; it is pithy and brittle, about the third part of an inch thick; within it is of a pale green colour, but outwardly a little reddish, and covered over with fine thin scales, when it is fresh and green; but being dry, it becomes of a more red colour: it is knotty, or full of round knobs, and adorned with several small filaments like hairs: it's pith is sweetish, with somewhat of a sharp, austere, or styptic taste. The leaves spring out of the knots, or hollow knobs of the roots; they are single, about nine inches in length, and parted into several jaggs or scallops, cut close into the ribs; they are sharp pointed, of a light green colour; it bears no flowers, but there arise several small knobs, like blisters, upon the lower or under part of the uppermost jaggs of the leaves, ranked in a double order; they are round, and about the sixth part of an inch thick, consisting of a fine dust, that is first a little yellowish, and turns of a bright golden colour; every grain of this dust is a sort of small seed-vessel, being of a round figure, and membranous, which, when ripe, breaks into two equal parts, and pours forth several seeds, so small that they can scarcely be discerned by the naked eye.

Polypody grows upon rocks, old walls, and ancient decayed trees; but that which grows upon old oaks is reckoned the best; upon which account, polypody of the oak is commonly prescribed, and is ranked among the purging medicines: yet Dodonæus denies it's cathartic quality; neither ought we to dissemble the matter, for the decoction of it scarcely moves the belly, but the powder of it does something, being given from one dram to two drams.

This root contains a great deal of oil, and no small quantity of an acid phlegm; but this is, as it were, suffocated by the oil, which is the cause that it produces no alteration of colour on blue paper, when it is dipped in the infusion of it. There is likewise a large quantity of earth extracted from polypody, by a chemical resolution. It is from the earth that it's styptic and brackish taste proceeds. The roots are very properly administered in all distempers proceeding from a saltish disposition of the blood: such as the scurvy, rickets, and hypochondriac passions; they also help to abate an inveterate cough, when it is attended with a saltish spittle. They are prescribed in potions and apozems.

Take of polypody of the oak, two ounces; salt of prunella, one dram; infuse them in a quart of warm water; strain it: to be taken by cupfuls or spoonfuls, as an apozem. Or take polypody of the oak, one ounce and a half; elecampane-roots, three ounces; infuse them all night in a quart of warm water: in the strained liquor add two ounces of Calabrian manna; mix and make a ptisan to be drank. Take of the decoction of polypody-roots, six ounces, in which infuse two drams of fennel-leaves; in the strained liquor dissolve the electuary of diacarthanum, three drams; mix and make a purging potion. Polypody roots are used in the catholic-electuary, the lenitive-electuary, the confection of hamech, the panchymagog extract of Hartman, Quercetan's pills of tartar, and in the hiera of coloquintida.

The oak, whose bark, &c. are used in medicine, is the *quercus vulgaris*, Ger. 1156. *Quercus latifolia*, Park. 1086.

The mistletoe is the *viscus quercus & aliarum arborum*, J. B. 1. 89. *Viscum vulgare*, Park. 1392.

And the polypody is the *polypodium vulgare*, C. B. Park. &c.

It is to be observed, that both these are much more frequently found on other trees, than on the oak.

The other species of the oak, mentioned in the catalogues of officinal trees, are,

1. The phagus, five esculus, Park. 1387. J. B. 1, 2, 74, the esculent, or sweet oak, the acorn of which is eatable, not being so bitter as those of the rest.

2. The Cerrus Aldrov. Dendr. 253. Cerris majore glande, Ger. 1162. Quercus calyce echinato, glande majore, C. B. Pin. 420. The bitter oak. And,

3. The robur tertia Clusii, J. B. 1, 2, 76. Robur five galla major altera, Ger. Em. 1314. The gall oak.

The common oak grows naturally in many kingdoms; the esculus is found in Greece and Dalmatia, the cerrus in Italy, and the last in Smyrna and other places. Pomet.

REMARKS.

There are five sorts of oak in England; but we shall only recommend two kinds of them to be planted for timber. The best is the upright-oak, which grows more erect than any other; the other is the large spreading oak. We have many instances of these kinds, that have attained to such prodigious greatness of stature, that the timber alone of one tree has been sold for upwards of 50l. The oak doth not only afford us the utmost serviceable timber for naval architecture, but also for other building. It's bark is useful to tanners, and the oak is therefore cut down about April, when it's bark will peel. The acorns are excellent food for hogs. This tree delights in moist ground of a good depth, and will prosper in the coldest clay, and, as Mr Evelyn says, in gravel also.

Some oaks having been sown in hedge-rows, have, in the space of 30 years, borne a stem of a foot diameter. There have been some seedling oaks, of 20 years growth, of near that substance, which have never been removed from the place where they were sown; and every plantation of oaks should be set with acorns, on the very spot where they are to remain, and we should be careful to chuse our acorns from thriving, vigorous trees. The distance between them ought to be about 33 feet, and the space between the oaks should be intergrown for underwood.

The oak is an estimable tree or plant, in a proper situation, for the benefit of posterity. There is no part in husbandry which men commonly more fail in, neglect and have cause to repent of, than that they did not begin planting betimes. And indeed, such persons who have been deaf to demonstration at the first possession of their estates, and are afterwards convinced of the vast advantages to be reaped by an early plantation, either from the experience of their neighbours or themselves, must have a pungent retrospect upon this occasion.

Every man is naturally willing to enjoy the profits of the works, as we may say, of his own hands; and he, therefore, who begins at 50 to be sensible that he has lost many a fair thousand, by neglect of improving his estate between 20 and that age, is to himself indeed a loser, but a warning to others to avoid that folly. See the articles EARTH, HUSBANDRY, MANURE, NORWAY, BRITISH AMERICA, MISSISSIPPI, INDIAN AFFAIRS.

OATHS. [CUSTOM-HOUSE OATHS, AND OTHER REVENUE OATHS.]

I. Of the Oaths taken by the Officers of the Customs.

The COMPTROLLER.

* Who, as well as the customers, were to be chosen from amongst the best and most sufficient men, and not to be made for affection or reward, or upon any solicitation, but upon desert; and were to sit with the customers, and in all things to cheque and imitate their transactions: and, as the customers were wont to write their accounts in rolls, the comptrollers were to keep counter-rolls; which counter-rolls, or accounts, they were to deliver into the exchequer yearly, upon oath. And now there are collectors appointed, to receive and account for the king's duties; they are likewise to cheque all their transactions, by examining and signing all accounts, dispatches, &c. and by keeping the like books of accounts: and they are to be privy to all orders of the commissioners, and to be consulted with, in the whole management and business of their respective posts, and to join with the collectors in all their proceedings.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

And for the due and faithful discharge and execution of their duties, these comptrollers were, at their admission, to take the following oath, viz.

'Ye shall swear, That well and truly ye shall serve the king, in the office of comptroller of the king's customs and subsidies, in the place of customer; and truly ye shall enter all the goods and things customable, the which shall come to the said port, or shall pass from the same: and that ye shall no gift take for to do your office, nor for any thing that may fall in disadvantage of the king; nor any merchandize, nor any other thing customable, ye shall not suffer to pass out of the said port, without custom due be paid: and ye shall do the office yourself, and dwell thereupon in your proper person,

without making any substitute or deputy under you: and ye shall write the rolls with your own hands; and the king's profit ye shall wait and do, inasmuch as ye may, after your knowledge and power: as God you help and his saints.'

Some rules, in regard to Oaths in particular, that are to be observed by the officers of the customs in general.

1. * That no persons are to be employed in the business of the customs, 'till they had given security, and have taken their corporal oaths in the following form, viz.

Deputation dated the ———, I, A. B. (his employment) do swear
———, surities, to be true and faithful in the execution and discharge (to the best of my
D. E. ——— of ——— knowledge and power) of the trust
E. F. ——— of ——— committed to my charge and inspection, in the service of his majesty's
penalty——l. juravit customs; and that I will not take or
apud ——— die ——— receive any reward or gratuity, directly or indirectly, other than my
coram nobis. salary, or what is or shall be allowed
B. C.—Collector. me from the crown, or the regular fees established by law,
C. D.—Comptroller. for any service done, or to be done, in the execution of my employment, upon any account whatsoever. So help me God.'

A. B.

* 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 2 § 33. 4 and 5 W. and M. cap. 5. § 25. But note, this act does not direct who shall administer this oath.

Which oath is to be administered by the principal officers of every out-port, or any two of them, and to be entered or registered in a book to be kept in the custom-house for that purpose: and if the security be given at the port, the bond must be returned to the commissioners, and the sufficiency of the sureties, with their places of abode, certified to the examiner of securities.

2. * That all persons employed in the customs, in any out-port, must, at their admissions, likewise take the aforesaid oath, before two justices of the peace, in the county, town, or place where their employments shall be, upon forfeiture of their employments, for refusal or neglect: and the said justices must certify the taking of this oath, to the next general quarter-sessions.

* 6 and 7 W. and M. cap. 1. § 5, 6.

And when any officer, having taken these oaths, is thereupon to be admitted, the collector and comptroller are to deliver him his deputation or commission, taking a receipt for the same, in a book to be kept for that purpose, and also at the foot of the copy of his instructions annexed to his bond, which are to be transmitted together to the commissioners.

The CUSTOMERS.

* Who were to be chosen from amongst the best and most sufficient men to be found, to the lord treasurer's estimation, and not for affection or reward, nor upon any solicitation, but upon desert: and by the king's letters patent, under the great seal of England, were appointed collectors of the great and petty customs, as also of the subsidy of tonnage and poundage: which office they were not to have † for life, or term of years, but only during the king's pleasure; and if their patents were made to the contrary, they were to be void.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

† 14 Rich. II. cap. 10. § 1.

1 Hen. IV. cap. 13. § 1.

17 Rich. II. cap. 5. § 1.

31 Hen. IV. cap. 5. § 1.

And for the due and faithful discharge and execution of their duties, these customers were, at their admission, to take the following oath, viz.

'Ye shall swear, That ye shall make continual abiding in the port ———, and shall oversee the charge of wool, leather, and wool-fells, and all other merchandizes and things customable, and the number of sacks in the said port; and, in as much as in you is, ye shall not suffer that the king have hurt or loss there; and that true account thereof ye shall yield; and of the issues of the said customs, truly ye shall answer, without faulxim or fraud, to be done in any point: as God you help, and his saints.'

* They were, upon ten days notice given them in writing, by the king, or six of his privy-counsellors, to declare what money due to the king, was in their hands, and to make ready and full payments, upon forfeiture of office; and † they were to swear to their accounts in the exchequer.

* 7 Edw. VI. cap. 1. § 13.

† 4 Hen. IV. cap. 13. § 1.

But now there are particular officers appointed, by the name of collectors, who receive the king's customs, subsidies, &c. and account for them to the comptroller-general; so that customers

customers have only the accounts to keep, which they still deliver into the Exchequer, yearly upon oath.

II. The SEARCHERS or FINDERS.

* Who were to be chosen as the customers were, and were appointed for their assistance in the business of the customs, without doors, to see that no goods were imported or exported without due payment of duty; and not being allowed any salary, were to take the moiety of all forfeitures and seizures for their pains: and they were to keep entries of all cockets, &c. passed to them from the customers, and likewise of their own seizures, and were to account yearly for the truth of their transactions.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

And, for the due and faithful discharge and execution of their duties, these searchers were, at their admission, to take the following oath, viz.

‘Ye shall swear, that ye shall serve the king well and truly in the office of the searchership in the port of ———, and do the king’s profits in all things that belongeth to you to do, by way of your office: and well and truly ye shall make due search of all the ships and vessels coming in or passing out of the said port, and truly answer the king of all that shall belong unto him in your said office, without fraud or maligne, after your wit and power: as God help you, and his saints.’

REMARKS.

Under the article AFFIDAVIT, we have considered the ill consequences which, is greatly to be feared, may attend the multiplicity of oaths that are required to be taken in this nation by traders, in relation to the public revenue. If the constitution of the public revenue was such, that no oaths need be required to be taken but by the officers concerned in the collection, it might prove far less injurious to the public, by removing the motive to perjury; which is grown to such a pitch among us, that all wise and good men lament it as one of the greatest evils that can attend the community.

This consideration alone is inducement sufficient, methinks, to point out the necessity of so CHANGING THE SYSTEM OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE, that there might be no occasion for any oath to be taken in regard thereunto, except by the officers concerned in it, and not even by them. How this might be happily effectuated may be easily inferred from what has been urged relative to the revenue throughout this work. In the interim, we shall only make some short observations on oaths in general, while the revenue continues in its present state and constitution.

As the imposition of an oath was always esteemed to be the greatest tie and obligation that could be contrived, for the discovery of the truth of any fact; and the usual confirmation of all oaths, being in the most solemn manner to call upon, and appeal to, the almighty God, who knows the secrets of all hearts, to judge of, and be a witness to, the truth thereof, and to beg his help, upon no other terms, than that what is there asserted be true, and in testimony thereof kissing his holy gospel: I should think that none but the most profligate, or the most ignorant of mankind, would be so hardy as to dishonour God’s name, by thus taking it in vain, which must either suppose that he knows not whether we speak true or false, or else, that he will countenance our solemn lies and perjuries.

And, with respect to the persons thus affirming the truth of any fact or thing upon oath, it must be considered, that if he knows that there is not perfect truth in that he swears, he is guilty of wilful and downright perjury; as he also is, if he swears to the positive truth of that whereof he is wholly ignorant, nay, or only doubtful; for, though the same should be true, yet such swearing is but at a venture, to what might as well be false. And, as all persons making oath to the truth of any thing, are supposed to perfectly know the whole affair, and to have carefully informed and satisfied themselves in every particular circumstance, which may occasion the least doubt; it is not only very silly, but very wicked, to sooth themselves with the poor evasion, that the fact or case might be so for OUGHT THEY KNOW, because they KNOW NOTHING OF THE MATTER. And of this abominable nature, is that shameful excuse for those perjuries, which it is to be feared, are but too frequently committed at the custom-house, viz. That it is but a CUSTOM-HOUSE OATH; as if God, who is omnipresent, did not see, and was not equally offended at profaning his name there, as at any other place whatsoever: but let these offenders remember the punishment, which is denounced against them in the third commandment. Since, therefore, oaths are of such a sacred and solemn nature, they ought to be administered with all imaginable reverence, and not slightly and with indifference; but, after having interrogated the person concerning every particular circumstance, and being satisfied that he understands the nature of an oath, and does not offer to swear ignorantly or rashly, and not having any reason to doubt his sincerity, the

whole oath should be maturely, deliberately, distinctly, and reverently rehearsed to him.

And, as the multiplicity of oaths in the business of the revenue, particularly in the customs, does, it is to be feared, in a great measure, lessen that awe and just regard that ought to be paid to such solemn and sacred ties; it is much to be wished, that fewer oaths were necessary; and therefore we would recommend, that any superfluous oaths should not by any means be exacted; but only such as are either expressly enjoined by the letter of the law, or are absolutely necessary for the discovering or ascertaining any thing for the service of the revenue, which cannot be obtained by any other means.

As to the persons to which the oaths are to be administered, it must be carefully observed; that they who offer to swear, are the proper persons in the eye of the law; and where the laws have not particularly directed, that they be such persons as are the most proper, according to the nature of the case, as being either principally concerned, or the most knowing in the whole affair; provided they are not boys, or such ignorant persons as are not capable of understanding the nature and consequence of an oath.

Besides the oaths before-mentioned, there are likewise promissory or obligatory oaths, particularly in the report of a ship outwards, concerning the not relanding of goods intitled to a drawback, bounty, &c. the breach of which is not less criminal, than of any other oath; and, if the master at the time of making such oath, has no real intention to make it good, or whether he then has or not, if he afterwards breaks the same, he certainly must be deemed guilty of perjury.

And lastly, as to the oaths in general, it must be remembered, that they are always to be taken according to the common and usual interpretation of the words, and in the same sense that they are known to be designed, and not with any private reserve or evasion. See OFFICERS of the CUSTOMS.

OFFICERS of the CUSTOMS. The officers principally employed in the management of the customs in an out-port, were originally no more than three, viz. a customer, a searcher, a comptroller.

I. The CUSTOMERS,

* Who were to be chosen from amongst the best and most sufficient men to be found, to the lord treasurer’s estimation, and not for affection or reward, nor upon any solicitation, but upon DESERT: and, by the king’s letters patent under the great seal of England, were appointed collectors of the great and petty customs, as also of the subsidy of tonnage and poundage.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

Which office they were not to have * for life, or term of years, but only during the king’s pleasure; and, if their patents were made to the contrary, they were to be void.

* 14 Rich. II. cap. 10. § 1. 17 Rich. II. cap. 5. § 1.
1 Hen. IV. cap. 13. § 1. 31 Hen. VI. cap. 5. § 1.

And, for the due and faithful execution of their duties, these customers were, at their admission, to take the following oath, viz.

‘Ye shall swear, That ye shall make continual abiding in the port of ———, and shall oversee the charge of wool, leather, and wool-fells, and all other merchandizes and things customable, and the number of sacks in the said port; and in as much as in you is, ye shall not suffer that the king have hurt or loss there; and that true account thereof ye shall yield; and of the issues of the said customs, truly ye shall answer, without fauim or fraud, to be done in any point: as God you help, and his saints.’

* They were upon ten days notice given them in writing, by the king, or six of his privy-counsellors, to declare what money due to the king was in their hands, and to make ready and full payment, upon forfeiture of office; and † they were to swear to their accounts in the Exchequer.

* 7 Edw. VI. cap. 1. § 13. † 4 Hen. IV. cap. 20. § 1.

But now there are particular officers appointed, by the name of collectors, who receive the king’s customs, subsidies, &c. and account for them to the comptroller-general; so that customers have only the accounts to keep, which they still deliver into the Exchequer yearly upon oath.

And these customers * were to be resident upon their office, without making deputies, and to be sworn to do the same, and not to be absent by three weeks at the most, unless otherwise in the king’s service of record, upon loss of office, imprisonment, and forfeiture of 100l. to the king: but now † the customers of every head-port, must have one able and sufficient deputy or servant at the least, to reside at all members and creeks, appointed by commissions out of the court of Exchequer, for the entering, clearing, passing, &c. of ships and merchandizes.

* 1 Hen. IV. cap. 13. § 1. 4 Hen. IV. cap. 20. § 1.
13 Hen. IV. cap. 5. § 1.
† 1 Eliz. cap. 11. § 8. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 14.

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In some of the out-ports, there is a customer inwards and another outwards, but in most ports the same person is customer both inwards and outwards; and these customers are scarce ever known to act themselves, unless where they are collectors likewise; but in the smaller ports do usually appoint the collectors to be their deputies, and in the larger ports they have distinct deputies; to whom they are obliged to allow at least 20 l. per ann. or else to relinquish to them the whole fees.

For the principal other regulations concerning customers, see the business of the custom-house in general throughout the work.

II. The SEARCHERS or FINDERS,

* Were originally to be chosen in the manner of the customers, and were appointed for their assistance in the business of the customs without doors, to see that no goods were imported or exported without payment of duty; and not being allowed any salary, were to take the moiety of all forfeitures and seizures for their pains: they were also to keep entries of all cockets, &c. passed to them from the customers, and likewise of their own seizures, and were to account yearly for the truth of their transactions.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

And, for the faithful execution of their duty, these searchers were, at their admission, to take the following oath:

'Ye shall swear, that ye shall serve the king well and truly in the office of the searchership in the port of ———, and do the king's profits in all things that belongeth to you to do, by way of your office; and well and truly ye shall make due search of all the ships and vessels coming in or passing out of the said port; and truly answer the king of all that shall belong unto him in your said office, without fraud or maligne, after your wit and power: as God help you, and his saints.'

* They were to be sworn not to let their offices to farm, nor to appoint deputies, but to be resident thereon themselves, and not be absent by three weeks at the most, unless otherwise in the king's service of record, upon loss of office, imprisonment, and forfeiture of 100 l. But now † the searchers of every head port, must have one able and sufficient deputy or servant at the least, to reside at all members and creeks, appointed by commissions out of the court of Exchequer, for the passing, shipping, clearing, &c. of ships and merchandizes: and it is the practice for the searchers likewise to appoint deputies at the principal ports, scarce any of them acting themselves; and these deputies in the smaller ports are often the same persons that are appointed land-waiters, but in the larger ports it is usual to have distinct deputies to whom they are obliged to allow at least 20 l. or else to relinquish to them the whole fees.

* 4 Hen. IV. cap. 20. § 1.

4 Hen. IV. cap. 21. § 1.

13 Hen. IV. cap. 5. § 1.

† 1 Eliz. cap. 11. § 8. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 14.

Though the business of a searcher seems originally to have been not only to attend at the shipping of goods designed to be exported to foreign parts, but likewise at the landing of goods imported from foreign parts, and also at the shipping and landing of goods coastwise; yet now there being particular officers appointed by the names of land-waiters for the landing, examining, and delivering of all foreign goods imported, and coast-waiters for the examining, landing, and shipping of goods, brought and carried coastwise; the searchers are only concerned in the examining and shipping of goods designed to be exported to foreign parts, and even in that part of the business, the land-waiters are mostly joined with them.

For other regulations relating to this officer, see the business of the custom-house throughout the whole work.

III. The COMPTROLLERS,

* Were originally, as well as the customers, to be chosen from amongst the best and most sufficient men, and not to be made for affection or reward, or upon any solicitation, but upon DESERT; and were to sit with the customers, and in all things to cheque and imitate their transactions: and, as the customers were wont to write their accounts in rolls, the comptrollers were to keep counter-rolls; which counter-rolls or accounts, they were to deliver into the Exchequer yearly, upon oath. And now there are collectors appointed to receive an account for the king's duties, they are likewise to cheque all their transactions, by examining and signing all accounts, dispatches, &c. and by keeping the like books of accounts: and they are to be privy to all orders of the commissioners, and to be consulted with, in the whole management and business of their respective ports, and to join with the collectors in all their proceedings.

* 12 Rich. II. cap. 2. § 1.

And, for the faithful execution of their duty, these comptrollers were, at their admission, to take the following oath, viz.

'Ye shall swear, that well and truly ye shall serve the king in the office of comptroller of the king's customs and subsidies, in the place of customer; and truly ye shall enter all the goods and things customable, the which shall come to the said port, or shall pass from the same: and that ye shall no gift take for to do your office, nor for any thing that may fall in disadvantage to the king; nor any merchandize, nor any other thing customable, ye shall not suffer to pass out of the said port, without custom due be paid: and ye shall do the office yourself, and dwell thereupon in your proper person, without making any substitute or deputy under you: and ye shall write the rolls with your own hands; and the king's profit ye shall wait and do, inasmuch as ye may, after your knowledge and power: as God you help, and his saints.'

* They were to be sworn as above, to be continually resident upon their offices, without making deputies, and not to be absent by three weeks at the most, unless otherwise in the king's service of record, upon loss of office, imprisonment, and forfeiture of 100 l. to the king: but now the † comptrollers of every head-port must have one able and sufficient deputy or servant at the least, to reside at all members and creeks, appointed by commissions out of the court of Exchequer, for the entering, passing, clearing, &c. of ships and merchandize: and it is the practice of the comptrollers likewise, to appoint deputies at the principal ports, scarce any of them acting themselves; and these deputies in the smaller ports, are often the collector's clerks, but in the larger ports it is usual to appoint distinct deputies; to whom they are obliged to allow at least 20 l. per ann. or else to relinquish to them the whole fees.

* 1 Hen. IV. cap. 13. § 1.

4 Hen. IV. cap. 20. § 1.

13 Hen. IV. cap. 5. § 1.

† 1 Eliz. cap. 11. § 8. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 14.

And the persons who officiate as comptrollers are, by the honourable the commissioners of the customs, appointed comptrollers of the duties on coals, culm, and cinders, brought coastwise, for which they are allowed poundage.

For other regulations relating to this officer, see the general business of the customs throughout this work.

Having thus given a short account of the officers, which, by the old laws, seem to have been originally entrusted with the management of the customs, I shall now proceed to treat of the several officers, which, by the great increase of business, have since been found necessary to be added, and are now actually employed in that revenue: the principal whereof are,

I. The COLLECTORS.

Though the customers were originally the collectors of his Majesty's customs, &c. and are still so stiled in their patents, yet of later years, there have been new and distinct officers appointed for that purpose, by the titles of Collectors, who are entitled the officers of the commissioners of the customs; by whose deputation they act, and under whom they have, at their respective ports, the whole management and direction of levying and collecting his Majesty's customs, and other duties on goods and merchandizes imported and exported, and of the duties on coals, culm, and cinders, brought coastwise; and also the direction of all the other officers employed in that revenue, deputed by the said commissioners: and are also, by the same authority, empowered to inspect the behaviour of the patent-officers, or their deputies, that in case of any misbehaviour, they may represent the same to the said commissioners.

II. The SURVEYORS,

Are a kind of inspectors and supervisors of the whole business of the customs without doors, as well by land as by water; though in the larger ports there are separate officers appointed by the names of Tide-surveyors, to execute that duty by water: but in all ports they are to attend, at the shipping and landing of goods, as well to and from foreign parts, as coastwise, to see that the proper officers regularly discharge their respective duties, and to adjust the tares of goods, &c. and they are likewise to examine and jerque the land-waiter's books [see the article JERQUE]: and though they are not required to send up quarterly accounts of the imports and exports, as the collectors, customers, and comptrollers do; yet they are to compare the original warrants granted for the landing of all goods imported, and copies of all cockets granted for the shipping of all goods exported, with the collector's quarter-books which they send up, and to attest under their hands, that the true qualities and quantities of all the goods, landed and shipped off during that quarter, are truly entered therein.

III. The LAND-WAITERS,

Are to attend at the landing of all goods imported from foreign parts, and take an account thereof, in order that his Majesty's full duties may be paid for the same: and in some ports they also execute the office of a coast-waiter.

They are likewise stiled Searchers, and are to attend with the patent-searchers, in the execution of all cockets for the shipping

shipping of goods to be exported to foreign parts : and in all cases where drawbacks or bounties are to be paid on the exportation of any goods, they as well as the patent-searchers, are to certify to the shipping thereof on the DEBENTURES. See the article DEBENTURES.

For instructions in the method of examining and delivering of foreign goods imported, see the business of the customs throughout this work.

IV. The COAST-WAITERS,

At their respective ports, are to attend at the landing and shipping of all goods coming from, or going to any other port within Great-Britain, to take an account thereof, and see that they exactly agree in quality and quantity, with the sufferances granted for the landing or shipping ; so that under the colour of bringing or sending one sort of goods coastwise, any other sorts may not be fraudulently imported or exported, to the prejudice of his Majesty's revenue.

V. The TIDE-SURVEYORS,

Are at all times, when his Majesty's service requires it, to attend the same by water, to visit all ships from foreign parts, upon their arrival into port, in order to put tide-waiters on board, and to rummage for prohibited goods, or goods concealed, and are frequently to call upon the said ships, to see that the tide-waiters are on board, and do keep their watch ; and when it is signified to them that the ship is wholly discharged, they are to go on board and rummage the same, and if they do not find any goods on board, they are to take off the tide-waiters.

They are likewise to place tide-waiters on board outward-bound ships, whereon there have been laden any goods intitled to a drawback or bounty, to prevent the same from being relanded ; and are frequently to visit the said ships, to see that the officers on board do their duty : and, when the said ships have been regularly cleared in the custom-house by the collector, &c. and are ready to sail, they are to discharge the tide-waiters.

VI. The TIDE-WAITERS, or TIDESMEN,

Are to be placed by the tide-surveyors on board all ships laden with goods from foreign parts, to prevent the fraudulent landing or conveying of them away without payment of his Majesty's duties, which is to be signified to them by a note under the land-waiter's hands : and, when they have received such note, order, or warrant, from the land-waiters, for permitting any goods to be unladen, they are to take an account of the marks, numbers, and outward package, in a book to be given them for that purpose : but they may send all small parcels of goods liable to be run, to the king's ware-

house, for security of the duties, without any order, having first entered them in the said books. And during the time that they are on board, they are to prevent wines from being filled up, or the package of any goods opened, and endeavour to discover all goods concealed, as likewise any bulk tobacco, or any other prohibited goods, and to seize the same.

They are likewise to be placed on board outward-bound ships, whereon there have been laden any goods intitled to a drawback or bounty upon exportation, to prevent the fraudulent relanding : and during the time they continue on board, they are to take care that the packages of any goods be not altered.

VII. The BOATMEN or WATERMEN,

In some ports, are appointed only to row and give their attendance in the tide-surveyor's boats ; but in most ports they likewise, when occasion requires, officiate as tide-waiters, by watching on board ships, &c.

VIII. The COAL-METERS,

Are to attend at the delivery of all ships coming coastwise with coals, culm, or cinders, to mete, measure, or weigh the same, and to take account of the full quantities delivered, in order that his Majesty's duties may be fully paid.

IX. The RIDING OFFICERS,

Are appointed to reside at, or near some particular places on the sea-coasts, and have certain districts allotted them ; some part whereof they are to visit daily, in order to discover any vessels hovering on the coasts, with a design to land or take on board any prohibited or uncustomed goods, which they must by all means endeavour to prevent ; and in case of the fraudulent landing or shipping of any goods, to seize the same, with the vessels, boats, &c.

They are to enter each day's transactions and proceedings, with their motions from place to place, in a proper book to be kept for that purpose ; from whence at the end of each month, two journals are to be transcribed, and sent or delivered to the collector ; one whereof to be preserved in the office, and the other to be transmitted to the commissioners, in order to be examined by the persons appointed for that purpose.

But, before these journals are thus transmitted, the collector is, on the back thereof, to make his observations how far the officers have performed their duty. And, as there will be no necessity to mention these officers hereafter but occasionally, we shall here add the forms of their books and journals, which must be as follow :

Port of | District.
Southampton. | From A—— to B—— |

Journal of B. C. officer at D——, for the month of

Day of the month.	When travelling.			When attending.		Wind and weather.	Transactions and observations, viz.
	Place from whence, and hour of the day when set out.	Places arrived at, and hour when.	Distance of the place.	Place where attended.	From and to what time attended, and when returned.		
							What officers met, and where ; what informations of goods run, or intended to be run, and what methods taken to prevent the same, what seizures made ; what ships observed on the coast, and which way they sail, and what notice of such ships given to the next officer ; what signals observed from the commander of the smack ; and also whatever happens in the day, evening, or night, that may be fit for the commissioners knowledge.

X. The SURVEYORS, WAITERS, and SEARCHERS,

Are appointed to reside at creeks, to execute the offices of surveyors, tide-surveyors, land-waiters, coast-waiters, and searchers, in the same manner as those distinct officers are to execute the same at the principal and member-ports : and they are likewise to perform the duties of riding officers, and to keep journals of their daily actions and proceedings, with their motions from place to place ; to be delivered to the collectors, in order to be by them transmitted to the commissioners.

XI. The MASTERS of SMACKS,

Are appointed to command vessels to cruize on the coasts of Great-Britain, and are diligently to attend on board, and to keep their vessels in constant motion within their respective districts, or stations, unless in cases of necessity, or pursuit of suspected vessels : and, in cruizing, they are to speak with all ships or vessels which they shall meet at sea ; and, if they have any reason to suspect they have goods on board designed to be smuggled, they are diligently to watch their motions, and keep them company 'till they are clear of the coast within their respective districts, in order to prevent the fraudulent landing any such goods.

And they are likewise to endeavour to prevent the exportation of such goods as are prohibited to be exported out of this kingdom ; and, in case they discover any such goods to have been shipped, or shipping for foreign parts, they are to seize the same, with the vessels, &c. For the due navigation of each of these vessels, there are likewise appointed a mate, and a sufficient number of mariners, who are to be under the direction of the said masters.

And, for the victualling of these vessels, the commanders are allowed nine-pence per diem for themselves and each mariner ; whereof notice is to be affixed on the mast, that, if good and sufficient provisions are not provided by the commanders, the mariners may complain to the collector and comptroller.

These masters and their mates, are to keep journals of their daily transactions, with their motions from place to place, to be delivered monthly to the collectors of their respective ports, in order to be transmitted to the commissioners.

And, by way of distinction, all smacks, yachts, or vessels employed in the service of the customs, are to wear a jack and ensign, with the seal of office thereon, the mark in the ensign being twice as large as that in the jack ; but not to wear a pendant.

The aforementioned officers are those which are chiefly concerned in the execution of the custom laws, &c. in an out-port; for as to the more inferior, such as weighers, watchmen, &c. their very titles bespeak their employments, so that they need no definition; and though, in some ports, they are executed by distinct persons, yet in many, especially the smaller, the tide-waiters and boatmen officiate.

R E M A R K S.

The foregoing is only a short general account of the nature of the employments of the several officers of the customs; but, for the methods of executing their respective employments, we must refer to the several branches of the business of the customs, where they are occasionally treated of. And as what has been said relates only to the respective employments of the officers, we shall next give an account of what other regulations they are subject to; the which are likewise to be observed by all other officers of the customs in general.

R U L E S to be observed by the OFFICERS of the CUSTOMS in general.

I. * That no persons are to be employed in the business of the customs till they have given security, and have taken their corporal oaths in the following form, viz,

* 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 33. 4 and 5 Will. and Mar. cap. 5. § 25. But note, this act does not direct who shall administer this oath.

Deputation dated the -----
 Sureties, -----
 D. E. ----- of -----
 E. F. ----- of -----
 Penalty ----- l.
 Juravit apud -----
 die ----- coram nobis
 B. C. ----- Collector,
 C. D. ----- Comptroller.
 'I A. B. [his employment] do swear to be true and faithful in the execution and discharge (to the best of my knowledge and power) of the trust committed to my charge and inspection, in the service of his Majesty's customs; and that I will not take or receive any reward or gratuity, directly or indirectly, other than my salary, or what is or shall be allowed me from the crown, or the regular fees established by law, for any service done, or to be done, in the execution of my employment, upon any account whatsoever. So help me God.'

A. B.

Leave to be absent from duty, requested by established officers.

5th of January.
 I desire leave to be absent from my duty for six days, for }
 the recovery of my health - - - - - }
 Granted—B. C. Collector,
 A. B. Surveyor.
 8th of January.
 I desire leave to be absent from my duty for six days, on }
 my own private affairs - - - - - }
 Granted—B. C. Collector,
 C. D. Landwaiter.

Leave further continued for ten days, by commissioners letter of the 13th of January.

And from this side of the book is to be transcribed an account in the same form, in order to be transmitted to the commissioners of the customs, the next post after the end of each month, with the monthly abstracts.

And, with regard to mariners employed on board any vessels in the service of the customs, it must be observed, that they may not be absent above three days, except in case of sickness; and that, in all cases of absence, the commanders and mates are to give a certificate of the occasion, to the collector and comptroller.

IV. That a provision may be made for the maintenance of such officers of the customs as have behaved well, and through age or infirmities are become superannuated, or by some accident rendered incapable of the service, a deduction of sixpence in the pound must be made quarterly, out of the salaries and day's pay of all such established officers of the out-ports, whose salaries do not exceed 60l. per annum, and whose taxes are repaid by the crown, except collectors and their clerks, and patent officers, or their deputies, who have no salaries on the establishment: but no officer is to be in-

Which oath is administered by the principal officers of every out-port, or any two of them, and entered or registered in a book to be kept in the custom-house for that purpose: and, if the security be given at the port, the bond must be returned to the commissioners, and the sufficiency of the sureties, with their places of abode, certified to the examiner of securities.

II. * That all persons employed in the customs in any out-port, must, at their admission, likewise take the aforesaid oath, before two justices of the peace in the county, town, or place where their employment shall be, upon forfeiture of their employments, for refusal or neglect; and the said justices must certify the taking of this oath, to the next general quarter-sessions.

* 6 and 7 Will. and Mar. cap. 1. § 5, 6.

And when any officer, having taken these oaths, is thereupon to be admitted, the collector and comptroller are to deliver him his deputation, or commission, taking a receipt for the same, in a book to be kept for that purpose, and also at the foot thereof the copy of his instructions, annexed to his bond, which are to be transmitted together to the commissioners.

III. That his Majesty's revenue may not suffer by the officers absenting themselves from their respective duties, it must be observed, that they may not presume so to do without particular leave: and, therefore, when any officer's private affairs, &c. require their absence, the collector may, upon their application, give them leave for any time not exceeding a week; and, if that is not sufficient, the commissioners must be applied to for longer time. But, notwithstanding such leave to be absent for longer time than a week, two-third parts of their salaries must be deducted, and applied to the fund for paying pensions to superannuated officers: and if any officers are absent for longer time than for what they had leave, they are to forfeit two days pay for each day so absent, to be applied to the said superannuation fund; upon refusal or neglect whereof, their salaries to be stopped.

And if an established officer officiates for any other established officer absent by leave, the officer so officiating is not to have an additional allowance, unless put to any extraordinary charges: but, if an extraordinary man officiates, he is to be paid by incidents.

For the due regulations of such established officer's absence, a book must be kept after the following manner:

An Account of the absence of established officers in the month of -----

Officers names.	Titles of office.	When absent-ed.	When returned.	Time of absence.	Occasion of absence.
A. B.	Surveyor	5th Jan.	11 Jan.	6 days	Recovery of health
C. D.	Land-waiter	8th Jan.	24 Jan.	16 days	Private affairs

titled to this allowance who has any other means of subsistence from the government, or otherwise, or is capable of getting subsistence any other way.

And to the same use is likewise to be applied the two-third parts of the salaries of the absent officers, and the money deducted out of the officers salaries, by way of mulct for misdemeanors: upon neglect or refusal of the payment whereof, their salaries are to be stopped.

Which deductions are to be made by the collector, upon payment of the respective officers salaries, and to be preserved in the king's chest, under the joint care of the collector and comptroller, and accounted for in each month's abstract: and the collector is to keep a separate account of the money collected on the superannuation-fund, and remit the same immediately after the end of each quarter, to Mr -----, the present receiver; of which remittance the comptroller is to send a duplicate to -----, Esq; the comptroller-general, in order that he may cheque the said -----, and control the accounts. The form of the account of the collector of this fund must be as follows:

OIL

OIL

An account of the deduction of six-pence in the pound, out of the salaries and day-pay of the established officers, and mulcts on all officers of this port, for the quarter ending at Lady-Day, being towards the maintenance of superannuated officers.

	Salaries.						Deductions and mulcts.		
	Established.			Incidents.					
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
A. B. surveyor	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	6
B. C. land-waiter	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	—
C. D. waiter and searcher	11	5	—	—	—	—	—	5	7½
D. E. riding surveyor	12	10	—	—	—	—	—	6	3
E. F. commander of the smack	7	10	—	2	10	—	—	5	—
F. G. coast-waiter	7	10	—	2	10	—	—	5	—
G. H. tidefman and boatman	7	10	—	1	5	—	—	4	4½
H. I. boatman	6	5	—	2	10	—	—	4	4½
B. C. land-waiter, absent 10 days by leave; the two-thirds of his salary for the said time amounts to	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	10
F. G. coast-waiter, absent 7 days beyond his leave; the forfeiture of double his salary for the said time amounts to	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	11	1
A. B. surveyor, a mulct for neglect of duty, deducted from his salary by order of the commissioners, dated the 18th of January	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	—	—
							9	9	½

Dr ———— A. B. Collector ———— Cr
To the receipt of this quarter, l. 9 : 9 : 0½, by remittance to Mr ————, receiver ———— l. 9 : 9 : 0½

From which book must be transcribed a quarterly account, in the same form, and signed by the collector and comptroller, in order to be transmitted to the commissioners.

And if any of the superannuated officers desire to be paid at any particular port on notice thereof to Mr ————, and sending a printed certificate (according to the following form) of the person's being alive, with his receipt for the money, the said ———— is to give the collector credit for the sum so paid.

A certificate of a superannuated officer's being alive.

The 25th of March.

These are to certify the honourable the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, that A. B. late a boatman in the port of

C-----, and now dwelling in the ----- of D-----, was living on the 24th day of this present March.

E. F. Collector,
F. G. Comptroller,
G. H. Minister,
H. I. } Church-wardens.
I. K. }

V. That his Majesty's revenue may not suffer through the incapacities and disabilities of the officers, there must yearly, at Christmas, be transmitted to the honourable the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, a true state of the several settled officers belonging to each port, after the following manner, the same having been first entered in a proper book to be kept for that purpose.

An account of the ages, capacities, and abilities, of the several officers of this port, at Christmas -----

Officers names.	Title of office.	Age.	Capacities and abilities.
On the establishment.			
A. B.	Surveyor	29	{ Expert in the practical part of cask-gauging, and otherwise qualified for duty.
B. C.	Land-waiter	42	
C. D.	Waiter and searcher	51	{ Expert in the practical part of cask-gauging, and otherwise qualified and able for duty.
D. E.	Riding-surveyor	39	
E. F.	Commander of the smack	46	{ Capable and able for duty.
F. G.	Coast-waiter	25	
G. H.	Tidefman and boatman	39	
H. I.	Boatman	35	
By incidents.			
I. K.	Tide-surveyor	28	Well experienced, and able for duty.
K. L.	Tidefman	49	Capable and able for duty.

L. M. Collector.
M. N. Comptroller.

OIL.

Of the nature and quality of OIL in general.

What the chemists call oil, or sulphur, is not a simple substance, but a body compounded of fire, water, earth, and salt; but we chuse to say something of it here, as it is most commonly separated intire in the operations of chemistry, and is with some difficulty resolvable into it's component principles.

It may be defined to be a fluid, viscid, inflammable, transparent body, without taste or smell (though by mixing it differently with salts, these sensible qualities are produced) compounded of fire, water, earth, and salt, and it may be conceived to consist of many flakes, or flocculi, each of which is again made up of very small flexible filaments, formed of the four principles beforementioned, by fermentation, as well in the bowels of the earth, as in the bodies of vegetables and animals: thus an aromatic plant growing in water, will, by distillation, yield an oil, which could never have been obtained from the water in which it stood; and all oils may by art be resolved into water, earth, and salt. From these fila-

ments, variously concerted, arise the flakes already mentioned, which are of different thicknesses, and in the pores thereof is lodged the element of fire, which also runs in rivulets thro' their interstices.

Upon these depend the specific levity, inflammability, and fluidity of oil; but as, notwithstanding the intestine motion caused by the element of fire, the flocculi still adhere, in some measure, together, this fluid must be more viscid than any other.

From what has been said concerning the nature of alkaline salts, and the figure and structure of the oily flocculi, it is easy to conceive why all alkies dissolve sulphurs; for, since the alkaline particles are spherical and prickly, they cannot enter the interstices of the flocculi without carrying away some of them from the rest, and thus by degrees thoroughly dissolving them.

But the dense, rigid, and pointed molecule of acids being forced into these interstices, increase the density, and strengthen the texture of the flocculi; and, from the diversity of these, and of the acid spicula mixed with them, arise the different kinds of sulphurs. Sulphurs formed in the earth

of

of fire, acid salt, water, and a very fine earth, are termed bitumens.

Thus bitumens dissolved in a large quantity of water, form the mineral oils, or petrolea.

But, if they are mixed with earth and salt, the solid bitumens are produced, differing from one another in degrees of purity, according to the quantity or grossness of the earth, or different degrees of mixture. Thus fossile coals, jet, amber, and the common bitumenous, and bitumeno earths are produced.

If there be but a small quantity of earth, and much acid salt, the common mineral sulphur, or brimstone, is formed.

If the mineral original bitumen is joined to a fusible earth, capable of vitrification, it communicates to it a metallic form, that is, the sound, brightness, softness, ductility, malleability, and all the other sensible qualities of metals.

This origin of mineral bitumens may be confirmed by many experiments. If a mixture of equal parts of oil of vitriol and oil of turpentine be digested together for a considerable time in a very gentle heat, and afterwards distilled in a retort, there will come over first a yellowish liquor, resembling petroleum both in smell and consistence.

What remains in the retort is at first a soft bitumen, and afterwards turns into a hard black mass, easily inflammable, and, when burnt, smelling exactly like fossile coal. But, if the distillation be continued, a white acid liquor will next be obtained, which, by standing, lets fall a grey powder, which is true common brimstone, a yellow substance of the like nature adhering likewise to the neck of the retort; what is left behind being a black, shining, light substance, disposed in thin disgregated strata, like talc, in which, by the help of the load-stone, iron may be discovered.

Thus, therefore, all those bitumens may be artificially produced; and the analysis of the natural ones further confirm the manner of their formation.

Thus the chemists have shewn that metals are nothing but bitumenous substances, which have undergone a long digestion; for, by depriving them of their sulphur, they are reduced to ashes, and then to glass.

This is easily seen in the imperfect metals.

For, if any of them be exposed to a long heat, and especially to the rays of the sun collected by a large burning glass, the sulphureous principle flies off, and only a calx, or ashes, will be left behind, which in a more vehement degree of fire, are presently vitrified; and, by restoring the sulphur, this glass may again be reduced to metal.

The inflammable substances in animals and vegetables consist of a different combination of the principle of sulphur and acid salt; for the oil or sulphur in these is formed by a small portion of earth, joined to the elementary fire, acid salt and water; this oil, when joined to an acid salt, produces gums; when joined to a fine acid, and a new accession of fiery particles, it produces essential oils and inflammable spirits; but, if the acids are more gross, by reason of a large quantity of earth joined to them, it forms resins, as we learn from the artificial composition of all these substances: by mixing spirit of wine with volatile spirit of urine, we obtain a mucilaginous concretion, or thin gum. Oil of olives, and salt of tartar, melted together, make a kind of soap, or thick gum; and, if spirit of wine be digested for a long time, with oil of vitriol, and then distilled, an inflammable oil is obtained, resembling, in smell and other qualities, the essential oils of plants, a true resin being left behind in the retort.

In animals, the same oleaginous principle forms the fat, and other glutinous or gelatinous substances, these last being composed of an acid volatile salt and oil, as appears from their analysis; but fat is made of the same oil and acid salt; for, if oil of olives and spirit of nitre be mixed together and digested, a substance will be formed, in every thing resembling the fat of animals.

Sulphurous substances found in bodies are either fixed or volatile.

The fixed sulphurs are either solid, such as fat, resin, or the bitumens; or fluid, as oils.

Volatile sulphurs are such as fly off with a small degree of fire, and have an appearance compounded of that of oil and water. Such are inflammable spirits, obtained from the flowers and fruits of plants.

OIL, [OLIVE OIL,] in general, is an unctuous inflammable matter, extracted from natural bodies. It is sometimes applied to the juices which naturally exude from plants and trees, as balm, &c. but is more strictly applied to those juices drawn by expression* from fruits, grain, or seeds, as olive-oil, nut-oil, &c. There are no little variety of oils, whose properties, and manner of expression, are different. Oil of olives being the most universal, and that chiefly used in medicine, food, and manufactures, we shall give an account of the method of preparation of the olives.—There are inferior, which are used in manufacture, not food and operations; sorts, that are prepared in the second and third medicine.

* Expressed oils are such as are procured by bodies only by pressing; as olive, almond oils, and the like.

REMARKS.

Quere. As we are under the necessity of taking large quantities of olive-oil from other countries, may it not be worth while to endeavour to produce the olive in some of our own plantations? Does not this deserve to be seriously thought of? According to Columella, the beginning of December, for the most part, is the middle season for gathering of olives, and making oil; for, before this time, the bitter oil, which is called summer oil, is made; and, about this month, they press the green oil; then afterwards the ripe oil: but it is not for the interest of a master of a family to make bitter oil, because the olives yield but very little of it, except the berry fall to the ground by tempestuous weather, and it be necessary to gather it up, lest it be eaten up and destroyed by tame cattle or wild beasts. But it is of very great advantage to him to make of the green sort, because the olives both yield enough of it, and by its price it almost doubles the income of the owner: but, if the olive-yards are very large, it is necessary that some part of them be reserved for ripe fruit. A lost to carry the olives into is very necessary.

Nevertheless, because sometimes the immoderate multitude of berries overcomes the labour of them that attend the press, and are more than they can manage, there must be a store-room in the upper part of the house, where the fruits may be put: and this lost ought to be like a granary, and to have as many small bins, or distinct partitions, as the quantity of olives shall require, that so the gathering of each day may be put apart, and laid up by itself.

The floor, or bottom of these small partitions, must be paved with stones, or tiles, and made so sloping, that all the moisture may run quickly out of them, by gutters or pipes; for the lees are very hurtful to the oil, which, if they remain in the berry, corrupt and spoil the taste of the oil. Therefore, when you have built the partitions with judgement, place upon the floor small boards, half a foot distant from each other, and lay reeds upon them, that are carefully and closely woven, so that they may not let so much as a berry pass through, and be able to support the weight of the olives. But hard by all these small partitions, in that part where the lees run out of them, under the very pipes, the floor must be concave, after the manner of little trenches; or there must be a hollow stone, wherein may stand whatever liquor shall flow out of them, and from whence it may be drawn.

Moreover, you must have fats, or barrels, ready prepared within doors, which may receive the lees of every kind of olives apart by themselves, whether they be such as flow from the olives pure, without any mixture, or such also as have received salt; for both of them are fit for many uses.

But mills are more useful than the press, for the making of oil; and the press than the canalis, and the solea*. The mills are very easily managed; for, according to the bigness of the berries, the mill stones may be either lowered or raised, that so the kernel, which spoils the taste of the oil, may not be broken: moreover, the press dispatches more work, and more easily, than the solea and canalis. There is also a machine, like an erect threshing instrument, which is called a beetle; and that does the work not incommodiously, except that it is frequently spoiled, and out of order; and, if you throw a little too many berries into it, you stop it. Nevertheless, the aforesaid machines are made use of according to the state and condition, and custom of the countries: but that of mills, as also of the turning-press, is the best. I thought it necessary to premise these things, before I discoursed of making the oil.

* Columella mentions several machines, wherewith the oil was squeezed out of the olive-berries; but gives no particular description of any of them, so that it is not easy to form any distinct idea of them. Cato, indeed, in his 22d chapter, gives a particular description of the trapezum; but it is not very intelligible, perhaps because of the incorrectness of the text; and learned men differ in their opinions about it. Varro says, that the trapeta were oil-mills made of hard rough stones; and Columella seems to make the mola and the trapezum two distinct things: perhaps by the last he means a press for squeezing the olives, which had its name from the turning of the screws. We have no account at all, that I can find, of the canalis and solea: nor is it any great satisfaction to be told by antiquarians, that they were certain machines, used by the Antients for making oil, since they give us no account of their structure.

Now we must come to the thing itself, although we have omitted many things; which, as before the vintage, so, before the gathering of the olives, and making the oil, must be all ready prepared; such as plenty of wood, which must be brought home a long time before, that so, when the thing is wanted, the labourers may not be called away from their business: ladders also, small baskets, and sowers baskets of ten modii and three modii each, wherein the berries, which are gathered off the trees, are received; frails, hempen and Span-

nish-broom ropes, iron ladles, wherewith the oil is emptied from one vessel to another; covers or lids, wherewith the oil-vessels are covered; sponges, greater and smaller; pitchers, in which the oil is carried out; cane or reed mats, into which the olives are gathered. All these ought to be in great number, because they perish with the using, and become fewer; of which, if any one thing be wanting when there is occasion to use it, the work is at a stand.

As soon as the berries shall begin to be of different colours, and some of them are already black, yet more of them white, the olive must be gathered by hand, when the weather is fair, and sifted and cleansed upon mats or reeds spread under them: then, after they are cleansed, they must be presently carried to the place where the presses stand, and shut up intire in new frails, and put under the presses, that they may be squeezed as little a while as may be. Afterwards, when their thin rinds are opened, they ought to be softened, by adding two sextarii of whole salt to each modius of olives; and the mass of bruised olives ought to be squeezed out, either in oblong square boards, if it be the custom of the country, or in new frails at least: then that which shall first flow from the press into a round fat (for that is better than a square leaden vessel, or a receiver made of stone or brick with two divisions in it) let the leader empty it presently, and pour it into great earthen pans prepared for this use.

But, in the oil-cellar, let there be three rows of pans, that one of them may receive the oil of the first note, that is, of the first pressing; the second, that of the second; and the third row, that of the third: for it is of great importance not to mix that of the second, much less that of the third pressing, with that of the first; because that is of a much better taste which flows from the olives with least force of the press, as if it dropped from them of its own accord. When, therefore, the oil has stood a little in the first pans, the lader ought to strain and empty it into the second, and then into the next, till he comes to the last; for the oftener it is ventilated, and worked, as it were, by emptying it from one vessel into another, the clearer it becomes, and the more it is freed from its dregs. But it will be sufficient to place thirty large pans in each row, except the olive-yards be very large, and require a greater number.

But if, with the colds, the oil shall be congealed with the lees, you must, in that case, certainly use a little more toasted salt; that thing resolves and loosens the oil, and separates it from every thing that may hurt or corrupt it. Nor is there any reason to fear, that the oil will become salt or brackish; for whatever quantity of salt you shall put to it, yet the oil does not receive the taste of it. But even thus, the oil usually does not dissolve, when greater colds than ordinary come on suddenly; therefore they toast nitre, and bruise it, and sprinkle it upon the oil, and mix it with it: this liquifies the lees. There are some, though very careful oilmen, who do not put the berry under the press whole, without breaking it, because they think that some part of the oil is lost by so doing; for, when the berry receives the weight of the press, the lees alone are not pressed out of it, but they attract something of the fatness of the oil with themselves.

But I have this direction to give upon the whole, that neither smook nor soot be admitted into the place where the oil press stands, or into the oil-cellar, as long as the green oil is making there; for both these are very prejudicial to this affair, and the skillfullest oilmen scarcely suffer their work to be done at the light of one single lamp: wherefore, both the place where the oil-press stands, and the oil-cellar, must be situated towards that quarter of the heavens which is most sheltered from cold winds, because the heat of the fire is not at all required. Moreover, the barrels and jars, into which the oil is put, must not only be carefully cleansed, and put in order, at the time when the necessity of bestowing the fruit forces to do it; but, when they are emptied by the merchant, care ought to be taken, that if any dregs or lees have fallen to the bottom of the vessels, they be immediately cleaned out, and washed with a lee of ashes, not very hot, lest the vessels throw off and lose their wax; and let it be done once and again: then let them be gently rubbed with the hand, with lukewarm water, and often rinsed, and so let all the moisture be dried up with a sponge.

There are some who dissolve porters clay in water, like liquid dregs, and, after they have washed the vessels, daub them on the inside with this sort of gruel, as you may call it, and suffer it to dry upon them: afterwards, when they have occasion to use them, they rinse them with pure water. Some wash the vessels thoroughly all over with lees of oil first; then they wash them with water, and dry them: afterwards they examine whether the barrels want new wax; for the Antients said, that it was necessary to wax them almost every sixth year, at the time of making the oil, which I do not understand how it can be done: for, as new vessels, if they be heated, easily receive the melted wax, so I cannot believe, that such as are old will bear waxing, because of the juice of the oil; which very waxing, nevertheless, the husbandmen of our times, have wholly laid aside, and have been of opinion, that it was better to wash the new barrels all over with liquid gum, and to suffumigate them with white

wax when they are dried, that they may not lose their good colour, and tarnish: and they judge that this fumigation ought to be done, as often as either the new or old vessels are cured and seasoned, and prepared for the new oil. Many, when they have daubed their new barrels or jars with gross fat gum, are satisfied with one gumming for ever: and, indeed, a vessel which has once imbibed the oil, does not admit of a second gumming; for the fatness of the oil refuses any such matter as that of gum is.

After the month of December, about the beginning of January, the olive-berry must be gathered in the same manner as above, and the oil presently pressed out of it; for if it be laid up in a loft, it quickly grows hot; for, with the water-rains, it breeds a greater quantity of lees, which are very hurtful to oil. Therefore you must beware of making oil for eating of this kind of berry, which may, by this one way, be avoided; if, as soon as the berry is brought out of the field, it be ground, and put into the press, and the oil pressed out of it, and managed as we have said above. All husbandmen, for the most part have believed, that if the berry be laid up within the house, the oil will grow in the loft; which is as false, as that corn of any sort grows in the threshing-floor: and this falsehood that antient author, Porcius Cato, refutes thus; for he says, that the olive grows wrinkled in the loft, and becomes smaller: for which reason, when the husbandman has laid up such a quantity in the house, as is sufficient for one making; and, after many days, has a mind to grind it, having forgotten the first quantity that he had brought in, he supplies out of another heap, which he had in like manner placed apart by itself, as much as is wanting to each quantity; and by this one making, the berry that has rested for some time, seems to yield more oil than that which is fresh and newly gathered, whereas he has taken a greater quantity of olives to it. Yet, suppose that were exceeding true, nevertheless there is more money raised by the price of green fresh oil, than by the great quantity of that which is bad: which thing Cato also said. And thus, indeed, whatever addition of weight or measure is made to the oil, if you would compute the quantity of berries, added to that which you reckon to one making, you would think it not an increase and advantage, but a real loss: wherefore we ought not to hesitate to grind the olives, and put them under the press, as soon as possible after we have gathered them.

Nor am I ignorant that a secondary oil, for common eating, must also be made; for when the olive, which is gnawed by the little worms, falls off the tree; or has, by storms and rains fallen into the dirt, they have recourse to warm water for a remedy; and the caldron ought to be made hot, that the dirty berries may be washed. But this must not be done with exceeding hot water, but with that which is moderately warm, that the taste of the oil may become the more agreeable; for if the agreeable taste be boiled out of it, it attracts the taste of the little worms, and of any other sorts of nastiness whatsoever: but when the olive has been thoroughly washed, the other things ought to be done as directed above. But the purest and best oil, and that of the secondary sort for common use, must not be pressed in the same frails; for old frails ought to be set a-part for such olives as fall off the trees of their own accord; and those that are new, for the oil of the first note; and when they have served for pressing out the oil of every particular making, they ought always to be presently washed, twice or thrice, in exceeding hot water: then, if there be any brook, or running water, they must be sunk in it, by having stones put into them, that they may be pressed down and detained by the weight thereof; or, if there be no river, they ought to be soaked in a lake or pond, of the purest water you can find, and afterwards beaten with rods, that the dirt and dregs may fall off them, and then they must be washed a second time and dried.

OIL OF SWEET ALMONDS, drawn without fire, is prepared various ways. Some peel them before pounding, others pound without peeling. Some steep them in lukewarm water, others in balneo mariae; some only bruise them, others beat them to a paste. There are a great variety of different ways to prepare this oil.

The best method is esteemed this: pound your almonds dry and new in mortars, pass them through a coarse sieve, lay them in a hair-cloth, and put them under the press between two plates of steel; press them gently, and when all the unctuous part is expressed, you will have a sweet oil without sediment, which is scarce avoidable by any of the other methods.

TRAIN OIL, is that generally procured from the blubber of the whale, by boiling. There is some also drawn off the livers of the cod at Newfoundland, which livers are thrown up in heaps when the cod is cured; and from thence is drawn all the oil which comes from that part of America.

GALLIPOLI OIL, is that sort which we import from Naples, in large quantities for the use of our woollen manufactories.

OLDENBURG, a county of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia; bounded by the German sea on the north, by the duchy of Bremen on the east, by Osnabrug on the south, and by Einbden, or East Friesland, on the west; being 50 miles long and 20 broad, consisting chiefly of bogs and marshes,

marshes, where they breed a small sort of cattle less than the Welsh. The inhabitants are wretched poor, living in dirt houses, and subject to Denmark.

OLERON, west longitude 1. 20, latitude 46, an island of France, near the coast of Poitou, and territories of Aunis, situated 14 miles south-west of Rochelle, being about 15 miles long and 6 broad, and containing 10,000 people. The ancient inhabitants of this island, had such a reputation for their skill in navigation, that their rules became a model for other maritime powers to make their laws by, in relation to sea affairs; and these were called the laws of Oleron.

The soil of this island produces plenty of corn and wine, and they make a great deal of salt of the sea-water. There is a light-house on this island, for direction of ships.

OLERON LAWS, of NAVIGATION and COMMERCE.

An abstract of the naval laws of Oleron, instituted by Richard I. king of England, in his return from the Holy Land, in the end of the eleventh century, for the better regulation of merchants, owners and masters of ships and mariners, and all seafaring persons in maritime affairs. To which is added, some observations upon them, taken from several authors.

ARTICLE I.

When several joint owners make a man master of a ship or vessel, and the ship or vessel departing from her own port, arrives at Bourdeaux, Rouen, or any other such place, and is there freighted to sail for Scotland, or some other foreign country; the master, in such case, may not sell or dispose of that ship or vessel, without a special procuration from the owners: but, in case he wants money for the victualling, or other necessary provisions of the said vessel, he may, for that end, with the advice of his mariners, pawn or pledge part of the tackle or furniture of a ship. [See HYPOTHECATION.]

OBSERVATION.

The title of master is so honourable, and the command of a ship of such importance, that great care has been taken by all maritime nations, that none may be employed but honest and experienced men. By an ordinance of the admiralty in France, A. D. 1584, every master of a ship, before he took upon him that trust, was to be examined, whether he was fit for it. The Spanish naval laws require the same thing; el maestre de la nave, para serlo, ha de ser marinero y examinado. Cedula real del anno 1576. Impresa con las de India quatro toms. The ordinances and regulations of the Hans Towns do not only demand experience and capacity, but honesty and good manners. And none was to be admitted into the service of any citizen aboard his ship, without a certificate of his qualifications, as to his honesty and capacity. See their book of ordinances, book 6. art. 1.

Although the government of the ship is intrusted, he cannot sell the ship itself, nor any of her tackle or furniture, without the order or consent of the owners. However, in case of necessity, when he is in a far country, he may pawn or pledge her tackle for provisions; and if that will not do, he may borrow money on the ship's bottom, though not without the consent of his officers and seamen. According to the ordinances of Wisbuy, art. 13 and 15, and Philip II. king of Spain's ordinances in the year 1563, art. 12. Those of the Hans Towns forbid a master of a ship, notwithstanding he is part owner, not only to sell, but to do any thing, even to buy tackle or victuals, without acquainting the other owners of it, unless it be in a strange country, and in a case of necessity, well and lawfully attested, art. 3, 4, 5, & seq.

By the ordinances and customs of the sea it appears, that formerly it was not thought safe to intrust a master of a ship with the vessel and cargo, unless he was a freeman of that city, and part owner of the ship; and if he was part owner, when he had betrayed or abused his trust, the other owners might turn him out of the ship, paying him what his part of her came to, at the same price he gave for it, according to the ordinances of the Hans Towns, art. 14. And if he pretended he had sold his part to another person, for more than it was worth, the other owners might have it appraised, and take it to themselves, paying him what it was valued at by such appraisement, art. 53.

The master commonly took care of every thing belonging to the ship, from the poop to the main-mast: he was obliged to understand the art of piloting and navigation, that he might know how to controul the pilot, and mind how he steers the ship, y si el maestre no fuere piloto es obligado a uevar un marinero diestro en la navegacion, 'tel que, pueda regir la nave a falla de piloto, according to the ordinances of Spain. The mate's command reached from the stern to the mizen-mast, the latter included. It will not be thought improper by the curious to mention here the several officers of a ship, either men of war or merchantmen, as they were distinguished abroad, a century ago.

In royal navies, the first officer was the admiral; then the vice-admiral; then the captain-major, or chief of a squadron. In every man of war, the first officer was the captain, the second the pilot, who enjoyed that place in honour of the science he professed and practised; next to him was the

master, who had the charge of the tackle and furniture, and then the captain and lieutenant of the soldiers. In a merchant-man, the first officer was the master, the second the pilot, the third the mate, the fourth the factor or supercargo; then his assistant, accountants, the surgeons, the steward, four corporals, the cook, the gunner, the cockswain; the gunner and cockswain used to work before the mast, as well as the rest of the ship's crew, but their wages were more.

There is a great deal of difference between the order of precedence on board of ships now, and what was formerly: for the captain and lieutenant of the soldiers would think it very hard to give place to the pilot and master of a ship; and the factor or supercargo will as difficultly be persuaded to own the master of a vessel's superiority, except in what relates to the navigating the ship.

ARTICLE II.

If a ship or other vessel be in port, waiting for weather and a wind to depart, the master ought, when that comes, before his departure, to consult his company, and say to them; gentlemen, what think you of this wind? If any of them see that it is not settled, and advise him to stay 'till it is; and others, on the contrary, would have him make use of it as fair; he ought to follow the major part: If he does otherwise, and the vessel happens to miscarry, he shall be obliged to make good the same, according to the value upon a just appraisement.

OBSERVATION.

It is a maxim, or a general sea-law, that a master of a ship shall never sail out of a port, never weigh or drop anchor, cut masts or cable, or, indeed, do any thing of consequence, let him be in whatever danger may happen, without the advice of the major part of his company, and the merchants, if there are any aboard: he must call all together to consult. Wisbuy, art. 14. See WISBUY LAWS.

ARTICLE III.

If any vessel, through misfortune, happens to be cast away, in whatsoever place it be, the mariners shall be obliged to use their best endeavours for saving as much of the ship and lading as possibly they can: and if they preserve part thereof, the master shall allow them a reasonable consideration to carry them home to their own country; and in case they save enough to enable the master to do this, he may lawfully pledge, to some honest persons, such part thereof, as may be sufficient for that occasion. But if they have not endeavoured to save as aforesaid, then the master shall not be bound to provide for them in any thing, but ought to keep them in safe custody, until he knows the pleasure of the owners; in which he may act as becomes a prudent master; for if he does otherwise, he shall be obliged to make satisfaction.

OBSERVATION.

The ship's crew are obliged to do all that lies in their power to save things from shipwreck, and gather up what they save, on pain of losing their wages; and those that hinder or dissuade them from it, shall be severely punished. This law is very well explained by an ordinance of king Philip II. of Spain, in the year 1563. By which it is ordained, that the seamen shall be bound to save as much as they can from shipwreck; and, in such case, the master is bound to pay them their wages, and to give them a further reward for their labour out of the goods: but if the seamen refuse to do their endeavour to save the goods, they shall neither have pay nor reward. Hans Towns, ord. art. 44. Wisbuy, art. 15.

ARTICLE IV.

If a vessel departing with her lading from Bourdeaux, or any other place, happens in the course of her voyage to be rendered unfit to proceed therein, and the mariners save as much of the lading as possibly they can; if the merchants require the goods of the master, he may deliver them if he pleases, they paying the freight in proportion to the part of the voyage that is performed, and the costs of the salvage: but if the master can readily repair his vessel, he may do it; or, if he pleases, he may freight another ship to perform his voyage. And if he has promised the people who helped him to save the ship, the third, or the half part of the goods saved, for the danger they ran, the judicatures of the country should consider the pains and trouble they have been at, and reward them accordingly, without any regard to the promises made them by the parties concerned in the time of their distress.

OBSERVATION.

This law does not relate to an entire loss, but only to salvage, or rather not to shipwreck, but to the disabling of a ship, so that she cannot proceed in her voyage without refitting. In which case, the merchants may have their goods again, paying the freight, in proportion to the way the ship made. If the merchant has not money to pay the freight, and the master will not credit, the latter may take his goods in payment at the market price. Wisbuy, art. 33. The emperor Charles the fifth's ordinance, art. 40.

If the master can, in a little time, refit his vessel, and render her fit to continue her voyage; that is, if he can do it in three days time at the most, according to the Hans Town laws; or if he will himself take freight for the merchandize aboard

aboard another ship bound for the same port to which he was bound, he may do it; and, if the accident did not happen by any fault of his, the freight shall be paid him, by the Rhodian laws. Numb. 42. secundo & ultimo tomo juris Græco-Romani in fine. Wisbuy, art. 16, 37, and 55. King Philip II. of Spain's ordinance, under the head of averages, art. 30.

As for the charges of salvage, there are very great allowances made to the salvors, *Lege Rhod. Secundo tomo juris Græco-Romani, num. 45 & 47. Harmenopolus in promptuario juris, lib. 2. tit. 6.* By this law there was adjudged to the divers and salvors, the half, the third, or the tenth of the things saved, and that according to the depth of the water out of which they were fished, fifteen, eight, or one fathom; as also a tenth part for salvage on the coast, and the fifth to him that saving himself, carries and saves something with him. The promises that are extorted in danger upon this account, ought always to be regulated according to justice, with reason and proportion, without keeping to the expressions of such promises; for this there are several laws in France, and an instance of it is thus recorded. A gentleman named La Mothe, embarked at St Machaire with two horses in a boat, going for Bourdeaux; as they were in their passage, one of the horses grew furious and leaped overboard. La Mothe held him by the bridle, the horse splashed the water up in his face, and the gentleman pulling his handkerchief out of his pocket to wipe it off, at the same time pulled out a purse that had thirty pistoles in it, which fell into the water. The boatmen came, and La Mothe desired them to take notice of the place, by observing the trees and buildings that were near it, and when the tide was out, to seek after the purse; promising if they found it, to give them a pistole for their pains. The boatmen excused themselves; nevertheless, when they had put La Mothe and his horses ashore, they went to look for the pistoles when it was low water, and one of them found them where they were dropped. His companions demanded their share of them, but he who had the good fortune to find the purse would not let them have any of the gold, and there was a law-suit about dividing it, before the judge of St Machaire. Mons. La Mothe hearing of it, came thither, and put in his claim to the purse and pistoles, but the judge gave it against him. He then appealed to the senechal of Guyenne's court, but with no better success; at last he appealed to the parliament of Bourdeaux, and that court decreed, he should have his pistoles, but should pay 60 livres to the boatmen for their pains and trouble.

ARTICLE V.

If a vessel departing from one port, laden or empty, arrives at another, the mariners shall not leave the ship without the master's consent: if they do, and by that means she happens to be lost or damaged, they shall be answerable for the damage; but if the vessel be moored, and lying at anchor, with a sufficient number of men aboard to keep the decks and landing, they may go without the master's consent, if they come back in good time, otherwise they shall be liable to make satisfaction, if they have wherewithal.

OBSERVATION.

In regard to this article relating to seamen, it will not be unacceptable to the reader to observe, what other customs and ordinances we have met with concerning them.

Mariners are obliged to look carefully after every thing that relates to the preservation of the ship and goods, Wisbuy art. 47. For which reason, they ought not to go ashore and leave the vessel, without the master's or mate's permission: if they do, they are bound to answer to all the damages that happen to the ship or merchandize in their absence. Wisbuy, art. 17. The emperor Charles the Vth's ordinance in the year 1552, art. 9 and 10. Conformable to the Rhodian law, secundo tomo juris Græco-Romani, num. 20. The regulations of the Hanse-Towns, art. 40, ordain, That if any seaman goes ashore without licence, and if in his absence the ship happens to be lost for want of hands, the seaman thus absent shall be apprehended, and kept a year in prison on bread and water; and, if any one should be killed or drowned in his absence, and that be the cause of it, he shall be corporally punished. The same ordinances condemn those mariners that lie out of their ship all night, to pay all the damage that shall happen while they are absent. Those of the Hanse-Towns, art. 22 and 23. add imprisonment. Some laws forbid them to undress themselves, and the Hanse-Towns, art. 32. to lie with their wives aboard. The reason is, that they may always be ready to assist their fellows in the discharge of their duty, in the preservation of the ship and goods. The obligation of the mariner to the master, begins as soon as he is hired and terms are agreed, and ends when the voyage is finished and they are returned. The obligation of the mariner to the merchant is from the beginning of his charge, and the mariner is obliged to stow and unstow the goods according as the place they are in is commodious or not, to keep them from damaging, and promote or hinder the ship's trimming; and if by their refusing to do so, the merchandize is damaged or spoiled, they are bound to make the damage good. Wisbuy, art. 48. Philip II. art. 19. By the laws of Wisbuy, they are also bound to unlade some goods with the

shovel, and some to hand ashore, for which they are to have no extraordinary allowance; but for letting things up or down, they are by the same laws to be allowed something extraordinary, that is, above their wages. The laws are very severe against those seamen, that run away from ships after they are hired. In men of war desertion is punished with death: in merchantmen, by the Hanseatic laws, or those of the Hanse-Towns, they are to be marked in the face with a red-hot iron, that they may be known, and be infamous as long as they live. If the mariner runs away before the voyage, when he is taken he ought to refund half as much as the master was to have paid him for the whole voyage. If he hires himself to two masters, the first may demand him; and by the Hanseatics, art. 1. is not bound to pay him any wages. Provision is made for such seamen as run away, only because the master has used him ill. By the same laws, if any master entices away a mariner hired before by another, the last master shall forfeit to the first 25 livres, and the mariner half the wages he was to have had of the master that so enticed him.

That master who knowingly hires a mariner who was hired before, shall pay double the wages he was to pay the mariner, and the latter be bound to follow and serve the first master. However, a mariner may demand, and ought to have his discharge, either before or during the voyage, for these four reasons; in case he is made master or mate of another ship; if he marries, and then he is obliged to refund what he has received; if he made any proviso in his bargain for quitting the ship; if the voyage is finished, the ship disarmed, unloaded and light, the sails, tackle, and furniture, taken away and secured. See the laws of Wisbuy, art. 54 and 63. If the master gives a mariner his discharge, without any lawful cause, and for his pleasure only; in case he does it before the voyage, and while the ship is in port, he ought to pay half as much as he was to give him for the whole voyage; but if he discharges him after the ship is sailed, he ought to pay him all his wages. Wisbuy, art. 3.

By the Hanseatics, the master is to pay a third of the wages only, and not to bring it to his owner's account. He is obliged also to pay him not only all his wages, if he discharges him in his voyage, but to defray the charges of his return. If after a bargain is made between the master and mariner, if the voyage happens to be hindered by war or pirates, or any other lawful account, the mariner, according to king Philip's laws, art. 9. shall have a quarter part of the wages that were promised him for the voyage, and the master by a French law shall have half the freight.

A master may turn off a mariner if he finds he is ignorant in maritime affairs, and incapable to perform the voyage, particularly a pilot, to whom in such cases, he is not bound to pay any wages, and at his return may have him punished for his rashness, according to king Philip's and the Hanseatic laws.

If it happens, that the master finds out the pilot or mariner's ignorance when he cannot discharge them, they shall be obliged at their return to refund all the money he had advanced to them, and pay the master besides, half what he had promised: but if the pilot declares at first he is dubious, and cannot depend on his knowledge, that he is out of the way, and does not very well understand his business; if it is when he is outward-bound, he shall be paid half what was promised him, if homeward-bound, all.

If the master finds that any officer or seaman aboard his ship has any infectious distemper that is dangerous, he may put him ashore at the first place he comes to, without paying him any thing, but then he must prove it by two or three witnesses. He may also turn away any thieving mariner, or any quarrelsome or factious fellow; but as to the latter, he should have a little patience, to see if he can be brought to reason. By the Hanseatics, art. 29. and the laws of Wisbuy, art. 25.

ARTICLE VI.

If any of the mariners hired by the master of any vessel, go out of the ship without his leave, and get themselves drunk, and thereby there happens contempt to their master, debates, or fighting and quarrelling among themselves, whereby some happen to be wounded: in this case, the master shall not be obliged to get them cured, or in any thing to provide for them, but may turn them and their accomplices out of the ship; and if they make words of it, they are bound to pay the master besides: but if by the master's orders and commands, any of the ship's company be in the service of the ship, and thereby happen to be wounded or otherwise hurt, in that case they shall be cured and provided for at the costs and charges of the said ship.

OBSERVATION.

By the laws of Wisbuy, art. 18. Those mariners that are mutinous and quarrelsome, are obliged to refund all they have received, and pay besides what the master is forced to give to others whom he hires in their places above the wages he was to give them.

The laws of Charles V. art. 28. & seq. ordain certain punishments, according to the heinousness of the offences and crimes committed by seamen. If the mariners are wounded,

or any wife hurt in serving the master of the ship, they shall be cured, taken care of, and indemnified at the charge of the ship. Wisbuy, art. 18. Hanseaticques, art. 39. Charles V, art. 27 and 28. Philip II. art. 16. If the mariners are taken by corsairs in his and his ship's service, the master is bound to redeem them, and besides that, to pay them their wages during their captivity, as much as if they had all that time been in his service. This law is in the Consulat. chap. 182. If in defending himself, or fighting against an enemy or corsairs, a mariner is maimed or disabled, to serve on board a ship for the rest of his life, besides the charge of his cure, he shall be maintained as long as he lives at the cost of the ship and cargo, according to the Hanseaticques, art. 35. An instance of this follows:

In the year 1621, Giles Esteben, a citizen and merchant of Bourdeaux, loaded a vessel of 36 tons with wine for Calais, and gave the charge of the cargo to one Fiton his servant. The vessel set sail, and when she was at sea met with a Turkish rover. The corsair came up with her and took her, but did not meddle with the vessel or the wine, either because the alcoran forbids the Mahometans to drink or deal in wine, or because he held intelligence with the master of the vessel, who was a Scotchman; for he did him nor his crew any manner of hurt, but took away Fiton, and sold him in Barbary for a slave. He remained there four years and a half in great misery and poverty; at last he was redeemed by alms in the year 1625, and paid for his ransom 780 livres.

Fiton returning to Bourdeaux, found that his master Esteben was dead; however, he entered an action in an inferior court against the widow for his wages, as well for the time he was detained in slavery, as for that before his captivity, as also for the reimbursement of his ransom money, his losses and interest. The widow removed the suit to the higher courts, and from thence it came before the parliament, who decreed, that the widow should pay Fenton 1000 livres in full for his wages, redemption, expences, loss and interest.

ARTICLE VII.

If it happens that sickness seizes on any one of the mariners while in the service of the ship, the master ought to set him on shore, to provide lodging and candle-light for him, and also to spare him one of the ship's-boys, or hire a woman to attend him, and likewise to afford him such diet as is usual in the ship; that is to say, so much as he had on ship-board in his health, and nothing more, unless it please the master to allow it him, if he will have better diet, the master shall not be bound to provide it for him, unless it be at the mariner's own cost and charges; and if the vessel be ready for her departure, she ought not to stay for the said sick party: but if he recover, he ought to have his full wages, deducting only such charges as the master has been at for him. And if he dies, his wife or next a-kin shall have them.

OBSERVATION.

The 19th article of the laws of Wisbuy, the 45th of the Hanseaticques, the 27th of Charles V. and the 16th of Philip II. which he compiled for the Low-Countries, were all founded upon this law of Oleron, in what relates to a sick mariner, and agree exactly with it, both if he recovers his health, or dies in the voyage. The Spaniards have another custom in the West-India voyages: for in case a mariner falls sick, he must substitute another in his place, otherwise he loses all his wages for the time in which he could not work. By the Hanseaticques, art. 45.

If a mariner is detained ashore by sickness, the voyage ought not to be retarded on his account. By Charles the Vth's ordinances, if the mariner dies as he is outward-bound, his wife and heirs shall receive half his pay: if, as he is homeward-bound, they shall have all, deducting the charge of his funeral if there has been any.

In ships of war, the custom in some places has been more favourable to sailors; for we find in a treatise written by Francis Pyrard de Laval, intitled, *Avis pour aller aux Indes Orientales*, That if a man died the first day of the voyage, his heirs were to be paid as much as if he had completed it.

ARTICLE VIII.

If a vessel be laden to sail from Bourdeaux to Caen, or any other place, and it happens that a storm overtakes her at sea, so violent, that she cannot escape without casting some of the cargo overboard for lighting the vessel, and preserving the rest of the lading, as well as the vessel itself, then the master ought to say, Gentlemen, we must throw part of the goods overboard; and if there are no merchants to answer him, or if those that are there approve of what he says by their silence, then the master may do as he thinks fit; and if the merchants are not pleased with his throwing over any part of the merchandize and forbid him, yet the master ought not to forbear casting out so many of the goods as he shall see to be for the common good and safety; he and the third part of his mariners making oath on the holy evangelists, when they arrive at their port of discharge, that he did it only for the preservation of the vessel, and the rest of the lading that remains yet in her. And the wines, or other goods, that were cast overboard, ought to be valued, according to the just value of the other goods that arrive in safety: and

when these shall be sold, the price or value thereof ought to be divided livre à livre among the merchants.

The master may compute the damage his vessel has sustained, or reckon the freight of the goods thrown overboard at his own choice. If the master does not make it appear that he and his men did the part of able seamen, then neither he nor they shall have any thing. The mariners also ought to have one ton free, and another divided by cast of the dice, according as it shall happen, and the merchants in this case may lawfully put the master to his oath.

OBSERVATION.

Of two evils, to chuse the least is the law of nature as well as of nations; and when a ship is in danger of perishing, the lives of the seamen, and the safety of the rest of the cargo, make the throwing part of it overboard the least evil: but that the master's ignorance or fear might not hurry him to do any thing to the detriment of the merchant, without good grounds for it, he must consult the merchants, passengers, or mariners aboard his ship, and, according as the necessity of it appears to them, to throw the goods overboard. This he is warranted to do by the Rhodian law. Secundo tomo juris Græco-Romani, num. 9. and by 20th, 21st, and 38th articles of that of Wisbuy. The 20th and 38th articles provide also, That if the merchants alone are against the proposition of throwing the merchandize overboard, and the rest, who have their lives and goods also to lose consent to it, the master and third part of the seamen purging themselves as soon as they come ashore by oath, that necessity forced them to do it, and that otherwise they could not have been saved, may do it, and shall then be justified for what they did.

The master is not obliged, when he comes to this extremity, to throw his own goods overboard first. The custom of the Levant is, the passenger or merchant first flings out something of his own. Philip the II'd's ordinances, under the title of Averages, require, That the ship's utensils should be first thrown overboard; such as old cables, fire-wood, anchors, and guns, which weigh heavy, and are not of the greatest service; then the chests belonging to the ship's crew, as being of the least value. All those things which are thrown overboard come into an average, except those that belong to the sovereign. See AVERAGE.

By the 38th article of the laws of Wisbuy, the clerk of the ship ought to register all the goods that are thrown overboard; and if there is no clerk aboard, it is convenient for the mariners to make attestation of them at the first port they come to. By the Rhodian laws, the goods that are damaged by the storm come into an Average. By the same laws, if the master by overloading his ship, is the occasion of the goods being thrown overboard, he shall make good the damage. The laws of Wisbuy, art. 46. except in this case those goods, which were so laden with the consent of the merchant. See RHODIAN LAWS, and WISBUY LAWS.

If the master has let out more freight than he has stowage for, he must not therefore overload his own ship, but by the Consulate is bound to find freight for them in another. If the merchants, passengers, or mariners, have any plate or other precious goods in their chests or cabinets, they ought to inform the master and clerk of it, otherwise their chests will not be liable to any average, for any thing more than what is known to be within them.

Persons never are reckoned in an average, but all sorts of goods whatsoever. Victuals belonging to the ship are exempted from the laws for throwing goods overboard, and privileged from paying contributions in averages. Seamen's wages are not liable to averages. By the Hanseaticques, art. 28. these wages ought to be paid by three payments, a third part before the ship goes out of the port, a third part when she's unladen, and a third part at her return.

By the Rhodian law, the sailors ought to have a ton freight free from contributions in average, when goods are thrown overboard. To explain this it will be necessary to observe, that sailors were used to hire themselves out for a voyage for several considerations: some had a certain sum of money for the whole voyage, or so much a month, or so much a day; others hired themselves for such a proportion of the freight, or a liberty to load so much goods aboard, or let out so much freight to others: but the most common way, and the best of hiring themselves, was for part in wages, and part in freight, either for themselves or to let out. Those seamen who had wages only, contributed nothing to the average for goods thrown overboard. Those who had goods contributed, unless those goods were bought with their wages, and they had only one ton exempted. The merchants who hired their freight of them, had the same privilege by it as themselves.

Having had occasion to make mention of livre à livre, an explanation of it will not be unacceptable to the reader. The civilians considered every thing as an whole; as for example, an inheritance composed of several parts, makes together one whole or mass, of whatever importance it may be, great or small, as if the whole of this inheritance made one livre, one pound, as hereditatis. This pound divided into twelve equal parts, is named ounces. The merchants and masters of ships, in case of averages for goods thrown overboard or

damned

damnified in storms, have the same view ; that is, they consider the ship and cargo together as one pound, and the goods lost or damnified as another ; so that he who had a tenth in the pound of the cargo, a fifteenth or any other share, must carry a tenth, a fifteenth or any other share to the pound of the average ; and this proportion of one pound to another, is what is called by the French naval laws, *livre à livre*, pound to pound.

ARTICLE IX.

If it happen, that by reason of much foul weather the master is like to be constrained to cut his masts, he ought first to call the merchants, if there be any aboard the ship, and such as have goods and merchandize in the vessel, and to consult them, saying, Sirs, It is requisite to cut down the masts to save the ship and lading, it being in this case my duty. And frequently they also cut their mooring cables, leaving behind them their cables and anchors to save the ship and her lading. All which things are reckoned and computed *livre by livre*, as the goods are that were cast overboard. And when the vessel arrives in safety at her port of discharge, the merchants ought to pay the master their shares or proportions without delay, or sell or pawn the goods, and employ the money he raises to satisfy by it the same, before the said goods be unladen out of the said ship: but if he lets them go, and there happens controversies and debates touching the premises, if the master observes collusion therein, he ought not to suffer, but is to have his complete freight, as well for what goods were thrown overboard, as for what he brought home.

OBSERVATION.

No merchant is obliged to pay average for goods thrown overboard, unless the master can prove he did it for the safety of his own and his mens lives, and the preservation of the ship and the rest of her cargo. What loss happens by accidents, breaking the masts, or burning the sails, or pirates taking part of the goods, shall not come into the common average. By the Rhodian laws, every merchant shall bear his own loss, and the master shall do the same. See also the 12th article of the laws of Wisbuy. Averages are by that to be paid for damages done within the ship, and not for those without ; therefore the master and mariners are obliged to purge themselves by oath, how the damage came, in the first court of admiralty they come to, and that it was done in very great necessity. Indeed, if pirates take the ship and cargo entire, and both are redeemed for a sum of money, the average for that shall be common, and all the concerned shall pay contribution. If the merchants and passengers aboard the ship, desire the master to put into any port out of his way for fear of pirates, and in going out of that port he loses anchors or cables, those who desired him to put in there shall pay for them, and the ship ought not to pay any thing towards that loss. After a general shipwreck, there is no average or common contribution, but save who save can, as is vulgarly said on this occasion. If any goods that were thrown overboard in a storm, to lighten the ship, happen to be recovered, the owner of them ought to restore what he had recovered for damages by average to those that paid him, deducting for the loss he may be at by his merchandizes being damnified. The Rhodian law enjoins this.

ARTICLE X.

The master of a ship, when he lets her out to freight to the merchants, ought to shew them his cordage, ropes and slings, with which the goods are to be hoisted aboard or ashore : and if they find they need mending, he ought to mend them ; for if a pipe, hoghead, or other vessel, should happen, by default of such cordage, or slings, to be spoiled or lost, the master and mariners ought to make satisfaction for the same to the merchants. So also if the ropes or slings break, the master not shewing them before-hand to the merchants, he is obliged to make good the damage : but if the merchants say the cordage, ropes, or slings, are good and sufficient, and notwithstanding it happens that they break, in case that they ought to divide the damage between them ; that is to say, the merchant to whom such goods belong, and the said master with his mariners.

OBSERVATION.

By the 12th article of the laws of Wisbuy, and the 7th of king Philip's, The master when he lets his ship out to freight, is bound to shew her to the merchant or their agents. The consulate requires the same, and that the master should let the merchants visit not only the ropes, but all the ship above decks and below, that they may see what is wanting, and have it mended ; and if it is not mended, and the merchandize is damnified, the master shall make good the loss. The 49th article of the laws of Wisbuy, enjoins the mariners to give the master notice of the faults and defects in the cordage ; otherwise they shall be responsible for all accidents that may happen : and if after such notice given, the master does not take care to have them mended, he shall answer the damage out of his own pocket. The Rhodian laws, *secundo tomo juris Græco-Romani*, num. 11. wills and ordains, That the merchant who leads a

ship, shall inform himself exactly of every thing, diligenter interrogare debent mercatores qui prius in ea navi navigaverunt. The law says, he should enquire of those that have failed in her before ; but that is of little use, except as to her failing, for ships grow daily more and more out of repair, and should be always viewed by the person that is going to be concerned in them, without trusting to the information of others.

ARTICLE XI.

If a vessel being laden at Bourdeaux with wines, or other goods, hoists sail to carry them to some other port, and the master does not do his duty as he ought, nor the mariners handle their sails, and it happens that ill weather overtakes them at sea, so that the main-yard shakes or strikes out the head of one of the pipes or hogheads of wine, this vessel being safely arrived at her port of discharge, if the merchant alleges, that by reason of the main-yard his wine was lost, and the master denies it, in this case the master and his mariners ought to make oath (whether it be four or six of them, such as the merchant hath no exception against) that the wine perished not by the main-yard, nor through any default of theirs, as the merchants charge them, they ought then to be acquitted thereof ; but if they refuse to make oath to the effect aforesaid, they shall be obliged to make satisfaction for the same, because they ought to have ordered their sails aright before they departed from the port, where they took in their lading.

OBSERVATION.

This article is explained by the 23d of the laws of Wisbuy, which ordains, That if the cargo is ill stowed and the ship ill trimmed, and the mariners do not manage their sails rightly, and any damage happens by it to the ship or goods, they shall be responsible for the damages as far as they have wherewithal to do it. There were formerly in several ports of Guyenne certain officers called *arrameurs*, or stowers, who were master carpenters by profession, and were paid by the merchants, who loaded the ship. Their business was to dispose right and stow closely all goods in casks, bales, boxes, bundles, or otherwise ; to ballance both sides, to fill up the vacant spaces, and manage every thing to the best advantage. It was not but that the greatest part of the ship's crew understood this as well as these stowers, but they would not meddle with it, nor undertake it, to avoid falling under the merchant's displeasure, or being accountable for any ill accident that might happen by that means. There were also *sacquier*s, who were very ancient officers, as may be seen in the 14th book of the Theodosian Code, *Unica de sacchariis portus Romæ*, lib. 14. Their business was to load and unload vessels laden with salt, corn, or fish, to prevent the ship's crew defrauding the merchant by false tale, or cheating him of his merchandize otherwise.

ARTICLE XII.

A master having hired his mariners, ought to keep the peace betwixt them, and to be as their judge at sea ; so that if there be any any of them that give another the lie, whilst they have wine and bread on the table, he ought to pay four deniers ; and if the master himself gives any the lie, he ought to pay eight deniers ; and if any of the mariners impudently contradict the master, he also ought to pay eight deniers ; and if the master strikes any of the mariners, he ought to bear with the stroke, be it with the fist or open hand ; but if the master strikes him more than one blow, the mariner may defend himself : and if the said mariner doth first assault the master, he ought to pay five sols, or lose his hand.

OBSERVATION.

This law restrains the correction of the master to one blow with his fist, which the mariner ought to bear, and no more. The Consulate, chap. 16. explains how far the mariner is bound to suffer the master's assaulting him, in these terms ; the mariner is obliged to obey the master, though he should call him ill names, and is enraged against him, he ought to keep out of his sight, or hide himself in the prow of the ship ; if the master follows him he ought to fly to some other place from him ; and if he still follows him, then the mariner may stand upon his defence, demanding witnesses how he was pursued by the master, for the master ought not to pass into the prow after him.

The 24th article of the laws of Wisbuy punishes the giving the lie. The same article is very severe against the mariner that strikes the master. The mariner that strikes, or lifts up arms against his master, was to lose half his hand in a very painful way. If the mariner has committed a crime too great for the master's authority to punish, then the master and his officers ought to seize the criminal, put him in irons, and bring him to justice at his return.

ARTICLE XIII.

If a difference happens between the master of a ship and one of his mariners, the master ought to deny him his mess thrice,

before he turn him out of the ship, or discharge him thereof; but if the said mariner offer in the presence of the rest of the mariners to make the master satisfaction, and the master be resolved to accept of no satisfaction from him, but to put him out of the ship, in such case the said mariner may follow the said vessel to her port of discharge, and ought to have as good hire or wages, as if he had come in the ship, or as if he had made satisfaction for his fault in the sight and presence of the ship's company; and if the master take not another mariner into the ship in his stead, as able as the other, and the ship or lading happens thereby to be through any misfortune damaged, the master shall be obliged to make good the same if he hath wherewithal.

OBSERVATION.

To deny him his mess is in the original, *Ostar la touaille*, an old Gascon phrase, which signifies to deny him the table-cloths or victuals for three meals, by which is understood a day and a half. The *Wisbuy* law, art. 25. provides for the master's making satisfaction for the damages that may happen through the want of the mariner he turns off. And the *Hanseaticques*, art. 27, require the master not to give the seamen any cause to mutiny; not to provoke them, call them names, wrong them, nor keep any thing from them that is theirs, but to use them well, and pay them honestly what is their due. Some French laws ordain, That no mariner should be admitted under 18 years, nor above 50. The choice of the crew is entirely in the master; the reason is, that he ought to be himself very well assured of his seamen's ability, and not to take it upon trust by report of others.

ARTICLE XIV.

If a vessel being moored lying at anchor, be struck or grappled with another vessel under sail that is not very well steered, whereby the vessel at anchor is prejudiced, as also wines, or other merchandize in each of the said ships damaged. In this case the whole damage shall be in common, and be equally divided and appraised half by half; and the master and mariners of the vessel that struck or grappled with the other, shall be bound to swear on the holy evangelists, that they did it not willingly or wilfully. The reason why this judgment was first given, being that an old decayed vessel might not purposely be put in the way of a better, which will the rather be prevented when they know that the damage must be divided.

OBSERVATION.

This law agrees exactly with the 26th, 50th, 67th, and 70th, articles of the ordinances of *Wisbuy*. The dividing the loss in halves is, to prevent any cheat; for an old vessel that is worth little or nothing, might else be put in a new one's way: and if she runs against her, more damage be pretended than the old ship might fairly be valued at.

ARTICLE XV.

Suppose two or more vessels in a harbour where there is but little water, so that the anchor of one of the vessels lies dry, the master of the other vessel ought in that case, to say unto him whose anchor lies dry, Master, take up your anchor, for it is too nigh us, and may do us a prejudice: if neither the said master nor his mariners will take up the said anchor accordingly, then may that other master and his mariners (who might be otherwise thereby damaged) take up the said anchor and let it down at a further distance from them; and if the others oppose or withstand the taking up of their anchor, and there afterwards happens damage thereby, they shall be bound to give full satisfaction for the same; but if they put out a buoy or anchor-mark, and the anchor does any damage, the master and mariners to whom it belongs are not bound to make it good; if they do not, they are; for all masters and mariners ought to fasten such buoys or anchor-mark, and such cables to their anchors, as may plainly appear and be seen at full sea.

OBSERVATION.

The 28th and 51st articles of the ordinances of *Wisbuy*, require masters to put out buoys, to warn others where their anchors lie, on pain of making satisfaction for whatever damage may happen for want of them: for anchors hid under water may do a great deal of mischief at ebb and low water. If any master spies them, and they lie near him, he may remove them, and prevent any damage coming to his ship. *Harmenopolus* in *promptuario titulo de rebus nauticis*, licet in discrimen adductis, qui se aliter explicare non possunt, alius navis anchoras salutis suae causa praecidere. The buoys that are made use of, are either empty barrels, or pieces of the trunk of a tree, or any other light wood, with baskets that swim on the top of the water, and shew where the anchors lie.

ARTICLE XVI.

When a ship arrives with her lading at Bourdeaux or elsewhere, the master is bound to say to his company, when she is ready to load again, Gentlemen, will you freight your own share yourselves, or be allowed for it in proportion with the ship's general freight: the mariners are bound to answer one or the other. If they take as the freight of the ship shall happen, they shall have proportionably as the ship hath; and, if they will freight by themselves, they ought to freight so as the ship be not impeded or hindered thereby: and, if it so happen, that they cannot let out their freight, or get goods themselves, when he has tendered them their share and stowage, the master is blameless; and if they will there lade a ton of water, instead of so much wine, they may: and, in case there should happen at sea an ejection, or casting of goods overboard, the case shall be the same for a ton of water as for a ton of wine, or other goods, livre by livre. If they let out their proportion of freight to merchants, what freedom and immunity the said mariners have, the said merchants shall also have.

OBSERVATION.

This article has some relation to the 8th, which treats of mariners wages, and their freight aboard. The 30th article of the laws of *Wisbuy* is founded upon it. By the seamen's immunity is meant, the privilege of being the last to be thrown overboard in a storm, and having a ton free from all average. The mariners freight should be first full, for the master is not obliged to stay for them when his cargo is all aboard.

The reasons given by our author, why, in case of throwing overboard, the mariners ton of water shall come in equally in the average, livre à livre, for a ton of wine, are, a mariner may make what use he pleases of his stowage, because he takes it as part of his pay: besides, in such case, the water he has aboard lightens the ship as much as if it was wine; and the mariner, by throwing over his water, which by his privilege he may refuse to do, not only helps to save the ship and cargo, but to save the latter the more entire: for, if any thing the merchant had aboard of more value than wine, stood before his ton of water, it must have gone first, and his throwing his water overboard being so much for the common interest of the ship and cargo, he is allowed to come in upon an average, as if it had been a ton of wine. How far this law of Oleron prevails in our maritime courts now, the civilians must determine; but, by the common law of England, a ton of water would never be rated livre à livre, pound by pound, with a ton of wine.

ARTICLE XVII.

The mariners of Britany ought to have but one meal a day from the kitchen, because they have beverage going and coming; but those of Normandy are to have two meals a day, because they have only water at the ship's allowance; and, when the ship arrives in a wine country, there the master shall procure them wine to drink.

OBSERVATION.

The custom of giving every man a certain allowance is very ancient; and, to prevent jealousies, complaints, and disorders, that allowance is settled at so much a head, and exactly delivered out to all alike. As to the allowance of wine and meals by this article, the 29th of the ordinances of *Wisbuy* agrees with it. In those voyages where wine is to be had, the master is bound to provide it for the mariners, and then they shall have but one meal a day: but, when they drink water only, they shall have two meals, Charles V. and Philip II's laws ordain, That the master shall order the mariners to have three certain meals a day; and, if they would have more meat, they shall only have what was left at their meals, unless upon extraordinary occasions. By the 52d article of the *Hanseaticques*, the master of German ships bound for France and Spain are not to provide victuals for their mariners when they are outward bound; but, when they are homeward bound, if the ship is let out to freight and loaden, the masters are obliged to maintain their mariners; if they return light and empty, they are not obliged. The Portuguese, in their East-India voyages, maintain both mariners and soldiers outward-bound, and allow each a pound and a half of biscuit, three pints of wine, and three pints of water a day, and 31 pounds of salt fish a month, some dry fish, garlick and onions: but, in their homeward-bound voyages, they have only biscuits and water to the Cape of Good Hope, and, after that, they live every man on his own provision.

Facilis descensus ad Indos:
Sed revocare gradum, veteremque evadere ad orbem,
Hoc opus, hic labor est.

OLE

In cases of necessity, when provisions fall short, those that have victuals aboard ought to communicate to those that have not, by the Rhodian law.

ARTICLE XVIII.

When a vessel is unladen, and the mariners demand their freight, some of them having neither bed, chest, nor trunk aboard, the master may lawfully retain part of their wages, 'till they have brought back the ship to the port from whence she came, unless they give good security to serve out the whole voyage.

OBSERVATION.

The 31st article of the ordinances of Wisbuy agrees exactly with this. The seamen's wages are not regularly due, 'till after their work is intirely done, or the time they hired themselves for expired, except there are any private agreements to the contrary. The 28th article of the Hanseaticques ordains, that their wages should be paid at three several payments; one third when they set sail upon a voyage, one third when they arrive at their port of discharge, and the other third when the ship is returned home.

ARTICLE XIX.

If the master hires the mariners in the town to which the vessel belongs, either for so much a day, week, or month, or for such share of the freight, and it happens that the ship cannot procure freight in those parts where she is arrived, but must sail further to obtain it: in such case, those that were hired for a share of the freight ought to follow the master, and such as are at wages ought to have their wages advanced course by course, that is, in proportion to the length of the voyage, in what it was longer than they agreed for, because he hired them to one certain place; and, if they go not so far as that place for which the contract was made, yet they ought to have the whole promised hire, as if they had gone thither; but they ought likewise to bring back the vessel to the place from whence she at first departed.

OBSERVATION.

This article is explained by the 8th and 16th, and what is said upon them. The 32d of the laws of Wisbuy, the 12th and 13th of Charles V, and the 24th of the Hanseaticques, are to the same purpose. By the 9th article of Philip II's laws, if the voyage is broken off by wars, pirates, or the command of the sovereign, the seamen ought to have a quarter part of the wages they agreed to have if they had completed it. In the year 1626, about October, all the English ships that were then in the river of Bourdeaux were stopped, by order of Monsieur de Luxemburgh, governor of Blaye. Several of these ships were laden with wine, and some with other merchandize. They were forced to return to Bourdeaux and unload; after which the masters demanded the whole freight of the merchants who had freighted them, by virtue of the law *Colonus §. novem conduxit. D. locati*, inasmuch as it was not their faults that they did not make their voyage, and carry the goods to their intended port: the freight was then 15 or 16 livres a ton: the admiralty-court adjudged them a quarter part of it: they appealed to the sovereign court, who, after two hearings, set aside their appeal.

ARTICLE XX.

When a vessel arrives at Bourdeaux, or any other place, two of the mariners at a time may go a-shore, and take with them one meal of such victuals as are in the ship therein cut and provided, as also bread proportionably, as much as they eat at once, but no drink: and they ought very speedily, and in season, to return to their vessel, that thereby the master may not lose his tide; for if so, and damage comes thereby, they are bound to make satisfaction; or, if any of their company be hurt for want of their help, they are to be at such charge for his recovery as one of his fellow mariners, or the master, with those of his table, shall judge convenient.

OBSERVATION.

The reason of this law ceases now for Bourdeaux, for which place it was originally intended: for the river is so full of eating houses and taverns on both sides, that it is not likely sailors will carry any of their salt provisions on shore, when they can get fresh.

ARTICLE XXI.

If a master freight his ship to a merchant, and set him a certain time within which he shall lade his vessel, that she may be ready to depart at the time appointed, and he lade it not within the time, but keep the master and mariners for the space of eight days, or a fortnight, or more, beyond the time

OLE

agreed on, whereby the master loses the opportunity of a fair wind to depart: the said merchant, in this case, shall be obliged to make the master satisfaction for such delay, the fourth part whereof is to go among the mariners, and the other three-fourths to the master, because he finds them their provision.

OBSERVATION.

The 34th article of the ordinances of Wisbuy, and the 39th of the emperor Charles V, are intirely agreeable to this law. By the laws of the Hanseaticques, and Philip II's, the merchant is obliged to pay the whole freight, if he does not load the ship in 15 days after the time agreed upon; and, by the Theodosian Code de *Naviculariis*, when a vessel arrives in a port laden, the merchant to whom the cargo belongs must unload in 10 days; but in our times, on account of holy-days and Sundays, the common time for unloading a ship is 15 days; but that should not hinder the paying the freight, which ought to be cleared in eight days, whether the ship be discharged or not. The master for his pay cannot detain the merchandize aboard; but, when they are in the boat or lighter, he may stop them 'till he is satisfied.

ARTICLE XXII.

When a merchant freights a vessel at his own charge, and sets her to sea, and the said vessel enters into an harbour, where she is wind-bound, so that she stays 'till her monies be all spent, the master, in that case, ought speedily to write home to his own country for money, but ought not to lose his voyage on that account; for, if so, he shall be obliged to make good to the merchant all damages that shall ensue. But the master may take part of the wines, or other merchants goods, and dispose thereof for his present necessities: and, when the said vessel shall be arrived at her port of discharge, the said wines that the master hath so disposed of, ought to be valued and appraised at the same rate as the other wines shall be commonly sold for, and accordingly be accounted for to the merchant: and the master ought to have the freight of such wines as he hath so taken and disposed of for the use and reason aforesaid.

OBSERVATION.

The 35th and 69th articles of the laws of Wisbuy are to the same purport as this; but, by the 68th article of those laws, if the ship happens afterwards to be cast away, the master shall pay the merchant for the wines, or other goods he sold in a case of necessity, without pretending to deduct any thing for the freight. The Hanseaticques forbid any master to borrow any money on any other security but the ship's bottom, that, if she should be lost, the debt might be paid; nor do they allow him, when he is at home, to borrow any thing on her bottom, or otherwise, without acquainting the owners with it. By the 45th article of the laws of Wisbuy, the ship is bound to the merchant whose goods the master has sold in this manner, to make him satisfaction, though she should be herself sold, and have other owners.

ARTICLE XXIII.

If a pilot undertakes the conduct of a vessel, to bring her to St Malo, or any other port, and fail of his duty therein, so as the vessel miscarry by reason of his ignorance in what he undertook, and the merchants sustain damage thereby, he shall be obliged to make full satisfaction for the same, if he hath wherewithal; and, if not, lose his head.

ARTICLE XXIV.

And if the master, or any of his mariners, or any one of the merchants, cut off his head, they shall not be bound to answer for it; but, before they do it, they must be sure he had not wherewith to make satisfaction.

OBSERVATIONS on the two foregoing articles.

The original calls these pilots lockmen; for, when those laws were written, there were officers aboard all ships, called pilots, who went the whole voyage, whereas the lockmen were like our pilots, mariners hired at every river, to guide the ship; for, dwelling on the place, the lockman was supposed to know the shore better than the ship's pilot, who perhaps was never there before; for which reason he commonly required the master to have a lockman, to avoid rocks, shelves, shoals, and sands, which he must be well acquainted with by long using the river. That of Roan is very dangerous on this account, and there are sworn pilots every two leagues, to guide ships up the Seine: they are very necessary all over Britany. The 44th and 59th articles of the ordinances of Wisbuy oblige the master to take a new pilot, if his own and the ship's crew demand one of him. The master finds him maintenance, and the merchant pays him, by the 60th article of the ordinances of Wisbuy. The loss of the pilot's head,

head, if through his ignorance or negligence the ship is lost, is taken from the Consulate, chap. 250, and answers to that known maxim in the law, *Qui non habet in ære, luet in corpore*.

A R T I C L E XXV.

If a ship, or other vessel, arriving at any place, and making in towards a port or harbour, set out her flag, or give any other sign to have a pilot come aboard, or a boat to tow her into harbour, the wind or tide being contrary, and contract be made for piloting the said vessel into the said harbour accordingly, but, because of an unreasonable and accursed custom in some places, that the third or fourth part of the ships that are lost shall accrue to the lord of the place where such sad casualties happen, as also the like proportion to the salvors, and only the remainder to the master, merchant, and mariners: the persons contracting for the pilotage of the said vessel, in order to ingratiate themselves with their lords, and to gain to themselves a part of the ship and lading, do, like faithless and treacherous villains, sometimes even willingly, and out of design to ruin ships and goods, guide and bring her upon the rocks, and then feigning to aid, help, and assist the now-distressed mariners, are the first in dismembering and pulling the ship to pieces, purloining and carrying away the lading thereof, contrary to all reason and good conscience: and afterwards, that they may be the more welcome to their lord, do with all speed post to his house with the sad narrative of this unhappy disaster; whereupon the said lord, with his retinue, appearing at the place, takes his share; the salvors theirs; and what remains the merchants and mariners may have. But seeing this is contrary to the law of God, our edict and determination is, that, notwithstanding any law or custom to the contrary, it is said and ordained, The said lord of that place, salvors, and all others that take away any of the said goods, shall be accursed and excommunicated, and punished as robbers and thieves, as formerly hath been declared: but all false and treacherous pilots shall be condemned to suffer a most rigorous and unmerciful death, and high gibbets shall be erected for them in the same place, or as high as conveniently may be, where they so guided and brought any ship or vessel to ruin as aforesaid, and thereon these accursed pilots are with ignominy and much shame to end their days: which said gibbets are to abide and remain to succeeding ages on that place, as a visible caution to other ships that shall afterwards sail thereby.

A R T I C L E XXVI.

If the lord of any place be so barbarous as not only to permit such inhuman people, but also to maintain and assist them in such villainies, that he may have a share in such wrecks, the said lord shall be apprehended, and all his goods confiscated and sold, in order to make restitution to such as of right it appertaineth, and himself to be fastened to a post, or stake, in the midst of his own mansion house, which being fired at the four corners, all shall be burned together, the walls thereof shall be demolished, the stones pulled down, and the place converted into a market-place for the sale only of hogs and swine to all posterity.

OBSERVATIONS on the two foregoing articles.

These two laws were made upon account of that inhuman droit de bris sur les naufrages, the right of lords of coasts to shipwrecks; by which those miserable wretches who were cast away, their very persons, and the goods that were saved, were confiscated for the prince who was lord of the coast. In the barbarous times men used to put this law in practice, especially the Gauls, who took all strangers for their enemies, and not only robbed them of their goods, but of their lives, sacrificing them to their false gods. From which bloody custom Hercules brought them off, according to Diodorus Siculus, lib. v. Hist. cap. 2. Pomponius Mela, lib. iii. de situ orbis, cap. 2. The Romans, though they were covetous to excess, and greedy after other men's goods, never approved of this cruelty, but condemned and abrogated the use of it to the utmost of their power, *toto titulo de incendio, ruina & naufragio. Et de naufragiis, libro undecimo. Codicis, leg. 1. & leg. 9.* But the empire degenerating in its decadency, when so many barbarous nations poured in upon it out of Scythia and Scandinavia, and tore it to pieces, this wicked droit de bris sur les naufrages was renewed, particularly on the coasts of Gaul, called Littus Saxonicum, on account of the frequent invasions of the Saxons there. Sidonius Appollinaris, lib. viii. epist. 6. & carmine septimo. Afterwards the Normans being by chance thrown upon that coast, were immediately dispatched by the inhabitants; and, in course of time, this pretended right insinuated itself, and prevailed not only against enemies and invaders, but against any persons that were shipwrecked. *Quicquid evadebat ex naufragiis totum sibi fiscus lege patriæ vindicabat, passosque naufragium miserabilis violentia principis spoliabat quam procella,* as says Hildebertus Turonensis archiepisc. epist. 32 & 65.

At last the counts and dukes of Armoreck, Bretagne, and Gaul, were obliged by civility, and the request of the neighbouring people of Bourdeaux and Rochelle, to change this barbarous custom of slavery and confiscation into a tax for all such as procured licences from them; of which licences there were three sorts, bres de sauvette, bres de conduite, and bres de victualle: the two first were to save them, in case of shipwreck, from the old forfeitures to the lord, and exempt them from the cruel droit de bris. The third was for liberty to buy provisions in Bretagne. The dukes of Bretagne established an office and officers for giving out these licences, as at Rochelle and other places. The droit de bris was also practised in Guienne, Saintonge, Artois, and Poictou, but much more civilly and humanely than it was used in Bretagne; for the lords of the coasts took only a third or a quarter part, according to the several customs; the salvors as much, and the rest was restored to the poor wretches that were shipwrecked, and their persons were free.

This barbarity is abolished in England, Italy, Germany, Spain, and France, unless it be practised against the enemies of the state, infidels, or pirates: but the Spaniards observe this custom beyond the Line against all but natural Spaniards. This droit de bris, which was not, however, so cruelly executed in Guienne as in Bretagne, was solemnly abrogated by Henry III. king of England, and duke of Aquitaine and Guienne: his edict to this purpose is registered and preserved among the rolls at Bourdeaux.

As to that part of these laws requiring traitorous pilots to be hanged on the shore, in some eminent place, to be a warning to all mariners, Andronicus, emperor of Greece, who reigned about the year 1150, ordered the same, or the like punishment, for such as made spoil of wrecks, as Nicetas reports, in the second book of his Annals. The lord Verulam, in his History of Henry VII. writes, that it was heretofore the custom in England to leave the dead bodies of pirates on gibbets near the water-side, for a warning to seafaring men.

The hanging such as are condemned for crimes committed at sea by the water-side, and some of the most criminal in chains, has been practised since in this kingdom. Those malicious fishermen who in the night make fires in dangerous places, to attract mariners thither, to the loss of their ships, by making them believe they are near ports and inhabited places, deserve the same punishment.

The word in the French which is rendered caution in English, is belise, properly a beacon; but in this place it is used metaphorically: for a gibbet would be an odd sort of beacon in our language. There are several sorts of these belises, or beacons at sea, set up to direct mariners to the right course they ought to take to avoid danger. These are very necessary in those parts where there are bars, that is entrances, where there must be high tides to carry ships over them. Sometimes buoys are made use of for belises, and sometimes trees, light-houses, and other things.

The burning the criminals houses mentioned in these two articles, and all that is in it, shews what an opinion the legislature had of the heinousness of the crime. Coiners were in France burned in old times, and their false money with them; their buildings were levelled with the ground, their woods felled and rooted up, and the places that belonged to them condemned and strewed with salt, as was the town of Poitiers in the reign of king Dagobert.

A R T I C L E XXVII.

A vessel being arrived at her port of discharge, and halled up there into dry ground, so as the mariners, deeming her to be in good safety, do take down her sails, and so fit the vessels aloof and aft, the master then ought to consider an increase of their wages, kenning by kenning; and if in hoisting up of wines, it happens that they leave open any of the pipes, or other vessels, or that they fasten not the ropes well at the ends of the vessel, by reason whereof it slips and falls, and so is lost, and falling on another both are lost, in these cases the master and mariners shall be bound to make them good to the merchants, and the merchants must pay the freight of the said damaged or lost wines, because they are to receive for them from the master and mariners, according to the value that the rest of the wines are sold for; and the owners of the ship ought not to suffer hereby, because the damage happened by default of the master and mariners, in not making fast the vessels or pipes of wine.

OBSERVATION.

Kenning by kenning, *veu par veu*, is a phrase used by mariners, as is also *course by course*, in the 19th article of these laws. These phrases are very ancient, and kenning was particularly used when navigation was performed by views, and by observation on the land from one prospect to another, Plin. lib. vi. cap. 13. which was before the invention or knowledge of the use of the compass. It signifies what the logicians, or metaphysicians, called agreement, the arithmeticians and geometricians proportion, and others express otherwise.

ARTICLE XXVIII.

If two vessels go on a fishing design in partnership, as for mackerel, herrings, or the like, and do set their nets, or lay their lines, at Olonne, St Gilles, Survie, or elsewhere, the one of the vessels ought to employ as many fishing-engines as the other, and so shall go in equal shares as to the gain, according to the agreement between them made. And if it happens that one of the said vessels, with her fishing instruments, engines, and crew, perish, and the other escaping, arrives in safety: if the surviving friends of those that perished, require of the other to have their part of the gain, as also of their fish, fishing-instruments, and boat, they are to have, upon the oaths of those that escape, their part of the fish and fishing instruments; but they shall not have any part or share in the vessel itself.

ARTICLE XXIX.

If any ship, or other vessel sailing to and fro, and coasting the seas, as well in the way of merchandizing as upon the fishing account, happen by some misfortune, through the violence of the weather, to strike herself against the rocks, whereby she becomes so bruised and broken that there she perishes, upon what coasts, country, or dominion soever, and the master, mariners, merchant, or merchants, or any one of these escape, and come safe to land; in this case, the lord of that place or country where such misfortune shall happen, ought not to let, hinder, or oppose such as have so escaped, or such to whom the said ship or vessel, and her lading belong, in using their utmost endeavours for the preservation of as much thereof as may possibly be saved; but, on the contrary, the lord of that place or country, by his own interest, and by those under his power and jurisdiction, ought to be aiding and assisting to the said distressed merchants or mariners, in saving their shipwrecked goods, and that without the least embezzlement, or taking any part thereof from the right owners.

But, however, there may be a renunciation, or consideration, for salvage to such as take pains therein, according to right reason, a good conscience, and as justice shall appoint; notwithstanding what promises may in that case have been made to the salvors, by such distressed merchants and mariners, as is declared in the 4th article of these laws: and, in case any shall act contrary hereunto, or take any part of the said goods from the said poor, distressed, ruined, undone, shipwrecked persons, against their wills, and without their consent, they shall be declared to be excommunicated by the church, and ought to receive the punishment of thieves, except speedy restitution be made by them: nor is there any custom or statute whatsoever that can protect them against the aforesaid penalties, as is said in the 26th article of these laws.

OBSERVATION on the two foregoing articles.

The civil law almost every where allows all shipwrecked persons a right to gather up their shipwrecked goods. The Codex and the Rhodian laws are particular in this matter, so is king Henry III's charter beforementioned.

ARTICLE XXX.

If a ship, or other vessel entering into harbour, happens by misfortune to be broken and perish, and the master, mariners, and merchants which were on board her, be all drowned, and if the goods thereof be driven ashore, or remain floating on the sea, without being sought after by those to whom they belong, they being ignorant of this sad disaster, and knowing nothing thereof: in this most lamentable case, the lord of that place or country ought to send persons to save the said goods, which he ought to secure and to put into safe custody, and give the relations of the deceased persons who were drowned notice of it, and to satisfy for the salvage thereof, not out of his own purse, but of the goods saved, according to the hazards run, and the pains taken therein; and what remains must be kept in safe custody for one year or more; and if, in that time, they to whom the said goods appertain do not appear and claim the same, and the said year be fully expired, he may publickly sell and dispose thereof, to such as will give most, and with the monies proceeding from the sale thereof he ought to give among the poor, and for portions to poor maids, and other charitable uses, according to reason and good conscience. But if he assumes the said goods, either in whole or in part unto himself, he shall incur the curse and malediction of our mother the holy church, with the aforesaid pains and penalties, without ever obtaining remission, unless he make satisfaction.

OBSERVATION.

The keeping such goods a year is in the civil law, 1, 2 Cod. Naufragiis: but the parliament of Paris, in the year 1584, pretended to reduce the time to two months, which time was to commence from the day of proclaiming such goods in pub-

lic market, and fixing a placart of it on the doors of the parish-church. The consulate provides for the salvors more largely, allowing them half of the goods saved, and the lord and the poor the other half, cap. 252. By some laws in France, as long as the goods are in being and unalienated, the merchant to whom they belong has a claim to them, paying the charge of salvage: but if, after a lawful time, they are sold, and become another's property, he has no claim to them. The casuists are of opinion, That, if he who finds them is rich, he ought to give all to pious uses; if poor, to keep all himself, Hostiensis in summa de poenitentia; and the 36th article of the laws of Oleron agrees with the judgment of the casuists.

ARTICLE XXXI.

If a ship, or other vessel, happens to be lost by striking on some shoar, and the mariners, thinking to save their lives, reach the shoar, in hope of help, and instead thereof it happens, as it often does, that in many places they meet with people more barbarous, cruel, and inhuman than mad dogs, who, to gain their monies, apparel, and other goods, do sometimes murder and destroy these poor distressed seamen; in this case, the lord of that country ought to execute justice on such wretches, to punish them as well corporally as pecuniarily, to plunge them in the sea 'till they be half dead, and then to have them drawn forth out of the sea, and stoned to death.

OBSERVATION.

To plunge them in the sea, plonger en la mer, is what the French now call *bailler la cale*, and we keel-hauling.

The Goths heretofore used to practise it as a sport or exercise, Olaus Magnus *Historiæ Septentrionalis*, lib. 5. and lib. 10. cap. 16. And one may conceive an idea of the barbarity of the northern nations, when that was a diversion to them, which was a punishment to others; as it was of old among the Celtes and Franks, and is now among the modern navigators.

Lazy and scandalous persons had some such sort of punishment, by the customs or laws of the old Germans, Tacitus de *Moribus Germanorum*, num. 5. Turnus Herdonius was punished thus to death, for abusing and railing at the king. Tarquinius Superbus, T. Livius, lib. primo decadis primæ. Bawds and whores are served so at Bourdeaux; and scolds something like it in England, when they are put into the ducking-stool.

ARTICLE XXXII.

If by reason of tempestuous weather, it be thought expedient, for the lighting of any ship or vessel at sea, or riding at anchor in any road, to cast part of the lading overboard, and it be done accordingly for the common safety, though the said goods so ejected and cast overboard, do become his that can first possess himself thereof, and carry them away: nevertheless, it is here to be further understood, that this holds true only in such cases, as when the master, merchants, and mariners have so ejected or cast out the said goods, as that they give over all hope or desire of ever recovering them again, and to leave them as things utterly lost, and given over by them, without ever making any enquiry or pursuit after them: in which case only, the first occupant becomes the lawful proprietor thereof.

OBSERVATION.

The property of things thrown overboard remains in the merchants, and the finder has no right to them, unless they were thrown out with an intention to leave them there and look no more after them, c. 2. in fine, l. qui lavandæ D. Lege Rhodia, l. quod ex naufragio, D. acquirenda vel amittenda possessione Neptunus fastidiosus ædilis est. Si quæ sunt improbæ merces jactat omnes; as Plautus says in *Stichot*. The sea drives all things to land: maris hæc est natura, ut omne immundum, stercoresumque in littoribus impingat. Seneca *naturalium quæst.* lib. 3. cap. 26. On this assurance, every one that flings his goods overboard in time of danger, hopes and desires to recover them again after seeking for them, and those things non sunt in derelicto, sed in deperdito, l. si quis Merces, D. pro derelicto. It is true, what is abandoned through contempt or carelessness, belongs to the first occupiers; quod dominus ea mente abiecit, ut in numerum rerum suarum esse nolit, qui primus occupaverit statim dominus sit jure naturali. Instit. de rerum divisione 5. qua ratione, & lege 1. D. pro derelicto.

ARTICLE XXXIII.

If a ship, or any other vessel, hath cast overboard several goods or merchandizes, which are in chests well locked and made fast; or books well clasped and shut close, that they may not be damaged by salt water: in such cases it is to be presumed, that they who did cast such goods overboard, do

still retain an intention, hope, and desire of recovering the same. For which reason, those who shall happen to find such things, are obliged to make institution thereof to him who shall make a due enquiry after them, or put them to pious uses, according to his conscience, and the advice of some prudent neighbour.

OBSERVATION.

Well clasped; this is conformable to the gloss on the last law. D. Lege Rhodia.

ARTICLE XXXIV.

If any man happens to find any thing in the sea, or in the sand on the shore, in floods or in rivers, if it be precious stones, fishes, or any treasure of the sea, which never belonged to any man in point of property, it belongs to the first finder.

ARTICLE XXXV.

If any searches the sea-coasts to fish, or find gold or silver, and he finds it, he ought to restore it all without any diminution.

ARTICLE XXXVI.

If any going along the sea-shore to fish, or otherwise happens to find gold or silver, he shall be bound to make restitution thereof, deducting for his own pains; or, if he be poor he may keep it to himself; that is, if he knows not to whom to restore it; yet he shall give notice of the place where he found it, to the neighbourhood and parts next adjacent, and advise with his superiors, who ought to weigh, and take into consideration the indigence and poverty of the finder, and then to give him such advice as is consonant to good conscience.

OBSERVATION on the three preceeding articles.

There are three sorts of goods, which the sea naturally drives to land: as entire wrecks; for which the cruel droit de bris was in old times established by pernicious and barbarous custom: but humanity, licences, and passports have abolished it in ours. The second is what is flung overboard, for the preservation of mens lives, the ship and cargo. Neither of these, by law nor the custom of the sea, change their proprietors; but may be claimed and recovered by them, within the lawful time appointed by ordinances and customs to claim, even while the goods are in being and unfold, as appears by what has been said in and upon the 30th art.

The third sort comprehends the two first, which are not owned and demanded by the proprietor; and besides that, includes all the treasures of the sea, which come out of it's bowels, and it naturally drives ashore; as aromatic amber, on the coast of Guienne; amber succinum, in the German ocean; red, black, and white coral, on the coast of Barbary; precious stones, fish-shells, and other riches, which the sea produces, and which, in the 34th article of these laws, are called herpes marines, in English, treasures of the sea, for it cannot be otherwise so fully expressed. The word herpes was taken from an old Gaulish term herpir, which signifies to take, and it's contrary, voerpir, is to leave.

Nor is he who first lays his hand on them, obliged to give those that are there with him a share of what he has found, unless he pleases to do it out of courtesy, notwithstanding the constitution of the emperor Leo, which is contrary to it. This is the law of nature; but princes and lords of the coast have usurped this privilege, and laid claim to all the treasures of the sea, that it throws on their royalties. The lords of the coasts, that is, of the manors or lands on the coasts of France, were notorious usurpers in this, 'till the reign of Lewis XIII. when cardinal Richlieu, by an order of the council, bearing date the 13th of December, 1629, took away the pretended rights of several lords, or very much abridged them; but he did not restore the law of nature in this case: he only enlarged his own and his successor's privileges and authority, he being great master, and superintendent-general of the navigation and commerce of France, This regulation of council occasioned great disorders, and the count de Olonne was particularly so enraged at it, that his officers by main force drove away those of the admiralty, who came upon his royalty. But the French kings were now masters of their subjects lives and fortunes, and it would have been in vain for such counts to have disputed the king's edict with these words in it, car tel est nôtre plaisir, the standing reason of the French laws at this time.

ARTICLE XXXVII.

Touching great fish, that are taken or found dead on the sea-shore, regard must be had to the custom of that country, where such great fish are taken or found. For, by the custom, the lord of that country ought to have his share; and with

good reason, since the subject owes obedience and tribute to his sovereign.

OBSERVATION.

This law declares, that by the antient customs of countries, as well sovereigns, as all particular lords of royalties, to whom duties and tributes were due, had both heretofore certain rights to the espaves de mer, strays of the sea. The coustomier de Normandie, under the article of Varech, specifies what belongs to the one, and what belongs to the other; and particularly that whales and other oil-fish belong to the particular lord of the royalty where they were found; that is, off whose land they are taken on the shore: in the original it is, a la rive de la mer; and how far that is to be understood to belong to the lord of that royalty, may be found in the above-mentioned coustomier, where the varech understands as far as a man on horseback can reach with his lance: for if the fish is found farther off the shore, the lord has no right to it, though it be brought or driven a-shore afterwards.

ARTICLE XXXVIII.

The lord ought to have his share of oil-fish, and no other, according to the laudable custom of the country where they are found; and he that finds them is no further obliged than to save them, by bringing them without the reach of the sea, and presently to make it known to the said lord of the place, that he may come and demand what is his right.

OBSERVATION.

The coustomier de Normandie mentions two sorts of fish; the royal fish, which are the dolphin, the sturgeon, the salmon, the turbot, the sea-dragon, the sea-barbel, and, in general, all fish fit for a king's table: and oil-fish, as whales, porpusses, sea-calves, and the like, of which oil may be made: all other fish are the property of those that take them in the sea, near the shore, or afar off. The duke of Esperron, which is the capital of a little territory called de Buch, had a right to the eighth penny of all the fish sold in the market at Bourdeaux, that were taken within his precinct of de Buch, the fishermen having been heretofore vassals to the lords de Buch. And further, whatever part of the province of Guienne the duke was in, those fishermen were on all fast-days bound to supply his table with fish for himself and his family; but then the duke must pay a reasonable price for them, and allow them something for their trouble. This right is called bian, and was, 50 years ago, in use.

ARTICLE XXXIX.

If the lord of the place pleases, and it be the custom of the country where the fish is found, he may cause the same to be brought, by him that found it, to the public and open market-place, but no where else; and there the said fish shall be appraised by the said lord, or his deputy, according to custom. And the price being set, the other party that made not the price, shall have his choice, either to take or leave it at that price; and if either of them, whether per fas or nefas, be an occasion of loss or damage to the other, though but to the value of a denier, he shall be obliged to make him restitution.

ARTICLE XL.

If the cost and charges of carrying the said fish to the said market-place would amount to a greater sum than the fish itself may be worth, then the said lord shall be bound to take his share at the place where such fish was found.

ARTICLE XLI.

The said lord ought likewise to pay his part of the aforesaid costs and charges, because he ought not, by another's damage, to enrich himself.

ARTICLE XLII.

If, by some chance or misfortune, the said fish happens to be stolen away, or otherwise lost from the place where it was found, after or before the said lord has visited it; in this case, he that first found it shall not any ways be obliged to make it good.

ARTICLE XLIII.

In all other things found by the sea-side, which have formerly been in the possession of some or other, as wines, oil, and other merchandize, although they have been cast overboard, and left by the merchants, and so ought to appertain to him that first finds the same; yet herein also the custom of the country is to be observed, as well as in the case of fish. But if

if there be a presumption that these were the goods of some ship that perished, then neither the said lord, nor finder thereof, shall take any or convert any part of it to their own use; but, as has been said, distribute the money it produces amongst the poor and needy.

A R T I C L E XLIV.

If any ship, or other vessel at sea, happens to find an oil-fish, it shall be wholly theirs that found it, in case no due pursuit be made after it; and no lord of any place ought to demand any part thereof, though they bring it to his ground.

A R T I C L E XLV.

If a vessel, by stress of weather, be constrained to cut her cables or ropes by the end, and so to quit and leave behind her both cables and anchors, and put to sea at the mercy of the wind and weather; in this case, the said cables and anchors ought not to be lost to the said vessel, if there were any buoy at them; and such as fish for them shall be bound to restore them, if they know to whom they belong: but they ought to be paid for their pains, according to justice. And if they know not to whom to restore them, the lords of the place shall have their shares, as well as the salvors; but, for preventing further inconveniencies, every master of a ship shall cause to be engraven, or set upon the buoys thereof, his own name, or the name of his ship, or of the port or haven to which she belongs: and such as detain them from him shall be reputed thieves and robbers.

A R T I C L E XLVI.

If any ship, or other vessel, by any casualty or misfortune, happens to be wrecked and perish; in that case the pieces of the bulk of the vessel, as well as the lading thereof, ought to be reserved and kept in safety for them to whom it belonged, before such disaster happened, notwithstanding any custom to the contrary. And all takers, partakers, or consenters, of or to the said wreck, if they be bishops, prelates, or clerks, they shall be deposed, and deprived of their benefices respectively; and if they be laymen, they shall incur the penalties aforesaid.

A R T I C L E XLVII.

This is to be understood only, when the said ship or vessel so wrecked, did not exercise the trade of pillaging, and when the mariners thereof were not pirates, sea-rovers, or enemies to popery; but if they are found to be either the one or the other, every man may then deal with such as with rogues, and dispoil them of their goods, without any punishment for so doing.

OBSERVATION on the three foregoing articles.

Every one has a droit de bris against pirates. Piratæ communes generis humani hostes sunt, quos idcirco omnibus rationibus persequi incumbit, says the Lord Verulam de Bello Sacro. For which reason, according to the Civilians, sunt ipso jure diffidati, cum quibus publice bellum habemus. Strachia in tertia parte de nautis; and again, it is cruelty to have any mercy towards pirates, solum pietatis genus est in hac re esse crudelem. There is no right of action amongst them, and they have none to bring against one who attacks them or robs them. Quia in omnium furum persona constitutum est, ne ejus rei nomine furti agere possint, cujus ipsi fures sunt. Lege cum qui § quarto. lege qui re sibi § primo. Lege qui res. § Si ego. De furtis, &c. They have no action amongst themselves. Communi dividendo lege communi §. Inter præliones. D. communi dividendo. On the contrary, for one pirate to take from another is very lawful, and will bear no action. Lege sed ipsi nautæ, &c.

The test of these laws in this copy is,

‘Witness the seal of the isle of Oleron, established for all contracts in the said isle, the Tuesday after the feast of St Andrew, in the year one thousand, two hundred, sixty six.’

R E M A R K S.

This date of 1266, is too modern, and does not agree with the time when this piece was put forth, as the learned and curious Selden, libro secundo, capite 24, de dominio maris, very well observes: so that it is thought, that this date of the time of the delivery of the copy, from whence the edition printed at Rouen was taken, as the test, and the seal established for contracts in the isle of Oleron, denotes, that it was a copy taken out by a notary from the original.

ORCADES, or the Islands of Orkney in Scotland, are divided on the south, from that part of the main land called Caithness, Pentland or Pictland Firth; which is twenty-four miles long, and from twelve to sixteen in breadth. They have the Caledonian sea on the west, the German on the east, and the sea that parts them from Shetland on the north. They are reckoned about thirty in number, and contain, ac-

ording to Mr Templeman, an area of six hundred square miles, but they are not all inhabited; the rest, which are called Holmes, being used only for pasturage for sheep and goats. The longest day amongst them exceeds eighteen hours by some minutes. Their winters are not so subject to snow as to rain, which falls sometimes in violent spouts, and the wind is often boisterous. As these islands are larger, and have more inhabitants than those of Shetland, the soil is better and more improveable; and as they are so much nearer to Scotland, there is more commerce, and much more conversation; for here are several gentlemen, of good families, who have good mansion-houses on the island where their estates lie.

The principal islands of the Orcaides, are South Ronaldsha, Swinna, Hoy, Burra, Lambholm, Flotta, Faira, Cava, Gramsay, Main-land, or the Chief Island, Copinsha, Strapinsha, Damsay, Inghallo, Stronfa, Papa-Stronfa, Sanda, North Ronaldsha, Eda, Roufa, Wire, Garfa, Egletha, North Faira, Westra, Papa-Westra.

The chief difference betwixt these islands, is in their situation, or their being more or less mountainous. The soil in some places is extremely dry and sandy, in others wet and marshy. They produce corn in abundance, but the chief of it is oats for bread, and barley or beer corn; for they have no wheat, rye, or pulse, except in the gentlemens gardens. They have, however, all sorts of wild fowl, partridges, moor fowl, plover, duck, teal, widgeon, rabbits, &c. and they want neither fish nor venison: so that the inhabitants have every thing to make life comfortable, except better bread, and warmer weather.

It is a very pleasing prospect to stand on the shore and behold the sea in calm weather, in the narrow sounds and passages between the islands; how the different tides run as from a sluice, as well one way as the other, and to see a boat fly upon them, like an arrow out of a bow, it being as impossible to row against them, as to shoot London-bridge against a steep fall.

In the Pentland firth, behind the island Swinna, are two great whirlpools, called the Wells of Swinna, which are sure to swallow up any vessels that come within the draught; and the passage of the firth is of itself very dangerous, because of the many strong tides, which are not less than twenty-four, and make the sea go very high upon the least contrary wind. These whirlpools are most dangerous in a calm, for if there be any wind, and the boat under sail, they are passed without danger. If the mariners, who carry passengers between the main land and the isles, happen to be drove near them by the tides, they throw a barrel, a bundle of straw, or some other bulky thing into the whirlpools, which make them smooth enough, till the vessel has passed them; and what is thus cast in, is generally found floating a mile or two off. Mean time the natives on both sides, who know the proper seasons, pass this firth every day very safe, except when the weather is tempestuous.

The trade of the Orkneys differs from that of Shetland, only in not depending upon the resort of strangers, but on their own produce. They export annually a very great quantity of corn, black cattle, swine, and sheep, as also of butter, tallow, and white salt, together with seal-skins, otter-skins, lamb and rabbit-skins, &c. Also stuffs and great quantities of very good down, feathers, writing-quills and pens, hams and wool.

Their corn in particular is sold as far as Edinburgh, from whence they bring what goods they want in exchange. But the chief of their commerce consists in their fishing for herrings, and white fish, and in their corn and cattle. Having NOT MERCHANTS TO EXPORT THEIR FISH WHEN TAKEN, THEY FISH FOR THE DUTCH, AND THE MERCHANTS OF INVERNESS, &c. And though upon this account, they sometimes go far from home, yet as they are an adventurous hardy people, and good sailors, they make no difficulty of fishing in the darkesteights, though at a great distance from the island; and yet their boats are none of the best.

Their white fishing trade lies chiefly on the west side of the islands, towards those which we call the western islands.

There have been several attempts, by the merchants both of England and Scotland, to establish a fishery both in the Orkneys and the western islands; but the extraordinary expence of building warehouses, fishing vessels, &c. always rendered it fruitless till lately; besides that, the taking of the herrings in those seas, does not turn to so good an account as those taken on the east side of Scotland, the markets being more remote. Indeed, the Glasgow fishing-boats generally come up as far north as the Leuze, and fish for herring, as do likewise the fishermen from Londonderry, Belfast, and other ports of Ireland, by whom the people of the islands are supplied with many necessaries, especially tobacco, wine, brandy, and other liquors, and some manufactures also for cloathing; but they meet with few or no returns, except fish and some oil, which the islanders make by killing porpoises, seals, and such creatures.

ORDNANCE, see ARTILLERY.

ORES. Experience daily teaches us, that metals and minerals for the most part, superabound with sulphur and arsenic, which

which are separated from them in the smelting furnace, and that the body does not become truly metallic, 'till after this separation. In reversing this operation by chemical experiments, we find, that if sulphur and arsenic be added to a metal, a mixture is produced, which no longer resembles metal, but rather an ore or mineral mass. By these sort of experiments, metal is brought back to the form of a mineral, therefore the operation is called mineralizing, and this name of mineralization is given to the action of the sulphur and arsenic upon the metal.

True it is, we cannot always produce a matter that shall resemble natural minerals, for the chemical production will often retain but a very small appearance of them: from sulphur and lead the true lead ore is produced: and from sulphur and silver a real ore, known in our mines by the appellation of glass ore.

Sulphur and regulus of antimony will re-produce antimony; sulphur and mercury will make cinnabar, which is the ore of quicksilver; and iron and arsenic will compose a mixture of different colours. Of orpiment, filings of iron and sulphurated copper, may be made a kind of pyrites. But, from sulphur and iron, sulphur and copper, sulphur and pewter, no true ore is produced.

The two first mixtures produce nothing but a kind of mineral gravel, and the last makes a sort of pewter ore which is not natural. The celebrated Mr Henckel has already observed, that there was no occasion to employ sulphur in its separated form for mineralization, as antimony, cinnabar, and pyrites, may be used for the same purpose. If that great man had pushed his researches still farther, and applied the same reasoning to the arsenic, he might have been, perhaps, more happy in counterfeiting the mineral which he sought (I know not for what reason) with such eagerness.

Thus it hath been concluded from experience and observation, that sulphur and arsenic are the two substances which reduce metals to the state of ore, and preserve them in that form. Yet we think, 'that sulphur and arsenic are the only two substances by which metals are found in the state of ore.' On the contrary, are there not certain kinds of earth, without any appearance of sulphur and arsenic, which nevertheless are capable of preserving metals in the form of ore, and of mineralizing them by chemical operations?

If the true and natural mineralization of the metallic particles does not absolutely depend upon the force of the acid, but rather is mechanically performed, as in all probability it is, a certain earth may insinuate itself between the metallic leaves and particles, and keep them separate as well as sulphur and arsenic. Now, if this earth is neither fluid nor shining, the ore will not be looked upon as a mineral, and very little metal will be extracted from it in the assay. If, on the contrary, this earth is tintured by the metal which it contains, and appears brown, red, yellow, green, or blue, then the colour testifies that it is impregnated with metal. From these sorts of earth the assay-makers produce gold, silver, copper, &c. and it cannot be denied that these metals are mineralized in these earths, although they contain no sensible portion of sulphur or arsenic; for these two matters soon manifest themselves where they really are, by the fumes and scent which they exhale upon the fire.

It will, perhaps, be alledged, that these earths are formed of ore which has been altered by time, which hath expelled the sulphur and arsenic by which they were formerly mineralized; but to this allegation it may be answered, that at least something vitriolic should remain from the sulphur, and that the arsenic should leave a kind of rust which is found in other minerals, though no such thing is found in these earths: besides, these earths are extremely compact, so that we cannot presume they have been altered by time, which generally renders them altogether porous and juicy: and they are moreover properly and naturally situated in forms of beds and layers, a circumstance that is not to be observed in earth, which has been altered by time and air.

To these natural indications, let us add the operations of art, which represent something of the same appearance. A mineralization of metals, resembling that which we have mentioned, is made between pewter and lead. Pewter reduces lead to a kind of earth or ashes: zink mineralizes gold, though in a different manner: but we shall here confine ourselves to pewter and lead. Pewter being very earthy, partaking very little of the nature of glass, and having besides very large pores, its phlogiston easily evaporates in the fire: when mixed with lead, it likewise deprives that metal of its phlogiston, which it allows to evaporate.

This example will explain what is properly understood, by the mineralization of metals, by means of earths; but, if we would examine this matter to the bottom, let us consider how the crocus of Mars, when mixed in a metal, not by the art of man, but by accident, hinders it from being refined in the fusion.

A sulphur abounds with vitriolic acid, and arsenic is a violent corrosive, which likewise exercises its acid by corrosion, it is plain that these two matters mineralize metals in quality of acids. This may be granted, without contradicting what has been advanced above: for, when a metal is melted, or

very compact and solid in its texture, certain it is all earth cannot penetrate this mechanic texture, and insinuate itself into its pores, which can only admit a subtle, fluid, acrimonious earth: now, this subtle, fluid, acrimonious earth, is no other than an acid; consequently an acid, as such, mineralizes metals. Whence may we not enquire, whether sea salt, which likewise contains an acid, many not mineralize metals?

This salt reduces lead and regulus of antimony to ashes in the fire; but, as every body will not allow that this change into earth is a mineralization, we will quote other examples to be seen in the same manner, in these three matters, namely, in a mineral, in a metal mineralized, and in a metal strictly allied with the acid of kitchen salt.

This last is a Luna cornua, or again, a Saturnus cornuus, which after these metals are dissolved in aqua fortis, have been precipitated by kitchen salt or its acid. With regard to the two first of these matters, we may chuse, for example, a mineral, or metal mineralized, and make the trial upon either, and we may be certain that the experiment will not fail, if properly conducted.

The effects of the mineralization by nature and art, are these. (1.) Part of the metal is volatilized in the fire. (2.) The minerals will not amalgamate with mercury. (3.) They will not be dissolved by mercury. And (4.) part of the metal enters the scoria. Lead and silver which resemble the cornua, produce the same effects, the fourth of which is likewise produced by salt upon copper and iron.

Indeed the possibility and imitation of mineralizing metals by the acid of kitchen salt, is manifested by the preceding experiments: but it is not enough to know these effects, for the principal point is to learn, if nature acts in this manner of herself; consequently we must change the question, and endeavour to know, whether there are not actually in nature, metallic ores which have been mineralized by the acid of kitchen salt?

We shall first speak of iron ore, which in some shape ought to be divided into two kinds; for, when dissolved, it becomes a reddish or yellow earth. We mean its natural, rather than artificial solution. Every body knows, that when iron ore continues long exposed to the vicissitudes of dry and wet weather, it in time degenerates and dissolves into a kind of earth and clay.

In this condition it is frequently found in the earth, where we see it some times degenerated through and through, or at least externally, and changed into a red or yellow earth, which ought to be considered as a crocus martis naturally formed, and the colour ought to ascertain the saline quality with which it is mixed. Now, we know from chemistry, that iron treated with sulphur or vitriol, yields a red crocus. The colcothar, or caput mortuum of vitriol, is no other than such an earth of iron, &c. Chemistry likewise teaches us, that iron dissolved in the acid of kitchen salt, appears yellow in the solution, and that in drying or precipitating it exhibits a yellow earth or clay. These experiments should seem to demonstrate the causes of the red and yellow iron ore; the first seems allied with the acid of sulphur, and the yellow with the acid of kitchen salt; whence it results, that kitchen salt preserves mineralized metals even in their natural state.

It will perhaps be objected, that we have quoted the only example that is to be found in nature: but, provided the truth of this example is granted, it ought to serve in the same manner, with regard to a great many other minerals, since we find abundance that contain such a yellow iron earth in their texture; consequently, where-ever it is found, we may presume there is an acid of kitchen salt. We shall, therefore, proceed no farther in minerology, otherwise we might deduce the same proofs from the blue, and bluish minerals of the copper.

Almost all the minerals of lead would confirm the proof; for it precisely resembles what is called lead ore, and of consequence can be no other than the mineral of lead corroded by an acid. Nor is it more difficult to determine what that acid is, which thus corrodes its mineral through its whole extent; for the small pieces of pyrites found still in their natural state within the mineral, prove that the acid, which formed this natural lead mine, must not have been of the strongest kind, since it could not dissolve the pyrites. But as all we propose in this place is by way of question, we do not pretend to decide upon any thing.

I shall, however, answer another objection, which may be made even by those people who are most conversant with minerology: they may alledge, that the vitriolic acid and arsenic, each simply considered as an acid, are not capable of effecting a mineralization; but, both being combined with an inflammable earth, they derive principally from thence, the power of producing the form of a mineral; but, they will add, where shall we find the acid of common salt combined with an inflammable earth, so as to produce the same effect? To this question it may be replied, that art combines the acid of kitchen salt with a phlogiston, when the phosphorus is made; and this instance will serve, when they would push the proposition still farther, and confirm it by experiment. 'But in the earth (say they) no phosphorus is either made

'made or found.' True, but in lieu of it, we find in sea-coal, the acid of kitchen salt abundantly charged with phlogiston: a convincing proof, that it is also naturally found in a condition not at all improper for naturalization.

In fine, some person may ask what purpose can be served by these theoretical questions, and subtle enquiries? It would be easy to assign a very good reason, if the questions we have proposed were answered. But, that no body may think they are thrown away, without having any view to manifest utility, either in theory or practice; we shall observe, that perhaps, by a precise solution of these questions, minerology might be reduced to better order, and carried to much greater perfection. Minerals are commonly divided into certain classes, according to the metals and demi-metals; but as each class includes a good many kinds, there is a necessity for inventing a great number of sub-divisions. Would not the best way be to divide the mineral of each metal according to its mineralizing substance? For example, the minerals of silver are mineralized sometimes by sulphur, sometimes by arsenic, and sometimes by the acid of kitchen salt, &c.

Thus we speak more conformably to nature, and this order may be observed in ranging them afterwards, according to the kind of rock, the limits of the mine, the layers of the earth, &c. Now as hitherto, nothing has been written or said of any matter or mineralizing substance, except sulphur and arsenic, and as we here give some concise instruction touching a third mineralizing acid, which is kitchen salt, it is easy to conclude that minerology by this means, gains an increase of one third; and that in the sequel, we may discover a number of other minerals of this new division, which are not now known to be so, or at least, cannot be ranged in any class. By this likewise we give the key to an infinity of minerals, about which disputes have been hitherto maintained, to know if they are true minerals or only crude productions of mountains: we mean, all kinds of volatile minerals, or such as cannot be put in fusion or separated, and those which appear in veins, as well as others in the mine, but are taken out in form of grains, &c. in which it is agreed that there is gold, silver, copper, &c. These are looked upon as unripe, as well as the pyrites found at a distance from gold and silver, the minerals of talc, &c.

In regard to instances of this nature, the reader may remember what has been said above, concerning the mixture of common salt with the phlogiston, and of the sea-coal thence formed; and add to this, after the lights with which we are furnished by natural history, that agat is (if I may be allowed the expression) the noblest kind of pit-coal; hence we perceive, that the same acid may represent a mineral either in form of coal, or as a black stone that shines like ice.

We know, that all these observations will appear to some as so many dreams of the imagination, and may be received as such by our ordinary miners: those especially who boast of the productions of mountains, as of mineral metals, neither say nor prove any thing of their natural state, mineralization, separation, &c. The greatest part of them, repeat only what they have heard from other people, and utter what they have been told, without having made any reflections or researches of their own: thus a good cause is often very illy defended. On the other hand, those who decry the same minerals, pretend to have made unsuccessful trials of them, and think they have a right to dispute on the strength of their experiments, which are for the most part unskillfully made. But if we would not overthrow all historical certainty, since proofs are to be found even at this day, the places from which the minerals have been taken, the minerals themselves, and the descriptions which several people have given of them, in the course of so many ages, which agree perfectly well together, we ought at least to suspend our judgment in this respect. We are willing they should compare past times to a dream, provided they will endeavour to shew that they themselves are now thoroughly awake.

We ought likewise to say something of the practical utility of these theoretical researches. According as minerology is divided, so the forges ought to be disposed: we ought carefully to attend to this point, which is of great consequence for a good theory and system in the science. At first, people were obliged to divide the forges according to the metals and semi-metals, and even according to the salt-pits; it is of no consequence, though silver, copper, and lead, be worked in the same forge: this they are obliged to do in those places where these metals are found together, but where each metal is alone, it is wrought by itself, and then there is a natural process of the font for each.

Now, as the minerals of each metal are divided according to their different mineralizing principles, so the processes of the font ought to be different, according to the mineralizing principle which is mixed in each. There is a particular kind of font for those minerals which contain sulphur, and this is what is called working rough or plumb. The arsenical minerals are of this number, but they must first pass through the fire, and then they can no longer be properly reckoned among the arsenical minerals. But, a method of fusion quite different is required for metals, which are entirely arsenical, without any mixture of sulphur: and a different method of

fusion must likewise be observed with antimonial minerals. Consequently, a particular method must be used with minerals that are mineralized by the acid of kitchen salt.

We shall not expatiate upon this, for it is easy to conceive with what eye certain workmen of forges will regard us, if we undertake to introduce what they have never thought of. That, therefore, is not our intention. We shall content ourselves with having shewn by example, how much theory might influence practice, and to have explained, in a few words, that by improving the science of mines, the revenues of these works might be considerably augmented. Some may slight these suggestions to their loss. While in working a mine, every thing remains upon the old footing, and people are satisfied with finding from time to time, some little new advantage; certain it is, the profit can never become very considerable: but, if we could discover new kinds of minerals, and invent proper methods for melting and separating them, such discoveries would become very important, and furnish fresh matter for more useful speculation. I will not presume to say that we are capable of making such discoveries, but think that it would be no difficult matter to attain to such improvement, by a more careful cultivation of the science of ores, minerals, and mining, than that which is at present practised.

It is with this view, that we endeavour to put the sentiments of the most judicious in their proper light, in order to lay the foundation for such improvement, in form of questions and problems: and with some reason for believing, that these principles may be found true by undoubted experience. We leave the solution of them to those who are our superiors in point of knowledge. After all, practice alone must decide the matter. It is she who confirms all arguments, and rectifies all systems; and we know nothing positively, until it hath been sanctioned by her. But we ought to acknowledge at the same time, that she must be preceded by rational theories, which are the lights that conduct her researches into the secrets of nature. Without their assistance she gropes along, blindly following a beaten track; and whatever progress she makes, must be owing to chance, from which she ought to claim no merit.

For what further relates to the whole business of ores and metals, see the following articles, viz. AQUA FORTIS, AQUA REGIA, ASSAY, BULLION, COPPER MINES, LEAD, TIN, IRON, MERCURY, SILVER, and GOLD; also FLUX, METALS, METALLURGY, MINES, MINING, MINERALS, MINEROLOGY, SMELTING.

ORIENTAL TRADE. Under the article **LEVANT TRADE**, we have shewn, from the principal authentic royal arrets, edicts, and ordonnances, issued by authority in France from time to time, from the year 1665 to the year 1749, what measures the French have taken for the regulation of the Levant trade of that kingdom; whereby it appears from FACTS, to what causes the present flourishing state and condition of that commerce in France may be attributed, and by what steps this rival nation has supplanted the English in this branch of traffic. We have likewise under the same article, represented the genuine regulations of the Dutch, in relation to their Turkey trade. The policy of other nations being fairly laid before us, and compared with our own, we may be enabled to make a right judgment, whether the measures taken by our competitors, are preferable or otherwise to our own, and wherein our defects may be so supplied, as, at least, to empower us to carry on this commerce in the Ottoman empire, upon a footing not less advantageous than that of other states. And, without our taking these things into due consideration, this kingdom can never be capable of regulating her commerce in any branch to the best advantage, or to an advantage equal to that of other countries. People may declaim and controvert to eternity, concerning the necessity of this or the other measure being requisite to be taken by the legislature, but without having the policy of rival states fairly laid before them, they will be ever liable to be misled and deceived in matters of the last importance to the interest of trade. And yet it is to be feared, that as well in the solemn deliberation of the great council of the nation, as in our disputes without doors, these matters are, in the general, too little enquired into, notwithstanding they are the essentials whereby to steer and direct the public judgment.

As under the article of **LEVANT TRADE**, we had not room to state our own case in regard to this branch of trade, we have referred to the articles **ORIENTAL TRADE** and **TURKEY TRADE**, that all facts and materials necessary may be exhibited before the public, whereon to bottom their judgment with respect to the means requisite to be taken by this nation. Wherefore,

Here we shall give an historical view of the conduct and proceedings of our own Turkey company.

AN HISTORICAL VIEW of the CONDUCT and PROCEEDINGS of the TURKEY COMPANY.

The company trading to the Levant Seas having subsisted, as an exclusive society, one hundred and forty-seven years, the most impartial and certain method of attaining to a clear

and perfect knowledge of the advantages, either of continuing the exclusion, or opening the trade, is to take an historical view of their conduct and proceedings, from their first establishment to the present time. For, though arguments may be controverted, and reasonings opposed, yet plain facts are unanswerable, and will speak for themselves: therefore, it was thought proper to lay before the world in this public manner, especially before the honourable members of both houses of parliament, the true state of the case, as drawn from the books of the company themselves, and from other authentic evidences, for the use of the committee of the honourable house of commons, in the year 1743-4. This committee was appointed the 16th of February, in consequence of several petitions sent up to parliament, from divers parts of the kingdom, complaining of the great decay of the English trade to Turkey, and the increase of the French on the ruin of ours; and ascribing both these national evils to the monopolizing view of a few individuals, who checked and restrained the natural course of trade, by means of their exclusive powers.

The company likewise presented a petition in their own behalf, setting forth the nature of their charter, their exclusive privileges, manner of trade, and the like: but as these things will occur in the course of the subsequent narration, it will be needless to insert them here. The narration proceeds as follows:

This company now exists, by virtue of letters patent granted by king James Ist, bearing date the 14th day of December, in the third year of his reign, 1606.

And of king Charles the IId, bearing date the 2d of April, in the thirteenth year of his reign, 1661.

King James, by his letters patent, did (among other things) grant to several persons therein named, and to their sons, and such others as should then after be admitted, or made free, that they should be one fellowship, and one body corporate and politic, by the name of the Governor and Company of Merchants of England trading to the Levant Seas, and should have perpetual succession: and did direct, That all persons, subjects of this realm, being then mere merchants, which then were, or after the date of the said letters patent should happen to be, under the age of 26 years, or not out of his or their apprenticeship, should be admitted into the freedom of the said company, if he or they should demand the same, within one year next after he or they should attain the age of 26 years, or within one year after the end of his or their apprenticeship; and should pay to the said governor and company, for his or their admittance, the sum of 25l. And did further direct, That all persons subjects of this realm of England, being mere merchants, above the age of 26 years, should be admitted into the freedom of the said company, upon paying a fine of 50l. And did also direct, That all and every the sons of such as were or should be free of the said company, and also all their apprentices employed in that trade, for the space of three years or upwards, within the limits of the said letters patent, should, after the end of their apprenticeships, be admitted into the freedom of their said company, on payment of the sum of 20s. only. Company's books, viz. Letters patent, p. 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9.

And, as the petition of the said company sets forth, several other privileges were granted by the said letters patent, to the said company.

Amongst which, all persons who traded to the said Levant Seas, and were not free of the said company, were obliged to pay to the said company 20 per cent. upon the value of the goods, Page 22.

And they had power, at a general court, of making by-laws, for the good rule and government of the said governor and company, &c. and a power of revoking the same, as occasion should require; which were to be performed and kept, under the pains and penalties therein mentioned, so as the same were not contrary or repugnant to the laws and statutes of this realm, or derogatory to any treaties or leagues made, or to be made, with any other prince or potentate, nor tending to the hindrance of the trade or traffic of any of the said company, behaving him or themselves duly and orderly, as becometh good merchants of the said company, without any fraudulent or disordered attempts or practices. Page 16.

King Charles, by his letters patent, did ratify and confirm the said letters patent of king James; and did further direct, That no person residing within 20 miles of the city of London, should be admitted into the said company, or have any benefit of the privileges thereof, unless he was made free of the said city. Page 36.

Now, under pretence of making by-laws for the good rule and government of the members of this fellowship, the said company (or rather the greater part of them) have frequently exercised a power of restraint upon their own members (tending to the hinderance of trade and traffic), by making orders to lay a broke [penalty] of 20 per cent. upon their goods, if they sent them to Turkey at any other times, or in any other ships, than those appointed by the company, which are called joint or general ships; so that if any merchant (though a member of the company) had never so large a quantity of cloth by him, and the want of cloth in Turkey

was never so great, he could not send it, but at such times, and in such ships, as the said company appointed, by reason 20 per cent. is equal to a prohibition.

Some remarkable instances of which, as well in early as late times, will appear, by copies of orders of general courts, which are hereafter stated, as also the method in which the trade has, from time to time, been carried on.

There was an order of general court, That no manufactures or commodities of this kingdom should be sent from hence, or from Leghorn or Messina, or any other parts of the Straights, to Constantinople, Smyrna, Scio, or Scanderoon, but in joint ships appointed by the company, under the penalty of a broke of 20 per cent. upon the value of all such manufactures or commodities, to be levied where any such goods were landed; but foreign commodities, as spices, pepper, &c. were excepted, and allowed to be carried in what shipping any man pleases. In 1625, 6 April (Company's books, page 127.)

It was ordered, according to an order of the last court, That no ship go from hence for any of the ports of Turkey, before the going of the joint shipping, which is appointed to be at Michaelmas next. In 1627, 2 Aug. (Page 172.)

And for that there were then great quantities of cloth to be sent thither, it was conceived fit, that a restraint for a certain time should be made for all other shipping, that so the markets might not be overcharged with commodities, to the undue valuing thereof in the sale: it was resolved, upon the question, by erection of hands, That no ship should depart for any of the ports of Turkey, laden with English commodities (tin excepted), after the departure of the next general shipping, without the consent of the company, at a general court, until Michaelmas come twelve months, under the penalty of a broke of 20 per cent.

And that no private ship do go from Leghorn to the Levant with money, &c. to engross the commodities, and to prevent the company's market, upon the abovesaid penalties.

It was the opinion of the court (i. e. the court of assistants), That, both for the keeping up the price, and maintaining the cloth, and other English commodities, in good esteem in Turkey, and so advance the sales thereof there, and the returns at home, &c. the trade to Turkey should be restrained to joint shipping; and it was ordered (if the next general court should confirm the same) That no particular ship should be freighted by any member of the company, and no English commodities laden (tin excepted) to any part in Turkey (Petras excepted), but upon joint ships, as the company should at their general court appoint, under the broke of 20 per cent. In 1630, 2 March (page 231.)

This order was confirmed by a general court, 9 March, page 232.

But see the effects of these restraints; for by a letter of the 13th of June 1631, from the consul at Aleppo, it appears, that there was but a small quantity of cloth in the factors hands at that place; and that it was probable, all would be sold before any supply could get there

This letter being read in a general court, it became their consideration, Whether they should dissolve the act of restraint, and to give liberty to send ships to all the parts of Turkey? But they only ordered one general ship for Aleppo, to depart from Gravesend before Christmas-day. In 1631, 5 Octob. page 243.

The said order was taken into consideration, and a further order made to send a ship to Constantinople, to depart by the last of March; and it was ordered, that at Christmas come twelve months, That a ship shall go to Constantinople, and another to Aleppo; and so constantly, from and after that time yearly, unless the company should, upon weighty reasons, think fit to order otherwise. 20 Octob. page 244.

The bad effects of these restraints still continuing; The court fell into discourse, among other things, of the inconveniencies likely to ensue by the long forbearance of sending ships and goods into the several parts of Turkey; whereby the French, and other strangers, have the advantage, and take occasion to supply those places with commodities; which will redound to the great prejudice of this company and their trade, if some speedy course be not thought of for preventing thereof: and hereupon it was moved, That there might be a yearly shipping resolved on; or, in regard there is like to go very great quantities of goods upon the next ships, that another shipping might be appointed to go away at Michaelmas come twelve months, and yearly from that time, &c. but nothing was then determined, but left to the next general court. In 1633, 9 Jan. page 104.

The proceedings of the general court, among other things of the 9th instant, were read, approved, and confirmed. 14 Jan. page 105.

This last proceeding of the general court is mentioned to shew, That even in these early times, when the French

French or other foreigners had little or no share in this trade, the members of the company, who had the public good at heart as well as their own welfare, foresaw the bad consequences that would ensue from these restraints; and would have remedied the same, if the private gain of the rest of their fellowship had not overbalanced the general good of the trade.

However, from this time to the 10th of May 1649 (see the orders 12 Jan. 1635, 17 Febr. 1637, and 27 Octob. 1645) the trade was carried on by general annual shipping; and then it was resolved, That the trade should be open for every member of the company to lade when, and in what ships he pleased, under such restrictions as the company should see fitting. 1635, 12 Jan. page 209. 1637, 17 Febr. page 296. 1645, 27 Oct. page 192, 1649, 10 May, page 31. From this time to the 6th of August, 1655, it was carried on by general annual ships (see the orders of the 25th of August, 7th of December, and 25th of January, 1654) when general ships, to depart at such times as the company should appoint, were resolved on. 1654, 25 Aug. page 216. 7 Dec. page 232. 25th January, page 235. 1655, 6 Aug. page 256.

But this restraint was thought too great; and there being two private ships laden for Smyrna, it was resolved, on the 3d of September, 1656, That liberty be given to any of the company to ship when he pleased. 1656, 3 Sept. page 289.

From this time to the 30th of November, 1660, the trade was carried on by private ships; and then it was confined to general ships under the usual penalty of 20 per cent. on all goods, and so continued till the 4th of October, 1664, when it was resolved, That the company would adhere to their former order for annual shipping. 1660, 30 Nov. page 7. 1663, 11 Sept. page 156. 1664, 4 Oct. page 229.

From this time to 1683, the trade was carried on by annual and general ships: and, from 1683 to 1713, sometimes by private ships, and sometimes by general ships.

From the 5th of June, 1713, in the 12th of queen Anne, since the conclusion of the then war, to the latter end of the year 1717, the trade was carried on by what is usually called an open trade; that is, by such ships as the respective members did appoint to carry away their cloth, and the cloth or such other members as might be pleased to load upon them, to depart at such seasons of the year as was found to be most convenient, which was usually in autumn, or by Christmas; and the cloth ship, in 1717, departed about that time.

And many members of the company, expecting the trade would continue to be carried on in the same manner, went on in buying and finishing of cloth, as usual, for the year 1718:

But, on the 26th of March, 1718, it being under the consideration of the general court, whether the trade should be carried on by general shipping, it was resolved in the affirmative, and the further consideration thereof adjourned to another general court to be held on that day month, being the 23d of April next. 1718, 26 March, page 213.

N. B. General ships, you will please to observe, by the aforesaid orders, are always chosen by the company as a body collective, and do depart at such seasons as they think proper to appoint.

The said resolution was considered and confirmed; and it was also resolved, That the said order should not be revoked without the previous notice of a month given to the members of the company. 1718, 23 April, page 215, and 216.

Then it is recited, 'Whereas the trade from hence to Turkey hath been carried on, for some years past, to a very great extent, in cloth and other woollen manufactures, and in money, in far greater quantity and value than that country hath usually taken off, whereby the markets there are over-stocked, and our commodities depreciated, and the price of raw silk, and other returns, very much advanced there, and fallen here, to the great detriment of this trade in general, and of this company in particular; and to the end that a proper time may be given to our factors, to dispose of our estates in Turkey to advantage, and for reducing the prices of goods usually sent for returns, it was resolved, That, if any member of the company should import into Turkey from hence, or from any part in Christendom, any cloth, or any gold or silver, in coin or bullion, by other than general ships, to be appointed by the company, shall be liable to a broke of 20 per cent. upon the full value thereof, to be levied into Turkey.'

Upon this Sir John Eyles informed the court, 'That he had bought up 500 cloths, and desired that, notwithstanding the resolutions now agreed on, the company will please to give him leave to send the same to Turkey: and a motion was thereupon made, that the question be put, Whether leave be given to such members of this company as have

'provided cloth for Turkey, upon their affirming, upon the oath they have taken to the company, That they had bought the same before they had any intimation of the said resolution? And, a debate arising thereupon, the previous question was put, Whether the question be now put? and it passed in the negative: and it was resolved, That the company would, on the 23d of October next, and not before, consider at what time it may be most proper to take ships into the company's service.'

This order was confirmed. 1718, 30 April, page 217.

The 23d of October elapses; and, on the 6th of November, 1718, the court was called to consider what time would be most proper to take ships into the company's service; and it was resolved to defer it until some time longer. 1718, 6 Nov. page 232.

Then a motion was made to affix the time to which this consideration should be deferred; and one week, one month, two months, and three months being proposed, the question was put for each time mentioned; and it was resolved to be deferred for two months longer.

Upon this further delay, a representation was made to the then ministry, who were so sensible of this extraordinary proceeding, and the prejudice it must be to the common good, that Mr Secretary Craggs sent for the company, and informed them, That he had received such a complaint, and recommended it to the company to come to such resolutions as would prevent the consequences which might attend the said complaint, should it come before his Majesty and his council, or before the parliament.

This matter came under the consideration of a general court, held on the 4th of December, and they resolved, That, on the 8th, they would proceed on the election of general ships for Turkey. 1718, 4 Dec. page 237.

And, at the same time, a committee was appointed to wait on Mr Secretary Craggs, to return him thanks for the respect he had shewn the company.

Instead of appointing ships, it was resolved only to receive proposals for ships; and a committee was appointed to view them, and make a report on Thursday the 22d. 1718, 8 Jan. page 247.

It was resolved, That the company would adhere to their order for their driving the trade by general ships. 1718, 22 Jan.

Then it was proposed, That a sufficient number of ships be taken up to carry the cloth, that was then ready, to all parts of Turkey, by the first opportunity of convoy to the Mediterranean; and it passed in the negative: and it was resolved That the company would very suddenly chuse general ships to all parts of Turkey, to be ready to depart by the 1st of July next.

N. B. The 1st of July was then generally understood to mean winter, as the ships usually had departed at that time, which would have compleated two years prohibition.

This being the case, several members of the company, who had provided large quantities of woollen cloth, and other goods, for Turkey, applied to the house of commons; and, on the 24th of January, 1718, a committee was appointed to consider of the state of the woollen manufacture of this kingdom, and particularly in relation to the exportation of woollen cloth.

This committee sat, in pursuance of their appointment; and, on the 3d of February, the complainants attended, and delivered to the committee a representation, setting forth the then state of that trade, and the inconveniences arising from the delay of shipping; which is signed by P. Delmé, John Lock, Ro. Radcliffe, Edward Radcliffe, James Lock, John Hanger, and Joseph Eyles, who were some of the most considerable merchants in the Turkey trade at that time; which paper has been in the custody of Mr Kenn ever since, who attended the said committee as clerk; no report being made, the complainants being made easy by the governing part of the company, at the intercession of Mr Secretary Craggs.

This application occasioned a general court to be held, on the 6th of February; and then it was resolved, That the trade should be carried on by a general annual shipping. 1718, 6 Feb. page 254.

And a general court was held; and, at the desire of the complainants, two general ships were chosen, and appointed for Smyrna and Constantinople, to depart from Gravesend the 15th of March, 1715; which makes the prohibition two years and a quarter. 1718, 12 Feb.

The last order is recited; and also that it was intended, that other general ships be in like manner chosen and appointed for Scanderoon, and for Smyrna and Constantinople, if desired by any member of the company to depart the 1st of July. 1718, 24 Feb. page 271.

And it was resolved, That from and after the departure of the aforesaid general ships, no other general ships should be appointed until Midsummer, 1720.

It is recited, That the trade was carried on to greater advantage by general than by private ships, if annually appointed : to the end, therefore, that the said trade may again revive, It is resolved, That, for the future, general ships shall be annually chosen, and the time of their departure to be about Michaelmas :

And that, if the company shall not appoint such ships, it shall be lawful for any member of the company to send cloth, or other woollen manufactures, by any ship, to depart from Gravesend on or before the last day of October ; provided such ships be not less than 200 tons, British-built, &c.

The same orders continued : 1722, 8 June.

And the trade was carried on by annual general ships, 'till the 2d of June, 1731, when the choice of general ships was suspended for twelve months longer. 1731, 2 June, page 226.

From that time, to the 14th of May, 1734, it was carried on by annual general ships ; but, on the 25th of October, 1733, it was ordered, that the ship sent out this year to Scanderoon should not be allowed to bring home any silk, or mohair yarn. 1733, 25 Oct. page 219.

And on the said 14th of May, 1734, it was resolved, That the trade should be carried on by general ships. 1734, 14 May, page 7.

And the order of the 21st of October, 1724, for the general court to chuse ships, was repealed ; as also the article for the time of the ships departure :

And the 10th article for allowing private ships, when no annual general ships were appointed :

And it was resolved, That the company will, at a proper time, agree when they will take up ships for the service of the year.

From this time to 1735, the trade has been carried on by general ships :

And, from the 17th of June, 1735, to 1743, by general annual ships ; with a proviso, that, if the several ships were not provided to depart at the stated times, it should be lawful to send cloths, or woollen manufactures, by any other ships, provided such ships be not less than 200 tons, British-built, and to carry 15 men for every 100 tons they are in burden. 1735, 17 June, page 48.

N. B. These are called act ships (vide the 14th of king Charles II.)

So that the trade to Turkey, from 1718 to 1743, has been restrained to annual general ships, to be appointed at stated times ; or general ships, to be appointed when the company should think fit ; notwithstanding the strong reasons given against carrying on the trade under such restraints, in the representations delivered to the committee of the house of commons in 1718 ; which representation is as follows :

The complainants do admit, That the company have, time out of mind, carried on their trade to Turkey sometimes by private ships, sometimes by general ships : they desire only to remind the honourable committee, that, by the whole tenor of those old records by the company produced, it does appear, that they themselves have frequently thought the delay of shipping of so dangerous a consequence, that, if they departed not annually, liberty was then given to each and every member, to export his own goods in such manner, and by such ways, as he should think proper :

And the complainants think it unnecessary to enter into the consideration what trade was, or how driven, 50 or 100 years ago, in it's infancy ; or whether the Dutch or the French had any or no trade in those days :

They desire to come to the present times ; and to consider in what methods of trade the company have been, since the conclusion of the last war, and the alterations they have lately made : and it appears to have been carried on by what is usually called an open trade, that is, by such ships as the respective members did appoint to carry away their respective cloth, and the cloth of such other members as might please to load upon them, to depart at such seasons of the year as were found to be most convenient, which was usually in autumn, or by Christmas.

Accordingly, the last cloth ships did depart about that season of the year, anno 1717 ; and many members of the company expecting the trade would continue to be carried on in the same manner, went on in buying and finishing cloth, as usual, for the year 1718 :

But, on the 26th of March, 1718, the company in a court resolved (as they themselves have related it) that their members, for the future, should trade only by general ships ; which was understood to be, by ships chosen by themselves, as a body collective, and to depart at such season as they should think proper to appoint :

And, on the 23d of April, 1718, they resolved, That if any members should, in any other manner, send cloth to Turkey they would levy 20 per cent. on such members cloth in Turkey ; and added, that they would consider of general ships on the 23d of October following, and not before :

And in their own preamble (as it was here read) they give this remarkable reason for their alteration, That it was in order to raise the value of English manufactures abroad, and

silk at home ; hereby evidently demonstrating their private advantage, that of the nation, doubtless, lying more in a large consume than in a large price, as the one may beat our neighbours out of the trade, whilst the other must necessarily give them a share in it. Now, although many members thought all this a great hardship, yet did they acquiesce, in full expectation that, at that time, they should be permitted to export their cloth (at least) in the company's own way : But, on the 6th of November. they resolved to adjourn the further consideration of shipping for two months longer ; and this made that evident, which was before suspected, that they really intended no shipping at all :

Whereupon, a representation of this grievance was made to the ministry, who became so sensible of this their extraordinary way of proceeding, and it's so highly interfering with the common good, that Mr Secretary Craggs sent for the company (as they themselves have observed) and desired them to reconsider this matter :

Which the company did, in a general court on purpose assembled, on the 4th of December ; when they resolved, that they would chuse ships for the immediate exportation of cloth, on the 8th of January following, and appointed a committee to attend Mr Secretary with this their resolution :

But, when the 8th of January came, they, by a majority of one vote only, instead of chusing ships, ordered a survey of ships, and a report to be made on the 22d of January.

When the report was made, on the 22d of January, they then resolved, That they would, in proper time, chuse ships, but not to depart before the first of July next : now that 1st of July was then generally understood (before this application) to mean winter ; and, in that case, it would have completed two years prohibition of trade.

Now this irregular and uncertain proceeding of the company, was the cause that your complainants, thought the interposition of the honourable house of commons, in this case most proper, in order to their relief, in the exportation of that great quantity of cloth which has been so long prevented, to their own, and, as they conceive, to the nation's prejudice :

And they humbly offer the following reasons for it : That the company's charter does not warrant them in such a prohibition, or restraint of trade ; the clauses particularly relating thereto are submitted to the judgment of this committee, and will be spoken to by some of them.

Nor will Westminster-Hall (it is conceived) warrant their levying 20 in the 100 upon their members estates ; and therefore they always exercise this power in Turkey :

Nor can such restraint be for the common good of the woollen manufacture of this kingdom, but evidently the contrary, as it necessarily encourages the French and Dutch trade to Turkey ; and it is so advised at this very time, and letters are ready to be produced in proof of it :

Nevertheless it is granted, that there may be other letters, approving of this restraint, and advising that there was cloth remaining unfold, and particularly at Aleppo ; but there is very good reason to believe that it may, by this time, be all fold ; and had most of it been long since fold, had there not been an understanding between the managers here and there, in order, as the company's preamble sets forth, to raise the price of cloth abroad, and the price of silk at home.

☞ This restraint may be also a great cause why so much wool, at this time, is sent to France ; because they have a vent to Turkey, and we have none.

And the hindering the exportation of woollen goods to Turkey at this critical conjuncture, when none can go either to Old or New Spain, may deserve consideration.

And the complainants do hope, that it will be found by this committee, that such members of the company as are willing to trade, ought to trade, and have a right to trade, even by the charter itself.

It has been objected, That the trade has been over-driven ; and be it so : will not that, in the nature of the thing, reduce the exportation as far as may be needful, without a forcible restraint ? And doth it not appear very odd, that a majority of the company, some of whom are unconcerned in the trade, and others but little, should have more regard to the welfare of their largest trading members than they have for themselves ?

Our legislature never thought the over-driving the trade to Portugal, Spain, or Italy, a sufficient reason to intrust those traders with a power of restraining it at their pleasure.

It must be allowed, that the present situation of affairs has made great alterations in almost every thing.

Low interest raises land, enlarges trade, and reduces profit : but this is the evil ; and, therefore, the remedy proposed by these restraints steps in, viz. that cloth may be bought the cheaper at home, and sell the dearer abroad :

That silk may be bought the cheaper abroad, and sell the dearer at home.

But, all this while, the French and Dutch are encouraged to supply the woollen trade abroad ; and to supply (in a larger degree) the silk manufactures at home :

And our own manufacturers, in the mean time, both in wool and

and silk, so far deprived of their employments.—But should the merchant lose, yet the nation must gain.

It has been further objected, That, by a delay, more cloth will be exported; and so, probably, there may, should the ships be yet detained twelve months longer.—But then the company should take care to prohibit the French and Dutch, and the Turks too, who, at this very time, are carrying on a cloth manufacture of their own:

But there can be no doubt but the speedy sending abroad what is now provided, will be a greater encouragement to the buying more cloth than the detaining it can be; in that most of this must be sold before another supply can follow it.

But were it otherwise, it is presumed that those who industriously have laid out their estates in cloth, ought not to be detained for the sake of those who have neglected it; and it is believed, it may be granted, that the complainants are as likely to buy more cloth as any other members whatever.

Although the company have frequently practised this way of trading by general ships, yet it has occasioned frequent misunderstandings between the members themselves, and also the manufacturers. Two instances hereof may be offered, one, upon a like occasion with this: some members made application to king Charles in council; the company were heard, and pretended many difficulties: the king himself asked the question, Whether there might be any members that, notwithstanding, were willing to trade? It was answered, There might: Then, said the king, they shall; and ordered trade to be opened.

The other was a complaint of the manufacturers to the house of commons, upon a delay of shipping; when an annual shipping for Turkey, in summer for Aleppo, in winter for Smyrna and Constantinople, had probably been enacted, had not the company, by large promises of doing the thing, prevented it.

Now whether this pretended power to stop trade be warrantable, or whether it has been exercised for the common good, is humbly submitted to this honourable committee.

P. DELME,
JOHN LOCK,
RO. RADCLIFFE,
EDWARD RADCLIFFE,
JAMES LOCK,
JOHN HANGER,
JOSEPH EYLES.

The CASE of the GOVERNOR and COMPANY of MERCHANTS of ENGLAND trading to the LEVANT SEAS, as laid before the PARLIAMENT by the TURKEY COMPANY, in the year 1743, in order to prevent the trade being laid absolutely open, as was then aimed at.

If the Levant company saw reason to hope the bill, as now framed, which is depending, could answer the ends proposed, of enlarging as well as regulating the Trade to Turkey, they should think themselves guilty of breaking the trust reposed in them, if they did not use their best endeavours to further it's being passed into a law: but they owe to the public the setting their charter in a true light, and the bearing testimony against attempts, how specious soever, which threaten the nation with the loss of the remains of this valuable trade.

The charter cannot be said to establish a monopoly, or exclusive trade: the company is already open to all manner of persons not below the degree of mere merchants: it is expressly declared, That the trade shall not be confined to one port; and it is certain that none of the petitioners for the bill ever applied for their freedom of the company and were refused: all merchants, of what place or port soever, have a right to be admitted to their freedom, every person above 26 years of age paying a fine (for the use of the company) of 50 l. and every one under that age, 25 l. all sons and apprentices of freemen are admitted upon paying 20 s. only.

There is, indeed, a condition required by a second charter of king Charles II, of those merchants dwelling in London, or within 20 miles of it, that they shall be free of the city: but this extends to them only, and does not, nor can be pretended, to affect persons dwelling at a greater distance.

The fine taken upon admission, with regard to the company, is not worth mentioning, further than observing, that the sum cannot be deemed onerous to any one in a condition of engaging in a trade, which from it's distance, and other circumstances, is of a very tedious circulation, and requires a large stock: it is small with regard to the share it admits to of the fruits of past very great expences, and is rather an advance made to the company than a fine; for, as it goes to the public stock, he who pays this fine, or advance, has his share of it, by a proportionable less duty levied on his trade, and also of all other fines levied after his admission.

The limitation to mere merchants is expressed, by the charter, to be for preventing the disorders and inconveniences which had then been found by experience, and must arise from the too great resort of low mean people, to places where the customs and laws are so intirely different from their own; where they must themselves be exposed to a variety of hazards and dangers, and by any fraudulent attempts, or even by

their irregularities and follies, may offend the Grand Signior, and involve themselves and others in troubles and dangers. When irregularities happen, if they are carried before a magistrate, expence must be the inevitable consequence; and, no doubt, these irregularities would multiply upon a greater resort of low people: and particular instances have fallen out, with regard to every nation established in the Levant, where the lives and estates of the subjects of each nation, then resident in Turkey, have been in danger, from the absurdity or villainy of one man.

The quarrel between Sir Kenelm Digby and the Venetian admiral, in the bay of Scanderoon, cost the Turkey company above 20,000 l. A dispute with Sir Sackville Crew cost above 80,000 l. A pretence that a quantity of pieces of eight were not of the true alloy, cost 7 or 8000 l. A detention of the capitulations by a vizir, and other little disputes about the same time, cost as much: the roguery of a captain, who had taken a freight at Alexandria, cost the English at Cairo a great deal of money, and had like to have occasioned the murder of them all: and the indiscretion of a young man, under Dutch protection at Aleppo, within these few years, caused an insurrection in that city, which threatened the lives and estates of all the foreigners there: and, lastly, the company have been obliged to pay the Turks, as an indemnification for captures made on them by British privateers, during the last war, no less a sum than 12,000 l. These are a very few of the many instances that are to be met with.

The trade to Turkey is carried on under the protection of the capitulations, or treaty of friendship and commerce between his Majesty and the Sultan; which was procured, and has been since upheld and renewed, at great expences to the company.—By this treaty, the British subjects are put upon a much better foot, in point of trade, than even any of the Sultan's own subjects, by paying less customs, as well as in other respects.—These exemptions must, no doubt, give uneasiness to the farmers of the customs, and the Sultan's subjects that are traders; so that it requires a very even and steady conduct to avoid giving occasions of offence, which seldom escape animadversion; and often slight ones are taken, or feigned ones urged, to extort money; and the greatest care is taken by the company to support the credit of this nation through the Grand Signior's dominions, by the most exact punctuality in all their dealings with the people of the country; and, more particularly, they have always guarded, in the most effectual manner, against all attempts to run customs, or to cover subjects or other strangers' goods: but if room is left for every one to become adventurers in this trade, to carry it on as they themselves shall please, bad and perverse people, free of all restraint, will break in upon all order, endanger the quiet and security of every body, and every thing, and endanger the total loss of this still valuable branch of the British commerce.

As the company stands at present, it cannot be properly called any thing more than a body established for the well and orderly management of the trade into the Levant, and providing for the support of the necessary expences attending it; which are, the maintenance of the king's ambassador at the Porte, the consuls, and other necessary officers and servants, at the places of trade, and the obtaining and supporting the capitulations granted by the Porte at different times to the king's subjects; [see LEVANT TRADE] and the company have, at great expence, obtained very valuable privileges for the king's subjects from the Ottoman emperors, and hitherto supported them through many struggles.—They have established proper settlements for the management of their affairs; they have, for many years, carried on a considerable trade, greatly advantageous to the nation, in exporting it's manufactures and produce, and importing unmanufactured goods, though often under difficulties and discouragements to themselves; and have at this time great dependencies abroad.

If it be true, as the petitioners for the bill set forth, that the trade of this company is decayed, it is an unwarrantable conclusion that the management under the present charter is the cause of it: but still the Turkey company is ready to own, and desirous it should be known, that their trade is lessened, and under difficulties, and the French trade increased; and they have made heretofore proper representations of it, but the remedy is far out of the reach of any thing attempted by this bill, as the laying the trade between England and Turkey more open will not be the means to increase it, but probably quite the reverse; which may be fairly inferred from the case of our neighbours the Dutch, where the trade to Turkey is open and free, and yet very inconsiderable, scarce any at all: and that the French trade does not owe it's increase to it's being more open or more free than the English, is plain from it's being under much more strict regulations: [see LEVANT TRADE] a chamber of commerce has the superintendency of this branch of commerce in France.—The cloth is exported only from one port there, viz. Marseilles: no Frenchman goes to Turkey but with a licence; nor is permitted by the French government to settle in Turkey, without first giving security in France for his good behaviour in the Grand Signior's dominions: The number of houses for the sale of their cloth in Turkey is limited; the prices of their cloths are fixed in France, from

which they cannot depart ; and they are not at liberty to undersell one another in Turkey ; and when one house has sold its quantity allotted, that house can sell no more 'till the other houses have sold theirs : so strict are their regulations.

The French cloth-trade has gained ground by the encouragement and assistance it receives from the public : that manufacture was established in Languedoc, by Mr Colbert, on purpose for the Turkey trade ; and at so vast an expence, that he exposed himself to great censure by that measure, though the event has shewn the wisdom of his views. These cloths are chiefly made of Spanish wool : there is a premium allowed by the public on every piece of this cloth ; and, besides, there are several establishments (which are called royal manufactures) made at the expence of the public, or the province where there are conveniences for making a piece of cloth from the wool, to its being packed to put aboard the ship ; and a clothier is put into one of those rent-free, on the sole condition of making a certain number of pieces of this cloth in a year. This is the most visible reason why they can sell cloth, made of those fine materials, at a lower rate than we can sell our cloth ; and however the French cloth may want the substance of ours, it has a preferable appearance, takes a beautiful colour, and is lighter than ours, and serves several of their purposes ; and though many repeated attempts have been made to imitate it in England, they have proved ineffectual. See the article MANUFACTURERS.

The next principal article of the Turkey trade, and the great branch of returns from thence, is silk : one half of that commodity used to come from Persia through Turkey ; but the continual wars that have raged in Persia, for many years past, have cut off all supplies of silk from thence ; and if things should return to their former quiet state in Persia, and the silk provinces to the flourishing condition they were once in, it is uncertain whether this branch of trade would return to the Levant company, since it has been thought expedient to open another channel for it ; and the returns of silk from the Levant are, at this time, confined to the raw silk of the produce of Turkey, of which the company buy almost the whole that comes to market in Turkey for exportation ; and that the company purchase with English cloth, and other products, bartered in exchange : and if they were to send money (which they many years ago made a by-law to prohibit, out of a regard to the public good) they would not get more silk, would sell little or no cloth, and the French would get that money in exchange for their cloth.

As to mohair-yarn, which is another considerable article of return, the company buy constantly as much as hath always been a full supply for this market ; and there is a considerable decrease (arising from the alteration of fashions) in the consumption of that commodity at home : and, to shew the company's readiness of embracing every opportunity that offers of increasing their trade, they have, in the article of cottons, which they found a demand for in England, and a supply in Turkey, increased their imports of that commodity from 400 bales to 5,000, within these few years ; which may serve to compensate for some of the articles their trade is decreased in.

The latitude given by the bill, in exporting and importing, renders impracticable the restraints that may be necessary to obviate dangers of infection ; and the liberty given to import goods to all manner of persons in the Levant, is putting all sorts of strangers upon the same foot as natural-born subjects ; and is, at least, giving away the advantage of commission : it also may raise dangerous disputes about capitulations, and endanger the loss of them.—Nay, by this latitude, the French factors may find means to send hither goods bought abroad with their manufactures.

But if the wisdom of the legislature shall think fit to attempt the enlarging or retrieving the Levant trade, some more probable methods may be found out, and not liable to the same objections with those in this bill ; such as a proper encouragement, in whatever shape may be thought fit, for making such sorts of cloth as the French send ; or the assisting the company in the burden of their expences, which run high upon the trade, as the same, or a greater sum, is to be raised upon the remains of it, than when it was in its most flourishing condition : but as to the means proposed by the bill, some of them could not have any effect at all, and others may have very fatal consequences. All which is humbly submitted to the consideration of the legislature.

An abstract of what has been argumentatively urged, in opposition to the Turkey company, in order to lay that branch of trade quite open to all his majesty's subjects, by a very ingenious gentleman *.

* Reflections on the Expediency of opening the Trade to Turkey, &c. Printed for T. Trye, near Gray's-Inn Gate, in Holborn, London, 1753.

I. All the powers in Europe are endeavouring to extend their commerce ; and if Great-Britain cannot extend her's in proportion, she will be no longer able to preserve that figure she has hitherto preserved †.

† This is a true maxim, but that laying the Turkey trade absolutely open, is a measure conducive to that end, has been denied by many, and particularly by another very judicious gentleman, Mr. Hanway, in his travels, and his answer to the appendix of a pamphlet, entitled Reflections upon Naturalizations, Corporations, and Companies, &c. as this subject is occasionally mentioned in Hanway's travels.—By the author of these travels. Printed for Doddsley and Millar.

II. Many of these countries, Spain in particular, which used to admit great quantities of English merchandize, are now setting up manufactures of their own, and laying burdens on ours, to prevent their introduction : so that it is become more expedient than ever, to seek out as many new markets as we can*.

* That this is matter of fact, is shewn throughout divers parts of our dictionary. See the articles BISCAY, CASTILLE, CATALONIA, INDIA-HOUSE OF SPAIN, SPAIN, SPANISH-AMERICA.

The Turkey company are not able, were they willing, to sell the English manufactures so cheap as they might be rendered by a free trade : For,

(1). If no ships are allowed to be employed, but the general ships of the company appointed by the managers, a private member has no choice, but must submit to all the expences and discouragements which the managers will lay upon him.

(2). The carriage of the goods up to London, the gains of factors, warehouse-keepers, &c. are taxes heavy enough on the manufacture, to turn the ballance in favour of the French.

(3). The expence of package, portorage, hallage, loading and unloading, &c. are more exorbitant in London, than in any part of the kingdom.

(4). The dearth of victualling and manning of ships in the port of London, is another material article ; whereas many ports are not only cheaper, but more commodiously situated, as being nearer the places where the goods are manufactured.

IV. The gains of an exclusive company can never coincide with the welfare of the public ; inasmuch as monopolists, established by law, are thereby secured from rivals ; so that their particular interest consists in selling as dear as they can : whereas the interest of private adventurers is to sell as cheap as possible, in order to get custom by rivaling each other. Thus the public is benefited by emulation, as it promotes the circulation of labour and universal plenty ; but is hurt by monopolists, who are a check to industry, to the circulation of labour at home, and its exportation abroad ; and whose only view is to sacrifice the general interest to that of a few.

V. The Turkey company is a monopoly in every sense, as no private member is allowed to fit out a ship when he pleases, to export and import what quantities of goods he would chuse.—As the trade is confined to the expensive part of London.—As the freedom of the company is limited to merchants by profession, and has been obstructed under frivolous pretence.—As the members themselves are fettered with by-laws.

VI. This exclusive society not only exports a much less quantity of English labour than would be, were the English trade free, but also imports the less of raw materials, so necessary for several manufactures, and the employment of the poor.—That important article, raw silk in particular, which should always be brought to market at the lowest price possible, has by monopolies, been raised so high, as greatly to injure the silk manufacture. And this arises from two causes : (1). The Turks will deal with those that supply them with goods on the cheapest terms ; consequently not with the English ; and sell to those, who give the highest price, [i. e. the greatest quantity of labour in exchange] which an exclusive society will not do : therefore our English company neither will, nor can make great returns in Turkish goods.

(2). After the goods are brought to England, the company keep up the price of their sales as high as possible, in order to get immense profits on small imports. And this they do with safety, because there are none to rival them.

VII. Our woollen manufacturers are ready to make it appear, from the specimens they have seen of the cloth of Languedoc designed for the Levant, that they are able to out-rival the French, provided this commerce has a free course, and every adventurer is permitted to ship off from what port he pleases.

VIII. Were such liberty obtained, they have reason to conclude, that they could render their goods still cheaper.

(1). Because those drugs for dyeing, which now pass through the hands of a company, would be sold at a more reasonable rate.

(2). Because the oils and ashes for making Castille soap could be purchased on such advantageous terms, as would induce the English to set up that branch of manufacture : which soap is made at present chiefly at Marseilles, thence sent to Leghorn, and from Leghorn imported into England ; by which means the English manufacturer is burdened with an heavy

heavy additional expence.—Nor is this the only evil; for our colonies in America are now wholly supplied with French soap from Martinico, and the other islands belonging to that crown, and even from France itself (the present English soap made of tallow not being fit for their climates): by which means several other species of French manufactures are introduced into our sugar islands and northern colonies, to the great detriment of the commerce, revenue, and navigation of Great-Britain: But,

(3.) Another reason why the woollen cloths, designed for the Levant, might be vended cheaper, is, because a considerable saving is to be made in the expence of dyeing. For were this trade to have a free course, the manufacturer might dye his own cloth at such a season as would not interfere with his other business, and contrive every thing to the best advantage: whereas, at present, the cloth is sent up white to London, and dyed there in haste, and at an exorbitant charge, both as living and wages are dearer, and as those journeymen, who have not constant business, must have the higher wages while they are employed.

IX. All other parts of a cargo for the Turkish dominions, as well as woollens, might be rendered much cheaper, as the expence of carriage, shipping, &c. would be considerably less.—Moreover, there is the strongest probability, that great demands would arise from the manufactures of iron, steel, brass, and copper, for cutlery and Birmingham ware; for the produce of the looms of Manchester, Coventry, and Norwich; for printed linens, paper-hangings, and such kinds of ornaments; as most of these articles might be exported from several places, at less charges than from London.—And as the English are known to excel other nations, both in fabric and cheapness: so that, were the trade free, the port of Marseilles would labour under such difficulties from those circumstances, as the advantage of its situation could by no means compensate.

X. Add to this, that the freight, and insurance, and navigation of ships are much dearer, in proportion, at Marseilles, than in England. The interest of money is also 6 per cent. and the price of tin and lead, and shot, must necessarily be much higher, so that the prodigious increase of their Levant trade, cannot possibly be ascribed to any other cause, than to the monopolies and exclusions of the English against their own countrymen, in favour of the French. And therefore it should be duly considered by every true patriot, and lover of his country, that the chief competition, in this struggle for the liberty of commerce, is not between one English merchant and another,—but between Great-Britain and France.

XI. Were the trade laid open, the Turks, Greeks, and all the nations of those vast territories would find a greater demand for their respective commodities, and then they could afford to buy greater quantities of ours:—whereas, at present, they neither are able to purchase much, nor, if they were, are they inclined to do it, on account of the excessive dearth of the English merchandize.

XII. An increase of the exportation of our own manufactures must create an increase in the excise, and all inland duties; for the government is infallibly a gainer by every scheme that finds employment for the people, encourages labour, and promotes wealth, as these things necessarily occasion the greater consumption of all commodities that pay duties:—on the other hand, an increase of the importation of such foreign materials, as excite the industry of the natives, is doubly advantageous, both by the customs they pay at first landing, and the hands they employ afterwards. Therefore, the increase of such a trade is desirable in every light, both to the government, and to the people.

XIII. If any of the merchants, belonging to the out-ports, should happen to bring in such raw materials as are not wanted on the spot, the advantages they receive in other respects would enable them to pay the expence of carriage to a proper market. And, indeed, the carriage of raw silk, camels hair, cotton, wool, &c. from Bristol to Coventry, from Liverpool to Manchester and Derby, from Yarmouth to Norwich, &c. would not be so dear, as it is now from London to those places. Besides, it is natural to suppose, that as the trade increased, other towns in the north and west, and middle of England, and in Scotland also, would set up manufactures. So that every part of the united kingdom ought to consider itself as interested in opening this monopoly.

XIV. Whatever regulations are judged necessary, under the inspection of proper persons, either at home or abroad, for the good government of a free trade, or the preservation of health, and security from the plague, they will be gladly received, and thankfully submitted to. And an open trade might be very easily put under much stricter examinations, not only as to the goodness of the manufactures exported, but also in relation to bills of health, and performing quarantine, [see QUARANTINE] than what the company have been subject to for many years past.—Though a plague in London would have been much more fatal, than in any other part of the kingdom.

XV. Were the trade to Spain or Portugal now in the hands of a company, and an attempt made to render it free, great pains would be taken, as there are now in the present case, to set forth the danger of permitting shopkeepers and low tradesmen to go over to Spain or Portugal.

‘They will raise the jealousy of the populace, by interfering with their trades,—or inflame the zeal of bigots against countenancing hereticks:—low and indiscreet people will import prohibited books, and so draw down the power and vengeance of the Inquisition,—will give offence, by their behaviour, while the host is passing by,—perhaps ridicule some of their religious processions, and so cause tumults and insurrections:—or, in general, they will not fail to excite a universal odium, by the diversity of their dress and customs, and great licentiousness of manners. — Therefore, by attempting to throw the trade open, we shall infallibly lose it all.’

Thus it appears, that objections much more plausible might be raised against opening the trade to Spain and Portugal, were it now in the hands of a company, than against the revocation of any exclusive grant now subsisting. But, indeed, we must consider all these kinds of objections as the mere dialect of monopolists, who use it, *mutatis mutandis*, against opening any trade, in order to carry their own private interest, under an appearance of public good.

But common sense and daily experience are continually exposing the falsity of such suggestions. And were the trade opened to Turkey, there is no degrees of probability, that shopkeepers and low people would be fond of going there:—and if they did go, they certainly would agree with the natives, as well as the English sailors do now.

XVI. If the trade to Turkey had a free course, what reason is there to imagine, that it would be engrossed by the Jews? And why must it be supposed, that the English in particular would suffer in this respect, more than the French, Dutch, or Italians? Besides, as the Jews might insist upon the freedom of the company, as well as others, provided they are merchants by profession; and as they reside chiefly in London, and are a rich united body of merchants, this very objection might be urged with greater force against the confining such a trade to a company, than against laying it open;—especially as the English Jews, by means of their connection with their brethren in Turkey, who are the only brokers in that country, might be the better able to form a combination to ingross the whole trade themselves, and execute it with success. But, in fact, this objection betrays its own weakness, and would never have been brought, if a stronger could be found; and it is the first time that the Jews were accused of being injurious to the interests of a trading nation.

XVII. It is equally incredible, that the government and people of Turkey should be displeased at the dissolution of the present monopoly. And what grounds are there for such a supposition? For, in an open trade, English manufactures would be imported in greater quantity and variety, and on cheaper terms,—more Turkish goods be taken in barter, and a larger revenue would arise to the government. But, in a confined trade, fewer manufactures are imported, more exorbitant in price, demanding fewer goods in exchange, and paying less to the customs. And can we imagine, that the Turks would once hesitate, to which side the preference is due? Or have we ever found, that any of those other nations, to whom we once traded by exclusive companies, have complained at the dissolution of these destructive monopolies, and desired their restoration?

To confirm this, we have a remarkable speech recorded in Camden’s *Annals* of one of the Czars of Muscovy, when that country was thought to be over-spread with ignorance and barbarism; which is mentioned by the reverend and ingenious Mr Smith, in his *Memoirs of Wool*, vol. i. p. 114, viz.

Theodore Joannides succeeding to the empire, granted to all merchants, of what nation soever, free access into Russia. And being oftentimes solicited by the queen [Elizabeth] to confirm the privileges granted by his father to the Muscovy company of English merchants, to wit, that only Englishmen of that company should come into, or trade into the north parts of Russia, and that custom free, in regard they were the first that discovered the passage thither by sea: he thereupon desired her to give liberty to all the English to trade into Russia; for, to permit some, and deny others, was an injustice. Princes, says he, must carry an indifferent hand between their subjects, and not convert trade (which by the law of nations ought to be common to all) into a monopoly, to the private gain of a few. As for his customs, he promised to exact less by one half of that company than the rest, because they first discovered the passage thither by sea. In other matters he confirmed their former privileges, and added some few more, out of his respect to the queen, and not for any desert, as he said, of the company, many of whom he found had dealt falsely with his subjects.

XVIII. But when an exclusive grant is once obtained, it must be defended by some kind of arguments, however weak and inconclusive. Now the Turkey company was first erected, and afterwards established in such times, when the principles

of trade, and the nature of the landed and commercial interests of a kingdom were not understood;—or, if understood, not sufficiently regarded:—in such times when monopolies and exclusions carried all before them. Of the truth of which assertion, we need only consult Rymer's *Fœdera*, and the common historians for the reigns of queen Elizabeth, king James I. and king Charles I. to find sufficient evidence; many of which monopolies were again renewed by king Charles II. — And, at the time of the Revolution, were grown too powerful to be attacked with safety.

For, as to foreign trade, there was an exclusive company to Hamburg and the Baltic,—to Muscovy and Greenland,—to Germany and Flanders,—to France,—to Spain, and Portugal,—to Italy,—and to Africa.

Special licences were also to be purchased for the importation, or sale of madder, logwood, deal-boards, wine, and tobacco:—likewise, for the exportation of corn, leather, and butter.

And, 2dly, As to our domestic commerce, there were pre-exemptions, or monopolies for tin, salt, and coals: exclusive patents for sea-weed, kelp, and glass,—salt-petre and gunpowder,—soap and starch,—gold and silver lace,—beaver hats, and demi-castors,—dyeing and dressing of cloth,—making of allum,—and even for gathering of rags.

Special licences were also necessary to be obtained for making iron, and cutting down wood for charcoal,—making of butter casks,—using of wine casks for ale and beer;—also for making of malt,—and brewing of ale for public vent.

Moreover, the gardeners, for six miles round London, were incorporated into an exclusive company, as were also the traders and artificers within the district of three miles.

Now all monopolies and exclusions (and many more might be enumerated) set out with pompous titles, and great professions of zeal for the public welfare. They were all established, either for the increase and good government of trade,—or to keep up the credit of the English manufactures in foreign markets,—or for preventing the ignorant and unwary from being imposed upon at home. —But the true reason of their establishment remains yet to be told, viz. **JOB** and **MONOPOLY**.

This was the æra in which the Turkey company had it's birth and education. And all the others, while in being, had just the same pretensions of public good to alledge in their favour: but time has shewn, that we are much happier without them.

XIX. As London is the capital of the British empire, and the centre of the body politic, every accession of wealth, trade, manufacture, navigation, and numbers of inhabitants, to other parts of the kingdom, must redound to the advantage of the metropolis. For the centre in the body politic, is like the heart in the natural body, which receives benefit itself, by the brisk and regular circulation of blood in the extremities. But if any one should doubt of this parallel, let experience and matter of fact determine. For when almost the whole trade of the kingdom was circumscribed by exclusive grants, and those monopolies confined to the single city and port of London, this city made a very mean and inconsiderable appearance, to what it doth at present: but, in proportion, as the inland countries, and the out-ports began to shake off some of their fetters, and extend their commerce; in the same proportion did the metropolis increase in wealth and grandeur, number of inhabitants, and extent of buildings. In short, if there was an accession of wealth to the farthest isles of Scotland, it would, sooner or later, find it's way to London. [See our article **MIDDLESEX**.]

XX. Upon the whole, therefore, the continuation of this exclusive company, is no other in effect, than the payment of a very large tribute annually to France;—together with this mortifying reflection, that this is a tribute we are not forced to pay, but do it voluntarily; though we know, that some of her best provinces are supported by it, some hundreds of ships employed in the navigation, and the government enabled to turn the wealth and strength, acquired by our indolence and mismanagement, to our own destruction.

XXI. The landed gentlemen, in their respective counties, are more particularly concerned to exert themselves on this interesting occasion; because of the rents of lands and houses will be higher, and the demand for the produce of estates, corn, wool, sheep, cattle, butter, cheese, wood, coal, &c. &c. will be greater, in proportion as the inhabitants of any country do increase in numbers, riches, and manufactures. The poor also would be less numerous, as there is more employment,—the weight of taxes will be lighter, when more persons share in the burthen,—and the tenants, by having better markets, will be better able to pay their rents: but these advantages cannot be obtained, while the present difficulties, which prevent industry, and stop the circulation of labour, are suffered to remain.—In one word, all monopolies are so many combinations against the landed interest. And the more violently they are contended for, the more clearly may the gentlemen of landed property discern, whose interest is promoted, and whose is sacrificed.

The principal points to be proved at the bar of both houses, are the following:

1. That the English manufacturers can rival the French Turkey cloth.

2. That the port of London is the dearest in the kingdom, both for exporting and importing of goods.

3. That not only woollens, but almost all other parts of a cargo to the Levant, can be purchased on cheaper terms in England, than at Marseilles.

4. That freight and insurance are very high at Marseilles, as is also the interest of money.

5. That the exclusive powers of the Turkey company, by restraining and lessening the exports of English manufactures, lessen the labour, and of course, the wealth, power, and navigation of Great-Britain.—And; by lessening the imports of foreign raw materials, greatly obstruct the manufactures of those materials.

R E M A R K S.

This is the substance of what has been urged to lay the Turkey trade absolutely open.—But what may be said, on the other side of the question, we have not room to consider here; we shall defer that to the article **TURKEY TRADE**, where we shall also consider the late act of parliament, made in relation to this commerce, and conclude the subject, from an impartial review of what has been represented, as well under the article **LEVANT TRADE**, and this, as what shall be further said under the article **TURKEY TRADE**.

And, in relation to the **EAST-INDIA** trade in general, as also our **EAST-INDIA COMPANY** in particular, see the articles **EAST-INDIA TRADE** in general, and **EAST-INDIA COMPANY**, **DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY**, **FRENCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY**. But as it is rumoured, that people of weight and distinction will exert themselves to lay the **EAST-INDIA TRADE** open to all his majesty's subjects, and to annihilate absolutely our East-India Company, as an exclusive trading corporation, we shall lay all the evidence impartially together, that we have been able to accumulate, on both sides of the question, that a right judgement may be made, whether such a measure would or would not be expedient, and tend to the public interest or not. Wherefore, besides the peculiar heads to which we have before referred, we shall also, in order to give this matter due consideration, refer our readers to the article **OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY** also in it's place.

ORLEANOIS, in France. In this government are the seven following distinct provinces, viz.

I. ORLEANOIS, properly so called, bounded on the north by Upper Beauce, on the east by Gastinois, on the south by Sologne, and on the west by Dunois and Vendomois.

ORLEANS, the capital city of this province, and one of the most considerable in France, is situated on the river Loire, by means of which, the trade it carries on is very considerable; it consists in all sorts of corn, wine, brandy, sugar, silks, woollen-stuffs, oil, iron, steel, fresh and salt fish, fruit, timber, broads, and a great many other merchandizes. They have also some manufactories, viz. of stockings, both knit and wove, of prepared leather, of refining and baking sugar, &c.

BEAUGENCI, on the same river, has a manufactory of serges and other woollen stuffs.

II. SOLOGNE. The limits of this province are not distinctly set down.

RAMORENTIN, on the little river Sauldre, has a considerable manufactory of serges and woollen cloth, which serves to clothe the army, so that they have a very good trade of it.

III. BEAUCE, lies between Orleanois, Blaisois, Perche, and the isle of France.

CHARTRES, the capital of this province, is situated on the banks of the river Eure. The chief trade here is that of corn. They have also some manufactures, for which the water of the Eure is reckoned very proper.

PLUVIERS, a small town on the rivulet Oeuf. The neighbouring fields produce corn, of which they drive here a considerable trade. The soil produces also wine and saffron.

IV. DUNOIS. This little province has Orleanois on the east, Blaisois on the south, Vendomois on the west, and Lesser Perche on the north.

CHATEAU-DUN, stands on a hill near the river Loire. They make cyder here; and, in some parishes of this district, are manufactories of woollen stuffs, which they sell at Tours, Orleans, and Paris.

V. VENDOMOIS, is bounded on the north by Perche, on the east by Dunois, on the south by Turrenne, and on the west by Maine.

They have in this duchy manufactories of woollen cloth, and gloves. There are also embroiderers and tanners; but the trade of gloves is by far the most considerable. Vendome, the capital, is situated on the Loire.

MONTOIRE, on the same river, is famous for the vast quantity of linen cloth made here.

VI. BLAISOIS, has Beauce on the north, Orleanois on the east, Berry on the south, and Touraini on the west.

BLOIS, on the Loire, is it's capital. The chief trade here consists in wine and brandy, which they send to Orleans, Paris, Tours,

Tours, Angers, Laval, and into Holland. It is also noted for the best watches in the kingdom.

VII. GASTINOIS is bounded on the north by Beauce, on the east by Senonois, on the south by Auxerrois, and on the west by Hurepois. Part of it belongs to the government of Orleans, and the rest to that of the Isle of France. There are abundance of vineyards in this province, and a great many walnut-trees, of the fruit of which they make oil; the soil produces also a great deal of saffron.

CHATEAU-REGNARD, has a manufactory of woollen-cloth, proper to cloath Soldiers. They have also a trade of coarse linen cloths, made in the neighbourhood of Montargis, Cosne, and St Fargeau. The Germans used formerly to trade hither for saffron.

OSTEND, east longitude 2, 45, lat. 51, 15, a city and port town of the Austrian Netherlands in the province of Flanders, situate 12 miles from Bruges. See AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

The late emperor Charles VI. attempted to establish an East-India company at Ostend in the year 1718, but was compelled to desist from the design by the English and Dutch. See AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

In order to give posterity a just idea of this company, and how jealous the Dutch and the English were at this time of the establishment of a new maritime power in Europe, to interfere with their Oriental commerce, it will be necessary to lay before our readers,

A MEMORIAL presented by M. Pestors, resident at the court of Brussels on the part of their high-mightinesses the States-General of the United Provinces, to his excellency the lord marquis de Prie, grandee of Spain, knight of the order of the Anunciada, privy counsellor of state to his imperial and catholic majesty, and minister plenipotentiary for the government of the Austrian Netherlands.

To his excellency,

The undersigned their high-mightinesses resident, is commanded to have the honour to communicate to your excellency the remonstrances, which the directors of the privileged East-India company, as also those of the West-India company established in Holland, have lately renewed, about the navigation and trade which those of the Austrian Netherlands, particularly those of the town of Ostend, still carry on in the Indies, to the great prejudice of the said companies, and of their grants, confirmed and made prohibitory by the treaty of Munster, as well for the subjects of Spain, as for those of the Republic, who out of the said companies, are not allowed to navigate, or carry on any trade within the districts of their grants.

It is upon these fresh remonstrances of the said directors, that their high-mightinesses have charged their envoy extraordinary to his imperial and catholic majesty, to represent to him anew, That having the honour to live in good correspondence and amity with his imperial majesty, and having nothing more at heart than the preservation and continuance of the same good correspondence and harmony, which at all times have subsisted between the subjects on both parts, cannot behold, without grief, that the inhabitants of those countries, subjects to his imperial and catholic majesty, are undertaking matters that may disturb and ruffle that good correspondence, tending to the greatest prejudice with the Republic can suffer, and contrary to the treaties subsisting between his imperial and catholic majesty and their high-mightinesses, so that they have strong and just reasons to complain of the same; the rather, because all the instances made on their part for redress, have proved ineffectual; and that on the contrary, the said inhabitants extend daily their enterprises, in which they seem the more encouraged by the grant, which according to the public news, they have obtained of his imperial and catholic majesty, freely to navigate and trade to the Indies.

Their high-mightinesses foreseeing the unavoidable troubles that must attend this affair, if, on the one hand, his imperial and catholic majesty, contrary to all expectation and equity, should permit his subjects to proceed in their undertakings with respect to their new navigation and trade to the Indies, against the express tenor of treaties; and if, on the other hand, their high-mightinesses making use of their right acquired by the said treaties, should oppose the same; and desiring nothing more than that such inconveniences and troubles may be prevented, their high-mightinesses could not avoid representing afresh to his imperial and catholic majesty, That by the treaty concluded in 1648 at Munster, between his majesty the king of Spain then reigning and his successors, on the one part, and their high-mightinesses on the other part, the navigation and commerce to the East and West-Indies were regulated and limited, with regard to the subjects of Spain, on the foot they then exercised and enjoyed their navigation and commerce to the East-Indies, without power of extending the same further; and with regard to the subjects of the Republic; it was agreed that they should refrain

from the places possessed by Spain. That these articles have always been religiously observed, and the inhabitants of the Spanish Netherlands have never been permitted to trade to the Indies: that the said Netherlands being at present under the dominion of his imperial and catholic majesty, have not in that respect, acquired more right or privileges than they had before; nor can it ever be imagined, that their high-mightinesses after having made so great efforts, and contributed so much to the recovery of the said Netherlands, and other parts of the monarchy of Spain, in favour of his imperial and catholic majesty, pursuant to the engagements entered in on that behalf, could possibly depart from the charters they had granted, and from the right they have for ever acquired by the said treaty of Munster, to maintain the said charters; or that his imperial and catholic majesty had any intention in recovering the said Netherlands, to make any alterations there, much less design, contrary to the stipulations therein so plainly expressed, to cause so great a prejudice to the state, in a point so essential and important to the Republic, and which was so strongly insisted upon in the negotiations at Munster, that had it not been obtained, the treaty would never have been concluded: to which it must be added, that by the 26th article of the barrier treaty it is expressly stipulated, That commerce, and all that depends on it, in the whole and in part, shall remain upon the foot established, and the manner appointed by the articles of the said treaty of Munster, insomuch that the treaty was confirmed by that of the barrier, under the guarantee of the king of Great-Britain, even at the time his imperial and catholic majesty was already in possession of the Netherlands. [See NETHERLANDS.]

And that the right of the States in this particular, being so manifest, their high-mightinesses can but expect, both from the amity, and from the great equity and justice of his imperial and catholic majesty, that he will not any ways infringe it, and therefore earnestly desiring and requiring that the patent which is said to have by him been granted for the establishment of the navigation and commerce of these countries to the Indies may not be published, but rather revoked, or at least rendered ineffectual; and that such orders may be issued out by his imperial and catholic majesty, that such kind of navigation and commerce, with or without patents, may not be carried on any longer, and that the treaties made on that behalf be executed.

This, Sir, is the substance and purport of the orders transmitted by their high-mightinesses to their envoy extraordinary to his imperial and catholic majesty, and those received by the under-named resident direct him, to import the same to your excellency, together with the remonstrances of the directors of the said two companies of the East and West-Indies, which he has the honour to lay before your excellency, with a translation of the same in French, being moreover charged to use the most earnest endeavours to incline your excellency, by your good offices with his imperial and catholic majesty, to second the good and just intentions of their high-mightinesses on the behalf above-mentioned, and to take care that things may not be carried to any extremity, 'till his majesty's further resolution. Done at Brussels this 5th of April 1723. Signed E. Pestors.

REMONSTRANCE II.

Of the directors of the East-India company of the United Provinces, to their high mightinesses the lords the States-General of the United Provinces.

With all due respect, the directors of the privileged East-India company of this country shew, That in the years 1720, and 1721, they had the honour to inform your high-mightinesses by several memorials and representations, of the great loss the company had already suffered, and should still sustain, by the establishment of the new navigation and commerce of the Austrian Netherlands, and particularly of the town of Ostend, in the Indies, since the said Netherlands were separated from the crown of Spain, and restored to his imperial and catholic majesty, directly contrary to what was stipulated by the treaty of peace, concluded at Munster 1648, between the king of Spain of glorious memory, and this state; the principal object and view of which treaty then was, conformably to the instructions of your high-mightinesses ministers plenipotentiary (in the manner they were given, according to the remarks on the same, found in the books of Acit-zema, in the year 1645, which agree with the report of the said ministers plenipotentiary) above all things, to secure the commerce and navigation of the said company in the East-Indies, and to cause the charters granted by your high-mightinesses to be maintained and observed even in Spain; and that each of the contracting parties, that is, both the Castilians and the subjects of this state, should freely enjoy the limits or districts of their commerce, with all the towns, forts, lodges, and fortresses therein situate, and that it should not be permitted to the one to trade or traffic in the district of the other, not only in such places the property whereof belonged respectively to either, but not even in those, which being possessed by neither in property, and remaining their

own masters, might grant liberty of trading to other nations: which last point was, indeed, looked upon by Spain as unreasonable, as may be seen by the report of M. de Meynderswyk, inserted in that of the negotiations of Munster, dated February 7, 1647, since the ministers of Spain alledged at that time, that it was not reasonable to pretend to hinder the king from making conquests in Brasil and in the Indies upon the Portuguese, his rebellious subjects, and to extend his dominions in other parts of the said Indies, whose inhabitants are their own masters, and may give liberty of trade; but which, however, was obtained, and very expressly stipulated on the part of this state, upon the pressing instances of its ministers plenipotentiary, as is contained in the 5th and 6th articles of the treaty of Munster, viz.

That the navigation and commerce to the East and West-Indies shall be maintained, pursuant and conformably to the charters already granted, or afterwards to be granted, and that the present treaty of peace, and the ratifications that shall be given thereupon on both sides, shall serve as security thereof; that pursuant thereto, the Spaniards shall reserve and retain their navigation, in the manner they had it then in the East-Indies, without power of extending themselves further, and that the inhabitants of the United Provinces shall likewise refrain from frequenting the Castilian places in the East-Indies. The petitioners, by their first memorial presented to your high-mightinesses in 1720, have shewn, that the three principal points agreed on in the said articles, to wit, 1st, The peaceable possession of the towns, castles, forts, fortresses, and rights of sovereignty, that were yielded to them, and which the subjects of this state have acquired in the East-Indies. 2dly, The regulation of the limits of navigation and trade in each district, according to the partition that was made, together with the solemn promise of maintaining the grant of the East-India company. 3dly And lastly, The prohibition made to the subjects on both sides, not to attempt any thing to the prejudice of the said convention in their respective districts, nor to set up any new trade, or make any settlement there by new fortresses and lodges, all which is comprehended in the words, not to extend themselves further, have subsisted and been so well observed, that since the conclusion of the said treaty of peace, nothing has been done or attempted, either on the part of Spain, or on the part of the East-India company, from which any consequence may be drawn to the prejudice, or the invalidating of the said convention; but that, on the contrary, the Spaniards have kept to their navigation, as they exercised it at the time of the said treaty of peace, and continued it from Europe by the straits of Magellan in America, and from thence to the Philippine Islands, or Manilles, in the East-Indies, without either extending themselves further, or frequenting or carrying on any trade in the towns, forts, or lodges situate within the limits of the grant of the said East-India company, much less did they erect there any new settlements, fortresses, or factories, not even in the places the inhabitants whereof being their own masters, may permit others to trade, such as Bengal, Siam, &c. as on the part of the said company, navigation and trade have still been carried on towards the east of the Cape of Good Hope, to Batavia and Java, the Red Sea, the coasts of Asia and the Indies, as also in the seas, rivers, and islands, situate between the Manilles and the isle of Java, as far as Japan and the Moluccas inclusively, without extending to the Manilles, or any other places where the Spaniards trade.

Matters between Spain and this state, or the East-India company, would, in all probability, have stood on the same footing without any occasion of complaint, had not the Spanish Netherlands been restored to his imperial and catholic majesty, which has given a handle to many subjects of the said Netherlands very erroneously to maintain, that the emperor is not bound by the treaty made with the king of Spain, his imperial and catholic majesty's predecessor, and that upon that foundation, they had acquired a new right and liberty of trade, which they never had before, viz. to traffic in the Indies, territories, ports, and harbours, which the king of Spain, with respect to navigation and commerce, ever held, out of the limits of Europe; that is to say, out of the common liberty of commerce, as it is expressed in the 4th article of the treaty of truce of the year 1609, because the Castilians, and the king's subjects naturalized, who were reputed Castilians, had solely a right to traffic there, exclusive not only of the other nations, but also of all the other subjects of Spain, as is explained more at large by the Spanish civilian, John Evia de Bolano, in *Curia Philippica*, lib.

1. De Commercio. Terr. cap. 1. where he says, Ningun extranjero del reino puede tractar en las Indias. No aliens, who are not subjects of the kingdom, can trade in the Indies; naming afterwards the king's other subjects; for instance, the Aragonese, Neapolitans, Sicilians, extranjeros de las Indias, that is to say, such as not being Castilians, have no right to trade in the Indies; which is also confirmed by the said report of the negociation of peace, dated December 14, 1646, wherein it is said, on the part of the ministers of Spain, That the trade to the Indies was by no treaty granted to any foreign nation; the rather, because it was not so

much as permitted to the subjects of England, Denmark, and to the Portuguese, while they were under the king's obedience, nor to France before the war, nor to those of Aragon, Naples, nor even to the inhabitants of the Spanish Netherlands, to carry on any commerce in the East-Indies, inferring from thence, that this Republic could not be allowed to enjoy what was denied to the king's own subjects.

This difference between the king's subjects, particularly with respect to the Flandrins and those of Brabant, has been observed, and was in very strong terms expressed, in the deed of cession made in favour of this infanta Clara Isabella Eugenia, the 6th of May 1598, whereby the king yields and makes over to her the Spanish Netherlands upon certain conditions, and no otherwise, as may be seen in the 8th article of the said deed, viz. That neither the infanta nor her consort, nor any of her successors, to whom the said countries should devolve, shall carry on any manner of commerce or trade in the East or West-Indies, nor shall send into those countries any sort of shipping, under what title, name, or pretence soever, upon pain, in case of contravention, of forfeiture of the said countries. And if any of the subjects of the said Netherlands shall, contrary to this prohibition, transport themselves to the Indies, that the sovereigns of the said Netherlands shall be obliged to punish them for it, by confiscation of their estates, and greater penalties, even by death. An instance of the efficacy of this article is to be found in the history of Emanuel de Metteren, among the occurrences of the year 1641, where he says, that those of Antwerp being by the king suspected of trading indirectly to the Indies, a commissioner from court was sent into that city to inspect the merchants books, and to prosecute those who should be found guilty of such a contravention, 'till at last, to prevent many difficulties and prosecutions that would have ensued, the sum of 600,000 ducats was to be paid, to buy off the king's displeasure. Which therefore clearly shews, that the subjects of the Spanish Netherlands never had a right to trade in the Indies, as will be further evinced anon; that although they changed masters at the time of the last barrier treaty, they cannot be deemed to have changed, or bettered their condition; and that the supposition, that his imperial and catholic majesty is not bound by the treaty of Munster, or that being a sovereign, he may grant to the subjects of the said countries such a new right, to the prejudice of the said treaty, ought to be looked upon as erroneous and illusory, for the following reasons:

First, Because the king of Spain, by the deed of cession in favour of the said infanta, and by the treaty of Munster, not only bound himself and his heirs, but also in general, all his and their successors, in what right soever the succession may fall, not to permit, or suffer them to carry on that trade. Secondly, Because all the motives which, at that time induced the king of Great-Britain as well as this state, to enter into an alliance with the emperor against France and Spain, had no other foundation, and that the said alliance was made and concluded with no other view, than to recover the crown of Spain for his imperial majesty, as having a right to it, in the whole or in part, with the same obligations and engagements which the said crown had contracted with Great-Britain and this state, and which subsisted at the time of the demise of the late catholic king of glorious memory, and in the same manner the said monarchy was then constituted; which is a consequence both by the said engagement of the king of Spain for himself and his successors, according to the treaty of Munster, and, according to law, from the nature of the thing itself; to wit, That he who by right of succession inherits and takes the place of the deceased, stands bound and engaged to observe and perform all the treaties and engagements which the deceased had contracted with others.

And the rather, because his imperial and catholic majesty was to engage himself thereto, in a special manner, by the 26th article of the barrier treaty, in receiving the Spanish Netherlands only upon this express condition, viz.

That trade and all that depends upon it, either in the whole or in part, shall remain on the foot established by the treaty of Munster, and in the manner appointed by the articles of the said treaty.

Which articles were, in the year 1715, confirmed between his imperial and catholic majesty and this state in such manner, that no alteration having been made in them, the said Netherlands cannot be considered or deemed, both with respect to the said prior engagements, and to the privileges they enjoyed, but as belonging still to the said sovereign, and as if they never have been severed from the crown of Spain.

Which your high-mightinesses (with due submission be it said) may the rather urge, because having spent so much blood and treasure to recover the Spanish Netherlands to the obedience of his imperial and catholic majesty, you ought not to undergo so great a hardship, as that the said Netherlands or their inhabitants, should at present be allowed to undertake, to the detriment of your high-mightinesses, what they were not permitted to do before, and what they were forbid to do by a solemn treaty.

It may even be maintained, That his imperial and catholic majesty in his great equity and justice, understood and meant it

it so, as has been observed in former memorials; since in the patents or passes which his Majesty has granted to those of Brabant and Flanders, there is a clause, whereby they are prohibited to trade on the coasts of Africa, &c. in such places where, according to treaties, his imperial and catholic Majesty's subjects are not permitted to trade.

Which or other like clause, cannot always refer to any other treaties, but that of Munster and to the barrier treaty, since there are no other treaties that any body knows of, concerning the navigation to the Indies, that regard either his imperial Majesty or his subjects.

It may also be asserted, that the treaty of Munster had never been concluded, nor peace made at that time, between Spain and this state, had it not been for the preservation and maintenance of the India Trade, in favour of the subjects of this state.

All which evinces, that the subjects of the Spanish Netherlands, not having had before the liberty of trading to the Indies, were left in the same state and condition they were put in, both by the prohibition of that commerce, and by the exclusive treaty made on that behalf with this state, as also afterwards by the right of succession of his imperial and catholic Majesty, and by the barrier treaty concluded on the same foot; and that, consequently, it would be the greatest absurdity to maintain, that at the time of the barrier treaty, a point so very important as the trade to the East-Indies, and the maintenance of the grant made to the company, should have been omitted or given up by this state, since the confirmation of the said trade, was the principal and greatest object of the treaty at Munster, as was observed before, and as appears besides, by what the ministers plenipotentiary of France wrote to their king, the 21st of December, 1646, as is related in the book intitled *Memoirs and secret Negotiations of the court of France, touching the peace of Munster, &c.* in these words:

‘ Another thing that puzzles us, is the Spaniards yielding about the Indies, which undoubtedly is one of the most considerable articles of the treaty, in which the Hollanders find an advantage they had not expected, and which could not be granted them but upon some extraordinary motive. The king of Spain consents to abridge himself of the power of extending his limits in the East-Indies, and to restrain them to what he possesses there at present.

It is very remarkable, that the ministers plenipotentiary have, in their relation, made use of the words of *extending his limits*, without determining or restraining them to certain countries, towns, or fortresses: which proves that the district given up by Spain to the said East-India company, does not only consist of certain countries or places, whose property the company had acquired, but in a district of trade, or extent of limits, under which are also comprehended such countries where the inhabitants are their own masters, and may permit others to trade, as was shewn before.

The petitioners have also evinced, by their former memorials, that both reason, and the law of nations, as it is observed now a-days, dictate and justify, that navigation and commerce, which antiently were common, open, and free, are, at present, looked upon as limited, proper, and divisible, inasmuch that trading nations ought reciprocally to refrain from trafficking in the districts of others.

It was with this view that the charters granted to the East and West-India companies, and all the treaties of peace made with the Crown of Spain, from the first treaty of truce, have been couched in such terms, as plainly shew that the prohibition of trade and navigation was not solely restrained to the district or neighbourhood of some towns, lodges, or fortresses, with the adjacent lands, as one may say, as far as one's eyes can reach, or within cannon-shot; but, on the contrary, such words and expressions have been used, as shew the reason and necessity both of the treaties and of the thing itself, which do not admit that they who are at the charge and expence of fortifications, maintenance of garrisons, and keeping up factories, be obliged to share them with others, which would, however, come to pass if the subjects of the Austrian Netherlands had, as they claim by the antient law of nations, the liberty of navigating and trading within the district of the East-India company of the United Provinces, even in all places where the Castilians were not permitted to trade, and whither they neither navigated or trafficked, from the treaty of Munster to this present time.

So that, according to their opinion, the subjects of this state should be and remain bound, with respect to the Castilians, to refrain from their districts in the Indies, and they, on the contrary, (although subjects of Spain, and comprehended both in the treaty of Munster, and in the barrier treaty) should have acquired a new right of navigating and trading every where within the district of the company of the United Provinces, as they actually do, not only in China, but also at Surat, Bengal, Coromandel, Malabar, the Red-Sea, and elsewhere, designing and endeavouring to erect factories in any of those places, and to do all that may enervate or vacate the grant of the said East-India company, by enticing the subjects to become sharers in this new trade, and employing on board their ships seamen that have been in the service of the said company;

labouring to gain it's officers in the Indies, to engage them, against their oaths and duty, to aid and abet their enterprizes; and, in a word, to supplant the company; a thing which the Spaniards would never have thought of; since the late king of Spain ever did maintain the company's grant, in all it's parts, according to the treaty of Munster, both with respect to the partition of the limits of commerce, and to the rights of subjects on both sides, not suffering that the Castilians, or any of his subjects, should attempt or undertake what was by treaties forbid to the subjects of this state, within the district of the Spanish Indies, but that they should abide by what had been stipulated, for greater and further security, by the 15th article of the treaty of navigation made with Spain in the year 1650, viz. That the subjects of either of the powers should not be allowed a larger licence than the other for their navigation and trade, but that in this, and in all things, there should be a reciprocation and equality on both sides.

And it is most certain, that this reciprocation and equality could not absolutely have their effect, according to the said article, if either of the parties were obliged exactly to conform itself, and the other should let it alone, upon pretence either of having changed masters, or because the antient law of nations (according to which navigation and commerce were free every where, and to every one) still actually subsists, although nothing is more notorious, as was hinted before, than that pretended law of nations was changed by the general consent, and unanimous practice of the most civilized nations of Europe; and that, even in relation to the present case, there is a special treaty contrary thereto, and whereby the king of Spain has promised not to extend himself that way, or not to suffer that district to be frequented for any trade, upon an express renunciation and derogation to all laws, customs, and all other things thereunto contrary, binding and engaging, for the security and execution of the treaty, all his subjects, inhabitants, kingdoms, and dominions, both in and out of Europe.

Which being thus settled by treaty, and the Spanish Netherlands, with their inhabitants, being found to perform the same, by the sovereign, as duke of Brabant and earl of Flanders, as the subjects of this state are likewise bound and obliged to all that has been promised to the Castilians, viz. not to navigate or trade within the districts of their commerce in the Indies: it would be the greatest hardship in the world for the East-India company to stand bound and engaged towards the Castilians, whilst, on the other hand, those of the Austrian Netherlands should be disengaged from all ties and obligations, and should do the company more hurt and prejudice than the Castilians themselves could, in case they would break the engagements of the treaty of Munster, and extend themselves further in the Indies than they are allowed to do; for besides that, in such a case, the East-India company might do the like, and extend it's commerce within the districts of the Castilians; the Spaniards have not, by much, the same occasion with those of the said Netherlands, by reason of their situation and neighbourhood, to allure and draw the subjects of this state to their interest, to the prejudice of the company's grant.

Moreover, if the pretensions of the subjects of the said Netherlands should take place, the East-India company, by the recovery of the said Spanish Netherlands for his imperial Majesty, should not only lose all the efficacy of the treaty of Munster, which was obtained with so much trouble, but would be in a worse condition than if that treaty had never been concluded with Spain.

And as the petitioners are daily more and more sensible of their losses, by the fall of the price of their goods, occasioned by the great quantities of the same imported into Europe, and by the great number of competitors; and foresee that, in time, little more may be left to the East-India company than the charge of maintaining and keeping up their forts, garrisons, and factories, and the grief to see the profits carried off by others, even by those who, according to the treaties and charters, have no manner of right to this trade, especially if it be true (what public and private news positively affirm) that his imperial and catholic Majesty has already granted a patent for the settlement of an East and West-India company in the Austrian Netherlands, and that notwithstanding the representations made and repeated on the part of your high-mightinesses, in order to maintain the right of the company of the United Provinces against the said commerce; his imperial and catholic Majesty does nevertheless endeavour, by his power and authority, to countenance and confirm a navigation and trade which, at all times, were prohibited to those of the said Netherlands, and from which they were so carefully excluded.

Therefore the petitioners again presume to remonstrate the whole matter to your high-mightinesses, and to justify more at large what they have already offered in their former memorials, most humbly praying, That, in consideration of the great prejudice which the licensed East-India company has already suffered, and will suffer more and more, by the grant of the said new patent, and by the notorious incroachment on their right to the East-India trade, your high-mightinesses

nesses may please to cause your ministers at the courts of Vienna and at Brussels, to continue and repeat the most earnest and most effectual instances to engage his imperial and catholic Majesty, in his great equity and justice, to put a stop to the navigation from the Austrian Netherlands to the East-Indies, not to put in execution the said patent, and not to grant any new commission or patent for their trading thither; and that your high-mightinesses may please to use both this method, and all further means, which in your great wisdom, and more extended lights, you shall judge more convenient and effectual to oppose this unlicensed trade, and prevent it's progress, that the petitioners may quietly enjoy the effect and benefit of their charter: and the petitioners, &c.

R E M O N S T R A N C E III.

Or petition of the directors of the East-India company, to their high-mightinesses the lords States-General of the United Provinces.

The directors of the licensed East-India company of this country, in all duty shew, That it is with great regret they have found themselves obliged to apply several times to your high-mightinesses, and from time to time to complain of the endeavours used in Brabant and in Flanders towards establishing a new navigation and trade both to the East and West-Indies; that your high-mightinesses may remember, that the same has occasioned the taking and confiscating of some vessels on both sides; and, of late, of the taking of the ship called the Cornman, by the Ostend privateers, for which loss a due recompence has hitherto, against all reason, been denied; but that the petitioners have, at least, had this satisfaction, that, since the taking of those prizes, a stop has been put to the sending out ships to the West-Indies and Africa, apparently because it has been acknowledged, by the representations made on that subject, that the said navigation is notoriously contrary to the 5th and 6th articles of the treaty of Munster; that the petitioners thought they might hope, that, although they should still be denied amends for the said loss, they should not, at least, have fresh matter of complaint given them: but, instead of that, it appears by the public news, that there is a design to begin again, and to carry on with more vigour than before, the said navigation and commerce to the West-Indies and Africa, and that in order thereto a patent has already been obtained of his imperial and catholic Majesty.

That this undertaking is so prejudicial to the general West-India company established in this country, and so directly contrary to the said treaty of Munster, that the petitioners, without any further representation of the right to them belonging, by virtue of the said treaty, and of the engagements entered into by his imperial and catholic Majesty, as successor of king Charles II. of glorious memory (mentioned several times before, and sufficiently known) cannot forbear applying again to your high-mightinesses, most humbly to pray your powerful protection, towards the putting a stop to the said new navigation to the West-Indies and Africa, and that the said patent of his imperial and catholic Majesty, may not have it's effect; and that his said Majesty be desired not to grant, for the future, any new commissions or passes; as also that your high-mightinesses be pleased to take such further measures as your high-mightinesses may think most effectual to obtain the same of the Emperor, most dutifully referring themselves to what your high-mightinesses shall find proper to do therein. Done at Amsterdam, the 22d of March, 1723, by order of the abovesaid directors, and signed

JOHN DE LA BASSECOUR.

R E M A R K S.

By the steady resolution of the States-General, in concert with the crown of Great-Britain, the abolition of this Ostend East-India company was effectuated: but so great is the change in the system of Europe since this time, that neither the States-General nor England seem to concern themselves much about the establishment of new East-India companies with, as encouraging privileges and immunities as England formerly granted to her trading corporations. And is not this very natural to be attempted by other nations, they knowing, from the experience of England, France, and Holland, that this measure has been attended with so great success and prosperity to the commerce and navigation of those respective potentates? Quere, therefore, Whether it may not require the most mature and deliberate consideration, before we absolutely abolish our own East-India company, while other states are establishing and vigorously supporting the like kind of companies?

If it was really for the advantage of England and Holland to suppress the late Ostend East-India company, by reason only that it proved manifestly detrimental to both, can it be believed, from the same principle of reasoning, that the total annihilation of our East-India company could tend to the trading advantage of the nation? Would not France, and perhaps Holland, and some other potentates, rejoice as much at the destruction of our East-India company, as the Dutch

and English, and even the French, did at that of the Ostend company?

We have, from the best of our judgment, stated the case of our East-India company, with all impartiality [see the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE and EAST-INDIA COMPANY]: and so far have we been from pleading in favour of this company, and attempting to justify them for not trading to all places within their charter, where it can be done with benefit to the nation, and without injury to themselves; I have urged every thing argumentative that has been said against them in this respect, and shewed the reasonableness of private traders being admitted to traffic in those parts of the East-Indies where the company do not: for the company have been roundly charged with cramping, instead of extending, their commerce within their charter.

As I have occasionally introduced what matter has been started in opposition to the conduct of the company in this respect, so it is a duty on the impartial man to represent fairly what reply has been made to a charge of this nature, that the public may be able to make a right judgment of the matter before them.

The first charge against the East-India company, says Mr Rammell, is their not attempting to trade on the west side of the Red Sea, which is said to be inhabited by Christians: to which I reply, continues that gentleman, that, as I lived six years in the company's factory at Mocha, it cannot be supposed but that I have some share of knowledge of the trade in the Red Sea, and the ports frequented by the merchants on both the shores.

The first place where I know of any trade in the Abyssine country, is at Zelah, a small port a little without the Baabs; it is under the jurisdiction of the Mocha governor; there is a small fort, and garrison of Arabs: at proper seasons of the year boats go from Mocha with an ordinary cargo of piece goods, and, in return, bring back hides, sheep, and clarified butter; there is some small places within the Baabs on that coast, which the Banians of Mocha trade to in boats, but they employ Abyssinians for their factors, of whom there is a great number always at Mocha; the boats crew are of the same country as the factors, for the Arabs are not fond of putting themselves in the power of so uncivilized a people: there is no port, I believe, on what is called the Abyssine country, within the Baabs, large enough for a trade to be carried on there by shipping; but on the Ethiopian coast there is, but they are possessed by the Turks, the Christians living all inland, and I believe the country they possess is stiled the interior Ethiopia, and the nearest sea-port to their territories is, if I mistake not, called Mussaah, and, as I observed before, is in the possession of the Turks, so I leave the world to judge, if there is any manner of prospect of the European Christians carrying on a trade with the Christians in Ethiopia by sea, whilst the Turk keeps possession of the avenues to the country. I have known a small Mahometan ship from Surat make a voyage to that port with piece goods, &c. and have brought back elephants-teeth, some civet, and a small quantity of gold dust. During the time of my residence at Mocha, the chief of the French factory sent a small vessel thither, with Mahometan sailors in her, and a Greek for the supercargo, who had lived many years amongst the Turks and Arabs, (and I believe had been circumcised) but the voyage turned to so indifferent an account, that I have not heard of any vessel belonging to the Christians going thither since. The Mahometan governments in the Red Sea are much prejudiced against the Christians, on account of their religion (which may be owing to the vicinity of their prophet's tomb) and frequently treat them ill, without the least occasion, as I have often experienced. One of the governors of Mocha, in my time, issued out his orders that the centinels at the town gates should knock down any of the French, Dutch, or English companies servants that should presume to ride in or out of them, though, at the same time, they were free for all others to pass unmolested: this order was in force several months. The governor of Mocha always insisted on having the company's lead at his own price (and I believe the iron likewise) which was very low, so that it used to be sent from thence to Bombay or Surat: the myrrh and drugs that are the product of Abyssine and Ethiopia, are brought to Mocha in small boats; but their aloes are no better than those which grow on the Arabian shore, which are in little esteem in Europe; those that used to be purchased on the company's account were brought from the island of Socatra.

The next article is, that the company doth not trade to Siam, a rich and great kingdom, nor to Pegu, a country that produces rubies, gum-lacque, gum-dragon, and all materials of fine India varnish, the Indians being industrious, a great trade might be carried on there. The objectors then go on, and mention Tonquin, Cochin-China, the kingdoms of Japan and Corea: I shall give for answer to the foregoing, that I think the reason is very obvious, which is, that the managers thereof are well satisfied that it would not answer their purpose, and therefore it would be injuring the proprietors to carry on a losing trade.

As to the trade of Siam, I shall not pass it over without saying something relating thereto: I remember that about six or seven-and-thirty years ago, I was concerned in an adventure shipped on board the *Morning Star*, Capt. Alexander Hamilton commander, bound from the ports of Surat and Bombay to Siam, at which port he met with a ship from Fort St George; the commander of whom, or some other person belonging to the ship, instigated the government of Siam against the said Capt. Hamilton in such a manner, that they were the cause of his being arraigned for his life (for no other reason but to overfet his voyage) and though Capt. Hamilton escaped the executioner's hands, it answered the others purpose as well as if he had been hanged, for he was not permitted to do any business there; so that he failed down the river with his ship, and anchored off the port, where he continued several days, with a full resolution of taking a prize, in order to reimburse the owners for what they were like to be sufferers by his not being permitted to dispose of his cargo in the port; (the particulars of this affair may be read in the said Hamilton's Voyages, printed about 23 years ago) but at last was obliged to quit his station without any booty, on account of the changes of the seasons, or want of provision, I can't tell which. Now, for argument's sake, I will suppose he had taken a Siam vessel, or the ship from Fort St George (which I am almost positive I have heard him declare he would have attempted, had she failed out whilst he lay before the river's mouth) with Siam, or other India merchants freighters on board: had, I say, this been the case, the said merchants would, in all probability, have received some satisfaction for the outrage committed against them by the said Capt. Hamilton; but had there been no English East-India company subsisting, and he had been on his return to England instead of Bombay, I don't see that it would have been in the power of all the king's governors abroad to have done justice to the poor injured Siamers; but suppose it was, 'tis most likely that the king of Siam would have gone a much shorter and surer way to work, than to complain to them about the affair, by making reprisals on the next English ship that put into his port: for the trade in Asia, and its policy, is not of a piece with that of Europe, where, if the subject of one nation is ill treated in another prince's dominions, the minister or consul of the nation he belongs to, will, on a proper application being made to him, endeavour to get him redressed: but, as I have observed, it is otherwise in the East-Indies; so that it is very probable, if the trade thither was laid open, the English would soon be involved in disputes and broils with several potentates in India (where the king of Great-Britain had no garrisons) whilst the French, and other nations from Europe, would carry on their trade uninterrupted, and the English would be looked upon no better than pirates, through the indiscretion and hot-headedness of some of the English commanders; which there is no danger of whilst things are on the present footing, by reason that, if any of the present commanders employed in that trade should commit a rash or an unjust action, whilst trading from port to port in the East-Indies, on his return from the port he set out from, or to the port where he is to take in his loading for England, the affair would come to light, and all the English settlements apprized thereof, as soon as conveniently they could, that they might take their measures accordingly. It was rivalry in trade that gave rise to Hamilton and Quarrel, the ships belonging to different employers: and the same cause will always exist, if the East-India company is laid aside, and no doubt will frequently be attended with the like consequences.

As for the port of Pegu, the India company used to have a resident in that king's dominions, but, by reason of troubles in the country, I believe there has not been one for some years past; but I have of late heard talk that their governor at Fort St George had instructions from the company about settling that place again: though Pegu, and some other countries, may produce commodities proper for an Europe market, yet the sending one of their ships for them would so enhance the price of the goods, that, in the end, they would stand them in more than they could expect to sell them for. The Tonquiners may be an industrious people, but I have been told that they are so very poor, that they never have a stock of goods by them; and those that expect to meet with a cargo there, or indeed, any quantity of goods fit for the Europe markets, should go with a resolution of staying a considerable time at that port. I remember that a little ship called the *Fame*, Capt. Gregory commander, failed from Bombay to that port, where he and both the supercargoes were murdered in their house on shore; the ship got safe back again to Bombay; and, though I continued 14 years in India after this affair happened, I can't call to mind that the gentlemen at Bombay sent any other ship thither.—The trade to Cochin-China is in a manner prohibited to all Europeans; and although I have been acquainted with India affairs for 40 years past, I don't remember to have heard but of one ship belonging to Europeans making a voyage thither, and that was commanded by one Capt. Pearce, or some such name, and was fitted out either from Madras or Bengal; but the voyage did not answer: the year before that he intended his voyage,

he by some means or other (the particulars, though he told them me, I can't recollect) procured the king's grant, or permission, to come to his country: it was wrote, or stamp, I believe on a piece of solid gold, of about five or six inches long, and about two inches broad, whereon was inserted the captain's name, and the number of men and guns his ship carried.—As for a trade to Japan and Corea, I am well satisfied that, if any of the English governors, or free merchants abroad, had thought it worth their attempting, they would not have admitted it (and I can't call to mind of any experiment being made in my time); for whatever the gentlemen in England may think of the matter, I am well satisfied, that, amongst the company's servants and free merchants abroad, there is not wanting men of abilities, fortunes, or inclinations, to trade to every creek or port in India, where there is but any prospect of success; which is to be done for less than half the expences by what is called country ships, than can be performed by ships from England. And, as an undeniable proof of the flourishing condition the private trade was in when I lived at Surat (and may be so still for any thing I know to the contrary) I declare on my own certain knowledge, that, at that port only, it amounted to about 250,000 l. per annum. This I insert to shew what a spirit of trade reigns amongst the English in the East-Indies. The author of the paragraphs in some public papers, on which I have made the foregoing remarks, desires the candidates at the approaching general election to enquire into the matter, and to use their endeavours for laying the trade to the East-Indies open; and concludes the paragraph by saying, That, in a little time, the parishes might be discharged from the poor's tax: to which I reply, That I suppose the company at present employs as many ships to the East-Indies as is consistent with prudence, and they all go out with their full loading of Europe cloth, &c. It is not at all unlikely, but that if the trade was open, there would for the first year or two be a greater quantity of woollen goods carried thither than what the company at present export; but, if the returns back did not answer, it cannot be expected that the profits on cloth out would bear any proportion to the expence of sending a ship to the East-Indies: the difficulties of procuring cargoes for the return of the ships to England, is an article perhaps not much considered, or known properly to those gentlemen who are not concerned in the trade to India; for, notwithstanding that the company send orders to their governors, &c. abroad, a year at least beforehand, of the tonnage they may expect out, and that the proper cargoes may be got ready against the ships expected in India arrive, yet it sometimes happens that some of their ships are obliged to be employed a year or two in India, for want of a loading. When the company's orders reach India, their governors, &c. send for the black merchants, and contract with them to make the investment, and generally advance a good part of what it will amount to for the carrying it on. In the pepper settlements, likewise, they frequently are under a necessity of advancing part of the money before the crop is gathered. If the king's governors were to be put in possession of the company's garrisons and factories, the trade could not be supported or carried on, but by persons on the spot having very considerable sums of money by them, to buy up the pepper, as well as to advance money for the cloth investment, otherwise the black merchants would quit the English bounds, and settle elsewhere. In such case, I desire to know what benefit our fortifications, &c. would be of?—As I have shewn the improbability of the India trade being carried on with success without very great sums being left there yearly, it next falls under consideration who is to advance it; no private person is capable of doing it; and if it is to be the concern of several merchants in conjunction, pray what is that but a little new company, of which I doubt not but several would by degrees spring up, out of the ruins of the old, who would soon be at variance with each other, and prove each other's ruin: for the more bidders there are at any market, the greater price must they be obliged to give for the commodity they want: and when they dispose of their Europe cloth, &c. they will be under as great a disadvantage; for, when the India merchants have several warehouses to go to at the same place, they will not be wanting to beat down the price, and our people must be content, especially the most needy ones, to sell their goods for the most the market will afford them, whether they get any thing by the sale or not. It is well known, that, during the time the old and new East-India companies had each their factory at Surat, the price of the goods they wanted at that market rose considerably, and that they frequently incensed the country government against each other, of which they took advantage, and fleeced both in their turns.

I am now come to the last paragraph, wherein is recommended the incorporating the black merchants with the white, which has already been done by his Majesty's most gracious charter; and those that now live on the island of Bombay, or within the company's bounds at Bengal or Fort St George, are intitled to the same privileges and immunities, and governed by the same laws, as the English. If the scheme takes place, of the trade to India being laid open, some people

take upon them to advance, that the English residing in India will not only be able to defray their own charges (as if they had not done it hitherto) but give assistance towards paying off the national debt. This last is a noble thought, and breathes the true air of patriotism; but, to make the success more certain, I beg leave to recommend the sending out with the king's governors and officers, one million of the nation's cash, to provide cargoes for the ships they may expect from England, and for trading from port to port in the East Indies; for there is no doubt but they will prove most excellent merchants. I have now finished my remarks on what was published in regard to the East India company's not trading to Ethiopia, &c. and have likewise set forth some of the evils that I apprehend will accrue to this nation in case the company should be abolished; my design herein being an honest endeavour to undeceive the deceived.

Jerusalem Coffee-House.

THO. RAMMELL.

OVERISILL, in the United Netherlands. This province is bounded on the north-west by Friesland, and part of the Zuyder Sea; on the west by that part of Guelderland called the Veluwe; on the south by the county of Zutphen; on the east by the bishopric of Munster; and on the north by the province of Groningen. The soil in many places is barren, being full of sands, heaths, and marshes; but, in some parts, they have good corn and pasture: it is the worst peopled of any of the provinces, partly on account of its barrenness, and because their situation is not convenient for trade.

ZWOL stands on the river Aa, which falls here into the Vecht, and runs into the Zuyder sea, making a channel, into which the tide flows, which advances the trade of the town: it consists chiefly in timber, cattle fattened in the neighbouring pastures, Bentheim stones, wool, corn, butter, and cheese.

CAMPEN stands on the Iffel, a little above where it falls into the Zuyder Sea. Its trade is decayed of late, the harbour being so choaked up with sand, that it does not admit large vessels. It has two suburbs, inhabited chiefly by fishermen, there being plenty of fish in its neighbourhood.

VOLLENHOVEN, on the Zuyder Sea, has a great market for corn from the Baltic.

BLOCKZYL, on the same sea, at the mouth of the river Aa, is a place of considerable trade, and very populous: its harbour will hold above 200 vessels.

OXFORDSHIRE, an inland county of England, bounded with Buckinghamshire on the east; with Gloucestershire on the west; on the north, where it terminates in form of a cone, it has Northamptonshire on one side, and Warwickshire on the other; and, on the south, it is separated from Berkshire; and is about 130 miles in circumference.

Fuel here is scarce, that it is commonly sold by weight in the city of Oxford, and other towns in the north part of the shire. Though many parts of the country bear corn very well, it abounds most with meadows and pastures.

The city of **OXFORD** stands at the conflux of the Charwel and Isis, in a plentiful country: its chief trade is in sending malt by barges to London.

WOODSTOCK has a manufacture of fine steel chains for watches, and other things of polished steel.

HENLEY UPON THAMES is a town of good wealth and building: its chief trade is in malt, of which, and of other corn, it is thought above 300 carts are sold here on some market-days; the inhabitants being generally mealmen, maltsters, and bargemen, who live by carrying corn and wood to London.

WHITNEY has a trade in spinning for the neighbouring clothiers; but its greatest manufacture is rugs and blankets, which last are commonly from 10 to 12 quarters wide, and so preferred before all others for their whiteness, that they have in a manner engrossed the whole trade of the nation for that commodity. They have 150 looms almost continually employed in it, with above 3000 people, from eight years old and upwards; and it is said 100 packs of wool are spent in it every week. They scour them in the river Windrush, whose waters, some think, have a more abstersive nitrous quality than others. They also make duffels here, which are a yard and $\frac{1}{4}$ wide, and exported to Virginia and New England, for cloathing the Indians. Cuts for hammocks, and tilt-cloths for bargemen, are likewise made here; and there is a great number of fellmongers in the town, who having dressed and stained their sheep-skins, make them into jackets, breeches, &c.

BAMPTON lies on a river navigable by boats; and its market is noted for the great quantity of fellmonger's wares, as leather jackets, gloves, breeches, stockings, &c. brought hither from Whitney, and sold here into Berkshire, Wiltshire, and Dorsetshire, no town in England having such a trade for these wares.

OYSTERS.

The history, the generation, and ordering of **GREEN OYSTERS**, commonly called **COLCHESTER OYSTERS**.

In the Month of May the oysters cast their spawn (which the dredgers call their spat) it is like to a drop of candle, and about the bigness of an half-penny.

The spat cleaves to stones, old oyster-shells, pieces of wood,

and such-like things, at the bottom of the sea, which they call cultch.

It is probably conjectured, that the spat in 24 hours begins to have a shell.

In the month of May the dredgers (by the law of the admiralty court) have liberty to catch all manner of oysters, of what size soever.

When they have taken them, with a knife they gently raise the small brood from the cultch, and then they throw the cultch in again, to preserve the ground for the future, unless they be so newy spat that they cannot be safely severed from the cultch, in that case they are permitted to take the stone or shell, &c. that the spat is upon, one shell having many times 20 spats.

After the month of May, it is felony to carry away the cultch, and punishable to take any other oysters, unless it be those of size, that is to say, about the bigness of an half-crown piece, or when the two shells, being shut, a fair shilling will rattle between them.

The places where these oysters are chiefly caught, are called the Pont, Burnham, Malden, and Colne waters, the latter taking its name from the river of Colne, which passeth by Colne-Chester, gives the name to that town, and runs into a creek of the sea at a place called the Hythe, being the suburbs of the town.

This brood, and other oysters, they carry to creeks of the sea at Brickle Sea, Mersey, Langs, Fringrego, Wivenho, Tolesbury, and Salt-Coast, and there throw them into the channel, which they call their beds, or layers, where they grow and fatten, and, in two or three years, the smallest brood will be oysters of the size aforesaid.

Those oysters which they would have green, they put into pits about three feet deep, in the salt marshes, which are overflowed only at spring tides, to which they have sluices, and let out the salt water until it is about a foot and a half deep.

These pits, from some quality in the soil co-operating with the heat of the sun, will become green, and communicate their colour to the oysters that are put into them, in four or five days, though they commonly let them continue there six weeks or two months, in which time they will be of a dark green.

To prove that the sun operates in the greening, Tolesbury pits will green only in summer; but that the earth hath the greater power, Brickle Sea pits green both winter and summer: and, for a further proof, a pit within a foot of a greening pit will not green; and those that did green very well, will in time lose their quality.

The oysters, when the tide comes in, lie with their hollow shell downwards, and, when it goes out, they turn on the other side; they remove not from their place unless in cold weather, to cover themselves in the ouse.

The reason of the scarcity of oysters, and consequently of their dearness, is, because they are, of late years, bought up by the Dutch.

There are great penalties, by the admiralty court, laid upon those that fish out of those grounds which the court appoints, or that destroy the cultch, or that take any oysters that are not of size, or that do not tread under their feet, or throw upon the shore, a fish which they call a five fingers, resembling a spur-rowel, because that fish gets into the oysters when they gape, and sucks them out.

The reason why such a penalty is set upon any that shall destroy the cultch, is because they find that, if that be taken away, the ouse will increase, and then muscles and cockles will breed there, and destroy the oysters, they having not whereon to stick their spat.

The oysters are sick after they have spat; but in June and July they begin to mend, and in August they are perfectly well. The male oyster is black-sick, having a black substance in the fin: the female white-sick (as they term it) having a milky substance in the fin. They are salt in the pits, saltier in the layers, but saltest at sea.

There are various other species of oysters, which are so well known, that it is needless to enlarge upon this article.

The LAWS of ENGLAND in regard to OYSTERS.

I. Stat. 10 Geo. II. cap. 30. § 2. All oysters imported from France shall be rated at 7d. per bushel strike-measure, according to the Winchester corn-bushel, and shall pay the old subsidy according to that rate, and not according to the values affirmed by the importers.

II. Sect. 3. Where the said oysters are subject to the further subsidy, the one-third subsidy, the two-thirds subsidy, the additional impost, or the duty payable upon goods imported from France, according to the values set thereon for the old subsidy, the same shall be paid according to the values set thereon for the old subsidy aforesaid, and not according to the oath of the importer.

III. Sect. 4. Upon exportation of the said oysters, the duties shall not be drawn back or allowed.

IV. Sect. 5. The several duties upon the said oysters shall be paid, or secured, by such ways, and under such penalties, &c. as are mentioned in the several acts of parliament which granted or continued the same.

THE BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS CONTINUED FROM
LETTER N, WITH REGARD TO OFFENCES AGAINST
THE STATUTES.

OFFENCES against penal statutes may be prosecuted, tried, &c. by way of action, &c. before justices of assize, nisi prius, goal-delivery,oyer and terminer, or justices of peace for the county, &c. where committed. 21 Jac. I. c. 4. § 1.
——Informer or plaintiff not proving the offence by evidence to the jury, the defendant to be found not guilty. 21 Jac. I. c. 4. § 2.

WITH REGARD TO OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.—Not to obtain their offices for gift, favour or affection, but for desert, as being of the best and most lawful men, and sufficient to their estimation and knowledge. 12 Rich. II. c. 2. § 1.

——Not to have their offices for life on term of years, but during the sovereign's pleasure only; and the said officers to remain in his hands, under the government of the treasury: And,

——LETTERS PATENTS, charters, or grants, made otherwise are void. 14 Rich. II. § 1. and 17. Rich. II. c. 5. § 1. and 1 Hen. IV. c. 13. § 1. and 20 Hen. VI. c. 5. § 1. and 31 Hen. VI. c. 5. § 1.

——To reside by themselves, or their sufficient deputies, at the several head ports, members and creeks, on penalty of 100l. loss of office, and imprisonment. 1 Hen. IV. c. 13. § 1. and 14 Hen. IV. c. 20. § 1. and 13 Hen. IV. c. 5. § 1. and 1 Eliz. c. 11. § 8. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 14.

——No person may bargain or sell any office, or the deputation thereof, or any part thereof, nor receive any money, fee, or reward, or any promise, agreement, or assurance for any office in the customs, upon penalty of forfeiting the place by the seller, and buyer to be adjudged incapable to enjoy the same, and the bargain, sale, &c. to be void. 5 and 6 Edw. VI. c. 16. § 2, 3.

——Or their deputies or clerks, not to have any ships of their own, nor to freight any ships, nor to buy or sell any merchandize, nor to have any wharfs or keys, nor hold any common hosteries, or taverns, nor to be factors for any merchant, denizen or alien, or host to any merchant alien, on forfeiture of 40l. 14 Rich. II. c. 10. § 1. and 4 Hen. IV. c. 21. § 1. and 11 Hen. IV. c. 2. § 1. and 20 Hen. VI. c. 5. § 1.

——No person to be customer, comptroller, or searcher in any port, where he is common officer, or deputy to such common officer, upon forfeiture of 40l. for every half year he executes both offices. 3 Hen. VII. c. 7. § 1.

——Two of the commissioners first named in the commission are, before the chancellor, or chief baron of the Exchequer, or master of the Rolls; and every other of the commissioners, patent-officers, their deputies, clerks, or servants, and all other officers of the customs in the port of London, are, before any two of the said commissioners, upon their admission, to take their corporal oaths for the true and faithful execution of their trusts and employments, to the best of their knowledge and power, and that they will not take or receive any reward or gratuity, except their salaries, and what is allowed them from the crown, or their regular fees established by law. 6 and 7 W. and M. c. 1. § 5, 6.

——Officers in the OUT-PORTS at their admission to take the like oath before two justices of the peace.

——Refusal or neglect of taking such oath, is forfeiture of office.

——The taking of such oath to be certified to the next general quarter sessions. 6 and 7 W. and M. c. 1. § 5, 6.

——Deputies, clerks, and servants before employed in the customs, are to take their corporal oaths before the commissioners and principal officers in the port of London, or the principal officers in the out-ports, or any two of them, for the true and faithful execution and discharge of their trust and employments, to the best of their knowledge and power, which oaths are to be entered and registered in the custom-houses of the respective ports where the persons are employed. 13 and 14 Car. 2. c. 11. § 33.

——In England.—To receive the sacrament of the Lord's supper, according to the usage of the church of England, in some public church, upon a Lord's day, within three months after admission, under the penalties, forfeitures, and disabilities as in article 16. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 2. and 1 Geo. I. c. 13. § 24.

——A certificate thereof, under the hands of the minister and churchwardens, must be produced in the court where the oaths mentioned in the following article are directed to be taken; and there confirmed by the oaths of two creditable witnesses at the least. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 3.

——At any time before the end of the next term, or general quarter sessions, after admission, are to take and subscribe the oaths of allegiance, supremacy and abjuration (in the words prescribed by 1 Geo. I. cap. 13.) if they reside within

London or Westminster, or within 30 miles thereof, in the courts of Chancery, King's Bench, Common-Pleas, or Exchequer, or else at the general quarter-session of the county, &c. where they reside, between the hours of nine and twelve in the forenoon, upon forfeiture of office, unless it be in inheritance, and a deputy be appointed, who qualifies himself, and is approved by his majesty under his privy-signet. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 2, 4, 5. and 1 Ann. c. 22. § 5. and 1 Geo. I. c. 13. § 1, 3, 9, 10, 20, 29. and 2 Geo. II. c. 31. § 3, 4.

——Executing their office after the expiration of the time, without compliance, are disabled to sue in course of law, or to be guardian to any child, or executor, or administrator to any person, and rendered incapable of any legacy, or deed of gift, or of enjoying any office, or of voting for members of parliament, and to forfeit 500l. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 2, 4, 5. and 1 Ann. c. 22. § 5. and 1 Geo. I. c. 13. § 1, 3, 9, 10, 20, 29. and 2 Geo. II. c. 31. § 3, 4.

——But upon compliance, after forfeiture, may be capable of a new grant either of the said office, or any other, if not granted to, or enjoyed by another person. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 14. and 1 Geo. I. c. 13. § 16, 27.

——Persons not bred up in Popish religion, and professing themselves to be Popish recusants, suffering their children to be educated in the said religion, are incapable of any office. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 8, 9.

——Such children likewise incapable, 'till they are converted to the church of England, and have taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and subscribed a declaration against transubstantiation, before the justices of the peace, at the quarter-sessions, and have received the sacrament after the usage of the church of England, and obtained a certificate thereof under the hands of two or more of the said justices. 25 Car. II. c. 2. § 8, 9.

WITH REGARD TO SCOTLAND.

——IN SCOTLAND.—To take and subscribe the oaths of allegiance and abjuration, and subscribe the assurance, in the court of session, justiciary, exchequer, or quarter-sessions, within three months after admission, under the same penalties, forfeitures, and disabilities, as the officers in England. 1 Geo. I. c. 13. § 1, 4, 5, 9, 10, 16, 20, 29.

——The deputations or authorities granted to collectors, surveyors, or other inferior officers of the customs, not void by the death or removal of the commissioners who granted them. 12 Ann. c. 8. § 13.

——Taking a bribe, or conniving at a false entry of any goods, to the prejudice of his majesty, or suffering prohibited goods to pass, are incapable of any office for the future, and to forfeit 100 l. and the person giving the bribe, or offering any bribe, whether it is accepted or not, to forfeit 50l. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 19. and 9 Geo. II. c. 35. § 24.

——But the offenders revealing their offences within two months, to the treasurer of England, the chancellor, under-treasurer, or barons of the Exchequer, are to be acquitted. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 20.

——Illegally detaining goods, or neglecting or refusing to make repayments and allowances, or after notice given, not giving out and executing their warrant, liable to double costs and damages. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 34.

——Or their deputies, may go on board any ships, and there remain 'till all the goods be discharged. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 4.

——Upon oath made before the lord treasurer, or any of the barons of the Exchequer, or the chief magistrate of the place, that goods liable to duties have been landed or conveyed away without due entry, they may issue out a warrant to enable any officers of the customs, with the assistance of a sheriff, justice of the peace, or constable (within one month after offence committed) to enter into any house in the day time; and in case of resistance, to break them open, and to seize the said goods. 12 Car. II. c. 19. § 12.

——The information upon such house false, the party injured may recover full costs and damages against the informer. 12 Car. II. c. 19. § 4.

Authorized by writ of assistance out of the court of exchequer, may in the day-time (at any time after the offence) with a constable, &c. enter any house, shop, &c. and in case of resistance, break open doors, chests, &c. in order to seize and bring away prohibited and uncustomed goods, and secure them in his majesty's storehouse of the port. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 5.

——Forcibly hindered, affronted, abused, beaten, or wounded in the due execution of their office, the next justice of the peace, or other magistrate, may commit the offender to prison, till the next quarter-sessions; when the justices may punish him by fine, not exceeding 100 l. and the said offender is to remain in prison 'till discharged of the fine and imprisonment by the court of exchequer, or he discovers the person that set him on work. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 6.

——Eight or more armed persons, tumultuously assembled, so offending, to be transported to the British plantations for any term not exceeding seven years. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. § 34.

——Such

—Such offenders returning into Great-Britain, or Ireland, before the expiration of the said term, to suffer as felons. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. § 35.

—Offenders discovering two or more of their accomplices to the commissioners of the customs, within two months, are to be acquitted, and to receive 40l. for each, to be paid by the receiver-general of the customs, upon a certificate of their conviction, under the hand of the judge or justice of the court. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. § 36, 38.

—The like, besides other rewards and advantages, for other persons discovering within three months. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. § 37.

—A member of the house of commons may not, by himself or deputy, or any other person in trust for him, enjoy or execute any office relating to the customs, upon penalty of being incapable of sitting or voting in the said house. 12 and 13 W. III. c. 10. § 87, 88. and 6 Ann. c. 7. § 25.

—May not in any manner endeavour to persuade or dissuade any elector in his vote for the choice of a member to serve in parliament, upon the penalty of 100l. one moiety thereof to the informer, and the other to the poor of the parish, and incapacity to hold any office under his majesty. 12 and 13 W. III. c. 10. § 89.

—Customer and comptrollers to take bonds from, and give oaths to gentlemen or officers in the army, going over sea to serve foreign princes, that they will not turn papists, nor enter into conspiracies against his majesty; receiving for every bond 6d. and to return a register thereof yearly into the exchequer, upon forfeiture of 5l. for every bond, and 20s. for every oath not certified. 3 Jac. I. c. 4. § 19, 20, 21.

—Granting a warrant for, or suffering any of the enumerated goods from the plantations, to be carried to any other country, until first landed in Great-Britain, forfeit their places, and the value of the goods. 15 Car. II. c. 7. § 9.

—Or other razing, counterfeiting, or falsifying any cocket, tranfire, let-pas, certificate, or other custom-house, forfeit 100l. and such dispatch to be void. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 8.

—Granting a false coast-certificate, forfeit their office, and 50l. to be imprisoned a year without bail, and to suffer such corporal punishment as the court of exchequer shall think fit, and to be incapable of serving again in the customs. 33 Hen. VIII. c. 7. § 5. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. § 8.

—Viz. Customers, not mentioning the colour, length, content, weight, and value of foreign goods in coast-certificates, are to forfeit their office, and to be fined at the king's pleasure. 3 Hen. VII. c. 3. § 1.

—Viz. Customers and collectors of the customs, within ten days notice from the king, or six of his privy-council, are to declare what money due to the king is in their hands, and to pay the same when commanded, upon forfeiture of office. 7 Edw. VI. c. 1. § 13.

—Viz. Customers, upon yielding their accounts in the exchequer, to be sworn thereto. 5 Hen. IV. c. 20. § 1.

—Viz. Customers, collectors, and comptrollers, concealing the customs duly entered and paid, forfeit treble the value of the goods, and are to make fine and ransom. 4 Hen. VI. c. 3. § 1. and 18 Eliz. c. 9. § 5.

—Viz. Collectors detaining public money, are to pay interest for the same, after the rate of 12l. per cent. per annum, with treble damages to the person grieved, and to be dismissed. 20 Car. II. c. 2. § 1.

—Viz. Collectors, diverting or misapplying the money received on the branches therein appropriated, are to be dismissed, rendered incapable to serve his majesty, and to forfeit double the sum diverted or misapplied, and 12 per cent. interest. 9 Ann. c. 21. § 14.

—Appointed for managing, collecting, &c. the respective branches, refusing or neglecting to pay the monies into the Exchequer, or diverting or misapplying any part thereof, are to forfeit their offices, and to be rendered incapable of serving his majesty in any place of profit and trust, and to

forfeit double the value of the sum diverted or misapplied.

—Collectors detaining any monies received for any of the said duties, are to be dismissed, and to be charged with interest at 12l. per cent. per annum, and be liable to treble damages. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. § 42. and 4 Ann. c. 6. § 10. 5.---c. 19. § 12 and 5.---c. 19. § 12 and 6.---c. 11 § 7 and 8.---c. 4. § 12. and 8.---c. 7. § 37. and 9.---c. 6. § 20. and 9.---c. 11. § 48 and 9.---c. 12. § 29. and 10.---c. 19. § 122. and 10.---c. 26. § 76. and 12.---c. 9. § 32. and 6. Geo. I. c. 11. § 22. and 10. Geo. I. c. 10. § 45.

—Viz. Customers, collectors, receivers, &c.---All lands, tenements, profits, commodities, and hereditaments, which any officer, whose whole receipt from the beginning, or yearly receipt, exceeds 300l. hath or shall have, whilst he remains accountable, shall be liable to the payment of his arrearages or debts, and may be put in execution for the same, by way of extent. 13 Eliz. c. 4. § 1, 10.

—If arrearages are not paid within six months after the account be finished, or debt known, the king may, by letters patent, make sale of so much of the lands, &c. as will satisfy the debt. 13 Eliz. c. 4. § 2, 3.

—Such sale may be made, though the officer be dead, if the account be stated, or debt known within eight years after his death; unless such officer had a quietus est, or a discharge in his life-time. 27 Eliz. c. 3. § 2, 3.

—Lands, &c. purchased after the person became an officer, if for his own use, though in the name of another person, yet to be liable to the crown's debts, 13 Eliz. c. 4. § 5.

—The crown's debts being fully, or in part satisfied, by sale of the lands, &c. the officers sureties are to be discharged accordingly. 13 Eliz. c. 4. § 15. and 27 Eliz. c. 3. § 5.

—Who sit above stairs in the custom-house, their time of attendance,

—To dispatch merchants in their turns.---Rule 13th at the end of letter A.

—Below stairs, their attendance.

—Embezzling any lodged in any warehouse in their custody, are to forfeit double the value, and full costs. 8 Ann. c. 13. § 27.

—May not exact unlawful fees.---Vide FEES.

—But may take such recompence for extraordinary service and attendance at times and places not required by law, as the commissioners in the port of London, and the collector, customer, and comptroller of the out-ports, or any two of them, shall determine. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 7. § 15.

—of the Excise.---Attempting to corrupt them, the penalty is 500l. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. § 40.

—Or their assistants, being resisted or molested in the execution of their duty, by persons passing armed with prohibited or uncustomed goods, may oppose force to force in defence of themselves, and execution of their duty; and if apprehended for beating, maiming, or killing any person so resisting them, are to be admitted to bail. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. § 35.

—Either by patent, grant, or otherwise, are not void by the demise or death of his majesty, his heirs and successors, but are to continue in force for the space of six months after, unless sooner superseded, or made void by the successor: but the officers not required to take any oaths, de novo, in respect of being continued for such six months only. 1 Ann. c. 8. § 2. and 4. and 5 Ann. c. 8. § 0. and 6 Ann. c. 7. § 8, 18. 1 Geo. II. c. 5. § 2. and c. 23. § 7.

—Of the customs, excise, and stamp duties, severally continued for ever; with a proper number of commissioners, and a comptroller, in each of them. 9 Ann. c. 21. § 12.

—Of profit, and all other payments from the crown, are liable to a deduction not exceeding 6d. in the pound, which his majesty may, by warrant under the great seal of Great-Britain, privy-seal, or royal sign manuel, cause to be made, out of all salaries, fees, wages, and other payments, or any arrearages thereof from the crown, for the use of his majesty's civil list. 7 Geo. I. c. 27. § 19. and 11 Geo. I. c. 17. § 19. and 12 Geo. I. c. 2. § 26.

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PACKERS. This is esteemed a very reputable trade, though they are really what their title expresses, packers as well as pressers of all sorts of bale-goods (intended for exportation) for the great trading companies and merchants, for which they are answerable, if they should happen to receive any damage through bad package: besides this, several of them are considerable dealers.

PAINTERS. There are four sorts of painting, which are properly called trades.

1. House-painting, which is mostly plain work within and without.

2. Ship-painting, which is also for the most part plain, but with a great deal of carved-work, and gilding sometimes.

3. Sign-painting, which is mostly rough figure-work: there are also shop-keepers, who are also a sort of carvers and joiners, and make and sell all sorts of wooden signs; but there are some also of pewter, which is the pewterer's work to cast, and the sign-painter's to draw.

4. Coach-painting, which is partly plain, and partly in figures, and some of it very curious: there are also arms-painters, which are much used on coaches, &c. House and ship-painter's work is by far the most populous, but the heaviest and most unwholesome.

PAINTING.

Of PICTURE-PAINTING.

Whoever would apply himself to painting, says that celebrated Italian painter Leonardo da Vinci, must, in the first place, learn perspective*: this will enable him to dispose things in their proper places, and to give the due dimensions to each: having done this, he must learn to design; chusing for that purpose some able master, who, at the same time, may give him an insight into the colours of figures: he ought then to consult nature, to confirm himself in what he has already learnt; and, lastly, let him apply himself to the study and imitation of the greatest masters, in order to get a habit of reducing what he has learnt into practice.

* That perspective is an essential requisite in a good painter, is attested by all our most eminent artists, and is moreover confirmed by almost every author, who has wrote with judgment upon painting; nay, the very term painting implies perspective. For, to draw a good picture, is to draw the representation of nature, as it appears to the eye; and to draw the perspective representation of any object, is to draw the representation of that object, as it appears to the eye: therefore, the terms painting and perspective seem to be synonymous, though I know there is a critical difference between the words. Yet this will serve, at least, to shew the near alliance between painting and perspective; that if the one doth not comprehend the other, perspective, however, may be said to be the basis upon which painting is built; and therefore, he who attempts to paint a picture, without having a general knowledge of it, will always wander in the mazes of uncertainty, be subject to the greatest errors, and his works, like those of Boticello, will be the less regarded. And what is said of the usefulness of perspective to painters in particular, may be applied to artists in general; such as engravers, architects, statuaries, chasers, carvers, &c.

To design well, and to dispose the lights and shadows of figures suitably to their situations, being the most considerable parts of this art, and those on which the greatest stress depends; it is in these that a painter, who would make any great proficiency, ought principally to exercise himself.

Of all animal operations, we plainly perceive sight to be the most quick: it moves with incredible velocity, and discovers a thousand objects in an instant. But then it sees them very confusedly, and, in effect, does not discern above one at a time. For instance, if you glance your eye over a page of this book, you will immediately perceive it full of different characters; but what these characters are, or what is intended by them, will be still a secret: inasmuch, that to gain any determinate knowledge of what you have seen, you must consider them by piece-meal, forming the letters into words,

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and those again into periods; so a man who would mount to the top of a building, is content to go up step by step, as knowing it impossible otherwise to reach it: in the same manner, a person who would attain to skill in painting, must begin with the parts of objects, before he can proceed to represent them entire; and must take them in order, never advancing to a second, before he has got a good habit of doing the first: for, otherwise, his time will be thrown away, or at least, his advances rendered extremely slow and imperceptible. He must further inure himself to work with patience and steadiness, always remembering, that a slow diligence will out-strip a hasty negligence.

Some people have a fancy for painting, who yet want the necessary dispositions thereto: this is easily discoverable in children, who amuse themselves with drawing imperfect sketches, never troubling themselves to shadow any thing they undertake.

A painter deserves but a small share of reputation, who only succeeds in some one branch of his art; as for instance, in painting a nudity, a head, drapery, animals, landscapes, &c. since the heaviest genius, by incessant plodding on the same thing, cannot fail, at length, of performing it well.

A painter must therefore be universal, and apply himself to the study and consideration of all objects; but so as to attend in a particular manner to those parts of each, which are the most beautiful and perfect: by this means his imagination will become like a mirror, representing every thing laid before it, in its proper character and colour.

But further, a painter, who is not equally pleased with all parts of his art, will never become universal. Boticello, for instance, had a peculiar pique against landscapes, and thought them much beneath his application; the effect of which was, that being a very sorry landscape painter, his merit, in other matters, was the less regarded. It was a saying of his, that a pallet full of colours being thrown against the wall, would leave a stain behind it properly enough representing a landscape. It is true, indeed, that by help of a strong fancy, one may spy heads, battles, rocks, seas, clouds, woods, &c. in a wall so smeared; it being here, as in the ringing of bells, where every body is at liberty to make them say what he pleases.

But then, though such a fortuitous mixture of colours may start a hint, or give rise to a new invention, yet it will not furnish the least assistance towards the execution, or finishing any thing that is occasioned.

A painter who would appear universal, and please people of different tastes, must set off several figures in the same piece, both with very deep and very soft shadows; taking care by the way, to make the reason of such diversity apparent.

A painter ought to have his mind continually at work, and to make remarks on every object, worthy of notice, that he meets. He ought even to stand still, in order to view them with the greater attention; and afterwards to form rules on what he has observed, with regard to lights, shadows, place, and other circumstances. Let him make himself a master of the theory, before he meddles with the practice, and be very curious in comparing the limbs and junctures of different animals with one another; taking minutes of every thing he learns, the better to fix them in his memory.

A painter who has no doubts in his studies, makes but a small progress in his art; it being an infallible sign, where all this appears easy, that the workman is insufficient, and the work above his pitch. But when once a painter has got a just sense of the whole difficulties of his work, every new reflection he makes, will give him new strength to surmount them; inasmuch, that if he perseveres in it, every day will contribute something towards his improvement and perfection.

Let a novice in the first place exercise his hand, in copying the designs of some able master; after he has got a habit of doing this, he may proceed to relieves, designing after them with proper application.

The first sketch of a history-piece must be very slight, and the figures very imperfectly formed, your principal regard being to the justness of their situation: having adjusted the

ordonnance * of the piece, you may finish the members at your leisure.

* Ordonnance is the placing regularly the figures, in respect of the whole compofure ; or the particular difpofition of figures, as to the different groupes, mafles, contrafts, decorum, afpect, and fituation.

Whenever either your own reflection, or the information of your friends, points out any fault in your work, correct it immediately ; left in expofing the piece to the world, you expofe your own weaknefs : nor flatter yourfelf, that what reputation you lofe by letting it efcape, may be retrieved in your next performance. It is not with painting as with mufic, which dies in the breath that gives it birth : painting is of a more durable nature, and whatever over-fights of this kind you make public, will be ftanding reproaches to you ever afterwards.

Nothing deceives us more than the judgment we form of our own works, nor are the opinions of our friends much more to be relied upon : a friend is, in effect, a fecond felf, and therefore to be held in the fame degree of fufpicion. It is the critic of our enemies, that we ought to form ourfelves by : this is ufually fincere, which is more than I can fay, either for myfelf or my friend.

Among other things, I fhall not fcruple to deliver a new method of affifting the invention ; which, though trifling in appearance, may yet be of confiderable fervice in opening the mind, and putting it upon the fcant of new thoughts ; and it is this ; if you look at fome old wall covered with dirt, or the odd appearance of fome ftreaked ftones, you may difcover feveral things like landfhips, battles, clouds, uncommon * attitudes, humourous faces, draperies, &c. out of this confufed map of objects, the mind will be furnifhed with abundance of designs and fubjects perfectly new.

* Attitude implies little more than action and pofture ; though it is fometimes ufed, where neither of thefe would be proper : for inftance, action is not applicable to a dead corpf : nor do we fay, that fuch a figure is in a handsome pofture, but in a graceful attitude or difpofition,

I have often found it for ufe to recollect the ideas of what I had confidered in the day, after I was retired to bed, and incompaffed with the filence and obfcurity of the night. For by thus repeating the contours, and other parts of figures which require a clofer attention, their images are ftroingly impreffed on the memory, and familiarized to the mind.

If you intend to become a proficient, be fure never to design any thing flightly, or in hafte ; but take time to confider, with regard to lights, which parts receive the ftroongeft, and, in fhadows, which are the deepeft ; obferve how thefe mingle together, and in what quantity, ftill comparing the one with the other. As to the contours, confider towards what part they are to be directed, what quantity of light and fhadow meet within the lines, where they are more or lefs ftroong, larger or fmaller ; and, laftly, take care that your lights and fhadows do not terminate abruptly, but that they fall foftly into one another, and at laft lofe themfelves infenfibly, like fmoke. After you have once habituated yourfelf to be thus punctual and exact in your designs, expedition and difpatch will come a-pace.

While a painter is employed either in designing or painting, he ought to liften with attention to the different fentiments which different people entertain of his performance : there being no body, how ignorant in painting foever, but who underftands the fhape of a man, and can readily tell whether he be hump-back'd, crooked-legg'd, have any thing monftroous in his hand, or any the like blemifh : why may not a perfon then, who can fo well diftinguifh the defects of nature, be allowed to judge of thofe of arts ?

It is ridiculous in a painter to confide fo far in his memory, as think it capable of retaining all he has feen and obferved in nature : the memory is a faculty too weak, as well as too narrow for that purpofe ; and the only fure way is to copy, as much as poffible, from nature herfelf.

A painter lofes a great deal of his dignity, by confining his genius, and never venturing out of his ordinary courfe : there are fome, for inftance, who apply themfelves to the painting of nudities ; but fo as ftill ftroictly to obferve the fame proportions, and never introducing the leaft variety. Whereas, they fhould confider, that a man may be well proportioned, whether he be thick or flender, fhort or tall. By difregarding this diversity of proportions, a painter feems to caft all his figures in the fame mould, which is an error of the firft magnitude.

A painter well acquainted with the theory of his art, may, without any great difficulty, render himfelf univerfal. For all terreftrial animals have this in common with each other, that their members are compofed of mufcles, nerves, and bones ; the only difference between them lying in their different lengths and thickneffes, as is demonftrated by the anatomifts. As to aquatic animals, in which indeed there is a great variety, I think a painter who is well advifed, will not trouble himfelf about them.

Thofe who venture on the practice, without firft qualifying themfelves in the theory, are like mariners putting out to fea without either helm or compafs, ignorant what courfe to take. The practice ought always to be built on a rational theory, of which perspective is both the guide and the gate, and without which, it is impoffible to fucceed, either in designing, or in any of the arts depending thereon.

A painter fhould never tie himfelf to imitate the * manner of any other ; his bufinefs being not to reprent the works of men, but thofe of nature ; who at the fame time is fo abundant in her productions, that it is ridiculous to have recourfe to her fervants, who have nothing but what they borrowed from her, when the miftrefs herfelf is fo ready to entertain them.

* Manner is the habitude that painters have acquired, not only in the management of the pencil, but alfo in the three principal parts of painting, viz. invention, design, and colouring : it is by the manner in painting that we judge this piece to be Titian's, Tintoret's, or Vinci's hand ; as by the ftile in writing, we guefs this book to be this or that author's.

To design after nature, or the life, you muft be removed from the object, three times it's magnitude ; taking care, as you draw each ftroke, to obferve what parts of your * model meet under the principal, or perpendicular line.

* The model is generally taken for any natural object that presents itfelf to be drawn ; in particular, it fignifies a ftatue, nudity, or the like, fet up in the academies, to be copied by the novices in painting.

To judge of the goodnefs of a picture, drawing, or print, fays Mr Richardson, it is neceffary to eftablifh to ourfelves a fystem of rules, to be applied occasionally : thefe are no other than thofe which he that is to give fuch judgment, would have been directed by, had he been to have made, what now he is to judge of.

And thefe rules muft be our own ; whether as being the refult of our own ftudy and obfervation, or by others examined and approved by ourfelves.

To affift the judgment herein, the following rules have been laid down.

I. The fubject muft be finely imagined, and, if poffible, improved in the painter's hands ; he muft think well as an hiftorian, poet, philofopher, or divine, and moreover as a painter, in making a wife ufe of all the advantages of his art, and finding expedients to fupply it's defects.

II. The expreffion muft be proper to the fubject, and the characters of the perfons. It muft be ftroong, fo that the dumb-fhew may be perfectly well, and readily underftood. Every part of the picture muft contribute to this end ; colours, animals, draperies, and efpecially the actions of the figures, and above all the airs of the heads.

III. There muft be one principal light, and this, and all the fubordinate ones, with the fhadows and repofes, muft make one intire harmonious maf ; the feveral parts muft be well connected and contrafted, fo as the tout-ensemble muft be grateful to the eye, as a good piece of mufick is to the ear. By this means the picture is not only more delightful, but better feen and comprehended.

IV. The drawing muft be juft ; nothing muft be flat, lame, or ill-proportioned, and thefe proportions fhould vary according to the characters of the perfons drawn.

V. The colouring, whether gay or foild, muft be natural, beautiful, and clean, and what the eye is delighted with, in fhadows, as well as lights and middle tints.

VI. And whether the colours are laid on thick, or finely wrought, they muft appear to be done by a light, and accurate hand.

Laftly, nature muft be the foundation that muft be feen at the bottom ; but nature muft be raifed and improved, not only from what is commonly feen, to what is but rarely, but even yet higher, from a judicious and beautiful idea in the painter's mind, fo that grace and greatnefs may fhine throughout ; more or lefs, however, as the fubject may happen to be. And herein confifts the principal excellency of a picture or drawing.

Thefe few plain rules being thoroughly comprehended and remembered, which may be done with a tolerable meafure of good fenfe ; a little trouble in reading, and a good deal of obfervation on nature and pictures, and drawings of good mafters, may greatly contribute to enable a perfon to be a tolerable judge in thefe matters, as being derived from, and founded upon, reafon ; and though not deftitute of abundant authority, yet neither borrowed from thence, or at all trufting to that for their fupport.

For, whatever authorities there are for any propofition, their value confifts in their being derived from reafon, and they weigh with men of fenfe in proportion only as they fee they do fo ; they then become our own, and we have no occafion to produce the author but the reafon : or, (if that be obvious) leave it to be obferved by the reader.

The matter would terminate here, though we had a book of rules for painting, said to be written by Appelles himself, and it were allowed that what Appelles said were infallibly true; for then, instead of saying, are these rules good, are they founded upon reason? the question would only be, are they really of him? Their authority then will rest, not upon the credit of Appelles, but upon the testimony of those that say they are his. Which we shall not want, if we find the rules to be good, and if we do not, it will be insufficient; and all this without the least prejudice to the profound respect we have for Appelles, nay it is a necessary consequence of it.

To judge of the degrees of goodness of a picture or drawing, it is necessary that the connoisseur should be thoroughly acquainted, and perpetually conversant with the best. For how perfectly soever he may be master of the rules of the art, he will know that those are like what divines call precepts of perfection; that is, they are given as what we should endeavour to go by, as far as we are able. The best things we know will be the standard by which we shall judge of those, and all the rest. Carlo Maratti and Guiseppe Chiari, will be a Raphael and Giulio Romano, to him who has never seen better; and then an inferior master will make a good Carlo. We have been surprized to observe what pleasure some connoisseurs have taken, in what another looked upon with little, if not with contempt, 'till we have considered one was not so well acquainted with the works of the best masters as the other, and that accounts for it sufficiently.

All the different degrees of goodness in painting may be reduced to these three general classes. The mediocre, or indifferently good, the excellent, and the sublime. The first is of a large extent, the second much narrower, and the last still more so. I believe most people have a pretty clear and just idea of the two former, the other is not so well understood; which we take to consist of some few of the highest degrees of excellence in those kinds, and parts of painting, which are excellent: the sublime therefore must be marvellous and surprizing; it must strike the mind powerfully, and captivate it irresistibly.

The sublime may be confined to history and portrait-painting; and these must excel in grace and greatness, invention, or expression. Michael Angelo's great stile intitles him to the sublime, not his drawing; it is that greatness, and a competent degree of grace, and not his colouring, that makes Titian capable of it: as Corregio's grace, with a sufficient mixture of greatness, gives this noble quality to his works. Vandyke's colouring nor pencil, though perfectly fine, would ever introduce him to the sublime; it is his expression, and that grace and greatness he possessed (the utmost that portrait-painting is capable of), that sets some of his works in that exalted class; in which, on that account, he may, perhaps, take place of Raphael himself in that kind of painting, if that great man's fine and noble ideas carried him as much above nature then, as they did in history, where the utmost that can be done is commendable, a due subordination of characters being preserved; and thus Vandyke's colouring and pencil, may be judged equal to that of Corregio, or any other master.

R E M A R K S.

The management of the pencil, and the mixture of colours, with the knowledge of perspective, and a habit of designing, wherewith, most painters seem to content themselves, make but a part of the art, according to the sentiments of the most celebrated artists. To these the assistance of other arts must be called in; anatomy, optics, meteorology, mechanics, &c. searching attentively into the power of nature, in order to form an art that may imitate her; and, from the depths of philosophy, drawing means for the improvement of painting. It is not in painting alone, but in philosophy likewise, that the most eminent have excelled their brethren of the pencil; nor does it appear improbable, but that it was from uncommon skill in the latter, to which, in great measure, they have owed their success in the former. These are two faculties that may be nearer a-kin, than every one, perhaps, is aware of; nor would there be any thing daring in the assertion, should it be affirmed, that philosophy is absolutely necessary, by way of preliminary to painting.

To paint, it is allowed, is to imitate nature; but is not the knowledge of nature requisite to the imitation of her beauties? Must it not be pleasant to see men about to represent natural objects, who are unacquainted with the nature and properties of the objects to be represented? Quacks, indeed, there may be in painting, as well as in other professions; but to become a regular painter, it is indispensably necessary, that a man serve an apprenticeship to philosophy.

We have people who pretend to cure diseases, without knowing any thing of the animal œconomy, or of the powers of medicines; we have others, who would be thought to paint by the mere mechanism of a hand, and the motion of the pencil: but, as the college will never allow the former to be physicians, so there is no reason why the latter should be complimented with the title of painters.

That this art requires suitable institutions for its advancement and encouragement in this nation, may be naturally urged,

if we consider it only in the commercial light. For there may be great pecuniary advantages accrue therefrom, such as ought to engage the attention of the mere merchant. If we had more regular artists, and in greater number, not only much money, which is now sent to France and Italy, might be saved, but a very profitable exportation might be made of those works that were not purchased by our own connoisseurs.

If we consider the great number of foreign statues, paintings, and prints, that are brought into this kingdom, the prodigious price that is given for some, and the more than equitable price that is given for all; must not the consideration suggest to us, that this article is highly disadvantageous to the nation? We often hear of a sum given for a single piece, the work of an antient or foreign master, that equals the annual revenue of a gentleman's estate. And, sometimes, the ignorance of the purchaser, or the confident knavery of the seller, imposes on us a copy of little value, instead of an original. And whatever is paid for one of these extravagant articles of luxury, more than it will sell for again at a foreign market, is so much loss to the common national stock, as well as to the private fortune of the immediate sufferer.

That we have annually a great many of these losing articles, will scarce be disputed; and whatever one nation, by such means, draws from another, must contribute proportionably to its advantage. The smallest branch of trade, if carried on to our disadvantage, must, in time, contribute to impoverish us, and enrich those who deal with us on the beneficial side.

But, if the British artists became superior to the French and Italian, and could raise a tribute on those nations for any curious productions, we should not only save all the balance against us on this account, but draw into the nation as much more to their disadvantage. This would be adding continually to our wealth, and consequently to our strength and influence.

But what would this be, compared with the great influx of riches that would accompany persons of distinction from foreign nations? Do we visit Italy for the purity of its religion, or superiority of virtue and wisdom? Or France for the freedom of its government? An Italian or Frenchman will not say this, unless he be ignorant, and a bigot. Is it because they are commercial nations, more than ourselves? Neither can that be admitted. Why then is it, but because the cities of Italy abound with temples and palaces, venerable and antient in themselves, and enriched with all the profusion of art by the greatest masters? But because France is in the road to Italy, whom she has robbed of many of her treasures, and whom she rivals in expensive projects, though not in the beauty of execution. Had we as curious works of our own, in the same abundance, should we be at so much expence, and, perhaps, loss of time, to visit those of our neighbours? They who are loudest against the folly and abuse of travel, can scarcely be of this opinion: there would be no pretence for the fops and fools, if the men of taste and good sense did not meet with some entertainment. Admitting, therefore, that the greatest part of our travellers are of the former class, those of the latter must, in this respect, always lead the fashion. Travel will always be commendable in men of taste and real curiosity, while neighbouring nations have these means of instruction or delight, which we are deficient in ourselves: but could we only rival our neighbours in the elegant and polite arts (as we already confessedly do in literature) the same motive would not remain: the men of sense would not waste the time which they esteem precious, and the grand tour of our petits maitres would not be justified by grave example.

The Lacedæmonians were certainly a brave, and history has called them a wise, people; yet they forbade travel to their youth, as it contributed, in their opinion, to soften and corrupt their manners. If we have not been already too much softened and corrupted, the comparisons made betwixt former ages, and the present, are unjust. But do not all who make these comparisons, ascribe the difference to the bad habits we have learned from foreigners, whom, in point of bravery, our ancestors would have despised? Not only the culture of our lands, and the manufactures of our productions, but the arts of peace and war were known to those ancestors: what then do most of our young gentlemen learn? Are the dancing a minuet, and humming an Italian air, so great excellencies? Admitting they were, the care of the present age has provided masters capable of teaching both, even at home. No body can say that we are not, in this and other respects, shameful to mention, sufficiently Frenchified and Italianized. See the article DANCING MASTER.

All that we would aim at is, to spirit up our own country, as well to excel in the art of painting, as in all other the polite arts, which contribute either to the wealth, or to the delight or ornament of the nation; that we may at least draw foreigners of merit and distinction into our own country, in the like proportion that they draw Britons of figure and worth into other countries. See the articles DESIGN and ENGRAVING.

PALATINATE of BAVARIA, or the UPPER PALATINATE, in the circle of Bavaria, in Germany, sometimes

sometimes called the Nortgow, from its northern situation, in respect of the elector of Bavaria's other dominions. It is bounded by Voigtland in the circle of Upper Saxony on the north, by Bohemia and Austria on the east, by the river Danube, which separates it from the Danube of Bavaria on the south, and by Swabia and part of Franconia on the west, being about 70 miles long and 40 broad; a mountainous, rocky country, but in some places their vallies produce good corn and pasture. They have also some vineyards, but their wine has a sharp, unpleasant taste. In their hills are rich mines of copper, silver, and iron; and the forges and manufactories of iron, are very considerable in this country.

PALATINATE of the **RHINE**, situated in the circle of the Lower Rhine, in Germany, is bounded by the archbishoprics of Mentz and Triers on the north, by the circles of Franconia and Swabia on the east, and by Alsatia and Lorrain on the south and west, being upwards of 100 miles long, and from 50 to 70 broad. The Rhine, the Neckar, and other fine rivers running through it, contribute to render it one of the pleasantest and most fruitful provinces of Germany; only unhappy in lying on the frontiers of France, whose princes have burnt and plundered this country, and demolished its fine towns several times during the wars. It is always obliged to subsist large armies of friends as well as enemies, whenever there happens a quarrel between France and the German princes. The revenues of the Palatinate arise by a toll on all vessels going along the Rhine, Neckar, and other rivers; and from the duties on corn, wine, and other provisions; the whole estimated at 300,000*l.* per annum. That prince keeps up a body of 6 or 7000 men in time of peace, and in the late wars maintained 12,000 regular forces many years. There is a dispute subsisting between the elector Palatine and the elector of Hanover, about the titular office of arch-treasurer of the empire.

PALM, a measure taken from the extent of the hand. The modern palm is different in different places where it obtains. —At Rome it contains 7 inches $\frac{1}{2}$: at Naples 8 inches: at Genoa 8 inches $\frac{4}{5}$: at Morocco and Fez, 7 inches $\frac{1}{2}$: in Languedoc and some other parts of France, 8 inches $\frac{1}{3}$. —The English palm is 3 inches. At Leghorn there are two kinds of palms, the one for woollen, the other for silks: the first one third shorter than the latter.

PALESTINE, a part of Asiatic Turkey, is situated between 36 and 38 degrees of east longitude, and between 31 and 34 degrees of north latitude, bounded by mount Libanus, which divides it from Syria on the north, by mount Hermon, which separates it from Arabia Deserta on the east, by the mountains of Sier and the deserts of Arabia Petraea on the south, and by the Mediterranean Sea on the west; so that it seems to have been extremely well secured against foreign invasions. It was called Palestine, from the Philistines, who inhabited the sea-coasts. It was called also Judea, from Juda; and the Holy Land, from our Saviour's residence and sufferings in it: and it is called Canaan, and the Promised Land, in the scriptures. It is 150 miles in length and upwards, and 80 in breadth; and, in the time of Solomon, it seems to have extended from the Mediterranean Sea to the river Euphrates. It is generally a fruitful country, producing plenty of corn, wine, and oil, where it is cultivated; and would be able to supply its neighbours with corn and wine, as it did formerly, if the present inhabitants were as industrious. The country about Jerusalem is the most mountainous and rocky; but these mountains feed great herds of cattle, abound in milk and honey, and produce excellent wine and olive-oil where they are cultivated, as the vallies between the mountains do good crops of corn.

PAPER, a thin flexible matter, usually white to write upon, and other sorts for divers other uses.

Paper owes its origin to the necessity that mankind were always under, to communicate their sentiments when at a distance from one another, and to the desire of transmitting their thoughts to posterity. For this purpose they first thought of carving or painting upon the bark or leaves of trees, the characters which they used. The natives of America still use the same expedients, and these may be looked upon as a living proof of what is recorded of the first men of the old world.

They found inconvenience in having books composed of small bits of bark strung upon twisted leaves, or on one piece of bark or leaves rolled up, and endeavoured to find another matter which might be more commodiously used. The Egyptians, who first settled a well governed state, were likewise the first who endeavoured to procure this advantage; nevertheless it was not (according to Pliny) till the time of Alexander's victories, that they made this discovery. They fell upon a method of making, from a kind of dog-grass, a substance, which soon became a considerable and lucrative branch of trade, and this manufacture was the first thing that deserved the name of paper.

Rome, as much as it was possible, furnished itself with this paper, and as often as the Gauls could procure it, they gave it the preference to the birch bark; but the difficulty of bringing it from such a distant country as Egypt, weighing too equally against its property of taking any desired form, and of being folded together in sheets, the Gauls, and other

nations endeavoured, in like manner, to find the means of supplying it among themselves. They accordingly found the method of making it with cotton: and according to Montfaucon, in his Essay upon the Egyptian paper, inserted among those of the academy of the Belles Lettres, at the end of the ninth century, this destroyed the Egyptian paper manufacture through all the east; and this discovery led to that of our paper, which is made of rags; the æra of which, as settled by Montfaucon, is in the twelfth century.

Yet long before that period, the Chinese (according to P. du Halde) made it with cotton-rags. He says, in the article of Chinese paper, that in the 95th year of the Christian æra, a mandarine of the palace manufactured paper of the bark of different trees, old rags of silk and hemp that had been used. Be that as it will, as soon as the rag paper appeared, it ruined the Egyptian paper in the west, as the cotton paper had formerly ruined it in the east. We must own, however, that the advantages of paper made of rags, ought not to have been so fatal to that of Egypt, but on the contrary engaged their manufacturers to bring it to perfection. Every thing seemed to lead the way.

The different kinds of paper had always been made of plants: and although the birch bark and the prepared leaves, were, not properly speaking, of that species, yet the facility of folding and rolling, shewed a flexibility in the fibres, capable of that preparation which is given to rags. It may be observed, that these very rags are no other than fibres of a plant, which had suffered a kind of decomposition, which had not happened to those that they made use of. It was therefore natural to think, that if they had undergone the same preparation, they would have produced such a paper, or at least a kind that would have resembled our own.

Let us not seek for matter of reproach against the Ancients. Their occasions for paper were not probably so pressing as ours; since, notwithstanding the quantity of rags which is collected, the price of it sometimes rises so high, that the manufacturers are desirous of finding other materials for the same purpose, or compelled to have recourse to expedients which are prohibited, in some countries, by the regulations touching paper-works, though they always find means to conceal them from the vigilance of the inspectors.

When the rags that are proper for making white paper become scarce, they employ those which at other times are used for the coarse paper, and prepare them with chalk-water. By this preparation they consume, and indeed destroy the foreign bodies which are in these coarse materials, but at the same time decompose the fibres of the rags, so that there must certainly be a great waste. If we should do no more then, but find a method for preventing this waste, and procure such materials as the workmen at such times desire to have, should we not gain a great advantage to the paper works? This new matter might be used for coarse paper, and the other enter into the composition of white paper, and of consequence the price of fine rags would fall, or at least never become excessively dear. In my opinion, therefore, we ought to have been for a long time, employed in search of a remedy for those times of dearth, and in preventing the consequences so naturally drawn from the manner in which we now manufacture our paper.

It is not from the workmen we are to draw such consequences. He himself who makes any discovery, very rarely perceives all its consequences: the novelty often blinds us, touching what is already discovered, and makes us despise it, instead of engaging us to bring it to perfection. It therefore requires men who, together with a discerning understanding, have a desire to bring the arts to perfection, and to enable mankind to enjoy them at a small expence.

M. de Reaumer, in an essay published in the year 1719, upon wasps, seems to perceive these consequences. Wasps built habitations, the outward parts of which seem to be of paper or strong pasteboard: in such a manner do they prepare bits of rotten wood, as to make them assume that consistence.

M. de Reaumer took a hint from this observation, touching the perfection of paper-works. He in his essay explains his own idea of that substance, and wishes those who have an opportunity would examine, if it is such as he has conceived it to be: and this subject he has renewed in the sixth volume of his history of Insects.

Seba likewise, in the first volume of his Natural History, has invited the curious to prosecute the same project in these words. 'This country, says he, does not seem to want trees fit for making paper, if people would give themselves the necessary trouble and expence. *Alga marina*, for example, which is composed of long, strong, viscous filaments, might it not be proper for this purpose, as well as the mats of Muscovy, if they were prepared as the Japanese make their timber? The curious may at least try the experiment.' Whether there are no people, as Seba demands, who have opportunities of prosecuting this work, or that every body is averse to go to work, except upon his own plan, I know not one author who has communicated any thing upon this subject.

P. du Halde, in the first volume of his History of China, pretends that the Chinese make paper of the second bark of bamboo,

bamboo, of the bark of different trees, particularly the mulberry, of straw, rue, and hemp. Kœmpfer, in his voyage to Japan, and after him Seba, in the aforementioned book, report, that paper is made in that country of the inner bark of a kind of mulberry-tree.

M. de la Loubaire says, that the Siamese make it of old cotton cloth, or the bark of a tree called toncoë. Flacourt describes the manner in which the inhabitants of Madagascar make theirs of a kind of mallow, which they call avo. Finally, all the travellers to India as well as to America, recount with emphasis, the advantages drawn from the palm-tree for making stuffs, of which, when they are worn, it would doubtless be easy to make paper. The opportunity which the paper-mills in the neighbourhood of Estampes, seemed to afford me, of fulfilling the wish of some, and verifying what hath been said by others, touching our trees and plants that are analogous to those mentioned by the authors above, has induced me to collect several of these plants. After having surmounted all the difficulties, which we always find among workmen, when any novelty is introduced among them relating to their occupation, I have at length succeeded so far as to have tried some experiments, and flatter myself which being able to continue those which I have in view.

Hitherto I have only spoke, as if paper was made of nothing but vegetable substances, and that no materials could be taken from animal nature. Nevertheless, it is doubted whether in China, paper is not made of silk. Pere du Halde says, that they gather the refuse cods, when they are unwound in the silk manufactures, and make paper of them; but, notwithstanding the assertion of that author, the fact has been always considered as problematic.

I will relate an experiment which may help to explain this question: but before I describe my success, I believe I had better distinguish the different plants I have mentioned above, and present them in a methodical manner. By these means the public will have a botanical history of paper, and see the plan of the work proposed.

The materials for paper then may be divided into two general classes, namely vegetable substances, and those that belong to the animal kingdom.

In the great number of plants used for making paper, or of which people suppose it might be made, a regular order may be found. People of different countries, have been conducted by a kind of natural analogy. They have not sought to employ plants that were very different from those already in use. They have taken them of different classes, in different kinds, but always in some of those which had been before used, though probably they were ignorant of that circumstance. In effect, the greatest part of plants seems to be composed of long, longitudinal fibres, nearer or closer to one another, and covered with a substance which fills up the intervals: such are the palmiferous, the gramineous, and the liliaceous.

The class of the palmiferi is one of those, which have been of most service to the Indians, Asiatics, and Americans, in furnishing them with cloathing, cordage, sails and other utensils; almost every part of these trees has served some of those uses, though they do not indifferently take every part of the same tree. These people have in the palm-tree, which they found among them, chosen what was most susceptible of manufacture. In some they chose the spatha, which envelops the regimen of fruits before they are ripe, or that which sustains the young leaves: and in others they employed the down which surrounds the fruit. The young and tender leaves have been preferred to this wool or down, which was not considerable in other kinds; and when all these could not be compared to the bark for goodness and quantity, they made use of this last.

The down of the fruit of the cocoa-nut-tree, the spatha, the leaves and bark have been used, as several travellers relate. Rumphius, in his History of the Plants of Amboyna, says as much of the calapa: the pinanga, the wild lonturus, the tetum, the hakum, the wanga, all different kinds of the palm-tree, furnish in their leaves a thread more or less fine, of which those people make stuffs.

They have even prepared the leaves of the hakum, and foribe, and used them instead of paper. The advantages which the Indians drawn from the palm-tree being already sufficiently important, I shall not probably be blamed for not having inserted what is mentioned by Ray after some authors: he reports, in his History of Plants, that the cocoa-tree contains, in lieu of pith, a quire of paper of fifty or sixty sheets, on which people may write. This is like that which is found in the middle of a fruit of Peru, mentioned by M. Frezier, author of a Voyage to the South Sea. All this wonderful phenomenon, when reduced to its just value, is in my opinion, no more than that the pith of the palm-tree and the pulp of that fruit, may be easily made into sheets in the same manner as that of the Chinese alder, which is made into those fine artificial flowers that are brought from that country, or the books made of the roots of a kind of mallow, which requires no more than to be artfully dried and cut in leaves. The musa or banana-tree, has been employed for such-like purposes.

The class of the liliaceous includes the aloes, the yucca:

from the aloes is obtained the thread of pitte, known by the use to which it is put.

Father du Tertre, in his Natural History of the Antilles, describes the manner in which that thread is got. Sir Hans Sloane, in his Catalogue of the Plants of Jamaica, likewise mentions these aloes. In the number of synonymous names which he recites, some of them are taken from the use that is made of those plants, and which I cannot help, for that reason, repeating in this place.

The second species of that author, is by Gaspar Bauhin, in his Pinax, p. 20. called the eleventh species of papyrus, employed for paper. Clusius, in his treatise of Exotic Plants, p. 6. mentions a ball of thread made of the bark of a tree, which according to Sloane, is this aloes. John Bauhin, tom. i. p. 384. copies Clusius, and says, this thread is very fine and extremely white. The third species of aloes, according to Sloane, which nevertheless is a true species of yucca, is known to Luet, p. 645. under the name of an excellent kind of hemp or flax, which even approaches very near to the fineness of silk.

Seba in the first volume of his work, has given the figure of two leaves of a plant, which he calls the aquatic bullrush of Surinam, composed of innumerable threads or filaments. This bullrush, says that author, ought to be examined with regard to its utility.

It was from the gramineous class, as already said, that they obtained materials for the first paper, which deserves that name. Michilli, in his New Genera of Plants, has inserted in the number of rushes, the plant called by Gaspard Bauhin, in his Pinax, p. 19. and in his Theatre of Plants, p. 333. the paper of Syria or Sicily. Is this the species formerly employed in Egypt? The figure and description of it given by Prosper Alpinus, namely that of Veslingius and the Antients, leave it doubtful, whether this last plant be a rush or not. Prosper Alpinus says, it is the paper called beid by the Egyptians.

M. de Jussieu, at whose house people will always find lights in all doubts that can occur upon these subjects, and who finds pleasure in communicating instruction, hath shewn an Egyptian plant that seems to be a true rush, and when compared with that of Michilli, exhibits no difference.

Dodo considers the flag as a plant proper for paper, and gives it the name of papyrus. We have observed above, that Pere du Halde says, the Chinese made paper of straw or the blades of rice. Bamboo is likewise employed in the same country for a kind of paper; and, according to the same author, is the reed-tree of Gaspar Bauhin, in his Pinax, p. 18.

The birch, which is of the class of cat's-tail flowers, was one of the first trees, upon the bark of which people wrote. As the word bark may be deemed equivocal, it will not be amiss in this place to fix its signification. Are we to understand by this word bark, that part of trees which covers externally the trunk and branches? Or, is not rather that interior layer, which ought to become woody, and is called liber? Without all doubt, it must be this inner covering which we are to understand by the bark of birch; it seems also, that in this sense it ought to be understood in those authors, who treat of the different kinds of paper used by different nations. Most of these writers say, it is the second bark which is used. Others have only said, that they used the bark; but the preparations which they describe, plainly shew, that it was this inner part that was employed.

Rumphius describes two trees with cat's-tail flowers, one of which he calls the domesticum gnemon, and the other gnemon campestre. The inhabitants of Amboyna, according to that author, obtain a thread from the bark of the boughs, which they beat a little; and this thread is proper for making nets, which they boil in a certain infusion, to make them stronger and less apt to rot in the water. This ought the more carefully to be examined, as the knowledge derived from such enquiry, may serve to bring to perfection the cordage of ships, as well as that of which the fishers make their nets.

Here we ought to recal the idea which M. de Reaumur has produced upon the subject of rotten wood; an idea so much the more happy, as it furnishes others upon abundance of substances easily got: the forest presents but too many of them sometimes. The shops of our carpenters supply us with cuttings, which, by their thinness, are in a condition to undergo, in a little time, the necessary degree of rottenness; for here, as in every other thing, there is a proper degree which must be laid hold on. When the wood is too rotten, its fibres are too much divided, they have lost that binding which connects their parts, they become too earthy, and I believe it would then be difficult, not to say impossible, to bind them together: therefore the wasps do not use indifferently all sorts of rotten wood, but know how to distinguish that which is proper for their purpose.

The nettle, the mulberry, and the hemp, are ranked in a class which is called incomplete, because these plants want the flower, or the calix, or the petala, or both these parts.

Kœmpfer, in his Catalogue of the Plants of Japan, mentions one which in the Japonese idiom is called white hemp, and to which that author has given the appellation of the great common nettle, which bears real flowers, and yields strong

thread proper for linen and other works. The same author calls the mulberry, which is employed for paper, the papyrus, whose fruit resembles that of the mulberry, and whose bark is made into paper. Seba has given it the name of the mulberry-tree, which affords paper, and is cultivated at Japan. Pere du Halde says, tom. ii. p. 212. that before the mulberry branches, with whose leaves the Chinese feed their silk-worms, are destined to the fire, some people strip off the thin bark from these branches, and make of it a kind of paper, which is strong enough to cover their ordinary umbrellas, especially when it is oiled and coloured. I do not here join the other plant which the Japanese employ, because Kœmpfer leaves it uncertain under what class it ought to be ranged. He calls it the papyrus, which lies upon the ground, yields milk, has plated leaves, and a bark proper for making paper. For the same reason we likewise mention here a tree, which Sloane calls the tree with broad, long, jagged, smooth, shining leaves, like those of the laurel, whose interior rind may be extended into a fine cloth like muslin for ruffles; this tree is commonly called lagetto, tom. ii. tab. 168, 169. The people among whom this tree is found, make cloaths of it. It is needless to mention the use of hemp in making paper, every body knows we use it for that purpose; but hitherto no paper has been made of hemp, until it had passed through the state of rags. Yet Peru du Halde reports, that at Nangha, paper is made of hemp beaten and mixed with lime-water, tom. iv. p. 373. And this confirms the notion I entertained, that the stalks, or what falls upon the form in dressing hemp or flax, might serve for the same purpose. We shall speak of this below.

The malvaceous species dispute the preference with all the other classes, for this kind of employment. All the kinds of the mahot, yield a sort of thread proper for cordage. Sloane mentions two mallows, one of which he names the mallow-tree on the sea-shore, with round, small, prickly leaves, white below, which bears a yellow flower, and a bark that may be made into thread. Catalogue of the Jamaica Plants, p. 95. This is one of the mahots of father du Tertre. The other is mentioned by the name of the mallow-tree with round leaves, a very large flower of a fine red colour, like the fleur de lys, and a bark which yields thread. Ibid. This is another of du Tertre's mahots. It would be unnecessary to mention the different kinds of cotton which are used in making paper. I have observed above, that cotton-paper was invented in the east, and that in China, paper was made of cotton-rags; and, indeed, these are not neglected even in our manufactures. Although I have advanced, that people have never sought after plants that were far removed from those classes which had been formerly used, I think I ought to except the flax, the linden-tree, and the thistle.

Linen-rags have entered, and now enter, into the composition of paper: the workmen, in picking the rags, reject only those which are produced from woollen stuffs and hides of animals: they pretend that these stuffs cannot be beaten, but this they say, perhaps, because they are beaten with more difficulty than produced from the fibres of plants, the parts of which are more easily divided. They do not reject the others in those paper works where coarse grey paper is made; the business then is to have a very fine paste, and the hair may be beaten sufficiently, to incorporate with the fibres of other rags, although they may not be so well bruised.

Veslingius, in his little treatise upon the Utility of cultivating Plants, pretends that the down of certain thistles has been used in making stuffs: *ex acantii lanugine demptis spinis, vestes effecerunt*, says that author. By the word *acantium* we must understand a kind of thistle. The ancients often employed the word in this signification. The linden-tree was and is used in making ropes, a circumstance that denotes a flexibility in the fibres of that tree, capable of undergoing the necessary preparation for making paper.

What Veslingius, whom we have mentioned, has writ concerning the *luffa Arabum*, which may be considered as a kind of cucumber, ought to induce us to examine several plants. He says, that the inside of the fruits when the seeds are taken out, is no other than a little net that seems to be made of flax; whence he conjectures, it would yield a thread like that which the Ethiopians and Indians, according to Theophrastus, made of their cotton-apples, and the Arabians, according to Pliny, of their gourds.

I know no author but Seba, who has suspected that paper might be made of sea-plants and *alga marina*. When I read that part, I recollected that I had been struck with the whiteness which it will assume, bleached no doubt by the spray of the sea-water, by the rains and dews, and losing that glue with which all the marine plants are covered. Upon the sea-coasts, the fucus is used for dunging the vines and circumjacent lands; and I have observed that this, when transported to the grounds, likewise acquires a certain degree of whiteness, and, like the alga, preserves its figure, together with a strong consistence, nothing is so common on the sea-shore as the fucus, which in some places covers the coast, and nothing can be more easily collected.

There is another plant which is likewise found on the sea-shore, but more commonly in ponds, and the basins of gar-

dens; it is the *conserva* of Pliny, and in some authors bears a name that seems to promise considerable utility. Imperatus calls it the sea-flax. Lœfel, in his Catalogue of the Plants in Prussia, gives it the name of aquatic moss, composed of very fine silky filaments. I can scarce doubt, that some people have attempted to spin this plant. When it is wet, it has a flexibility that deceives people, and the great quantity of it found in those places that favour its multiplication, and by which means the fibres are interwoven in such a manner, as to produce a kind of stuff like coarse camblet, must have more than once induced people to try to make the plant useful in the commercial arts. I know that a great princess, struck with the quantity and fineness of this plant, was desirous of having it spun; but it becomes too brittle when out of the water, to be susceptible of this operation. I shall, in the sequel, relate the success I had in treating it, with a view to the paper manufacture.

I thought it necessary to enter into a circumstantial detail of the plants which have been used in the composition of paper, and those which may be used for that purpose, in order to give, as before observed, a botanical history of that manufacture; and by the different classes which I have described, the public sees the plant which relate to it. At the same time it must be owned, that some of these classes are not so rich here as in foreign countries. We are altogether strangers to the class of the palmiferi: but by way of recompence, the gramineous class is in greater abundance. The course of some rivers is retarded by a kind of forest of reeds, rushes, and flags; and in some places nothing is so common as mallows: there is scarce a person among us, who is not sometimes incommoded by the quantity of nettles and thistles. Cotton is nothing but a kind of down that surrounds the grain of that plant. I have therefore included in this design, the down of different plants, such as that of willows and linagostris. The grounds planted with willows, are covered at one season with the fall of the cat's tails of these trees; and some meadows, especially those that are barren, are full of the linagostris.

The stalks of hemp and flax are composed of two parts, the filamentous and that which partakes of the nature of pith. We cannot possibly doubt the utility of the first, which indeed composes our paper. Nevertheless, this thread is rejected as useless. It would therefore be a great advantage to render that part useful, even though the other never could serve any purpose. What prodigious quantities of materials would be acquired by these means! We know how much hemp is brought from Berry and Champaign in France. In the rope-works, and especially those of the arsenals belonging to the sea-ports of that kingdom, great resources would be found; they are now made into tow, which often mounts to such a quantity, that they are obliged to throw it away, or make use of it as dung for the beds in their garden; in all the Lower Poictier, there is scarce a peasant who does not reserve a piece of ground for flax-feed.

It is not therefore for want of materials, that we do not endeavour to procure a paper which may vie in beauty with our white paper, or at least furnish us with a kind proper for covers and bundles. Perhaps I may be thought to have found too many plants susceptible of this operation, and seem inclined to transform every thing into paper. Although what is related of foreign plants, may be a prejudice strong enough to inspire a notion of the utility we may reap from our own plants, I know at the same time, we may be imposed upon by analogy, which is always deceitful. In other respects, the experiments which I wish we could attain, give reason to perfection to which I have made, although far from that hope, that one day we may acquire a certain degree of that perfection.

Thinking I ought first of all to examine the stalks of hemp as the most common materials, and those from which I thought I had reason to expect some success, I caused them to be steeped in water for a certain time, that they might acquire a degree of rottenness, which would facilitate their trituration. When they were supposed to be sufficiently rotten they were beaten, but by a mistake, which by the bye, I had endeavoured to avoid, these stalks were beaten with mallows and nettles, which I had ordered to be gathered and left to rot in a separate place. Yet these different substances incorporated together: though it must be confessed, that their connection was not very strong, but, on the contrary, produced a very imperfect tissue.

I look upon this essay, as scarce deserving to be recounted: yet it shews, that the leaves of plants as well as the filaments, may unite and incorporate; and that, if those different parts had been beaten separately, and a proper degree of trituration bestowed upon each, so as to form a well-binding paste, something better might have been produced. I will even venture to say, this doubtless would have been the case, having observed what happens in ponds and marshes. Nature, more tranquil than art, frequently forms a very fine paper of plants that rot in those watery places. I have found in some of the pools of water of the forest of Dourdon, when they have been entirely dried up, masses of a substance that altogether resembles paper. They were composed of several lamina or leaves,

leaves, easily separated from one another; they tore like paper, and, though I could not then determine whether they were formed of rotten leaves, or only a kind of byssus, it seemed to me that, if any of this last plant entered its composition, there was likewise in it part of leaves, trees, and other plants. I have not fulfilled the aim which this observation inspired me with; diverted by a variety of other occupations, I could not bestow upon this work the time, attention, and necessary precision it required. It was more easy for me to repeat the experiment upon hemp alone: I therefore put in water to rot some very fine hemp, well cleaned from the parenchymatous part, or pith that falls from the instrument in dressing it: the paper which it produced was very strong, and convinced me that it was very easy to make it of that part of the hemp which is thrown away in rope-works, or other workhouses where it is dressed or employed.

The conviction I reaped from this experiment touching the hemp, necessarily influenced my notions concerning cotton, that down much softer and more flexible than hemp, must easily undergo the necessary preparation for making paper. I ought indeed, to regard the experiment I made upon cotton as superfluous, after that which I had tried upon hemp; yet as authors, those at least whom I have read, do not say that cotton paper was made immediately of cotton, before it had passed through the state of cloth, and Pere du Halde reports that the Chinese make theirs with cotton rags, I thought proper to remove that doubt entirely, because it seemed to me essential that no scruple should remain with regard to that fact, and the success seemed to influence all those parts of plants to which we commonly give the name of down. Of this kind there are several, namely the linagotris, the cat's-tail of the willow, dog's-bane, and trumpet-wood; which, though not so easily spun as cotton, seem to me susceptible of that consistence which is necessary to the paste or pulp of which paper is made: the cotton being therefore, beaten to a sufficient degree, produced a smooth white paper, of a strong texture, which promised to have all the advantages of our own.

I will not, however, pretend to propose it as an advantage to make paper of cotton: the hemp-rag is a material in our possession, which would be altogether useless if we did not know how to employ it for this purpose; but by knowing, from this and other experiments, that it is possible to make paper with these different materials, even though they have not passed through an intermediate state, we afford a succedaneum to those who are in want of ordinary rags, which are not so common as people may imagine, in countries remote from great cities.

In some places of our American colonies, cotton is more common than hemp-rag, which may be the means of making that trade more lucrative, and of greater consequence; but perhaps this is giving views of utility which many other reasons may render useless: besides, to know whether or not it would be used to advantage, would require more delicate experiments, and a more minute enquiry touching the price which that paper would bring, and the profit which is acquired in the ordinary cotton-trade. I have neither made the calculations nor the experiments that are requisite; all that I am in search of, is the possibility of the thing, and not its advantages or disadvantages.

I proceeded then to try the other downs, though I have been able only to examine that of the dog's-bane, called wad, and of the two kinds that are obtained from thistles, that only with seeds of divers kinds, which are crowned, but not the rind which the antients obtained from the leaves that have been mentioned above. This experiment did not succeed so well as that which I made with cotton. The paste formed of the down of these plants was not of such a good consistence or coherence as that of the pulp made with cotton; yet with much care and precaution, it was formed into sheets of paper strong enough to be hung upon cords to dry, but very easily torn; the parts did not adhere, they not being sufficiently interwoven and bound together; and without this quality no paper can be good.

So great a difference between these kinds of down, may appear singular, but this difficulty will be explained by the following observation. That which is upon wad and thistle, is not, properly speaking, a down, but formed of a sort of hair, sustained upon the seeds of these plants: these hairs are commonly called, by botanists, tufts and plumes, because they form upon the seeds a kind of tuft, and many of them push out branches on the sides, by which they resemble real plumes, or feathers.

Cotton, on the contrary, is a down that surrounds the grain, without order or regularity, sticking closely to it, without any constant figure. When this is pulled off, and the seed wiped clean, we can easily perceive that it issues from small points, like so many holes. If this operation is performed while the fruit is young, the thread or hairs are found softer, and less dry, than when it is farther advanced; and it is difficult to refute the notion, particular as it is, that cotton is no other than a matter which transpires from the seed. When we know what forms the down of certain thistles which we before have mentioned, the singularity of this notion vanishes:

The leaves and stalks of thistles are roughened with a quantity of hairs, which are so many pipes giving issue to a clear limpid liquor, a little viscous and glutinous, which dries in the air, and assumes a consistence like that of cotton: nay it really is so to such a degree, that when this down is collected, it is easy to form a thread of it between the fingers: such an observation may, perhaps, appear very delicate to make, and thence doubtful and hazardous; yet it does not require so much attention as people may imagine; all that is necessary is, to procure a microscope with a focus of some inches, to observe the threads, and the kind of wheel in which they are formed: and both these being distinguished, you may perceive, by the naked eye, all that passes in this operation of nature.

That this may be seen the plainer, you may chuse the *carduus benedictus* of the Parisians, or that which has the round head, covered with down: these are, in my opinion, more proper than many others of the same class, for proving this observation: the interior part of the scales that form their head, is provided with an infinite number of glands, that filtrate a liquor like that which I have mentioned; and this liquor changes in the air to threads, which form the down that surrounds the heads of those thistles. This will not admit of a moment's doubt, seeing this thread may be perceived forming under the very eye: if we will gradually and cautiously separate the scales from one another, we then have the pleasure to see this matter lengthen and extend like gum, rosin or wax, and in a moment change into white threads, resembling those of paper.

Now we perceive the similitude there is between cotton and the wool of thistles, and the difference between both and the pretended down of those last and of wad. The cotton issues from the seeds, which it surrounds like the wool of thistle-heads, and both sweat from certain parts, which may be considered as a kind of glands. On the contrary, what is supposed to be down in the thistle, consists of parts that are stiff and dry, consequently brittle, easily grouped into little smooth masses, which are not composed of a quantity of small fibres, that partly detaching themselves from one another, form in the cotton and thistle-wool that softness and flexibility, which makes what in these substances is commonly called the cottonaceous part, a quality which renders them easy to mix together, when they are beaten or pounded, in order to form a paste for paper. Must we, therefore, intirely reject these downs? No, surely; perhaps in the twinkling of an eye they may be rendered useful. I know it may be difficult to catch that point of view, than which nothing requires so much address in improving the arts; but we shall endeavour, at the conclusion of this article, to give some hints on the subject; for it would be very advantageous to find the means of employing a kind of down which is in such abundance, and costs nothing but the trouble of gathering it.

We shall now proceed to another experiment, which, though unsuccessful, ought to be related: it was tried upon the *alga marina*, which Seba exhorts us to examine. Under this name is comprehended not only that which is useful in packing glassware, and wrapping round the bottles of liquor which come from Montpellier, and from thence called the glass-makers weed; we say, not only this is regarded as an alga, but likewise the *fucus*, or *varus*, which has a better title to that name, since the glass-makers weed is not properly of that species, but of the class of dog's-grass: however, we have always mentioned it as an alga, because it is better known by that than the name of *cyperus*.

This plant having been treated like the others beforementioned, did not form the paste that would cohere in any shape, for its leaves has but few fibres: they are, in some sort, composed of parenchymatous parts, which may be considered as a bundle of small vesicles, the sphericity of which is an obstacle to that union that must obtain among the parts of paper. Two spheres can only touch one another in one point; this is a truth demonstrated in geometry, as well as this other, that plain surfaces may be in contact through their whole surfaces; a property which facilitates the intertexture of the parts of cotton-hemp in the composition of paper, and to which the other is an obstacle. To this I likewise attributed the little success I had an experiment which I made with *coralloides* a kind of plant of the glass of alga, which abounds in all our woods, and in some places almost intirely covers the trees and rocks. These plants are in some measure dissolved by the trituration; and when they were spread in water, according to the practice of making sheets of paper, they could not be re-united upon the form. The same thing happened to the *conserva* of Pliny, which is also of the same tribe.

It may be considered as a loss to the paper-manufacture, that we cannot give a body to these plants when they are tritured: the whiteness they acquire when drying, and their prodigious quantity, make us regret this circumstance, especially if they cannot be employed with success in some other manufacture; and we can easily conceive what impressions the report of the commissioners of the academy must have made, upon the minds of those who consulted it about the advantage that might be reaped from a cottonous matter they had gathered in the pond of Petz, at the distance of a league

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and a half from Metz, and was found to be no other than dried conferva, which did not deserve the attention that had been bestowed upon it; for they had already founded great hopes on the discovery, relating to the trade of the country.

A substance that might, perhaps, turn out to more advantage, is the cods of common catapillars, which, in some years, are in such plenty as almost to cover the trees. These cods, though not proper for spinning, may, nevertheless, enter into the composition of paper. The essay which was made gives room to hope for the success. In effect, these cods, cleared of the leaves that stuck to them, being beaten, were easily reduced to a kind of pulp, which being spread in the water, was without difficulty collected on the form, and made into sheets of paper that might be brought to a degree of perfection, which it must be owned they had not: nevertheless, though this paper ought rather to be ranked with the coarse brown than with the white fine sort, it gives room to believe, that it may in time acquire a certain degree of whiteness; some of the sheets were whiter than others: nay, the same sheets were sometimes whiter in one part than another: and the business will be, to find a remedy for this inconvenience. One of the best (which, by the bye, I could not employ) is, without contradiction, to pound the cods in the ordinary mortars of the mills, or bray them under the cylinder: the quantity of cods gathered by my direction was not enough to fill the mill-mortar, so that the workman made use of an ordinary mortar, which was attended with two defects; the substance was not beaten uniformly, and the foreign bodies were not discharged: these evils are prevented in the mill: the pestles are always moved equally, or at least more equally than with the hand of a workman who uses an ordinary mortar: so that the substance must be more effectually triturated in the mill. Besides, the mortars of the machine are open on one side, near the bottom: this hole is covered with a hair-cloth, the interstices of which are large enough to transmit what has undergone a sufficient degree of trituration. Thus the paste becomes whiter, an advantage we cannot obtain from any ordinary mortar, and which the silk paper I made could not have: for some of the sheets were sprinkled with several little black points, occasioned by the excrement of the catapillars, which were interwoven with the silk of the cods; and the water which passes into the mortar of the mill would have carried off these excrements; nay, perhaps the silk loses a part that serves no purpose but to render the paper of a greyer colour, when it continues mixed in the pulp. This part is more easily dissolved and disengaged from the paste by the water that continually runs through the mortars. The small fragments of leaves that may be left after the picking, will also be beaten with more difficulty in a common mortar, and the paper will be spoiled by them, as it happened to some sheets of that which we made.

This inconvenience would be avoided by putting the cods in the mill mortars, where, at least, the leaves would be more easily beaten, and this they might be, in the state wherein they appear in the cods: for the catapillars have divested them of their parenchymatous parts, on which they feed, and nought remains but the fibres, which by the net-work they form, supported the parenchyma that filled up the interstices. Though these fibres be like those of a tree, they are, at the same time, more slender and fine, and have already by the work of the caterpillars, acquired an elaboration that wants only a little of our assistance. The beginning of rottenness might suffice. The preparation given to the rags before they are put under the pestle, is one of the methods that may be the most useful on this occasion. The rags being picked, are cut into small pieces, and laid in heaps where they grow warm, and acquire a kind of fermentation, that gives them a degree of rottenness, which renders them the more fit for trituration. In the opinion of the workmen, this preparation is so indispensibly necessary, that, when the rags are clean, and destitute of the grease which is then requisite, they think themselves obliged to supply this defect. The same method may be taken with cods mixed with leaves. These leaves, assisted with a little moisture, will heat and rot to a certain degree, which it is our business to distinguish, that then they may be beaten as easily as the silk.

It were to be wished that these leaves were not mixed with the silk, whereas the greatest part of the cods are composed of them; yet there are some which consist of pure silk, and are usually found in the angle formed by the union of two branches. These are no other than threads of silk stretched from one bough to another, in different ways. The others, consisting partly of leaves, are placed in the middle of leaves, which, after the caterpillars have partly consumed, they bind and unite them together, thus forming larger or smaller bundles of pods, of the ends of little branches. There is no room to doubt that the silk of other caterpillars might likewise be employed: the cods of pure silk, and even those that are partly formed of the hair which covers the caterpillars, are equally proper materials for paper: nor should the cods belonging to the caterpillars of the pine-tree be rejected.

We ought, however, to be sure that it is possible to make paper of silk; but is it made of that substance in China? Though it may appear unnecessary to resolve that question, I will ex-

amine the reasons that are advanced to prove that it is not made of silk. It is usually said, That if the Chinese paper, which is pretended to be made of silk, was actually composed of that substance, it would in burning twist itself different ways, and be shrivelled up like parchment, which is made of prepared sheep-skin; whereas that paper burns as equally as that made of the rags of hemp-cloth and linen. These facts cannot be contradicted; but yet the silk paper which I made burned like ordinary paper, though the cods, which were the chief materials, shrunk up in burning, in the same manner as parchment. What, therefore, is the cause of this difference? I believe we must seek for the explanation in the tissue or texture, which is very different in the paper from what it was in the cod; there the threads are long, disposed in different manners, so as that one single thread often forms several folds.

The fibres of paper are very short, and, though differently arranged and bound together, the connection is not so strong: it is no longer one or several threads of a considerable length. It happens then, that when the cods are burned, their threads are drawn different ways; those of one surface draw those of another, and, therefore, they must twist and turn sometimes to one side, and sometimes to another; whereas the fibres of paper being so short, and connected together only by juxtaposition, they must act very little, if any thing at all, upon one another, consequently will burn equally. What proves the justness of this application is, that, in paper, there is sometimes one place where the silk has not been well beaten, and is still too much interwoven, and that place always is shrivelled up in burning. This explanation is, perhaps, sufficient to clear up the question relating to silk paper; and howsoever the Chinese paper may be made, I think we ought to be persuaded that it is possible to make it of silk: neither ought we to entertain any doubt about the use to which we might put the stalks of hemp and flax; and I think we have reason to hope, that one day an advantageous use may be found for the different kinds of down, not only of the cotton, of which, it is, perhaps, very singular to have entertained any suspicion, but also of the thistle, the trumpet-wood, and the wad, which more than any other would merit an happy success, its paper having a gloss and silver brilliancy which might be of some use in many cases.

All that remains, therefore, in order to fulfil our hope of this down, as well as of the others, is to find out some method, perhaps very easy and simple, and, for that very reason the more difficult to invent. If, for example, when the materials are ready to be beaten, instead of simple water, we should substitute a gummy or mucilaginous water, like that in which have been boiled the parings of leather, roots of marsh-mallows, the great comfrey, or such substances, the paste by these means would be endued with a kind of glue, which might be an expedient by means whereof the parts would cohere more strongly; perhaps it would be sufficient to prepare in this matter the water of the tub in which the paste is diluted when it comes from under the pestle.

If, notwithstanding this preparation, the paste should not have body enough, perhaps by substituting compression in the room of immersion, which is the ordinary method of forming the sheets of paper, we should be able to render the parts of the paste more coherent; and I imagine this is the method which must be taken with that cottonaceous substance that owes its origin to the conferva of Pliny. The heaps formed by the reunion of the different feet of this plant, are already of a certain thickness, and not easily torn; so that, in extending the paste made of this plant, we might give what thickness we would to every sheet, and the compression would afterwards do the rest. It might be found impracticable to make sheets as thin as those of ordinary paper; but even if we could do no more than make pasteboard, it would be an advantage which we ought not to neglect, but, on the contrary, prosecute with care. An enquiry into the materials which may be used for making of paper, by Mr. Guettard, of the Royal Academy of Sciences, and physician to his serene highness the duke of Orleans.

REMARKS.

The reader will please to observe, from this account of divers materials whereof paper may reasonably be presumed to be made, the great utility that a knowledge in natural history has to advance the manufactural arts; and, therefore, how beneficial it may prove to our artists and the nation, to have those things duly propagated in a trading empire. Every artisan and manufacturer will hence discern how importantly useful to their respective employments those gentlemen are, who have studied the productions of nature, and have suggested rational experiments thereon, in order to promote the trafficable arts. Princes, statesmen, and landed gentlemen in general, must be convinced, from instances of this kind, how necessary it is to encourage and honour those who apply themselves to studies that have so happy a tendency to inspire a general industry and ingenuity, and to advance the arts. Those who are wholly busied in the active life, have rarely leisure for researches of this nature, or a proper turn to make experiments

experiments suitably adapted to the advancement of their several branches of business: but it well becomes those who are engaged in the hurry of life, to devote some portion of their time to the perusal of books wrote upon Natural History, and for the improvement of the manufactural and mechanic arts. By this means our paper, as well as other manufactures, may arrive at their ultimate perfection, and be made from such materials as are little suspected. See the articles *MUSEUM* [REMARKS thereon], and *ROYAL SOCIETY OF LONDON*.

INCUMBUSTIBLE PAPER is made of the *Asbestos* [see *ASBESTOS*] which will bear burning without injury; and if an ink could be made of the same permanent nature, it might be a great preservative of writings of consequence from that consuming element, in cases of accident.

Mr Lloyd, in the *Philosophical Transactions*, No. 166. describes the manner of making this paper. He pounded a quantity of the *asbestos* in a stone mortar, 'till it became a downy substance, then sifted it through a fine sieve, and by this means purged it pretty well from its earthy parts; so that what earthy or stony matter he could not separate before, or in the pounding, being reduced to a powder, came through the sieve. This done he brought it to the paper-mill, and putting it in water in a vessel just big enough to make a sheet with such a quantity, he stirred it pretty much, and desired the workmen to proceed with it in the usual method, with their writing-paper mould, only to stir it about always before they put it in their moulds, considering it as a far more ponderous substance than what they used, and that, if not immediately taken up after it was agitated, it would subside.

The paper made thereof proved but coarse, and too apt to tear; but there is reason to believe it might be much improved, in case it was pounded in one of their mortars for the space of 24 hours.

Paper is of various kinds.---With regard to colours, they are divided into white, brown, blue, &c. and to quality, into fine, second, bastard, superfine, &c.---With respect also to use, into writing, printing, pressing, cap, cartridge, copy, post, &c.---With regard to dimensions, into demy, crown, fool's-cap, pot, royal, super-royal, imperial, elephant, atlas, &c. There is also printed, raised, and imbossed paper, wherewith to hang rooms, and wherein there is a large consumption, and in which our artists have arrived to a great perfection.

MARbled PAPER is a sort variously stained with divers colours, made after the following manner:

Take clear white gum-tragant, put it into an earthen pan, pour fresh water to it, 'till it is two hands high over the gum; cover it, let it soak 24 hours, then stir it well together, add more water to it, keep it often stirring for a whole day, or longer, and it will swell according as you find your gum is fresh or stale, for the fresh will dissolve sooner than that which has lain by a long time. When you find it well dissolved, pour it through a cullender into another pan, add to it more water, and, after it has stood a little and been stirred about, strain it through a clean cloth into another clean pan; keep it well covered, to hinder the dust, or any other thing from coming to it; this water, when you go to make use of it in marbling your paper or books, must be neither too thick nor too thin; you may try it with your comb, by drawing the same from one end of the trough to the other; if it swells the water before it, it is a sign that it is too thick, and you must add in proportion a little more water.

Your trough must be of the bigness of your paper, or rather something wider, and about four inches deep.

After you have filled your trough with the aforementioned water, and fitted every thing for the work, then (before you lay on your colours) take a clean sheet, and draw the surface, which will be a thin sort of film, off of it; then have your three colours, namely indico mixed with white lead, yellow oker, and rose-pink, ready prepared at hand, and for each colour have two galley-pots, in order to temper them, as you would have them in different shades.

All your colours must be ground very fine with brandy.

The blue is easily made deeper or lighter, by adding more or less white-lead.

The yellow used for that purpose is either yellow orpiment or Dutch pink.

For blue, grind indigo and white lead, each by itself, in order to mix that colour either lighter or darker.

For green, take the aforesaid blue and white, and some yellow to it, and temper it darker or lighter, as you would have it.

For red, take either lake or rose-pink.

Every one of these colours are, as we said before, first ground very fine with brandy, and, when you are ready to go to work, add a little ox or fish-gall to them; but this must be done with discretion, and you may try them by sprinkling a few drops upon your gum-water; if you find the colour fly and spread too much about, it is a sign of too much gall, which, to remedy, add more of the same colour that has none, but when you see the colour spread, and retract itself gently, it is right.

When thus you have your colours, and all things in good order, then take a pencil, or the end of a feather, and sprinkle or put first your red colour, then the blue, yellow, green, &c.

V O L. II.

begin your red from No. 1, and go along your trough to No. 2; also the blue from No. 3, all along to No. 4; the yellow and green put here and there in the vacant places; then with a bodkin, or a small skewer, draw a sort of a serpentine figure through the colours, beginning from No. 1 to No. 2: when this is done, then take your comb and draw the same straight along from No. 1. to No. 2. If you would have some turnings or snail-work on your paper, then with a bodkin give the colours what turns you please.

Thus far you are ready in order to lay on your paper, which must be moistened the day before, in the same manner as book-printers do their paper for printing; take a sheet at a time, lay it gently upon your colours in the trough, press it slightly with your finger down in such places where you find the paper lies hollow; this done, take hold at one end of the paper, and draw it up at the other end of the trough, hang it up to dry on a cord, when dry, glaze it, and it is done. You may also embellish your paper with streaks of gold, by applying muscle gold or silver, tempered with gum-water, among the rest of the colours.

To gild paper.

Take yellow oker, grind it with rain water, and lay a ground with it upon the paper all over; when dry, take the white of eggs, beat it clear with white sugar-candy, and strike it all over; then lay on the leaf gold, and when dry, polish it with a tooth.

Some take saffron, boil it in water, and dissolve a little gum with it; then they strike it over the paper, lay on the gold, and, when dry, they polish it.

To silver paper, after the Chinese manner, without silver.

Take two scruples of clear glue, made of neats leather, one scruple of white allom, half a pint of clean water, simmer the whole over a slow fire, 'till the water is consumed, or the steam ceases; then your sheets of paper being laid on a smooth table, you dip a pretty large pencil into that glue, daub it over as even as you can, repeat this two or three times, then sift the powder of talc through a fine sieve, made of horse-hair or gauze, over it, and then hang it up to dry, and, when dry, rub off the superfluous talc, which serves again for the same purpose. The talc you prepare in the following manner:

Take fine white transparent talc, that which comes from Muscovy, boil it in clear water for four hours, then take it off the fire, and let it stand so for two days: then take it out, wash it well, and put it into a linen rag, and beat it to pieces with a mallet: to 10 pounds of talc add three pounds of white allom, and grind them together in a little hand-mill, sift it through a gauze sieve, and being thus reduced to a powder, put it into water, and just boil it up: then let it sink to the bottom, pour off the water from it, place the powder in the sun to dry, and it will become a hard consistence. This beat in a mortar to an impalpable powder, and keep it for the use abovementioned, free from dust.

To make fine red paper.

Take a pan full of water, put some quick-lime into it, to make it into a lee, and let it stand over-night; then put Brazil chips into a clean pot, about half full, fill it with the lees, and boil it to half, and, when it is just hot, add to it a little allum; when you would use it, mix it with a little gum or size, and then with a pretty large pencil lay your colour on the paper with an even hand.

Of JAPAN PAPER.

The paper is made in Japan of the bark of the *morus papyrifera sativa*, or true paper-tree, after the following manner: every year, when the leaves are fallen, or in the tenth Japanese month, which commonly answers to our December, the young shoots, which are very fat, are cut off into three feet long, or shorter sticks, and put together in bundles, to be afterwards boiled with water and ashes.

If they should grow dry before they can be boiled, they must be first soaked in common water for about 24 hours, and then boiled. These bundles or faggots, are tied close together, and put upright into a large and spacious kettle, which must be well covered, and then they are boiled 'till the bark shrinks so far, as to let about half an inch of the wood appear naked at the top. When the sticks have been all sufficiently boiled, they are taken out of the water, and exposed to the air 'till they grow cold; then they are slit open length ways, for the bark to be taken off, which being done, the wood is thrown away as useless, but the bark dried, and carefully preserved, as being the substance out of which they are in time to make their paper, by letting it undergo a farther preparation, consisting in cleansing it anew, and afterwards picking out the better from the worse.

In order to this, it is soaked in water for three or four hours, and being grown soft, the blackish skin which covers it, is scraped off, together with the green surface of what remains, which is done with a knife, that they call *Kaadsi Kiufaggi*,

that is, a Kaadfi Razor. At the same time also, the stronger bark, which is of full a year's growth, is separated from the thinner, which covered the younger branches, the former yielding the best and whitest paper, the latter only a dark and indifferent sort. If there is any bark, of more than a year's growth, mixed with the rest, it is likewise picked out and laid aside, as yielding a coarse and worse sort of paper. All gross knotty particles, and whatever also looks in the least faulty and discoloured, is picked out at the same time, to be kept with the least coarse matters.

After the bark has been sufficiently cleansed and prepared, and sorted according to its differing degrees of goodness, it must be boiled in clear lye. As soon as it comes to boil, and all the while they keep it on the fire, they are perpetually stirring it with a strong reed, pouring from time to time so much fresh lye in, as is necessary to quench the evaporation, and to supply what hath been already lost by it. This boiling must be continued 'till the matter is grown so thin, that being but slightly touched with the finger, it will dissolve and separate into flocks and fibres.

Their lye is made of any sort of ashes in the following manner: two pieces of wood are laid a-crofs over a tub, and covered with straw, on which they lay wet ashes, and then pour boiling hot water upon it, which as it runs through the straw into the tub underneath, is imbued with the same saline particles of the ashes, and makes what they call lye.

After the boiling of the bark, as above described, follows the washing thereof. This is a business of no small consequence in paper-making, and must be managed with great judgment and attention.

If it hath not been washed long enough, the paper will be strong indeed, and of a good body, but coarse, and of little value. If, on the contrary, the washing hath been continued too long, it will afford, it is true, a whiter paper, but too greasy, blotting, and unfit for writing. This part of paper-making, therefore, must be managed with great care and judgment, so as to keep to a middle degree, and to avoid either extreme. They wash it in a river, putting the bark into a sort of pan or sieve, which will let the water run through, and stirring it continually with the hands and arms, 'till it comes to be diluted into a delicate soft wool or down. For the finer sort of paper the washing must be repeated, but the bark put in a piece of linen instead of a sieve, because the longer the washing is continued, the more the bark is divided, and would come at last to be so thin and minute, that it would run out through the holes of the sieve, and be lost. At the same time also, what hard knots or flocks, and other heterogeneous useless particles remain, must be carefully picked out, and put up with a coarser sort of bark for worse paper.

The bark having been sufficiently and thoroughly washed, is put upon a thick smooth wooden table, in order to its being beat with sticks of the hard Kusnoki wood, which is commonly done by two or three people, until it is wrought fine enough, and becomes withal so thin, as to resemble a pulp of soaked paper, which being put into water, will dissolve and disperse like meal.

The bark being thus prepared, is put into a narrow tub, with the fat slimy infusion of rice, and the infusion of the oreni-root, which is likewise very slimy and mucous. These three things being put together, must be stirred with a thin clean reed, 'till they are thoroughly mixed in an uniform liquid substance of a good consistence.

This succeeds better in a narrow tub. But afterwards the mixture is put into a larger one, called in their language fine, which is not unlike those made use of in our paper-mills. Out of this tub the leaves are taken off, one by one, and proper patterns, made of bulrushes instead of brass wire, and called miis. Nothing remains now but a proper management in drying them. In order to this, they are laid up in heaps upon a table, covered with a double mat, and a small piece of reed (which they call kamacura, that is, a cushion) is put between every leaf, which standing out a little way, serves in time to lift them up conveniently, and take them off singly. Every heap is covered with a small plank or board, of the same shape and size with the paper, on which are laid weights, first indeed small ones, lest the leaves, being then as yet very wet and tender, should be pressed together into one lump, but by degrees more and heavier, to press and squeeze out all the water. The next day the weights are taken off, the leaves lifted up one by one, by the help of the small stick abovementioned, and with the palm of the hand clapped to long rough planks made for this purpose, which they will easily stick to, because of the little humidity still remaining. After this manner they are exposed to the sun, and when full dry, taken off, laid up in heaps, pared round, and so kept for use or sale.

I took notice, says Kœmpfer, that the infusion of rice, with a gentle friction, is necessary for this operation; because of its white colour, and a certain clammy fatness, which at once gives the paper a good consistence, and pleasing whiteness. The simple infusion of rice-flour would not do it, because it wants that clamminess, which is a very necessary quality. The infusion, I speak of, is made in an unglazed

earthen pot, wherein the rice grains are soaked in water, and the pot afterwards shaken, gently at first, but stronger by degrees. At last fresh cold water is poured upon it, and the whole percolated through a piece of linen. The remainder must undergo the same operation again, fresh water being put to it, and this is repeated so long as there is any clamminess remaining in the rice. The Japanese rice is by much the best for this purpose, as being the whitest and fattest sort growing in Asia.

The infusion of the oreni-root is made after the following manner. The root pounded or cut small, is put into fresh water, which, in one night's time, turns mucilaginous, and becomes fit for use, after it hath been strained through a piece of linen. The different seasons of the year require a different quantity of this infusion to be mixed with the rest. They say, the whole art depends almost entirely upon this. In the summer, when the heat of the air dissolves the jelly, and makes it more fluid, a greater quantity is required, and less in proportion in the winter, and in cold weather.

Too much of this infusion mixed with the other ingredients, will make the paper thinner in proportion, too little, on the contrary, will make it thick and parched. Therefore a middle quantity is required to make a good paper, and of an equal thickness. However, upon taking out a few leaves, they can easily see, whether they have put too much or too little of it. Instead of the oreni-root, which sometimes, chiefly at the beginning of the summer, grows very scarce, the paper-makers make use of a creeping shrub called sane kadsura, the leaves whereof yield a mucilage in great plenty, though not altogether so good for this purpose, as the mucilage of the abovementioned oreni-root.

The juncus sativus is cultivated in Japan with great care and industry. It grows tall, thin, and strong. The Japanese make sails of it, and very fine mats to cover their floors.

It hath been observed, that the leaves when they are fresh taken off from their patterns, are laid up in heaps, on a table covered with two mats. These two mats must be of a different fabric; one, which lies lowermost, is coarser, but the other, which lies uppermost, thinner, made of slender bulrushes, which must not be twisted too close one to another, to let the water run through with ease, and very thin; and not to leave any impressions upon the paper.

A coarser sort of paper, proper to wrap up goods, and for several other uses, is made of the bark of the kadsura shrub, after the method above described. The Japanese paper is very tight and strong, and will bear being twisted into ropes. A thick strong sort of paper is sold at Syriga (one of the greatest towns in Japan, and the capital of the province of that name) which is very neatly painted, and folded up, so much in a piece as there is wanting for a suit. It looks so like silken or woollen stuffs, that it might be easily mistook for them.

A thin neat sort of paper, which hath a yellowish cast, is made in China and Tonquin, of cotton and bamboe. The Siamites make their paper of the bark of the pliockkloika. They have two sorts of it, one black, and another white, both very coarse, rude and simple, as they themselves are. They fold it up into books, much after the same manner as fans are folded, and white on both sides, not indeed with a pencil, in imitation of those more polite nations who live farthest east, but with a rude stylus made of clay. Thus far the description of the way of making paper in the east, which the late learned Bœmannus was so desirous to know, and so earnestly intreated travellers to enquire into, mistaken however in that thought, and seemed to be persuaded, that it was of cotton; whereas it evidently appears, by this account, that all the nations beyond the Ganges make it of barks of trees and shrubs. The other Asiatic nations on this side the Ganges (the black inhabitants of the more southern parts excepted) make their paper of old rags, of cotton stuff, and their method differs in nothing from ours in Europe, but that it is not altogether so intricate, and that the instruments they make use of are grosser.

To compleat the account proposed to be given of the paper-manufactures in Japan, we have here added the description of the plants and trees whereof it is made.

THE PAPER TREE.

From a strong, branched, lignous root, rises a straight, thick, equal trunk, very much branched out, covered with a fat, firm, clammy, chestnut-coloured bark, rough without, and smooth on the inside, where it adheres to the wood, which is loose and brittle, with a large moist pith. The branches and twigs are very fat, covered with a small down or wool, green, inclining to a dark purple. They are channelled 'till the pith grows, and quickly decay when broke off. The twigs are irregularly beset with leaves, at two or three inches distance, or more, standing on slender, hairy, two inch long foot-stalks, of a dark purple cast, and the bigness of a straw. The leaves differ much in shape and size, being sometimes divided into three, sometimes into five serrated, narrow, unequally deep, and unequally divided lobes, resembling in substance, shape and size, the leaves of the urtica mortua, being flat and

and thin, a little rough, dark green on one side, and of a lighter green, inclining to white, on the other.

They dry quickly, when broke off, as do all other parts of this tree. Strong single fat nerves (leaving a remarkable hollow on the opposite side) run from the bottom of the leaves towards the top, and send out many transverse ribs, almost parallel to one another, which send out others still smaller, turned in towards the edges. In June and July come forth the fruits, upon the extremities of the twigs, standing on short footstalks, round, somewhat larger than a pea, surrounded with long purple hairs, composed of acini, first of a greenish colour, which turns to a black purple when ripe: the fruit is full of a sweetish juice. I did not observe, whether or no there are any juli that come before the fruit. The tree is cultivated for the use and improvement of the paper manufactures, on hills and mountains. The young, or two foot long twigs, are cut off and planted in the ground at moderate distances, about the tenth month, which soon take root, and the upper part, which stood out of the ground, quickly drying, they send forth many fine young shoots, which are fittest to be cut for use towards the latter end of the year, when they are come to be about a fathom and a half long, and about the thickness of an arm of a middle sized man. There is also a wild sort of kaadfi, or paper tree, growing on desert and uncultivated mountains; but it is scarce, and otherwise not very proper for paper-making, and therefore never used.

1. Those who would excel in the art of paper-making, should be acquainted not only with the common methods of making the different kinds of paper, but enquire into every sort of material wherewith the same may be made in the cheapest and the best manner.

2. This business should be considered with a chemical view, in order to shorten and improve the process.

3. The methods of making the whitest paper, and giving any kind of colour thereto, should be well known.

4. Attempts should be made to render paper more durable, and less apt to be gnawed or torn by domestic animals.

5. The state of this art should be well known, as practised in China, France, Holland, and England, in order to advance the manufacture for every use.

6. The ways of embossing and printing of paper for hangings, should be advanced, the consumption therein being great.

7. The application of this art to the Asbestos [see ASBESTOS], so as to make incombustible paper, should be studied.

8. A method of discharging the printers ink out of paper should be enquired into.

9. The best way of making filtering paper, for chemical uses, should be invented.

☞ In the journals of the house of commons of the kingdom of Ireland, that I have by me, from the 11th year of king James I. to the 25th year of the reign of his present majesty king George II. inclusive; printed at Dublin, upon a good paper, and with a good letter, I was well pleased to find at the conclusion of them, the following, viz.

These JOURNALS are printed on an Irish paper, manufactured by Mr Thomas Slator, at Temple-Onge; and the types cast in Dublin, by Messieurs Daniel Malone and Robert Perry, letter-founders.

REMARKS ON PAPER, in another Light.

Before the Revolution, there was hardly any other paper made in England than brown; but the war ensuing, and duties being laid, from time to time, on foreign paper, it gave such encouragement to our paper makers, that most of them began to make white paper, fit for writing and printing; and they have brought it, by degrees, to so great perfection, both for quantity and goodness, that they make now above seven eighths of what is consumed in Great-Britain; and several of them make it as white and as well bearing as any that comes from abroad.

The necessity of having writing and printing paper is well known to every body; but it will not perhaps be amiss to make it appear, how profitable and beneficial that manufacture is to Great-Britain.

Rags are the main ingredient paper is made of in these kingdoms, which were formerly cast away and thrown to the dunghill, but are now gathered with great care by poor people, who get honestly their livelihood by it, and would otherwise beg their bread: this employs abundance of hands. When these rags are gathered, they are brought to the mill, and this still employs more hands. After they are in the mill, they let them lie a while, till they are sufficiently mellow or rotten, and then put them into the tubs under the hammers, to be beaten into a kind of jelly or white substance, looking like milk; and being thence carried into the vat, the chief workman, upon a pair of molds for that purpose, takes up the sheets or water-leaves (of which he makes 4 or 5000 a day, more or less, according to the size of the paper).

These water-leaves, after being well pressed between two felts, and the water well drained out, are carried up into the

drying rooms, and there hung upon a multitude of ropes to dry: and from thence being brought down again into the sizing room, a liquor is there prepared for sizing or gumming every sheet; the paper which is for printing being but moderately sized, but that which is for writing more nicely gummed, that it may bear ink.

This paper, after sizing, is a second time pressed, and carried up into the garrets, and hung upon the ropes to dry once more; and then, with a great deal of care and hard labour, pressed a third, a fourth, and a fifth time, to make it smooth and of a good grain; and then put up into quires and reams. Now, considering how many hands every individual sheet of paper passes through, before it is brought to perfection, it is plainly perceived that a great number of people is employed in each mill, then those who gather the rags up and down in all the counties of England, and bring them to the mills: those who make the felts, which takes up a good quantity of wool, being very thick, and for every sheet of paper, a piece of felt of the same size, or a little larger; the rope-makers, the mold-makers, the carpenters, wheelwrights, timber-merchants, smiths, (for this work consumes a great deal of iron, by the hammers beating perpetually upon the iron plates) and several other trades, who depend upon the building and keeping the mills in repair; those who sell allum, copperas, cuttings and parings of gloves, parchment and leather; all which are used in sizing or gumming of paper: these things considered, it cannot be denied, but a vast many people get their livelihood, or receive a benefit, by this useful and ingenious manufacture.

There is still one farther use we would make of this information, and this is, to compute by it, the value of paper which was heretofore annually imported from the French nation.

Upon the interruption of our French commerce, in the late queen's wars, we increased our importation of paper from other countries, and the manufacture of this commodity in Great-Britain. Indeed the manufacture of white paper commenced in this kingdom, not long before that era. At this time there were about one hundred and twenty fairs within 60 miles of London for white paper; which, at 8 reams per day, must produce near 300,000 reams per annum: and if those of Yorkshire and Scotland, together with the increase of our importations from Italy and Holland, were then allowed to produce above 100,000 reams more for the consumption of this kingdom, (as they certainly did, if the whole paper-manufacture of Britain was then, as computed, but two thirds of our consumption) the whole quantity made in this kingdom, or imported from other countries instead of French paper, amounted to 400,000 reams per annum; then such therefore must have been our annual importation from France, and the value of this, at 5 s. per ream must have amounted to 100,000 l. per annum.

The paper-manufacture hath, for many years, been established in most countries; though France, Holland, and Genoa, are the places where it has best succeeded. The quality certainly depends upon the materials whereof it is made; and where it is done from linen rags, it depends much on the quality of the linen worn in the country where it is made: where that is fine or coarse, or brown, the rags, and consequently the paper made thereof, must be so too. Though the English manufacture of paper is not yet arrived to the perfection of some other nations; yet it is daily improving, and we doubt not but our artists will equal those of any other nation, when they are wise enough to make small trials upon all sorts of materials which bid fair to make a more beautiful manufacture than what they have. The vegetable kingdom, we have seen, admits of an infinite variety of subjects, whereon to make experiments, at a very trifling expence: and whether many cheap fossils, of a beautiful white, may not, by proper managements, be brought to a due cohesive consistence for the purpose, may deserve notice.

As this is a manufacture of such general use, both for writing, printing, engraving, packing, &c. it cannot be made too good nor too cheap for the great variety of purposes wherein we find it subservient to other arts.

Extract of two edicts of the French king, concerning the paper manufacture.

Arrêt of the king's council, prohibiting the exportation of old linen, old cloaths, rags, &c. 1697.

The king having been informed, That the exporting old linen, old cloaths, rags, &c. is a very considerable prejudice to the manufactures of paper and cards of this kingdom, had ordained, by a former arrêt of the 28th of January, 1697, That the said goods should pay 12 livres per hundred weight upon their exportation, instead of 6 livres per hundred weight, payable by the tariff of 1664; but his said majesty having since that been informed, That notwithstanding double duty, divers particular merchants continue to export such great quantities out of the kingdom, as would cause a scarcity thereof to the manufacturers in the provinces aforesaid; for remedy whereof, his majesty ordains, and hereby makes an express prohibition to all persons, of what rank or condition soever, to export out of the kingdom, without his permission, any

any old linen, old cloaths, or rags, from the day of the publication hereof, upon pain of confiscation, and three thousand livres fine, of which the third part to the informer.

Done at Versailles, Signed, Du JARDIN.
May 29, 1697.

Arrêt of the king's council, taking off the duties of exportation upon all cloth of gold and silver, and silks, and upon paper, paste-board, and cards; and moderating the duties upon stuffs of wool, and thread linen-cloth, and other merchandizes, December 24, 1701.

Likewise his majesty ordains, That for paper of all sorts, white, brown, blue, and all other colours; books, printed, bound, and not bound; cards, paste-boards, and cards to play with, going out of this kingdom into foreign parts, there shall not be paid any duties at all.

Done at Versailles, Signed, PHILIPPEAUX.
Dec. 24, 1701.

By these two abstracts of the French king's arrêts, it may be perceived, how careful he is of his manufactures in general, and of that of paper in particular.

There are seven provinces in France where the manufacture of paper is settled, viz. Champagne, Normandy, Brittany, Angoumois, Perigord, Limoufin, and Auvergne; the three last provinces are full of large forests of chefnut-trees, and abound so much in that kind of fruit, that the common people have no other food all the year round, and no other drink but water; so that they can afford their work very cheap, and do it for next to nothing, except some of the upper workmen, who earn a small salary by the week. This is so true, that considerable parcels of paper were imported, some years since, from thence, although the duties paid here exceed one hundred per cent. on the first cost; notwithstanding which, the French merchants were long able to under-sell us greatly.

Now if chefnuts, and such-like spontaneous productions of the earth, for which we are chiefly beholden to nature, very little to the labour of man, are the greatest part of the subsistence of the people employed in the paper-manufacture of France, there can be little doubt of their living on less wages than our English labouring people: no one will assert, that a belly-full of chefnuts, which grow without the labour of man, shall cost as much as a belly-full of bread, which pays so much to the ploughman, the seedsmen, the reaper, the thresher, the miller, the baker, and innumerable other labourers, who have bestowed some work upon every loaf that was ever eaten. Our people therefore are subsisted at a great charge, and the French manufacturers in this article, for almost nothing, in comparison to what ours are.

Ought not every requisite measure, therefore, to be taken by this kingdom, so to reduce the price of the common necessities of life, that our manufacturers may be able to afford their labour so cheap, that our competitors may not in time run away with the whole trade? But how can this be ever effectuated, while the kingdom is incumbered with taxes necessary to pay interest-money for so enormous a national debt wherewith we are now loaded?

PAPER CREDIT. Under the articles BANKS and BANKING, CASH, CIRCULATION, CURRENCY, [PAPER CURRENCY], MONEY, the reader will find our sentiments in relation to these points; which having an affinity with what we shall say, upon the present occasion, may be necessary to be consulted.

PAPER-CREDIT signifies, in the general, whatever property is circulated in a state, or transferred from one person to another, by the means of any written paper-obligation, instead of hard money, or merchandizes, or lands; such as exchequer bills, bank notes, bills of exchange, promissory notes, bonds, mortgages; and some include herein all transfers made by stocks, &c. The term considered in this acceptation, including the conveyance of property of any kind whatever, from person to person, and from nation to nation, by the means of paper-authority only, comprehends a wonderful circulation of property over the whole trafficable world; without which, the concerns of commerce could not possibly be carried on with that extent and facility they are at present.

In order to render what we shall observe of use chiefly to our own country, we shall restrain our consideration to the circulation of property of this sort within ourselves.

Erasmus Phillipps, Esq. computes in the year 1725, * the whole money-transactions of this nation, at 126,199,328 l. which he does in the following manner, viz.

* See The State of the Nation, in respect to her commerce, Debts, and Money, p. 42, & seq.

It is a stupendious thought, says this gentleman, to consider the money-transaction of this kingdom; perhaps it may not be unacceptable to give some account of it. I believe I shall be allowed to compute the rents of this kingdom at

1.
20,000,000

And upon the supposition that the lands of England are not taxed at half the value, this account may be near the truth.

The duties on the customs produce per ann. about	1,600,000
Which, upon an average of 30 l. per cent. ad valorem, shews our imports to be for about	5,300,000
Besides our re-export, which may be about	1,500,000
The rest of the duties and funds	2,199,328
If it is allowed me, that there are eight millions of people in this nation, I believe I shall not exceed, if I reckon the manufactures consumed at home to amount to per annum	16,000,000
I shall not mention the interest arising from mortgaged land, that being computed before in the rental; but I must take notice of the mortgages themselves, because they are often transferred, and may be reckoned money in circulation; and these have been computed at a fifteenth part of the land, which will come to about	26,000,000 princ. money.
The next thing I shall mention is the great national debt;	
And this is about	53,000,000
The malt produces more, about	600,000

So that the whole money-transaction of this nation seems to be for about 126,199,328

And all this is carried on with no more than 15,000,000 of specie.

And perhaps I may be particular in saying, the reason of this prodigious circulation is the debt itself; for the large and regular interest that has been paid on these state-actions, have exhausted all private hoards, and made these securities become like a new species of money, current in every body's hands.

REMARKS before the last War.

Since Mr Phillips wrote, not only the national debts, but the public revenue has greatly augmented, and consequently our paper-circulation has increased in the like proportion; and yet it is to be feared that the quantity of specie, at present, is much below 15,000,000 at which, when that gentleman wrote, he computed it. And to what degree the price of labour and our native commodities are affected by the weight of our national debts and taxes, or in consequence of this paper-credit so greatly exceeding the quantity of real specie, may be seen under the article DUTIES, LABOUR, to which we refer the reader. To corroborate what is there urged, see likewise the article BONDING, in regard to the DUTIES OF CUSTOMS.

And how detrimental to the kingdom, in other respects, this great increase of paper-credit is likely one day to prove, may be inferred from what follows, according to the ingenious Mr Hume*.

* See Hume's political Discourses.

First, It is certain, says that gentleman, that our national debts cause a mighty confluence of people and riches to the capital, by the great sums which are levied in the counties to pay the interest of those debts; and perhaps too, by the advantages in trade, which they give the merchants in the capital above the rest of the kingdom.

Secondly, Public stocks, being a species of paper credit, have all the disadvantages attending that species of money. They banish gold and silver, from the most considerable commerce of the state, reduce them to common circulation, and by that means render all provisions and labour dearer, than otherwise they would be.

Thirdly, The taxes which are levied to pay the interest of these debts, are a check upon industry, heighten the price of labour, and are an oppression on the poorer sort.

Fourthly, As foreigners possess a share of our national funds, they render the public, in a manner tributary to them, and may, in time, occasion the transport of our people and our industry.

Fifthly, The greatest part of public stock being always in the hands of idle people, who live on their revenue, our funds give great encouragement to an useless and inactive life.

But though the injury that arises to commerce and industry from our public funds, will appear, upon ballancing the whole, very considerable, it is trivial in comparison of the prejudice that results to the state, considered as a body politic; which must support itself in the society of nations, and have various transactions with other states, in wars and negotiations. The ill there is pure and unmixed, without any favourable circumstance to atone for it: and it is an ill too, of a nature the highest and most important.

We have, indeed, been told, that the public is no weaker upon account of its debts, since they are mostly due amongst ourselves, and bring as much property to one, as they take from another. It is like transferring money from the right-hand

hand to the left, which leaves the person neither richer nor poorer than before. Such loose reasonings and specious comparisons will always pass, where we judge not upon principles. We ask, is it possible, in the nature of things, to overburthen a nation with taxes, even where the sovereign resides among them? The very doubt seems extravagant; since it is requisite in every commonwealth, that there be a certain proportion observed betwixt the laborious and the idle part of it. But if all our present taxes be mortgaged, must we not invent new ones? And may not this matter be carried to a length, that is ruinous and destructive?

In every nation, there are always some methods of levying money more easy than others, suitable to the way of living of the people, and the commodities they make use of. In Britain, the excises upon malt and beer afford a very large revenue, because the operations of malting and brewing are tedious and impossible to be concealed; and at the same time, these commodities are not so absolutely necessary to life, as that their price would very much affect the poorer sort.

Duties upon consumptions are more equal and easy, than those upon possessions. What a loss is it to the public, that the former are all exhausted, and that we must have recourse to the most grievous method of levying taxes!

Were all the proprietors of land only stewards to the public, must not necessity force them to practice all the arts of oppression used by stewards, where the absence and negligence of the proprietor render them secure against enquiry?

It will scarce be asserted, that no bounds ought ever to be set to national debts, and that the public would be no weaker, were 12 or 15 s. in the pound land-tax mortgaged, along with all the present customs and excises. There is something therefore in the case, besides the mere transferring of property from one hand to another. In 500 years, the posterity of those now in the coaches, and of those upon the boxes, will probably have changed places, without affecting the public by these revolutions.

It must be confessed, that there is a strange supineness, from long customs, crept into all ranks of men, with regard to public debts, not unlike what divines so vehemently complain of with regard to their religious doctrines. We all own, that the most sanguine imagination cannot hope, either that this or any future ministry, will be possessed of such rigid and steady frugality, as to make any considerable progress in the payment of our debts; or that the situation of foreign affairs will, for any long time, allow them leisure and tranquillity, sufficient for such an undertaking*. What then is to become of us? The events here will depend little upon the contingencies of battles, negotiations, intrigues, and factions. There seems to be a natural progress of things, which may guide our reasoning.

* In times of peace and security, when alone it is possible to pay debts, the monied interest are averse to receive partial payments, which they know not how to dispose of to advantage, and the landed interest are averse to continue the taxes requisite for that purpose. Why therefore should a minister persevere in a measure so disagreeable to all parties? For the sake, I suppose, of a posterity, which he will never see, or of a few reasonable reflecting people, whose united interest, perhaps, will not be able to secure him the smallest borough in England. It is not likely we shall ever find any minister so bad a politician. With regard to these narrow destructive maxims of politics, all ministers are expert enough.

As it would have required but a moderate share of prudence, when we first began this practice of mortgaging, to have foretold, from the nature of men and of ministers, that things would necessarily be carried to the length we see; so now that they have at last so happily reached it, it may not be difficult to guess at the consequence. It must, indeed, be one of these two events; either the nation must destroy public credit, or public credit will destroy the nation. It is impossible they can both subsist, after the manner they have been hitherto managed, in this as well as in some other states. See the article **MONIED INTEREST**.

There was, indeed, a scheme for the payment of our debts, which was proposed by an excellent citizen, Mr Hutchinson, above 30 years ago, and which was much approved of by some men of sense, but never likely to take effect: he asserted, that there was a fallacy in imagining, that the public owed this debt; for that really every individual owed a proportional share of it, and paid, in his taxes, a proportional share of the interest, besides the expenses of levying these taxes. Had we not better, says he, make a proportional distribution of the debt among us, and each of us contribute a sum suitable to his property, and by that means, discharge at once all our funds and public mortgages? He seems not to have considered, that the laborious poor pay a considerable part of the taxes by their annual consumptions, though they could not advance at once, a proportional part of the sum required. Not to mention, that property in money, and stock in trade, might easily be concealed or disguised; and that visible property in lands and houses would really at last answer for the whole; an inequality and oppression, which would never be submitted

to. But though this project is never likely to take place, it is not altogether improbable, that when the nation becomes heartily sick of the debts, and cruelly oppressed by them, some daring projector may arise, with visionary schemes for their discharge. And, as public credit will begin, by that time, to be a little frail, the least touch will destroy it, as happened in France, and in this manner it will die of the doctor*. See the article **MISSISSIPPI**.

* Some neighbouring states practise an easy expedient, by which they lighten their public debts. The French have a custom (as the Romans formerly had) of augmenting their money; and this the nation has been so much familiarized to, that it hurts not public credit, though it be really cutting off at once, by an edict, so much of their debts. The Dutch diminish the interest without the consent of their creditors; or, which is the same thing, they arbitrarily tax the funds as well as other property. Could we practise either of these methods, we need never be oppressed by the national debt; and it is not impossible but one of these, or some other method, may, at all adventures, be tried on the augmentation of our incumbrances and difficulties. But people in this country are so good reasoners upon whatever regards their interests, that such a practice will deceive no body; and public credit will probably tumble at once, by so dangerous a trial.

But it is more probable, that the breach of national faith will be the necessary effect of wars, defeats, misfortunes, and public calamities, or even, perhaps, of victories and conquests. It must be confessed, when we see princes and states fighting and quarrelling amidst their funds, debts, and public mortgages, it always brings to my mind, a match of cudgel-playing fought in a China shop. How can it be expected, that sovereigns will spare a species of property, which is pernicious to themselves and to the public, when they have so little compassion on lives and properties, which are useful to both?

Let the time come (and surely it will come if we continue to increase our national debts) when the new funds, created for the exigencies of the year, are not subscribed to, and raise not the money projected. Suppose either that the cash of the nation is exhausted, or that our faith, which hath been hitherto so ample, begins to fail us. Suppose that, in this distress, the nation is threatened with an invasion, a rebellion is suspected or broke out at home; a squadron cannot be equipped for want of pay, victuals, or repairs, or even a foreign subsidy cannot be advanced. What must a prince or minister do in such an emergency? The right of self-preservation is unalienable in every individual, much more in every community. And the folly of our statesmen must then be greater than the folly of those who at first contracted debts, or, what is more, than that of those who trusted, or continue to trust this security, if these statesmen have the means of safety in their hands and do not employ it.

The funds created and mortgaged, will, by that time, bring in a large yearly revenue, sufficient for the defence and security of the nation: money is perhaps lying in the Exchequer, ready for the discharge of the quarterly interest: necessity calls, fear urges, reason exhorts, compassion alone exclaims: the money will immediately be seized for the current service, under the most solemn protestations, perhaps, of being immediately replaced. But no more is requisite. The whole fabric, already tottering, falls to the ground, and buries thousands in its ruin. And this may be called the natural death of public credit. For to this period it tends as naturally, as an animal body to its dissolution and destruction*.

* So great dupes are the generality of mankind, that notwithstanding such a violent shock to public credit, as a voluntary bankruptcy in England would occasion, it would not probably be long, ere credit should again revive in as flourishing a condition as before. The present king of France, during the late war, borrowed money at lower interest than ever his great-grandfather did; and as low as the British parliament, comparing the natural rate of interest in both kingdoms. And though men are commonly more governed by what they have seen than what they foresee, with whatever certainty; yet promises, protestations, fair appearances, with the allurements of present interest, have such powerful influence as few are able to resist. Mankind are, in all ages, caught by the same baits: the same tricks, played over and over again trepan them.

The heights of popularity and patriotism, are still the beaten road to power and tyranny, flattery to treachery, standing armies to arbitrary government, and the glory of God to the temporal interest of the clergy. The fear of an everlasting destruction of credit, allowing it to be an evil, is a needless bugbear. A prudent man, in reality, would rather lend to the public immediately after they had taken a sponge to their debts than at present, as much as an opulent knave, even though you could not force him to pay, is a preferable debtor to an honest bankrupt. For the former, in order to carry on business, may find it his interest to discharge his debts, where they are not exorbitant. The latter has it not in his power. The reasoning of Tacitus, Hist. lib. 3. as it is eternally true, is very applicable to our present case. Sed vulgus ad magnitudinem beneficiorum

aderat: flutiffimus quisque pecuniis mercabatur: apud sapientes casta habebantur, quæ neque dari neque accipi, salva republica poterant. The public is a debtor, whom no man can oblige to pay. The only check which the creditors have on it, is the interest of preserving credit; an interest which may easily be overbalanced, by a very great debt, and by a difficult and extraordinary emergence, even supposing that credit irrecoverable. Not to mention, that a present necessity often forces states into measures, which are, strictly speaking, against their interest.

These two events, supposed above, are calamitous, but not the most calamitous.

Thousands are thereby sacrificed to the safety of millions. But we are not without danger, that the contrary event may take place, and that millions may be sacrificed for ever, to the temporary safety of thousands*. Our popular government, perhaps, will render it difficult or dangerous for a minister to venture on so desperate an expedient, as that of a voluntary bankruptcy. And though the house of lords be altogether composed of the proprietors of lands, and the house of commons chiefly, and consequently neither of them can be supposed to have great property in the funds; yet the connections of the members may be so great with the proprietors, as to render them more tenacious of public faith, than prudence, policy, or even justice, strictly speaking, requires.

* I have heard it has been computed, that the whole creditors of the public, natives and foreigners, amount only to 17,000. These make a figure at present on their income, but in case of a public bankruptcy, would, in an instant, become the lowest, as well as the most wretched of the people. The dignity and authority of the landed gentry and nobility, are much better rooted, and would render the contention very unequal, if ever we come to that extremity. One would incline to assign to this event a very near period, such as half a century, had not our fathers prophecies of this kind been already found fallacious, by the duration of our public credit, so much beyond all reasonable expectation. When the astrologers in France were every year foretelling the death of Henry IV. these fellows, says he, must be right at last. We shall, therefore, be more cautious, than to assign any precise date, and shall content ourselves with pointing out the event in general.

And, perhaps too, our foreign enemies, or rather enemy, (for we have but one to dread) may be so politic as to discover, that our safety lies in despair, and may not, therefore, show the danger, open and barefaced, 'till it be inevitable. The balance of power in Europe, our grandfathers, our fathers, and we, have all justly esteemed too unequal to be preserved without our attention and assistance. But our children, weary with the struggle, and fettered with incumbrances, may sit down secure, and see their neighbours so oppressed and conquered; 'till at last, they themselves and their creditors lie both at the mercy of the conqueror. And this may properly enough be denominated, the violent death of our public credit. See the articles MONEY, CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS.

These seem to be the events, which are not very remote, and which reason foresees as clearly almost as she can do any thing, that lies in the womb of time.

And though the ancients maintained, that, in order to reach the gift of prophecy, a certain divine fury or madness was requisite, one may safely affirm, that, in order to deliver such prophecies as these, no more is necessary, than merely to be in one's senses, free from the influence of popular madness and delusion.

REMARKS ON PAPER CREDIT, since the last War, and the Peace of 1764.

Our public debts having near trebled since Mr Phipps wrote, the judicious reader will duly apply the same, in conjunction with what that gentleman has observed: certain it is, that the weight of our additional taxes has enhanced the prices of every thing taxed, in proportion thereto. See our Articles DUTIES and LABOUR, and BONDING AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

This increase of paper circulation, of which is before spoken, in a degree proportionate to the augmentation of our national debts and taxes, 'tis to be feared may occasion such an exorbitant rise in the price of our English manufactures in general, that foreigners will not be in a condition to purchase them of us: and if we cannot sell our wares, how shall we be able to purchase those of foreigners? if once this proves to be our case, what will become of the REVENUE OF CUSTOMS? When we are unable to send our English manufactures, what will also become of the REVENUE OF EXCISE, when the greatest part of our manufacturing people is rendered incapable to purchase EXCISEABLE COMMODITIES? Instead of these revenues producing any degree of a SINKING FUND for the gradual discharge of our PRINCIPAL MONEY PUBLIC DEBT, how shall we raise the interest? Flatter ourselves as much as we will, there must assuredly be a NE PLUS ULTRA

to our FUNDING AND BORROWING, or at length we must become a bankrupt nation, if we continue to increase our paper circulation more and more. Will not this at last enable our competitors in trade to beat us out of all the markets in the world; and then what chance shall we have to beat them with the sword, when the national wealth is exhausted, and we have not but paper to circulate, which we can never realize on the greatest exigency?

P A R, in affairs of commerce, signifies any two things equal in value: and, in the exchange of money with foreign countries, the person to whom the bill is payable is supposed to receive the same value as was paid the drawer by the remitter; but this is not always the case with relation to the intrinsic value of the coins of different countries, which is owing to the fluctuation in the prices of exchange amongst the several European countries and the great trading cities. In order to judge of the intrinsic par of foreign coins for mercantile uses, see the articles COIN and EXCHANGE; for the use that may be made of this knowledge, also in a national light, see the article BALLANCE OF TRADE.

Besides the intrinsic par of exchange, there is another par, which, with no less propriety, we may distinguish by the extrinsic par of exchange. For the nature, uses, and private advantages that may be made by this skill in the exchanges, see the articles ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGE, and also the capital trading cities of Europe, under the articles of their respective provinces, &c.

P A R A G U A Y, a province of South America, is bounded by the country of the Amazons on the north, by Brazil on the east, by Patagonia on the south, and by Peru and Chili on the west, lying between 12 and 37 degrees of south latitude, and between 50 and 75 degrees of west longitude, being 1500 miles in length from north to south, and almost as much in breadth. Some make it's extent far more considerable, but they are thought to exaggerate the matter. Some geographers make it to comprehend the several provinces or districts following, 1. Paraguay, properly so called. 2. Chaco, or Tucuman. 3. Rio de la Plata. 4. Guayra, Parana, Urvaig, and, according to others, the captainric del Rey in Brazil.

If so, the extent is so considerable, that it must be supposed to have a variety of climates, soils, products, and inhabitants, the particulars whereof shall be given under the heads of each province above-mentioned.—To avoid needless repetitions, we shall first give a general account of the whole.

The land is, generally speaking, very rich and fruitful, producing plenty of wheat, and other European grain, some vines, but chiefly abounds in sugar-canes; and has whole woods of peaches, almonds, figs, &c. It is at present so well stocked with all sorts of cattle, small and large, that they run in a manner wild. The Portuguese in the Brazils kill them in great numbers only for their hides and suet, and let the flesh rot on the ground. [See PORTUGUEZE AMERICA]. The natives eat their flesh, but half raw. In some parts they are obliged to destroy their calves, to prevent their growing too numerous, through the richness of their pasture. They have also great plenty and variety of other beasts, wild and tame horses and mules in such prodigious quantities, that the former run wild every where, and of the latter they supply Peru with 50,000 per ann. according to some, besides what they send elsewhere, and keep for their own use.

Mines of iron and copper have been discovered in many parts of Paraguay, besides some rich ones of gold and silver, and of the finest amethysts.

P A R A Q U A Y P R O P E R, so called, is the most northern of all, and nearest to Brazil, being bounded by that on the north, on the east by the province of Guayra, on the south by those of Rio de la Plata and Parana, and on the west by that of Chaco or Tucuman. But on the west and north, geographers do not seem to be acquainted with it's boundaries.

Paraguay Proper is divided into two equal parts almost, eastern and western, by the river of it's name, which runs through the midst of it from north to south.

This river hath it's spring-head in the southern part of the country of the Amazons, a little above the territories of the Xarayes, which lie from latitude 16 to 20 south, and longitude west, spread themselves from 50 to 55, and beyond, and are said to abound with mines of gold and silver. In it's course from north to south, it forms a large lake, called the Laguna de los Xarayes, from which it enters into the province of Paraguay Proper, where it waters the towns of Porto de la Candelaria, and the city of Assumption, the capital, whence it runs into the territory of Rio de la Plata. The chief rivers it receives are, Rio de los Payaguas, Botetes, Jacarii, Taraiti, Guacuri, Pilai, Tabati, Peribibus, Salado, Araguaig, Cunagba, Tibiquari, Japfur, Piscomay, Parana, and Vermejo; and after having received these two last into it's stream, it then assumes the name of Rio de la Plata, near the town of Corrientes. (De Lisle.) According to the observations made by the jesuits, anno 1702 and 1703, which are the latest and the best that ever were made; this river is found to spring from the mountains of Potosi in Peru, of which we shall speak in it's proper place. Father Techo reckons it one of the greatest rivers in America, and gives it a course

a course of 300 leagues before it falls into the Parana; and adds, that it is navigable about 200 when joined to it.

Father Jepp, who was there ann. 1691, says, that silver was then cheaper than iron, and that a common two penny knife would fetch a crown, a two shilling hat, ten or twelve crowns, a gun of ten or twelve shillings thirty crowns, and so of the rest. As to the healthiness of the climate, though we can say nothing to contradict it, yet most of our accounts tell us, the natives are far from enjoying the benefit of it; which is chiefly owing to their gorging themselves with such prodigious quantities of half raw flesh, as fills them with worms and other crudities, that turn at length into dangerous diseases.

The missionaries in those parts where the natives are converted, take care to sow great tracks of land with wheat, that they may have plenty of white bread, not only for themselves, but to impart to the natives, who living mostly on their Indian corn, are so fond of this, that they will give two or three horses for a white loaf. They likewise take care to cultivate their vines, that they may not want wine to their music and good cheer; and we are told, that they have so many of them, as yield 500 casks of it in a year, if not spoiled by the pismires, which are here very numerous, or by the wasps and birds, or blighted by the north-winds; for in this case it will make that liquor so dear, that a cask will cost twenty or thirty crowns, and after all cannot be preserved from turning sour, without a great mixture of lime. They have plenty of roots and herbs, and the only thing they want is oil to their sallads, instead of which they are forced to use honey and sugar. Silver is so plenty among them, that old shoes and hats are much more valued, and an ell of linnen hath fetched four or five crowns: whereas iron is so scarce that a horseshoe and a bitt for a bridle has been exchanged for several horses.

The chief towns in Paraguay Proper and Chagua, lie in the following order:

1. Assumption. 2. Villa Rica. 3. Maracaju. 4. Arcacia.
5. Ypane. 6. Sant Ignatio. 7. Nost. Sign. de la Fé.
8. Xeres, Conception Antiqua.

ASSUMPTION TOWN, the metropolis of Paraguay, stands on the eastern banks of the river of it's name, a little above the place where the Picolmago falls into it, having Villa Rica on the north, and that of La Plata on the south, and about seven or eight leagues from each. It was built by the Spaniards anno 1538 (De Laet, Rogers) and is famed for its healthy and advantageous situation, as well as for the number of it's inhabitants. The territory about it is exceeding rich and fruitful, produces plenty and variety of fruits, not only of those which are natural to the country, but of those which have been transplanted thither from Spain; and the air is there so temperate, that the trees are cloathed with a constant delightful verdure.

There are likewise very noble and rich pastures, in it's neighbourhood around, on which are bred vast herds of cattle; so that there is such an extraordinary plenty of all provisions in the town, as makes the natives, blacks and others, ambitious of living in it.

VILLA RICA, or the RICH TOWN, stands near the same eastern banks of the Paraguay, about eight leagues (some say much farther) north of that of Assumption, on a small river of no great note.

Those called PUERTO DE LA CANDELARIA, and NOPA SENHORA DE FE, are the two most distant towns northward from the metropolis abovementioned, and have nothing worth notice except their fruitful territories.

II. The province of TUCUMAN, is bounded on the north partly by that called De los Chicas, in Peru, and partly by that of Chaco; and on the south partly by that of Cayo, and partly by the territory of the Pampas; on the east by Paraguay Proper, and Rio de la Plata; and on the west by the imperial bishopric of St Jago in Chili, and by the south end of the Chica's; extending itself from Rio Vermejo, which parts it from Chaco on the north, to that called Rio Quarto, which divides it from Cayo on the south, almost 10 degrees, that is, from the 24th to the 34th of south latitude; and from east to west, where broadest, that is, from the river Salado to the ridge De la Cordillera, which parts it from Chili, almost 7 degrees, that is, from 62 to 69 $\frac{1}{2}$ of west longitude: so that it lies for the most part in a very temperate and healthy climate; and though it hath no mines discovered of either gold or silver; yet it's territory is both rich and well cultivated, especially towards the government of Chili; but it hath some desert cantons towards the Magellanic side. The climate is moderately hot, being all within the temperate zone, and their summer begins about the 10th of our September, and ends about the 9th of March.

The soil is of a sandy nature, and almost without stones, which makes it very inconvenient for building; but the land is very well watered not only with some large rivers, but also with plenty of small ones, brooks, and variety of springs and lakes; all which are commonly bordered with gardens, orchards, vines, and groves, which yield a noble prospect, and delightful shade and verdure. The country between those rivers produces plenty of cotton, wax, honey, pastel,

which they use for dyeing, besides variety of fruits, roots, Indian wheat, &c. They likewise breed up vast quantities of cattle, large and small, with great plenty of deer, and other game, fowl wild and tame, especially partridges in great quantities, and a great variety of other fowl.

This country, which is commonly called Traplanda, and, by the inhabitants of the government of Chili, the province De la Sal, is computed to extend about 300 leagues in length, from north to south, and about 150 in breadth, where broadest, but varies as it runs more towards the south, where it ends somewhat in the figure of a cone. It is inhabited chiefly by three savage nations, viz. the Tucumans, from whom the whole district is called, the Jurios, and Diaguites, the last of which employ themselves in feeding of cattle, especially sheep, the wool of which is manufactured and dyed by them, and a great commerce is made of it through this whole province. These sheep are very large and strong, though their wool is fine, and the inhabitants use them likewise for carriage, as we do here our horses. The inhabitants are cloathed with their woollen and cotton manufactures, which they dye of several colours with their pastel, and other ingredients.

The chief places in Tucuman are, 1. San Jago del Estero. 2. San Salvador, al Xuxui. 3. San Miguel. 4. Salta, or Lerma. 5. Londres. 6. Cordova. 7. Esteco, al N. S. de Talavera. 8. Rioja. 9. Putupas. 10. Soto la Punta. 11. Capo de San Luis. 12. De los Santos.

SAN JAGO DEL ESTERO, the metropolis of this province, and an episcopal see, is situated on the banks of the Dolce, or Sweet River, which is here pretty large and navigable, being able to carry large vessels, and affords plenty and variety of fish: the town, however, is not very considerable, it consisting but of about 300 houses, some say 500 families, and is without walls, ditch, or any other defence. The inhabitants are mostly of the Masticho and Mulatto kind, of dark yellow complexions, lazy, and sickly, occasioned by the heat of the climate, and more given to pleasure than to any traffic or work. The country about it is rich, and produces plenty of wheat, rice, barley, fruits of all sorts, particularly figs and raisins.

SAN SALVADOR, or XUXUI, stands near the confines of Peru, at the foot of a high mountain, which forms part of the famed ridge called the Andes. It has a considerable river running by it, a little above the place where it falls into the Leon, from which both descend into the Rio Vermejo, or Red River. This town has about 300 houses, and is the most northerly of all this province, and within a degree of the southern tropic, about 83 leagues from Potosi.

SAN MIGUEL, al ST MICHAEL, the first town the Spaniards founded in this country, is pleasantly situated on a fertile plain, and near the banks of a small river, which falls into the Rio Dolce, near San Jago, from which it is distant about 18 leagues to the north-west. Mr Baudrand, who calls it S. Michael de Estero, says it is the capital of Tucuman, and a bishop's see, under the metropolitan of La Plata. The plain on which it stands is fertile, producing plenty of wheat, rye, barley, grass, &c. so that it breeds great quantities of cattle, produces cotton, flax, some wine, and great abundance of wood for all uses. The air is reckoned one of the sweetest and healthiest in all Paraguay, and the country well inhabited, and stored with all conveniencies of life.

SALTA stands on a small river, which soon after falls into a neighbouring lake, and is at some small distance south-east from San Salvador, and east from the burning mountain of Capia-po, and about 15 leagues from Estero, and hath a bridge over the river. It is inhabited mostly by Spaniards, to whom both it and the territory about it belongs, and hath about 400 houses, and five or six churches or monasteries. It hath neither walls, ditches, nor any other defence but it's inhabitants, who are about 500 men that bear arms, besides their slaves, negroes, as well as Mulattoes, which may amount to about thrice that number. Salta is a place of great resort, on account of the quantity of corn, meal, wine, cattle, salt meat, and such other commodities, which are sent hence into Peru, and other parts. Martiniere.

LONDRES, situate near a great marsh of it's name, caused by a small river which comes down from the Andes, and falls into it, was built by Tarita, governor of this province, ann. 1555, in order to keep the natives in awe, and called it Londres, in compliment to our queen Mary, then married to king Philip of Spain. (Wood Rogers.) It stands near the frontiers of Chili, in latitude 29. 12 south.

CORDOVA, situate about 100 leagues south of San Jago del Estero, and 160 north-west-ward of Buenos-Ayres, is a considerable town in this province, but situate on a marshy, though a rich and fertile ground, and bigger than Buenos-Ayres. It stands in latitude 31. 30. south longitude, 63. 30. west, in a temperate climate and healthy, with equal winter and summer, and all the territory about it full of cattle, both great and small, and abounding with excellent pasture. It all produces plenty of corn, fruits, and other necessaries, and hath several plentiful salt-pits; so that the town drives a considerable trade in those commodities with Peru, it being situate on the road to Buenos Ayres. The inhabitants are Spaniards, and amount to about 300, who are mostly employed in tilling the

the ground, and manufacturing of cotton cloth, which they send to Potosi.

- II. RIO DE LA PLATA, so called from the famed river of that name, along whose banks it extends itself on each side about 200 leagues in length, from north to south, and about 100 leagues, where broadest, from east to west; is bounded on the north by the provinces of Chaco, Paraguay Proper, and Parana; on the east by that of Urvaig; on the south by the territory of Pampas; and on the west by Tucuman.

We must, however, remind our readers, that the limits of these provinces are far from certain or agreed on, especially those between this province and Tucuman, there being no boundaries fixed between them, because the whole country is plain and champaign, without mountains or hills, or even so much as a tree, house, or hut, by which they might be terminated.

However, the climate is here moderate and healthy, and pretty far in the temperate zone, the country extending itself from the 32d, to almost the 37th degree of south latitude. Their winter is in May, June, and July, when the nights are indeed very cold, but the days moderately warm; the frost is neither violent or lasting, and the snows very inconsiderable.

The river De La Plata receives several considerable ones in its course, so that it swells at some times to such a degree, as to cover a great deal of land on each side, which, upon the abating of the water, is found to be much the fertile by them. At such seasons, the natives betake themselves to their canoes, wherein they put their families and goods till the inundation assuages, and then return to their old habitations. (Rogers.) The stream of it into the sea is so strong and rapid, that it sweetens it for a great way. The water of it is said to be very clear, and excellent for the lungs and wind, insomuch that the people who live near it are said to have very clear and melodious voices, and to be generally inclined to music. (Covaglio.) Our author adds, that it petrifies the branches of the trees that fall into it, and that vessels are naturally formed of it's sand, which are of various figures, look as if they were polished by art, and keep the water cool. It likewise abounds with such plenty and variety of fish, that the people catch it in great quantities, without any other instrument than their hands, and all along the banks are seen the most beautiful birds of all kinds. (Sepp.) The plains about it are likewise affirmed to be so large and even, without any obstruction to the sight, that the sun seems to rise and set in them. It's course, from the confluence of those two rivers that forms it, to it's mouth, is above 200 leagues: it runs mostly to the south and south-east, and is navigable all the way by the largest vessels, and full of delightful islands. Among the large rivers that fall into it on both sides, those called the Rio Vermejo, or Crimson River, the Rio Dolce, or Salado, the Careaval, and some others, flow into it on the west, and the celebrated one of Urvaica, and some others on the east side: so that, upon the whole, this famed river may, in all probability, be the greatest in the world for breadth and continued depth, though perhaps that of the Amazons, Quebec, and some others, may equal or even excel it in length of course.

As the country on both sides this river is very plain and extensive, so their way of travelling is easy and pleasant, viz. by high carts covered with hoops and ox-hides, and with conveniences for travellers to sleep in; which is so much the more convenient, because they travel mostly in the night, to avoid the excessive heat.

The product of this province is much the same with that of the others, that is, all sorts of European and American fruits, both of wheat, cotton, sugar, honey, &c. but the most wonderful increase in this country is that of the cattle of all kinds. For the plains here extending themselves near, if not more, than 200 leagues, and abounding with such an excellent pasture, the beasts brought hither from Spain have multiplied to such a degree, that they are all in common, no man claiming any property to them, but every man taking what he hath occasion for.

The number of black cattle especially, is here so prodigious, that they kill many thousands of them merely for their hides, every time the ships go for Spain, and leave their carcases to be devoured by beasts and birds of prey, which are here likewise very numerous: sometimes, when they cannot vend their hides, they will kill them for their tongues, and those that care not to be at the trouble of fetching them from the plains, may buy them for a shilling or two.

Those likewise that make use of their milks, either for food or drink, may go into those pastures, and milk as many cows as they will, or carry off as many of their calves, and kill them for their food, they being all at the mercy of the first comer, and no man claiming more property to them than another. Horses are no less numerous and cheap, and in common like the other cattle; so that they may be had likewise for fetching, in what quantities a man pleases; and of those that are already broke, one may buy some of the best, and of the true Spanish breed, fit for service, for a piece of eight per head; and it is confidently affirmed, if our author's accounts are not greatly exaggerated, that the Spaniards can

bring 30,000 horse into the field, all of Indians, well mounted, disciplined, and accoutred. (Sepp.)

Game fowl is here in no less plenty; and the partridges, which are as large and tame as our hens, are in such vast quantity, that one may kill them with a stick. Their wheat makes the finest and whitest of bread; and, in a word, they seem to want for nothing here, especially the natives, but salt and fuel: the former the Spaniards have brought to them from other parts, and the latter they supply with planting of vast groves of almond, peach, and other trees, which require no other trouble than putting the kernels into the ground, and by the next year, we are told, they begin to bear fruit. The return for European goods is so prodigious, that it almost exceeds belief, insomuch that an ordinary two-penny knife, or pair of scissors, will fetch a crown, a gun of 10 or 12 shillings value, 20 or 30 crowns, and so of the rest, down to old hats, shoes, needles, &c.

The chief towns in this province are, 1. Buenos-Ayres. 2. Santa Fé. 3. Corrientes. 4. Santa Luisa; and 5. Chanas, besides several others of less note.

The town of BUENOS-AYRES is so called from it's pleasant and healthy situation, it being seated under the 34th degree of south latitude, upon a rising ground, at about 50 leagues from the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, and upon the south side of it, that river being here 7 leagues in breadth, and navigable by any ship 60 leagues above the town, and no farther, by reason of a great cataract.

The territory about it, which is of a vast extent, is very fertile in fruits of all sorts, and pasture grounds covered with vast quantities of cattle; and would be still more so; if duly cultivated, especially in corn, but the people there are lazy, and content themselves with what nature produces, without labour. It bore formerly very excellent vineyards, from which they made some sorts of exquisite wines, besides the vast quantity of grapes they dried for use: but they were destroyed by the pismires, which chanced one year to appear in such swarms, that they eat them all up, root and branch, so that they were forced to pluck them up.

SANTA FE' is the next Spanish establishment in this province to that of Buenos Ayres, to which it is distant about 70 leagues to the north-west, in latitude 31. 40. south: it stands on the mouth of a river, which falls into that of La Plata, and on the south-west side of this latter. All the territory not only about it, but quite down to Buenos-Ayres, on each side of that river, is very rich in all productions, and vastly delightful. The town is built of brick, and encompassed with the small river abovementioned, and was built by the Spaniards for the defence of both that of de la Plata, and of the rich gold and silver mines which are in the neighbourhood of this settlement, though the Spaniards do not care to open them, lest that should encourage some of their enemies to come and take them from them. (Coreal, Rogers.)

CORRIENTES, or CORIENTES, is the next in course up the river, and stands about 80 leagues higher, being built by the Spaniards, on the confluence of the Parana and Paraguay, but is small and inconsiderable, and no ways answering the dignity of it's situation between those two famed rivers.

- IV. The province of PARANA, so called from the great river of it's name beforementioned, and which is it's boundary on the south and east, where it divides it from those of Rio de la Plata, last described, and Urvaica; on the north it joins to that of Guayra, and the unknown islands of Brazil, and Paraguay Proper on the west. It's extent, as far as it is well known, that is, conquered and converted, is computed about 200 miles, all that is beyond being unknown to us as yet, and the breadth about 115 leagues, more or less according as it's limits wind more in or out.

The Parana hath it's spring-head in some of the unknown tracks of southern Brazil, and holds it's course from north-east to south-west, in which it crosses, and waters the provinces of Guayra and Urvaica, as well as this of Parana. It's longest course, exclusive of it's windings, is computed at 300 leagues, before it joins it's waves with those of the Paraguay, near the town of Corientes, lately mentioned, on the most northern verge of Rio de la Plata, last described.

The towns belonging to this district did lie on the Parana, in the following order, San Ignacio, on the west side of it, about 30 leagues above the place where it joins with the Paraguay; Itapoa, or the Incarnation, about 16 leagues higher on the same side; Corpus, about 20 leagues higher on the east side; Mondais, on a river of it's name, near its fall into the Parana on the west; Santa Maria d'Ignazu, on it's confluence with it on the east, and now lying in ruins; Acarai, overagainst it, on the west side; Jovara, on the river of it's name, where it falls into this on the west; and Paquiri, on another of it's name, overagainst it. We know very little of these towns, except their situation, and much less of those of Loretto and San Ignacio, on the Cucupa and Yuti, which lie more remote from the river, and of that of St Anne, on the lake of Apupan.

- V. The Province of GUAYRA, is bounded on the north by the unknown tracks of Brazil, and the nations of the Tupiques; on the east by the captainric of St Vincent, in the same

same country, and partly by the Northern Ocean; on the south it hath the province of Urvaica, and part of that of Parana; and on the west the remainder of the same province, from which it is divided by the river of that name: its extent, from east to west, is computed about 150 leagues, and about 140 from north to south; its boundaries towards Brazil are uncertain.

The tropic of Capricorn cuts it almost into two equal parts, so that its climate must of course be very hot, though moist, by reason of the vast dews and rains, so that it is very fruitful in provisions, as well as diseases; insomuch that some represented it as a fitter habitation for wild beasts than human creatures: and yet we are told that it was pretty well peopled at the first coming of the Spaniards.

It is watered by several rivers, which fall into the Parapana, which last descends from the southern mountains of Brazil, and is of a considerable bigness before it falls into the Parana. The chief of those that fall into the Parana, are the Tibaxiva, Pirapus, and Itangua, besides some others of less note. Both sides of those rivers are covered with several sorts of trees, the most valuable of which among the natives are the cedars, which are very numerous, and so tall and large, that they make vessels of one single trunk, which will carry 20 oars. Others produce excellent fruits, and some of them yield a good kind of balsam.

VI. The province of URVICA, commonly called URVAIG, and URVAIGA, is bounded by that of Guayra, last described, on the north; on the south by the mouth of Rio de la Plata; on the east by the captainric Del Rey; and on the west by the province of Parana, from which it is parted by the river of that name. It extends itself from 25 to 33. 20. of south latitude; the length of it, from north-east to south-west, being computed somewhat above 210 leagues, and the breadth of it, from east to west, about 130 where broadest, but much narrower in other parts. It is divided into two parts, viz. east and west, by the river of its name, which rises out of a small spring in the country called Ibiturua, near the mountains of South Brazil, and runs quite through the midst of it, from north to south: some Geographers gave it the name of the river of the Missions, but it is very small and inconsiderable during a course of several score of miles, 'till it comes to receive divers others into its stream, which swell it so far, that it becomes at length almost equal to that of Paraguay, and falls into the Rio de la Plata, almost overagainst the town of Buenos-Ayres.

In its course, upon leaving the mountains of Brazil, and through the territory of Ibiturua, its stream runs mostly south-west, after which it winds more to the south, and runs almost parallel with the Parana. Its stream runs near 200 leagues from its source, with a prodigious noise, occasioned by huge rocks and stones, which lie in it at certain distances, and make it incapable of carrying ships of burthen; but, in winter, the vast floods and streams that pour down into it, make it look more like a sea, and overflow a great deal of land on each side. After a course of about 200 leagues, it begins to enlarge its stream, and flows more gently and smoothly about as many more, the whole course of it being computed about 400 leagues.

Captain Woods Rogers, who calls this large river Uruguay, adds, on the authority of Father Sepp, that it hath a prodigious cataract, which he looks upon as an obstacle appointed by divine providence, to preserve the poor natives from the avarice and cruelty of the Spaniards, who are thereby prevented from proceeding farther up, and settling themselves in those rich cantons. He observes, that these Indians are very harmless and ignorant, and not only fall into the vices of the Spaniards, but likewise under their heavy yoke; for it seems they make no difference between converts and idolaters, but use all with the like tyranny, and as if they were no better than brutes. The plains formerly were full of ostriches, lions, several sorts of goats and deer, but at present all that vast extent of land on both sides of the river Urvaig is turned into pasture grounds, covered with an infinite number of cattle, especially cows and horses, which run wild upon them.

CAPITANIA DEL REY, or the ROYAL CAPTAINRIC. This district is by some joined with the captainrics of Brazil, and by others made a province of Paraguay: it extends itself along the eastern coast of the latter, quite from the captainric of St Vincent, from which it is divided by the river of St Francis quite to the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, that is, from 26 to 35 degrees of latitude, extending itself, from north-east to south-west, the length of 10 degrees, and about four in breadth, where broadest. It has no places of any note, nor indeed any river worth describing, except that of the Holy Ghost, and that called Rio de Martin de Souza; the former of these is also called Rio Grande, and its mouth Barra de Rio Grande de Alagoa, and Puerto de San Pedro; it is formed by the two rivers of Tibiquari and Igat, both which have their course near the mountains of Ibiturua, but by a different course, the one directly southward, of above 100 leagues, and the other south-westward, of above 160; during which, each of them receives several others; they unite their streams at last, in the territory called Terra dos Patos, and thence taking a turn south-westward, and parallel to the

sea-coast, form a slip of land of about five leagues in breadth, and 50 in length, and empty themselves into the Northern Ocean, at the barra abovementioned, and is from the confluence of those two rivers to this place that it hath the name of Santo Spiritu, or St Esprit; the other, called Rio de Martin de Souza, springs from the mountains in the country of Tape, and runs directly southward into the same ocean, about 60 leagues from the bar, or mouth, of the Holy Ghost.

The country is poorly inhabited, either by natives or Portuguese, the latter having formerly made such havock of the former, that those that were left were glad to retire farther into Paraguay, to avoid their cruelty.

R E M A R K S.

The Jesuits of Paraguay having been so daring as to oppose, with an armed force, a new regulation of limits agreed upon in America, between the crowns of Spain and Portugal, as appears by late accounts from Madrid, it may seem surprizing how those reverend fathers should resist the orders of such good friends to them as the Spanish and Portuguese governments are; and much more so, that they should be able to resist them effectually: therefore, we doubt not but the following account, extracted from the best authors, will be acceptable to such as are strangers to the empire which the Jesuits have founded in that country.

The settlement made by the Jesuits upon the river Paraguay in America, is extremely remarkable. These good fathers, every where indefatigable in improving their apostolical talents, and turning the souls of men into ecclesiastical traffic and power, began there by drawing together, into one fixed habitation, about 50 families of wandering Indians, whom they had persuaded to take their word implicitly for whatever they told them: for this is what they call conversion, and is, indeed, the true art of making Papists, who have no other ground for their faith but the assertions of their priests.

From this beginning, and such encouragement, these holy fathers ranging the country, and dazzling the stupid savages with their shining beads, charming them with their pious tales and grimaces, and their tuneful devotions, made such a harvest of converts, as to form a commonwealth, or rather an empire of souls: for every convert is a subject most blindly obedient.

The holy fathers, not 50 in number, are thus sovereigns of a noble country, larger than some kingdoms, and better peopled. It is divided into several large districts, each of them governed by a single Jesuit, who is, as it were, a provincial prince, but more powerful and revered, and better obeyed, than any European, or even any eastern monarch.

His word is not only a law, but even an oracle; his nod infers supreme command: he is absolute lord of life, and death, and property, may inflict capital punishment for the lightest offence, and is more dreaded, and therefore more obeyed, than the Deity. His ministers and officers, civil and military, are doomed by him to the meanest punishments, and whipped, not only like common slaves, but like common felons: nor is this all their punishment, at least all their abasement, which, to a man of spirit, is the worst punishment: while they are yet marked and mangled with the lash, they run (colonels and captains run) and kneel before their holy sovereign, condemn themselves for having incurred his pious displeasure, and, humbly kissing his reverend sleeve, thank him for the fatherly honour he has done them, in correcting them like dogs.

So much tameness and vassalage is part, and an important article, of their conversion: they pretend to be even pleased with their state of bondage, and care not what they do and suffer here, for the mighty treasures of joy and liberty which are insured to them hereafter by the good father, who gives them all that he has to give in the next world, and, by way of barter and commands, takes all that they have in the present.

The poor Indians cultivate the ground, dig and plow, and reap and sow; they make stuffs, and other manufactures; they rear fowls, they breed cattle, they carry burthens, and slavishly labour above-ground, as well as under it, where, in sweat and darkness, and in peril of perishing, they drudge in the mines: yet, with all this industry, they earn nothing for themselves: all their earnings, all the profit and advantages appertain not to them, but solely to their Popish priests, their spiritual sovereigns, who rewards them to the full with what cost them nothing, blessings and masses, and distant prospects, whicy they leave to God, while they tyrannize over them like devils upon earth. Their grain and manufactures are all carried into their priests warehouses, their cattle and fowls into their yards, their gold and silver into their treasury: they dare not wear a rag of their own spinning, nor taste a grain of their own sowing, nor a bit of meat of their own feeding, nor touch the metal of their own producing; no not so much as an egg from the hens they rear: they themselves are fed and subsisted from day to day, by a limited allowance, furnished them by the appointment, and at the mercy of their great lord, a worthless and imperious priest.

Yet, under all these discouragements, they are diligent and laborious to the last degree, and vie with one another for the high price and distinction bestowed by the father upon such

as excel most in their work and industry, even the bewitching honour of kissing his sleeve. The second commandment in their table of duties is, To fear the Jesuit, and to obey him; as the two next are much akin to it, and of the like tendency, even to study humility, and to condemn all worldly goods, in order to enrich the priest. The precept of fearing God seems to be prefixed for form, and in policy only, since it is impossible there should be any knowledge of God where the exercise of reason is not known nor permitted; nor can God be said to be regarded by those who use the images of God like beasts.

All these stores and warehouses, so much grain, so much gold and silver, so many commodities, from so fine, so large and so plentiful a country, abounding in mines, in rivers, and meadows full of horses and sheep and black cattle, of timber and fruit-trees, of flax and indico, hemp and cotton, sugar, drugs, and medicinal herbs, as we have seen, must enable these good fathers, who have renounced all wealth, and the world itself, to carry on an infinite and most lucrative trade, in which, though they have vowed poverty, they are extremely active, and consequently must make that Jesuitical government a most powerful one.

It hath advantages which no other government ever had, an absolute independency upon its people and their purses, the whole wealth of the country in their present possession, the people absolutely submissive, and resigned to their good pleasure, and all its calls; no factions; not a malecontent; an army of 60,000 men, all tame and tractable, devoted to blind obedience, commanded in chief by Jesuits, and obstinately averse to be commanded by any other generals; a vast revenue of many millions; no trouble in taxing, nor any time lost in collecting taxes, the people being moulded by their priests to throw all their property at their feet. Behold, Britons, and tremble at the shocking effects of Popery!

Such a government, whilst it proceeds upon the same principle, is unchangeable. No wonder these jesuits are extremely jealous and tender, not only in keeping the poor natives slaves to ignorance and bigotry, in order to keep them vassals to themselves; but in concealing so much empire and wealth from all the world, especially from Spain, from whence they were sent, at the expence of that crown, to convert the Indians, and make them subject to the Spanish monarchy.

The good fathers are so far from meaning any such thing, that they not only carefully avoid teaching them the Spanish tongue, but press it upon them, as a point of conscience, not to converse with the Spaniards. If any Spaniard happens to come amongst them (a thing which the jesuits are so far from encouraging, that they care not to see it) he is indeed civilly used, but carefully confined within the walls of their holy citadel, the presbytery: or if, by earnest intreaty, he obtains leave to walk through the town, he is closely guarded by a jesuit at his side, and sees not a native in the streets; for they are ordered to shut themselves up, and fasten their doors, upon any such occasion.

Besides, these vigilant fathers keep five or six thousand men, employed in several detachments (apostolic troops) to watch and scour the frontiers, in order to cut off all intercourse with the neighbouring countries, not yet subjected to these pious fathers of the church. Towards one of their frontiers particularly, lest the rich mines in it might invite a settlement from abroad, they have destroyed all the houses, in order to discourage any such settlement. For these self-denying friars, who are sworn to poverty, have an ardent zeal to secure all these wealthy mines to themselves for religious purposes, as they impiously pretend.

These poor-rich humble sovereign missionaries, as they are masters of such immense wealth, all consecrated to their own use, that is, to the use of religion, make a proper display of it. The churches are spacious, magnificent in their structure, and set off with all pomp and decorations, grand porticoes and colonnades, rich altars, adorned with basso relievo, pictures in frames of massy gold, and saints of solid silver, the foot and sides covered with cloth of gold, and the pedestals with plates of gold; the tabernacle made of gold; the pyx, or box for the sacrament, of gold, set round with emeralds and other costly jewels; the vessels and candlesticks made of gold; the whole, when illuminated, making a shew almost beyond belief. A proper bait for the eyes of the poor deluded natives, who, by such fine sights, and the pious mountebankry attending them, are retained in due awe and wonder.

The princely persons of the poor jesuits are suitably lodged in a spacious palace, containing grand apartments, furnished with many pictures and images, with proper lodgings for their train of officers and domestics; the quadrangles and gardens all in proportion; the whole court making a square of some miles. And the numerous opulent warehouses, belonging to these holy disinterested men, are their property, arising out of the industry and labour of the poor people.

Such is the situation, such the state and inimitable authority of every jesuit in Paraguay. There are but forty odd of these monks in all that great track of country, and in it they have above a million of souls, not only to obey them, but to worship them; nor do these, their fightless and abject slaves;

know any other god: for where the true God is ever so little known, no man will worship friars, who always paint him as like themselves, as they themselves are, in reality, unlike him.

REMARKS in another Light, before the last War, on our article PARAGUAY.

The climate and soil of Buenos-Ayres has been thought so inviting, that some have suggested extraordinary advantages would arise to Great-Britain by a settlement to be made here in time of war; and, indeed, as we have been so many years very roughly treated by the Spaniards, in our West-India commerce, we should cast about in times of peace for every place, the taking of which in time of war, might prove beneficial to us, and injurious to the Spaniards, in order to bring them to reason by force, if we cannot do so by other measures.

Would it not be the highest act of benevolence, would it not be acting according to the pure and uncorrupt spirit of Christianity, to relieve such a country from the oppression and tyranny of Popish priestcraft?

There runs a noble highway from Buenos-Ayres to the province of Los Charcos, in which and Potosi, the most considerable mines are found; and as this province is the southernmost of the whole kingdom of Peru, so consequently all South America may be supplied with goods or merchandize of all kinds they want this way, infinitely cheaper than any other.

The reason why the Spaniards do not make use of it for this purpose, shall be given hereafter. But we think it not amiss, to give our reader here an account how all South America has been supplied with European commodities.

In the first place, the goods that come from England are shipped at Cadiz aboard the galleons, which carry them to Porto Bello, where they are unloaded, and sent over-land on mules backs to Panama, and there re-shipped on board ships in the South-Sea, and carried to Callao, and from thence dispersed over-land again to the several provinces of that vast continent; from whence, it is plain, the charges of exportation exceed the prime cost of the goods four or five times.

Whereas, by Buenos-Ayres the charges would be inconsiderable, in comparison with the usual way: for the journey from hence to Peru, is made with much ease in sixty days; and for horses or mules for the carriages, no country in the world is so plentifully stocked with them as this, for all Peru is supplied with these animals from hence: and throughout the whole journey they pass not in the least danger of any hostile Indians, for the province of Tucuman, through which they pass, hath enjoyed a perfect tranquillity from the first planting of it by the Spaniards, excepting about Salta, which borders upon the valley of Calchaqui, from whence they used to be plagued by the Chileans; and for which reason the requas or caravan of mules, which use this trade, never come near it.

They meet likewise upon this road at every forty or fifty leagues with good towns, as Cordova, St Jago de Lestro, St Michael de Tucuman, Efecco, Xuxio, Omagoaca, Soe-choa, and others, and single plantations dispersed up and down the country, which make the way both pleasant and commodious.

The intelligent reader will consider the vast differences betwixt the way now in use, and that to supply this part of Spanish America by the way of Buenos-Ayres, by casting his eyes upon the maps to help him to form a true judgment upon the matter: he ought, at the same time, to remember the inconveniences, as well as charge in entering all the goods at Cadiz in Spanish names, to prevent confiscation, before they can be put on board the galleons, and the many hazards they are exposed to in embarking and re-embarking so often; besides the land-carriage very often of several hundred leagues before they come to their intended market, which makes them so excessive dear, that what costs one hundred pounds at Cadiz, must of necessity be sold for near a thousand, to recompence the merchant, in any tolerable degree, for the charges and risque he hath run, as well as the long time he must be out of his money.

Whereas, by this way of Buenos-Ayres, when the goods can be carried thither in English bottoms, if what cost one hundred pounds in England, be only sold at market for 250 l. the merchant will gain considerably more by it, and be able to have three returns in the time he made one the other way. And it is certain, upon so considerable a fall of those goods they stand in so much need of, the consumption of them will be much augmented; for our stuffs and cloths are so unreasonably dear, for the reasons already mentioned, that the poorer sort, and even the trading people, make use of Quito cloth for their wearing apparel, and only the better sort use English cloths and stuffs. But if we could ever be able to settle our trade effectually this way, we should utterly ruin the manufacture at Quito in a few years.

Though much more might be said on this head, yet for the sake of brevity we omit it: we have said enough to those who are competent judges. This is an article of great importance to England. If we were once settled here securely (which

(which if we can ever be persuaded to undertake heartily, I do not in the least doubt may be easily effected in time of war, and our possessions securely maintained) we should be able, in despite both of French and Spaniards, to enjoy a more lucrative trade than ever with South America. For, Buenos-Ayres, and the country depending on it, afford several commodities that Peru cannot be without: in the first place, all the mules and horses that are used in the presidency of Los Charcos, where they have so great occasion for them in carrying first the ore, and afterwards the silver, from place to place, come from hence; and they would have much to do to subsist at Potosi, was it not for the great quantity of dried cow's flesh that is brought from Buenos-Ayres hither, which the ordinary people subsist upon.

It is not to be imagined how dear provisions of all kinds are at the mines; and it is worth taking notice of, that all countries in the world that afford gold or silver in any plenty, are destitute of all other conveniences, and very unhealthy, Chili only excepted.

But what is yet of more importance than all the before-mentioned commodities, is the herb of Paraguay, that is only to be found in the country adjacent, and depending upon the government of Buenos-Ayres; a thing of that mighty consequence to Peru and Chili, that without it they would find it impossible to dig any silver ore out of the mines: for those poor wretches, negroes and Indians, that are employed in working in them, are almost every hour suffocated with mineral vapours, which they meet with in those vast subterranean caverns; and then nothing will recover them but a liquor, made by infusing this herb in warm water, sweetened with sugar, and drank plentifully, which restores them to their former vigour.

Sometimes, when the case is very bad, and the slaves almost dead before they can be brought into the fresh air, they use it for an emetic, which is done by making the infusion stronger, and leaving out the sugar, which clears the stomach of the offensive matter, and saves their lives, where every thing else is found ineffectual.

The inhabitants that live on the surface are likewise extremely plagued by these mineral exhalations, and their bodies dried, or rather parched up to that degree, that if it was not for this same remedy, or liquor, which they are all day sipping, there would be no living near the mines. And with all the care they can take, without doubt their lives are shortened extremely; but what is not avarice capable of doing? In a word, without this herb the mines would be of little or no use, and the province of Los Charcos very thinly inhabited. This herb is gathered in the country of Paraguay, near the city of Assumption, which is situated upon the river of Plate, about one hundred leagues above Buenos-Ayres, and there made into packs, and sent down the river to Santa Fé, a small village about eighty leagues above Buenos-Ayres, and depending upon that government; where the merchants from Chili and Peru come to buy it, and load it upon mules, and convey it to their respective cities.

This village of Santa Fé, is the only pass by which it can go to Peru; for people must not imagine that one can pick and chuse which way they will go in those countries, as they can in Europe; it is very providential they have that one good road through so large a country, so sparingly inhabited. But suppose they could do this, it would be to little purpose; for if ever we become possessed of Buenos-Ayres, we must likewise fortify Santa Fé, which at present contains not many houses, without any great fortification, and take Assumption, and settle it with a colony of our own.

This city is said to contain about 1000 families, but is no better defended than the other.

It was settled by people that had, by their laziness and ill management, out-run their fortunes in Peru; and, to this day, serves for a retreat to all such people as can live no where else in the Indies.

The country round it affords every thing necessary for life, even in too great abundance, for which reason the inhabitants are exceeding lazy, and utterly neglect commerce, spending their time in feasting and playing on the guitar.

They have very little money stirring amongst them, bartering one thing for another like the Indians. This herb serves to procure them cloathing from Buenos-Ayres, as well as all their European goods they want: in short, the country is much too good for its worthless inhabitants, and it's much more worthless priests. We desire our readers to observe, that all the places we have described, as Buenos-Ayres, Santa Fé, and Assumption, are situated upon the same river; and though the distance between them at first seems to be very considerable, yet their having a direct and easy communication by water, makes the passage more convenient than fifty miles by land would be.

It is very obvious, therefore, to every common eye, that if we can ever settle ourselves at Buenos-Ayres, the Spaniards will be under an absolute necessity to open a trade with us; nay, it is in our power to impose what terms we please upon them; but if we had no other way to obtain it, than the affording our goods as cheap again as they can furnish themselves with the other way, even that, with a little patience,

would infallibly produce it. But without trusting to that, we should have them in a manner at our mercy, by having the herb of Paraguay in our hands.

But we have still another lure for the Spaniards, as powerful and as proper to produce the desired effect, as any yet mentioned; which is, the supplying them with negroes in sufficient number, and cheaper than formerly.

This is the great inconveniency, which the Spaniards have laboured under this last age; for having in a manner utterly destroyed the natural inhabitants, they are obliged now to perform the work by negroes, of which they could never get the number they wanted; and it is certain, if they were fully supplied, they would get yearly above twice the quantity of silver they now do.

It must be confessed they used all means imaginable to obtain them. The Genoese undertook to supply them at a concerted price betwixt them, for which end they formed a company called the Asiento, who had their factors at Jamaica, Curasoa, and Brazil; and let it be considered what a prodigious tour they made before they got to the mines; first from Guinea to Jamaica, from thence to Porto Bello, and then to Panama, where they were re-shipped on board the fleet when returning to Callao; which is a voyage of four months at least, for they have the wind in their teeth every league of this voyage. After staying some little time at this last mentioned port, they were put on ship-board again, and sent to Africa, which is a voyage of a month, or thereabouts; and when landed, they can't have less than 150 miles to the mines: from whence it is obvious, that not above one negroe in three arrived at Potosi, or the adjacent mines, of those that were originally bought by their factors for that end. Whereas, the negroes that might be sent from Buenos-Ayres (as was done by the late Asiento contract, vested in the South-Sea company) would be liable to none of the inconveniences that the other poor wretches suffered, as passing through so many different unhealthy climates, and so many tedious voyages by sea, enough to wear out bodies of steel, especially considering how the miserable creatures are accommodated all the time both with lodging and diet: but this way, they would have but one short voyage by sea; for, from the coast of Guinea to Buenos-Ayres, they would sail four parts in five of the voyage before the wind; and when landed, pass through one of the most plentiful and healthiest countries in the world, even in a manner to the mine's mouth: so that one may venture to affirm, that with careful management, they would not lose one in ten. This article alone is of prodigious consequence, and capable to render our African trade infinitely more flourishing than it is at present; for a cargo, rightly sorted for Guinea, consists of fourscore different commodities at least, of which seventy are of the manufactures and produce of this country; and they return us gold, slaves, ivory, and wood for dyeing.

There is another capital article of commerce in Buenos-Ayres, which should not be omitted; which is that of hides: though this article sounds meanly, after so many great ones already mentioned; yet, when better examined, will be found of no small consequence. Monsieur Acarete du Biscay, the Spanish historian, says, when he first arrived there, he found riding in the port twenty-two Dutch ships, who had on board, one with another, 14000 hides each; and he computes the hides to be worth, in Europe, no more than twenty-five shillings a-piece (which is far from the case at present): and he further says, that if there had been fifty ships, they might have had the like loading; this therefore is no despicable article. This happened when Oliver had declared war against Spain, which had put such a stop to the trade betwixt Cadiz and America, that the inhabitants were obliged to trade with the Dutch, or want all sorts of European goods; for, by the law of Spain, this was capital, and the governor, notwithstanding the necessity, was some small time after sent, for this very thing, a prisoner to Spain, and all he had was seized for the king's use.

The court of Spain suffers but two ships to go yearly from Cadiz to this colony; and there is not a little striving, who shall be the people concerned in them; for they gain above double what the merchants do that send their goods in the galleons, and have their returns in much less time.

The Spanish ministers of state have been very often strongly solicited to bring home all the treasures of Peru and Chili this way, and utterly forsake that of Porto Bello, as apparently more exposed to all enemies, especially since they have lost Jamaica. The court was very much inclined to this advice, as being sensible of the truth of the allegations, by many sorrowful experiences in the wars they have had both with the Dutch and us; but upon scanning this proposal more deliberately, they rejected it, because they plainly perceived, if they should abandon the usual way, a great many cities, and tracks of land, that were then in a flourishing condition, would, in a short time, become desolate, because they absolutely depend upon the passage of the silver, and other merchandizes of Peru and Chili, either through or near them; by which means the other nations of Europe, that have not such choice of countries to settle, would seize upon them, and become

become nearer neighbours to the Spaniards than their true interest will allow of.

It must be confessed, that the Spaniards, upon this occasion, made a true judgment upon the matter in debate. But if any nation in war with them, should seize upon Porto Bello, and think that way to distress them by hindering them from bringing home the silver of Peru, they would find themselves extremely deceived, and laughed at by the Spaniards, who would very readily change the course of it this way; and when the war was over, re-settle it again if they saw occasion. I cannot help taking notice here, of a great many people, who, at the beginning of the late war, were full to the brim with the notion of taking Porto Bello and Panama, as if they thought to imprison the silver in the mines; for, by their politics, the Spaniards were neither to have negroes to work them, or a passage to bring it to Europe. I have lost too much time in mentioning such a weak ineffectual project, if it was not in every body's mouth almost that pretends to speak of this matter. Nor is this mentioned to depreciate the merit of the worthy, upright, and public-spirited admiral, who has always laboured to do his country all services in his power.

If my countrymen have this at heart, as one would think there should be little reason to doubt of, let them turn their thoughts upon Buenos-Ayres or Chili; but the first is by much to be preferred, for many reasons: for a voyage to Chili and back again, cannot take up less time than twenty months, and a ship must pass through as stormy and tempestuous a sea as any in the world; whereas to the river of Plate will not take up half the time, and in all probability will meet with little or no bad weather in the whole voyage. Secondly, the viceroy of Peru will not be able to disturb you at Buenos Ayres, before you probably will have received a second supply or reinforcement, but not so with Chili. Thirdly, we are more certain of procuring a trade with Peru from hence than from Chili, because of the several commodities that Buenos-Ayres, and the country adjacent afford, which Peru stands in absolute need of, and can no way dispense without them: there are yet many more reasons, and, in my opinion, very cogent ones, which, for brevity's sake, I omit.

When this acquisition is once made, you need never fear procuring inhabitants, for there will be more occasion for the bridle than the spur; the certain prospect of being enriched, the plenty and healthiness of the country, will be such incitement to people impoverished by want of trade and Popish slavery, that the country would infallibly abound with inhabitants on a sudden.

But there ought to be better order observed in settling this country, than that we have hitherto practised in our other colonies in America; for it is the greatest wonder in the world they ever arrived to any perfection: and, indeed, it was in a great measure owing to our civil wars, which made many wealthy people fly thither with their substance. This was the occasion of the hasty growth of those of Barbadoes and Virginia; indeed New England and Pennsylvania, owe their rise to the sectaries.

It hath both angered and grieved me, to observe in our contiguous colonies upon the continent, this want of foresight; for I am very sure if one was attacked by an enemy, the governor of the next, though ever so well disposed, would find it the hardest matter imaginable to get 500 men together to march to the relief of his neighbour, though they were sure their own turn would be the next. This is but a small instance to what I can give, if I thought it proper. But it is to be hoped, this will soon be effectually remedied by the authority of a British parliament; for we see at this time, what insult the colony of Virginia has lately suffered by the French. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA and NORTH CAROLINA.

In the peopling Buenos-Ayres, if ever it should become the British possession, I advise my country to follow the Turkish policy, and make the people hold their land by the same tenure as their Timariote; only it should descend to their heirs, upon keeping or observing the original contract: which is, to be ready to come completely armed to the appointed rendezvous, and serve wherever, and as long as the government requires. The number of acres that might be then allowed for every soldier, must be settled after some years observation. Another thing that must be remembered, is, never to grant too great a tract of land to one man; for this is the greatest hindrance to the peopling a colony that can be, and is the very disease that some of our plantations are sick of, as Carolina, New York, and the Jerseys; neither is Virginia or Maryland free from this distemper, which is occasioned by rascals taking up the land, because the free rent is little or nothing, and hardly ever paid, in hopes to sell it dear to new comers; though in the mean time they neither stock the ground, or any other way make it useful to the public. This very thing hath done several of our plantations incredible damages, by forcing people away who came to settle in them. See the article BRITISH AMERICA, PLANTATIONS.

Buenos-Ayres will allow of these, and yet more restrictions, if it is found necessary; for here they enter upon the Spanish

improvements without any of their labour, and will have so many other advantageous ways of growing rich, by the situation and proper commodities of the country, that it may justly be reckoned a favour to be permitted to settle here, and to have reasonable tracks of land granted them upon equitable conditions.

This country will, in a very few years, have funds of it's own, without any ways oppressing the inhabitants, more than sufficient to defray the charges of the government; as a small duty upon negroes brought hither for the Spaniards, the like upon exported hides, and a very considerable one upon the herb of Paraguay, which will render it one of the least chargeable, and yet one of the most important, colonies the crown of Great-Britain ever had.

That this place might have been as easily taken at the commencement of the last war, [in 1740] as Porto Bello, is little to be doubted; and it's consequence to Great-Britain, had we possessed it no longer than during the continuance of the war, would have been of so great importance to our trade, as to have in a great measure re-imbursed the nation the expence of the war; for by this channel, we might have thrown immense quantities of the British manufactures into Peru: and if the circumstances of affairs had obliged us to part with this place for the sake of peace, should we not have been able to have made far better terms with the Spaniards, than we did by giving up only the paltry island of Ratan? Before we had parted with Buenos-Ayres, might we not have compelled the court of Spain to have ratified and confirmed to us by treaty, our RIGHT TO THE LOGWOOD TRADE, AND TO A FREE AND UNINTERRUPTED NAVIGATION TO OUR OWN PLANTATIONS? If for the sake of the Dutch and our East-India trade, the court of Great-Britain should have judged it eligible to have given up CAPE BRETON, there would have been no reason to have parted with Buenos-Ayres, or any other important place we might have taken from Spain, 'till we had made our own terms with that court, and obtained at least those rights which engaged us in the war. See the articles WEST-INDIES and LOGWOOD.

REMARKS on our article PARAGUAY since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By the treatment, it is not only rumoured, but really credited at the time of writing this, our British logwood cutters have met with in violation of the late treaty of peace, it looks as if the Spaniards had no sincere intention to adhere to the terms and conditions of peace. Should this prove the case, and we should be obliged to come to a fresh rupture with Spain, the fulness of time seems then to be come to compel us to put an end to the Spanish power in America: And as we are now very happily situated, by virtue of the last treaty, to deprive them of their MEXICAN TREASURES, [see MEXICO] why not also of their PERUVIAN? And Buenos-Ayres, down the river La Plate, being the receptacle of a part of the treasures from PERU, why should this be unthought of longer? Why should not at length a partition of the richest parts of SPANISH AMERICA take effect, either to prefer BRITISH ALLIES, and in that manner satisfy them for contributing after a successful war, in conjunction with England, to humble Spain once for all?

Jesuitism having met with a great blow lately in Europe, their great place of refuge will certainly be amongst their fraternity in Paraguay. What they lose in Europe, therefore, they may gain in Spanish America; and while their dominion shall encrease so near to a fountain of Spanish Peruvian riches, the more difficult it will be to extirpate them. But on a future Spanish war, 'tis to be hoped, England and her Protestant allies will be induced to get a footing as near to PERU, as Great-Britain is at present to MEXICO, and then we may laugh at the Spaniards for ever after, for any injury they will ever after be able to do to this kingdom or her allies. See our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, FLORIDA, MEXICO, PERU.

PARAYBA. The captainric of Parayba in Brazil, belonging to the king of Portugal, is so called from the river of it's name, lies between that of Rio Grande and that of Tamerac or Itamarika on the south, having the ocean on the east, and the Figueares on the west. It's extent from north to south, that is, from Rio de San Juan de Stau to Capo Blanco, is about 35 leagues; that is, from 5 deg. 50 min. of latitude to 7 deg. 40 min. but as to it's depth into the inland parts we can affirm nothing.

The country is watered by two considerable rivers, viz. the Parayba abovementioned, and San Domingo al Monogoapa; the former of which lies under 6 deg. 24 min. south latitude, four leagues from Capo Blanco, and discharges itself by two mouths into the ocean, being separated by a large sand-bank. This river, though very shallow in summer, doth swell so high in winter, that it overflows all the adjacent low lands, and often carries off numbers of men and cattle. The other which lies farther north, is said to be larger towards it's source than at the mouth; between those two lies the bay called Pont

Ponto de Lucena, between which and Cabo Ledo is a bay, which affords a safe station to the largest ships.

This country did formerly belong to the French, who were dispossessed of it by the Portuguese anno 1584, who built in it a large city of its name, together with some other towns and villages, and made some considerable plantations of sugar-canes, and erected a number of sugar-mills on the rivers above-named.

The whole territory is fertile, not only in that commodity, but likewise abounds with the Brazil wood, cattle, hides, tobacco, cotton, the roots maniok, aypi, roucou, &c. and much used by the natives, who are called Pettiguaires, and are at perpetual war with their next neighbours the Figueares.

The city of PARAYBA, is situate at the mouth of the river of that name, and on the south bank of it about three leagues from the main ocean. The river is navigable up to it, and a ship may carry without any danger, 6 or 700 barrels of sugar. The country along the river is pretty low, plain, and rich, but at some distance from it, it begins to raise itself gradually into fertile hills and dales, which yield a delightful verdure and product; but the flat country being much the richer, is divided into various cantons under their several names, all which being fertilized by the overflowing of the river above-mentioned, produce plenty of barley, sugar, Indian wheat, potatoes, ananas, cocoa-nuts, melons, citrons, oranges, bananas, pakanas, and other necessaries of life. The hills are no less fertile in good pasture, and the cattle that feed upon them, are in great numbers, insomuch that their very hides amount to a considerable income.

PARCHMENT, in matters of traffic, is made of sheep or goats-skin, prepared after a peculiar manner, which renders it proper for several uses, particularly for writing on and covering of books, &c.

Parchment is begun by the skinner, and ended by the parchment-maker. It constitutes a very considerable article in commerce.

MANUFACTURE OF PARCHMENT.

The skin having been stripped of its wool, and passed the lime-pit after the manner of leather [see LEATHER], the skinner stretches it on a kind of frame, consisting of four pieces of wood, mortised into each other at the four angles, and perforated lengthways from distance to distance, which holes are furnished with wooden-pins that may be turned at pleasure, like these of a violin.

To stretch the skin on this frame, they make little holes all around it, and through every two holes draw a little skewer; to this skewer they tie a piece of small packthread, and tie that over the pins; so that, coming to turn the pins equally, the skin is strained tight every way, like that of a drum.

The skin being thus sufficiently stretched on the frame, the flesh is pared off with a sharp instrument for that purpose; this done, it is moistened with a rag, and a kind of white stone or chalk reduced to a fine dust, strewed over it; then with a large pumice stone, flat at bottom, much after the manner of a muller for grinding colours, they rub over the skin, as if about to grind the chalk, and thus scours off the remains of the flesh. Then they go over it again with the iron instrument; again moisten it as before, and again rub it with the pumice-stone, without any chalk underneath; this smoothens and softens the flesh-side very considerably. They drain it again, by passing it over the iron instrument as before. The flesh-side thus drained, they pass the iron on the wool or hair-side, then stretch it tight on the frame by means of the pins, and go over the flesh-side again with the iron: this finishes its draining; and the more the skin is drained, the whiter it ever becomes.

They now throw on more chalk, sweeping it over with a piece of lamb-skin that has the wool on; this smoothens it still further, and gives it a white down or nap. It is now left to dry, and when dried, taken off the frame, by cutting it all round.

The skin, thus far prepared by the skinner, is taken out of his hands by the parchment-maker; who first scrapes or pares it dry on the summer, with an iron instrument like that above-mentioned, only finer and sharper; with this, worked with the arm from top to bottom of the skin, he takes away about one half of its thickness. The skin thus equally pared on both sides, they pass the pumice-stone over them, to smoothen it. This last preparation is performed on a kind of form or bench covered with a sack stuffed with flocks, and leaves the parchment in a condition for writing on.

The paring the skin dry on the summer, is the most difficult preparation in the process; for which reason the skinners seldom dare meddle with it, but usually leave it to those more experienced in it: the summer whereon it is performed, is a calf-skin well stretched on a frame, serving as a support to the skin, which is fastened a-top of it with a wooden instrument that has a notch cut in it. Lastly, that the iron-knife may pass the easier between the summer and the skin to be pared, they put another skin, which they call the counter-summer. The parings thus taken off the leather, are used in making glue, size, &c. What is called vellum, is only parchment made of the skins of abortive calves, or at least of sucking calves; it is finer, whiter, and smoother, than the common

parchment, but it is prepared in the same manner as that, abating that it is not passed through the lime-pit.

PARLIAMENT, a grand assembly of the three estates of the kingdom, viz. lords spiritual, lords temporal, and commons, summoned to meet the king, to consult of matters relating to the common-weal, and to enact and repeal laws.

'Till the Conquest, the great council, consisting only of the great men of the kingdom, was called magnatum conventus, and prælatorum procerumque concilium. The Saxons called it Wittinagemote, or an assembly of wise men.

After the Conquest, about the beginning of the reign of king Edward I. some say in the time of Henry I. it was first called parlementum, from the French parler, to speak; though it still only consisted of the barons, or great men of the nation, 'till in the reign of Henry III. according to some, the commons were also called to sit in parliament, the first writs sent out to summon them, bearing date 49 Henry III. anno 1217, though Sir Walter Raleigh thinks, the commons were first called in the 17th of Henry I. and Dr Heylin fixes the time of their first admission to the reign of Henry II.

Sir Edward Coke, Dodderide, Prynne, and others, have shewn, that the commons of England had ever a share in the legislature, and a place in the great assemblies; though not on the present footing, as making a distinct house, and as composed of knights, citizens, and burghesses.

Parliaments are to be summoned, prorogued, and dissolved by the king alone; nor can a parliament begin without the king's presence, or his commissioners. At first new parliaments were called every year, by degrees their term grew longer. In the time of king Charles II. they were held a long time, with great interruptions between. Both which methods were found of so ill consequences, that in the beginning of the reign of king William, an act was passed, whereby the term of all parliaments was restrained to three sessions, or three years, hence called the triennial act. Since that, from other views, the period of parliaments is again, 3 Geo. I. lengthened to seven years.

A parliament is called by the king's writ or letter, directed to each lord, commanding them to appear; and by other writs directed to the sheriffs of each county, to summon the people to elect two knights for each county, and one or two burghesses for each borough, &c.

Anciently all the people had votes at the elections; 'till it was enacted by Henry VI. that none but freeholders residing in the county, and who had a yearly revenue of 40 s. should be admitted to vote; nor were any to be elected that were under 21 years of age.

That the members might attend in parliament with more freedom, they and all their menial servants, were privileged from all arrests, attachments, imprisonments, &c. for debts, trespasses, &c. but not from arrests for treason, felony, and breach of peace.

The place where the parliament meets, is wherever the king pleases; of late it has been in the palace of Westminster; the lords and commons each in a distinct apartment. In the lords house, the princes of the blood are placed in distinct seats; the great officers of state, dukes, &c. and bishops on benches; and the viscounts and barons on others across the house, all according to their order of creation, place, &c.

The commons sit promiscuously, only the speaker has a chair at the upper end, and the clerk and his assistants at a table near him. Before any matters be done, all the members of the house of commons take the oaths, and subscribe their opinions against transubstantiation, &c. which test, the lords too, though they do not take the oaths, are obliged to take.

The house of lords is the sovereign court of justice of the realm, and the dernier resort; the house of commons is the grand inquest, but no court of justice like the lords.

Any member may move to have a bill brought in for any thing; which, upon a question put, being agreed to by the majority, that person, with others, are ordered to prepare and bring in the same. When ready, a time is appointed for reading: after reading it by the clerk, the speaker reads the abstract thereof, and puts the question; Whether or no it shall have a second reading? After a second reading, the question is, Whether or no it shall be committed? Which is either to a committee of the whole house, if it be of importance, or to a private committee?

The committee appointed, and a chairman chosen, the chairman reads the bill, paragraph by paragraph, puts every clause to the question, fills up blanks, and makes amendments, according to the opinion of the majority. The bill thus gone through, the chairman makes his report at the side-bar of the house, reads all the additions and amendments, &c. and moves for leave to bring up the report to the table; which granted, he delivers it to the clerk, who reads the amendments, &c.

The speaker then puts the question, Whether they shall be read a second time? and, if agreed to, reads them himself. To so many as the house acquiesces in, the question is now put, Whether the bill thus amended, shall be engrossed, the speaker holds it in his hand, and asks if it shall pass? If the majority be for it, the clerk writes on it, soit baille aux seigneurs,

feigneurs. Or in the house of lords, soit baille aux communes.—If a bill be rejected, it cannot be any more proposed during that session.

Forty members constitute a house of commons, and eight a committee. A member of the commons, to speak, stands up, uncovered, and directs his speech to the speaker of the house of commons only. In the lords house they vote, beginning at the puisne or lowest baron, and so up orderly to the highest, every one answering apart, content or not content. In the house of commons they vote by yea's and nay's; and, if it be dubious which is the greater number, the house divides. If the question be about bringing any thing into the house, the ay's go out; if it be about any thing the house already has, the no's go out. In all divisions the speaker appoints four tellers, two of each opinion. In a committee of the whole house they divide by changing sides, the ay's taking the right, the no's the left of the chair, and then there are but two tellers.

If a bill pass one house, and the other demur to it, a conference is demanded in the Painted Chamber, where certain members are deputed from each house; and here the lords sitting covered, the commons standing bare, the case is debated. If they disagree, the affair is null; if they agree, this, with the other bills that have passed both houses, is brought down to the king, in the house of lords, who comes thither clothed in the royal robes, and with the crown on; before whom the clerk of the parliament reads the title of each bill, and as he reads, the clerk of the crown pronounces the royal assent or dissent.

The names of counties, cities, corporations, borough-towns, and stewarts, in Great-Britain, with the number of knights, commissioners of shires, citizens, and burgesses, chosen in each to serve in parliament.

ENGLAND.

		Dorsetshire	2
		Pool	2
Bedford	{shire	Dorchester	2
	{town	King's Lyme	2
		Weymouth	2
Berkshire		Melcomb	2
New Windsor		Bridport	2
Reading		Shaftsbury	2
Wallingford		Wareham	2
Abington		Corf-castle	2 [20]
Buckingham	{shire	Durham	{bishopric
	{town		{city
			2 [4]
Chipping Wicomb		Essex county	2
Aylesbury		Colchester	2
Agmondesham		Malden	2
Wendover		Harwich	2 [8]
Great Marlow		Gloucester	{shire
			{city
Cambridge	{shire		
	{university	Tewksbury	2
	{town	Cirencester	2 [8]
		Hereford	{shire
Chester	{city		{city
			2 [4]
Cornwall county		Leominster	2
Launceston		Weobly	2 [8]
Leskard		Hertford	{shire
Leithwithiel			{town
Truro		St Albans	2 [6]
Bodmin		Huntington	{shire
Helstin			{town
Saltafh			2 [4]
Camelford		Kent county	2
Westflow		Canterbury city	2
Grampound		Rocheſter city	2
Eastflow		Maidstone	2
Penryn		Queenborough	2 [10]
Tregony		Lancaster	{shire
Bossiny			{town
St Ives		Preston	2
Foway		Newton	2
St Germain's		Wigan	2
St Michael's		Clithero	2
Newport		Liverpool	2 [14]
St Maws		Leicester	{shire
Kellington			{town
			2 [4]
Cumberland county		Lincoln	{shire
Carlisle city			{city
Cockermouth			2
Derby	{shire	Boston	2
	{town	Great Grimsby	2
		Stamford	2
Devonshire		Grantham	2 [12]
Exeter city		Middlesex county	2
Totnefs		London city	4
Plymouth		Westminster city	2 [8]
Oakehampton		Monmouth	{shire
Barnstaple			{town
Plympton			2 [3]
Honiton		Norfolk county	2
Tavistoke		Norwich city	2
Ashburton		King's Lynn	2
Dartmouth		Great Yarmouth	2
Bereafston		Thetford	2
Tiverton		Castle Rising	2 [12]
		Northamptonshire	2

Northampton town	2	Luggerſhall	2
Peterborough city	2	Old Sarum	2
Brackley	2	Wootton Baſſet	2
Higham Ferrers	1 [9]	Marlborough	2 [34]
Northumberland county	2	Worceſter	{shire
Newcaſtle upon Tyne	2		{town
Morpeth	2		2
Berwick	2 [8]	Droitwich	2
		Eveſham	2
Nottingham	{shire	Bewdley	1 [9]
	{town		2
East Retford	2	York	{shire
Newark	2 [8]		{city
			2
Oxford	{shire	Kingſton upon Hull	2
	{university	Knareſborough	2
	{city	Scarborough	2
New Woodſtock	2	Richmond	2
Banbury	1 [9]	Rippon	2
Rutland county	2	Heydon	2
Shropſhire	2	Boroughbridge	2
Shrewsbury	2	Malton	2
Bridgnorth	2	Thirſk	2
Ludlow	2	Aldborough	2
Great Wenlock	2	Beverley	2
Biſhop's-castle	2 [12]	Northallerton	2
Somerſetſhire	2	Pontefract	2 [30]
Briſtol city	2		
Bath city	2	CINQUE PORTS.	
Wells city	2	Haſtings	2
Taunton	2	Wincheſea	2
Bridgwater	2	Rye	2
Minehead	2	New Romney	2
Ilcheſter	2	Hythe	2
Milborn-port	2 [18]	Dover	2
		Sandwich	2
Southampton	{county	Seaſord	2 [16]
	{town		
Wincheſter city	2	W A L E S.	
Portſmouth	2	Angleſey iſland	1
Yarmouth	2	Beaumaris	1
Petersfield	2	Brecon	{shire
Newport	2		{town
Stockbridge	2		1
Newton	2	Cardigan	{shire
Chriſt-church	2		{town
Whitchurch	2		1
Lymington	2	Carmarthen	{shire
Andover	2 [26]		{town
			1
Stafford	{shire	Carnarvon	{shire
	{town		{town
			1
Litchfield city	2	Denbeigh	{shire
Newcaſtle under Line	2		{town
Tamworth	2 [10]		1
Suffolk county	2	Flint	{shire
Ipswich	2		{town
Dunwich	2		1
Orford	2	Glamorganſhire	1
Alborough	2	Cardiff town	1
Sudbury	2	Merionethſhire	1
Eye	2	Montgomery	{shire
St Edmund's Bury	2 [16]		{town
Surry county	2		1
Southwark	2	Pembroke	{shire
Blechingly	2		{town
Ryegate	2		1
Guildford	2	Haverfordweſt	1
Gatton	2	Radnor	{shire
Haſlemere	2 [14]		{town
Suſſex county	2		1 [24]
Chicheſter city	2	SCOTLAND.	
Horſham	2	Shire of Aberdeen	1
Midhurſt	2	Shire of Air	1
Lewes	2	Shire of Argyle	1
New Shoreham	2	Shire of Bamff	1
Bramber	2	Shire of Berwick	1
Staining	2	Shires of	{Bute
East Grinſtead	2		{Cathneſs
Arundal	2 [20]		1
Warwick	{shire	Shires of	{Nairn
	{town		{Cromarty
			1
Coventry city	2 [6]	Shire of Dumbarſton	1
Westmoreland county	2	Shire of Dumfries	1
Appleby	2 [4]	Shire of Edinburgh	1
Wiltſhire	2	Shire of Eglin	1
New Sarum city	2	Shire of Fife	1
Wilton	2	Shire of Forfar	1
Downton	2	Shire of Haddington	1
Hindon	2	Shire of Inverneſs	1
Westbury	2	Shire of Kincardin	1
Haſbury	2	Shires of	{Kintofe
Calne	2		{Clackmanan
Devizes	2		1
Chippenham	2	Stewarty of Kirkcudbright	1
Malmesbury	2	Shire of Lanerk	1
Cricklade	2	Shire of Linlithgow	1
Great Bedwin	2	Shires of	{Orkney
			{Zetland
			1
		Shire of Peebles	1
		Shire of Perth	1
		Shire of Roſs	1
		Shire of Renfrew	1
		Shire of Roxburgh	1
		Shire of Selkirk	1
		Shire of Stirling	1
			Shire

PAR

Cities are included in their respective counties.

It will hardly be disallowed, that a member of parliament is a man of as much consequence as any in the kingdom. He is placed in the highest station, which his country has in it's disposal, and invested with the greatest trust the people can bestow upon him. He has the properties, the liberties, nay the lives of those who chuse him, in his hands; and what is more, he is accountable to no man for what he does. Thus invested with almost absolute power, how circumspect, how cautious should he be of acting in any manner unworthy of this great trust; a trust, which is by much the more sacred, because those who gave it, have divested themselves of the power of calling him to account, for any neglect, or non-performance of his duty in it?

The accomplishment of a person of this consequence should not be mean, nor his mind bafe and vitiated. There are two sorts of men, whom we look upon as utterly unfit to preside in the government of a Commonwealth. Of the first are they, who have only wet their lips and tasted of the first elements of reason and wisdom, without going through the whole discipline and institutions thereof; whereby the thirst of our inordinate desires, and the fire and violence of our passions are effectually allayed and extinguished. Such men generally give into a way of life, opposite to all the precepts of virtue and public spirit, because wisdom and philosophy have not taken deep root. Had it done so, it would have made them learned in the acquisition of all those virtues, which would have qualified them for so conspicuous and momentous a station.

There is another kind of men, quite different from the former; who, from their very infancy have made wisdom and philosophy their whole study and delight. Their speculative notions, and contemplative way of life, having no regard to the common good of societies, are therefore of no use to the public. However such may be justly reckoned men of learning and ingenuity; yet, because they are wrapped up in one single system of philosophy, and never bring forth their learning for the public benefit, are therefore deservedly looked on as unqualified in the affairs of a state. Plato is of opinion, that such of those reclusive philosophers, who are in their nature civilized, and well turned for the business of the world, and capable of being brought to do their duty in a public character, to their own glory, and the advantage of their country, should be compelled to leave their retirement, and to take some public trust upon them. But in relation to those who are of a quite different genius, he gives them up to the enjoyment of their solitudes, and leaves them and their philosophy to grow old together. Wherefore, it has been the opinion of the wisest men, that they who have only made little, or a very mean, progress in the exercise of the understanding, and given no testimony of their public virtues; nor they who are wholly immersed in mere speculation, should never be admitted into a public station in the concerns of government. Not the former, because they have not yet obtained that honest and virtuous way of living, that wisdom and justice prescribe: nor the latter, because they imagine they have attained to more happiness, than what is to be met with in the civil and political life, and that solitude is the only state of bliss, and therefore they look on all high dignities with contempt and indignation.

Hence it is, that the public is under the necessity of seeking out a middle class of men, well qualified for the administration of public affairs : such are they, who, in their conduct and studies, have no other view but the acquisition of such accomplishments, as are conducive to the happiness of human society, and the good government of the Commonwealth. This is that peculiar sort of wisdom, of which the British senator makes himself master : whereby he will become well instructed, how to bear rule in his own country, and approve himself a common friend and public blessing to mankind.

A good education, says Plato, is the source of all knowledge. Parents are now grown neglectful of this, and we see them shifting off the charge, of bestowing a virtuous and liberal education upon their own children, and giving it into the hands of strangers: the heirs of a noble and generous family are delivered over to the custody of a wretched pedant, or unskilful

A scheme of the proportions the several counties in England paid to the land-tax in 1693; and to the subsidies in 1697, compared with the number of members they send to parliament.

In this scheme the proportions are thus considered, viz. That as the whole kingdom send 513 members to parliament; so the whole of each tax is divided into 513 equal parts; and the first column shewing the name of the county, the second shews how many of the 513 parts each county paid to the land-tax in 1693, the third how many of the 513 parts each county paid to the subsidies in 1697, and the fourth how many of the 513 members each county send to parliament.

Counties.	Parts of the land-tax.	Parts of the subsidy.	Parlia- ment members.
Bedford	7	4	4
Berks	10	8	9
Bucks	12	7	14
Cambridge	9	6	6
Chester	7	5	4
Cornwall *	8	5	44
Cumberland *	1	1	6
Derby	6	4	4
Devon *	21	19	26
Dorset *	9	6	20
Durham *	3	4	4
Essex	24	13	8
Gloucester	12	8	8
Hereford	5	4	8
Hertford	11	8	6
Huntington	4	3	4
Kent	22	15	18
Lancaster *	5	7	14
Leicester	9	7	4
Lincoln	19	11	12
Middlesex	80	185	8
Monmouth	3	2	3
Norfolk	22	20	12
Northampton	12	8	9
Northumberland *	4	3	8
Nottingham	7	4	8
Oxon	10	7	9
Rutland	2	1	2
Salop	7	6	12
Somerset	19	15	18
Southampton *	14	11	26
Stafford	7	6	10
Suffolk	20	15	16
Surry	18	16	14
Suffex	16	10	28
Warwick	20	8	6
Westmorland *	1	1	4
Wilts *	13	8	34
Worcester	9	7	9
York *	24	23	30
Wales	11	12	4
All England and Wales	513	513	513

unskilful pedagogue. The care of Cato, in the education of his son, is never to be enough commended. He would by no means suffer his own wife to wash and bathe him, or to swathe and dress him; unless himself was present, to oversee and assist her. He had in his family one Chylo, a grammarian, a man well enough versed in learning, as a domestic tutor to his son in that branch; yet he thought it an indignity to have a servant reproach and domineer over him, or give him correction when faulty.—When he was fit to be instructed in literature, and in the laws and customs of his country, the father himself would have the sole care of him. None but he must teach him, even to fling the javelin, to go through the whole exercise at arms, to understand horsemanship, with the manner of fighting in close combat, the art of swimming, and all other achievements, by which youth are inured to the bearing the extremes of heat and cold.

It is also said, that Cato wrote a history for the use of his son, to bring him acquainted with the exploits of his ancestors, and with the art of presiding with glory in the affairs of the state. Whenever his son was present, the father would never suffer any obscene conversation, or let slip any expression, that favoured of rashness and anger, or of vice or folly; being as cautious, as if a vestal virgin was present. Such was the behaviour of the great Cato, and such in the general the good conduct of all the Romans, in the education of their children! Among the several nations and republics of Greece, there was the same care used in the training up their youth. These were the great masters and teachers of that useful knowledge, which shews us the way how to live happily in a private station, and in what manner communities of men are to be best governed. It is the general wish, that the governors of our literary institutions would be more careful to instruct youth in the art of living well, than the art of controversy, and instil into them only the grand branches of knowledge truly serviceable to the state, instead of the jargon of wrangling, and the little friskish arts of sporting with words. Were this the case, we should see their scholars become more useful representatives of the people, and promoters of the welfare of the kingdom.

The old academies of Greece were the seminaries of their republics; out of which, as out of the Trojan horse, came their best kings, and most renowned generals and governors. Alexander and Scipio, two of the greatest commanders that ever lived, with others too numerous to be recounted, had their first rise in glory from the Grecian institutions for literature: and in the same way should all those be trained, who may be expected from their birth and fortune to be placed in any distinguished station, and more especially the senatorial one. Hence it comes to be a national concern; and it is certainly the duty of every government to have public schools and colleges, so well ordered, that they may be as nurseries, out of which the state may be furnished with persons endowed with all the virtues and good accomplishments, that can adorn human nature.

In the progress towards the complete education of a person of this character, he should from his youth be well instructed in the art of speaking, both properly and gracefully; for without this talent, though he may think and judge ever so justly, yet if he is incapable of expressing himself with a becoming and masterly elocution, that the assembly may thoroughly understand his sentiments, the assembly cannot receive the benefit of his judgment, nor can such a one have the satisfaction to observe that regard paid to his understanding which he merits. At his first setting out in his enquiry after truth, there are three arts requisite to be acquired, grammar, logic, and rhetoric. For these are the portals to the palace, wherein true wisdom resides. From these are to be learned the rules of debating and conversing, which must be confirmed and improved by use and exercise, and by reading and imitating the works of the most intelligible and purest writers. When the student has made a proficiency thus far, let him not content himself with these trite and ordinary attainments; but let him grasp at higher improvements; let him enter into philosophy, and take a view of the system of the universe; and then let him look into the life, actions, and ways of men, to see how families are ordered, and in what manner cities and Commonwealths are established and governed. In the former of these enquiries, Natural Philosophy, Metaphysics, and Mathematics are our chief guides: in the latter, Moral Philosophy, Policy, and Œconomy. Both these sorts of philosophy have but one and the same end in view, by enabling us the better to exercise our intellectual faculties to the best purposes: they differ in this particular indeed; the one of them is consistent with a life of ease and leisure, whilst the other is conversant with business, and always in a state of activity. Hence it is that happiness is either private or public. They who repose their happiness in an active life, in the exercise of all the virtues, are always to be esteemed the most beneficial members of the Commonwealth; for every good thing, by being communicated to many, gains so much greater addition to its intrinsic worth; the felicity, which diffuses itself to multitudes, is certainly preferable to that mere contracted happiness, which centers within the individual. Yet a life of speculation is first in order, and more honourable, that pre-

ceding practice, and giving life and dignity to the noblest actions.

But since the good senator's happiness, and all his knowledge and wisdom, are conversant with a life of activity and public business; and he ought to be one who knows how to measure his actions by the rule of integrity and right reason, who is qualified to manage affairs both private and public, and who understands how to govern a city by wise counsel, how to secure a constitution by wholesome laws, and reform it by a due execution of justice; it follows, that he ought to make himself acquainted with that part of philosophy which prescribes the precepts of virtue, which are the limits of human actions, and contain the whole science of behaving well in a national administration. How shall he be able to set a senate right, in the fundamental duties of justice, prudence, and fortitude? Or, how shall he appease a multitude, or quell a sedition, dispense, or expound laws, who is ignorant of the principles of justice and prudence? Can such a one be able, wisely to give his advice about a war or a peace, a league or a treaty, who knows not when a war is just or otherwise, a peace honourable or the contrary, and a league dangerous or well made, and fit to be kept sacred and inviolable? The substance of this knowledge is not to be obtained, but by studying the most approved authors in moral philosophy, policy, and Œconomy. For out of these treasures we may make a collection of all the virtues, and of all the arts of government.

There is another sort of learning likewise, not less necessary to the accomplishment of this character, by which we are brought acquainted with the most remarkable sayings and exploits of the great and wise, who have lived before our times. These are to be met with in the monuments of faithful annalists and historians. These, according to Tully, are the witnesses and evidences of past times, the torch-bearers and guides of truth, human nature's remembrancers, the leaders and conductors of our actions, and the messengers and envoys sent to us by our forefathers.

To this stock of knowledge, many additions are to be made, before the British senator can be thoroughly qualified. He must be well acquainted with the customs of his own country, the manners of his countrymen, their way of living, their disposition, and their sentiments concerning the present posture of affairs, and all the remarkable occurrences of public life. Besides this, he must be sure to make himself master of that truly useful and necessary knowledge, which completes the character of a wise statesman. He must be well acquainted with the true nature of war and peace, what quarrels his people are engaged in, what leagues and treaties subsist between them and their neighbours, as also between other potentates; what taxes, duties, and customs are already imposed, or may be necessary in future, and whether they are as wisely regulated, as they ought to be, consistent with the interest of commerce and the liberties of a free people: what the rights of the subject are, and what the proceedings of the ministry: in what manner the laws are executed; what are the discontents or differences among the people, and how they are to be allayed and pacified: what is the present state of morality: how the youth of his country are educated and employed: what principles, customs, and rules of conformity are necessary to be introduced, in order to reform and moralize a people; and what is the present state of religion.

Nor should the good senator be ignorant of what passes among the allies and confederates of his own country; what are their rights and demands: he must, in a word, be acquainted with all the reasons and ends of government, understand the customs and usages of his people, the proceedings of all courts of judicature, and all public assemblies. Nor should he be a stranger to the examples and characters of all about him, and to the desires and expectations of his fellow subjects. A good counsellor, says Anthony, is such a one, who well understands, and always adheres to, whatever may contribute to the establishment and welfare of a state, or increase its happiness. Such counsellors and senators were the Lentuli, the Gracchi, the Metelli, the Scipio's and the Lælii of Old Rome. But in these our times, such examples are uncommon enough: we often see men crouching for honours and offices, and becoming candidates for the senatorial dignity, without the necessary qualifications of knowledge, wisdom, and experience.

If, here and there, a candidate of an exalted character appears in public, yet, perhaps, his only recommendation is a single campaign, or the services of one year, or a little smattering of the law, or the greatness of his wealth, or the popular clamour of his dependants, and partizans; whilst he has a very slender acquaintance with what have been intimated. The knowledge of men and things, is the rise and foundation of all true wisdom, which can never be attained, but by a knowledge of these arts, and that sound policy which is the grand support of the state: without these, it is impossible for him to think, and speak, and act well or wisely.

For the perfecting of this character of wisdom and prudence, it may be necessary to become acquainted with the laws and customs of foreign countries. This sort of knowledge is attained by travel. The benefit to be made by which, arises from observing the manner and civilities of those abroad, and

and such of their rights and customs as are worthy our imitation; and from remarking their predominant follies and vices, which we must avoid. The laws of foreign nations, their jurisdiction, liberties, way and manner of living, their civil and military discipline, with the management of their domestic affairs, the situation of their country, their climate and soil, their public buildings, their ornaments and fortifications, deserve our notice. It may also be of use to know the real character of every prince, whose dominions we visit; to enquire what opinion the people have of him, and how they are affected towards his government. If there is a senate or great council, how are they chosen, and what are the people's sentiments of their conduct? In what manner is justice administered? What is the national genius of the country? What men they have eminent for their wisdom and learning, and what great generals? These are proper enquiries to be made by a judicious traveller: besides these, he should endeavour to make some useful and advantageous discoveries, in the commercial arts and sound polity, and bring them home, for the service of his own country upon emergencies. But great caution ought to be used not to introduce any strange custom into our country, lest we infect the people with the itch of novelty, and corrupt their minds with effeminacy; whereby they will be brought to forget the rigid virtues and plain honesty, with the good manners, wise laws and customs of their ancestors. For the populace are changeable enough, and nothing is more fatal to a government, than extraordinary innovations. If one who would qualify himself for this great office, has no opportunity of travelling, let him supply this defect by reading the most approved cosmographers, geographers, and historians: and let him be careful to store up such a stock of knowledge, as may preserve him from that childish behaviour, which is the effect of ignorance. In that part of philosophy, which treats of the more abstruse secrets of nature, he should not be entirely unskilful: but he may be very sparing of this sort of studies; to run too far into them is not compatible with a character of this kind. Wisdom has a boundless field to range in. The sciences must be cantoned out, since no single person can become master of them all. The compass of our knowledge may be comprehended under what is honest, pleasant and profitable. What is honest and pleasant, serves rather to make life agreeable, than to qualify us for the governor, court, the rostrum, or the tribunal; it serves us to retire to, and gives new strength and vigour to the understanding, by seasonably indulging in lawful ease and delicacy. This sort of philosophy may possibly do the public service, if it's followers delight more in a life of public business, than to immure themselves in cells and solitude.

There is, however, a retired sort of philosophy, which is of great use to the public. For we are not to look upon them as the only philosophers, who are qualified to direct the affairs of a state; since, besides those, there are others, to whose written labours, and immortal works, we are indebted for the remains and monuments of true wisdom and learning. And there is also a third sort, whose business it is to instruct those under their care in the rules of virtue, and in the art of government. These men certainly deserve well at our hands; because, by their leisure and retirement, we are instructed in business, and taught to come abroad with reputation and advantage. The Antients had many philosophers of this order: such were Theophrastus, Heraclides of Pontus, Dicaearchus, Socrates, and Pythagoras: it is remarkable, that the book which Dicaearchus wrote upon government, was, by a decree of the Spartan commonwealth, ordered to be read publicly once a year, and that all the youth should be assembled together to attend the lecture.

The great end of true philosophy, is to cultivate the mind, to plant in it the seeds of virtue, and not to grate or tickle the ears with wrangle and contention. All contumelious and passionate language, all noisy combats about words, seem unworthy of the name of true philosophy. All arts and sciences are not, properly speaking, virtues; they are only the instruments and ornaments, by which virtue is attained and perfected. There are various sects in philosophy, but these differences ought not to distract the mind of the wise and good senator.

When he hath made himself master of what has been spoke of, the attainment he is possessed of, will become conspicuous by eloquence, which is the ornament of wisdom. Where this is wanting, all his other accomplishments, let them be never so extensive, will insensibly dwindle into obscurity. The art of speaking nervously and elegantly, will enable a gentleman in this capacity, not only to maintain his own dignity, but to defend the rights and liberties of private persons, and the interest of the community. By this the minds of men, when raised to an undue ferment, are easily pacified: by this, where they are lulled and becalmed, they are easily put in agitation; and this has done more sure and fatal execution, than the sword or the spear. When the senator rises to speak, let him speak with all the force of reason and wisdom, and with all the graces and ornament of a chaste and manly eloquence, neither too verbose and diffusive, nor too laconic. Let his speech be well weighed, and yet seem to be

extempore; let the dignity of pathetic action and gesture always accompany whatever he has to communicate.

Next to eloquence, let him endeavour to make himself a master of the civil law, the design of which, is to preserve an exact equality in the distribution of all things. For, who is so well qualified to decide the controversies of his countrymen, to suppress sedition, well and wisely to defend the laws of his own nation, or the rights of the people, as the man who is really a master of law and equity?

The house of a good and upright lawyer is the national oracle. But the lawyer who should be excluded from the senate, is the notorious brawler and tongue-pad. For this sort of creatures are of a low vulgar order, servile and mercenary, capable of being the ministers of falsehood and injustice: wretches, who bring their tongues and their minds well armed and instructed, into a court of justice, and employ them in the defence of wrong and oppression. It is hardly possible for that man to be a sincere lover of truth and equity, who will prostitute his eloquence, and let out his tongue to hire. On the other hand, it is part of the office and duty of the good senator, to preserve the proceedings of judicature from all corruptions of fraud and deceit; to become a voluntary accuser, and strenuous adversary of all wicked and traitorous subjects, and a no less zealous defender of the good and virtuous; being actuated by a just sense of his own high dignity, a love of justice, and affection for his fellow-subjects; such was the behaviour, and such the principles, of the wisest and most noble Romans, that ever sat in their senate.

In the course and progress of all consultations, particular care must be taken, that every subject brought into debate, may be well weighed and thoroughly examined, in as nice, accurate, and judicious a manner, as human prudence, or human wit, can prescribe or devise. We may enumerate five different sorts of things, which are the proper subjects of public debate and consultation, viz. the raising of money by subsidies and taxations; the proclaiming of war, and the making of peace; the defence and safeguard of the realm; the ballance of the imports and exports of trade and commerce, and the enacting of good and salutary laws.

If a consultation is to be held upon ways and means to raise money, a thorough enquiry must be made into the state of the duties and customs, and every branch of taxation, of which the public revenue consists; that if they are too small, they may be augmented; and if too great, diminished: for no new taxes ought to be imposed but upon urgent occasions; because all extraordinary impositions are grievous to the subject, and occasion civil disorders. When the emperor Tiberius was persuaded to lay a new tax upon the people, he readily answered, That a good shepherd had a right to the fleeces of his flock, but had none to slay and devour them. A complete knowledge in the finances of this kingdom is no easy acquisition; we do not mean a knowledge only of what money has been raised, and how it has been applied: all this is entering little into the heart of the matter; the specific funds, which have produced the revenue, should be enquired into as minutely as a gentleman of œconomy would enquire into every branch of his estate; and not only the nett produce of the whole should be stated before the national financier, but the gross produce, that he may be able to judge accurately of the public expence in the collection of such revenue, what proportion that bears to the nett proceeds, and what incumbrance to the state, officers, and tax-gatherers, and all concerned in the revenue, really are to the kingdom. By which means, the wise senator will be enabled to judge, whether such annual revenue cannot be raised at a far less expence to the people, with less incumbrance to commerce and navigation, with greater advantage to the public credit, and with more glory and safeguard to the king and the nation.

Nor should the judicious senator stop here in his enquiries into the MONEY AFFAIRS of the kingdom: he should strictly scrutinize into the RATES laid upon all merchandizes imported, that he may be capacitated to enter into the primitive reason and foundation of these rates, and to know whether the same reasons still subsist, that gave rise to them; and whether our connections with certain foreign countries, may not be so altered, since the time of such rates being laid, as to make it requisite to alter them likewise upon many species of goods. And to make a right judgment of this matter, it is necessary to be acquainted with every specific sort of merchandize imported, and to know to what uses in every branch of trade and commerce such sort of commodities is applied, from their importation to their consumption, or re-exportation, either in their first state of importation, or in a manufactured one. Nor is it enough to know these things; the senator must be knowing in all the subsidies and imposts laid upon such merchandizes, the several discounts to which the merchant is justly intitled, and the computation of the nett duties and drawbacks thereupon; whereby he will become so minutely acquainted with every branch of the public revenue, as to judge rightly when any alteration may be necessary to be made in the rates, or in the subsidies and imposts of any kind; and more especially so, if he takes into his consideration, to what degree the foreign nation, from whence such

commodities are brought, they lay duties upon the British produce or manufactures of a similar nature to those we lay duties on, and whether they inviolably adhere to, or deviate from, those treaties of commerce which subsist between our nation and theirs: for this is the criterion whereby to judge when this nation is treated in their merchandize as we ought to be, and upon an equal footing with those nations that have no right by treaty to be upon more advantageous terms than our own.

'The prosperity of a trading kingdom depends on a wise regulation of its revenues, says a judicious Spanish author. When taxes are not levied in the manner they ought to be, they are the ruin of trade, a moth in a treasury, the universal lamentation of a nation, and the interest and joy of foreigners. But a prudent disposition of them is the soul of a state, the life of the people, glory to a prince, grief and distress to foreigners, and a perpetual fountain of the richest blessings to human life.' See our articles DUTIES, TAXES, LABOUR, REVENUE, and the CONTENTS for the practical business of the custom-house.

Nothing can be of greater concernment to a trading nation than the wise regulation of its duties and customs, and the most vigilant eye over its exports and imports; for the grandeur of a kingdom depends solely upon selling much, and buying little, or upon selling more than is bought. He that is constantly buying more than he sells, let him be a second Cræsus in treasure, for his stock is diminished in proportion to the overbalance of goods brought in: but whoever is constantly selling more than he buys, let him be poor as Lazarus, must by such a transaction acquire the happy circumstances of the rich: for, as much as the balance is in favour of the amount of sales, just so much is added to his capital. It is upon this principle the wisest nations discourage the importation of foreign goods into their country*, but leave their gates wide open to let their own manufactures go abroad and bring in riches from every quarter.

* When a great proportion of the public revenue of a nation arises from the money raised by the DUTIES paid by enhancing the price of foreign imports, which exhaust the nation's treasure, the greater those DUTIES and IMPORTS are, the more the nation is drained of its solid wealth; and if the support of the PUBLIC CREDIT depends, in a good measure, on the greatness of the sum raised by such duties of custom, does not such temporary support of the public credit depend on the gradual ruin of the kingdom? Should not this induce the great representative to think of such a gradual change in the constitution of the revenue, that the prosperity of the state may go hand in hand with the height of the revenue, and not rise upon its destruction? And in relation to the other branches of the public revenue, such as EXCISES, &c. do not these demonstrably tend so to raise the price of our produce and manufactures, as to enable our foreign competitors in commerce to undersell us at all foreign markets? Is it impossible to fall upon measures whereby these evils may be happily prevented? Is there any thing of this kind insuperable to the wisdom of a British senate? Every impartial man must readily grant, that it is infinitely more for the safeguard and prosperity of an empire, for the good plight and condition of its finances, to consist and harmonize with the prosperity of its commerce, than for the one to counteract the other, and that the money we raise by virtue of our trade should tend gradually to its absolute destruction!

Commerce and navigation are the great supports of our all: and every expedient to uphold the PUBLIC CREDIT that does not arise from the apparent prosperous state and condition of our trade, can be looked upon only as temporary political amusements. The more money is raised both upon foreign and native commodities, the worse is the state of our commerce, the former shewing that we augment our IMPORTS, whilst the latter renders us less able to increase our EXPORTS upon a par with nations which can afford itself cheaper than we. These principles are obvious, and must, at length, terminate in what every man of discernment cannot avoid seeing. The good senator, therefore, will endeavour to bottom the system of our funds upon principles that quadrate with our commercial interest; in which case the PUBLIC CREDIT will stand upon a rock, not to be shaken either by the nefarious arts of stock-jobbing and bubbles, neither by South-Sea nor Mississippi schemes, nor even by rebellions, or insults from foreign courts; for, when other nations know the constitution of our finances to be so wisely and happily framed, the crown of Great-Britain will have infinitely greater weight in Europe, than it can have whilst the state of the public revenue is founded upon principles diametrically opposite to these. Under such circumstances, we should be as little intimidated to declare war against those who offered any dignity to our king and country, as compelled to make a peace any way dishonourable to the nation, or injurious to its trade and navigation: and, 'till this comes to be our case, and we are enabled gradually to discharge our debts, or to lessen them to such a degree that we may easily support them, it is greatly to be feared our ministers will

daily lose their weight and influence in foreign courts, and, consequently, be disabled from treating with them but upon the most advantageous terms. See our articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, INTEREST of MONEY, MONIED INTEREST, DUTIES.

In deliberating on the two great affairs of war and peace, it is first necessary to know what is the present military and naval state of our country, and how numerous its forces are both by sea and land, and how far our finances will admit of their augmentation; of what sort the war is which we are entering upon, and with what enemy we engage. A strict enquiry ought also to be made into the strength of our enemy, and any confederacies against us; whether their forces are disciplined in the same, or a different manner from our own, and whether they have better engineers, generals, and admirals, and whether they are a match for us, or inferior in number and strength, that we may regulate our conduct accordingly, and make peace with those who are too mighty for us, and war with those who are unable to resist us, if they attempt to encroachments upon rights, according to the laws of nations, and to subsisting treaties; and the scheme of the war, when we are obliged to enter into one, and all its operations, ought to be well settled, upon the best principles of prudential foresight and consideration. It may likewise be of use, on these occasions, to look over the historical accounts of former wars, their rise, progress, and event: for similar and parallel instances always explain and illustrate each other.

The occasion of every war, and the justice of it, must also be well weighed and thoroughly scrutinized into; and we must be well assured, after many trials, that the matters in difference cannot be honourably decided, but by the sword: for, as the comedian observes, it is a wise way to try all expedients for an accommodation, before we come to blows: an honourable peace is always preferable to an unjust war.

And if the debate be upon trade and commerce, and the exports and imports of a country, it is in the first place requisite to enquire, whether any necessities of which the people are in want, do ever go out of the kingdom; whether any thing is exported to foreigners except superfluities, or the residue or what is spent at home. We must also take care to make a just estimate and calculation of the price and value of all commodities, sold to, or exchanged with, foreign countries, and to balance the difference between profit and loss, that the public treasure, or current coin of the commonwealth, may not be diminished [see the articles BALANCE of TRADE, and EXCHANGE]. And we must likewise be strict in prohibiting the importation of all such consumeables, as serve to introduce and encourage luxury and effeminacy.

That the knowledge of trade, both practical and political, is not a matter of a light and trivial nature, we are apt to believe will satisfactorily appear to the candid and judicious, who shall do us the honour to peruse these our labours. The subject considered in these lights is, perhaps, not less extensive than most, and requires no less application and ability to become well acquainted with it, than a knowledge of the belles lettres, or any branch of science: it is, indeed, comprehensive of many of the more lucrative arts, as well as sciences. See our article MERCANTILE COLLEGE, and our INDEX.

Lastly, the most consummate prudence is always requisite in the enacting of good laws, for therein consists the very being, as well as happiness of the public. On this occasion, it is necessary we should be well acquainted with the whole state, condition, and circumstances of a nation; the present situation of its affairs, what laws it stands in need of, what will be well received by the people, or more effectually conducive to the preserving and strengthening of the constitution, and securing and promoting the common felicity; for the commonwealth was not made for the law, but the law for the commonwealth. The better to inform ourselves upon this subject of legislation, it will prove of no little use to enquire into the laws of other countries, as well as of our own: whereby we may know how to guard against the evils under which our neighbours labour, and take example by them, in such instances of wisdom for which they are remarkable. It will be of great advantage in all deliberations upon matters of the first consequence, not to depend altogether on our own judgment, but to advise with others, because it is impossible for an individual to have more wisdom than many counsellors.

There are, as Cicero observes,—Three sorts of public things upon which men deliberate, or give or take advice: these are things honest and profitable, and the differences that are between them whenever they are inconsistent with each other.—If in these three points the senator is fully knowing and experienced, he can never be at a loss to make a good judgment on any affair of public life. And where two subjects of the same sort are offered to consideration, it is a characteristic of a sound discernment to decide which of the two is preferable; which is the most honest or profitable to the state.

Sometimes a gentleman in this situation is called upon to give extemporary advice, and is surprized into a necessity of delivering his opinion at the moment it is demanded: but, whenever

whenever this happens to be the case, we must never vary from the cardinal points of profit and honesty; we must always chuse the good, and reject the evil, and of two evils, where both are inevitable, must make choice of the least. The best way of forming good and wholesome counsels, is to keep a steady eye upon the first and greatest good, and to have that always in view, whether we are deliberating on matters of public or private concerns, of what relates to our own or to our country's happiness: for from this first principle all our thoughts and counsels ought to be directed. Unless the public happiness be our chief aim, all our deliberations and advice are vain and fruitless. How can the mariner steer a right course, when he is ignorant of the port to which he is bound? In debating within ourselves what advice is proper, the utmost prudence is required; in giving it to others, the utmost sincerity. We must ever be cautious to leave as little room as possible for fortune to interpose, for chance seldom brings about events that bear the characteristics of wise and rational contrivance: let, therefore, all his counsels be the effects of prudence, goodness, fidelity, mature experience, thorough deliberation, impartiality, and freedom of thought; without the stain of criminal craft and cunning, of temerity, or secret ill-will to the public.

Subtle and artful, or daring undertakings, are extremely pleasant and entertaining; they dazzle with a false lustre, but it is hard to prosecute them aright, and they are often fatal in consequence. It is of great use and service to a commonwealth to observe this standing rule, that the senate never enter upon any business within doors, but what has been before thoroughly canvassed without; it being a great folly to imagine, that the most important affairs can be presently dispatched, or require no more consideration than that only of a short hour, or a few transitory moments.

After consultation regularly had and taken, nothing remains but the giving judgement, in any affair of state under consideration: such a judgement is an open declaration of the thoughts and counsels of the mind. There is a judicial faculty implanted in mankind by nature: we often find some men, who have no character for learning or wisdom, are yet greatly to be depended on for their judgement, and in time come to be masters of good sense, great cunning and sagacity, by dint of use and experience. Men of more years than learning are, therefore, much to be relied on for a sound judgement, because age and experience have, in effect, supplied them with a third eye, whereby they take a survey of past transactions and future events, as well as of the present, with so much the more accuracy.

We know nothing of a man 'till we have been witnesses to his conversation; and, 'till a senator has delivered his sentiments, there is no forming a just notion either of his wisdom or prudence. Socrates one day meeting a youth whom he had never seen before, looked for some time earnestly upon him, and at last said to him, Speak, that I may know what you are. The same experiment must be tried, before we can approve the wisdom and gravity of the candidate for this office, or pronounce him duly qualified for so high a station: for speech is the image and representative of the mind, and by this must the senator give proofs of his judgement, and of the force and extent of his capacity.

There are some orators whose speeches are all gloss and false colouring, intended rather to please the ear, and touch the passion, than inform the judgement: their words are all tinsel and feather, and they have more regard to elegance and delicacy, than to plain and solid truth, and close reasoning. Were their speeches taken to pieces, they would appear to be mere froth and emptiness, void of weight and solidity, veracity or sincerity. The senator's rhetoric must never be thus adulterated: he may display his eloquence before the wise and eloquent, but he should speak truth even before fools.

There is another sort of speakers, who are swollen with pride, malice, and jealousy, incensed by private animosity; and, whenever they have an opportunity of speaking in public, lay about them with personal reflection and calumny. These men are of no advantage to the public, and serve only to kindle a fire, inspire jealousies and misunderstandings, and to ruffle the peace of a country, by introducing parties and factions, discord and contention. If they were really good men, they would stifle their private animosities and personal resentments, and make it their choice, as well as think it their duty, not to trouble the commonwealth with them, under pretence of doing it service.

There is a third sort of members, who for want of capacity, for counsel, and abilities in speaking, implicitly give into the sentiments of others, and always tread in their steps. They who behave in this manner are really not to blame, unless they are obliged to it by ignorance and stupidity. It is of use and benefit to a state to have the less able and skilful members of its council readily complying with the sentiments of their wise and more experienced leaders. Sometimes a senate is unanimous: on which occasion it is much the wisest way to concur in the general opinion, and not to give opposition only for the sake of making a speech, and spin out the time with tedious bombast and fulsome harangues.

Differences in opinion will unavoidably happen, and occasion debates and altercations, whereby this great assembly may be split into opposite parties. In all attempts to compose these differences, and bring such debates to a happy conclusion, we must be careful to avoid indecent language, excess of passion, or personal obloquy, with whatever else may interrupt the course of a deliberate and wise consultation, or ruffle the affections of brethren in the same trust.

The opinions and resolutions of a senate are to be valued by their weight, not by the tale or number of voices: and care must be taken that the best and wisest member of the great council of the nation may not be borne down by the multitude or majority. Aristotle permits a counsellor, deliberating upon any affair of moment, to be twice in doubt; but if, after this, he could not come to any settled resolution, he was for that time to lose his right of giving any opinion at all. Caution should be used not to protract the day, and spend too much time in debating a question, without coming to any resolution: we are guilty of a double fault when we tire both ourselves and others with tedious harangues. A decent brevity is always to be observed in speaking, as also an honest plainness, and an open sincerity. We must not be over eager to speak, or lay snares for others, by mingling low artifices or falacies with what we deliver. Every thing said should have real weight, and carry with it a serious and important meaning, and must be well seasoned with simplicity and truth, and with plain but nervous language; for that takes deep root, and shews the man of business in opposition to the florid babbler, whose words are wind, and leave no impression behind them.

The three rules laid down by Cicero in his laws ought to be duly observed by every member of parliament; (1.) That he constantly give his attendance in the assembly, because a full house gives a greater weight to all its decrees and resolutions. (2.) That he speak only in his proper turn, or when he is called upon. And (3.) That he speak in such a manner as always to keep close to the subject in debate, without falling into boundless mazes of perplexity and impertinence. That senator who wilfully and carelessly absents himself from the public service without a justifiable cause, ought (as the same author enjoins) to be censured and punished as a criminal.

Neither is it convenient that senators should be permitted to leave the city in which such assemblies are held, and to withdraw themselves into foreign territories, unless they are sent abroad by their sovereign, to take upon them a command of consequence, or to execute an embassy, &c. lest, by thinning the senate, some detriment should unhappily befall the commonwealth. The Romans took care to prevent the ill consequence of such a practice, by a law made for that purpose. After all, the fundamental principle which gives rise to, and will ever maintain, the senatorial dignity, and crown the character of so distinguished a personage, is his conformity in his words and actions, and in all the relative capacities and offices of life, to the rules of virtue, by approving himself a just and good man, and adorning his private station with a steady conduct, that will give a sanction to all he says and does in public life. It is not enough that we are wise and prudent, unless we are upright in the whole of our conduct: for prudence without justice and goodness, dwindles into craft and cunning, and is looked upon rather as a vice than a virtue. Wise men are denominated from their wisdom, but it is solid virtue that gives the just, the equitable, and the honest man his proper titles, and makes him in character what he is really called by name; and good men take their stile from their virtues, and not from their wisdom. Who then is a truly good man, but such a one as is described by Plato, who well understands what virtue is, who takes it into his bosom and closest embraces, and lives up to its commands and dictates, and who chuses to die for the sake of his country, and to save her from any imminent danger, or from falling into an abject state of servitude, or from being oppressed by the arbitrary dominion of tyrants and usurpers, or of men remarkable only for their baseness and infamy?—Such truly great and good patriots will endure every thing rather than see the ancient constitution of their native country overturned.

There are some men raised to high stations and dignities in the state, who thrust themselves into public business by a prompt and easy fluency of speaking, and by giving proofs of a lively wit, and more than ordinary sagacity, whilst their hearts are full of deceit and subtilty. When such men as these are engaged in supporting the laws, or in defending the liberties of their country, no orators deliver themselves with a better grace, or with more beauty and elegance, but, when their speeches are sifted to the bottom, they are all sediment and corruption; wrong and injustice are the lees of all their fluency and rhetoric; there is nothing truly great and noble in what they say, for all their pretences to public good are a vizard, and the tongue does not act in concert with the heart.

There is not a greater plague that can infect the body politic than a set of such men, lurking within the bowels of a government, especially if their power and authority are so situated as to be able to distress it. Amongst this class are comprehended

comprehended all those who are of a debauched and licentious character, and set themselves up for men of penetration, artifice and stratagem, by a readiness to commit all manner of oppression and injustice, by promoting tumults and seditions in a state. Bad as these men are, in nothing is their villainy more conspicuous, and at no time more successful, than when they can seduce their countrymen to believe they are really honest, upright, and faithful subjects: for as man in general, when raised to the most exalted dignity and highest attainments of his nature, is the best and noblest of animals; so when he degenerates as far beneath the standard of law and justice, he is, of all the rest of his own species, the most vile and dangerous.

And if public affairs should ever happen to light into such hands, and reduce the state into great disorder and confusion, we must put our chief hopes in the king, at the head of a parliament. While that place contains men of courage and public spirit, matters cannot long proceed amiss: whoever, therefore, undertakes that trust, should continually have before their eyes how much the common welfare depends upon their virtues; but, above all things, they should have disinterested and self-denying minds.

It can hardly be conceived, but by those who have seen it, what reverence is paid, even by his enemies, to a man of steady principles, the tenor of whose words and actions are always the same, who is neither to be bought nor frightened: he is admired and followed; all he says has its due weight; his honest hoary head is dear to all mankind. Whereas, as Dr d'Avenant says, the whiffling prowlers after places, and little busy intriguers, are contemptible to the very men of whom they are the wretched instruments; and, let the ambitious think what they please, that man has most real power in this country, who is believed to be of the most unshaken integrity towards the public; and he who has such a character, enjoys more true greatness than all the vain pomp and honours a court can give.

The employments of England are yet but few, and their profits but inconsiderable, to what they are in several nations; however, small as they seem to be, it is to be feared that some time or other they will be made the engines wherewith bad men will endeavour to subvert this constitution.

It is true, at present, we may be out of such a danger, but if, in future times, we should chance to see all employments reserved for men in one certain station; if the road to preferment should lie but through one passage; when this happens, we shall have cause to be alarmed.

They who feel within themselves abilities to serve the public, are by no means blameable in desiring to be upon the stage of business; on the contrary, that four philosophy which makes some persons at all seasons retire, and abandon the state, is by no means to be commended. They do, according to Tacitus, but *Nomine magnifico, seque otium velare*: if the posture of affairs will possibly admit of it, good men should rather strive to be in power, that the commonwealth may not be ingrossed by corrupt and unskilful hands.

A wise man can easily discern whether the ministers are such, that he may with honour and safety mix in councils with them. If the administration be sound and right, or if he has but a face looking that way, it is a proper season for men of probity, skill, and virtue, to produce their talents, and to push themselves forward, in order more fully to mend things: and, at such a time, they should be ready to assist the state to the utmost of their power, nor should they lazily suffer the perfections of their minds to be useless and inactive. And if among these there be any very eminent, strong in friends, versed in affairs of state, of a deep reach and foresight, who have eloquence to sway assemblies, and courage to resist and overcome popular fury; such ought not to despair of the public, but assist with their wisdom, to redeem a people from their weak hands who shall get into power, when the nation, perhaps, has been in a high ferment, as in boiling liquors the scum will get uppermost; and there is such a reverence paid to those who have a truly great genius, and a good heart, that, when they offer themselves to serve the commonwealth, the weight of the people will bear down all the upstart pretenders, and force them to give way, and make room for merit so superior.

But if it should ever happen, that the administration should be intirely bad and destructive in their measures, then ought good men to have no share nor hand in it; they should withdraw from any participation in the negligence or guilt; they should quit what they cannot honourably hold; they should concern themselves no more in public business, leaving such ministers to govern by themselves, who will not govern well, and be contented to serve their country by defending liberty in one post against any encroachments; they should not make so ill a use of that affection the people may bear them, and of the interest they may have in the nation, as to be a shelter for the crimes or folly of others: nor should they, as it were, lend their countenance, and be the screen, behind which bad men may safely attempt to undermine the constitution.

If the times are good, silent merit will be sought after; but, if they are bad, ill men will be lifted up to the offices and

dignities of the state, by the applause of their adherents, and the faction of their friends; but, at such a season, it is no shame not to be employed. Tacitus speaking of *Ælius Lanius* says, *Et non permessa provincia dignationem addiderat.*

Great men are often liable to one unfortunate vanity: they believe their parts, dexterity, and wisdom to be such, that they can mend things, give them a new complexion, correct all errors, and at least that they shall preserve themselves sound, though every one else be tainted; and, upon these presumptions, some of the men in best esteem have heretofore engaged with a depraved ministry; but we could never see that they were able to make any converts: on the contrary, instead of changing the court, the court changed them. Courts are but slowly mended, and that not by the authority or example of any single person, except it be of the prince himself, strongly bent to set matters upon a right foot; and yet we have more instances of courts which have spoiled their prince, than of princes that have reformed their courts.

And if it be asked, When is the most proper time for persons of probity and virtue to undertake the management of affairs? it may be answered, It is then seasonable, when things call loudly to be mended, when unskilful pilots have run the ship a-ground, so that she sticks fast, ready to split at the next coming of the waves; when ignorant men are quite bewildered in their errors; when the whole people see and feel the effects of ill government; when the prince grows ashamed of these, whom his subjects hate and fear; when the commonwealth cannot emerge out of its debts and difficulties, without help from abler hands: then is the true time for the best and wisest men to offer themselves to the service of their country. At such a season, honesty will not stand alone, weak, defenceless, and out of countenance, at the sight of prosperous vice. Nor can courts be ever safe 'till the circumstance and necessity of the times bring thither a party of honest and able men, strong enough to maintain itself against those who are grown great by wicked arts, and conspicuous ignorance in public business.

If Englishmen will be content in this single point, all must of course go well; if they who have noble commands in the country will scorn meanly to depend in town; if they who have brave seats of their own, will despise the crowded antichambers of the great ones here; if they who have plentiful estates, will slight a troublesome, dependent, and precarious employment, they are more happy than a court can make them: if our nobility and gentry would consider how miserable the noblemen of France are, with all their mighty places, they would at no time hereafter desire to wear the livery of bondage. And if they are truly seasoned with these notions, That their liberties are above all price, and (as Sir Benjamin Rudiard was wont to say) That there is nothing worth being a knave for; the head must be very skilful, and the heart very bold, that will undertake to invade our fundamental rights.

It is true, what has been here advanced, may seem needless at present, when all things are presumed to go well; but these notions may be of use to after-ages.

The duty which private persons owe to the public lies in a very narrow compass, and, when that is thoroughly performed, a country seldom fails to see a steady course of wisdom and honesty in such as are trusted with the administration. This duty may chiefly consist in the following particulars:

1st, That such as represent the people be uncorrupt, unbiassed, and disinterested.

2dly, That they diligently attend the nation's service.

3dly, That they carefully watch any innovation or incroachments upon the constitution.

4thly, That they make provision against future evils.

5thly, That they look narrowly into the income and expence of the kingdom, and examine which way immense debts have been contracted, and how that money has been disposed of which the nation has already granted, and how these debts may be gradually lessened and discharged.

6thly, That they hold a strong hand over the men of business, calling those to an account who, either through folly, or upon some wicked design, peruse destructive measures.

1st. That such as represent the people be uncorrupt, unbiassed, and disinterested. This point we have handled sufficiently; and to what has been already said upon that subject, we shall now only add, that Rome was once free, that France heretofore had the three estates, which were the guardians of its liberty; that Spain had formerly many rights and privileges, of which nothing now but the shadow remains; That Denmark and Sweden had once constitutions something like that of England; and that all these countries have been enslaved by their own corruptions.

2dly, That they diligently attend the nation's service; for otherwise they do not discharge that duty to which they are chosen. It has been formerly a matter of great wonder, that gentlemen should even waste their fortunes to be elected representatives in parliament, and yet afterwards never mind that station, which they seemed before so vehemently to court. Cato had many virtues too high for practice, but he may be easily imitated in one good quality he had, of never failing to

be present in the senate. Such should give way to others, and make room for men of more leisure, who can afford to employ their time in the service of their country. But, above all others, they are to blame who can be drawn from their duty by luxury, laziness, and pleasures. Liberty can be hardly wounded in a full house; the attempts made upon it in former reigns were made when such as had no dependance upon the court were absent about their country business: the ill ministers of those days took that opportunity to promote taxes, which would never pass in a full assembly, to pass dangerous laws, to set a-foot new-invented corporations, which may be fatal in their consequences, and to form projects, either destructive to the nation in general, or ruinous to particular men. All the ill things that were done have been compassed when the negligence of some had made one side strong, and the other weak.

And if, in after-ages, any of the men of business should be so wicked as to proceed by the same councils, and to go by the like measures, they will promote their dark designs in some such juncture, when the best patriots shall be gone away, quite tired out by sessions artificially prolonged.

But it is the duty of all who love England, to defeat, by unwearied patience, such a conspiracy against the people; and to obviate such a mischief, if the ordinary rules cannot do it, extraordinary laws may be thought on to oblige the members to that attendance which they owe their country.

He who does not attend, injures the borough for which he serves; for it may so happen, that in his absence a thing may pass to their ruin who have sent him, and which his presence might have prevented; his electors, therefore, seem to have such a right to his service as in reason no others ought to dispense with, without their consent.

Deserting in this manner the public is a growing evil, upon which account it ought to have a timely remedy. Perhaps it might not be amiss, if a bill were brought in to make it highly penal for any member to be absent from the house above 14 days, without express leave first had under the seal of the borough for which he serves.

3dly, That they carefully watch any innovation or incroachments upon the constitution. There is nothing lulls a people asleep more, than the reign of a good prince, revered for his wisdom, feared for his high courage, beloved for his lenity, and admired for a number of other virtues; whereas, under a bad reign, the subjects are jealous and vigilant, though often to little purpose: however, it is agreed upon by all wise men, that the mild rule of Augustus contributed more to confirm the slavery of Rome, than all the severity and cunning of Tiberius.

The best times likewise produced the worst precedents; for, in good times, the people let many things slip, being then at their ease, not suspicious, and, consequently, not watchful over the government; but, where this supine temper prevails, mixed governments decline immediately into absolute power. The frequent contests that were of old between the senate and the people of Rome, without doubt preserved their freedom: for, where all are of one mind, ill use may be made of that unanimity, by some subtle, eloquent, and ambitious man, who may turn and rule it as he pleases: therefore to preserve constitutions that have a mixture in them of popular government, it is necessary there should be always some division, just enough to keep the minds of men awake, that they may observe what advantages one part of the state gets over the other.

Bad kings provoke many to look into their actions; but when the people have a good prince, they give a favourable interpretation to all he does.

And the best man that ever reigned may be ill served. It is a maxim of our law, That the king can do no wrong, but if an ill be committed in matters of state, the council must answer for it; if in matters of justice, the judges must answer for it. But though the laws exempt our kings from blame, they are not freed from the bad effects of ill conduct in their ministers.

He, therefore, who represents his country, cannot do the nation nor his prince better service, than to see those who sit at the helm do not run the ship upon dangerous rocks. Absolute dominion is a bait with which the greatest minds may be tempted; for they whose goodness is unlimited, may desire that their power should be so too; but no one man ought to think of being omnipotent, unless he could be omniscient and omnipresent. Besides, though princes may desire great power, that they may be able to do great good, such as serve them rarely proceed upon this principle. They often desire their masters should be arbitrary, in order to their own impunity, and to build a large fortune for themselves; for which reason they should be watched in all their windings, and followed in all their dark and subtle mazes.

It seldom happens that the liberties of a country are invaded all at once the steps of power are leisurely and slow; ministers who have it in their thoughts to change the nature of a government, go to work by degrees. At first they make use of the most popular hands they can possibly procure, ordering it so that the people may not perceive who it is that puts their fetters on; but these popular men they shove out, at the

first convenient season, that all may be of a piece. Their next business is to corrupt such persons as have the clearest fame, whom they discard when sufficiently tainted, and this they do that the people may think all mankind alike, which naturally drives them to follow those only who are in power, and who can do them service. Afterwards, they get from the nation all the money they can, the collecting of which creates new employments, and creates them a number of dependants, who, in one certain place, are their chief strength and best support: by the distribution of these sums, they likewise make more friends. But being never out of fear of accounting for all at last, their principal aim is to procure their master such a **STANDING REVENUE**, as may make him subsist without the people's help, without the necessity of a parliament. If they find this impossible or difficult, then by accusations, by exorbitant proceedings without any precedent, and by harrassing private persons, either in their fame or fortune, they endeavour to make all the different ranks of the people out of love with their ancient constitution.

It has been often observed of this nation, That we have lost by **TREATIES** what we have gained by **VALOUR**; and indeed it is very evident, that we have been constantly out-witted in the pacts and stipulations we have made with foreign states and princes, as well concerning interest as dominion: they who could never face us in the field have over-reached us in the cabinet, and all along we have seemed stronger in a battle than in council.

It is, perhaps, no wonder that our honest and plain ancestors should not have sufficient skill to deal with the riper heads of warmer climates; but we may admire how it comes to pass that our neighbours the Hollanders in all treaties, but chiefly such as respect **COMMERCE**, have been ever too able for us, whom our vices have made crafty enough in other matters.

Their soil does not generally produce better understandings than that of England; learning flourishes with us as much as with them; our people have sharper wits; we are more cunning in a court than they; and yet, when we come to treat with them, they are always too subtle for us.

But the reason of this is apparent to such as examine into the business; for, as Sir Josiah Child has excellently well observed, 'They have in their greatest councils of state and war **TRADING MERCHANTS**, that have lived abroad in most parts of the world, who have not only the **THEORETICAL KNOWLEDGE**, but the **PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE** of **TRADE**, by whom laws and orders are contrived, and peaces with foreign princes projected, to the great advantage of their trade.

And the concerns of commerce being made among them a matter of state (as it should be in this nation particularly) they commit the care of it to the ablest heads they have, by whose assistance and wisdom they have all along got the better of us and other countries.

In the reign of king James I. they obtained that the business of Amboyna should be flurried over; and so they have secured to themselves a firm possession of the Spice Islands.

The peace of Munster was likewise very advantageous to the Dutch in all matters that had relation to their traffic, but especially in the plate trade from Cadiz.

In the reign of king Charles II, by delays and artifice, they got the taking of Bantam passed over in silence, by which, in a manner, they have engrossed to themselves the rich commodity of pepper.

It is likewise said, when the book of rates was compiled, that the French knew how to plant somewhere a great sum very skilfully, by the help of which they procured that the **CUSTOMS** and **DUTIES** upon their product should be light, and heavy upon that of Spain; though apparently we got by one country, and though we were thought to lose by the other in the general balance.

It will not, perhaps, be seasonable to expect any redress as to past injuries, and peradventure some of our former errors are capable of little remedy for the present; but the wisdom of the state will undoubtedly provide, that England shall be better dealt with in future treaties.

Our **LAND-WARS** have plunged us in debt, and incumbered us with taxes unspeakably injurious to our commerce. It is well known our proper business had been to have insisted only upon our **STRENGTH AT SEA**, for a large fleet would have always guarded and secured our traffic, and would have kept that money within the kingdom which has been sent out to pay **LAND-ARMIES IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES**.

But as in pursuing quite a contrary course, we more consulted the direct and immediate concern and interest of others, than our own; so, in reason and equity, the peaces which our money and arms have chiefly procured, should have been as advantageous to this kingdom, as convenient to the rest of Europe.

And yet we shall reap but little profit from all our expence of blood and treasure, unless the traffic of England be thereby put upon a safe and equal foot with all its neighbours.

The protection and care of trade will, therefore, very much consist in the measures that shall be taken in this present juncture, to secure us against our neighbours.

These memento's may possibly have their use, more especially with the younger and less experienced members of that august assembly, from whose wisdom we expect every blessing.

An act of parliament made in the third year of Geo. III. relating TO BANKRUPTS, BEING INTITLED TO THE PRIVILEGE OF PARLIAMENT, AND BECOMING INSOLVENT.

Whereas merchants, bankers, brokers, factors, scrivenors, and traders, within the description of the statutes, relating to bankrupts, having privilege of parliament, are not compellable to pay their just debts, or to become bankrupts, by reason of the freedom of their persons from arrests upon civil process; and some doubts have also arisen, whether in cases of bankruptcy, a commission can be sued out during the continuance of such privilege: To remedy which inconveniences, and to support the honour and dignity of parliament, and good faith and credit in commercial dealings, which require that in such cases, the laws should have their due course, and that no such merchants, bankers, brokers, factors, scriveners, or traders, in case of actual insolvency, should by any privilege whatever, be exempted from doing equal justice to all their creditors; it is enacted, &c.

That from and after 12 May 1764, it shall be lawful for any single creditor, or two or more creditors, being partners, whose debt or debts shall amount to 100 l. or upwards, and for any two creditors, whose debts shall amount to 150 l. or upwards, or any three or more creditors, whose debts shall amount to 200 l. or upwards, if any person or persons deemed a merchant, banker, broker, factor, scrivener, or trader or traders, within the description of the acts of parliament relating to bankrupts, having privilege of parliament, at any time, upon affidavit or affidavits being made and filed on record in any of his majesty's courts at Westminster, by such creditor or creditors, that such debt or debts is or are justly due to him or them respectively, and that every such debtor, as he or they verily believe, is a merchant, banker, broker, factor, scrivener, or trader, within the description of the statutes relating to bankrupts, to sue out of the same court summons, or an original bill or summons, against such merchant, banker, &c. and serve him with a copy thereof; and if such merchant, banker, &c. shall not within two months after personal service of such summons, (affidavits of the debt or debts having duly been made and filed as aforesaid) pay, secure, or compound for, such debt or debts, to the satisfaction of such creditor or creditors, or enter into a bond in such sum, and with two such sufficient sureties, as any of the judges of that court, out of which such summons shall issue shall approve of, to pay such sum as shall be recovered in such action or actions, together with such costs as shall be given in the same, he shall be accounted and adjudged a bankrupt from the time of the service of such summons; and any creditor or creditors may sue out a commission against any such person, and proceed thereon in the like manner as against other bankrupts.

Provided always, and it is hereby declared, that this act shall not extend, or be deemed or construed to extend, to any such debt or debts as aforesaid contracted, before the eighth day of March 1763, any thing herein contained to the contrary thereof in any wise notwithstanding.

And be it further enacted, That if any merchant, banker, &c. shall, after the last day of this session of parliament, commit any act of bankruptcy, that then, and in such case, any creditor or creditors as aforesaid, may sue out a commission of bankrupt against such merchant, banker, &c. and the commissioners in such commission, and other persons may proceed thereon in like manner as against other bankrupts; any privilege of parliament to the contrary notwithstanding.

Provided nevertheless, and be it enacted, That nothing in this act shall subject any person intitled to privilege of parliament to be arrested, or imprisoned, during the time of such privilege, except in cases made felony by the acts relating to bankrupts, or any of them.

PARTNERSHIPS in trade, are where two or more persons agree to engage in commerce, either in equal shares or otherwise.

With respect to domestic partnerships in trade in England, there are various adjudicated cases, which ought not to be disregarded by those who enter into such kind of agreements.

Where there are two joint traders, and one accepts a bill, drawn on both him and partner, it binds both if it concerns the trade; otherwise, if it concerns the acceptor only in a distinct interest and respect. 1 Salk. 126.

A. and B. were partners as woollen drapers, A. received money in the shop of S. S. and gave a note for it signed for himself and partner; A. and B. being both dead, and A. not leaving sufficient assets, it was held on a bill brought by S. S. against the executors of both the partners, that this note being given by one of the partners, it should bind them both; and that though at law it binds only the executor of the sur-

viving partner, yet in equity the creditor may follow the estate of the other, though no proof was made that this money was brought into the stock, or used in trade. 2 Vern. 277.

The act of one partner shall be presumed the act of the other, and shall bind him, unless he can shew a disclaimer, and a refusal to be concerned. 1 Salk. 292.

A. and B. are copartners, and a judgment is had against A. and the goods of both taken in execution; it was held by the court, that the sheriff must seize all, because the moieties are undivided; for if he seize but a moiety and sell that, the other will have a right to a moiety of that moiety; therefore he must seize the whole, and sell a moiety thereof undivided, and the vendee will be tenant in common with the other partner. 1 Salk. 392.

But though a moiety of a joint stock may be taken in execution on judgment against one partner; yet, if copartners become bankrupts, the joint estate is to discharge the joint debts in the first place, and the separate estate to pay the separate debts; and if there be no separate estate, then the residue of the joint estate, after the joint creditors are satisfied, to be applied among the separate creditors, and so vice versa; for the commissioners of bankrupts are intrusted both with a legal and equitable jurisdiction, and may therefore marshal the different effects, and apply them in discharge of the different creditors according to equity and justice. 2 Vern. 293. 706. 2 Chon. Ca. 228.

The plaintiff's husband (to whom she is administratrix) and the defendant were copartners for many years in the trade of a druggist; the plaintiff brought her bill for a discovery of the estate, and her proportion and dividend thereof, &c. the defendant answered, and it appearing that many debts owing to the joint trade stood out, it was moved on behalf of the plaintiff, that an able attorney might be appointed to sue for, and receive those debts; it being alleged in the bill, that the defendant carrying on a distinct trade for himself, with the persons that were debtors to the joint trade, to oblige them, he forbore to call in their debts; it was ordered accordingly, unless the defendant, within a week, would give security to the plaintiff, to answer her moiety of the debts that were standing out. 1 Vern. 118.

For accounts as stated in partnership, according to the most accurate methods of double entry. See our article *MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANSHIP*.

For other sorts of PARTNERSHIPS in trade, see our article *ANONYMOUS PARTNERSHIPS*.

PARMA, a duchy in Italy, is bounded on the north by the Po, which divides it from the Milanese and Cremonese; on the south it has part of the territory of Genoa, and duchy of Modena; on the east, part of the duchy of Modena; and on the west, the Paviese.

The parts into which it is commonly divided are, the duchy of Parma strictly so called, that of Placenza, the state of Buffeto, and part of that of the valley of Taro, commonly called Val di Taro. Between Parma and Modena are the states of Pallavicini and Londi, which are commonly distinguished from those duchies, because they anciently formed two separate states from them. The first of them contains the marquisate of Buffeto, and Borgo de san Domino, and wholly belongs to the duke of Parma; and that of Londi is divided between that prince, who hath in it the Val de Taro, and the prince of Doria, who hath that of Bandi.

The revenue of this dukedom is reckoned to amount to 400,000 crowns, and the ordinary forces of it to 5 or 6000 men. The country is very delightful and fertile, producing great plenty of corn of all sorts, excellent wine and oil, and was famous formerly for its fine cheese, which was in high request all over Europe; but they are now much outdone by the city and territory of Lodi. Other manufactures, such as silk, woollen, linen, &c. are likewise carried on here, as in other parts of Italy.

The chief places of this duchy are, Parma, the capital, Placenza, Borgo de Santo Domino, Borgo de Val de Taro, and Ferenzula or Florentiola.

Besides these, there are reckoned above 30 other towns belonging to it, which, for the most part, are considerable for their largeness, or on some other accounts.

PARMA, the famed metropolis of this dukedom, is pleasantly situate on the river of that name, but whether it gave it to, or received it from it, is not easy to guess. It has three stately stone bridges over it, by which it keeps a convenient communication with its suburb on the other side of it: and is about four miles in circumference, well-peopled, and seated in the midst of a pleasant fertile soil, which supplies it with plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, and every thing it wants for use or delight.

It stands about 10 miles from the Po, on the south side of it, and in the middle way between Modena and Placenza, 35 miles east of the first, and as many west of the other, 73 north-west from Florence, 77 south-east from Milan, and above 200 from Rome, lat. 44. 43. lon. 10. 55. east.

PLACENZA, so called from its most agreeable situation and exquisite beauty, above all other cities of Italy, is seated in the midst of a spacious fertile plain, about 100 yards distant from

from the Po and the Trebia, and watered with a number of small brooks and canals, and sheltered on all sides with pleasant hills, and both they and the plain producing great plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, &c. excellent each in their kind. It has likewise very good pasture-grounds, breeds great quantities of cattle, and is famed for making a fine sort of cheese, not inferior to that of Parma and Lodi. Here are likewise in it's neighbourhood some salt springs, from which they make a fine salt, exceeding white, and in great request. The hills about it have iron mines, plenty of wood, timber, warrens, and parks, all which are so inviting and commodious, that the city is always full of inhabitants, especially merchants and tradesmen, who carry on a very considerable commerce; insomuch that one of their fairs, which begins on the 15th of April, lasts to the end of the month.

PASSPORT, SAFE-CONDUCTS, and PROTECTIONS.

A passport, or safe-conduct, is a security given by the king, under the great seal, to a stranger, for his safe coming into and passing out of the realm, and touching which there are several statutes. A passport signifies a licence granted by any person in authority, for the safe passage of a man, or any ship, &c. from one place or country to another.

As to protections, there are two sorts, a public protection, where a prince takes upon him the defence of another prince or state, for his honour or profit, or a private protection of persons or ships, which is, in effect, no more than a passport for such purpose. By the law of protection, he that is protected owes all respect and honour to his protector, against whom he ought not to conspire, or attempt any thing; and, on the other hand, the protector ought to succour and defend the protected, and use him well, for otherwise he may withdraw himself from the protection, and seek another. The Genoese having put themselves under the protection of the French king, revolted, whereupon he changed their conditions into privileges, to the end it might be in his will to deprive them of them when he should think fit. Molloy, Jur. Marit. 84.

In protections of ships and persons, there is generally great faith kept by the granters thereof; for at this day, if a ship hath the emperor of Barbary's protection, the pirates of that nation, if they seize any ship, will restore it; and if there be no protection, yet, if the ship be taken within sight of their castles, the prize is not absolute; but if resistance is made, and there be a caption, she then becomes the captor's for ever, as the price of blood.

The statute of Magna Charta, 9 Hen. III. cap. 30. ordains, That all merchants strangers shall have safe-conduct of coming into, going out of, and remaining in England, to buy and sell, &c. if they are not openly prohibited, except in time of war, and they are of an enemy's country; and; by 27 Edw. III. cap. 2. safe-conduct is to be granted to merchants strangers, not alien enemies, to come and dwell in this kingdom, and return at their pleasure, as also to sell their goods and commodities, without having them taken from them against their wills.

By the act 15 Hen. VI. cap. 3. it is recited, That whereas the lord the king hath granted his letters of safe-conduct to certain persons to come in and go out of the realms of England and Ireland, with a certain number of ships charged with their merchandizes, and faith and credit should as well be given to the copy called Vidimus, sealed under the authentic seals, and approved, as to the original of the said letters; and that one John de Guntier granted and delivered such copy of the said safe-conduct, to as many persons as he pleased, sealed with the seal of him that called himself king of France, under colour of which, a great navy of enemies was assembled, and took many ships, and the king's liege subjects and victuals to the towns and fortresses of the adversaries carried, to the great damage of the king, and his realm of England, &c.

The said lord the king, at the grievous complaint to him made thereof by the commons in parliament, considering the great inconveniences which might ensue by such evil use of his letters of safe-conduct, doth will and ordain, and hath commanded by the authority aforesaid, to the keepers of his great and privy seal, that they shall not suffer such clause Vidimus to be put in any safe-conduct from henceforth to be granted, unless some great or notable cause move the same lord the king to grant the same in such wise: and willeth also, that in all safe-conducts to be granted for the future to any person or persons, the names of them, of the ships, and of the masters, and the number of the mariners, with the portage of the ships, shall be expressed.

By the 18th of Hen. VI. cap. 8. it is ordained, That merchants aliens may at their pleasure charge ships and vessels of Spain, and other parts enemies of the king, if the masters, owners, or merchants of such vessels and ships, have the king's letters patents of safe-conduct, surety, or safe-guard, for the said ships and merchandizes, making mention of the names of the ships or vessels, and of the masters thereof, as the manner is. And if any such ships charged or laden with any merchandizes of such merchants aforesaid, be taken upon the sea by the king's subjects, not having authentic safe-con-

ducts for them, within the board of such ships or vessels, at the day of the taking, or not being enrolled in the chancery of record, then the takers and possessors of the goods and merchandizes so taken may enjoy and hold the same; and proclamation is to be made of this statute on the sea-coasts, to the intent that the said merchants aliens may have knowledge thereof.

The goods and merchandizes loaded in the said ships and vessels of Spain, and other parts, enemies aforesaid, sometimes by false witness, marks, and letters testimonials, contrived before the making of this act, were restored to the said merchants aliens, together with damages and expences, on suit made before the king and his council, or before the chancellor of England, to the great loss of the owners, masters, and mariners, takers of the said ships, &c. and discouragement of the king's liege people to take such ships and vessels, and also the hindrance of the navy of the realm: all which is set forth in the preamble of the said statute.

By 20 Hen. VI. cap. 1. All letters of safe-conduct granted to the king's enemies, or any other persons, shall be enrolled in the chancery of the lord the king, of record, before such letters shall be delivered to them to whom the same shall be granted, or shall be void and of no effect: and if, at any time hereafter, any goods or merchandizes are taken by English subjects upon the sea, or the coasts of the same, laden in any ship or vessel belonging to enemies, and not having sufficient letters of safe-conduct, enrolled in form aforesaid, they which shall so take the same goods shall enjoy them, without any restitution thereof to be made, to whatever persons the said goods or merchandizes, at the time of taking, or before, were belonging.

And the king's subjects taking such ships laden with merchandize, not having or shewing letters of safe-conduct, and bringing them by force to a certain port within the realm, shall not receive damage in their persons or goods for so doing, if they be ready to make full restitution of the same ships and merchandize, within a reasonable time after they shall have knowledge of letters of safe-conduct enrolled in the said chancery of record before the taking of them.

The statute 31 Hen. VI. cap. 4. enacts, That if any subjects offend upon the high seas, or in any port within the kingdom, and do damage to any person or persons being strangers in amity, league, or truce with us, or having the king's safe conduct, and especially in attacking any such strange person, and robbing and spoiling of him, his ship or goods, &c. the chancellor of England for the time being (as well for the deliverance of any such person so attacked, as to make restitution to every person robbed or spoiled of ships or goods, of the value thereof) shall have authority, calling to his assistance one of the judges, upon a bill of complaint to him made in this behalf, to make such process out of the chancery against the offenders, to bring them in there, to answer to the parties grieved as aforesaid, and against any other persons to whose hands any person so attacked, ship or goods shall come, and also for delivery and restitution by them to be made of the same persons, ships, and goods, as shall seem to the said chancellor expedient and necessary.

And upon this process made out, the chancellor shall further proceed, if the case so require, by advice of any such judge, to make to the persons strangers that are grieved, full delivery and restitution of any person attacked, and of all such ships and goods, and likewise all their costs, expences, and losses disbursed and suffered by them, and thereupon to award all manner of execution out of the chancery, as shall be necessary for such delivery and restitution to be had and made as aforesaid.

A late act, 4 Geo. II. cap. 18. recites, That treaties are subsisting between the king and the several subjects of Barbary, by which it is stipulated, that all ships belonging to his Majesty, or his subjects, may pass the seas, and enter into the harbours of the said governments, without any seizure or molestation, upon producing passes of a certain form, under the hand and seal of the commissioners for executing the office lord high-admiral, called Mediterranean passes. It is, therefore, enacted and ordained, That if any person shall, within his Majesty's dominions, or without the same, falsly forge or counterfeit any pass for any ship, commonly called a Mediterranean pass, or shall utter or erase any pass made out by the commissioners for executing the said office of lord admiral; or shall publish as true, any forged, altered, or erased pass, knowing the same to be forged, &c. every such person being convicted in Great-Britain, Ireland, or his Majesty's plantations where such offence shall be committed, shall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

And the said offences, which shall be committed in any place out of Great-Britain, either within the dominions of his Majesty or without, may be tried and adjudged in any county of England, by virtue of the king's commission of oyer and terminer and goal delivery, or before any court of judicature in Scotland.

By the laws of France, no vessel shall go out of any port of that kingdom to put to sea, without a passport from the admiral, recorded at the admiralty-office, of the place from whence the master departs, and within twenty-four hours af-

ter the master's arrival in any port, he shall present his passport, and declare the place and time of his departure, the burthen and lading of his ship, the course he has steered, the hazards he hath run, the disorders happened in his ship, and all the considerable circumstances of his voyage, &c. And by a treaty marine, made by king Charles II. with the king of France [see MARINE TREATIES] in the year 1677, a form of passport (or sea brief) is appointed, to be given by the lord high-admiral of England, or those to whom the exercise of admiralty jurisdiction is ordinarily committed; or by the mayor or other chief magistrate, or the commissioners or other principal officers of the customs, in their respective ports, and places within the dominions of the king of Great-Britain, to ships and vessels, which passport is as follows, viz.

An English passport for shipping.

To all to whom these presents shall come, greeting, Thomas earl of P. lord high admiral of England, &c. or we A. B. C. D. E. F. &c. Esqrs, lords commissioners for executing the office of lord high-admiral. Or we the commissioners, or principal officer of the customs in the city or port of, &c. do testify and make known, That G. H. master or commander of the ship called the Prince Frederic, hath appeared before us, and hath declared by solemn oath, That the said ship or vessel, containing about two hundred tons, of which he is at present master, as aforesaid, doth belong to the inhabitants of &c. within the dominions of the king of England: and in regard that it would be more acceptable to us, that the said master or commander be assisted in his just and lawful affairs, and we hereby request you, and every of you, wheresoever the said master or commander shall arrive with his ship, and the goods laden on board and carried in her, that you will please to receive him courteously, and use him kindly; and admit him, upon paying the lawful and usual customs, and other duties, to enter into, remain in, and pass from, your ports, rivers, and dominions, and there to enjoy all kind of right of navigation, traffic, and commerce, in all places where he shall think fit, without any interruption; which we shall most willingly and readily acknowledge, upon all occasions: in testimony and confirmation whereof, we have, with our hands, signed these presents, and caused them to be sealed with our seal. Day the day of, &c. in the year, &c. And the like form of passport (mutatis mutandis) shall be used by the most Christian king of France.

The form of a Dutch passport or certificate, for ships that go from the United Provinces.

To the most serene, most illustrious, most mighty, most honourable, and prudent lords, emperors, kings, commonwealths, princes, dukes, counts, barons, lords, burgomasters, sheriffs, counsellors, judges, officers, justices, and regents of all cities and places, as well ecclesiastical as secular, who shall see or read these presents. We burgo-masters and governors, of the city of &c. do certify, that A. B. ship-master, appearing before us, hath declared by solemn oath, that the ship called, &c. containing about, &c. lasts, of which he is the present master, belongeth to inhabitants of the said United Provinces, so help him God. And as we would willingly see the said ship-master assisted in his just affairs, we do request you and every of you, where the above said master shall arrive with his ship and goods, that you will please to receive him; courteously, and use him kindly; admitting him upon paying the usual dues, tolls, and other customs, to enter into, remain in, and pass from your ports, rivers, and territories, and there to trade, deal, and negotiate in any port or place, in such sort and manner as he shall desire, which we shall most readily acknowledge on the like occasion. In witness whereof, we have caused the seal of our city to be hereunto put.

A general maritime passport for a Swedish or other ship to pass the Sound of Denmark.

The consuls and senators of the town of, &c. certify, That the ship, &c. commanded by, &c. belongs to our said town (or some other town) in Sweden, and is laden only with goods belonging to Swedes, and bound for the ocean, as the master and the owners thereof have declared before us in our court, desiring this certificate as a proof of the same; the ship and goods being thereby to be exempted from all taxes and vexations in the passage of the Sound and the Belt, according to the treaties between the two kingdoms. In testimony whereof, we have caused the seal of the town to be put to these presents, which we have likewise caused to be signed by the clerk. Given, &c.

PATENTS. Letters patent are writings of the king, sealed with the great seal of England, whereby a person is enabled to do or enjoy that, which otherwise he could not do; and so called, because they are open with the seal affixed, and ready to be shewn for confirmation of the authority thereby given: and we read of letters patent to make denizens, &c.

The chief LAWS of ENGLAND relating to PATENTS.

A monopoly is an allowance of the king by his grant, commission, or otherwise, to any person or persons, for the sole buying, selling, making, working, or using of any thing, by which other persons are restrained of any freedom or liberty that they had before, or hindered in their lawful trade. Though a monopoly may be more truly defined to be, a kind of commerce in buying, selling, exchanging, or bartering, usurped by a few, and sometimes but by one person, and forestalled from all others, to his or their private gain, and to the hurt and detriment of other men; whereby of course, or by authority, the liberty of trade is restrained, and the monopolist enabled to set what price he pleases on commodities.

These monopolies used in this kingdom, have been distinguished into three parts: first, reasonable, of things and trifles for pleasure, such as cards, lutestrings, tobacco, or the like; secondly, unreasonable, as of flesh, fish, butter, cheese, or other needful things for the sustenance of man, without which he can hardly live: thirdly, indifferent, as of velvets, silks, spices, and other delicacies and curiosities, which are indifferent to be used or not. But all monopolies are contrary to the ancient and fundamental laws of this realm, and are against the freedom of trade, &c. Upon this ground it hath been held, that the king's grant to any corporation of the sole importation of any merchandize by our common law, is void.

Some men are satisfied, if a prohibition of a commodity be made by act of parliament, and they will not call it a monopoly, though it be so in effect; as when a society of private merchants have a privilege to themselves only, to sell certain commodities, or to import them, and all other subjects are excluded, although they were neither the discoverers or first inventors thereof: but if it be done by the king's prerogative, then they take it to be a monopoly. There are others who would have all things at large in the course of traffic, and that there should be no societies or corporations of merchants for any places of trade: for by way of partnership merchants might associate themselves, to make or enterprize any voyages, or in sending any goods or merchandize abroad, without having regard to our companies for carrying on trade, some whereof are of great antiquity. And other persons make a difference between companies or associations, dealing in a joint-stock or a-part, affirming the management of a joint-stock to be within the compass of a monopoly; nevertheless, they would be contented to tolerate the same for the employment outward, but for returns homeward, they would have a particular division of the commodities which they receive.

The learned judge Vaughan says, that if the exportation or importation of a commodity, or the exercise of a trade be prohibited generally by parliament, and no cause expressed of the prohibition, a licence may be granted by the king to one or more persons without limitation to export or import, or to exercise the trade: for by such general restraint, the end of the law is no more than to limit the over-numerous exporters, importers, or traders in that kind, by putting them to the difficulty of procuring licences, and therefore such general licences shall not be accounted monopolies. In these cases, the law implies that the king may license, as well as if the prohibitory law had been, that no such exportation, &c. should be without the king's express licence. Vaugh. Rep. 345.

Here we have given the various opinions of different men, concerning what is a monopoly, or not so; and now we shall take particular notice of the great case of monopolies in the reign of queen Elizabeth, as transmitted down to us by that excellent lawyer Sir Edward Coke. Queen Elizabeth intending that her subjects being able men fit for husbandry, should be exercised therein and not employ themselves in making playing cards, which had not been any ancient manual occupation within this realm; and considering that by making a multitude of cards, card-playing was become more frequent, and especially among servants and apprentices, and poor artificers; and to the end her subjects might apply themselves to more laudable and necessary trades, by her letters patents under the great seal, dated the 13th of June, in the thirtieth year of her reign, granted to R. R. Esq; full power, licence, and authority, by himself, his servants, factors, and deputies, to provide and buy in any parts beyond the sea, all such playing cards as he thought good, and to import them into this kingdom, and to sell them within the same; and that he, his servants, factors, and deputies, should have and enjoy the whole trade, traffic, and merchandize, of all playing cards, to have and to hold for twelve years: and by the same letters patent, the queen charged and commanded, that no person or persons beside the said R. R. &c. should import or bring any cards into this realm, during the said time, nor make buy, or sell, any such playing cards, &c. upon pain of the queen's highest displeasure, and of such fine and punishment as offenders deserve in case of voluntary contempt.

On an action of the case brought by the patentee against one for importing and making cards contrary to these letters patent,

tent, notwithstanding the glorious preamble and pretence thereof, it was resolved that this grant was void: for it is a monopoly, and against the common law, and likewise divers acts of parliament; for all trades, as well mechanical as others, which prevent idleness (the bane of the commonwealth) and exercise men and youth, for the maintenance of themselves and their families, and for increase of their substance, to serve the queen when occasion shall require, are profitable to the realm. And the sole trade of any mechanic art, or any other monopoly, is not only a damage and prejudice to those who exercise the same trade, but also to all other subjects, for the end of these monopolies is for the private gain of the patentees: and there are three inseparable incidents to every monopoly, against the commonwealth, i. e. the price of the same commodity will be raised; after the monopoly granted, the commodity is not so good and merchantable as it was before, and it tends to the impoverishment of divers artificers and others, who before, by the labour of their hands in their art or trade, had supported themselves, but now will be idle and in beggary.

And it is evident by the act of 3 Edw. IV. cap. 4. that the importation of foreign cards was prohibited, at the grievous complaint of the poor artificers card-makers, who were not able to live at their trades, if such cards should be imported; and the said act provides remedy for maintaining of the trade of making cards, so far as it maintained many families by their labour and industry; and the like provision is made 1 Rich. III. cap. 12. and persons may not be restrained from exercising any trade, but by parliament. Now when the wisdom of the parliament has made a statute to restrain, for the good of the public, the importation of foreign manufactures, to the intent that the subjects of the realm might be employed in making of the said manufactures, &c. and thereby maintain themselves and their families; to grant the sole importation of them to one for private gain, or to divers without limitation, notwithstanding the said statute, is a monopoly against the common law: and therefore the dispensation or licence to have the sole importation and merchandizing of cards (without any limitation or stint) notwithstanding the act 3 Edw. IV. is utterly against law. Adjudged Trin. 44. Eliz. 11 Co. Rep. 84, 85.

King Edward III. by his letters patents, granted to one John Peche, the sole importation of sweet wines into London, and at a parliament held 50 Edw. III. this grant was declared void. And queen Elizabeth having granted unto certain patentees, the sole coinage and transportation of all the tin in Cornwall and Devonshire for 21 years, under a large yearly rent to be paid at the Exchequer. Adjudged, that this patent was a monopoly, anno 13 Jac. I.

In an action the plaintiff set forth, that in the reign of Hen. IV. there was a society of merchant-adventures in England, and queen Elizabeth did incorporate them by that name, with privilege to trade to Holland, Brabant, Flanders, &c. prohibiting all others not free of that company from trading thither; and that the defendant not being free of that company, did trade there without their leave, and imported goods to their damage, &c. To which the defendant pleaded the statute 15 Edw. III. That the seas shall be open to all merchants to pass with their merchandize whither they please: the question was here, whether the king had power to restrain his subjects from trading to particular places? This case was not determined; but the better opinion was, that such a grant was void, it agreeing with lord Coke's definition of a monopoly: it is against the statute of Edw. III. which gives liberty to merchants to buy and sell without disturbance; and it is expressly against the statute 21 Jac. I. The case of the East-India company is not like this, because that patent restrained the subject from trading with infidels, without leave; if it had been to restrain them from trading with Christians, it had been void. 3 Mod. Rep. 126.

By the stat. 21 Jac. I. cap. 1. it is enacted and ordained, that all monopolies, commissions, grants, letters patents, and licences, for the sole buying, selling, and making of goods and manufactures within the king's dominions; and all warrants, proclamations, and restraints, &c. for the erecting, strengthening, or countenancing thereof, against the tenor of any law or statute, shall be void: any persons grieved by the putting them in use, shall recover in the courts at Westminster treble damages and double costs, by action on the statute; and if any person shall cause such action to be stayed or delayed before judgement, by any order, warrant, &c. except only of the court where it is depending; or shall, after judgement had, cause or procure the execution to be stayed by colour or means of any such order, or warrant, power, or authority, save only by a writ of error or attain, he or they so offending, shall incur a premunire.

But this act doth not extend to any grants allowed or confirmed by act of parliament, nor to any grant or charter to any corporation, company, or fellowship of any art, trade or mystery, nor to any company or society of merchants for enlargement of trade; nor to grants of new manufactures, made to the inventors thereof by patent for fourteen years, being not contrary to law, or prejudicial to the commonwealth; nor to

any grant of privilege for printing, or making or compounding of salt-petre for gunpowder; or for casting or making ordnance, &c. and certain patents granted to divers persons, are excepted out of the statute.

And letters patent and grants of privilege heretofore made for 21 years, or under, to the inventors of any new manufactures, where they are not contrary to law or mischievous, by raising the price of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient, are saved; so also such patents granted heretofore for more than 21 years from the date thereof, notwithstanding this act.

All matters relating to monopolies, grants, licences, &c. shall be examined, heard, and determined, by and according to the common laws of this realm, and not otherwise; and the making use of or procuring any unlawful monopoly, is punishable by fine and imprisonment at common law. 3 Co. Inst. 181.

It is held, that a new invention to do as much work in a day by an engine, as formerly used to employ many hands, is contrary to the statute; by reason it is inconvenient, in turning so many men to idleness. And concerning inventors of new manufactures, &c. it hath been determined on this statute, that the manufacture in such case must be substantially new, and not barely an improvement of any old one, by any addition, &c. thereto, to be within the statute: it must be such, as no other persons used at the time of granting the letters patent; and no old manufacture in use before can be prohibited in any grant for any new invention. 3 Inst. 184.

A grant of a monopoly may be to the first inventor, by the 21st of Jac. I. and if the invention be new in England, a patent may be granted, though the thing was practised beyond sea before; for the statute mentions new inventions within the realm; so that if they be new here, it is within the act, which intended to encourage new devices useful to the kingdom; and it is the same thing, whether acquired by experience or travel abroad, and so brought hither, or by study at home. 2 Salk. 447.

A person had a grant by letters patent from king Charles II. for the sole printing of blank writs and bonds, &c. for the term of 30 years; and one Dorrel a stationer having printed five hundred blank bonds, action of the case was thereupon brought against him; who pleaded, that the company of stationers for the space of 40 years then last past, before the granting of these letters patents, had constantly printed blank bonds, and so made a general conclusion. It was here argued, that the king hath a prerogative in printing, and may grant it exclusive to others; and that such grants have been made by the kings of England ever since printing was invented, of which several instances were given. Now the statute against monopolies doth not reach to this case, because of the proviso therein to exempt all grants of sole printing; and there being an inherent prerogative in the king, in these cases, whenever he exerts it, all other persons are bound up, who were at liberty before.

To this it was answered and confessed, that the king hath a prerogative to grant the sole printing to a particular person; but then it must be in such cases, where no other persons whatsoever can claim a property in it: on considering printing as an art exclusive from the thing printed, this patent is not so good; for if a man invents a new art, and another learns it before the inventor can obtain a patent, if afterwards granted it is void: and then if this be considered in relation to the blank bonds printed, it is not a new invention, which might have made the grant good, because the stationers company have printed such so long time; and for that reason this patent is void, for where the invention is not new, their trade shall not be restrained. And sole printing is a manufacture, it is an art and skill, which the king cannot restrain; but when it is of publick concern, then the prerogative may interpose.

The court of King's-Bench made a difference in this case, between things of a public use, and those which are public in their nature; and the court inclined, that the patent was not good. 3 Mod. 75. 76. 78. 2 Nels. Abr. 899.

It is agreeable to our common law, and the fundamental laws of all nations, to grant projectors or inventors of useful things, privileges for twenty-one, fourteen, eleven, or seven years; and as to the time granted, the thing itself ought to make the difference, upon good consideration, and so as not to measure all things alike. But the general intention of all grants by letters patent for manufactures, hath or ought to have relation to set the people on work, to recompense the inventor of the art or science, and that things may, in some respect, be better and cheaper to the subjects.

There may be letters patents granted to reward a projector and the same be not any monopoly, although the public liberty may seem thereby to be restrained; and it may be rather a common distribution than restraint, whenever it brings a general good to the nation. The statutes of the kingdom, restraining from exercising divers crafts, all such as have not served an apprenticeship unto the art which they would exercise, do it to no other end but that those arts might be

brought to better perfection, and the things be good and serviceable for these that buy and use them.

REMARKS in another Light.

When private persons improve an old art, or invent or introduce from abroad a new one, they generally lay claim to the assistance of the public, either by bounty or a patent. A distinction should ever be made in the manner of encouraging a single invention or improvement, and an art capable of being carried into an extensive trade or manufacture. In the frequency of patents this has not always been attended to. No manufacture can be managed with secrecy. If one person only is at liberty to practise it publicly at home, some of the workmen or other person possessed of the secret, will find means to escape and carry it abroad, if it is a new invention. Whenever a new trade arises, the inventor or introducer deserves the honour and reward suitable to his merit; his art should be purchased by the public, and laid open, so that a number of rivals in the country where it is invented or introduced, may carry it expeditiously to a necessary height, and be ready to stock foreign markets as fast as possible. This would prove more nationally advantageous, than any person making a temporary monopoly of his art, and secreting the same to himself. It would be a great injury to the public, that the new-invented cotton-shag, or any of the variety of the new articles daily produced in the weaving counties, should be confined to the inventor; and yet where the FABRIC is quite new, he certainly merits due regard from the public; for want of which, the growth of our manufactures was ever very slow, compared to that of France.

Whenever an ingenious art is introduced from foreign parts, and advances successfully, no encouragement is so effectual as to check the importation of the same manufacture from abroad, not by high duties, which either promotes smuggling, or renders it more desirable, because the more dear and foreign, but by people of distinction, especially those in the legislative capacity, who should effectually prohibit and damn it, by discountenancing the wear at once, and making it unfashionable amongst us.—If this be done too soon, our own artists may not be obliged to exert their talents to excel, and the nation may leave the use of it from its dearth; and if so, we shall stand no chance to come in for a share of the supply of other nations: and if this be delayed too long, the patience and fortune of the ingenious undertakers may be exhausted, and the design given over. Next to knowing the principles of a manufacture, certain compendious methods are necessary to perform it with expedition. It is not enough to execute one piece, as well or better than the imported one; the more important point is to execute them in quantities, and this requires length of time and practice; and 'till this can be brought to bear, some public encouragement should not be refused to the first of our own undertakers.

Among single inventions or secrets, the boasted remedies of the faculties are commonly rewarded by patent. Whether this is for the public interests, see the article QUACKS.

However right it may be, that the inventors should keep their secrets to themselves, yet is there not an apparent absurdity in soliciting an exclusive privilege for the sole making of what they say no one can make but themselves; is it not desiring a permission from the king to keep their own secret?

The common argument runs for the preventing counterfeits. And in this light, the general good requires they should be indulged with a patent, that all similar ways of injuring the health of his Majesty's subjects should be restrained to one, which is paid for.

Sometimes the discovery is adjudged to have real merit, and to be useful to the public health. In which case, the parliament, in lieu of a monopoly, has thought proper to honour the inventor with a bounty, and so make a present of the remedy to the public: as we have seen done with relation to Mrs Stephens's cure for the stone, the universal medicine of Dr Ward, and formerly to the inventor of a specific for the gout.

Patents are frequent for books, which often promotes the pirating and printing them abroad, or in Scotland. In works of more expence than invention, and where the printer rather than the author applies to the public, perhaps this is the only practicable method of securing his property. But when the author has done a work evidently useful to the public, and an honour to the nation, it were to be wished he might at least be considered as the inventor of a new manufacture, and that rewards for good books were as common as for medicines. Burnet was honoured with the thanks of both houses of parliament for the History of the Reformation, and Mr Locke with a bounty for his Treatise on Interest and Coin. But nothing is more insecure in this nation than literary property, which we have shewn in our REMARKS under the article BOOK, and also in our REMARKS under the article BOOK-TRADE, and under the article COPIES of AUTHORS. Nor can any thing be a greater discouragement to men of genius and application, to devote themselves this way to the public service, nor does any thing call for greater attention from the legislature.

In relation to the laborious work wherein I am at present engaged, I have not applied for any patent, although I may presume to say, it is a work new of its kind in this nation, nor did any thing of that comprehensive nature ever before appear in any other state or country. My reasons for it are, that I thought it my duty first to experience the judgment of the public; thinking it something extraordinary, however common, for his Majesty's name to be annexed to a book, before the public or any body else, had ever seen one single sheet of it. However meritorious some books may be that have been thus printed, I cannot but think, in the general, such practices are highly impositious and deceitful upon the mass of the people, who are weak enough to imagine, that a book with a patent to it has the sanction and authority of his Majesty, or those officers of state, who are delegated to grant such powers and privileges; when the truth is, that neither the attorney or solicitor-general, any more than the secretaries of state, or the public, have ever seen a single sheet of such book; and the king knows no more of the merits thereof, than the emperor of China; nay, it is frequent, if I am rightly informed, to obtain patents for books, before any part of them has been begun to be written. And what is still more extraordinary, there are numbers of books published in this nation, with these words annexed to them, PRINTED AND PUBLISHED ACCORDING TO ACT OF PARLIAMENT, OR BY THE KING'S AUTHORITY: and numbers are made to believe, that the parliament have really made an act to encourage and propagate these works throughout the nation, which are generally in the greatest contempt, and only in esteem by the ignorant and deluded multitude. Do not abuses of this kind require redress? Is the sacred name of MAJESTY itself, and that of the PARLIAMENT of GREAT-BRITAIN also, to be thus prostituted, for the sake of the fees of a common patent?

When a work is finished and approved of in general by men of sense, candour, and impartiality, as a performance of solid and permanent utility to the kingdom, the author has a right not only to a patent, but to some other reward and protection than that will give him, and may with a good grace properly apply for them. But to obtain a patent for a book before any one knows any thing of its contents, and which turns out nothing but a barefaced piracy upon others of allowed merit, is raising a most impositious and arbitrary tax upon the public; and, what is still more intolerable, under the sanction and authority of the king and parliament, when neither of them know any thing of the matter.

The ingenious improvers of the engine for extinguishing fires, the solar and pocket microscopes, the air-pump, the reflecting telescope, and of other machines of curious structure, were properly indulged with patents. The contrivers of the fire-engine, the importer of the Italian throwing-mill, [see the REMARKS on the article DERBYSHIRE, and the infinite numbers daily inventing machines for shortening business, have generally been recompensed with a patent; and some few, if the machine was highly curious and useful, with a bounty and honours also.

The public can suffer nothing from a temporary monopoly of such machines, since one or two persons may easily supply as many as the nation will require of each, and they are things in their own nature durable, and of use only in particular places. Perhaps there are not more than two or three throwing mills in the kingdom, nor above an hundred fire-engines, or a thousand water-engines (for these are rare, except in towns) and in general the higher machines, like the most perfect animals, are fewest in number; some of them, perhaps, for the same reason as beasts of prey are observed to be so.

Manufactures of moderate expence and quick growth, may, in the general, safely be left to private adventurers, and run the common chance for success; the finer arts will never flourish but under public protection and noble patronage; no encouragements in the hands of private persons are adequate rewards to the man of genius, who studies the universal promotion of these more useful commercial arts, which give daily bread to millions of the human species, support the dignity of crowns, and the magnificence of the great and the wealthy. A noble profusion of honours and bounty raised the Gobelines to its present height; the united influence of these two being generally sufficient to call forth whatever human industry can attain to.

The house was the residence of two brothers, who first brought to Paris the secret of dyeing a curious scarlet, and failed in setting it on foot. The buildings went under the popular name of the folly of the Gobelines for many years, 'till the obloquy was taken off by a ROYAL EDICT, and the name changed by public authority to the more honourable one of the ROYAL MANSION OF THE GOBELINES. The scarlet colour was ordered to be called after the name of the inventors, and the little river Bievre, which runs by the building, receives the same distinction.

These in appearance were trifling matters, but will be sensibly felt by the man of genius. The same year the house was purchased by the king, and intitled the ROYAL MANUFACTURE OF THE CROWN FURNITURE; and provision was made by a ROYAL CHARTER, to render the place a

PERPETUAL SCHOOL and SEMINARY of the curious arts. Here the famous Colbert collected together from all parts of the world, the most able masters and designers, as well as inferior artists in the fine manufactures. Salaries were appointed for the directors, and pensions for life for the workmen; these were tapestry-weavers, engravers in etching and metzotintoes, goldsmiths, jewellers, carvers, and workers in ebony.

In this place was wrought all the magnificent furniture for fourteen ROYAL PALACES, which has since been deservedly the admiration of the world. Particular care was taken that no part should be furnished elsewhere, much less from abroad. All HONORARY PRESENTS to foreign princes and noblemen abroad, and to the ornament of TEMPLES and public buildings at home, were made in the best performances, instead of jewels or money. Many of the superior artists invited from foreign countries were made noble, and all of them had various honorary PRIVILEGES and ROYAL PENSIONS: the whole number, superior and inferior, were comprehended amongst the natives of France, and made free of Paris, with full liberty to practise there respective trades where they pleased, after working for a certain term in the Gobelins. This indulgence extends to all who shall at any time hereafter practise the limited time in this foundation. The whole quarter of the Gobelins was exempted from TAXES and IMPORTS, and had a court of judicature peculiar to itself, under the title of the COURT OF THE ROYAL ARTISTS. See the articles FRANCE, ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS.

Besides these, there are three other academies in Paris for the POLITE ARTS, with various privileges, honours, and pensions to the members, forming the governing part of each society: as the academy of PAINTING and SCULPTURE, that of ARCHITECTURE and the MILITARY one, of late foundation. Precedents inviting our attention and imitation, if the latter may not be said to command it. The two former and the academy of sciences are copied in Spain, and are equally liberal endowments.

In England, the stream of public favour and liberality has turned wholly to the advance of sciences; we have few or no institutions in favour of ARTS, no place of residence but for speculation. The ROYAL SOCIETY are indebted to the public only for their name. The academies for instructing youth in the rudiments of NAVIGATION and ENGINEERING, are mean in their endowments and trifling in their effects.

Amongst the many noble institutions of our times, it seems worthy of the glory of the nation, to make provision for the embellishment, splendor, and ornament of that country, for whose security, strength, and grandeur, they have so amply provided. Whoever recollects the establishment of NOVA SCOTIA, the HERRING FISHERY, the CAMBRIC ACT, the encouraging the manufacture of IRON in the PLANTATIONS, and the endowment of the FOUNDLING-HOSPITAL, may hope for any rational provision in this age.

An academy for the fine arts above-mentioned, under a ROYAL CHARTER, with distinguishing honours and privileges for the higher members, and small pensions for the lower, might give us a prospect of some perfection in the branches of TAPESTRY-WEAVING [see TAPESTRY-WEAVING], PAINTING [see PAINTING], SCULPTURE [see SCULPTURE], &c. and all the lower trades of elegance depending on fine design. Without some such public institution, they never yet were carried to an height in any country; no private fortune can stand out the time necessary to train up hands enough to extend the ART into TRADE: but when once a sufficient number were made perfect in this seminary, private adventurers would be found ready enough to take up the business; for no people ever wanted a trade, that abounded with working hands well instructed therein, and who could sell as cheap as other nations.

However useful upon particular occasions the granting of patents may prove, in the promotion of commercial arts, yet this practice should not absolutely preclude all other measures that may be prudential in the public to take for the like great and wise purpose. What these are, may be gathered from what we have suggested under the articles ARTIFICER, MANUFACTURER, ROYAL SOCIETY.

PEARLS, are little stones almost round, oval, or shaped like pears, compact, hard, smooth, white, shining, and of different sizes, which are formed in certain oysters, whose shells are of different bigness: but there are some of them met with that are three or four times as big as Rouen oysters. They fish for these pearl-oysters in the Eastern and Western Oceans, according to Tavernier. The ancients called these pearls uniones, because they believed there never was but one in an oyster; but they were deceived, for we sometimes find seven in a shell. They are bred from a viscous, or saline glutinous, humour, that is condensed and petrified in several parts of the fish.

Instead of a particular part being assigned for the generation of pearl, they breed indifferently in all the parts of the oy-

ster, but are most commonly found in the largest and best shaped oysters, rather than in others. Sometimes we meet with pearl in muscles, and other shell-fish, as well as in oysters. All pearl is esteemed cordial, proper against infection, to recruit and restore lost spirits; but its chief virtue is to destroy acids, as other alkies do, and likewise to correct the acrimony of the stomach. Pearl is likewise good against a canine appetite, a flux of the belly, the hemorrhage, &c. the dose from six or ten grains to a drachm.

Some pearls are very white, some inclining to yellow, and others upon the black, which are as it were, of a leaden colour. As to these last, they are met with no where but in America, and their colour comes from the nature of the soil, which is fuller of mud than that of the eastern parts.

In the return of the cargo, says Pomet, which the Sieur du Jardin, the famous Jeweller, had in the Spanish galleons, there were six pearls, perfectly round, but as black as jet, and which, one with another, weighed twelve carats each. He gave me these, among other things, to carry to the East-Indies, and see if I could dispose of them; but I brought them back again, and could meet with nobody that would look upon them. As for the pearls which are inclined to yellow, it proceeds from hence, that the fishermen selling the oysters in heaps, and the merchants staying sometimes fourteen or fifteen days before they open to take out the pearl, some of these oysters during this time lose their liquor, which wastes and stinks, and the pearl becomes yellow from the infection; which is so true, that in all the oysters that keep their liquor or water in them, the pearls are always white; but they wait till the oysters open of themselves, because if they should open them by force, as we do ours here, they would endanger the damaging and splitting the pearl. The oysters of the straits of Manar, open naturally five or six days sooner than those of the gulph of Persia; because the heat is much greater there, which is in the tenth degree of northern latude, than in the isle of Bahren, which is in the twenty-seventh; and therefore among the pearls that come from Manar, there are but few yellow ones. In short, the people of all the eastern countries are much of our minds, in relation to whiteness; for I have always made it my observation, that they love the whitest pearl, the whitest diamonds, the whitest bread, and the fairest women.

And though I have never been in America, yet as well for the reader's satisfaction, as that nothing may be omitted, I shall relate all the parts where the pearl-fishings are, beginning with those of the east. First of all, there is pearl-fishing about the isle of Bahren in the gulph of Persia. This belongs to the king of Persia, and therein is a good fortress that entertains a garrison of three hundred men. The water which they drink in this island, and that of the coast of Persia, is like salt water, and of an ill taste, and what none but those of the country are able to drink. As for strangers, if they will have fresh water, they must pay for it; being only to be had a league or two off, by putting to sea five or six persons in a little vessel, and drawing water with a bottle from the bottom of the sea, where for about two or three feet at the bottom, the water is sweet, and pleasant to drink. When they that dive to the bottom of the sea to draw up this water have filled the vessel and stopped it close, they give a pull to a small cord, which is tied to one of those in the boat, which is the signal to his comrades to pull him up.

During the time that the Portuguese were possessed of Ormus and Mascati, every vessel that went out to fish, was obliged to take from them a passport, that cost fifteen abissis, and they kept always several brigantines to sink such as refused. But since that, the Arabs have retaken Mascati, and the Portuguese have no forces upon the gulph, every man that fishes, pays only to the king of Persia five abissis, whether he has success in his fishery, or catches nothing at all. The merchant also gives some small matter to the king out of every thousand oysters. See ABISSIS.

The second fishery of pearls is opposite to Bahren, on the coast of Arabia Felix, near the city of Catifa, which belongs to a prince of the Arabs, with all the country thereabouts. All the pearls taken in those parts are mostly sold in the Indies, because the Indians are not so difficult to be pleased as we, and will take the rough as well as the round.

They likewise carry some to Balfora. Those that go into Persia and Muscovy are sold at Bander Congo, two days journey from Ormus. In all the places I have named, and other places of Asia, they admire the pearl that is upon the yellow water, more than the white; because they say the pearl with that water, retains its liveliness, and will not fade: but that the white will not last above thirty years, without losing its lively colour; and not only the heat of the country, but the sweat of the person that wears them, will discolour them with an ugly yellow.

Before we leave the gulph of Ormus, I must beg leave to give an account of that admirable pearl, which the prince of the Arabs had, who took Mascati from the Portuguese, who took then the name of Imencet, prince of Mascati, but was called before that, Auph Aen Ali, prince of Norenvaé. This prince had

had the finest pearl that was in the world, not for its size, for it weighed not above twelve carats, or its perfect roundness, but because it was so clear and transparent, that you might almost see clearly through it.

The most perfect pearls have in all ages been allowed to have been brought from the East-Indies. It is true, they do not at this day fetch so high a price in Europe as they did formerly; but still the Oriental pearls are of considerable value, and are like to continue so, inasmuch as they have all the properties that are requisite to render them fit to be reckoned amongst the most beautiful jewels that can be; neither is their any counterfeits, that at all approach them in their lustre: though people have attained in that art to a degree of perfection, scarce to be expected.

The fish that produces the pearl is a kind of oyster, but much larger than the common sort, or indeed than any that are found in our seas; they are common on the coast of Persia, near Ormus, about Cape Comorin, and on the coast of the island of Ceylon*. The shell-fish which produces them, is called the mother of pearl. The ancients have an opinion that thunder and storms had some effect in producing them, for which we shall be able to give a tolerable account, without admitting of any thing wonderful in the fact. The fishing of pearl was a thing always attended with great hazard and danger, such as were employed in it being often obliged to dive in places 30 fathom deep, where they were exposed to many ravenous monsters, peculiarly thirsting after human blood. They were let down out of the vessel to which they belonged with a weight of stone, fixed either to their side or to their feet, that they might descend the quicker and remain the more steady under water. In their right-hand they had a sharp iron, which they used for removing the oysters from their beds; and on their left arm hung a basket, in which they put the fish when they were caught, and about this arm also a cord was tied, by which they gave notice to those in the ship, when to pull them up by another cord that was about their middle†.

* Voyages des Indes, vol. v. p. 265. Par Monf. Reaumur.

† Ælian. de Animal. lib. x. cap. 13. lib. xv. cap. 8. Ammian. Marcel. lib. xxviii. cap. 12.

The largest sort of fish were found far in the sea, and if they were at any time driven upon the coast, it was by tempestuous weather. And hence the opinion arose, that great thunders and storms contributed to swell and to increase the pearl. The fact therefore was true, that after tempests the largest pearls were found: but the opinion grounded upon this, that the thunder was the cause of the pearl's increase, seems to have no foundation in reason. So easy a thing it is to mistake effects for causes, and to introduce errors in Natural Philosophy, by reasoning wrong upon facts. When the divers touched the oysters, especially those of the largest size, they clung so strongly to the rock, that, very often, there was no removing them, even with the help of their iron instrument. In the oysters they brought up, when opened, the pearls appeared like little drops of fair water or dew, which hardened by being exposed to the air, and were then carefully taken off the shell. In one oyster there was commonly ten or twelve, in some more, in some less; but the more they were, the smaller; and if there was but one, it was generally of a very considerable size, and of greater value than many small ones, so that these shells were esteemed the richest of all*. The shell itself is also of some value, as having a prodigious lustre, and being extremely fit for in-laying and other uses.

* Plin. Nat. Hist. lib. ix. cap. 35.

Philostratus has a very curious passage in relation to this subject, if his accounts could be absolutely depended upon; but whether they be or be not, what he relates is very remarkable, it deserves at least to be noticed, and then let the reader think for himself: the story, as he tells it, is this: some of the Indian pearl-fishers have a method of obtaining that valuable commodity, without bringing up the oysters at all. In order to this, the divers carry down with them a certain kind of rich perfume, which they hold before the mother of pearl; and while the fish sucks it, which it will do very greedily, they gently open the shell, from whence a liquor distils drop by drop, that presently harden into pearls*. It might be alledged, in support of this story, that both Athenæus and Pliny seem inclined to believe, that pearls are at first liquid; which is, indeed, agreeable enough to their form and to their lustre†.

* Philost. in vit. Apollon. Tyan. lib. iii. cap. 57, Tom. IV. lib. ii. cap. 20, 21.

† Athen. Deipn. lib. iii. p. 93. Plin. lib. ix. cap. 35.

At this day, there are four considerable pearl-fisheries in the east. The first, as observed, is on the coast of the island of Bahren, in the Persian Gulph, of which the Portuguese were

formerly masters, but now this fishery belongs to the Persians. The second is near Catifa, on the coast of Arabia the Happy, over-against Bahren. The pearls taken at these fisheries are most esteemed in the Indies, though of a yellowish cast. A great part of them are carried to Balfora, from whence they are distributed all over the Indies. They fish twice a year; first in the months of March and April, and again in the months of August and September. The depth wherein they fish, is from four to twelve fathoms; and the deeper the oyster is found, the pearls are the brighter, because the water is not so hot there, the sun not being able to penetrate so deep.

The third fishery is on the coast of the island of Ceylon. The pearls found there are of a good water, but small, and the greatest do not surpass two carats; nay, it is seldom that they are found of that weight: but, in recompence of this, there is great quantity of seed-pearl fit to powder. The fourth and last fishing is at Japan; the pearls there are of a water white enough, and heavy, but ill shaped, most of which fall into the hands of the Dutch East-India company, because the Japanese themselves have no esteem for jewels of any kind*. The poor people employed in these fisheries live very meanly, and scarce get a subsistence by them; even those who deal in pearls are far enough from being rich, through the oppression of their princes on one side, and the art of the Dutch on the other; who finding that the bright pearls taken on the coast of Ceylon are most esteemed, and go off on the greatest rate in Europe, employ a brachman to buy them up as they are caught, which he does at a very low rate:

* Tavernier Voyages aux Indes.

The persons concerned in this trade, launching out into greater expences than they can afford, and thereby subject themselves to the dreadful necessity of parting with the fruits of their industry to such as are possessed of money.

* This tempts some of them to a very base practice, which is throwing a poisonous drug into the sea, near the banks where the best fish lie; upon which they immediately remove to another coast, where such as are in the secret, fish for them, and become rich before their roguery is found out†.

* Voyages de la Blun, p. 330.

† Voyage de Thevenot, Tom. III. liv. ii. cap. 11.

There are now several pearl-fisheries established in the West-Indies, and in other parts of the world, as we shall shew in their proper places. But, as the value of those pearls arise from their approaching in their colour and water to the Oriental pearl, this sufficiently shews, that the excellence attributed to them by ancient writers, is not at all prejudiced by the discoveries made in later times, to which the policy of the Indian princes contributes not a little; for, by purchasing the finest pearls at high rates, they keep up their price to the Europeans, so that there never came such numbers into this part of the world as to sink them much in their value: hence it is, that whatever becomes of the pearls of other countries, those of the east still keep up their credit, and a pearl of the weight of four carats, is worth ten or twelve pounds, and of a larger size, and well-shaped, much more*.

* Tavernier, ubi sup. Vide etiam Hist. Nat. des Indes de Joseph Acofta, lib. vi. Hist. Gem. des Indes de Lopez Gomara, lib. vi.

OF ARTIFICIAL PEARLS.

The Chinese, according to Monsieur Lambet, pretend to have found the art of making pearls, which are in some sense almost natural. The Chinese ladies of quality set a great value upon true pearls, which they generally use, as ornaments in their dress. The rivers of the eastern Tartary furnish them with pearls, which, however, are less beautiful than those brought from the Indies, but the value of the artificial pearls bears a proportion to their resemblance to such as are natural.

The small esteem the Chinese have for the counterfeit pearls of Europe, sufficiently shews, that they think them inferior to such as they themselves make, and the advantage they find in this method is, that these pearls are formed, augmented, and perfected under their inspection, and that they catch them in the bosom of the fish, where this substance is formed in the same manner as the true mother of pearl. The secret is as follows:

Take, say they, one of the largest oysters you can find in pure water, put it into a basin half full of limpid water; place this basin in a retired place, in such a manner however, as that it may easily receive the dew of heaven; take care that no woman approach it, nor let the barking of dogs, the crowing of cocks, nor the cackling of hens be heard in the place; (all which means only to take extraordinary care) then take some of the seed of pearls, called yot-

chus,

chus, used in medicine, and reduce it to an impalpable powder; then after gathering some of the leaves of the tree called che-ta-kong-las (a kind of holy oak) wash them well, express their juice, and with it unite the seed of the pearls.

Of this mass, form small balls, as large as a pea, which you must cover entirely with a fine powder of the shining pelluculæ, which is found in the inside of the mother of pearl. In order to make these balls intirely round, roll them on a varnished plate, 'till there remain no more inequalities in them, and 'till they are dry enough not to stick to the fingers; after which, dry them altogether, in a moderate heat of the sun.

When your matter is thus prepared, open the mouth of your oyster, and put the new formed pearl into it, and feed the oyster for an hundred days, in the manner I am about to describe, but take care to give it it's food every day, at the same time precisely, without varying even in a few minutes, and when the hundred days are expired, you will find a pearl of a beautiful water, which you may bore when you please.

The author does not forget to specify the materials of which this food is composed, and particularizes the gin-seng, the China, or white esquine, and the peki, which is a root more glutinous than the moth-glue, and the pecho, another medicinal root. We must, according to him, take of each of these, a drachm; and reduce them to a very fine powder, of which, with honey purified over the fire, we form long pastils, and divide the whole into a hundred portions for the hundred days.

This receipt is not seemingly without difficulties, which require illustration from the author, if he could be consulted; for how shall we open the oyster without hurting it? or must we wait 'till the oyster opens itself? How must we open the mouth of the oyster to put the prepared pearl into it, or is it sufficient to put it into the shell? In like manner, with respect to the distribution of the food, is it only to be put into the water, whence the oyster will not fail to draw it into it's mouth? All these points seem to require illustration.

It is certain that in China, there are people employed in making these pearls, who certainly would not use the seed of pearls, so much esteemed in medicine, if they were not certain to reap a considerable profit from it. Perhaps also, the Chinese have found from experience, that by the nourishment they give the oyster, there are several small pearls formed, which indemnify them for the expences they have been at, in producing the principle one.

Be this as it will, it is certain that the Chinese have had a good deal of knowledge of the origin of true pearls. The choice they make of the mother of pearl, of a retired place, distant from noise, and harsh peircing sounds, accompanied with a pure air, and exposed to the dew, they long time they require for the formation of the pearl, the aliments they furnish, and whereby they sustain the juices drawn from plants, which the rains, after having enlarged the rivers, carry into the pearl fisheries, and which, as they assure us, render them all fertile, are circumstances that evince, that the Chinese have endeavoured to imitate nature in her operations.

To the secret of forming pearls, in some measure natural, the same author adds some other secrets for restoring their primitive beauty when lost.

When pearls lose their beauty, there is a method of removing the impurities adhering to them, and restoring them to their primitive splendor. For this purpose, let them steep a night in woman's milk, then take the herb y-mont-sao, reduced to ashes, make a lee of it, and receive the water which drops from it through a coarse linen cloth; add a little fine wheat flour; put your pearls into a silken bag, tied at the mouth, and after having plunged the pearls into this liquor, rub them gently with your hand.

If pearls are tarnished, or spoiled with any unctuous matter, take geese and duck's dung, dried in the sun, and reduced to ashes; make a decoction of these, and when the water is settled, put the pearls in a silken bag, and wash them in the manner above directed in this decoction.

The approach of the fire sometimes renders pearls reddish: in this case, take the skin of the hoan-naw-tse, (a foreign fruit of which the bonzes make their beads) boil it in water, into which put the pearls and wash them; or beat turnips or radishes, and after having expressed the juice of them, put the pearls a whole night into it, and they will come out very white.

If the pearls become red of themselves, wash them in the juice expressed from the root of the Indian banana tree; leave them in that juice for a night, and the next morning they will have their first splendor and natural whiteness.

Pearls are sometimes damaged when without reflection they are brought near a dead body. In this case, they are restored to their primitive lustre, by washing and rubbing them in the lee of the plant y-mont-sao, with which a little meal and lime are to be mixed.

The author also advises us not to leave pearls scented with musk, by which means they are so tarnished, as to lose a considerable part of their value.

Further observations on the methods suggested for the making artificial pearls.

The ancients, who wrote on the several sorts of precious stones, ranged pearls among jewels of the first class.

The oriental pearls, as observed, are the finest, on account of their largeness, colour, and beauty, being of a silver white; whereas the occidental or western pearls, seldom exceed the colour of milk.

To imitate fine oriental pearls.

Take of thrice distilled vinegar two pounds, Venice turpentine one pound; mix them together into a mass, and put them into a cucurbit; fit a head and receiver to it, and after you have luted the joints, set it, when dry, on a sand furnace, to distil the vinegar from it; don't give it too much heat, lest the stuff swell up.

After this, put the vinegar into another glass cucurbit, in which there is a quantity of seed pearl, wrapped in a piece of thin silk, but so as not to touch the vinegar; put a cover or head upon the cucurbit, lute it well, and put it in bal. mariæ, where you may let it remain a fortnight. The heat of the balnæum will raise the fumes of the vinegar, and they will soften the pearls in the silk, and bring them to the consistence of a paste; which being done, take them out, and mould them to what bigness, form, and shape, you please.

Your mould must be of fine silver, the inside gilt; you must also refrain from touching the paste with your fingers, but use silver gilt utensils, with which fill your moulds: when you have moulded them, bore them through with a hog's bristle, or gold wire, and let them dry a little; then thread them again on gold wire, and put them into a glass; close it up, and set them in the sun to dry; after they are thoroughly dry, put them in a glass matrafs into a stream of running water, and leave them there 20 days; by that time they will contract the natural hardness and solidity of pearls. Then take them out of the matrafs and hand them in mercurial water*, where they will moisten, swell, and assume their oriental beauty; after which shift them into a matrafs, hermetically closed up, to prevent any water coming to them, and let it down into a well, to continue there about eight days; then draw the matrafs up, and in opening it, you will find pearls exactly resembling oriental ones.

This method is very excellent, and well worth the trouble, since by experimenting so fine a secret, one will have the satisfaction of seeing the performance answer the direction above expectation.

* Mercurial water is thus prepared. Take plate-tin of Cornwall, calcine it, and let the calx be pure and fine; then with one ounce of the calx, and two ounces of prepared mercury, make an amalgama; wash it with fair water, 'till the water remains insipid and clear; then dry the amalgama thoroughly, put it into a matrafs over the furnace, giving it such a heat as is requisite for sublimation. When the matter is well sublimated, take of the matrafs and let it cool. Take out that sublimate, add one ounce of Venice sublimate to it, and grind it together on a marble; put this into another matrafs, close it well, and set it upside-down in a pail of water, and the whole mass will dissolve itself in a little time into mercurial water: this done, filtre it into a glass receiver, set it on a gentle ash fire to coagulate, and it will turn into a cristalline substance: this beat in a glass mortar, with a glass pestle, to a fine powder, strain it through a fine sieve, and put it into a matrafs, stop it close up, and place it in bal. mariæ; there let it remain, 'till it resolves again into water; which is the mercurial water, fit for the abovementioned use.

To form large pearls out of small ones, as directed by Korndorffer.

Take of mercurial-water 14 ounces; put two ounces of sulphur solis into a low matrafs, pour the mercurial-water upon it, and let it dissolve and extract. Then take of the whitest small pearls 20 ounces, put them into a proper matrafs, and pour the said water upon it. The pearls will by degrees dissolve, and at last turn to a clear calx, much like dissolved silver calx. Pour off the mercurial-water; boil the calx well out, and dry it; then put it into a clean crucible by itself, and cast it into what form you please. When cold, polish it in the same manner as you do gems or crystals, and you will have your work of the consistence and beauty of the finest and clearest oriental pearl.

To blanch and cleanse pearls.

First soak and cleanse them in bran-water, then in milk-warm water, and last of all steep them in mercurial water; then string and hang them in a glass; close it well, and set them in the sun to dry.

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The bran-water is made thus: boil two good handfuls of wheaten bran in a quart of water, 'till all the strength of the bran is drawn out, which use thus: take a new glazed earthen pan in which put your pearls on a string, and pour the third part of the bran-water upon it; when they have soaked, and the water is just warm, rub your pearls gently with your hands, to clean them the better, and continue this 'till the water is cold; throw off that, and pour on another third part of the bran-water that is boiling; proceed with this as you did before, and when cold, throw it away, and pour on the remainder of the water, still proceeding as before; after this, heat fair water, and pour it on your pearls, to refresh them, and to wash away the remains of the bran, by shifting them, and pouring on fresh warm water: this do thrice, without handling your pearls; then lay them on a sheet of clean white paper, and dry them in a shade; after which, dip them into mercurial water, to bring them to perfection.

PEDLAR, a travelling foot-trader. See HAWKER.

REMARKS.

Almost all the commodities of Europe are distributed through Spanish America, by a sort of pedlars, or merchants on foot, who come from Panama to Paita by sea, and in their road from the last mentioned port, make Piura their first stage to Lima, disposing of their goods, and lessening their burthens, as they go along. Some take the Road through Caxamarca, others through Tauxillo, along shore from Lima: they take their passage back to Panama by sea, and perhaps carry a little cargo of brandy with them: at Panama they again stock themselves with European goods, returning by sea to Paita, where they are put on shore; there they hire mules, and load them, the Indians going with them, in order to bring them back; and so these traders keep in a continual round, 'till they have got enough to live on.

Their travelling expences are next to nothing; for the Indians are brought under such subjection, that they find lodging for them, and provender for their mules: this every white face may command, being an homage the poor Indians are long accustomed to pay; and some think they have an honour done into the bargain, except, out of generosity, they now and then meet with a small recompence. In the British and French nations, a pedlar is despised, and his employment looked upon as a mean shift to get a living; but it is otherwise here, where the quick return of money is a sufficient excuse for the manner of getting it; and there are many gentlemen in Old Spain, who, when their circumstances in life are declining, send their sons to the Indies to retrieve their fortune this way.

REMARKS ON OUR ARTICLE PEDLAR.

In Poland are very few or no manufactures among themselves: their gentry, who are all called nobility, are infinitely above it, and the commonalty are far below it, the one too proud, the other too slothful. So that there is hardly a suit of cloaths made in the country; but all is either made abroad, or the materials brought from abroad; even the taylors are called merchants, for they travel from one nobleman's house to another to make their cloaths; and even the ladies buy their jewels of the pedlars, who carry them about.

The towns of Dantzic and Elbing, in Poland, being the only sea ports belonging to the kingdom of Poland, that want of sea coast, and the exceeding length of the kingdom of Poland south, occasions that the remotest parts of the kingdom are supplied with their finest goods, not by the warehouse keepers and shop keepers vending their goods from hand to hand, and from the ports to the cities, and from the cities to the market towns, and from those towns to the shop-keepers in the villages by wholesale, and these again to the inhabitants by retail, as in England; but the whole trade is carried on by the travelling merchants, that is, in English, by pedlars and petty chapmen.

They travel from town to town, and from one gentleman's seat to another: and by these the ladies are supplied with fine linen, laces, ribbands, silks, and with all sorts of haberdashery, mercery, and drapery goods; such as come to Dantzic from England, Holland, France, and Italy.

The pedlars travel, some with a horse, some without; some with three, four, or five Horses, and 'tis ordinary with them, when they come to a nobleman or gentleman's house, to have a chamber or two assigned them, by the lord or lady of the house, and to stay there three or four days, 'till not only the family have fitted themselves, and are furnished with all they want, but 'till they have sent notice to such of the gentry who live near them, who come, the ladies especially, in their chairs and chariots, to see the wares, and please themselves: all which time the pedlars, who are generally Scotsmen, are entertained freely, and both they and their horses well taken care of, by command of the person whose house it is, and always fully paid for whatever they sell, the Polish ladies making it a point of honour to pay immediately for what they buy; and as the Poles, both men and women, affect to be

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extremely gay in their cloaths, they lay out a great deal of money that way. This makes the trade of Dantzic and Elbing very considerable, the pedlars always having recourse thither for their supply of goods, when they have sold off their stocks. These pedlars, who go with many horses, are some of them men of considerable wealth, and carry with them goods to a great value; and yet that is the absolute government of the nobility, and the common people are so entirely subjected to them, even for life, as well as servitude, that the pedlars trade with the utmost safety, never meeting with the least injury from the common people: and if at any time they are apprehensive of danger, the gentlemen will cause the country people to guard them from place to place, and forbid them taking any thing of them for it.

The number of these pedlars is so great in Poland, that if we may believe the story of Sir John Denham and Mr Killigrew, who were sent from England to take the number of them in the reign of king Charles II. there were then reckoned 53,000 of them; and those gentlemen having the king's commission, and the king of Poland's licence to tax them by the poll, brought home 10,000l. sterling, besides the expence of the journey, which must be very considerable.

There is a distinct sort of these pedlars, who are called goldsmiths; they call themselves so, and these generally travel with but one horse; they carry all sorts of small goldsmith's wares, as gold rings, seals cut in gold and silver, and steel, snuff-boxes, and in a word, toys of all kinds, as well in silver and gold, as in steel, iron, and brass, with all that we call cutlery-ware, knives, forks, buckles, buttons, &c. diamond buckles for the hat or cap, which the Polish nobility are never without, and value themselves much upon; but counterfeit jewels too are very much used amongst them.

These chapmen or pedlars buy old plate, and exchange it for new: they buy also jewels and rings, and every thing of that kind, as occasion presents; and being pretty cunning in their trade, they generally gain more in proportion by buying than by selling.

PEGU, a kingdom situate on the east side of the bay of Bengal, [see BENGAL] in the East-Indies, in Asia, bounded by the kingdom of Ava [see AVA] on the north; by the mountains, which separate it from Laos, on the east; by the kingdom of Siam [see SIAM] and the bay of Bengal on the south; and by another part of the bay of Bengal on the west.

Captain Hamilton says the country is very fruitful in corn, fruits, roots, and excellent pulse of several sorts, and produces timber for buildings, elephant's teeth, bees-wax, stick-lack, iron, said to be of so hard a quality, that it is almost a natural steel; tin, oil of earth, wood-oil, the best rubies in the world, small diamonds, sapphires, amethysts, and other precious stones. They have abundance of salt-petre, but it is death to export it; and plenty of lead, which passes all over Pegu dominions for money. About 20 sail of ships find their account in trade for the limited commodities, but the Armenians have got the monopoly of the rubies, which turns to a good account in their trade. Here is abundance of wild game, both quadrupedes and winged; and in September, and October, wild deer are so plentiful, that the captain says he bought one for a goat; but though they are very fleshy, they are not fat. They have many sorts of good fish and swine's flesh, and plenty of good poultry.

They wear little of our European manufacture, except hats and ribbands; so that the gentry will give extravagant prices for fine beaver hats and rich ribbands, flowered with silver and gold; and be the hats never so broad, they are stretched up the crown as far as possible, but without any sort of cock.

Cotton-cloths from Bengal and Coromandel, with some striped silks, are best for their market; and silver of any sort is welcome to them. It pays the king $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. custom; but in lieu thereof, he indulges the merchants to melt it down, and put what alloy they please in it, and then to pass it off in payments, as high as they can. Rupee silver, without alloy, will bear 28 per cent. of copper alloy, and keep the Pegu touch, which they call flowered silver; and if it flowers, it passes current. They make flowered silver thus: when the silver and copper are mixed and melted together, they put it, while liquid into a shallow mould, and blow on it through a small wooden pipe, which makes the part blown upon appear with the figures of flowers or stars; but if there is too great a mixture of alloy, no figures will appear. The king generally adds 10 per cent. on all silver that comes into his treasury, besides what was put on at first; and though it be not flowered, it must go off in all his payments; but from any body else, it may be refused if it is not flowered.

The chief towns are Syram, or Syrian, whose bar is the only port now open for trade in all Pegu dominions. Some Geographers place it near the mouth of the river Acenam, or Liva; others near the mouth of the river Pegu, and the conflux of those two rivers, almost over against Martaban. It drives a good trade with Armenians, Portuguese, Moors, Gentaws, and some English. Their import is several sorts of Indian goods, as betellas, mulmuls, tanjeds, &c. European hats, and silver; and the customs here, which are about 82 per cent. amount, with other charges, to about 12 in the hundred. The English from fort St George, traffic pretty much with

with this country ; and, besides furs and skins, import from thence rubies, sapphires, and other precious stones.

As soon as foreign ships arrive here. the number of people on board, with their age and sex, is sent to the king, to acquaint him that so many of his slaves are arrived to partake of the glory and happiness of his reign and favour.

PEGU city, Capt. Hamilton says, is about 40 miles to the east of it ; and that the ditches round it, which are now dry, and bear good corn, shew that few cities in the world formerly exceeded it in magnitude, but now is laid in dust, not one twentieth part of it being inhabited, and that only by the lower class of people.—Moll says it lies 20 miles up the river of the same name, which divides it into two towns, the Old and the New. The latter was the seat of it's kings ; the former is still the residence of it's merchants and artificers.

R E M A R K S.

Under the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE, ENGLISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, FRENCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, and OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY, we have so stated the nature of this commerce in it's several lights, that a good judgment may be made, upon the whole, in what manner this trade may be best preserved, and improved to the general advantage of the kingdom ; for the making of extraordinary innovations in the commerce of a nation, may possibly be attended with consequences no less prejudicial to a state, than innovations in it's fundamental constitution. The reader, who has candidly attended to what I have already said in relation to this branch of our commerce, and others, will do me the justice to observe that I am no monopolist, though I have endeavoured to shew how extremely circumspect we ought to be before the East-India company is absolutely annihilated ; which, it seems, is a matter very sanguinely talked of by some people.

Since we have treated of this subject, under the preceding heads, and others, that may be consulted from the Index, there have appeared some objections against the company which well deserve attention, in order to their being duly canvassed. And as this is the first article in the East-Indies that has given me a natural occasion to touch upon this matter again, I might be judged wanting in impartiality to pass it over in silence, for which I would by no means give the least reason ; and, therefore, I shall submit to consideration what the gentleman has said in his own words ; for if it shall appear to bear the test, it cannot be made too public ; and, if it will not, a refutation will be expected.

* The charter of the East-India company, says our author *, obtained at first for ministerial emoluments, cherished and supported ever since, probably on little better motives, has surmounted and baffled all opposition, though many times attempted : nor has this enormous error in trading policy ever yet been canvassed so far as to have had one solemn hearing and debate, in that august assembly ; from whence this injured, this almost exhausted, nation (of it's real wealth in specie) can only hope for redress.

* Some Thoughts on the Present State of our trade to India. By a Merchant of London, p. 5, & seq.

* To declaim on such an interesting subject, and to pass such severe reflections, without producing some probable facts in support of them, would be presuming too far on the candour of the reader ; the greatest measure of which, by making large allowances for inaccuracy of style and method, is here needful ; nor without it can the author entertain the least hope of being attended to.

* The plan, therefore, proposed for the setting forth this truth, is to draw up a plain account, according to MERCANTILE RULES ; and as arithmetical proofs are the most conclusive of all other incommensurable affairs, so upon these, and only these, let the equitable decision of this question stand or fall.

* In the course of the evidence you will find a set of managers buying considerable quantities of our woollen and other manufactures, hiring of private merchants seventeen sail of fine capital ships, each of five hundred tons burden, and having thirty guns, and one hundred sailors ; employing thereby great numbers of tradesmen of all sorts, and, meeting once or twice a week, do, in their several committees, justly

discharge their duty to their constituents ; and whose characters, in point of integrity, are, and will remain, unimpeached.

* You will also find these gentlemen following, inadvertently, the blind rotation of public office, gradually working destruction to their country, by purchasing immense quantities of gold and silver bullion, near treble the value of their exports in manufactures : all which together compose the cargoes of the several ships outward-bound to India.

* These ships are, in this account, admitted and supposed to be arrived at the respective ports and places of their destination, and to return full freighted, with the commodities of that country, to their moorings in the river of Thames : which is done to evince the fair dealing of the accomptant, who will not take hold of the loss of a ship or two, to throw an idea of disadvantage on the trade ; but then, whatever such impartial conduct produces, he hopes will be looked upon as an equitable average, or a true picture of the real circumstances of it, even for any length of time.

* Every one knows, that the commodities returned for this destructive export of useful products, and the yet more necessary ingredient of national safety, it's real and intrinsic wealth, bullion, consists in the following ; the cotton manufactures of India, the silks of China, with their tea, china-ware, and some drugs : whatever other European nations take of us, in the articles, may be reckoned as profitable, because our ships and men were employed in the importation hither.

* On the other hand, whatever of these returns cannot be deemed useful materials of manufactures, &c. or are consumed merely by ourselves, colonies included, may undoubtedly be as justly accounted unprofitable ; and, considering what is sent out for it, to wit, the nerves of war, absolutely worthy of strict enquiry.

* The accountant in order to illustrate what follows, more fully to the candid and unprejudiced reader, thinks it not amiss to lay before him his plan of operation, shewing from whence he draws his materials to work upon.

* It will be looked upon as an attempt extremely ridiculous, especially among accountants, to pretend to form an account of profit and loss on a branch of trade, state a national account thereof, and, what is more, to give a shrewd guess at the identity of a large supposed capital stock, without ever having seen their books, or being in the least matter assisted by any of their clerks ; the public judgment, however, may be suspended, when this particular is remarked : the extracts of their books, that is to say, the several entries at the custom-house, and amount of their cargoes, and declarations for sales, are all printed and published ; to collect from whence, though it be, and really has been, a very laborious and arduous task, yet it is done ; and, according to my motto, the motive makes

Labor ipse voluptas.

* First, on the debit side of the account, he collects his several charges from the bills of entry, printed and published at the custom-house London ; which if erroneous, the fault cannot be imputed to him.

* He makes a valuation of the cost of the several articles therein enumerated, such as woollen goods, wrought iron, brass, copper, &c. from the usual market prices, as near as may be, and the articles of gold and silver are specified to a single ounce, and the silver cast up under the present value near 4 per cent. and it must be observed, that nothing can prejudice the justness of this ballance, but an over-rating of the several charges on this side of the question.

* So, on the contrary, nothing can prejudice the same on the credit side, but the under valuation of the returns made on the voyage here to be scrutinized.

* Secondly, On the credit, this accountant takes his several materials of discharge from the printed declarations of each ship's cargo, compared with their sales ; wherein he admits their whole amount, as put up and sold at the candle, that the truth may not be disputed by the non-arrival of one or more cargoes, due to the credit thereof.

* Thirdly, he is directed in the true prices of the several species of calicoes, prohibited goods, &c. from the printed accounts published by the most eminent brokers, who constantly attend the sales ; and for the weighable goods, from the sale books, thrown into an average, of which the public are the best judges, whether right or not.

INVOICE

INVOICE of the EXPORTS to INDIA.

Tons of iron.	Ordnance and wrought iron.	Tons of steel.	Tons of nails.	Tons of cordage.	Tons of lead.	Tons of stores.	Brass, pewter, copper,	Tons of gun-powder.	Tons of quicksilver, &c.
1,442 at 15 l.	610 at 50 l.	450 at 50 l.	180 at 25 l.	800 at 40 l.	895 at 17 l.	550 valued at	260 at 100 l.	100 at 80 l.	32 at 300 l.
1.21,630	30,500	22,500	4,500	32,000	15,215	305,000	26,000	8,000	9,600

Woollen cloths	Stuffs.	Perpets.	Hose.	Oz. of gold.	Oz. of silver.
18,175 at 110,000	23,220 at 50,000 l.	37,469 at 40,000 l.	3000 doz. at 3000 l.	11,076 at 3 l. 18s. per oz.	2,991,251 at 5s. 3d. per oz.
1. 110,000	50,000	40,000	3000	43,196 : 8	785,203 : 7 : 9

1,442 Tons of iron	-	-	-	1. 21,630	Among all these, the manufactures in wollens, and
610 ordnance, &c.	-	-	-	30,540	brass, copper, iron, pewter, and other materials,
450 steel	-	-	-	22,500	do not exceed the value of 300,000 l.
180 nails	-	-	-	4,500	And further take notice, that only 14 ships cleared
895 lead	-	-	-	15,215	out for India, instead of the 17 here given.
800 cordage	-	-	-	32,000	
550 stores	-	-	-	305,000	
260 brass, copper, and pewter	-	-	-	26,000	
100 gunpowder	-	-	-	8,000	
32 quicksilver	-	-	-	9,600	

5,324 Tons shipped on 17 ships, anno 1753.
3,176 Ditto on bale goods, &c. at

203,000
674,945 — —
43,196 8 — Gold
785,203 7 9 Silver

8,500 Tonnage on 17 ships, at 500 tons each ; really on 14 }
ships only : total amount of cargoes outwards }

1. 1,503,344 15 9

INVOICES of the IMPORTS from INDIA, and SALES thereof.

Wager, Prince of Wales, and Exeter, and sold at	-	-	-	-	1. 250,000
Scarborough	-	-	-	-	225,000
Houghton, exclusive of tea and silk	-	-	-	-	10,000
Admiral Vernon	-	-	-	-	175,000
Edgcote, besides tea	-	-	-	-	10,000
Drake and Rhoda, besides weighable goods	-	-	-	-	15,000
Prince George and Streatham, ditto	-	-	-	-	9,000
Chesterfield	-	-	-	-	240,000
Pelham	-	-	-	-	85,000
Bombay Castle,	-	-	-	-	215,000
Oxford	-	-	-	-	195,000
Hector, besides 500 tons of pepper	-	-	-	-	50,000
Dorrington	-	-	-	-	194,000
17 Ships, whose cargoes in piece-goods, sold at	-	-	-	-	1. 1,673,000

These ships do also bring home.

3,253,900 lb. of tea, which at 4s. per lb.	-	-	-	-	1. 642,475
2,000,000 lb. of pepper, at 1s. per lb.	-	-	-	-	100,000
1,141,000 lb. of coffee, at 1s. 6d. per lb.	-	-	-	-	85,575
203,850 lb. of raw silk, at 20s. per lb.	-	-	-	-	203,850
900 tons of salt-petre, at 70 l. per ton	-	-	-	-	63,000
250 tons of red wood, at 30 l. per ton	-	-	-	-	7,500
600 chests of China-ware and drugs	-	-	-	-	99,600
					1,202,000
					1. 2,875,000

Take off custom, charges, and discount, viz.

Calicoes, value	-	-	1. 1,250,000	pay 38 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.	-	-	1. 478,125
Prohibited goods	-	-	400,000	2	-	-	8,000
Tea	-	-	650,000	19	-	-	123,000
Pepper	-	-	100,000	4	-	-	4,000
Silk, raw	-	-	200,000	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	-	25,000
Coffee	-	-	85,000	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	-	20,500
Salt-petre	-	-	60,000	10	-	-	6,000
Red-wood,	-	-	5,000	10	-	-	500
China-ware and drugs	-	-	100,000	30	-	-	30,000
					Total of duties		695,625
			Valuation 1. 2,850,000				1. 2,179,375

Charges

Charges and Discount as follows.

Freight on 8,500 tons of shipping, 10l. per ton	-	-	-	1. 85,000
Wages and provisions for 1700 men at 5 l. per month per man	-	-	-	204,000
Interest on bonds, two years, at 3 per cent.	-	-	-	90,000
Directors, clerks, &c. at 10,000l. per annum	-	-	-	20,000
Warehouses cost 100,000 l. at 8 per cent	-	-	-	16,000
Shipping and landing of 8,500 tons	-	-	-	8,500
				<u>423,500</u>
Discount on 2,875,000l. at 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent	-	-	-	186,875
				<u>610,35</u>
Nett proceeds do not exceed	-	-	-	1. 1,569,000

Note, That here are 17 ships allowed to be returned, whereas only 14 were really loaded outwards: all which is thrown in to the credit of the account, and no assurance is here charged; so large a scope has the accountant in the support of his sentiment; besides 5 per cent. allowed over the real prices at the candle, which amounts to the small sum of 140,000l. errors excepted. All these, he supposes, may serve to answer whatever may be alledged about the country trade in India of private traders, &c. though they, in fact, have no relation to the company.

ACCOUNT of PROFIT and LOSS on a VOYAGE to INDIA.

D ^r	l.	s.	d.			l.	s.	d.	C ^r
1753. To the cost of 17 cargoes bought in England, as per invoices	1,503,344	15	9		1754 By nett proceeds of seventeen cargoes sold in England, as per account of sales	1,569,000	-	-	
1754. To profit and loss for advance	65,655	4	3			<u>1,569,000</u>	-	-	
	<u>1,569,000</u>	-	-						
D ^r to capital stock account.					Per contra				C ^r .
To fundry accounts, for two years dividends due on 3,200,000l. at 8 per cent per annum	512,000	-	-		By voyage to india, gained thereby	65,655	4	3	
	<u>1,512,000</u>	-	-		By government securities, for two years interest on 3,200,000l. lent them, at 3 per cent.	192,000	-	-	
					By profit and loss, for loss on capital	254,344	15	9	
						<u>1,512,000</u>	-	-	

INDIAN GOODS sold to, and paid for, by FOREIGNERS.

578,400 Callicoos, at 13s. 4d. (being one-third above the custom-house valuation, which is 10s. only) Utmost price on board 1. 395,600 - -

Prohibited goods, vocat.

50 Allejars	2,650 Nillaes			
3,800 Bandannoes	300 Niccanes			
500 Brawls	50 Neganepants			
550 Byrampants	1,500 Photaes			
850 Blue long-cloth	100 Padufoys			
7,000 Chints	100 Poifaes			
2,400 Chellos	100 Palampores			
1,400 Carridarries	41,000 Romalls			
400 Chercoonnaes	10,500 Soofeys			
500 Coopees	1000 Taffaties			
650 Chillaes	1,200 Stafracundies			
55 Callawapores	200 Sekterjoy romalls			
200 Gorgoroons	And others			
900 Guinea stuffs	Valued at			72,750 - -

Weighable goods, &c.

1,850,000 lb. of pepper, at 1 s. per lb.	-	-	-	92,500 - -
700,000 lb. of coffee, at 1 s. 3d. per lb.	-	-	-	43,750 - -
All other goods, as cowries, arrangoes, shell-laque, turmeric, cardamums, &c. &c. at	-	-	-	45,400 - -
Total value, at price free on board.	-	-	-	<u>1,650,000 - -</u>

Note, The above goods are all bought by the English private merchants, paid for in ready money before delivery, and by them only exported, and dispersed throughout Europe, Africa, and America, those to our plantations being included in this calculation also: the whole undoubtedly over-rated near 100,000 l.

NATIONAL ACCOUNT of a VOYAGE to INDIA.

D ^r	l.	s.	d.			l.	s.	d.	C ^r
To the export of woollen manufactures	200,000	-	-		By commodities re-exported	650,000	-	-	
To ditto of copper, brass, and iron ditto	100,000	-	-		By useful imports	283,344	15	9	
To ditto of lead, iron, and stores	374,945	-	-		By national loss for bullion exported, without one valuable return	660,000	-	-	
To ditto of silver and gold bullion	828,399	15	9			<u>1,593,344</u>	15	9	
To two years interest on 1,500,000l.	90,000	-	-						
	<u>1,593,344</u>	15	9						

'I have thus stated, continues this gentleman, the several accounts: first, that of a given number of ships, fully laden, failing a long and hazardous voyage to India, arriving, however, in safety, disposing of their cargoes, and returning home the same tedious passage, full freighted with the manufactures and worthless products of that country; ships shattered with frequent storms, their crews one-third dead, many of them sickly, all fatigued, and looking on one another with an evil, instead of a friendly, eye; weary of each other's company in so confined a situation, wishing, as the greatest blessing, for that delightful prospect from the mast-head, their native land, and at length arriving at the desired port in safety: their cargoes printed and published, the goods are landed,

exposed, by fair and just samples, to the inspection of the several buyers, who afterwards meet, according to public notice given, and either by themselves, or agents, the brokers, purchase what they have occasion for, in the fair method of a public auction.

The whole being finished, the goods are paid for before they are delivered to the owners, and these allowed a discount of 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for such prompt payment; the several clerks become then employed in casting up the full amount of these sales, according to the gross prices given at the candle, to which they are more immediately obliged, as the customs are calculated and paid thereon ad valorem.

This being compleated and settled, I mean the duties for

Nullum tempus aut causa occurret regi,

it is supposed they discharge the several freights agreed on for the hire of ships employed in their service, to the respective owners of them, and all other incidental charges.

A careful and judicious merchant would then proceed to examine and form a ballance on the profit or loss accruing from this adventure or voyage to and from India: this he is well enabled to do, by having his several books of account laid before him; and it would be impossible for any other, without the same guides, to have the least idea of it: wherefore, in the several matters here before us, it is not alledged that they are drawn up with the accuracy which books could furnish materials for; but that from those which are, and must necessarily be made known in the carrying on this public trust, the accountant has, with the utmost care, from these rambling papers, extracted an impartial and just ballance (equitably considered) of the real state of this branch of trade, both in regard to the nation, their stock, and bond creditors; but yet not giving up the claim and right of mercantile accounts, that of errors being excepted always.

To detect wilful or malicious charges, or unintended errors, he has also the particularized articles; and although the account be at length reduced to one debit and one credit, yet each are anatomized in the pages (10 to 15) and their truth exposed, to be allowed or disallowed by the reader.

By this a profit appears of the sum of 65,655 l. 4 s. 3 d. after paying interest for the money borrowed on bonds. Trade, the Hollanders call, a sick bride, often out of order, but never dies; it will, in general, produce satisfaction, when attended by economy, and soothed by prudence: on the other hand, our expences being large, either through necessity or vanity, do in no wise contribute to the increase of the profits of trade; here our expences are dividends of 8 per cent. per annum; these must be paid; proprietors coming open-mouthed must be satisfied; indulged for years past with a plentiful income, they know not how to retrench: ergo, on 3,200,000 l. at 8 per cent. for two years, is 16 per cent.

	l.	s.	d.
Or the sum for two years to be paid is	512,000	—	—
The assets are the			
profits on the voyage at - - - -	65,655	4	3
Three per cent. due from the government - - - -	192,000	—	—
	257,655	4	3
Deficient - - - -	1. 254,344	15	9

This deficiency must be either taken from former profits (which, I believe, were as fully employed as these) or from those which are to come: a happy thought! But put 200 yoke of oxen to draw this load up the hill of gain, it will not avail; the carriage is weak, and the road almost impracticable.

In regard to the account of national gain or loss, may this be attended to, may this be scrutinized, the result amazing, unthought-of, and unexpected! until evinced by this accidental enquiry. However erroneous the others may be, this will stand the test: no gloss, no fallacious arguments of occult mysterious trading, imports of diamonds, gold, and what not? by private traders supposed effects in India (mines of Potosi!) can be admitted, until confronted with more bullion carried out (manufactures none permitted) few or no diamonds on the company's account, no gold, but many supposed debts owing, at large interest in India, and many more on bonds at home.

O proceres, cenfore opus est, an haruspice nobis?

The whole of the debit is formed from the same materials as the voyage-account; but, on the credit, may be seen the total amount of what is re-exported of these Indian commodities to other European nations, the true value of the raw silk, salt-petre, red-wood, and drugs imported; and, though most consumed at home, yet are here called valuable returns, as being materials used in our manufactures.

The true and undoubted loss to the nation of it's bullion, to the amount of 660,000 l. yearly, being hereby proved to demonstration (a prodigious sum in specie!) well may we tremble at every flurry in our paper circulation, since the basis, the rock, the strongest foundation of it's credit, is thus sapped, thus undermined, perhaps through inadvertency, yet equally fatal to our welfare and safety.

Tea, mean dirty drug, established by luxury, is become a necessary of life. Ridiculed by the Chinese, our hardy seamen brave all climates, difficulties, and hazards, to bring them gold and silver, to take in return a few dried herbs and baked earthen wares. Infatuation!

Arguments are vain, tea must be had; but surely not at this rate. Had this fair estate the Indies (more valuable than

the rest of our trade) never been granted in mortmain to this monastery of voluptuous secular priests, but the private English merchant preserved in the rights of his birth, tobacco, or some other product of ours, would have been the sole purchase of tea; weed for weed; not a dollar exported, but for gold in return: which was the trade at first; but the Chinese now hold both for tea. Or, in case this trade be laid open, by compounding for their charter, the government taking the protection of the traders into their own hands, what a fund of wealth, what increase of revenue! equal to the whole of the present: what a new world for trade! The rich, the populous, the luxurious nations of Interior Asia, all histories tell us their extent from Turkey to Japan; these are now shut up from the English merchant, for the sake of this monopoly, admitted by all to be bad, maintained by unjustly obliging a people to buy their goods at one house, and no where else, whereby the same tea is sold at Gottenburg 100 per cent. cheaper than at home; alone is a sufficient profit for the smugglers: nay, it is supposed that the revenue does not suffer a less sum yearly by that article than 200,000 l.

Supported by inflicting oaths on their wretched agents, has this bane of our peace and safety reigned a long course of years, bringing poverty upon us by regular gradations: without skill, without industry, and without wealth, have they proceeded in the discouragement of the former, and dissipation of the latter: nor, in 30 years trading, has one ship been added for the benefit of our navigation; no increase but of perjuries.

Hac fonte derivata clades
In patriam populumque fluxit.

But that others may discover clearer evidence of this pernicious trade, the injury done to our public credit already, and likely still to do, by the carrying it on in the manner beforementioned (for no less than the value of 350,000 l. in gold and silver bullion, has been shipped for India since the 1st of January * last) and be convinced of the absolute necessity of putting an immediate stop thereto; or that, at least, it may be limited for a term of three years, and, after that, to be intirely prohibited, and the exportation confined to our manufactures and products only.

* From the 1st of January to the 25th of March 1754.

That these, under the judicious management of the regular-bred merchant, will undoubtedly procure us a constant and more reasonable supply, to say at one half the present monopolized price, though more difficult now than at first, by the taste the Chinese have had of our wise policy.

To appeal to the understanding of the unprejudiced, whether, if the trade be made free and open, according to the just rights of English-born subjects, our private merchants, by whose hands alone is the profit now produced to the nation (or rather the loss mitigated) by Indian commodities re-exported to European countries, could not very shortly employ from 2 to 300 fine capital ships, take off three millions yearly of woolen, linen, and other manufactures, give real business thereby to more than 200,000 families, now preying upon each other, doubling the revenue, or more; the fears of lessening which last, at this necessitous juncture, are weakly urged, in defence of a manifest scourge of providence, almost evincing, that

Quos Deus vult perdere, prius dementat:

To shew that the great products and ingenious manufacturers we are blessed with, the extensive credit now diffused throughout the whole kingdom, joined by the skill and industry of our merchants (confessedly superior to all others) may be made subservient to this great and good end: that every other European company, particularly the newly-elected ones, Swedish, Danish, and Prussian, must (though now supported chiefly with English subscriptions, yearly made) undoubtedly sink by these means.

Upon what has been said by this gentleman, we shall make some remarks hereafter, as occasion may offer.

PEMBROKESHIRE, in Wales, is more of a maritime county than any other there, it being encompassed with the Irish sea, except on the east, where it joins to Carmarthen-shire, and on the north-east to Cardiganshire. It is the extreme west part of Wales, and lies nearest to Ireland of any of it's counties.

It is 33 miles in length, and 28 in breadth, according to Templeman, who gives it an area of 520 square miles. Others compute the area at 420,000 acres; but make it no more than 26 miles in length, from Cardigan in the north, to St. Gwen's on the south; 20 in breadth, from Lhanbeder Vel-fray in the east, to St David's in the west, and but 93 in compass.

The air of this county is better than is common to parts that are so much exposed to the sea, and the soil is fruitful; it's few mountains, which are chiefly in the north-east part, have indifferent good pasture for cattle and sheep; but the parts near

near the sea abound with rich meadows, and good corn. Its other commodities are goats, fish, fowl, falcons particularly excellent, called peregrins, marble, pit-coal, and culm. It affords plenty of wheat, and is well served with sea-fish and foreign wines.

HAVERFORDWEST, stands on the side of a hill, but is a very neat, well-built, populous, and trading town, having a commodious key for ships of burthen and a custom-house.

PEMBROKE, the county town, stands in the most pleasant part of all Wales, at the innermost and eastern creek of Milford-haven.

ST DAVID'S, stands on the most western promontory of all, which extends itself considerably into the Irish sea, commonly called St. David's Head.

TENBY, on the fourth coast of this shire, has a good key, which was formerly much frequented by fishermen; enjoyed a great trade, and its inhabitants were wealthy: its markets, at present, are well stored with corn, fish, and other provisions; the road for shipping is very good. It has a great fishery for herrings in the season, and a large colliery, from whence great quantities of coals are exported to Ireland.

PENNSYLVANIA, a British colony in America. This province is bounded on the east by Delaware bay and river, and the Atlantic Ocean; on the north and west by Canada, on the south by Maryland. It extends from Cape Hinlopen, in latitude 39. 30. above 200 miles northwards, but it is very narrow in the southern parts, up to the 40th degree of latitude, being so pent in on the east by Delaware river, and on the west by the province of Maryland, that in those parts it is not much above 15 miles broad, and in some places less still; but beyond the latitude it is much broader, though we cannot ascertain how far it stretches towards Canada.

As to the climate, Pennsylvania is, by its latitude, at a like distance from the sun with Naples in Italy, and Montpellier in France; but it must be acknowledged that the climates on the continent of America differ much from those of the same latitude in Europe: it must, however, be owned that the air of Pennsylvania is sweet and clear: the fall, or autumn, begins about the 20th of October, and lasts 'till the beginning of December, when the winter sets in, which continues 'till March. Frosty weather, and extreme cold seasons, are frequently known here; but as in most countries where there are such seasons, the air is then dry and healthy. From March to June the spring lasts, but the weather then is more inconsistent than in the other seasons. The heats are extraordinary in the summer months, July, August, and September, but mitigated by cool breezes, which make them very tolerable. The wind is south-west during the summer, but generally north-westerly spring, fall, and winter, which blowing from the frosty and snowy mountains and lakes of Canada, is doubtless the main reason of the excessive cold here in winter.

The soil of this province is in some places a yellow or black sand, in others a loamy gravel, in others a fat mould, like the vales in England, especially by inland brooks and rivers, where the lands are mostly three to one richer than those that lie by navigable rivers. There is also found a black hazel mould on a stoney bottom. The earth is fruitful, fat, and easy to be cleared, because the roots of the trees lie almost on the surface of the ground.

Here are trees of all sorts; oak; red, white, and black ash, beech, Spanish chestnut, cypress; the most durable of all are poplar, gum wood, hickory, sassafras; and, as for shrubs, snake-root, sarsaparilla, salop, spruce, and cranberries.

Wheat, barley, oats, rye, pease, beans, water-melons, musk-melons, apples, pears, cherries, apricots, quinces, carrots, turnips, onions, parsnips, cucumbers, &c. are here in great plenty, as also Indian corn, hemp, flax, &c. It is common for one bushel of corn sowed here to yield 40, often 50, and sometimes 60 bushels. Of living creatures, here are for food and trade, deer, the elk, as big as a small ox, rabbits, racoons, beavers, plenty of oxen, cows, and sheep; of the latter it is common for farmers to have 4 or 500 in a flock. They have also horses, some very good, and handsome enough. Of birds, here are very fine bustards, 40 or 50 pounds weight, pheasants, heath-birds, swans, geese, braindes, duck, teal, and snipe. The fish here are sturgeon, herrings, eels, smelts, perch, oysters, crabs, cockles, and mussels.

As to the trade of Pennsylvania, with respect to Europe and America, the case stands thus: their merchandizes consist of horses, pipe-staves, pork, beef, and fish, salted and barrelled up, skins and furs, all sorts of grain, viz. wheat, rye, pease, oats, barley, buck-wheat, Indian corn, Indian pease and beans, pot-ashes, wax, &c. and, in return for these, they import from the Caribbee Islands, and other places, rum, sugar, molasses, silver, negroes, salt, and wine; and, from Great-Britain, household goods, and cloathing of all kinds, hard-ware, tools, and toys.

They have also some rice, but no great quantities, and a little tobacco of the worst sort. Their trade with the Indians consists but in few articles: they receive of the natives chiefly skins, and furs of their wild beasts, for which they give them cloathing, arms, ammunition, rum, and other spirits, in return. This, as well as other northern colonies, are said to have also a clandestine trade with the Spaniards upon the coasts

of Terra Firma, &c. furnishing them with European goods and merchandizes, for which they receive chiefly dollars in return [see SPANISH AMERICA]; and they also trade to the bay of Honduras and Campeachy, for logwood [see the article LOGWOOD]. But after all, it must be admitted that Pennsylvania has no staple commodity, nor have the inhabitants yet set up any capital manufacture of their own for exportation.

This province is divided into six counties, viz. Buckingham, Philadelphia, Chester, Newcastle, Kent, and Suffex.

There were here a few English, Dutch, and Swedes, before Mr Penn sent over the first adventurers, under his patent, but they all submitted to the governor he placed over them. Those who went over from England were generally Dissenters, and especially Quakers, whose religion * is established by law in this country.

* Among many good things, in relation to the constitution, and good government of this province, Mr Penn established courts of justice in every county, with proper officers; and, to prevent law-suits and contentions among his passive people, there were three PEACE-MAKERS chosen by every county-court, in the nature of common arbitrators, to hear and determine differences between man and man. In king William's reign, when there were no prosecutions in England, this province began to be settled with people, who came thither to mend their fortunes, and not to enjoy the liberty of conscience, for the toleration gave them that at home. These men being of the church of England, Presbyterians, and Baptists, would have had a militia, but the Quakers, being the majority, were against it, their principles not allowing them the use of arms; but not long after Mr Penn's second voyage, they readily fell in with an armed force: for a ship of theirs being taken by pirates, they hired men, and supplied them with ammunition and fire-arms, to recover her. And, in respect to the militia, such as were of another opinion were allowed to train themselves, and take such military care for their defence as consisted with the peace of the country. However, they have yet had no great occasion for a militia; for it is very remarkable, that this province, ever since its first establishment, never had any war with their neighbours, Christians or Indians, but have always lived in peace and amity with them all; and how they behaved in the late rebellion is recent in every one's memory. Let who will laugh at their religion and polity, we find, from the apparent effects of them, as his grace the late duke of Argyle justly said in the house of lords, upon a peculiar occasion, that they beat all other sects of people for sound morals, oeconomy, and human prudence: and, as I have had the satisfaction to converse with many of the more sensible men among them, I can speak from experience, that they are as little enthusiasts as the freest thinkers of the age, notwithstanding the whimsies of some of their green-apron old women; and perhaps there are old women and fools, as well as knaves, of all sectaries and persuasions, but fewer, I believe, among these people than among any other, on account of their religious principles; nor do any deserve more protection under a free-constituted government: the reasons of which are obvious to all who know any thing of their system of polity among themselves.

It has been above observed, that this province was divided into counties, of which there are six; three upper, and three lower: the former are Buckingham, Philadelphia, and Chester, and make the Pennsylvania so called in king Charles's grant; the latter counties of Newcastle, Kent, and Suffex (called Essex in some maps) are taken out of Nova Belgia, or rather were thus called before the duke of York, afterwards king James II. granted them to Mr Penn.

I. **BUCKINGHAM** county, is the most northerly of all

BRISTOL is reckoned the chief town in this county; it stands 20 miles from Philadelphia, to the north, on the river Delaware, over-against Bridlington, in West New Jersey, and consists of about 70 or 80 houses: it is noted for its mills of several sorts.

II. **PHILADELPHIA** county; the first town in it is

FRANKFORT, as big as Bristol before-mentioned, and as well built.

PHILADELPHIA, the capital city of this province, is esteemed to be one of the best laid-out cities in the world; and were it full of houses and inhabitants, according to the proprietor's plan, it would be a capital fit for a great empire. It is a large city considering its late foundation, most commodiously situated between two navigable rivers, Delaware and Schuylkill, in north latitude 40. 10. and longitude 75. 8. west from London. Mr Penn designed the town in the form of an oblong square, extending two miles in length, from one river to the other. The long streets, eight in number and two miles in length, he cut at right angles, others a mile in length, and 16 in number, all straight and spacious. He left proper spaces for markets, parades, keys, meeting-houses, schools, hospitals, and other public buildings: and it increases every day in edifices of divers kinds, which are carried on according to the first plan.

The city has two fronts on the water, one on the east side, facing the Schuylkill, and the other on the west, facing the Delaware, which is near two miles broad here. The eastern part is the most populous, on account of the Schuylkill,

Schuylkill, which is navigable 100 miles above Falls. We have observed, that each front of the street was to be two miles from river to river, as it was at first laid out, but we cannot suppose that it is yet finished in that manner. The street that runs along the Schuylkill is three quarters of a mile in length; the houses are stately, the wharfs and warehouses numerous and convenient.

The city flourished so much at first, that there were near 100 houses great and small in it, within less than a year's time; and it has made answerable progress since, the number of houses at this time being above 2000, and, generally speaking, better edifices than in the cities of England, a few excepted, and in those only a few streets. The houses here have large orchards and gardens; the land on which the city stands is high and firm, and the conveniency of docks, and springs, very much contribute to the commerce of this place, where many rich merchants now reside; some of whom are so wealthy, that they keep their coaches.

Ships may ride here in six or seven fathom water, with very good anchorage. The land about it is a dry wholesome level. All owners of 1000 acres and upwards, had their houses in the two fronts facing the river, and in the High-street, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Every owner of 1000 acres had also about an acre in front, and the smaller purchasers half an acre in the back streets, by which means the least had room enough for a house, garden, and small orchard. High-street is one hundred feet broad; so is Broad-street, which is in the middle of the city, removing from north to south. In the center is a square of ten acres for the state-house, market-house, and school-house. Several houses on the key are worth four and five thousand pounds, and fifteen ships have been on the stocks at a time, and some hundreds have been built there. The cellars and warehouses on the key are made towards the river three stories high. Here are two fairs a year, and two markets a week. The city sends two members to the assembly.

The inhabitants being at first mostly Quakers, as they still continue, it was some time before there was a church after the manner of England; but as soon as one was built, it was called Christ Church. It had in a few years a very numerous congregation, and king William ordered an allowance of 50l. a year to the minister, which, with voluntary contributions, make a handsome provision for him. There are above twelve thousand of the inhabitants that are of this congregation. Here are, besides this, several meeting-houses for the Quakers, who are properly the church as by law established, being the original numerous settlers.

According to the plan, there is in each quarter of the city a square of eight acres, intended for the same uses as was Moorfields in London, walks and exercises for the citizens. The great dock is formed by an inlet of the river Delaware, at the south corner of the front of the wharfs, and has a bridge over it at the entrance. Several creeks run into the city out of the two rivers; and there is no city in Holland that is more naturally accommodated with fine and commodious canals, than this might be very easily. The key is beautiful, above 200 feet square, to which a ship of 500 tons may lay her broadside. And, as these advantages have already rendered this one of the best trading towns in the British empire out of Europe, so, in all probability, it will continue to increase in commerce, riches, and buildings, till for number and magnificence it will have no equal in America. Here are almost all sorts of traders and mechanics, as well as merchants and planters. Here the assemblies and courts of judicature are held, and the business of the province is chiefly managed, as in all capital cities.

At a little distance from Philadelphia, is a pleasant hill, well wooded, on the banks of the Schuylkill, called Fair Mount. Wico, half a mile from the town, is a Swedish settlement, where the people of that nation have a meeting for religion. They have another meeting-house at Tenecum.

ABINGTON and DUBLIN are two pretty towns in Philadelphia county. But the most considerable, next to the city, is German Town, a corporation of High and Low Dutch: there are between two and three hundred houses in it; peach-trees are planted all along before the doors. The town is very pleasant, and well cleared from trees. Within land lies Radnor, finely situated, and well built, containing about fifty families. In this place is a congregation of church of England men. It was at first called Amstel by the Dutch, who began building here, from the name of the river at Amsterdam.

There are several creeks in these two counties, as Derby creek, &c. Amerland lies between that and another nameless creek, from whence passing by Redloyer, we come to

III. CHESTER county, so called, because the people who first settled here came from Cheshire. It lies to the south of Philadelphia county.

NEWTON is the first town in it, consisting of between thirty and forty houses.

CHESTER town, the capital of the county, is about 13 miles distant from Philadelphia towards the south-west, in latitude 40, and longitude 75. 17. west from London. It con-

tains about an hundred houses, and here is a very good road for shipping, the Delaware, on which it stands, being here three miles over. This place was also called Upland, and has a church dedicated to St Paul, with a numerous congregation of church of England people.

There is another town called CHICHESTER, as is also the creek on which it stands, which is navigable. It has above an hundred houses. The little town Concord has not so many. The other townships in this county are small, but the land is well planted. Marcus Hook, four miles from Chester, is the boundary of the three upper counties, properly called Pennsylvania. Chester county sends six members to the assembly.

IV. NEWCASTLE county lies to the south of it. In this county below Chichester, is a great creek, where there is room enough to lay up the whole navy royal of England, there being from four to eight fathom water. Below it is Christiana creek, where the Swedes had a town and plantations. They inhabited this and the other side of Delaware river, called La Nouvelle Swede, or New Sweden, by Robbe the French Geographer. It included part of this province and part of Jersey. The creek is large, but the village inconsiderable, though the Swedes had a church here not long ago. Between this and the next creek is Newcastle town, from whence this county takes its name. It is inhabited by English and Dutch, and is the next place for business and trade to Philadelphia, containing now between five and six hundred houses well built. Here live and thrive many merchants and tradesmen. The church has a large congregation, mostly Welsh. The Dutch also have a church here.

The lands hereabout are called the Welsh Tract, and there are near forty thousand acres planted and laid out by and for Welshmen. It is thick of little towns, as Haverford-west, Merioneth, and others. It is populous, and the inhabitants are very industrious, by which means this part of the country is best cleared. They have many large plantations of corn, and abundance of cattle, so that they are looked upon to be in as thriving a condition as any in the province.

MOUNTJOY is a manor that belonged to a daughter of Mr Penn, and here the first lime-stone was dug, that was ever found in America. This whole county is remarkable for its excellent gravel, very rare to be met with on the continent of America. Ten miles below Newcastle is St George, a pretty village, New Blackbird creek, and over-against it is a little island called Rhode Island, in the Delaware, where there is ten fathom water. This county sends six members to the assembly.

V. KENT county lies to the south-east of Newcastle county. Here are Cranebrook, Dover, Murden, and Mispelliven creeks and plantations. Dover was formerly called St John's Town, and consists now of about fifty families. It is looked upon as the capital of the county, which is settled like Virginia, not in townships, but scattered plantations. In this county is a church of England congregation. The land is good, and the county is represented by six member in the assembly.

VI. SUSSEX county lies to the south-east of Kent. The chief town is Lewes, on a creek so called: it is handsome and large, standing on the beautiful banks of a river, between the town and the sea, which makes the harbour. These two last counties lie about Delaware bay, which is there about seven leagues over. Before Lewes is Cape Hinlopen, otherwise called Cape William, and twenty miles below that is Cape James, the furthestmost bound of the province of Pennsylvania. Sussex county, like Kent, is inhabited by planters, whose plantations lie scattering, as suited best to their conveniency.

REMARKS ON PENNSYLVANIA before the last war.

It is a point out of dispute, that no country in the world is more proper than Pennsylvania for producing hemp and flax; and with respect to these, we ought seriously to consider, as we have occasionally observed on other of our colonies, that there is nothing plainer than that hemp and flax are so useful in navigation and trade, that we cannot do without them; the first for cordage of all sorts, the latter for making sail-cloth, as well as for the linen manufactures carried on in this kingdom. The necessity we are under for these commodities, ought to put us upon all imaginable care how to provide them, that we may not fall under the same necessity for them that we did in the year 1703 for pitch and tar, [see the article NANAL STORES] when the government of Sweden absolutely refused to let us have them for our ready money, otherwise than in their shipping, from their tar monopoly, at their own price, and only in such quantities as they thought fit.

Upon that disappointment, the government, by allowing a considerable encouragement for carrying on the manufactures of pitch and tar, had sufficient quantities from our own plantations, and it is greatly to be wished the like encouragement was given for raising hemp and flax; and as all sorts of naval stores may be raised with so many advantages to this kingdom, it would be unaccountable to leave us dependent, and

at an uncertainty for them. It is very well known, that our land is too dear for hemp and flax, and what does grow here (though it is tough and makes strong linen) neither dresses so kindly, nor whitens so well as that which grows in hotter climates. In Russia, the best hemp and flax grow in the southermost parts of the empire, where the summer is hot and the air clear, and yet the flax is not accounted so good as that which grows in Egypt or Italy. Egypt has always been esteemed for it's linen, and even now supplies Leghorn with large quantities: and the coasts of Syria, Asia Minor, Smyrna, Constantinople, and other great cities, have a supply of hemp and flax from thence.

All our colonies (which run twelve or fourteen hundred miles in length in North America, all the way bordering upon the sea) have very hot summers; the southermost parts of them lie near the same latitude with Egypt, and the north part much about the same with Ancona or Bologna in Italy, where hemp and flax grow; therefore we have the greatest prospect to receive mighty supplies of hemp and flax from them.

Part of the land in the colonies is very rich, and of so small value, there will be opportunity of breaking up fresh as often as there is occasion to change the ground, which if laid down will recover itself again without the charge of manuring, as we do here, to the very great damage of our ploughing lands. Nothing impoverishes land more than hemp and flax; and though it is manured, that alone will not do so well, for the land ought to be changed after three or four crops, and generally the finest and fattest pieces are converted to that use. Those great conveniences of having land so very cheap and so fine a climate, which we know produces excellent hemp and flax, so commodiously situated along the sea-coasts, with such numbers of large rivers running up the country to the most inland settlements, where provisions may be raised at so small a charge, and where work may be done by the labour of slaves, almost as cheap in India, gives ground to hope, that we may manufacture linens here cheaper, than any part of Europe can import them upon us, and the colonies be as profitable to us, by raising rough materials to enable us to carry on the linen manufacture, as the Suffex and other downs are, for supplying wool for that manufacture; the profits of which we have valued ourselves so much upon, that we have set the rest of Europe upon being our competitors therein.

And as the woollen manufacture, especially the coarse part, has spread itself of late into several parts of the kingdom, which has exceeded the demand, and caused great stocks to remain on hand, if those rough materials of hemp and flax were prepared in our plantations, the people in North Britain, &c. would soon find the advantage of advancing in that manufacture; the laborious and coarse part being performed abroad, the rest would invite, not only the poor and necessitous, but people of better circumstances to employ their time in it.

If these propositions are sufficiently considered and heartily put in practice, we may hope, that by providing the aforesaid rough materials, we shall have the delightful prospect of seeing trade flourish; for as the silk and linen manufactures brought to perfection, are altogether as profitable to those nations as the woollen is to us; and as we increase in our linen manufactures those of Silesia, and all the hereditary countries of the house of Austria, whence we take such quantities, must abate of course; their people also will resort to us, and help to carry them on; for it has always been observed, where new manufactures are set up, the manufacturers will likewise remove. This was the case with the Flemings, when queen Elizabeth gave such great encouragement to have the woollen manufacture remove thither; and ours when we had that inundation of China and India wrought silks, for our weavers went away to Holland, Flanders, France, &c. so that several streets in Spital-fields were left almost desolate; but when these silks were prohibited, the manufacturers returned again.

It is supposed the Russians export to England and all other parts, in hemp and flax, above the value of a million a year. If hemp and flax be so valuable a product for merchandize with them, there seems to be a much greater prospect of it's being so to ourselves, by raising them in our plantations, because they will not be subject to any land-carriage, but shipped immediately from the place of growth, because land is much cheaper in our plantations, than in the south parts of Russia. The climate being equal with that in Egypt and Italy, is supposed to produce hemp and flax preferable to theirs.

We have shewn, under other articles which we shall refer to at the conclusion of this, that in the cases of sugar and tobacco, every white man employs four at home; that is to say, finds them work to supply him with utensils requisite for his. If sugar and tobacco employ such a number of hands at home, certainly every person employed in the plantations, in raising and dressing hemp and flax, must by his labour there, return more than twice the advantage that can be produced by sugar and tobacco, for they are manufactured in the plantations: the refining the sugar and cutting the tobacco, with the little quantity that is rolled excepted. Whereas flax and hemp, are materials for employing all idle hands; and

of consequence the poors rate will soon be abated, and the nation will find in a little time what they save yearly thereby, will be more than sufficient to encourage the people to pursue that employment with indefatigable vigour. And if once we come to be employed with hemp and flax by methods here suggested, every place will be filled with flax-dressers, and the overseers of the poor of every parish where the wool spinning trade is not carried on, may very easily come at hemp and flax, which they will find as profitable to them, as the woollen is to the other; and the more distant the employment is, the better, for many inconveniences have attended one manufacture interfering with another; besides, there will be an intercourse of trade created, by one part of the kingdom supplying the other with their distinct manufactures. This will give full employment to the whole kingdom, and an universal chearfulness to every body: for the poor are never happier, nor their minds easier, than when they have full employment; and when they are employed, riches are diffused throughout the whole nation.

It is a common opinion, that we have above a million of people in the three nations destitute of work, but if those rough materials (so often mentioned in this work) should come to be raised in our plantations, there need not be one idle person: now suppose one million of people were put upon manufacturing those rough materials, and each person earned but one penny a day, and allowing but three hundred working days in the year, it would amount to 1,250,000 l. A prodigious advantage to the nation, which is still greatly heightened by considering, that these people would be then employed, at least in part, and so far as they were employed, would be the better subjects.

That all this might be brought about with less trouble than has been given the nation by one Baltic or Mediterranean expedition, and the tenth part of the expence of a campaign in Flanders, is a thing will be acknowledged by all who are capable of judging of this subject; and therefore that it ought to be done, is a point that cannot be disputed. We would not mislead our readers by the comparison, into a bad opinion of such expeditions or campaigns that have heretofore been made, that is not our business or our intention; the justice of the comparison turns upon this, that the motives to such expeditions and campaigns have been, comparatively speaking, near and at hand; whereas we are less acquainted, or at least, less affected, by the connection between our interests and those of the plantations: though, from what has been said here, and throughout this work, we think it will plainly appear, that they concern us as much, and as nearly, as any interests can do without the limits of our own island.

That the reader may the more satisfactorily discern the necessity of encouraging our plantations, in the raising of such rough materials as may reciprocally advance the trade of Great Britain, as well as that of the plantations, and keep the latter from interfering with the manufactures of their mother country, we refer him to the following articles, viz. COLONIES, FLAX, HEMP, LINEN, FRENCH AMERICA, FRANCE, SPANISH AMERICA.

REMARKS on this province in another light, before the last war.

The wise conduct of Mr Penn at the first establishment of this province, had so good an effect upon the Indians, that they had him always in the highest veneration; and they still retain the same to his memory, of which the reader will find an exemplary proof in the following speech made to Sir William Keith, governor of this country in 1722; only it may not be amiss to observe, that Onas signifies in the Indian language a pen; and therefore this is the name the Indians have given to our proprietor and all his successors, or representatives.

Brother Onas, you told us how William Penn, that good man did, on the first settlement of the province of Pennsylvania, make leagues of friendship with the Indians, and treated them like brethren; and that, like the same good man, he left it in charge to all his governors who should succeed him, and to all the people in Pennsylvania, that they should always keep the covenant and treaties he had made with the five nations, and treat them with love and kindness. We acknowledge, that his governors and people have always kept the same honestly and truly to this day. So we, on our part, always have kept, and for ever shall keep, peace and friendship with a good heart, to all the people of Pennsylvania. We thankfully receive and approve of all the articles in your proposition to us, and acknowledge them to be good and full of love: we receive and approve of the same with our whole hearts; because they are not only made one people by the covenant chain, but are also people united in one head, one body, and one heart, by the strongest ties of love and friendship. Brother Onas, you desire there may be a perpetual friendship between you and the five nations, and between your children and our children; and that the same may be kept as long as the mountains and rivers endure. All which we like well, and on our parts desire, that the covenant and union made with a true and clean heart between you and us; may

last as long as the sun and moon shall continue to give light. And we will deliver this in charge to our children, that it may be kept in remembrance with their children and childrens children, to the last ages: and we desire, that the peace and tranquility that is now established between us, may be as clear as the sun shining in it's lustre, without any cloud or darkness, and that the same may continue for ever.

Brother Onas, we have well considered all you have spoken, and like it well, because it is only the renewing former leagues and treaties, made between the government of Pennsylvania, and us of the five nations, which we always believed we were obliged to keep. And, as to the accident of one of our friends being killed by some of your people, which has happened by misfortune, and against our will; we say, that as we are all in peace, we think it hard that the person who killed our friend and brother should suffer, and we do in the name of all the five nations forgive it; and that the man who did it may be released from prison, and set at liberty to go whither he pleases; and we shall esteem that as a mark of regard and friendship for the five nations, and as a farther confirmation of this treaty.

Upon these principles, which are more likely to be observed in this than in most of our colonies, the friendship of the Indians may be preserved as long as they remain a people; which shews how possible it might have been to have maintained a like correspondence with them in other places, which would not only have saved a great deal of bloodshed, and have contributed to the quick growth of the colonies settled in the countries, inhabited by such Indians, but would have been very useful in many other respects: since it is allowed, where the Indians are treated, as in Pennsylvania, with strict justice and humanity, they are as firm allies as any in the world; and in that quality more capable of doing service, than if reduced to be either slaves or subjects; because, living as they do, they preserve their strength and activity, and enjoy all the liberty they can desire, and are very willing to fight for those under whose protection they enjoy it.

That our readers may be made thoroughly sensible of the absolute and indispensable necessity, under which this nation labours to preserve and maintain an inviolable friendship with the Indian nations in this part of America; he is desired to turn to the following articles, viz. BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, COLONIES, FLORIDA, LOGWOOD, LOUISIANA, MAP, MEDAL, NAVAL STORES, PLANTATIONS, NORTH CAROLINA.

Philadelphia, May 2, 1754.

As the following extract of a letter, from a gentleman residing in one of the colonies to the northward, contains a more full and exact account of the armament sent by the French last summer from Canada, and of the pernicious consequences that may attend the French settling on Ohio, than any I have as yet seen published, it may be of use to be recorded in this work.

S I R,

— ' I am extremely sorry to hear that the governments of Pennsylvania, and Maryland, have not viewed the encroachments of the French in their proper light; or, if they have, that they won't exert themselves at this time of imminent danger. Should the French once gain a settlement at Ohio, they will then have great advantages over the southern colonies, as must be obvious to every person the least acquainted with their situation. In time of peace between the two crowns, they will continually be spiriting on the Indians in their alliance, to murder and scalp the inhabitants of your back counties, in order to prevent the extension of your settlements; and, in time of war, how easy it will be for a number of troops, collected from their several forts, or perhaps sent from Old France for that purpose, to make a descent upon some one or other of the colonies. What then must be the consequence!—Unarmed, and disunited as you are, will you be able to repel the invaders, or prevent their ravaging and laying waste your country, or hinder them from committing their too well known barbarities on such of your inhabitants as may fall within their power? The evil day may a while be put off; but sooner or later it will surely come unless you rouse from the lethargy you seem at present in, and make use of those means to protect yourselves which the Almighty has put in your power; the most proper way of doing which is, to obstruct those incendiaries, the French and their Indians, from settling on your frontiers. By a hearty union of the colonies, and proper management, we might, with little assistance from our mother-country, not only dislodge the French from Ohio, but from Quebec itself. But to send three or four hundred men against five times their number, can answer no other end, than to expose us to the contempt of our Indian allies, who will think themselves obliged to quit the interest of those that seem unable to protect them. You desire me to acquaint you with what I hear that may be depended on, concerning the designs of the French, in sending so large a number of troops from Canada as they did the

last summer. In answer to which I can inform you, that I have lately seen Mr B——r, who was at Oswego at the time their forces passed by that fort; who says, he learnt by sundry deserters, and others, that Monsieur Duquisne, the new governor general of Canada, a young gentleman formerly a captain of a man of war, declares he will have a French fort on each of the waters that empty themselves into St Lawrence, or Mississippi; that he believes the late governors of Canada have been all asleep, but that he will make every officer under him know his duty, and do it.—The four or five detachments were, during the last summer, sent from Canada to the Ohio, making in the whole about 2000, besides Indians, under the command of Monsieur Morin (or Morang, as some call him) whose knowledge of the Indians recommended him to the new governor for that office. The detachment that accompanied Morin, consisted of about 40 or 50 large battoes and canoes, many of them supposed to carry more than 30 men; they sailed within musquet-shot of Oswego, without ever striking their colours, and had their trumpets blowing, drums beating, &c. This was in sight of many of the six nations, and foreign Indians, who could not sufficiently express their surprize at such an armament, and asked whether the English and French were not at peace.—Some of these troops returned to Canada to quarters during the winter, but great part of them were left, as is supposed, at the forts on and near the lakes, to be ready to go down the Ohio early in the spring: those that returned had with them the Pennsylvania Indian traders, so often mentioned to be taken by the French on Ohio; those poor wretches were in irons, and lodged a night within a few miles of Oswego. One of the famous chiefs of the Cahuga nation proposed to some of the traders to attack the French, and recover the prisoners, but they could not muster a sufficient party to do this.—Monsieur Morin built two or three forts, but many disputes arising between him and his officers, together with a severe fit of the gout, made him desire to quit his command; for which purpose, an express was last September sent to Canada, and I suppose the gentleman who writes to governor Dinwiddie was made his successor, who, if he exceeds Morin as much in humanity as he does in politeness and good sense, may be of service to those who have the misfortune of being prisoners in that country.—I saw Morin and his son some years ago in Canada; they have all the vain airs of the French, joined with the savageness of the Indians, without the least of the politeness of the former, or native simplicity and grandeur of the latter. The father commanded when the brave Donahew, captain of one of the Boston sloops, was decoyed ashore and killed; the son was one of his party: as trophies of their victory, the old man shewed me a tobacco-pouch, which he, and the young brute, let me know was made of the skin of poor Donahew's arm: the father had also Donahew's ring, which the son acquainted me he cut the finger off to get, as it would not come off easily. After this, I saw some of Donahew's men who were prisoners, they not only confirmed the above, but assured me the brutish father did himself cut off several pieces of their dead captain's flesh, and threw them into the fire, and encouraged the Indians to do the like; and when they were roasted, the cannibal son, and sundry Indians, tore them with their teeth.—This may serve as a specimen of the neighbours you are like to have.

Your's, &c.'

Further REMARKS before the last War.

Thus we find that the French are determined to raise their interest in America to the highest pitch of power, upon the ruins of that of Great-Britain.—This is a fresh confirmation, of what we have urged in this work, under the preceeding, and various other heads, to which we have referred, in relation to the measures taken by France to aggrandize their power in the new world.

Our accounts also from Philadelphia, July 2, 1754, say, 'That the French have taken the Block-house and Truck-house, erected by the Virginians; cut off all our traders but two, and have taken in goods, furs, and skins, to the amount of 20,000l. at least. A sad stroke to many here: this from the river Ohio, at a place called Log's-Town, about 190 miles from hence due west. How they will be dislodged, time will shew; but the skin-trade is intirely put a stop to, by this enterprize of the French. This account you may rely on, as strictly matter of fact.'

And also our accounts from New-York, of May 16, last, say, that 'We hear from Augustine, by the way of South Carolina, that a vessel of war, belonging to his catholic Majesty, was arrived there from the Havannah, the captain of which reported, the several armed vessels, with men, ammunition, &c. were sailed from thence for Campeachy, to join a fleet that was fitting out there, with a design to attack the Musquetto shore. The above news may be depended upon, as we have it from good authority.'

These things we have foreseen and foretold, for near these three years past, throughout the course of this work; and this any man of plain common sense might easily do, without any pretensions to the gift of prophecy, if he attended

tended to those facts, which we have laid before him in various parts of this performance.

REMARKS ON PENNSYLVANIA, since the last War, and
DEFINITIVE TREATY, of 1763.

On perusal of what we have observed under this article of Pennsylvania, before the last war, the reader will perceive from thence, as well as the whole tenour and spirit of this work, interspersed in variety of proper places throughout, that all that we prejudged relative to the last war with France and Spain has come to pass: and as the assembly of this province, upon a dispute with Mr Penn, their present governor, on the 24th of last March, came to twenty-six resolutions, the last whereof is as follows:

‘Resolved, that this house will adjoin, in order to consult their constituents, whether an humble address should be drawn up, and transmitted to his majesty, praying that he would be graciously pleased to take the people of this province under his immediate protection and government, by compleating the agreement heretofore made with the first proprietor for the state of the government to the crown, or otherwise to his wisdom and goodness shall seem meet’: and as it is further said and believed, that now at this time of writing, all public business is at a stand, and neither men nor money are raised for the protection of their frontiers, still miserably harraled by the Indians—See our article INDIANS, FLORIDA, MISSISSIPPI.

The foregoing being the present state of this province, the following observations may not be unacceptable, respecting what is urged by those who are for obtaining a ROYAL GOVERNMENT in exchange for this of the proprietaries.

’Tis unnecessary for us to enter into the merits of the disputes between the proprietaries and the people: ’tis our business only to observe, that in the present conjuncture a perfect union and harmony is absolutely needful as well in this province, as among the whole of our NORTH AMERICAN PROVINCES, for the mutual protection of their common trade and safety against the Indians; who, we experience, at present, give us no less uneasiness here, than the junction of France and Spain in the last war.

At present, Pennsylvania is in a wretched situation. The government that ought to preserve all in order, is itself weak, and has scarce authority enough to keep the common peace. Mobs assemble and kill numbers of innocent people in cold blood, who were under the protection of the government. Proclamations are issued to bring the rioters to justice. Those proclamations are treated with the utmost indignation and contempt. Not a magistrate dares stir towards discovering or apprehending the delinquents. They assemble again, and with arms in their hands, approach the capital.—The government truckles, condescends to cajole them, and drops all prosecutions of their crimes; whilst honest citizens, threatened in their lives and fortunes, fly the province, as having no confidence in the public protection. They are daily threatened with more of these tumults; and the government, which in it’s distresses called aloud on the sober inhabitants to come with arms to it’s assistance, sees those who afforded that assistance daily libelled, and menaced by its partizans for doing so; whence it has little reason to expect such assistance on another occasion.

If the charge thought of may have the happy effect so indispensably requisite at this time, the sooner it takes place, the better. It does not appear that a change of government can possibly hurt the province; and there may many advantages arise from it. It is only a change of governor, that is, instead of self-interested proprietaries, a gracious king! His majesty, who has no views but the good of his people, will thenceforth appoint governors, who, unshackled with proprietary instructions, will be at liberty to join with the assembly in enacting wholesome laws. At present, when the king requires supplies of his faithful subjects, and they are willing and desirous to grant them, the proprietaries intervene and say, ‘unless our private interest on certain particulars are served, nothing shall be done’. This insolent tribunal VETO, has long, too long incumbered all public affairs, and been productive of many mischiefs. By the crown taking the government into it’s hands, not even the proprietaries can justly complain of any injury. The being obliged to fulfil a fair contract is no injustice. The crown will be under no difficulty in compleating the old contract made with their father, as there needs no application to parliament for the necessary sum, since it seems half the quittents of the lower counties belong to the king, and the many years arrears in the proprietaries hands, who are the collectors, must vastly exceed what they have a right to demand, or any reason to expect.

If stability in the government of every province does not take immediate place, and a perfect harmony and union is not effectually promoted amongst them all; it is not possible that the good intentions of the British government can ever be answered, relative to our North American interest, pursuant to the DEFINITIVE TREATY; the Savages will ruin our

whole commerce, and render the lives and properties of our colonists ever precarious, and subject this nation to immense expences to keep them in subjection, provided the several colonies do not act powerful in concert for that purpose: and if they do, they may soon secure themselves forever, and rear their commerce and navigation to an amazing height, by raising such materials for the manufactures of their mother-country; such as FLAX, HEMP, SILK, POTASH, IRON, TIMBER, great variety of other estimable products that will equally enrich and aggrandize the plantations with these kingdoms in general. See our articles AMERICA, FLORIDA, MISSISSIPPI, MEXICO, PERU, CANADA, FISHERIES, NORWAY.

PEOPLE. Under the article MONEY, we have shewn, that it is the measure of commerce, but that the spring and original thereof, in all nations, is the natural or artificial product of the country; that is to say, what their land, and what the labour and industry of the people produce.

There is no man that can reasonably dispute this position; and, if granted, it follows from thence, that to know rightly how the ballance of trade stands with any nation, a due inspection must be made into their natural or artificial product; and the courses of foreign exchange must likewise be constantly examined. See the articles BALLANCE OF TRADE, and EXCHANGE.

But this natural or artificial product being most of it in the result of the people’s labour and industry, we shall be still in the dark, as to all enquiries of this kind, without maturely considering the numbers of the people.

In these sort of speculations, not only the quantity but quality of the inhabitants must be duly pondered; they must be divided into their several ranks and classes: it must be distinguished, who, by arts, labour, or industry, are increasing; and who, by their expence, poverty, or sloth, are decreasing the kingdom’s wealth. These sub-divisions are likewise to be made, of what numbers are employed in the church, in the wars, in the fleets, mercantile and warlike, in the law, in offices, in merchandize, in shop-keeping and traders, in handicrafts; and who, both of the higher and lower degree, are persons living upon their estates, who are freeholders, farmers, labouring people, servants, cottagers, alms-people, and vagrants.

Various have been the conjectures, in relation to the number of people in this and other countries; which being a matter of use in commercial, as well as other political disquisitions, the following observations, which I have lately received from -----, a gentleman of honour in a public character abroad, who is turned for studies of this kind, may not be unacceptable, though his sentiments differ from some others, in regard to the number of people in this kingdom.

‘Mr King, says this honourable gentleman, observes, that people alone do not make a government rich; for a multitude of beggars or slothful people renders it poor and weak.’

Wealth alone does not make a government rich; for people may be wanted to manage and propagate a great stock.

To which may be added, that people, and wealth, and industry, will not make a government rich and powerful, unless the ruling ministers of state take pains to give them a proper direction and application, which is extremely difficult to do, without some knowledge of the quantity of each of these ingredients, and how they are employed.

One of the first enquiries then of a patriot minister, will be after the numbers and qualities of those from whom the public revenue is drawn. In which (unless a law was made for some register of the people, or the method hereafter mentioned was taken) one can only be guided by conjectures and calculations.

From such lights as we have at present, it may be reasonably supposed, that the number of people in England was, at the beginning of this century, according to the observations of the famous Mr King, 5,500,000. See Davenant’s Essay on Probable Methods, &c. p. 24.

The ratio of increase has been found, by a great variety of good observations, to be, that 100,000 people augment annually, one year with another, to 100,175.

The logarithm of the ratio of increase being multiplied by 50, and added to the logarithm of 5,500,000, will produce a number upwards of 5,995,000, which is near enough to 6 millions to be found any general observations upon, but far enough from the usually supposed number of 8 millions: so that, until it can be shewn us, either that Mr King was wrong, or that the foregoing method of computation, recommended by Mr Kerseboom, is false, we have reason to reject all conclusions drawn from a principle so erroneous. See Aanmerkings, p. 12, notes. Quarto edition.

The 6 millions are supposed to be divided in the following manner:

In London	- - - - -	747,985
In the market-towns, and others of above 150 houses	- - - - -	951,091
In the countries	- - - - -	4,300,924
		<hr/>
		6,000,000

Sir William Petty would have us believe the number of people to be 30 times the number of deaths. The writer of this paper believes it to be about 28 in London, but the safest of all appears to be the adopting Mr Kerseboom's opinion, founded upon very many accurate observations, and agreeing very nearly with Dr Halley, viz. that the number of children born alive in one year, being multiplied by 35, will give us the sum of the inhabitants. See Meenigte Des Volks*.

* I do not agree with Mr Kerseboom in his calculation of the number of people in London, but I use his method to shew that Mr Maitland was nearer the truth than he.

Thus London may be estimated as follows:

The medium of registered births for 14 years	-	17,639
Ditto of unregistered births, supposing dissenters	} of all kinds, as 13, 33 to 86, 66	2,715
Ditto of illegitimates, should be about 65 in 100,	} but is here rated only at 5 per cent.	1,017
Total	-	21,371

Which total, multiplied by 35, produces - 747,985 for the number of inhabitants within the bills of mortality.

If these premisses be allowed to be right, it will be very easy for any common arithmetician to form a new for these times, from Mr King's schemes A. B. and C. as reported by Dr Davenant; but the many alterations that have happened since his time, in the scheme D. make it a work of some difficulty: 'till a better can be formed, the following plan for it is proposed.

S C H E M E D.

1750. Number of Families in England.	Heads per family.	Number of persons.
No.		
1. Temporal lords	200	40
2. Spiritual ditto	26	20
3. Baronets, knights, esquires	4,275	20
4. Gentlemen	13,073	8
5. Persons in greater offices	5,500	8
6. Ditto in lesser offices	8,500	6
7. Eminent merchants and traders by sea, and some monied persons	2,900	9
8. Lesser ditto	11,100	6
9. Law and dependants	15,000	7
10. Eminent clergymen	2,000	7
11. Lesser ditto	8,000	5
12. Freeholds of better sort	27,000	7
13. Ditto lesser	125,000	5½
14. Farmers	186,181	5
15. Persons in liberal arts, &c.	18,000	5
16. Shopkeepers & tradesmen	59,190	5
17. Artizans and handicrafts	68,181	4
18. Naval officers, and some captains of large merchantmen	4,800	4
19. Military officers	5,500	4
Total increasing families	564,426	3,052,083
20. Common soldiers	25,575	2
21. Common seamen	60,000	3
22. Labouring people, and out-servants	397,000	3½
23. Cottagers and paupers	426,238	
Vagrants, Beggars, gipsies, thieves, &c. &c.		
Total decreasing families	908,813	2,947,917
Families increasing as above	564,426	3,052,083
Total together families	1,472,239	6,000,000

If the numbers here set down should be thought any way near the truth, this scheme may be easily compleated with the incomes and expences, according to Mr King: No. 1. should be 800,000l. per. ann. No. 2. 46,462. No. 3. 3,826,125. There are several variations in this scheme, from Mr King's proportions; the reasons of most of them will be obvious: No. 12, 13, and 14, as they are of the greatest importance towards judging of the political state of the nation, so the most pains has been taken to make them right.

It has been imagined, by all those who have turned their thoughts to these matters, that the number of better sort of freeholders is much lessened within these few years; if it should be thought that I have diminished them too much, let the objector take the number of freeholders in any county where he is well acquainted, and compare them, according to the size of his county, with those that should be in the whole kingdom, and I am persuaded he will find, especially if his county be large, that the proportion here set down is great

enough; but he must remember to deduct those freeholders, viz. clergy, lawyers, merchants, &c. &c. that are here included in other articles: those that will take this pains must, I believe, agree, that we have lost within these 50 years, 13,000 of those valuable families, the ancient yeomen of this kingdom.

As to the great augmentation of No. 17, those who consider the present state of luxury amongst us, will not wonder at a double proportion of increase being given to this class. Hoc genus omne, having propagated very fast of late years in England.

The people being the first matter of power and wealth, says Dr Davenant, by whose labour and industry a nation must be gainers in the ballance of trade, their increase or decrease must be carefully observed by any government that designs to thrive; that is, their increase must be promoted by good conduct and wholesome laws; and if they have been decreased by war, or any other accident, the breach is to be made up as soon as possible, for it is a maim in the body politic, affecting all its parts. Almost all countries in the world have been more or less populous, as liberty and property have been there well or ill secured. The first constitution of Rome was no ill-founded government, a kingly power limited by laws; and the people increased so fast, that from a small beginning, in the reign of their sixth king, they were able to send out an army of 80,000 men. And, in the time of the commonwealth, in that invasion which the Gauls made upon Italy, not long before Hannibal came thither, they were grown so numerous, as that their troops consisted of 700,000 foot, and 70,000 horse: it is true, their allies were comprehended in this number, but the ordinary people fit to bear arms, being mustered in Rome and Campania, amounted to 250,000 foot, and 23,000 horse.

Nothing, therefore, can more contribute to the rendering England populous and strong, than to have liberty upon a right footing, and our legal constitution firmly preserved. A nation may be as well called free under a limited kingship, as in a commonwealth; and it is to this good form of our government, that we partly owe that doubling of the people, which has probably happened here in the 435 years last past, according to Davenant.

And if the ambition of some, and the mercenary temper of others, should bring us at any time to alter our constitution, and to give up our antient rights, we shall find our number diminish visibly and fast. For liberty encourages procreation, and not only keeps our inhabitants among us, but invites strangers to come and live under the shelter of our laws.

The Romans, indeed, made use of an advantitious help to enlarge the city, which was by incorporating foreign cities and nations into their commonwealth; but this way is not without its mischiefs. For the strangers in Rome, by degrees, had grown so numerous, and to have so great a vote in the councils, that the whole government began to totter, and decline from its old to its new inhabitants; which Fabius, the censor, observing, he applied a remedy in time, by reducing all the new citizens into four tribes, that being contracted into so narrow a space, they might not have so malignant an influence upon the city.

An act of general naturalization, would likewise probably increase our numbers very fast, and repair what loss we may have suffered in our people by the late war: it is a matter that has been very warmly contended for by many good patriots; but peradventure it carries also its danger with it, which perhaps would have the less influence by this expedient, namely, if an act of parliament were made, that no heads of families hereafter to be naturalized, for the first generation should have votes in any of our elections. But as the case stands, it seems against the nature of right government, that strangers (who may be spies, and who may have an interest opposite to that of England, and who, at best, ever join in one link of obsequiousness to the ministers) should be suffered to intermeddle in that important business of sending members to parliament. From their sons, indeed, there is less to fear, who by birth and nature may come to have the same interest and inclinations as the natives.

And though the expedient of Fabius Maximus, to contract the strangers into four tribes, might be reasonable, where the affairs of a whole empire were transacted by magistrates chosen in one city, yet the same policy may not hold good in England; foreigners cannot influence elections here, by being dispersed about in the several counties of the kingdom, where they can never come to have any considerable strength. But some time or other, they may endanger the government, by being suffered to remain such vast numbers of them here in London, where they inhabit, all together, at least 30,000 persons in two quarters of the town, without intermarrying with the English, or learning our language; by which means, for several years to come, they are in a way still to continue foreigners, and, perhaps, may have a foreign interest and foreign inclinations. To permit this, cannot be advisable or safe; it may, therefore, be proper to limit any new acts of naturalization, with such restrictions, as may make the accession of strangers not dangerous to the public.

An accession of strangers, well regulated, may add to our strength and numbers; but then it must be composed of labouring men, artificers, merchants, and other rich men, and not of foreign foldiers, since such fright, and drive away from a nation more people than their troops can well consist of: for if it has been ever seen, that men abound most where there is most freedom: (China excepted, whose climate excels all others, and where the exercise of tyranny is mild and easy) it must follow, that people will in time desert these countries, whose best flower is their liberties, if these liberties are thought precarious or in danger. That foreign soldiers are dangerous to liberty, we may produce examples from all countries and all ages.

The danger of admitting foreign and mercenary troops into the nation, is too well understood to need any animadversion. Indeed, all armies whatsoever, if they are over large, tend to the dispeopling of a country, of which our neighbour nation is a sufficient proof; where, in one of the best climates in Europe men are wanting to till the ground. For children do not proceed from the intemperate pleasures taken loosely and at random, but from a regular way of living, where the father of the family desires to rear up, and provide for the offspring he shall beget.

Securing the liberties of a nation, may be laid down as a fundamental for increasing the numbers of it's people; but there are other politics thereunto conducing, which no wise state has ever neglected.

No race of men did multiply so fast as the Jews, which may be attributed chiefly to the wisdom of Moses, their law-giver, in contriving to promote the state of marriage.

The Romans had the same care, paying no respect to a man childless by his own fault, and giving great immunities and privileges, both in the city and provinces, to those who had such and such a number of children. Encouragements of the like kind are also given in France, to such as enrich the Commonwealth by a large issue.

But we in England have taken another course, laying a fine upon the marriage bed, which seems small to those who only contemplate the pomp and wealth round about them, and in their view; but they who look into all the different ranks of men, are well satisfied that this duty on marriages and births, is a very grievous burthen upon the poorer sort, whose numbers compose the strength and wealth of any nation. This tax was introduced by the necessity of affairs. It is difficult to say what may be the event of a new thing; but if we are to take measures from past wisdom, which exempted prolific families from public duties, we should not lay impositions upon those who find it hard enough to maintain themselves. If this tax be such a weight upon the poor, as to discourage marriage, and hinder propagation, which seems the truth, no doubt it ought to be abolished; and, at a convenient time, we ought to change it for some other duty, if there was only this single reason, that it is so directly opposite to the polity of all ages and all countries.

In order to have hands to carry on labour and manufactures, which must make us gainers in the ballance of trade, we ought not to deter, but rather invite men to marry, which is to be done by privileges and exemptions, for such a number of children, and by denying certain offices of trust and dignities to all unmarried persons; and where it is once made a fashion among those of the better sort, it will quickly obtain with the lower degree.

Mr King, in his scheme (for which he has as authentic grounds as perhaps the matter is capable of) lays down, that the annual marriages of England are about 41,000, which is one marriage out of every 134 persons: upon which we observe, that this is not a due proportion, considering how few of our adult males (in comparison with other countries) perish by war, or any other accident; from whence may be inferred, that our polity is some way or other defective, or the marriages would bear a nearer proportion with the gross number of our people; for which defect, if a remedy can be found, there will be so much more strength added to the kingdom.

From the books of assessment on births, marriages, (when this was the case) by the nearest view he can make, he divides the 5,500,000 people into 2,700,000 males, and 2,800,000 females; from whence, (considering the females exceed the males in number, and considering that the men marry later than the women, and that many of the males are of necessity absent in the wars, at sea, and upon other business) it follows, that a large proportion of the females remain unmarried, though at an adult age, which is a dead loss to the nation, every birth being as so much certain treasure; upon which account, such laws must be for the public good, as induce all men to marry, whose circumstances permit it.

From this division of the people, it may be likewise observed, that the near proportion there is between the males and females (which is said to hold also in other places) is an argument (and the strongest that can be produced) against polygamy, and the increase of mankind, which some think might be from thence expected; for if nature had intended

to one man a plurality of wives, she would have ordered a great many more female births than males, her designments being always right and wise.

The securing the parish for bastard children, is become so small a punishment, and so easily compounded, that it very much hinders marriage. The Dutch compel men of all ranks, to marry the woman whom they have got with child; and, perhaps, it would tend to the further peopling of England, if the common people here, under such a certain degree, were condemned by some new law to suffer the same penalty.

A country that makes provision to increase in inhabitants, whose situation is good, and whose people have a genius adapted to trade, will never fail to be gainers in the ballance, provided the labour and industry of their people be well managed and carefully directed.

The more any man contemplates these matters, the more he will come to be of opinion, that England is capable of being rendered one of the strongest nations, and the richest spot of ground in Europe.

It is not extent of territory that makes a country powerful, but numbers of men well employed, convenient ports, a good navy, and soil producing all sorts of commodities. The materials for all this we have, and so improveable, that if we did but second the gifts of nature with our own industry, we should arrive to a pitch of greatness that would put us at least upon an equal footing with any of our neighbours.

If we had the complement of men, our land can maintain and nourish; if we had as much trade as our stock and knowledge in sea affairs is capable of embracing; if we had such a naval strength, as a trade so extended would easily produce; and, if we had those stores and that wealth, which is the certain result of a large and well governed traffic, what human strength could hurt or invade us? On the contrary, should we not be in a posture not only to resist, but to give law to others? See the article MANURE.

Our neighbouring Commonwealth has not in territory above eight millions of acres, and, perhaps, not much above two millions, two hundred thousand people; and yet, what a figure have they made in Europe for these last hundred years? What wars have they maintained? What forces have they resisted? And to what a height of power are they now come, and all by good order and wise government?

They are liable to frequent invasions; they labour under the inconvenience and danger of bad ports; they consume immense sums every year to defend their land against the sea, all which difficulties they have subdued by an unwearied industry.

We are formed by nature against foreign enemies; our ports are safe; we fear no irruptions of the sea; our land territory at home, is at least 39 millions of acres; we have, in all likelihood, not less than six millions of people; what a nation might we then become, if all these advantages were thoroughly improved, and if a right application were made of all this strength, and of these numbers?

They apprehend the moderate growth of any prince or state, may, perhaps, succeed by beginning first, and by attempting to pull down such a dangerous neighbour; but very often their good designs are disappointed.

In all appearance they proceed more safely, who under such a fear make themselves strong and powerful at home. And this was the course which Philip, king of Macedon, the father of Perseus, took, when he thought to be invaded by the Romans.

In all appearance the best way for a nation, that apprehends the growing power of any neighbour, is to fortify itself within; we do not mean by land-armies, which rather debilitate than strengthen a country, but by potent natives, by thrift in the public treasure, by multiplying the people, and augmenting their trade, and all the other honest and useful arts of peace.

By such an improvement of our native strength, agreeable to the laws, and to the temper of a free nation, England without doubt may be brought to so good a posture and condition of defending itself, as not to apprehend any neighbour, jealous of it's strength, or envious of it's greatness.

And to this end we open these schemes, that a wise government, under which we live, not having any designs to become arbitrary, may see what materials they have to work upon, and how far our native wealth is able to second their good intentions of preserving us a rich and a free people.

Having said something of the number of our inhabitants, we shall proceed to discourse of their different degrees and ranks, and to examine who are a burthen, and who a profit to the public; for by how much every part and member of the Commonwealth can be made useful to the whole, by so much a nation will be more and more a gainer in this ballance of trade.

In regard to the ranks, degrees, titles, and qualifications of the people before distinguished, it may be observed:

First, that we may thereby detect their error, who, in the calculations they frame, contemplate nothing but the wealth

and plenty they see in rich cities and great towns, and from thence make a judgment of the kingdom's remaining part; and from this view conclude, that taxes and payments to the public, do mostly arise from the gentry and better sort; by which measures they neither contrive their imposition aright, nor are they able to give a true estimate what it shall produce; but when we have divided the inhabitants of England into their proper classes, it will appear, that the nobility and gentry are but a small part of the whole body of the people.

Believing that taxes fall chiefly upon the better sort, they care not what they lay, as thinking they will not be felt; but when they come to be levied, they either fall short, and so run the public into an immense debt, or they light so heavily upon the poorer sort, as to occasion insufferable clamours; and they whose proper business it was to contrive these matters better, have been so unskilful, that the legislative power has been more than once compelled, for the people's ease, to give new funds, instead of others that had been ill projected.

This may be generally said, that all duties whatsoever, upon the consumption of a large produce, fall with the greatest weight upon the common sort: so that such as think in new duties that they chiefly tax the rich, will find themselves quite mistaken; for either their fund must yield little, or it must arise from the whole body of the people, of which the richer sort are but a small proportion.

And though war, and national debts, and engagements, might heretofore very rationally plead for an excise upon our home consumption; yet, in the time of peace, it is the concern of every man that loves his country, to proceed warily in laying new ones, and to get off those which are already laid, as fast as ever he can.

High customs and high excises both together are incompatible; either of them alone are scarce to be endured, but to have them co-exist is suffered in no well governed nation. If materials of foreign growth were at an easy rate, a high price might be better borne in things of our own product; but to have both dear at once (and by reason of the duties laid upon them) is ruinous to the inferior rank of men [see the article DUTIES]: and this ought to weigh more with us, when we consider, that even of the common people, a sub-division is to be made, of which one part subsists from their own savings, arts, labour, and industry; and the other part subsists, a little from their own labour, but chiefly from the help and charity of the rank that is above them.

For, according to Mr. King's scheme,

	Heads.
The nobility and gentry, with their families and retainers, the persons in offices, merchants, persons in the law, the clergy, freeholders, farmers, persons in sciences and liberal arts, shop-keepers and tradesmen, handicrafts-men, naval-officers, with the families and dependants upon all those, all together, make up the number of	2,675,520
The common seamen, common soldiers, labouring people, and out-servants, cottagers, paupers and their families, with the vagrants, make up the number of	2,825,000
In all	5,500,520

So that here seems a majority of the people, whose chief dependence and subsistence is from the other part, which majority is much greater, in respect of the number of families, because 500,000 families contribute to the support of 800,500 families.

In contemplation of which, great care should be taken not to lay new duties upon home-consumptions, unless upon the extreme necessities of the state; for though such impositions cannot be said to fall directly upon the lower rank, whose poverty hinders them from consuming such materials, (though there are few excises to which the meanest person does not pay something) yet indirectly, and by unavoidable consequences, they are rather more affected by high duties upon our home consumption, than the wealthier degree of people; and so we shall find the case to be, if we look carefully into all the distinct ranks of men enumerated.

First, As to the nobility and gentry, they must of necessity retrench their families and expences, if excessive impositions are laid upon all sorts of materials for consumption; from whence follows that the degree below them of merchants, shopkeepers, tradesmen, and artizans, must want employment.

Secondly, As to the manufactures, high excises in time of peace, are utterly destructive to that principal part of England's wealth; for if malt, coals, salt, leather, and other things, bear a great price, the wages of servants, workmen, and artificers, will consequently rise, for the income must bear some proportion with the expence; and if such as set the poor to work, find wages for labour, or manufactures advance upon them, they must raise in the price of their commodity, or they cannot live; all which would signify a little, if nothing but our own dealings among one another were

thereby affected; but it has a consequence far more pernicious, in relation to our foreign trade, for it is the exportation of our own product that must make England rich: to be gainers in the balance of trade, we must carry out of our own product, what will purchase the things of foreign growth that are needful for our own consumption, with some overplus, either in bullion or goods, to be sold in other countries; which overplus is the profit a nation makes by trade, and it is more or less, according to the natural frugality of the people that export; or, as from the low price of labour and manufacture they can afford the commodity cheap, and at a rate not to be underfold in foreign markets.

The Dutch, whose labour and manufactures are dear, by reason of home excise, can, notwithstanding, sell cheap abroad, because this disadvantage they labour under, is balanced by the parsimonious temper of their people: but in England, where this frugality is hardly to be introduced, if the duties upon our home consumption are so large as to raise considerably the price of labour and manufacture, all our commodities for exportation must by degrees so advance in the prime value, that they cannot be sold at a rate which will give them vent in foreign markets; and we must be every where under-fold by our wise neighbours. The consequence of such duties in times of peace, will fall most heavily upon our woollen manufactures, of which most have more value from the workmanship than the materials; and if the price of this workmanship be enhanced, it will in a short course of time, put a necessity upon those we deal with, of setting up manufactures of their own, such as they can, or of buying goods of the like kind and use, from nations that can afford them cheaper.

And in this point we are to consider, that the bulk of our woollen exports does not consist in draperies made of the fine wool, peculiar to our soil, but it is composed of coarse broad cloths, such as Yorkshire cloths, kerseys, &c. which make a great part of our exports, and may be, and are, made of a coarser wool, which is to be had in other countries; so that we are not singly to value ourselves upon the material, but also upon the manufacture, which we should make as easy as we can, by not laying over-heavy burthens upon the manufacture: and our woollen goods being two thirds of our foreign exports, it ought to be the chief object of the public care, if we expect to be gainers in the balance of trade.

Thirdly, as to the lower rank of all, which we compute at 2,825,000 heads, a majority of the whole people, their principal subsistence is upon the degrees above them; and if those are rendered uneasy, these must share in the calamity; but even of this inferior sort, no small proportion contribute largely to excises, as labourers and out-servants; which likewise affect the common seamen, who must thereupon raise their wages, or they will not have wherewithal to keep their families left at home; and the high wages of seamen is another burthen upon our foreign traffic.

As to the cottagers, who are above a fifth part of the whole people, some duties reach even them, as those upon malt, leather, and salt, but not much, because of their slender consumption; but if the gentry, upon whose woods and gleanings they live, and who employ them in day-labour, and if the manufacturers, for whom they card and spin, are over-burthened with duties, they cannot afford to give them so much for their labour and handy-work, nor to yield them those other reliefs which are their principal subsistence; for want of which, these miserable wretches must perish with cold and hunger.

Thus we see excises, either directly or indirectly, fall upon the whole body of the people; and consequently upon our trade and manufactures.

Our study, therefore, now ought to be how those debts may be speedily cleared off, for which these revenues are the funds, that trade may again move freely, as it did heretofore, without such a heavy clog.

Mr King divides the whole body of the people into two principal classes, viz.

	Heads.
Increasing the wealth of the kingdom	2,675,520
Decreasing the wealth of the kingdom	2,825,000

By which he means, that the first class of the people, from land, arts, and industry, maintain themselves, and add every year something to the nation's general stock; and besides this, out of their superfluity, contribute every year so much to the maintenance of others.

That of the second class, some partly maintain themselves by labour (as the heads of the cottage families); but that the rest, as most of the wives and children of these, sick and impotent people, idle beggars and vagrants, are nourished at the cost of others, and are a yearly burthen to the public, consuming annually so much as would be otherwise added to the nation's general stock.

The bodies of men are, without doubt, the most valuable treasure of a country; and, in their sphere, the ordinary people are as serviceable to the Commonwealth as the rich, if they are employed in honest labour, and useful arts: and such

such being more in number, do more contribute to increase the nation's wealth, than the higher rank.

But a country may be populous, and yet poor (as were the antient Gauls and Scythians); so that numbers, unless they are well employed, make the body politic big, but unwieldy, strong but unactive, as to any uses of good government.

Their's is a wrong opinion, who think all mouths profit a country that consume it's product. And it may be more truly affirmed, that he that does not some way serve the Commonwealth, either by being employed, or by employing others, is not only an useless, but a hurtful member to it.

As it is charity, and what we indeed owe to human kind, to make provision for the aged, the lame, the sick, blind, and impotent: so it is a justice we owe to the Commonwealth, not to suffer such as have health, and who might maintain themselves, to be drones, and live upon the labour of others. The bulk of such as are a burthen to the public, consists in the cottagers and paupers, beggars in great cities and towns, and vagrants.

Upon a survey of the Hearth Book, made at Michaelmas, 1685, it was found, that of the 1,300,000 houses in the whole kingdom, those of one chimney amounted to 554,631; but some of those having land about them, let them be computed 500,000 families. But of these, a large number may get their own livelihood, and are no charge to the parish; for which reason Mr King very judiciously computes his cottagers and paupers, decreasing the wealth of the nation, but at 400,000 families; in which account he includes the poor houses in cities, towns, and villages, besides which he reckons 30,000 vagrants, and all these together, to make up 1,330,000 heads.

This is a very great proportion of the people to be a burthen upon the other part, and is a weight upon the land-interest; of which the landed gentlemen must certainly be very sensible.

If this vast body of men, instead of being expensive, could be rendered beneficial to the Commonwealth, it were a work no doubt highly to be promoted by all who love their country.

It seems evident to such as have considered these matters, and who have observed how they are ordered in nations under a good polity, that the number of such, who through age or impotency, stand in real need of RELIEF, is but SMALL, and might be maintained for very little; and that the POOR RATES are swelled to the EXTRAVAGANT DEGREE we now see them at, by two sorts of people; one of which, by reason of our slack administration, is suffered to remain in sloth; the other, through a defect in our constitution, continue in wretched poverty, for want of employment, though willing enough to undertake it.

All this seems capable of a remedy: the laws may be armed against VOLUNTARY IDLENESS, so as to prevent it; and a way may probably be found out to set those to work, who are desirous to support themselves by their OWN LABOUR: and if this could be brought about, it would not only put a stop to the course of that vice, which is the consequence of an idle life, but it would greatly tend to enrich the commonwealth; for, if the industry of not one half of the people maintains in some degree the other part: and besides, in times of peace, did add every year near two millions and a half to the general stock of England; to what pitch of wealth and greatness might we not be brought, if one limb were not suffered to draw away the nourishment of the other; and if all the members of the body politic were rendered useful to it?

Nature, in her contrivances, has made every part of a living creature, either for ornament or use; the same should be in a politic institution rightly governed.

It may be laid down for an undeniable truth, that where all WORK, NO BODY WILL WANT, and to promote this, would be a GREATER CHARITY, AND MORE MERITORIOUS, THAN TO BUILD HOSPITALS, which very often are but so many monuments of ILL-GOTTEN RICHES, ATTENDED WITH LATE REPENTANCE.

To make as many as possible of these 1,330,000 persons (whereof not above 330,000 are children too young to work) who now live chiefly upon others, get themselves a large share of their maintenance, would be the opening a NEW VEIN OF TREASURE, OF SOME MILLIONS STERLING PER ANNUM; it would be a present ease to every particular man of substance, and a lasting benefit to the whole body of the kingdom: for it would not only nourish, but INCREASE THE NUMBER OF THE PEOPLE, of which many thousands perish every year, by those diseases contracted under a SLOTHFUL POVERTY.

Our laws relating to the POOR are very numerous, and this matter has employed the care of every age for a long time, though but with little success, partly through the ill execution, and partly through some defect in the VERY LAWS.

The corruptions of mankind are grown so great, that, now a-days, laws are not much observed which do not in a manner execute themselves; of this nature are those laws which relate to bringing in the prince's revenue, which never fail to be put in execution, because the people must pay, and the prince will be paid; but wherein only one part of the con-

stitution, the people are immediately concerned, as in laws relating to the poor, the highways, assizes, and other civil œconomy, and good order in the state, those are but slenderly regarded.

The public good being, therefore, very often not a motive strong enough to engage the magistrate to perform his duty, law-givers have many times fortified their laws with penalties, wherein private persons may have a profit, thereby to stir up the people to put the laws in execution.

In countries depraved, nothing proceeds well wherein particular men do not one way or other find their account; and, rather than a public good should not go on at all, without doubt it is better to give private men some interest to set it forward.

For which reason, it may be worth the consideration of such as study the prosperity and welfare of England, whether this great engine of MAINTAINING THE POOR, AND FINDING THEM WORK AND EMPLOYMENT, may not be put in motion by giving some body of undertakers a reasonable gain to put the machine upon it's wheels. See the article POOR.

PERSIA is bounded on the north by part of Russia, by the Caspian Sea, and by the country of the Usbeck and independent Tartars; on the east by the Mogul empire, from which a ridge of mountains and the river Indus divide it; on the south it has the Arabian Sea, which is part of the ocean, and the Persian gulph; and on the west it has Georgia and Aran, or ancient Armenia, from which the rivers Kar and Aros part it, and also the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, which separate it from the Turkish empire in Asia. It's greatest extent, from south to north, is about 19 degrees, from 25. 40. to 44. 40. that is to say, 1140 English miles; and it's greatest extent, from east to west, is about 1280 miles, though in many parts it is much narrower, especially towards the north, where, on the west, it contains but a small track of land between Turkey and the Caspian Sea, and, on the east, it is also pent in between the same sea and the country of the Tartars. It is seated under the fourth, fifth, and sixth climates; so that the longest day, in the north part, is 15 hours and some minutes, and in the south part 13 hours and 45 minutes: and, therefore, the temperature of the air is various, according to the different provinces.

Generally speaking, the soil in Persia cannot be much praised: for though some parts be fruitful, and produce excellent fruits, yet other parts are perfectly barren, being mountainous and sandy; and, as there are here but few rivers, they have only rain, and the dissolved snow, to water the land, which falling from the mountains in small brooks and rivulets, render the vallies fertile.

Some travellers tell us, that their corn ripens expeditiously, and that, in some parts, they have three-fold crops in a year. They have almost all kinds of fruits that are in France, but fairer and better, and, by reason of the dryness of the air, they keep a whole year. They have nine or ten sorts of very good grapes; but they have not the muscadine, says Mr Thevenot. Their wines are white, and made of grapes which they call kismich: they make also wine with other sorts of grapes, but it is neither so good, nor keeps so well. They have also some red wine, but little, and to make it they only put some black grapes into white wine, to give it a colour: for, if it were made all of black grapes, it would not keep. We must except the wine of Shiras, which is red, and very good, and stomachical, but is only brought in bottles, and in little quantity.

They have few trees but what grow in their gardens, and of these the palm-tree is the most carefully cultivated; when it is young, and before it bears fruit, they dig at the foot eight or ten fathom deep in the earth, more or less, until they have found water; they only dig on one side, and then fill up the hole with pigeon's dung, whereof they have always great provision for that purpose, as well as for manuring lands, and to make hot-beds for raising melons.

Mr Thevenot says, he was told by the people of the country, that, if they did not take that course with the palm-trees, they would not bear good fruit. But there is a very curious thing besides to be observed in the cultivating of this tree, which is, that every year, when the palm-trees are in blossom, they take the blossoms of the male palm-tree, and put two or three bunches of them into the matrix of each female palm-tree, when they begin to blow, otherwise they would produce dates without any pulp, and only with skin and stone. The matrix is that bud which contains the flowers, from which, in process of time, the dates spring; the time of making that impregnation is about the end of November; not but that the male palm-trees also bear fruit, but it is good for nothing, and therefore they take all their blossoms to impregnate the female with. As to dates, it is worth observing, that the use of them is very dangerous during the heats in hot countries, because they make the whole body break out in blotches and boils, and spoil the sight.

Persia produces also every sort of carrots, beet-roots, parsnips, horse-radish, radishes, turnips, potatoes, mushrooms, cauliflower of an extraordinary size, asparagus, and most sorts of our small salad herbs, with cabbage, lettuce, and Roman lettuce with a long leaf, which is sweet, and very pleasant to the

the taste. They have also small red and white beans, pease, white and grey, small black beans for horses, and green pease of the growth of Europe.

Persia is also productive of all necessaries of life, and abounds particularly with poultry and game. They have plenty of snipes and woodcocks, many sorts of wild ducks, teals, cranes, wood-pigeons, turtles, larks, thrushes, and partridges with red heads: however every sort of deer is here scarce enough; but cattle, especially oxen, abound.

The Persian bread is generally very thin, says Sir John Chardin, and there are several sorts of it; it is generally white and good, and also cheap enough, according to Mr Le Bruyn, who tells us, that they generally give but eight or ten pence for twelve pounds of bread.

A great many Persians use opium; but it is a drug that so enslaves those who are addicted to it, that if a man has once made it customary to himself, and should afterwards forbear to take it, no less than his life would be in danger: if he should go but 10 leagues out of town, and forget to take his opium with him, and find none in the place he comes to, though he should immediately return back again, and make all possible haste, yet he would not get to the town soon enough to save his life, says Mr Thevenot.

The horses in Persia are the finest in all the East: they are higher than the English saddle-horses, straight before, a little head, and legs that are wonderfully thin and fine, exactly proportioned, mighty gentle, good travellers, and very light and sprightly: they are gentle and manageable, easy to feed, and do good service till they are 18 or 20 years old.

Horses are very dear in Persia; the fine ones are valued from 90 to 450 pound sterling: the great exportation of them into Turkey and the Indies is what makes them so dear, though they cannot carry any out of the kingdom without a special permission from the king.

The best and most common way of riding there, after the horse, is the mule; they have very good ones in Persia, that pace well, never fall, and are seldom tired; the highest price of a mule is about 45 pounds. The other beasts of use, after these, are asses, of which they have two kinds in Persia, namely, the asses of the country, which are like ours, slow and heavy; these they employ for nothing but to bear burthens; but they have also a breed of Arabian asses, that are mighty fine beasts, and the best asses in the world; they have smooth shining hair, they carry their heads lofty, their feet are light, and they move them gracefully: these are kept for riding, and their masters love them for their lightness and easy going: some of them are valued at 20 pounds.

The camel is a beast much prized by the eastern people, of which there are two sorts, the northern and southern, as the Persians call them. The latter, which travel from the Persian gulph to Ispahan, and no further, are much smaller than the other, and carry but 700 weight, the other 1300 weight; yet they bring their masters as much profit, because they cost little or nothing to keep: they lead them without halter or reins, grazing on the road as they go along, notwithstanding their load. They shed their hair so clean in the spring, that they look like scalded pigs, and then they pitch them all over, to keep the flies from stinging them. The camel's-hair is the most profitable fleece of all the tame beasts; they make very fine stuffs of it; and in Europe they make hats of it, with a little beaver mixed with it. They take notice when the camel is in love, that they may increase his load, otherwise he would be ungovernable.

As Persia is very mountainous, it is full of metals and minerals, which they have begun to draw out in the last century much more than in the preceding ages. Sir John Chardin asserts, that their diligence was owing to the great Scha Abas, and that it was the vast quantity of mineral waters, which are here and there to be met with in all parts of the kingdom, that induced him to cause the working of the mines to be prosecuted with vigour.

The metals most usually to be met with in Persia are iron, steel, brass, and lead. They have not as yet found any gold or silver there, though they are well assured there must be some in the mines, it being impossible that so many mountains, which produce all sorts of metals, and sulphur and salt-petre, should not likewise produce those the more precious metals, says Sir John; but, adds he, the Persians are too slothful to make any discoveries. Minerals abound through all Persia: sulphur and salt-petre are extracted out of the mountain of Damavend, which separates Tabristan from Irax.

With regard to the mechanic arts and trades of the Persians, Sir John Chardin gives us the following account: first he observes, that the eastern people are naturally soft and lazy: they work for and only desire necessary things. All those beautiful pieces of painting, carving, turning, and so many others, whose beauty consists in an exact and plain imitation of nature, are not valued among those Asiatics: they think that because those pieces are of no use for the occasions of the body, they do not therefore deserve our notice. In a word, they make no account of the working of good pieces, they take only notice of the matter, which is the reason that their arts

are so little improved: for, as to the rest, they are men of good parts, have a penetrating wit, are patient, and would make very skilful workmen, were they paid liberally.

He observes, likewise, that they are not desirous of new inventions and discoveries; they think they enjoy all the necessaries and conveniencies of life, and rest contented, chusing rather to buy goods from strangers, than to learn the art of making them. It is well known how much the Turks and Persians lay out in watch-work, yet they do not set about to learn that trade, which they see so profitable; nor paper-making, though absolutely necessary; nor many other such-like trades.

Neither is there in Persia one single native that knows well how to mend a watch. They have desired a hundred times to have printing-houses; they acknowledge their usefulness, and necessity, and yet no body undertakes to set one up.

Sir John's next observation is, that the hot climates enervate the mind as well as the body, and lay the quickness of the fancy necessary for the invention and improvement of arts. In those climates, men are not capable of night-watchings, and of a close application, which brings forth the valuable works of the liberal and of the mechanic arts. It is for the same reason, also, that the knowledge of the Asiatics is so restrained, that it consists only in learning and repeating what is contained in the books of the Ancients, and their industry lies fallow and uncultivated.

Our traveller observes further, concerning the method of the eastern artificers, that they need but few tools about their works. It is certainly an incredible thing in our country to hear how easily and conveniently those workmen set themselves up, and work at their trade. Most of them have neither shop nor shop-bench; they go and work wherever they are sent for; they set on the bare ground, or on an old carpet, in the corner of a room, and in a moment you see the board up, and the workmen at work, sitting on his breech, holding his work with his feet, and working with his hands.

The gold and silversmiths, as well as the rest, go likewise and work at people's houses. The reason why the Persians have their work done at home, is because they will not trust the workmen, and will see whether things be done according to their mind.

As to the polity of the Persian tradesmen, Sir John informs us, that the trades have every one a head to the company, elected out of their body, who is approved by the king; and that is all their government: yet, strictly speaking, they do not form a regular body, for they never assemble together. They have some few customs only, which the head of the trade causes to be observed; as for instance, that there be always a due distance between the shops and tradesmen of the same trade, except in the places which are particularly designed for one sort of work: whoever is about to set up a shop in any trade, goes to the head of the trade, gives his name and place of abode, to be set down in the register, and pays some small fine for it.

The head never inquires of what country the tradesman is, nor who was his master, nor whether he understands his trade. The trades have likewise no restrictions to hinder one from incroaching upon another: a tinker makes silver basons, if they are bespoke; every one undertakes what he pleases, and they never sue one another upon that account. There is, likewise, no binding of apprentices among them, and they learn their trades for nothing; far from paying any money, the boys that are put out apprentices with a master have wages the very first day they go to him: the parents make an agreement between the master and the apprentice, for so much per-day the first year, a half-penny or a penny a day, according to the age of the apprentice, and the hardship of the trade; and the wages increase now and then, according to the apprentice's improvement; but this is still without any mutual confinement with respect to time, the master having always the liberty to turn away his apprentice, and the apprentice to leave his master.

There it is, indeed, that knowledge must be stolen; for the master thinking on the profit he may reap by his apprentice, more than on teaching him his trade, does not trouble himself with him in that respect, but employs him only in those things that relate to his advantage. Most trades are bound to the king's average, that is, to do the king's work when they are ordered; and the trades which are not employed in that work, as the shoe-makers, the cap-makers, the drawer makers, pay a tax to the place called Cargh Padeha, i. e. the King's Expence.

The Persians have but indifferent carpenters; the reason of it is, because of the little timber there is in Persia, and the little wood they commonly use in building. It is not so with the joiners, they are very skilful and ingenious in composing all sorts of inlaid and mosaic work, and they make noble cielings in that kind: they fit them all on the ground, and, when they are done, they raise them up over the top of the building, on the columns that are to bear them up. The joiners sit on the ground at their work; their planes are not like ours, for they thrust the shavings out of the sides, which seems to be a more expeditious way. Their ordinary wood

wood is a white wood, very soft, and without knots, and therefore very easily to be wrought. They have excellent wood, that comes from Hircania (now Tabristan) in long boards, like the Norway deal-boards.

Embroidery is one of the mechanic arts which the Persians are best versed in; they do all sorts of embroidery very well, especially the gold and silver, either in cloth, silk, or leather: they exceed us in that art, and the Turks, likewise, whose stitching and embroidery leather we so much admire. Their leather-seams, and those of horse-trappings among the rest, are so smooth and so neat, that you would take them for embroidery. The gold and silver thread they use is so well twisted, that one would take it for wire when it is wrought, the silk not appearing in the least.

The enamel ware, or China ware, as they call it, is likewise one of the most curious manufactures which they make all over Persia. The earth of which that ware is made, is pure enamel, both within and without, like the China ware. The grain of it is as fine and transparent, as that is, whereby it happens, that one is often deceived in that earthen ware, and cannot distinguish it from China ware. Nay, you meet sometimes with Persian ware, that exceeds the China ware, so beautiful and lively is the varnish of it; but this must be understood of the new China ware, and not of the old. The skilful workmen in enamel ware, ascribe to the water the gloss of the colour, and say, that there are some waters that dissolve the colours and make them spread, whereas there are others that contract and fix them.

The pieces which the Persians make best, are the enamel tiles painted and cut out in imitation of mosaic work. Indeed nothing can be seen livelier and brighter in that kind, or drawn finer, or more regular.

This Persian earthen ware is fire proof, so that they not only boil water in it without breaking, but they even make pillow-pots thereof; it is hard enough also to make mortars to grind colours, and other materials in.

The matter of that fine enamel is glass, and little river pebbles pounded very small, together with a little mould mixed with them. There are some tradesmen in Persia, whose employment is to mend earthen ware and glass; they join the pieces together, and sew them with very small iron wire, and rub the seam over with a kind of Chalk or small lime. A dish so mended holds water as before.

The gold wire-drawers and thread-twiners are very dextrous workmen: they draw an ingot, weighing a muscal or drachm, nine hundred guezes or Persian ells long, each guezé being thirty-five inches long. Their thread is the best and smoothest that can be imagined. All the art they use to give it that lively and lasting colour it has, is to gild the wire very fine and very thick.

The next trade in which the Persians excel, is that of tanning hides, and especially of working shagreen, and all sorts of Turkey leather: abundance of these are made in Persia, and exported to the Indies, to Turkey, and to the other neighbouring kingdoms. Shagreen is made of an ass's rump, and of a seed called the seed of casbin: it is black, hard, and bigger than the mustard-seed, which they use for want of the casbin seed. The tanners dress coarse hides with lime; they use no bark, but chiefly salt and gall instead of it, and that is enough in their country, the air being hot and dry.

The turner's trade is also one of the mechanic arts, which the Persians understand very well. They have no frame for turning as we have; their way consists only in a treddle, to which they fasten whatever they intend to turn; a thong that goes twice round the treddle, and which a boy holds with both his hands, and pulling now one end, then the other, turns the piece about. But when they have but small pieces to turn, the workman needs no help, for with one hand he moves the axis with a bow, and with the other hand he holds the piece of wood. They use no wimbles as we do, but they use gimblets of several sizes, which are instead of them, and which they turn with the same instrument as they do wood: it is a piece of iron flat and sharp at the end, shaped like a rib, that it may cut the better, fastened in a round handle filled with lead, to make it weighty, about which they put a strap that goes quite round it; they hold fast the gimblet with the left-hand on the piece of wood they intend to bore, and turn it with the right hand; such is their mechanic way of turning and boring.

They lay on lacquer very neatly, the violent motion of the turning instrument melting it without the help of fire; they spread it with a palm-tree stick, because that wood is porous; and then with a piece of coarse cloth and a little oil, they give to their work a wonderful lustre, which never goes off; that lacquer, likewise, is never subject to scaling.

They turn metals as well as wood, but they are very far from attaining in that respect, to the skill of our workmen; they are likewise unskillful in the turning of an oval; it is a figure, the working of which they are utterly unacquainted with.

The armourers make very good weapons, especially bows and swords. The Persian bows are the most valued of all those in the east. The matter whereof they are made is wood and horn laid over one another, and covered with sinews, and over

that with the bark of a tree very slick and smooth; they paint them afterwards, and varnish them so admirably well, that one may see one's face in those bows, and the colour of them is as bright as possible. The bow-strings are of twisted silk, the bigness of a large quill. The quivers are made of leather embroidered with gold and silk. Their scymitars or sabres, are very well damasked, and exceed all that the Europeans can do; which is, because our steel is not so full of veins as the indian steel, which they use most commonly. They forge their blades cold, and before they dip them, they rub them with tallow, oil, or butter, to hinder them from breaking. Then they temper them with vinegar and copperas, which being of a corroding nature, shew those streaks or veins, which they call damask-works. This is likewise what they call damask steel, because the town of Damascus was the most celebrated place for the manufacture of those curious scymitar-blades.

The Persians make also very well the barrels of fire-arms, and damask them as they do the blades; but they make them very heavy, and cannot avoid it; they bore and scower them with a wheel as we do, and forge and bore them so even that they scarce ever burst. They make them alike strong and thick all along, saying that the mouth of the gun being weak the report shakes it, and communicates the wavering motion to the bullet; which is the reason that if their guns be thicker, they therefore carry the shot farther and straighter. They understand very well how to make locks or springs, those they put to their fire-arms, being very unlike to ours.

The workmen in iron and steel are very well versed in their trade; they hammer both iron and steel cold, and succeed very well in it with respect to several sorts of tools and instruments: for instance, country ovens, which are shaped like two semi-cones, or semi-spheres, cut through the top, and fastened together with iron hooks. The diameter of them is two feet and a half, and the height from three to four feet. There stick out in the inside of these cones large pins about four inches long, and as big, with flat heads, and as broad as half a crown. When they have occasion to warm those ovens, they overcast the inside and outside of them with clay, which sticks to the nail's head, and makes, as it were, a wall of it, to which they stick the bread. The iron and steel tools they make best also, are, among others, saws, which are made of steel, as smooth and as bright as a looking-glass; razors which are but half as big as the handles, yet are as broad at the end, and shave very well; scissars which they make hollow in the inside, like gutters, saying that being so shaped, the edges of the two blades join closer and cut better. Almost all their steel looking-glasses are convex, some few are concave like the burning-glasses. The air being very dry in Persia, the brightness of the looking-glasses does not grow dull, and they never rust. The eastern people use likewise glass looking-glasses, and even abundance of them, though not near so many as metal ones, and that they do upon two accounts; the first is, because those metal looking-glasses are more lasting, and do not break with falling; the second reason is, when the glass looking-glasses are once unsilvered, they become useless, the method of silvering glass, being unknown in all the eastern parts; and the quicksilver that is on the back of the looking-glasses coming off easier there than in Europe, by reason of the dryness of the air. They polish their metal glasses with emery, pounded to powder as fine as dust, they having little or no Venetian tripoly.

The art of dyeing seems to have been more improved in Persia than in Europe. Their colours are much more solid and bright, and do not fade so soon; but the honour of it is not so much to be ascribed to their art, as to their air and climate; which being dry and clear, causes the liveliness of the colours; as also to the strength of the dyeing ingredients, which growing most of them in the country, are used when they are green and full of sap. Their dyeing and painting colours are the bole or red earth, the rounat or opponax, which are two common ingredients in Persia; the Brazil wood, which is imported among them from Europe; the Japan wood, and the Indigo, which they fetch from the Indies. They use, moreover, in dyeing, several herbs and simples, of their own growth, and gums, and bark of trees, and the rinds of fruits, as of walnuts and pomegranates, and the juice of lemon. The lapis lazuli, which they call lagsverd, is got in their neighbourhood, in the country of the Usbecks, but Persia is the general storehouse for it.

There are glass-houses all over Persia, but they do not well understand the art of making glass; most of theirs is full of flaws and bladders, and is greyish: upon the account, doubtless, says Sir John Chardin, that their fire lasts but three or four days, and that their deremne, as they call it, which is a sort of broom that they use to make it, does not bear heat so well as our fewel.

Paper-making is performed very rudely in Persia, because they use nothing but callico, either dyed or painted, therefore their paper is brownish, foul, ragged, and over limber. They use a great deal of European paper, after they have prepared it, but they fetch some from Little Tartary, which they prefer before it. They prepare their paper with a little soap, which they rub over it, then they smooth it with a sleek-stone,

stone, that their ink may run more freely. These are the chief mechanic arts and trades practised in Persia.

We come now to give an account of their manufactures. They have very good manufactures in cotton, in goats and camels hair, in yarn, and especially in silk, that being a plentiful and common commodity in Persia. The natives have addicted themselves particularly to the well working of it; and it is the thing they are best skilled in, and in which they have the most considerable manufactures.

They keep their raw and unwrought silk in damp places, which they water sometimes, to continue the weight of them, because they sell it by the weight, and for the same reason, they keep that which is wound up in leathern bags. We shall pass by several sorts of stuffs of all silk, such as taffeties, tabbies, fattins, &c. and also stuffs mixed with silk and cotton thread, or with camel's or goat's hair, which are made all over Persia: we shall only speak of their brocade.

There is the single brocade, whereof there are a hundred sorts; and the double brocade, which is called douroye, i. e. with two faces, because it hath no wrong side, and the machmely zerbase, or gold velvet. They make gold brocades which cost fifty tomans the gæze or ell, which being two feet and half a quarter long, French measure, comes to about thirty crowns the inch, or eleven hundred crowns the ell. No part of the world affords so dear a silk. They employ six men together about the loom to make it, who use about thirty shuttles to weave it. Notwithstanding the extraordinary rate of that precious brocade, the workmen employed in it do not earn above fifteen or sixteen pence a day, for they can make but the thickness of a half-crown piece of it. Those dear brocades are bought for curtains, door-hangings, and cushions, which are the most common furniture of a house.

The gold velvet, which is wrought in Persia, is very charming, especially the curled velvet: all those rich stuffs have such admirable property, that they last or ever, as it were, and the gold and silver does not wear off whilst the work lasts, and keeps still its colour and brightness. The finest looms for these stuffs are at Yezd, at Casban, and likewise at Isfahan; those for carpets are in the province of Khorman: these are the carpets we commonly call in Europe Turkey carpets, because the merchants brought them through Turkey, before they traded with the Persians by the ocean.

Trading, says Sir John Chardin, is a very honourable profession in the East, as being the best for those that have any stability, and are not so liable to change: nor is it to be wondered at, for it cannot be otherwise in kingdoms, where, on the one hand, there is no title of nobility, and therefore little authority annexed to birth; and, on the other hand, the form of government being altogether despotic and arbitrary, the authority annexed to places and employments cannot last longer than the employments themselves, which are likewise precarious; for which reason trading is much set by in that part of the world, as a lasting and independent station.

Another reason why it is valued, is because the noblemen and even the king profess it: they have their deputies or factors, as merchants have, and under the same denomination. They have most of them their trading ships, and their storehouses. The king of Persia for instance, sells and sends into the neighbouring kingdoms, silks, brocades, and other rich goods, carpets, and precious stones. The name of merchant is a name highly respected in the East, and it is not allowed to shopkeepers, or dealers in trifling goods, nor to those who trade not in foreign countries; it is permitted only to such as employ deputies or factors in the remotest countries: and those men are sometimes raised to the highest rank, and are usually employed in embassies.

There are merchants in Persia, who have deputies in most parts of the world; and when those deputies are returned home, they wait on their masters under no better denomination than that of a servant, standing up always before them, and waiting at table, though some of those deputies are worth above three-score thousand crowns.

In the Indies the laws are still more favourable to traders; for though they are more numerous than in Persia, they are nevertheless more valued. The reason of this additional respect is, because in the Indies, traders are sacred persons, who are never molested, even in time of war, and allowed a free passage, they and their effects, through the middle of armies. It is upon their account especially, that the roads are so safe all over Asia, and especially in Persia. The eastern merchants affect grandeur in trading, notwithstanding they send their deputies into all parts, and stay at home themselves, as in the centre of their chief concern. They make no bargains themselves directly; there is no place of exchange in their towns, the trade is carried on by brokers, who are the subtlest, the most cunning, the sliest, the most complaisant, most patient, and intriguing men of the whole society, having a smooth and insinuating tongue beyond expression.

The Mahometans are not the greatest traders in Asia, though they are dispersed almost in every part of it. Some of them are too effeminate, and some too severe, to apply themselves to trade, especially foreign trade. Wherefore, in Turkey,

the Christians and Jews carry on the main foreign trade; and in Persia, the Christians and the Indian Gentiles.

As to the Persians they trade with their countrymen, one province with another, and most of them trade with the Indians. The Armenians manage alone the whole European trade; the reason of which is, because the Mahometans cannot strictly observe their religion among the Christians, with relation to the outward purity it requires of them; for instance, their law forbids them to eat flesh either killed or dressed by a man of a different religion, and likewise to drink out of the same cup with such a one. It forbids them to call upon God, in a place adorned with figures. It even forbids, in some cases, the touching of persons of a different opinion, all which laws it is almost impossible to keep among the Christians.

Another hindrance there is to the Mahometan improvement of trade, namely, the forbidding usury and interest without any distinction. Mahomet broached his religion in a country, whereof the whole riches and trade consisted in cattle and breeds of horses, where little money was seen, and where the trade was managed by way of barter, as in former times; and it appears from a thousand passages in the Koran, that he did not foresee his religion would be propagated throughout the world, so that he perceived no inconveniency in forbidding to lend money upon interest.

The old commentators of his institution have not explained that prohibition, so that it has remained in force to this day. Thus their law allows no interest, but it allows changes, especially maritime changes, upon any advantage whatsoever, as thirty and forty per cent. profit, or more. As for interest, the parties have their way of evading the law just as they please.

Silk is the staple commodity of Persia. They get some in the provinces of Georgia, of Chorassan, and of Khorman, but especially in Ghilan and Mazanderan. They compute that Persia produces yearly twenty-two thousand bales of silk, each bale weighing two hundred threescore and sixteen pounds weight; and that account increases every year, because silk improves continually.

There are four sorts of silk; the first and the worst is called Chirvani, because it comes from Chirvan, a province near the Caspian Sea; it is a thick and rough silk, and the coarsest thread of the shell, it is that they call ardashe in Europe. The second, which is a size better, is called carvari, i. e. an ass-load, to denote that sort of silk which the unskilful buy; they call it legia in France, probably from the word Legian, the name of a small town in Ghilan on the sea, where none but such a sort of silk is made. The third is called ketkodapend, as though one should say, the citizen sort; which name the Persians give to all things of a middling character. The fourth is called sharbafsee, i. e. the brocade silk, because the best silk is used for those rich goods. The abundance of Persian silk exported is well enough known. The Dutch import of it into Europe to the value of near sixty thousand pounds sterling yearly, by the Indian Sea; and all the Europeans who trade in Turkey, import nothing more valuable than the Persian silks, which they buy of the Armenians. The Muscovites import it likewise.

Some foreigners trade with the Persians for camel's hair, and some Europeans for kid's wool; they use it in Europe for making of hats. The best wool of that sort, comes from Khorman and from Casbin, a famous city of Parthia, or Persian Irack. Persia exports into the East-Indies abundance of tobacco, all sorts of fruit dried, pickled in vinegar and preserved, especially dates, marmelades, wines, distilled waters, horses, Persian ware, feathers, Turkey leather of all sorts and colours, a great deal whereof is also exported to Muscovy, and other European countries. They export into Turkey tobacco, galls, thread, coarse goat's hair, stuffs, and all sorts of box-work, with many other things. The exportation of steel and iron is prohibited, but it is exported notwithstanding.

It is not to be supposed, however, that the Persians manage trade with the same method and rule as we do, or with the skill of the Europeans; for instance, trading by commission and the use of bills of exchange, are little known, but every one goes to sell his own goods himself, or sends his deputies or his children to do it. Neither have they any letter-posts in the east, because their trade is not spread far enough, and is not managed with so much activity as in Europe; and also because the towns are at too great a distance from one another, and messengers are hired at a very easy rate; they send an express a thirty days journey for about thirty shillings, and he performs that journey, which amounts to nine hundred English miles, in eighteen or twenty days time, and sometimes in fifteen. When those expresses are hired to go a journey, they run presently from place to place, and give notice of their intended journey, in order to get some letters to carry, which they carry for as little as you please; they will carry a packet of letters of three ounces weight for fifteen pence.

It must be also observed, that in Persia they subscribe no bills, bonds, and other writings, but instead thereof, they write at the top of the paper their own name, and their surname, which is always their father's proper name; and they seal

seal the paper at the bottom, in the presence of witnesses, who attest it also with their seals: in that manner do the merchants make their writings; and although in most cases the contracts made, without due FORM OF LAW, be void, yet amongst merchants they remain in FULL FORCE, and the secular power ratifies them. The use of futilities or bails, is also very common amongst them.

The most current money in Persia, as Tavernier, Thevenot, and others inform us, are the abassi's, mahmoudi's, shai's, and casbeghi's; the abassi's are of the finest silver, and the officers of the mint dare not coin any single piece, until they have first refined the piaftres, and other pieces of silver, that are appointed for the making of abassi's. And abassi was in Thevenot's time, about eighteen pence French money; and considering there was no great difference then in the value of French and English coin, we may well suppose an abassi to be still worth about sixteen pence of our money. The abassi's, as all the rest of the Persian coin, are stamped with the hammer, and not milled, and there is so great an inequality in their weight, that in great payments they are weighed after this manner: they put twenty-five abassi's in one scale of the ballance, and as many in the other; and if the one weigh more or less than the other, they conclude for certain, that there are some false abassi's among them, and fail not to examine them, in which they are never out, for each scale ought most exactly to weigh alike. An abassi is worth two mahmoudi's, a mahmoudi two shai's, and a shai ten single or five double casbeghi's. These last pieces are of brass, the three other sorts are all of silver, for gold is not current in trade. They have one brass coin called bifti, worth four casbeghi's, but the bifti's are now very scarce. They do not stamp their coin with the king's effigy, nor with his coat of arms; they only stamp on one side of the silver pieces the king's name, in whose name it was coined, and on the other, the name of the town and the year of the hegira.

The brass pieces have on one side a lion, with a rising sun on his back, the emblem of Persia, and on the other the name of the place where it was struck. There is a coin all along the Persian Gulph, called larins, which is the most common in trade. Larin, says Sir John Chardin, signifies coin of Lar, which is the capital of Caramania Deferta (now Laristan). This was a distinct kingdom, before Atlas the Great king of Persia, who conquered it, joined it to his kingdom. that piece of money is of good silver, and is worth about ten pence English. The make of it is very extraordinary, being a round wire, of the bigness of a quill, folded in two, and an inch long, with a small mark on it, which is the prince's stamp. None having been coined since the conquest above-mentioned, is the reason they are now very scarce. They do nevertheless reckon by that coin all along the Persian Gulph, and in the Indies, along the gulph of Cambay, and in the neighbouring ports; they say that formerly it was current throughout all the east. Sir John Chardin does not give us the same account with Tavernier, of the stamp of the money; for he tells us that the stamp of the money, like that of the great seal of the kingdom, represents in the middle of one of the sides the Persian belief in these words, There is no God but God; Mahomet is God's prophet; Aly is God's vicegerent, and the names of the twelve imans, and on the other the name of the king of the place, and of the year of the higera. Sir John adds, that the charge of coining is greater in Persia than in any other parts of the world, for it amounts to seven and a half per cent. The or is not a real coin, but only a nominal value of money, as a pound sterling is with us, and is used among merchants when they speak only of small sums; an or is worth five abassi's. A toman also is but a certain sum of money, and no coin; it is worth fifty abassi's, and in Persia they generally reckon by tomans.

They have no gold money in Persia, for the pieces of gold stamped with the king's effigy, and coined at his accession to the throne, and on new year's day, which are of the same weight as the German ducats, are not current among the people, any more than counters are in France; besides those pieces of gold have no proper name; the Persians call them commonly tela, i. e. gold pieces; they are called also chervasi's, i. e. nobles, by reason of their value. Tavernier tells us, that the merchants who travel into Persia, carry with them ducats of Germany, the Low Countries, and Venice, but they must carry them to the mint as soon as they enter the kingdom; yet if they can secretly sell them to private persons, they make a greater profit of them. And when they go out of the kingdom, they must declare all the gold coin they take with them, and pay four pence duty to the king's officers for every ducat, if they should endeavour to conceal their gold, and chance to be discovered, they would lose it all.

The common weight in Persia is of two sorts, the civil weight, and the legal or religious weight. The legal weight, which they call cheray, and which is like the weight of the sanctuary, according to the use of the ancient Hebrews, weighs commonly double the civil weight. They have, like us, different weights for medicines and precious stones, from the common weights. The civil weight is also of two sorts,

the king's weight, and the tauris weight as they call it. The king's weight, or the great weight, weighs exactly as much more as the other, they call their common weight man, and also batman. The small weight man comes to five pounds fourteen ounces of Paris weight. Their way of dividing it is as follows: the ratel is the sixth part of a man, and comes near to a pound with us; the derham, or drachm, is the fiftieth part of a pound; muscal is half a derham; the dung is the sixth part of a muscal, and comes to about eight grains of carat weight, and the barley-corn, which is the fourth part of a dung. The eastern weights are all reduced to the barley-corn.

There are two sorts of ells, the royal ell, which is three feet long wanting an inch, and the short ell, or guezemoukeffer, as they call it, which is but two thirds of the other. The geometrical measure is called girib; the land is measured by no other measure, and the girib contains a thousand and sixty-six square ells, each ell containing thirty-five royal inches. The carpets that are sold by the ell, are measured also by the square ell, multiplying the length by the breadth, which the Persians call ell by ell. For instance, if a floor carpet is twelve ells long and three broad, they say, three times twelve is thirty-six, for it contains as many square ells. The Persians have no measure for dry goods, as a bushel, &c. because they sell every thing by weight, even liquors. They have no measure for time, neither clocks nor dials. They divide the day into eight parts, most of which the Mahometan priests give notice of in towns, by calling people to prayer.

A summary of the commerce of Persia, according to the judicious Mr Hanway*.

* If we may judge, says this ingenious gentleman, from the duties paid in RESHD, the trade began to flourish on our arrival there; for in 1742 the customs amounted only to 20,000 crowns, but in 1743 they arose to 50,000, and made about the same sum in 1744. The annual produce of GHILAN in good times, I compute to be 30,000 batmans † of raw silk, of which about 6000 are consumed in Persia, 4000 sent to Babylon, and the remainder over the Caspian Sea. SHIRVAN formerly produced a large quantity, but that province is now in a much worse condition than GHILAN. This commodity is brought to market all the year round. They have several kinds of it, the first is called sherbaff, or weaver's silk, they being supposed, particularly in RESHD and CASHAN, to use the best they can procure; but what generally goes for the PERSIAN fabric at CASHAN, is the finest sort, the threads of which are more split; this is usually all white, whereas the other is white and yellow; nor is it wound off so short, so that though finer we do not esteem it so much as sherbaff. There is also a sort called Arabs, from being bought up for the most part by Arabians, who send it into Turkey, where it is afterwards manufactured.

* See an Historical Account of the British Trade over the Caspian Sea.—By Jonas Hanway, merchant.

† 240,000 great pounds.

GHILAN produces the best and greatest quantities of silk; next to this comes SHIRVAN and ERIVAN, then MAZANDERAN, and lastly ASTRABAD; but the latter is vastly inferior, serving only for a manufacture mixed with cotton, of which they make their shirts and drawers. Ghilan silk is sent into Russia and Turkey, and part of it is kept for the Persian manufactures, but that of Mazanderan and Astrabad is seldom or ever exported. From Shirvan they formerly sent all their silk to Turkey and Russia. The peasants of Ghilan perceiving that the English required the sherbaff to be short wound, prepared it in that manner, and the silk proved good, and was much esteemed by our manufacturers. The peasants gave this reason for chusing to have their silk long wound: in moist weather, the silk wound on a large wheel is not so apt to stick or be gummed together, in those parts where it lays on the bars, or divisions of the wheel, where it is often rendered black, and so hard, that it cannot without great difficulty be separated; besides, with a large wheel they make more dispatch; but all this time they did not consider the inconvenience of winding it off to be manufactured. These peasants are extremely tenacious with regard to the price of their silk: their business is usually done by brokers, but the buyer attends to pay the money. They sell it in small quantities, so that a cargo cannot always be collected. Besides this inconvenience, there is that of bad money, for they are often obliged to cut it through, in order to see that it is not copper silvered over. Their jealousy ran so high, that the governor of Ghilan once published an order, that whoever refused any kind of money, except it was manifestly bad, his ears and nose should be cut off, and his estate confiscated: but I never heard that this order was carried into execution.

The silk-worm, as is well known, takes its birth from an egg no bigger than a small pin's head. In the month of March, when the sun is already very warm, I observed the peasants in Ghilan prepare to give life to the eggs, which they had preserved during the winter, carrying them for the most part about them, in the warmest part of their bodies, and particularly

cularly under their arms. In ten or more days, according to the heat it receives, it becomes a maggot and begins to feed: the shrub mulberry-trees which are annually pruned, produce the most tender and proper leaves for their food. In about forty days, the worm arrives to it's maturity, and winds itself by daily gradations into a pod of silk as big as a pigeon's egg. When this egg is completely formed, which is usually known by the silence of the worm within, they suffocate it by covering it with blankets, or by the heat of the sun; unless they wind off the silk immediately, for then warm water answers the same purpose. Some of them, however, must be permitted to live and perforate the pod, for when it breaks from it's inclosure, it casts it's seed or eggs, by means of which the generation is preserved. From the pods thus perforated, the silk cannot be wound off as from the others, but being prepared by pounding, it is spun off like cotton yarn. This silk we call kedge, the remains or refuse of which is so inferior, as to admit only of being milled and made into silk wadding.

The cleanness and clearness of raw silk constitute a great part of it's goodness; inferior silk has many knots and coarse stuff sticking to the threads. The moss, or head of silk, often appears fair to the eye, when much coarseness is concealed under it; for it is a trick of the peasants of Ghilan, to hide the defects as they wind it off from the pod. The best silk has constantly a gloss or brightness: the white or silver coloured is most esteemed, but in Ghilan the greatest part comes yellow from the worm. White silk that is soiled, is generally found to have lain in a moist place, which hurts it's strength as well as beauty. Silk should be equal, strong, and round as wire, and also clean; the greatest part of it should be in a medium with regard to fineness, for the finest is not the easiest to manufacture to advantage. The threads of silk being thus even, that is, as near as possible of one size, and not coarse and fine intermixed, can be most easily separated in the winding; but otherwise the coarse is apt to tear the fine, and make waste in manufacturing it. The size which we usually most esteem, is wound off 16 or 18 pods or cocoons. A moss, which is about 60 inches in the round, can be most conveniently reeled off; longer is not approved of, and if shorter it is apt to break by the quick revolutions of the reel, being glued together with it's own gum. It is also to be observed, that there is a vast difference between silk cleaned by combing, and that which remains just as it came from the pod. The former, to an unskilful person, who does not observe the broken threads and the ends of the combings, shall look better than the latter, though it be considerably worse. When the Armenians and Russians pack up their silk, they generally comb the heads of the mosses, to deceive the buyer, but this makes it really worse, because it hurts in the winding off. These people, who were never famed for probity, have long practised the art of false package: hence, at Smyrna and Aleppo, where the Armenians sell their silk to the factors of our Turkey company, as likewise in Russia, it has often been rejected upon that account, especially as they hold it a constant maxim, not to suffer their sales to be broken up except at the heads. The price of silk and Ghilan generally rises in proportion to the advance on foreign goods, except in a very great scarcity, as of late: during the course of the British Caspian trade, we found it vary from 12 to 18 crowns the batman; it was generally about 15, but within these two or three last years the Russians and Armenians have paid from 30 to 40 crowns.

The kinds of European goods which the Russians and Armenians vend in the northern provinces of Persia, with a succinct account of the Persian weights, measures, and coins.

I shall finish this short view of the trade of Persia, by giving a general idea of the different kinds of European goods, which the Russians and Armenians now vend in the northern provinces of that kingdom, with an account of the coins, weights, and measures, according to the best informations I could procure; but I must observe, that there seems to be a great discordance among writers in this particular. The chief demands of European goods, next to Dutch cloth, is for British woollens, such as hair-list drabs, of 12 to 19 l. per piece of 37 yards in white, which the Persians call bergrest: of these they usually consume nine bales in 30.

Gloster cloths, of about 9 l. 10 s. to 11 l. 10 s. per piece of 42 yards in white, which the Persians call maghoot, and consume thereof 10 bales in 30.

Ordinary Yorkshire cloths, of about 3 s. 6 d. per yard dyed, which the Persians call Londora, and consume thereof 11 bales in 30.

Five bales of shalloon, of a middling quality, are ordinarily required in 100 bales of cloth.

From Holland they reckon one bale of maghoot, one of shalloons, and one of long ells, to 10 bales of bergrest.

English embossed cloth is also demanded; likewise indigo, cocheneal, and, in good times, some rich silks, gold and silver lace, velvets, and other rich manufactures.

The Persians had long been accustomed to Dutch cloths, which were thicker, and, for the most part, better shorn, and of a softer and finer wooll, the crimson and scarlet of a finer dye; but they were dearer than ours: however, after two or three years, we improved some of our drabs, so as to be almost equal to the Dutch cloths in substance, and, in my judgment, superior in softness and beauty.

The transit duty in Russia is 3 per cent. on the value, with an agio of 150 per cent. which, with other petty charges, makes it about 8 per cent. only in the custom-house. In Persia the duty on European goods is 5 per cent. on the value.

AN ACCOUNT of the MONEY of PERSIA.

The toman, bistie, and denaer, are imaginary, but the other denominations are real; the valuation and currency of silver money, are, viz.

	Value in denaers.	Weight in muscals.
A toman is ten hazardenaers	10,000	50
It must be observed, that the hazardenaer (which the English call mildenaer, and the Russians a ruble) is computed by Europeans, and accounts kept in hundreds	100	
Consequently, the same in lower denominations, viz. peng sid denaer, or rupie, or nadire	50	2½
Sifid denaer, or shis shahie	30	1½
Abassie	20	1
Sid denaer, or mahmudie	10	
Shahie, or shahie	5	
Bistie	2	
Kasbekie	½	

An english crown melted down in Reshd, produced, at 17 denaers * per muscal, only 95 denaers; but we always computed the mildenaer, or 100 denaers; equal to an English crown of 5s.

* The common price of silver.

The GOLD COINS current are,

	Value	Wt. in muscals and nakkoot, or karrata. 24 = 1 muscal.
Muhrashreffie, or treble ducat of 6 mildenaers	6 —	2 9
Ashreffie, or old ducat	1 80	0 18*
Ditto Shan Nadir, or new ducat	1 80	0 18
Ditto of Mesched	1 80	0 18
Ditto Bokhara, current at 2 10	2 20	1
And Fonduckli, Turkish ducat, about	1 80	0 18
Venetian Ducat	1 80	0 17½
The common abassie should be	2 —	1
Ditto Shah sultan Hussein	—	1 4
Ditto Shah Suliman	—	1 14
Ditto Shah Seffie	—	1 16

N. B. 80 $\frac{1}{10000}$ muscals = 1 lb. Troy

* Equal in fineness to a Holland ducat.

WEIGHTS.

1200 muscals, or 1 butman, are avoirdupois lb. ordinarily computed 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. English	12 20343
98 $\frac{1}{2}$ ditto	1
1 ditto I have found to be 3 dwts. $\frac{1}{2}$ grain, but nicer calculators call it grains	71 1888
1 dunk, or donk	11 8648
1 karrat	2 9662
1 hæbbie	0 9887½
107 muscals are 1 lb. Hollands.	

The old batman, or manshah, is 1200 muscals, or 200 drams, by which silk, cocheneal, indigo, kedge, &c. are weighed.

The new batman shah is 1280 muscals, or 213 $\frac{2}{3}$ drams, by which heavy goods are weighed.

At Tavis the batman, called tavizie, contains 640 muscals; likewise chiefly used at Mesched and Herat, as it is also, more or less through the whole country, for several species of goods. The antient batman of Tavis weighed 600 muscals.

At Isfahan, at Shamakie, and all through Shirvan, the silk batman contains 48 stils, or 1600 muscals, and 3 stils are called a shadah, and weigh 100 muscals; but the batman, by which indigo is weighed, contains only 800 muscals.

At Tæhيران the batman is called re, and contains 1600 muscals; rice, wheat, liquors, and provisions, are sold by the batman.

A chærvan, or load of a camel, is 50 batmans.

A load of a mule, 25 batmans, according to the king's computation, but carriers usually load from 30 to 34.

A chærvan of a horse is 20 batmans, but carriers usually load 25. The same load of an afs, according to the common rule of carriers is 15 batmans.

Kæbbie, a handful.

Dizz, or gerib, 1000 rice.

Four batman of Shahi rice, make one kuttie.

Corn and grain, and even liquids, are sold by the batman, but rice, when winnowed, is sold per measure, or jar. The muscal through all Persia is the same: the silversmiths commonly make use of pieces of money instead of weights, especially sifid denaers of $1\frac{1}{2}$ muscal in weight. One karrat is three hæbbie. Four karrats, or nockoot are one dunk. Six dunk one muscal. Six muscals one dram.

The MEASURE of RESHD.

Seven horse-hair breadths are one barley-corn. Seven barley-corns are one finger. 24 fingers are half a gæze, or gaz = one cubit. 4000 cubits are one mile. Three miles are one farfang. But the measure in common use is the gæze zerræ, divided into 16 parts, and called gierrie. The foreign and Persian merchants, in buying of woollens, compute the gæze at 40 inches English, but it is only $39\frac{2}{3}$. One ditto is computed to 10 Russian archeens of 28 inches. 105 Smyrna pikes are reckoned equal to 70 Persian gæze. The Mokæfar gæze is $\frac{1}{10}$ less than the Shah gæze, and by the Mokæfar, Persian manufactures, and most part of retale goods are measured. The Tavis gæze is one per cent. longer than the Shah gæze. The account which Mr Van Meirp gave of the import and consumption of Meshed, extracted from the custom-house register of that city, made the quantities very inconsiderable, and the whole was sent by Armenians, Russians, and Greeks, from Reshd, viz.

	Pieces of bergest.	Pieces of Londora.	Pieces of maghoot.
Meshed, and it's neighbourhood	305	100	700
For the consumption of Bokhara	- 20	50	10
Orange	- 15	30	5
Balkh	- 15	15	5
Anthuy	- 10	15	5

Besides these not distinguished with regard to the place of their consumption, were imported. 1000 Shalloons, } the most part from Kherman, by the way 1500 Long ells, } of the gulph of Persia. 250 batmans of Lahori indigo, brought by the indians, of whom there are a considerable number, who also trade in cloth from Reshd. 500 Batmans of American indico from Reshd, by Armenians; formerly it came from Turkey, where they bought of the French. 300 Batmans of cocheneal from Reshd, brought by Armenians and others. Though Meshed was under the particular protection of Nadir Shah, it was with difficulty that this gentleman sold to the value of 22000 crowns, during the space of 27 months which he resided there; and great part of this sum was in exchange for Persian manufactures, which no reason but the absolute impossibility of obtaining money induced him to accept; such was the distress of that country. For my own part, I had the utmost reason to consider this as a military trade, and myself as having made a campaign. The journey, had, however, afforded me an opportunity of seeing Persia, and of enquiring into many circumstances relating to the oriental commerce. The confusion arising from intestine broils must ever give a deep wound to trade, the security of which is founded in the arts of peace, and the execution of civil laws; but the government of Persia was now rendered precarious to a degree that threatened the subversion of that monarchy. The Turks, the Lesgees, the Indians, the Turkumans, and other frontier nations, either favoured these intestine factions, or endeavoured to recover some limb which had been torn from them; so that every imaginable excess was committed, upon no better principle than the power of doing it. In this situation it was the ill fortune of the Russia company [see RUSSIA TRADE and RUSSIA COMPANY] to find Persia governed by an usurper and a tyrant, whose cruelty had no bounds: and the prospect at this time, in a more particular manner, was overshadowed with a dark cloud, which threatened a storm: the Russia company had already felt some of the difficulties in which they were involved, others they foresaw, but knew not how to provide against them. The rebellions in Shirvan in 1743, of Shirafs, Aftabad, Hazerjereb in 1744, were suppressed by the slaughter of many thousands, and the almost total ruin of those provinces. It is true that Nadir had enriched his treasures with the plunder of India, yet the heavy taxes he had imposed on his people to support such a continued series of foreign and domestick wars, having reduced them to poverty, and driving them to despair, obliged thousands to seek a voluntary banishment. I have already observed that Nadir's army had been supported for upwards of four years, by the taxes drawn from his Persian subjects, and that his Indian treasure remained in a great measure untouched; this was one principle cause of their distress; by endeavouring to deprive them of the instruments of

rebellion, he provoked them to rebel, and chastising them he completed their ruin. Could any trade be carried on under these circumstances? It was computed that Nadir had near 200,000 men in pay, the charge of whom, officers included, was computed at 100 crowns * a year, and, consequently, the expence of maintaining his army was 20 millions of crowns †, exclusive of the contingent expence.

* Twenty-five pounds,
† Five millions sterling.

In good times, the provinces are supposed to bring into the exchequer the following sums:

	Mildenaers.	£.
The conquered provinces in India were said to produce, in 1743, 25 crore*, which make, Persian money	12,500,000	3,125,000
Kandahar and Hærat	1,000,000	250,000
Khorazan	2,000,000	500,000
Aftabad	50,000	12,500
Mazanderan	400,000	100,000
Ghilan, of which a million was once demanded, but is now set at	500,000	125,000
Shirvan, including Georgia and some other parts of Dagestan	1,500,000	375,000
Erivan, and the parts of Armenia subject to Persia	2,000,000	500,000
Irac, including Casbin, Ispahan, and the country extending to the gulph, being the ancient Parthia	1,500,000	375,000
Aderbeitzan, in which Ardevill and Tauris are included †	1,500,000	375,000
	22,950,000	5,737,500

* One crore, or 10 laks, are 500,000 crowns.
† Aderbeitzan is the ancient Media.

The reader will naturally observe, how great a part of the Persian revenue was produced by Nadir's conquest in India: it will also be obvious to him, that the charge of an army is certain, but the revenues to support that army are uncertain, especially if they commit the least violence; and here the whole was a scene of rapine: the consequence was, that, except the conquered provinces in India, and those of Ghilan and Khorasan, the rest of the kingdom was so impoverished, as to be disabled from paying, perhaps, a quarter part of the usual tax. Next to the above-mentioned, Kandahar, Hærat, and Erivan, were said to be the least distressed, but misery reigned in every quarter. Of these 200,000 men, 60,000 were quartered in Cabul and the adjacent provinces on the western side of the Sind *, which had been conquered and kept by Nadir; and the revenues appear to have much exceeded the expence of supporting that part of the army. If one considers this number of troops, and large revenue, it was not unreasonable to expect a large demand for cloth and other European goods; but we were not then acquainted with the nature of cloathing a Persian army; for indeed not a third part of it wears European cloth,

* Ancient Indus.

With regard to the quantity of goods imported by the Persians over the Caspian Sea, whilst the port of Gambroon was open to the several nations of Europe, the Caspian traders could but ill form an idea of the general consumption in that kingdom. The Russia company were more sanguine in their expectations, from a knowledge that, in the beginning of this century, the factors of the East-India company had extended their trade as far as Tavis, on the western coast of the Caspian, where they sold great quantities of the woollen manufactures of Great-Britain: but when the British factors in Ghilan, whose situation was now so much more advantageous, would have made an experiment of the like nature, they discovered that city and it's confines to be in so ruinous a state, as blasted their hopes of doing any business in those quarters. When Persia enjoyed repose, the agent of the East-India company of England lived in splendor; the regal government being held in great veneration in that empire, he acted as immediately under the crown of England, and from thence derived an influence which he could not otherwise have possessed: his pompous manner of living had some good effects, but the expence was too considerable to be long grateful to the company. With regard to the advantages the Russians enjoyed, it must be observed, that besides the Russian minister who attends at the Persian court, generally under the title of resident, the consul of that empire, who is fixed in Ghilan, is considered, in some measure, in a ministerial light, and allowed a company of Russian soldiers as a guard, at the expence of the empress their sovereign. Hence it was that Mr Elton recommended so strongly, that a commission should be given to one of the British subjects in Ghilan, by which I presume he meant himself, to act as consul;

ful; but the state of things was now changed, and every step that could be taken to establish the interest of the Russia company in Persia, in effect blocked up our passage through Russia into Persia. See **RUSSIA COMPANY**.

The advantages which the East-India company of England enjoyed beyond the Russia company, were such as will hardly admit of a comparison, nor indeed is it material to my present purpose; I shall pass over in silence the trade from Great-Britain to the gulph of Persia, as also that between Persia and India; observing only, that, after the Portuguese had settled themselves in East-India, they took the island of Ormus, and being masters of the sea, carried on the trade between those countries. That great prince Shah Abas thought it his interest to dislodge them from his neighbourhood: for which purpose he entered into a treaty, in 1622, with the agent of the East-India Company, and, by means of their ships, he took Ormus, and demolished the town, bringing the commerce of that island to the continent. This induced that prince to build the town of Bender-Abassi, now called Gambroon, which is reputed the greatest place of trade in all Persia. For these good services Abas made the company a grant of half the customs of the new town, in perpetuity; but his successors have not religiously observed the engagement.

The invasions of the Afghans, in 1722, ruined the company's settlement at Ispahan, in no less a degree than the death of Nadir occasioned the pillage of the Russia company's factors in Reshd, as was the case. Their loss, though very considerable, was not, I believe, superior to that of the Caspian traders, except the long interruption of their trade: in both cases, extortion and plunder were carried to an extreme. The Armenians suffered also*; the Dutch likewise met the common fortune of the times, and being obliged to withdraw the greatest part of their factory from Ispahan, they settled in Gambroon, where they secured themselves, in a great measure, by very strong fortifications: they did not come into Persia till ten years after us, but as they are the only traders in spice, so much in use over all Asia, they have been encouraged to continue their commerce, though with less advantage than in past times.

* See Mr Hanway's History of Revolutions, in vol. iii.

The French first appeared in Persia in 1665, and concluded a treaty with the shah of Persia in 1674; but the miseries of that country, in consequence of the invasion of the Afghans in 1722, compelled them also to retire from Ispahan.

A very pompous proposal was made by a French projector, in relation to a trade over the Caspian, in the beginning of this century, upon the occasion of an embassy* from Shah Sultan Hussein to Lewis XIV. This person imagined that caravans could not be conducted safely through Russia, and, therefore, he proposed to carry merchandize in vessels, by the lakes and rivers with which that country abounds; but, in regard to robbers, he seemed ignorant that this would not mend the matter in the least. He mentioned also several commodities which he proposed to return to France, particularly rhubarb: but this article is monopolized by the Russian government: this scheme never was, and I believe never will be, carried into execution.

* It has been said that this was entirely counterfeit, to amuse Lewis XIV. in his old age; but it appears from several circumstance, as well as the nature of the thing, that this opinion was very ill grounded, if not ridiculous.

But of all the nations who have endeavoured to establish a trade with the north of Persia, the Russians are the most advantageously situated: the intestine broils of that country have not put a stop to their commerce; on the contrary, they have sometimes turned to their advantage; for, besides the ordinary course of their trade to and from Persia, they reap considerable profit by their trading voyages on the Caspian Sea, carrying rice from Ghilan to Baku, Derbends, and sometimes to the southern coast, as I have already mentioned. And as this export of provision sometimes creates a scarcity in Ghilan, it occasions a demand for Russian meal, from which again new benefits are derived. Besides cloth, and other European goods, the Russians also export red leather, furs and linnen, for the northern provinces of Persia, and make their returns in raw silk. Hence arose their jealousy of the British traders; for the Russian merchants, particularly those of Moscow, and the trading towns on the Volga, no sooner observed that the Persian markets were glutted with European goods, by the Russia company of England, than they began to murmur, resolving to make remonstrances to court on the subject.

The Armenians, indeed, have for some years extended their trade to the north of Persia, much beyond the Russians; for, by means of their credit in Holland, joined to their own capitals, they employed in this branch of commerce about 100,000 l. This stock, however, was now insufficient to support them; for the excessive glut of the market in Ghilan, and the terrible oppression of the Persian government, stopped the circulation of their trade, and, consequently, sunk their credit in Holland. At length they were also constrained to abandon Persia, and, in 1745, they retired to

Astracan, to wait with their effects till there should be a fair opportunity of returning thither.

Whilst the Russia company were in security, they could not be insensible of the benefits of buying raw silk immediately of the peasants of Ghilan; but advantages may be over-rated, and indeed cease to be such, when attended with vexations and inconveniences, like those which the Caspian traders experienced. It was not, however, the less ungrateful to observe the Armenians, a people in themselves despicable, and of no consequence to Russia in competition with the British nation, supported and protected in this trade, when measures were so apparently taken to wrest it from us.

The Russians do indeed alledge, that many of these Armenians are subjects of their country; and it is true, in general; that such of them as are engaged in the Caspian trade do put themselves under the protection of that empire; these people are likewise educated in all the servilities of Asia, and understanding how to accommodate themselves to indignities, which the genius of a free nation will hardly submit to, are in some measure the better qualified to carry on a commerce through foreign dominions.

The share which the Russia company enjoyed in this commerce made an eclat, but it was not yet pushed to near the height which the Armenians had carried it; of what consequence it was to the latter, may be easily deduced from hence, that not many years ago they imported into Russia near 1000 bales of raw silk*. Of this the greatest part was sent to Amsterdam; part of the silk was also sent to the German markets, and about 100 bales remained in the city of Moscow, for the use of the Russian manufactures.

* Of 25 batmans, is 300,000 lb. of 16 ounces; whereas all the British trade never amounted to half that quantity.

PERU. This country is bounded on the north by Popayan, which is part of Terra Firma; on the east by the country of the Amazons; on the south by Chili; and on the west it has the South-Sea, or Pacific Ocean. It extends from the 1st degree and about 30 minutes north latitude, to the 25th degree 10 minutes of south latitude: so that it contains 28 degrees from north to south; that is, 560 leagues, or 1680 English miles; but, considering the windings of the coast, and that it does not lie directly north and south, but rather north-west and south-east, we may very well agree with those geographers who make it about 600 leagues, or 1800 miles long. It's greatest breadth is not much above 100, and in some places 130 leagues, from west to east.

Besides the fruit-trees which have been transported hither from Europe, as pears, apples, figs, grapes, olives, &c. there are those of the Caribbee Islands, as ananas, guayvas, patatas, bananas, melons, water-melons, besides other peculiar to Peru; the most valued of the last sort are the chirimyas, resembling in smell the anana, and pine-apple, being full of a white solid substance, mixed with seeds as big as kidney-beans; the leaf is somewhat like that of the mulberry-tree, and the wood resembles that of the hazel.

In relation to commerce, the Creolians are as sharp and understanding as the Europeans; but being dainty and slothful, and not vouchsafing to deal unless there be a considerable profit, the Biscayners, and other European Spaniards, who are most laborious, grow rich sooner.

This country is divided into three audiences, or jurisdictions, which are, going from south to north, Los Charcas, or La Plata, Lima, or Los Reyes, and Quito.

LOS CHARCAS. This province has Chili and Tucuman on the south; part of Paraguay, and of the country of the Amazons, on the east; the audience of Lima on the north; and the South-Sea on the west. It extends along the sea-coast, from the 25th degree of south latitude, to Rio Tamia, in latitude 17. 10. so that it's length is 7 degrees and 50 minutes, that is 570 miles, in a strait line: but, considering the windings of the coast, we may very well reckon it above 600 miles. It's greatest extent, from west to east, as much as we can judge from the best maps, is about 400 miles, though in some places much less.

The climate of this country is but indifferent: on the shore it is excessive hot, and the inland parts of the country partake so much of the other extreme, that it is said the Spanish ladies, when pregnant, are compelled to remove to a warmer climate, before they can be delivered. The soil however is, generally speaking, fruitful; on the coast it is made so by art; but the vallies among the mountains in the inland parts, are from nature luxuriously fertile, being every where sufficiently watered; whereas there are no rivers at all upon the coast. As to the commodities of this country, though it may justly be stiled one of the richest in the world, yet they may be reduced to three, namely, pimento, which grows upon the coast, and is a kind of pepper, little different from what we call Jamaica pepper, and produces to the inhabitants 600,000 pieces of eight per annum.

The other commodities are silver and gold, of which we shall give some account when we come to describe the places where or near which the mines are found.

LA PLATA, otherwise called **CHAQUI,** or **CHAQUICACA,** the capital, lies in south latitude 19. 33. and in longitude

P E R

65. 30. west from London; it is about 250 miles distant from the nearest sea-coast to the east, and about 780 from Lima, towards the south-east. It was formerly very considerable on account of the rich mines in its neighbourhood, many of which are now neglected.

POTOSI, a most famous place on account of the rich silver mines in its neighbourhood, is about 60 miles distant from La Plata to the south east. It stands at the bottom of a hill called the Silver Hill, which is round like a sugar-loaf. The king obliges the neighbouring parishes to send thither a certain number of Indians yearly, to work at the mines. Captain Rogers observes, that there are 1500 or 2000 of them constantly employed in that work; they have two reals a day, and are paid every Sunday. The corregidores, or chief magistrates, cause them to set out on the feast of Corpus Christi; most of them go to that servitude with tears in their eyes, and with the greatest reluctance: however, after a year's duty, there are many who forget their habitations, and continue settled at Potosi, which is the reason why that town is so populous.

This place is said to be very cold: they have great frosts and snows here in May, June, and July. Provisions are very scarce in the town, and they have no firing but charcoal, which is brought from 30 to 50 leagues distance. Knivet in his remarks says, that, in his time, they were well supplied with every thing from the South-Sea, and that the natives of the adjoining country trafficked in gold and precious stones. The mines here were discovered by mere chance, 12 years after the Spaniards had entered the country. In 1545, Villaroele, who was a Spaniard, and an Indian, named Guanea, began with opening two mines: they called one Rica, and the other Diego Centeno. The former was raised above the surface of the earth, in the form of a cock's-comb, about the height of a lance, and was 300 feet in length, by 13 in breadth: this mine was so rich, that almost half of the ore was pure and fine silver, to the depth of 50 or 60 fathoms, where it began to change a little. The third mine, which was called Del Estauo, because of the hardness of the flints, was begun soon after the former two, and the fourth, called Mendieta, was opened in August 1545. Nothing can come up to the riches of those mines: it appears from the royal registers, that, several years after they were discovered, there were brought every Saturday to the licentiate Pol, who was president at Potosi, 150, and sometimes 200,000 pesos, that he might take the fifth part for the king of Spain: and it appears from the accounts of persons who were very well informed, that the king's fifth part amounted to 76 millions. The excellency of these mines will further appear from this particular, that, though they had dug 200 fathoms deep, yet they were not incommoded with any water.

These mines are much decayed in their value, and the mint does not coin one quarter of what they did formerly. There were once 120 mills; and at this time there are only 40, and, for the most part of the year, there is no employment for half of them.

PORCO is about 20 miles to the west of Potosi: it was also famous formerly, for its silver mines, before those of Potosi were discovered, which being richer, and not incommoded by water, drew all the undertakers and workmen from Porco; but since the mines of Potosi are decayed, it is probable those of Porco may be opened again.

LA PAZ is seated near the spring-head of a river called Choque-asso, from which this town is also called by that name. It is about 210 miles distant from La Plata to the north-west, and 125 from the sea-coast to the east. It is a small town, but pleasantly situated in a fine plain, full of springs, fruit-trees and fields of maize, with mountains on each side. It has many rich gold mines, and good salt-pits.

ARICA lies in south latitude 18. 27. and in longitude 70. 20. west from London, and above 245 miles from Potosi to the north-west.

A league up is the village of **ST MICHAEL DE SAPA**, where they begin to cultivate the agi, that is, Guinea pepper, which is sown throughout all the rest of the vale of Arica. In that little space of the vale, which is very narrow, and not above six leagues long, they sell yearly of it to the value of above 80,000 crowns.

LOS REYES. This province has on the north the audience of Quito, on the east the Cordillera mountains, on the south the audience of Los Charcos, and on the west the South Sea. Its extent from north to south, is about seven hundred miles; but its breadth is very unequal, both on account of the bending of the coast, and because it is in many places pent in by the mountains.

This country abounds with mines of gold, silver, quicksilver, vermillion, and salt. They have plenty of cattle, fowl, and fish, and all provisions common to us, except butter, instead of which they use lard.

They have oil, wine, and brandy enough though not so good as in Europe. They drink much of the jesuits herb camini brought from Paraguay by land, whence it is also called the herb of Paraguay [see PARAGUAY]; for all East-India tea is prohibited. The Spanish writers in general say, that for five hundred leagues in length, from Tumbez to Chili, it never thunders, lightens, nor rains, but the want of

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this is supplied by great dews; so that they have as good fruit and corn, particularly wheat, as any in Europe. In the valleys near the sea, the climate is hot, but tempered with breezes from the sea and mountains. In the hilly parts, far into the country, it is winter, and very rainy, when it is summer, in the plains, though in the same latitude. The product, beasts and birds, are much the same with other parts of the South-Sea coast. (Rogers.) Zuratte, the Spanish historian, has given us the natural cause of the perpetual drought there is in this country. He observes, that the south-west winds blow upon the Peruvian coast all the year round, and the ocean here is therefore called Pacific, because these winds never disturb the waters. These easy gales always bear away the vapours from the plains, before they can rise, and form a body sufficient to descend in a shower: but when they are carried farther and higher, they grow more compact, and at length fall by their own weight into rain. (Betagh.)

LIMA, the capital of all this province, and of all Peru, is seated in 12 degrees, 6 minutes, and 28 seconds of south latitude. and in the 77th, 15 minutes of longitude west from London, and five miles east from the port of Callao, which is its harbour. This city is in some sort the repository of all the treasures of Peru. It was computed some years ago, that above six millions of crowns (or 1,200,000 pounds sterling) were expended there, but it must be much abated at present.

For the regulation of trade, there is a consulship, where a prior or chief, and two consuls preside, who are chosen from among the merchants who best understand trade.

CALLAO is the harbour of Lima, from which it is two leagues or six miles distant to the westward: it extends along the sea-coast, so that it is much longer than it is broad.

The town is built on a low, flat point of land on the sea-shore. Its trade is considerable. From Chili they bring cordage, leather, tallow, dried fish, and corn; from Chiloe, cedar planks, woollen manufactures, and particularly carpets, like those of Turkey; from Peru, sugars of Andaguyas, Guayaquil, and other places; wine and brandy from Lanasco and Pisco; masts, cordage, timber for shipping, cacao of Guayaquil, and the country about it, tobacco, and some little honey of sugar. The cacao is afterwards transported to Mexico: from Mexico, as from Sonfonate, Realejo, and Guatimata, they bring hither pitch and tar, which is only fit for wood, because it burns the cordage; woods for dyeing, sulphur, and balsam, which bears the name of balsam of Peru, but in reality comes from Guatamala. There are two sorts of it, white and brown; the latter is most valued; they put it into cacao-shells, when it is of the consistency of tar, but generally it comes liquid in earthen pots, and then it is liable to be falsified, and mixed with oil to increase the quantity. From the same places they bring fine works, which they call caray, and commodities of China, by the way of Acapulco, though contraband goods. The French had formerly a considerable trade here.

Cusco lies in the 13th degree, and 15 minutes of south latitude, and 71, 30, of longitude west from London. It is above 326 miles distant from Lima, towards the east. It stands in an uneven country, surrounded with mountains on every side, near the river Yucay and Apurina.

The gold and silver of Peru was brought in great plenty to Cusco, in the neighbourhood of which there are very rich mines, which have been in some manner neglected, because those of Potosi afford much more silver, and with less danger. The mines of Lampa, and those of Cordillera de Cusco, are very considerable, though there be others much richer towards the Moxos, where the Indians have plenty of gold, but they are of a savage and fierce temper. The Spaniards have some little trade with the nations that dwell beyond the mountains of Cusco.

There are in this city, manufactures of bays and cotton cloth, which are some small prejudice to the trade of Europe. They also make some sorts of work in leather, as well for the use of men, as for the furniture of horses and mules. This city is also famous for the vast number of pictures the Indians make there, and wherewith, wretched as they are, they supply the whole kingdom. (Frezier.)

GUAMANCA is 180 miles from Lima towards the east. Its principal trade consists in leather, and boxes of confectionary, pastes, marmelades, jellies, preserved quinces, and other sweetmeats, which are most esteemed in the kingdom, where there is a considerable consumption of them. They also make here pavilions, which serve instead of bed-curtains, whereof there is a famous manufacture here, as there is of several sorts of painted and gilt leather. The town is seated at the foot of a high mountain, in a very healthy country, fruitful in all sorts of provisions. The province abounds with mines of gold, silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, sulphur, and load-stones. About 9 leagues to the north-west of Guamanca, are the famous mines of Guancavelica, from which they take great quantities of quicksilver. The mines of Palcas, in the territory of Guamanca, being discovered, the Spaniards flocked thither to get the quicksilver, which is of great use to extract the silver. They get every year from the mines of Guancavelica, quicksilver to the amount of a million of livres. (De Laet.)

GUANCAVELICA is a small town, but rich, and famous for the vast quantity of quicksilver taken there from a mine, which is forty Spanish yards in front, and alone furnishes all the gold and silver mills in that kingdom, says Frezier; but this must be a mistake, since there are other rich mines of quicksilver, which are worked as well as this. Private persons, adds he, work there at their own expence, and are obliged to deliver up to the king all they get, upon pain of forfeiture of their estates, banishment, and perpetual servitude at Baldivia. His Majesty pays a set price for the same, which is sixty pieces of eight the quintal, or hundred weight, upon the spot, and he sells it for eighty, at the remote mines.

When a sufficient quantity has been taken out, the king causes the mouth of the mine to be stopped up, and no man can have any, but what comes from the king's stores. The earth or mineral which contains the quicksilver, is of a whitish red, like ill burnt brick; they pound it, and put it into an earthen furnace, the head or top of which is a vault, like the top of an oven, a little spheroid. They lay it on an iron grate covered with earth, under which they keep a small fire, made of the shrub they call jeho, which is more proper for that purpose, than any other combustible matter; for which reason there is a prohibition to cut it within twenty leagues round. The heat passes through that earth, and so fires the pounded mineral, that the quicksilver flies out volatile in smoke; but the top or covering being close stopped, it finds no way out, but only through a little hole, which conveys it to a succession of earthen vessels like gourds, round, and joined by the necks; there the smoke circulates and condenses, by means of a little water there is at the bottom of each gourd, into which the quicksilver falls condensed, and in a well formed liquid.

It is less formed in the first gourds than in the last; and because they grow so hot that they break, care is taken to cool the outsides of them with water. In this town there is another thing peculiar, which is a spring, whose water petrifies so easily, and so quick, that most of the houses in the town are built with it.

TRUXILLO is 250 miles distant from Lima, towards the north-west. It stands near the sea-shore, on the banks of a little river, near some rocky hillocks. There is a great deal of sugar grows in the valley of Chacama, or Chicama, near this town.

It has a great trade for flour, braudy, sugar, wine, and marmelade, of which they export three or four ships-loads every year, with which they supply the city of Panama.

QUITO. This province is bounded on the east by part of the Amazon's country, on the south by the audience of Los Reyes, on the west it hath the South-Sea, and on the north the country called Popayan. It's extent along the sea-coast is from Punta de l'Aguja, or the Needle-Point, in the sixth degree of south latitude, to the river of Emeralds in the fifth degree of north latitude, which is seven degrees, or four hundred and twenty miles. It's breadth, in some places, is three hundred and sixty miles eastward, in others more, and in others less. The Spaniards divide it into three districts, which they call Quito Proper, Los Quixos, and Los Pacafiores. The climate here, says De Laet, is rather cold than hot. The winter continues from October 'till March, during which time they have heavy rains, but without any snow, except in the mountains of Andes. They have abundance of cows and sheep, which multiply wonderfully here. They have a great deal of saltpetre in many places where the soil is marthy, and make very good gunpowder of it. They have also excellent sulphur or brimstone, which is as clear as the saltpetre, and of a gold colour. They gather it out of the veins that are near the gold mines, of which there are several in this country, as well as of silver, quicksilver, and copper. They have also emeralds, and medicinal drugs, says captain Rogers.

QUITO, the capital city of this province, stands in 20 minutes of south latitude, and in the 76th degree, 50 minutes of longitude west from London; about seven hundred and twenty miles distant from Lima, to the north. It is seated in a valley, that is bounded on the north and west by a ridge of very steep mountains, which extend from Porto Vejo, on the South-Sea, to Cartagena on the North-Sea. The soil about the city is very dry and sandy, and across the city there is in the ground a large opening, over which there are several bridges. Wine, oil, spices, and other European merchandizes, are brought hither from the South-Sea, first by the river of Guayaquil, and then by land-carriage. The Indians also have here their fairs and markets, and sell their wares, not by any certain weight or measure, but by way of barter or exchange. They bring hither fruit, cattle, cheese, of sheep, cows, and goats milk; cloaths made of cotton, all sorts of cloths, caps, cables, wool, flax, and leather. (De Laet.)

TACUNGA is about twenty miles distant from Quito, to the south. It is a very populous town; the inhabitants weave woollen-cloth, in which they drive a great trade.

ZAMORA is about two hundred and ten miles distant from Quito to the south, and a hundred and twenty from the nearest coast of the South Sea to the east. In the neighbourhood of the town of Zamora, there are gold mines, from

which they have taken grains of a prodigious bigness. There are also several springs, some of salt water, of which they make very good salt in great plenty.

GUAYAQUIL is about 185 miles distant from Quito to the south-west, and 565 from Lima towards the south. The town is well seated for trade, and the building of ships, for which they have sheds to cover the workmen from the sun. It may be reckoned one of the chiefest sea-ports in the South-Seas. The commodities that are exported from thence are cacao, hides, tallow, sarfaparilla, and other drugs, with woollen cloth, commonly called cloth of Quito, because it is made in that city. This and all other commodities which come from Quito, are shipped off at Guayaquil for other parts, and all imported goods for the city of Quito pass by Guayaquil; by which it may appear, that this is a place of no mean trade. (Dampier.)

General REMARKS ON PERU.

There are two sorts of silver mines at Peru, the one where silver is found scattered about in small quantities, the other where it runs in a vein between two rocks; the one excessively hard, and the other much softer; and it is these last which best deserve, and are generally distinguished by the name of the silver mines.

This metal, which is in other countries the standard or measure of riches, is in Peru the riches of the country considered in another light; we mean that of a natural commodity; for, throughout the whole of that vast country, there are almost every where silver mines to be met with of more or less value, according as the ore produces more or less silver, and can be wrought at a greater or less expence.

There are some, but not a great many mines, to the northward of Lima; but to the south they are very numerous. On the back of the Andes there lies a nation of Indians, called Los Plateros, or the Platemen, from the vast quantities they possess of silver; but the Spaniards have very little communication with them. The best part of the mine-countries are to the south of Cusco, from thence to Potosi, and so to the frontiers of Chili; and where for the space of three hundred miles, there is a continued succession of mines; some being discovered, and others deserted every day. It is a common thing for the people here, as well as elsewhere, to complain of the present times, and commend the past, as if heretofore there were infinitely greater quantities of silver dug out of the mines, than at present, and, perhaps, with regard to particular mines, it may be so; but, upon the whole, doubtless the quantities of silver that are annually obtained in the Spanish West-Indies, abundantly exceed what was formerly exported from thence. As to the names of those which have been most remarkable, or are so at present in the country of Peru, they are these, viz. the mines of Loxa and Camora, Cuenca, Puerto Vejo, St Juan del Oro; these are wrought at present: those of Oruro and Titiri are neglected; those of Porco and Plata are filled up.

At Potosi there is a great number of mines, and those of Tomina, Chocaia, Atacuma, Xuxui, the Chalchaques, Guasco, Iquique, &c. are all wrought with more or less profit; and this according to the skill of their proprietors, or of such as have the direction of these works.

It is generally believed, and there seems to be some reason for it, that experience has taught the people here a perfect acquaintance with minerals, and the art of treating them, so as to obtain the largest profit. But, however, when one considers their ignorance in other arts, their going on constantly in the same beaten track in this, together with their vast waste of quicksilver, we are tempted to believe, that our European miners might manage their works to still greater advantage.

This seems the more probable, when we reflect, that this knowledge of theirs is not at all founded upon principles; but is, properly speaking, an art built upon accidental discoveries, in which there is little of accuracy, and abundance of uncertainty; which will be more evident to the reader, when he has perused and considered the following account of the manner in which the silver is extracted from the ore at the mines.

The most perfect silver that comes from thence, is that which the Spaniards call pinnas; that is a lump of silver extremely porous, because it is the remainder of a part made up of silver dust and mercury, and the latter being exhaled, leaves this remainder of the mass spongy and light. It is this kind of silver that is put into different forms by the merchants, in order to cheat the king of his duty; and therefore all silver in this condition, if found any where on the road, or on board any ship, is looked upon as contraband goods, and is liable to seizure.

In regard to the art of refining therefore, we shall shew the progress of the ore, from the mine to this kind of mass or cake. After having broken the stone, taken out of the vein of ore, they grind it in their mills with grindstones, or in the ingenios reales, or royal engines, which consist of hammers, or pounders, like the French plaster mills. They have generally a wheel about twenty-five or thirty feet diameter, whose

whose long axletree is set with smooth triangles, which, as they turn, hook or lay hold of the iron hammers, lift them up to a certain height, and from whence they drop at once at every turn; they generally weigh about two hundred weight, and fall so violently, that they reduce the hardest stones to powder. They afterwards sift that powder through iron or copper sieves, to take away the finest, and return the rest to the mill.

When the ore happens to be mixed with some metals, which obstruct it's falling to powder, as copper, &c. they calcine it in an oven, and pound it over again. In the little mines, where they use none but mills with grindstones, they, for the most part grind the ore with water, which makes a liquid mud that runs into a receiver: whereas, when it is ground dry, it must be afterwards steeped, and well moulded together with the feet, for a long time. To this purpose they make a floor, where they dispose that mud in square parcels, about a foot thick, each of them containing half a caxon or chest, that is twenty-five quintals, or hundred weight of ore, and these they call *cuerpos*, that is, bodies.

On each of them they throw about two hundred weight of sea or common salt, more or less, according to the nature of the ore, which they mould and incorporate with the earth, for two or three days. Then they add to it a certain quantity of quicksilver, squeezing a purse made of a skin, wherein they put it to make it fall in drops, with which they sprinkle the mass equally, according to the nature and quality of the ore. They allow to each mass, ten, fifteen, or twenty pounds; for the richer it is, the more mercury it requires to draw to it the silver contained: so that they know not the quantity, but by long experience.

An Indian is employed to mould one of these square parcels eight times a day, to the end that the mercury may incorporate with the silver. To that effect, they often mix lime with it, when the ore happens to be greasy, where caution is to be used: for, they say, it sometimes grows so hot, that they neither find mercury or silver in it, which seems incredible.

Sometimes they also strew among it some lead or tin ore, to facilitate the operation of the mercury, which is slower in very cold weather, than when it is very temperate; for which reason, at Potosi and Lipes they are often obliged to mould the ore during a whole month or six weeks; but in more moderate climates, the amalgama is made in eight or ten days. To facilitate the operation of the mercury, they in some places, as at Puno, and elsewhere, make their buiterons, or floors, on arches, under which they keep fire to heat the powder of the ore for twenty-four hours, on a pavement of bricks.

When it is thought that the mercury has attracted all the silver, the assayer takes a little ore from each parcel a-part, which he washes in a small earthen plate, or wooden bowl, and by the colour of the mercury found at the bottom of the bowl, knows whether it has had it's effect; for when it is blackish, the ore is too much heated, and then they add more salt or some other drug. They say that then the mercury *dispara*, that is, shoots, or flies away. If the mercury is white, they put a drop under the thumb, and pressing it hastily, the silver there is amongst it, remains sticking to the thumb, and the mercury slips away in little drops.

In conclusion, when they perceive that all the silver is gathered, they carry the ore to a basin, into which a little stream of water runs to wash it. Much in the same nature as we shall shew they wash gold, excepting that this being only a mud without stones, instead of an hook to stir it, an Indian stirs it with his feet to dissolve it.

From the first basin it falls into a second, where another Indian is, who stirs it again to dissolve it thoroughly and loosen the silver. From the second it passes into a third, where the same is repeated; to the end, that what has not sunk to the bottom of the first and second, may not escape the third. When all has been washed, and the water runs clear, they find at the bottom of the basins, which are lined with leather, the mercury incorporated with the silver, which they call *lapella*. It is put into a woollen bag, hanging up for some of the quicksilver to drain through. They bind, beat, and press it, laying a weight upon it with flat pieces of wood; and when they have got out as much as they can, they put the paste into a mould of wooden planks, which being bound together, generally form the figure of an octagon pyramid cut short; at the bottom whereof is a copper plate full of little holes. There they stir, in order to fasten it; and when they design to make many pinnas, as they call them, that is, lumps of various weights; they divide them with little beds, or layers of earth, which hinder their coming together. To that end, the pella, or mass, must be weighed, deducting two thirds for the mercury that is in it, and they know within a small matter what net silver there is.

They then take off the mould, and place the pinna with it's copper base on a trivet, or such like instrument, standing over a great earthen vessel full of water, and cover it with an earthen cap, which they again cover with lighted coals, and they feed the fire for some hours, that the mass may grow violently hot, and the mercury that is in it evaporate in smoke; but that smoke having no passage out, it circulates in the hollow, that is, between the mass and cap, 'till coming down to

the water that is underneath, it condenses to the bottom again, converted into quicksilver.

Thus little of it is lost, and the same serves several times; but the quantity must be increased, because it grows weak. However, they formerly consumed at Potosi six or seven thousand quintals, or hundred weight, of quicksilver every year, as Acofta writes, by which a judgment may be made of the silver they got. When the mercury is evaporated, there remains nothing but a spongy lump of contiguous grains of silver, very light and almost mouldering, which the Spaniards call *la pinna*, and is observed as a contraband commodity from the mines; because, by the laws of the kingdom, they are obliged to carry it to the king's receipt, or to the mint, to pay the fifth to his majesty there.

Those masses are cast into ingots, on which the arms of the crown are stamped, as also that of the place where they were cast, their weight and quality, with the fineness of the silver. It is always certain, that the ingots which have paid the fifth have no fraud in them; but it is not so with the pinnas or masses not cast: those who make them, often convey into the middle of them, iron, sand, and other things, to increase the weight; so that, in prudence, they ought to be opened, and made red hot at the fire, for the more certainty; for if falsified, the fire will either turn it black or yellow, or melt it more easily.

This trial is also to extract a moisture they contract in places where they are laid, on purpose to make them the heavier. In short, their weight may be increased one third, by dipping them in water when they are red hot, as also by separating the mercury, with which the bottom of the mass is always more impregnated than the top. It also sometimes happens, that this same mass is of different fineness.

The stones taken from the mines, the ore, or, to speak in the language of Peru, the *mineray*, from which the silver is extracted, is not always of the same nature, consistence, or colour.

There are some white and grey, mixed with red or blueish spots, which is called *plata blanca*, or white silver. The mines of Lipes are most of them of this sort. For the most part there appear some little grains of silver, and very often small branches, extending along the layers of the stone. There are some, on the other hand, as black as the drops of iron, in which the silver does not appear, called *oregrillo*, that is blackish: sometimes it is black with lead, for which reason it is called *plomo ronco*, that is, coarse lead, in which the silver appears as if scratched with something that is harsh, and it is generally the richest, and got with least charge; because, instead of moulding it with quicksilver, it is melted in furnaces, where the lead evaporates by dint of fire, and leaves the silver pure and clean.

From that sort of mines, the Indians drew their silver; because, having no use of mercury, as the Europeans have, they only wrought those whose ore would melt; and, having but little wood, they heated their furnaces with ylo, and the dung of lamas or sheep, or other beasts, exposing them on the mountains, that the wind might keep the fire fierce. This is all the secret the historians of Peru speak of, as of something wonderful. There is another sort of ore like this, as black, and in which the silver does not appear at all; on the contrary, if it be wetted and rubbed against iron, it turns red; for which reason it is called *rosicler*, signifying the ruddiness of the dawn of the day: this is very rich, and affords the finest silver.

There is some that glitters like talck or isinglass; this yields little silver; the name of it is *zoroche*: the peel, which is of a yellowish red, is very soft and broken in bits, but seldom rich; and the mines of it are wrought on account of the easiness of getting the ore: there is some green not much harder than the last, called *cobrisso*, or copperish; it is very rare: however, though the silver generally appears in it, and it is almost mouldering, it is the hardest to be managed, that is, to have the silver extracted from it; sometimes, after being ground, it must be burnt in the fire, and several other methods used to separate it, doubtless because it is mixed with copper. Lastly, There is another sort of very rare ore, which has been found at Potosi only, in the mine *Cotamiso*, being threads of pure silver, intangled together like burnt lace, so fine that they called it *Arana*, spider, from it's resemblance to a cobweb.

The veins of mines, of what sort soever they be, are generally richer in the middle, than towards the edges; and when two veins happen to cross one another, the place where they meet, is always rich: it is also observed, that those which lie north and south, are richer than those which lie any other way. Those which are new places, where mills can be erected, and that are more commodiously wrought, are often preferable to the richer, that require more expence, which is the reason that at Lipes and Potosi, a chest of ore must yield ten marks, of eight ounces each mark of silver, to pay the charges, and at those of the province of Tarama, five pay them.

When they are rich and sink downwards, they are subject to be flooded, and then they must have recourse to pumps and machines, or else drain them by those they call *cocabones*,

being passages made in the side of the mountain for the water to run out at, which often ruin the owners by the excessive expence they insensibly draw them into.

There are other ways of separating the silver from the stones that confine it, and from the other metals that are mixed with it, by fire or strong separating water, made use of at some mines, where other means fail, and where they make a sort of ingots, which they call *bollas*; but the most general and useful method is to make pinnas or masses, abovementioned, which are preferred to other forms, on account of their easiness in making, and that they save some ingredients, which is a thing of consequence in works of this nature, where to save in the expence, has the same effect as finding the mine.

It is very natural to suppose, that in mines, as well as other things, there happens great variation in their product, and in the value of the product. The mines which very lately yielded most silver, are those of Orura, a little town eighty leagues from Arica: in the year 1712, one so rich was discovered at Ollachea, near Cusco, that it yielded two thousand five hundred marks, of eight ounces each, out of every cheft, that is, almost one fifth part of the ore; but it has declined much, and is now reckoned among the ordinary sort. Next to these are those at Lipes, which have had the same fate.

Lastly, Those at Potosi yield but little, and cause a vast expence, by reason of their great depth. But notwithstanding the mines here are far diminished in their product, yet the quantity of ore that has been already wrought, and laid many years upon the surface, is thought capable to yield a second crop; which is a proof that these minerals generate in the earth, like all other inanimate things; and it is likewise certain, from all accounts of the Spaniards, that gold and silver, as well as other metals, are continually growing and forming themselves in the bowels of their natural earths.

This opinion is verified by experience, in the mountain of Potosi, where several mines have fallen in, and buried the workmen with their tools; after some years they have dug the same place, and discovered many bones and pieces of wood, with veins of silver actually running through them.

These mines belong to him who first discovers them: he immediately presents a petition to the magistrates, to have such a piece of earth for his own, which is no sooner done than granted. They measure eighty Spanish yards in length, and forty over, which is about twelve hundred feet in length, and one hundred in breadth, and yield it to the discoverer, who chuses what space he thinks fit, and does what he pleases with it. Then they measure just the same quantity for the king, which is sold to the best bidder, there being many who are willing to purchase a treasure which may prove inestimable. If any other person has a mind to work part of the mine himself, he bargains with the proprietor for a particular vein; all that such a one digs out is his own, paying the king's duty, which is, for gold a twentieth part, and for silver a fifth; and some landlords find such an account in letting out their ground and their mills, that they live upon the profit, without any hazard.

At Copiapo there are gold mines just beyond the town, and all about the country likewise, which have brought many purchasers and workmen thither, to the great damage of the Indians; for the Spanish magistrates take away not only their lands but their horses, which they sell to the new proprietors, under pretence of serving the king, and improving their settlements. There is also a great deal of magnet and lapis lazuli, which the Indians know not the value of. And some leagues in the country, there is plenty of salt and saltpetre, which often lies an inch thick on the ground. About an hundred miles east upon the Cordelier mountains, there is a vein of sulphur two feet wide, so fine and pure, that it needs no cleaning.

This part of the country is full of all sorts of mines, but in other respects is so barren, that the natives fetch all their subsistence from Coquimbo; and that way being a mere desert for three hundred miles together, and the earth abounding so much with salt and sulphur, that the mules often perish for want of grass and sweet water. There is but one river in two hundred miles, which the Indians call *ancalalue*; or *hypocrite*, because it runs only from sun rise to sun set; this is occasioned from the great quantity of snow melted from the Cordeliers in the day time, which freezes again at night, where the cold is often so great, that the peoples features are quite distorted.

Hence Chili takes its name, the word signifying cold in the Indian language; and we are certainly informed by the Spanish historians, that some of their countrymen and others, who first traded this way, died stiff with cold upon their mules; for which reason, the road is now always lower towards the coast.

We come now to the second point, which is the regular commerce carried on between the inhabitants of the dominions of the crown of Spain in Europe, with those of America.

The method in which this trade is carried on, is well enough known in general, but few enter far enough into its particulars. In order to give as distinct an account of this matter as possible, we shall speak of the galleons, the flota, and the

flotilla, register ships, and guarda costas, though we have occasionally touched upon these points under several other heads; and when we have done this, the reader will perfectly comprehend the mystery of the Spanish policy in this point. A galleon is, properly speaking, a very large man of war, of three or four decks, built in a manner now altogether out of fashion, except in Spain; and the reason why it is still used there is, that it affords a great deal of room for merchandize, with which the king's ships are generally so much crowded, as to be in no condition of defending themselves.

That fleet which we call the galleons, consists of eight such men of war; of these there are three very large ones, stiled *la Capitana*, *la Admirante*, and *il Governo*, two others which are less, *la Patacha*, and *la Margarita*, each of 50 guns, and an advice frigate of forty. The merchantmen which sail with this fleet, and purchase their licences at a very high rate, are in number from twelve to sixteen, and in burthen at least a third part bigger, than is expressed in their respective schedules. These ships are intended to carry all that is necessary, either of warlike stores or merchandize for Peru, and this is the specific difference between this fleet and the flota, which is intended for Mexico. See *GALLEONS*.

In time of peace ('till since that of Aix la Chapelle) the galleons sail regularly once a year from Cadiz, at no set time, but according to the king's pleasure, and the convenience of the merchants. From Cadiz the galleons steer directly for the Canaries, where, if the flota sails with them as it sometimes does, they anchor together in the haven at Gomera: thence they bear away for the Antilles, and when they arrive at that height, the flota separates, and the galleons bear away for Carthegena. As soon as they double the Cape de la Vela, and appear before the mouth of Rio de la Hacha, advice is sent to all parts, that every thing may be got ready for their reception.

In the harbour of Carthegena they remain a month, and land there all the goods designed for the audience of the Terra Firma; then they sail to Porto Bello, where they continue during the fairs, which last five or six weeks; and having landed the merchandize intended for Peru, and received the treasure and rich commodities sent from thence on board, they sail again to Carthegena, where they remain 'till they return to Spain, which is usually within the space of two years. When they have orders to return, they sail first to the Havannah, and having there joined the flota, and what other ships are returning to Europe, they steer through the gulph of Florida, and so to the straight of Carolina, where meeting with the western winds, they shape their course then for the Azores: they take in fresh water and provisions at Tercera, and thence continue their voyage to Cadiz. The flota consists, as well as the galleons, of a certain number of men of war, and of a certain number of merchant ships: the former are seldom more than three; *la Capitana*, *la Admirante*, and *la Patacha*: the latter are usually about sixteen, in burthen between five hundred and a thousand tons.

This fleet sails about the month of August, that by the favour of the winds, which prevail about November, they may the more easily pursue the voyage to La Vera Cruz. In their passage they call at Puerto Rico to take in fresh water and provisions, then pass in sight of Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Cuba; and according to the season of the year, and the nature of the winds, pass either by the coast of Yucatan, or higher, through the gulph of La Vera Cruz, which lies at the bottom of it. See *FLOTA* and *MEXICO*.

The run of this fleet, according to the course we have mentioned, hath been thus computed: from Cadiz to the Canaries, two hundred and fifty leagues, in about ten days; to the Antilles, eight hundred leagues in twenty days; to the most western point of the isle of Cuba, five hundred leagues in twenty days; to Vera Cruz, two hundred and sixty leagues in twelve days or thereabouts; in all, eighteen hundred and ten leagues, in about sixty-two days.

As the flota is designed to furnish not only Mexico, but the Philippine Islands also, in order to supply the trade of Acapulco with European goods, they are obliged to remain there for a considerable space, and, when it is necessary, they winter in that part. The cargo with which they return, is not so rich as that of the gallions; but 'till this method was laid aside, it increased annually in its value; which must be owing to the progress made in settling what the Spaniards call the kingdom of New Mexico.

It is usually in the month of May that the flota leaves La Vera Cruz, though sometimes it is detained in that harbour 'till August. Then the ships that compose it sail for the Havannah, for though the galleons and the flota seldom leave Spain at the same time, yet they generally return together. As soon as they are safely arrived at the Havanna, they detach a few of the lightest and cleanest ships to Europe, who, besides money and merchandize, carry also an exact account of the contents both of the galleons and flota. These ships are called by the Spaniards with propriety enough the *flotilla*, i. e. the little fleet. The principal reason of sending them in this manner into Spain, is to give the court of Madrid an opportunity of judging what convoy may be necessary, in case of any

any alteration of affairs, to be sent to escort the grand fleet, as also to regulate the indulto [see *INDULTO*], which may be levied on the merchants, in proportion to their interest in the galleons and flota: but the reader may possibly incline to enquire, what obliges this great fleet to remain so long at the Havannah? To which two causes may be assigned, viz. waiting for a wind, or for the register ships which they are to convoy home.

A register ship is so called, from its being registered with all the effects embarked in Spain, in the books kept for that purpose in the chamber of Seville. As this general account will not probably appear satisfactory, we shall endeavour to state the matter more fully.

A company of merchants having, as they conceive, just grounds to imagine, that European goods are greatly wanted at some particular ports in the West-Indies, they draw up a memorial or petition, containing these reasons in the clearest and concise terms, and lay it before the council of the Indies [see *INDIA-HOUSE* of Spain]. The prayer of this petition is, that they may have leave to send a ship of three hundred tons burthen, or under, to the port they mention. When leave is obtained, they pay a certain sum to the crown which is generally between thirty and fifty thousand pieces of eight, besides presents, and those no small ones, to the king's officers, from the greatest to the least.

That this, however, may not induce any suspicion of fraud, they register their ship and cargo, that it may appear consistent with their petition and licence; and yet (such a fatality attends on all custom-house cautions) this ship of under three hundred tons, generally carries upwards of six hundred ton of goods, and affords accommodation for passengers besides.

Copies from the register are transmitted to the governor and royal officers at the port, to which the register ship is bound; and such is their diligence, such their integrity, that when the ship comes to an anchor in the port, they make a very narrow enquiry, and yet there is seldom or never any fraud discovered; but, on the contrary, this ship of six or seven hundred ton, returns into Europe with an authentic certificate from all the king of Spain's officers, that she does not carry quite three hundred, together with a bill of lading, in the same strain of computation.

By these register ships there is sometimes a gain of two or three hundred per cent. which enables the owners to pay so bountifully for cheating the king, having first got the money by robbing his subjects.

These register ships go to Buenos-Ayres, St Martha, Porto Cavallo, and other places, to which neither the galleons nor flota come; yet, generally speaking, they return with those fleets as they sometimes go out with them, and so leave them in a certain latitude. The Spanish grandes often interest themselves in procuring such licences; and some people do not stick to say, that they find their account in it.

The profits accruing by this sort of commerce, making those concerned therein extravagantly rich in a short space of time, the English and Dutch in the West-Indies, have heretofore had a strong desire to be dealing this way, without the ceremony of a licence; and for many years they succeeded to their wish, partly by the connivance of the Spanish governors, and partly by employing force.

At length this evil grew so flagrant, that the court of Spain determined to put an end to it; and in order thereto, sent new governors into America with very precise orders on this head, declaring at the same time, that they should be carried fully into execution.

These instructions gave rise to the guarda costas, or guard ships, which have since made so much noise in the world, and of which I think it necessary to speak more particularly: it cannot be denied, that there was originally good grounds for equipping them, since the English in some measure, and the Dutch more openly, began to carry on an illicit trade by force.

The Dutch vessels were from twenty to thirty-six guns, and therefore valued nothing the governor of Carthagena could do to prevent their trading on his coast; but when the guard ships were stationed here, they for some time put an end to the evil, for falling in with some of these interlopers, they sunk one and took two, the cargoes of which were worth upwards of an hundred thousand pounds; nay, finding on board them sixteen Spanish merchants, who on a signal given were come off to trade, they hanged them all without mercy. So far all was right; for without question these smugglers, not only prejudiced the king of Spain, but even the fair traders of their own nation, by the clandestine commerce they carried on.

The captains of the guard ships, however, soon altered their conduct, and instead of taking contraband traders, infested the English commerce, and took, without distinction, all they were able, at first under very frivolous pretences, and at last without any pretence at all.

As the Spanish governors reaped a considerable profit from the prizes of these privateers, or rather pirates, brought into their ports, they were ready to send deceitful accounts to the court of Madrid, which produced that spirit of obstinacy, which

brought on, all the world knows, the last war, and may very possibly soon bring on another, unless this matter is very soon happily adjusted between the two crowns. See the article *LOGWOOD*, where I have done myself the honour to propose an expedient for this good purpose.

To return, however, to the point before us, and to collect what by these different methods comes into Spain from her colonies. This account has been with great industry, and, perhaps, without any sensible error stated thus: in gold, of which the galleons bring home between two and three millions, and the flota generally about one; in silver, by the galleons from eighteen to twenty millions, by the flota from ten to twelve: in precious stones by the galleons, in pearls two hundred thousand, in emeralds three hundred thousand, in bezoars, turquoises, amethysts, &c. thirty thousand; and of late by the flota some turquoises, to the amount in the whole of six hundred thousand pieces of eight. In Vigonia wool, by the galleons, fifty thousand pieces of eight, by the flota none.

Quinquina, by the galleons twenty thousand pieces of eight, by the flota as much: in raw hides by the galleons, twenty thousand pieces of eight, by the flota as much. By hides from Buenos-Ayres, in a register ship two hundred thousand pieces of eight; in logwood, by the galleons sixty thousand pieces of eight, by the flota none. In cochineal, by the flota and register ships, one million of pieces of eight; in indigo, about two hundred thousand pieces of eight; in sugar, tobacco, and other drugs, about two millions of pieces of eight. So that the whole may be computed at thirty-eight millions two hundred and ninety thousand pieces of eight.

We are now arrived at the last point, which is that of discoveries. The Spaniards, beyond doubt, have been long pretty much at a stand; which how strange soever it may appear to us, who see what prodigious advantages have attended all discoveries, and more especially those made by the ancestors of these Spaniards in the two last centuries; yet when we come to reflect coolly upon this matter, we shall find that the great impediment of farther discoveries, has been the vast extent of what is already discovered.

However, not to do the Spaniards wrong, we ought in justice to observe, that they have not been altogether so indolent, careless, or inactive, as is commonly reported. The kingdom of New Mexico lies without the sphere of our present enquiry, [see *MEXICO*] and therefore we shall only say here, that they have not only made great discoveries, but great conquests on this side, even in modern times; inasmuch, that those who have been in these parts, have assured us, THAT THE COMMUNICATION IS OPEN BY THE LAKES, FROM THE NORTH-EAST SPANISH SETTLEMENTS QUITE TO CANADA. See *BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, COLONIES, MEXICO, FLORIDA*.

To keep, however, to the province of Peru. All the discoveries that can be made from thence, must be either by land towards the east, or by the ocean towards the west; we will speak of each of these succinctly.

The countries which are already in the hands of the Spaniards, are of so great compass, and afford such vast riches, that they have no very strong temptation to make either conquests or discoveries; and as the same thing may be said of the Portuguese settlements in Brazil, so from thence we gather with certainty, that there is a very large country in South America, altogether UNDISCOVERED, or at least UNPOSSESSED BY ANY EUROPEAN NATION.

If any one desires to be more particularly informed concerning this point, let him examine the best maps of South America, which hitherto have been published, and all the credible relations that have come from those parts, and he will find that this undiscovered country of which we speak, must be in length near two thousand miles from east to west, and near a thousand broad from north to south.

The people possessed of these parts, are not only the descendants from their original inhabitants, but also vast numbers of Indians who have fled hither from the cruelties of the Spaniards, and if we consider their multitudes, and the vast advantages they have from the situation of the countries in which they dwell, we shall see no just reason to suppose they ever will be conquered, unless it be by the missionaries, in the manner by which they have subdued the people of Paraguay. [See the article *PARAGUAY*.]

However it be, this unknown country contains a great deal more land, as well as many more people, than all the provinces of the Spanish empire; and there is good reason to believe that it is infinitely more RICH IN SILVER, GOLD, AND JEWELS, as well as in CATTLE, CORN, SUGAR, RICH DRUGS, AND FINE FRUITS.

Of this we can scarce doubt, if we reflect on what the best Spanish writers themselves affirm, that at the time Pizarro made his first eruption into this country of Peru, he found the kitchen utensils in the meanest houses of GOLD, and their roofs covered WITH TILES OF THE SAME METAL; but there are no such great quantities of gold now to be had, whence we ought to conclude, that this immense plenty of that precious metal, came from the INLAND PARTS, of which we have been speaking.

But

But this is still farther demonstrated, by what has happened to the Creole Spaniards, who inhabit the frontier provinces, by which we mean, those that lie next to that vast track of unconquered country. As for instance, in the province of POPAYAN, which is so called from a city of the same name, large, populous, and rich, the bishop and his clergy have done more for the crown of Spain, than could have been done by a large garrison, for they have converted many Indians, and by bringing them into the city, and matching them with Creole families, they have introduced a commerce with the free inhabitants of the mountains, which is of infinite service, and may be a means of reducing the whole country.

It is remarked, that the inhabitants of this province are much more active and industrious, as well as much braver, than any of the rest of the natives of New Spain: which is attributed to their continual wars with the free Indians, and their being obliged to make long and hazardous journeys, for the managing their own affairs.

There are in Popayan abundance of large towns, well built, and tolerably fortified; but the open country is much exposed to the inroads of the Indians, who, whenever they have an advantage, use it cruelly enough against the Spaniards, towards whom their hate, with just reason, is implacable. As the northern frontier of this country joins the western isthmus, which is also inhabited by free Indians, the Spaniards are extremely apprehensive of the ENGLISH MAKING SOME ATTEMPT THIS WAY, AND THEREBY SECURING TO THEMSELVES A SETTLEMENT ON BOTH SEAS: and although there may be some difficulties attending an enterprise of this kind, yet it is not impossible, but success may one day attend an attempt of this kind, if the SPANIARDS CONTINUE TO MALTREAT THIS KINGDOM.—But there is a far easier, less hazardous, and less expensive, way, to humble Spain than this, if their conduct towards Great-Britain should make it necessary, which does not seem at all unlikely.

In the like manner there is a very beneficial trade carried on by the inhabitants of the city of Concepcion, with the Indians behind them, who though they are not subjects of the crown of Spain, nor have ever negotiated a peace with the Spaniards, yet trade with them, and this in a very particular manner.

These Indians are stiled Peulches, and inhabit the Cordillera, or great chain of mountains at the back of Chili, for a space not certainly known, and who retain exactly the same manners and customs they had before the Spaniards arrived here. When a person goes to trade with them, he addresses himself to the cacique, or chief: no sooner this little prince sees a stranger, than he cries out, What! are ye come? The Spaniard answers, Yes, I am come. The cacique's next question is, Well, what have ye brought me? The merchant answers, a present: to which the prince replies, Then you are welcome. A lodging is instantly provided him, near that of the cacique's, whither all his family go to visit the stranger, in hopes he will make them some presents.

In the mean time a horn is sounded, to give notice to the Indians who are abroad, that the merchant is arrived: upon this they all run to the place where the stranger exhibits his treasure, consisting of knives, scissars, pins, needles, ribbands, small looking-glasses, &c.

All these the Indians carry away without giving any thing for them, only the price is settled, and thus the merchant credits folks he never saw, and whom, for ought he knows, he may never see again.

After a certain time is elapsed, the horn, by the direction of the cacique, is sounded a second time, when immediately the savages return, and exactly perform their respective promises. The goods they deal in are cattle, skins of wild beasts, and some gold, but this they bring only in very small quantities, knowing well how dear the possession of that metal hath cost their neighbours and their ancestors. As for the other Indians, who were formerly subdued, and have now recovered their freedom, they have little or no intercourse with the Spaniards.

In respect to the discoveries that have been made of islands or countries at any distance in the Pacific Ocean, between the continent of Peru and the Philippine Islands, they are not much to be boasted of. The islands of Solomon, indeed, are reported to have been worth the seeking and possessing, as being large and pleasant, having excellent ports, and immense treasures of silver; yet in the space of almost two hundred years, these valuable countries have scarce been seen, and never settled or conquered; nay, some who are desirous of passing for men of superior sense, and not to be led away by flying reports, are inclined to think these islands imaginary; yet if this sort of wisdom had prevailed, in Portugal or Spain, when the first proposals for discovery were made, we might have known as little of the East-Indies and of the West, as we now do of these islands; since the reasons and rumours upon which these discoveries were undertaken, were certainly less clear and cogent, than what has been, or may be offered in respect to the islands of Solomon; and as this is a subject something new, and which has never been treated, at least in a satisfactory manner, the giving the

reader a short and methodical account of it, may be esteemed curious and entertaining; nor is it impossible that it may fall into the hands of some, who may also think it useful.

The islands of Solomon were originally discovered by Alvaro de Mendoca, under the orders of the licentiate Lopez Garcia de Castro, in 1567, and looked upon as a very great thing. But as the Spaniards were always pretty flow in their motions, and, besides, were under a necessity of waiting for orders from Europe, it was ten years before they made any farther progress; but when they were about to have undertaken such an expedition, as they flattered themselves would have put them in possession of a new Indies, they received directions from Spain, not only to lay aside the design for the present, but to suppress, with the utmost care and diligence, all papers, charts, letters, and whatever else might give the least light into the situation of these islands, on account of Sir Francis Drake's expedition, who actually paid a visit to the South-Seas in 1578. As soon as they were recovered from this fright, and were in a condition of thinking of such matters again, the project of discovering the islands of Solomon was revived; but was again defeated before it could be put into execution, by the arrival of commodore Cavendish in the South-Seas, in 1586. However, having taken about nine years time to breathe, Don Alvaro de Miranda was sent with a squadron of four sail of ships upon this discovery. They did not find the islands of Solomon, but they found other islands very near them, of equal, if not of greater value; but they behaved so very ill, that they compelled the natives to have recourse to arms, by whom they were driven out, and obliged to fly for shelter to the Philippines.

In their passage thither, three of their ships were lost, and the only one that escaped, arrived in a shattered condition. This affair, however, had been then prosecuted, if Capt. Richard Hawkins had not arrived in this critical juncture in those seas, as he himself tells us in his curious and excellent account of his Voyage thither.

It is a very mutilated and dark account of this expedition of Don Alvaro de Miranda's, that we have in the fourth volume of Churchill's Collection of Voyages, under the title of a Fragment of the Discovery of the islands of Solomon; and there is a very strange blunder in the date, of 1695 for 1595, which renders the whole account almost unintelligible.

That this is the true state of the matter appears from hence, that in this voyage the Spaniards picked up one of Cavendish's men, in which there is nothing strange, if it was undertaken nine years after, but would be very extraordinary indeed, at the distance of one hundred and nine.

There was one Ferdinand de Guiros who laboured hard to get this project resumed; and some memorials of his are still extant, which were printed at Seville in the year 1610, from which time this affair slept for any thing we know, for near one hundred years.

However, in 1709, when Capt. Woods Rogers was in the South-Seas, there was a vessel fitted out by a Spanish gentleman from Lima, in search of these islands, but having the misfortune to be taken by the English, almost as soon as he had sailed, the business was once more dropped. About ten years after this, while some of the persons who were with Capt. Shelvock, in his expedition, were prisoners at Lima, there came in two ships at a small distance of time from each other, the crews of which reported, that being driven by storms out of their course, they had fallen in with these islands, which they described very circumstantially, with such manifest correspondence in their accounts, that one Mr Thaylet, a Frenchman, was sent by the viceroy in a small sloop in search of them; but having only two months provision, he returned without doing any thing: it may be, that Providence has reserved the discovery of these islands, and the southern unknown continent, for some other nation.

PERUVIAN BARK. The quinquina, Peruvian bark, or the bark against fevers, is the external bark of the trunk and branches of a tree, that grows plentifully in Peru, from whence this is brought us by the way of Cadiz.

According to the judicious Mr Bernard, the tree of which the quinquina is the bark, grows in the province of Quito in Peru, upon the mountains near the city of Loxa. This tree is almost the size of a cherry-tree; the leaves are round and indented: it bears a long reddish flower, from whence arises a kind of husk, in which is found a kernel like an almond, flat and white, clothed with a thin rind; that bark which comes from the trees at the bottom of the mountains, is thicker, because it receives more nourishment from the earth: it is smooth, of a whitish yellow without, and of a pale brown within. That which comes from trees on the tops of mountains, is much thinner; it is uneven, browner without, and of a higher colour within; but the trees which grow on the middle of the mountains, have a bark yet browner than the other, and more rugged. All these barks are bitter, but that from the trees at the bottom of the mountains, less than the others.

It follows from hence, that the bark of the least virtue, is that which grows in the lowest places, because it abounds more with earthy and watery parts, than that which grows high, which, for the contrary reason, is better; but the best of all, is that which grows in the middle of the mountains, because it has not too much or too little nourishment. There is another kind of quinquina, which comes from the mountains of Potosi, and is browner, more aromatic, and more bitter, than the former, but abundantly scarcer than any of the rest.

Beside the qualities remarked in this bark, it ought to be heavy, of a firm substance, sound and dry. Beware of such as is rotten, or hurt by wet, and such as flies into dust in breaking, or is dirty and unclean, as it happens to be sometimes: but make choice of such as is in little thin pieces, dark and blackish without, with a little white moss, or some small fern-leaves sticking to it, reddish within, of a bitter and disagreeable taste, and refuse that which is full of threads when broke, and of a russet colour; and take care that there be not several pieces of wood mixed with it, which you have sometimes sticking to the bark. This was brought first into France in the year 1650, by the cardinal Lago a jesuit, who having brought it from Peru, it was had in such vogue in France, as to be sold weight for weight for gold, but the quantities of it soon afterwards brought over, quickly lessened the price.

The use of this bark is for the cure of fevers, especially intermitting, for which purpose it is given in substance, tincture, or infusion; but as it is a medicine some people have an utter aversion to, and as the use of it is of ill effect, unless properly applied, we would advise no body to make use of it without the direction of an able Physician.

To prevent the return of the ague, this method ought to be continued for eight days, three times a day; first, early in the morning, then an hour before dinner; and at night, an hour before supper; but if the ague should return again, as it does, if you purge after it, the use of the bark must be repeated after the same manner as before, and it will not fail to produce the desired effect, which is absolutely to cure the ague. But though the ague seems to be perfectly gone, for several revolutions of fits, yet it is necessary to continue the use of the remedy for twelve days, by which means you will secure the patient against any fresh assault.

It is at the end of the fit that the dose is to be given, and it must be continued 'till the cure is perfected; which in a single and double tertian, commonly happens at the second fit, or at most at the third: the same is to be understood in a single and double quartan, wherein you have two whole days to give the medicine in, without interruption; in which, as in the tertian, the ague is mastered at the third and fourth fit, if not at the very first, which often happens; and to prevent it's return, the use of the bark is to be the longer continued after the cure; for it is the too hasty discontinuance of it which causes the relapse, and puts the patient to a new trouble of running over the same course again.

This medicine ought not to be given at the coming on of the fit, nor yet during the time of it; because then, instead of alleviating the force and violence of the ague, it would be apt, by reason of the febrile ferment, to excite a fiercer conflict, and make the paroxysm the more violent. This method being observed, the medicine will interrupt the course of the disease in it's progress; and being conveyed into the mass of blood by a gentle motion, it purifies it, and destroys the feverish ferment, which would produce a new fit. It ought likewise, to be given at several times, to produce gradually, the wished for effect; and but a small space of time ought to be allowed between each dose, that the second dose may begin it's operation, when the force of the first is over; and the third may begin to act, when the strength of the second is lost. It is given, in like manner, two or three hours after, that thereby it's virtue may the better unite itself with the chyle in the stomach, in order to it's entrance into the mass of blood, to correct, depurate, and renew it. If this course is pursued, the cure is in a manner certain and infallible, and it will hardly be possible for the fit to return again. When the paroxysm is gentle, in a good habit, and a good season of the year, there is no need of giving it above five or six days together, once or twice a day in the intermission; but when the paroxysms are strong, oftner, as before directed. The use of this bark, the Spaniards say, was discovered by accident: an Indian in a fever accidentally drinking the water of a pond, into which several of these trees were fallen, was cured by it; which made people search into the occasion, and so discover this inestimable medicine.

PETTY CUSTOM, or ALIEN'S DUTY. This duty is payable by * merchant-strangers, that is, aliens born, or denizens, on all goods imported liable to the subsidy of poundage (unless where the original old subsidy has been entirely taken away) but not on those liable to the subsidy of tonnage, because an equivalent is included in the old subsidy.

* 12th rule of certain rules, orders, directions, and allowances, for the advancement of trade. See the end of letter A, and our conclusive REMARKS there, relating to the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS.

† And it is also payable by British, upon the following goods, though of British property, when imported in foreign ships, viz.

Aqua vitæ,
Boards,
Brandy,
Corn, or grain of all sorts, when the old subsidy is taken at the original rate,
Figs,
Flax †,
Hemp,
Masts,
Olive-oil,
Pitch,
Pot-ashes,
All goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of Muscovy or Russia,

Imported in ships not belonging to the people of Great-Britain or Ireland, and whereof the masters and at least three-fourth, of the mariners, are not British; or in foreign-built ships, altho' owned or manned by British, unless such as are taken as prize.

† 12 Car. II. cap 18. §. 9. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap 11. §. 6:
‡ By 4 Geo. II. cap. 27. §. 1. rough or undressed flax may be imported free.

Curants, } Imported in ships not British-built, and where-
Turkey com- } of the master, and at least three-fourths of the
modities, } mariners are not British.

It is to be levied according to the respective rates or values of the goods, as affixed or ascertained for the old subsidy, after the following rates, viz.

		The duty
* Fish, dried or salted, and	2 ½ per cent. of the	l. s. d.
cod fish or herring (unless	rate, or double petty	
prohibited) not caught in	custom, being ½ part	— — 6
British or Irish vessels, and	of such rate, or for	
cured by British or Irish	every 20s. thereof	
† All other goods charge-	1 ¼ per cent. of the rate	
able with subsidy of	or value, being ¼ part	— — 3
poundage. - - -	thereof, or for every 20s.	

* 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 5.

† 12th rule, &c. in Vol. I. page 178.

To be paid in ready money, without discount, upon due exportation, as directed for the old subsidy, &c. drawback, or repayment of this duty, must be allowed, as follows, viz.

	The drawback
* Currants, the hundred weight, all but	l. — — 4 ½
All other goods, nothing.	

* 6th rule. See the Business of the CUSTOM-HOUSE at the End of every Letter.

PEWTER, a fictitious metal, used in the making domestic utensils. The common sort is a composition of tin, regulus of antimony, and tin-glass, in several proportions, suitable to the quality of the metal intended to be made. There are other ways of making it, with tin, lead, and copper; but that with any degree of copper is esteemed unwholesome.

To make **PEWTER** hard.

Take one pound, or what quantity you please, of pewter, and let it melt in an iron pan; add to it some fallad oil, let it evaporate well, and stir it continually, keeping the flame from it; add to this some fine wheat-flour, and stir it well about; then take all the burnt matter off the top, and to each pound of tin add three or four ounces of plate brass, cut in small pieces, mixed with oil, and a few ounces of pulverized bismuth, or regulus of antimony; stir it all the while, and, when all is melted and incorporated, you will not only have a pewter that is harder and whiter, but also different in it's sound from common pewter. Or,

Melt tin in an iron pan, strew colophony or rosin, with fine wheat flower mixed together, into it, and stir it gently about; this takes off the blackness, and makes it of a fine white colour. If you would have it hard, add to each pound of tin one or two ounces of pulverized regulus of antimony and veneris; this makes it white, hard, and gives it a clear sound.

PHARMACY, that branch of physic which teaches the preparation of medicines. It is ordinarily divided into Galenical and Chemical; the former is called simply pharmacy, and consists in the knowledge and management of the materia medica, in an unchemical way, as it were, and without the torture of bodies, as the art of chemistry instructs.

Pharmaceutical chemistry defines the art of directing and performing the several processes or methods of manual operation, whereby natural substances are reducible to artful medicines.

Thus the whole art consists of the theory and practice: the former is claimed by the Physician, and the latter is assigned to the Apothecary.

A **SUCCINCT ACCOUNT OF THE ART OF PHARMACY.**

Most of the natural bodies being some way or other employed as subjects of pharmacy, the materia medica is extremely large, and it's operations various. It's materials, in the earliest ages, indeed, were few, and the ways of managing them

were simple: subjects afterwards multiplied, operations increased, and, at present, we seem abundantly stocked with both simple and compound medicines.

But the history of pharmacy may deserve to be more particularly treated, in order to see by what means it arrived at its present state, and how it may be further advanced.

Diseases must have been early, if the first inhabitants of the world experienced the same changes of seasons, breathed the same kind of air, and used a like diet and regimen of life with ourselves. But soon after a disease afflicts, the patient seeks a remedy: whence we may reasonably suppose, that this was the foundation of pharmacy in various parts of the world.

Experiments being thus multiplied, and the event gradually introducing better methods of preparing the simples, pharmacy would begin to appear in the form of an art: yet, when Hippocrates came to compile a kind of a system of physic, from the observations of antiquity, he described but few, and those were generally simple.

Succeeding physicians enlarged the materia medica: Galen considerably swelled the catalogue, which received many additions from the Arabians.

And, when learning began to revive in Europe, the materia medica was again enlarged, and great changes wrought upon it by chemistry: whence chemistry at length was generally received, and acknowledged of use in pharmacy.

Both the galenic and chemical parts of this art are now extremely copious. Necessity gave the occasion, nature supplied the materials, and art and observation discovered their preparations, virtues, and uses.

Thus we at present seem provided of a competency of standing medicines; and physicians have, by degrees, acquired a method of prescribing in extemporaneous forms.

The art of pharmacy may be considered under the management of physicians, apothecaries, trading chemists, and druggists.

It is the office of the physician to direct the medicines, or give the rules of extracting, compounding, and managing the simples. If the physician, therefore, should be defective in this part, let the apothecary, the trading chemist, and the druggist, be ever so just, or ever so knowing, the art of pharmacy must fall short of perfection.

To the apothecary belongs the reduction of the materia medica into certain forms of medicines, according to the direction of the physician.

But there are two kinds of apothecaries, vulgarly known by the names of wholesale and retail apothecaries. It is the latter alone we are here concerned with: these act by rule, generally follow their standard, and compound with art and care; though they will sometimes substitute quid pro quo, and now and then venture to reverse an order. According to their skill and care, they are more or less liable to be imposed on by the druggist, and the trading chemist, all of them usually selling what they buy; but if the apothecary be here often deceived, how stands it with the patient and physician, or what is the state of pharmacy?

The retail apothecaries, however, deal more in substitution than in sophistication. The prudent physician, therefore, prescribes what is usually kept, and proper to keep, in the shops, or what is otherwise easily obtainable. If there are other abuses committed in this part of pharmacy, they may, perhaps, be chiefly attributed to some want of skill or conduct in the physician.

The design of the trading chemists and druggists is to furnish medicinal matters to the apothecary, who cannot always detect an artificial counterfeit, or a dextrous sophistication: and perhaps many remedies well designed by the physician, have failed or had mischievous effects upon this account.

This is proposed as a short intimation of the present state of pharmacy in England. If the art be found more perfect in other nations, it may, perhaps, be chiefly owing to this, that their physicians are well acquainted not only with the theory, but also the practice thereof; two things which should never be separated, as being, in reality, but one effective thing, consisting of two parts, viz. previous notion, and execution.

What useful addition or reformation the materia medica is capable of receiving, no one at present can say. If a strict enquiry were made, perhaps it might be found proper to throw out of our present collection a considerable number of materials to make room for others of greater efficacy. But this is no work for private persons: our present business is to see whether any improvements may be made in the ways of preparing the common medicines of the shops.

For the better regulating of our enquiry, it may be of some service to lay down two larger observations, viz. 1. That the design of pharmacy is to separate from bodies the more medicinal parts with which they are naturally endowed, and, upon occasion, to mix such of them together as will best answer the curative intentions. All in the power of art is only to separate and mix, or differently modify, it is nature alone that is able to produce. Pharmacy, therefore, consists in analysis and synthesis.

As it is the perfection of art to copy nature justly; so, by resolving bodies into their principles, we obtain a general rule

for composition, and see the several steps we ought to take in it. Nature shews us, that, in all mixed bodies, there is a basis, or substratum, something to support and envelope the other ingredients. The natural salts are thus diluted with water, the oils with both, and altogether compose one uniform and elegant whole. To prescribe justly, therefore, the physician should imitate nature; but, if we compound without regard to this rule, the ingredients will appear huddled together, as if it were by chance; and, instead of preserving and assisting, they will often clog, incumber and destroy each other.

We now proceed to our experiments, whereby may be illustrated and improved, (1.) The common method of distilling simple waters. (2.) The common method of preparing tinctures. (3.) The method of preparing syrups. (4.) The method of making electuaries; and, (5.) The method of making compound oils, unguents: thus proposing to touch upon the chief articles of the present Galenic pharmacy, as it is vulgarly called, though, in reality, it is something chemical also.

EXPERIMENT I.

The best way of distilling simple waters.

Take as much dried mint, cut small, as will fill two-thirds of a still; then adding a sufficient quantity of rain water to make the plant float commodiously, yet leaving a fourth of the still empty, digested a while with a gentle heat; then work the still, drawing off only so long as the water appears thick or milky, and tastes rich and grateful; whereby you will obtain a simple mint-water, in tolerable perfection.

OBSERVATION.

This experiment, with a few occasional alterations, may shew a general method of obtaining simple waters in their greatest perfection. The subjects best fitted for it are those of the odorous, aromatic, and oily kind; though some others also may, perhaps, communicate particular virtues to the water: among the fittest may, however, be reckoned angelica, aniseed, baulm, camomile, cinnamon, cloves, fennel, hyssop, rosemary, tansey, wormwood, &c. but particularly pepper-mint, which affords an extremely aromatic, pungent, and agreeable water, good against the cholic, and many other disorders of the stomach and bowels; whence its use, perhaps, is too little known.

It is a principal caution in this operation, to remove the receivers before the more pellucid, acid, faint, and dead water comes over, as it soon will do, and, if suffered to mix among the rest, is apt to spoil the whole, by giving it a vapid or faint taste, and sometimes a degree of acidity, or vitriolic stipticity, and an emetic virtue: for part of the essential salt of the plant, now rising, usually corrodes the copper head of the still, and carries over with it some particles of the metal: whence those waters should either be distilled with a glass head, or one of pewter, or tinned copper, or else the operation should be carefully watched, that the second running may not mix with the first. The greater care should here be taken, because some patients, more particularly children, and those of a tender habit, have suffered through a neglect herein; by being vomited, purged, and griped by the use of a simple water, contrary to the intention.

The simple waters distilled after the manner of the present experiment, may, in many cases, prove too strong to be used alone; but then it is easy to lower them with common distilled water, to the proper strength: and this is, beyond all comparison, better than to mix such waters with their own fairs, or liquor of the second running.

There are two improvements that might be made in this method of obtaining simple waters: the first is, by means of cohabitation and digestion; the other, by means of the previous fermentation of the plant. With regard to the first, if the liquor remaining in the still be expressed from the herb, and returned along with all the water that came over upon a fresh quantity of the same subject, and they be digested together, in a gentle heat, for two days, then distilled as before, the water thus obtained will be much richer, and more efficacious than the former: and, if the same process be repeated two or three times, those who have not tried would scarce imagine how rich a simple water may be thus procured. And this method we would particularly recommend for making the simple water of baulm, elder-flowers, roses, camomile, and the like subjects, but sparingly furnished with essential oils, for they otherwise make but indifferent waters.

The other way of improving simple waters, is using by a previous imperfect fermentation: this is performed by adding to the plant and water put together, as in the foregoing experiment, a tenth or twelfth part of sugar, or honey, or else a fortieth part of yeast; then setting the whole in a warm place, to ferment for two or three days only, so that the herb may not fall to the bottom, nor the fermentation be above half finished; then the whole being committed to the still, a water may, at one operation, be obtained extremely rich, or impregnated with the full virtue of the plant. And thus may simple waters be made fit for long keeping without spoiling; the

the small proportion of inflammable spirit generated in the fermentation, serving excellently to preserve them. And these two methods seem applicable to the improvement of all those simple waters commonly found in the shops.

We should next proceed to shew the method of perfecting or improving compound waters, if we had not already endeavoured to do it under the article *DISTILLATION*, Vol. I.

EXPERIMENT II.

The best way of making light tinctures and infusions.

Take half an ounce of the rind of Seville orange, shaved thin; half a drachm of gentian-root, thin sliced; a scruple of the tops of Roman wormwood, half a drachm of cardamums, and half a drachm of cocheneal, each of them slightly bruised: these ingredients put to steep, for a night, in a pint of French brandy, and filter the liquor next morning.

OBSERVATION.

This experiment is general, and not proposed for its own sake, but to shew the method of making all kinds of the lighter and finer tinctures and infusions without fire, which would here prove prejudicial: the preparation itself is, however, a good stomachic bitter, of the same general nature with those commonly sold under the name of Stoughton's elixir.

The excellence of these preparations depends not more upon the choice and goodness of the ingredients, than upon the manner of their being infused: for, if suffered to remain too long in the menstruum, or if heat be used in extracting the tincture, the gross, terrestrial, and nauseous parts of the ingredients will be fetched out, and the tincture thus be loaded with a heavy indolent matter, of little virtue. But if the infusion be made in the cold, and the liquor strained off soon, only the finer and more spirituous parts of the ingredients will be imbibed by the menstruum; whence the preparation will not only taste and smell more brisk and agreeable, but also have a much greater virtue and efficacy. But if, through the shortness of their continuance in infusion, the ingredients should not have sufficiently impregnated the liquor, the method is to pour the liquor again upon such fresh ingredients, and again to strain it off, without letting it stay too long upon them, or feeling the heat of the fire. Thus, by repeated effusions of the same impregnated menstruum, upon fresh ingredients, an infusion, or tincture, may be obtained, of almost any degree of strength or richness, without containing the grosser or more concretive parts of the ingredients, but only what may be called the finer spirit, or quintessence: and this is no inconsiderable secret, both in chemistry and pharmacy, and may deserve the regard of those who desire to procure the full virtues of the simples, unaltered in their nature, yet exalted, or concentrated to such a degree, that a few spoonfuls of the liquor shall contain the spirit, or quintessence of a pound of a plant.

And this is an effect not to be expected from the fire, which almost constantly alters the nature of things committed to it; nor could a valuable essence of violets, jasmín, lilies, borragewhite, and any flower or plant of an extremely fine odoriferous spirit, be procured by heat, as it readily may by steeping these flowers in cold water, cold vinegar, cold wine, or the like, and frequently pouring the tincture upon fresh flowers, 'till the liquor becomes strongly impregnated.

Apothecaries usually commit the same error in preparing the finer tinctures, that they do in working their cordial waters, and in both cases saturate the liquor with the grosser, more useless, and less spirituous parts of the ingredients; whence the cordial waters of the shops too often abound with a gross, heavy, disagreeable oil; and the tinctures of the shops with a gross heavy earth, or kind of bituminous matter, instead of a brisk, lively, and invigorating spirit, which alone is the thing required in both cases.

This doctrine of tinctures and infusions should be reduced to rule, for the improvement of chemistry; which will never be perfected 'till it can extract, separate, and concentrate the virtues of things unimpaired, or unaltered in their nature. And doubtless it would prove a very serviceable thing in chemistry, medicine, and natural philosophy, to know the best and easiest ways of concentrating the virtues of bodies unaltered: and this may, in some measure, be effected by the present method, and practised with well-adapted menstrua: for, in general, (1.) A quick and cold infusion extracts the spirit of vegetables; but a hot and long one confounds, impairs, or destroys it. (2.) To repute the infusion of a fresh subject quick and cold, in the same impregnated menstruum, seems greatly to collect and concentrate the spirit, that is, the finer and more essential part of bodies. (3.) The proper menstrua for this purpose seem to be such as pure rain-water, vinegar, wine, water mixed with a little fine alcohol, water and a little sugar; and, for certain uses, the common atmospherical air, which is an excellent menstruum to extract the spirit or effluvia of plants, as we remarkably find in spicy groves and gardens, and may, in some cases, be used with good effect.

But, to obtain the saturated tinctures of hard, resinous, or gummy bodies, requires a different treatment, as in the following

EXPERIMENT.

Take two ounces of that hard Indian rosin called gum-lacque, and reduce it into a fine powder, make it into a kind of stiff paste, with oil of tartar per deliquium; set this paste into an open glass to dry, by a gentle heat; then remove it to the open air, that it may relent or grow soft; and after this dry it again, as before: and, by repeating the process once or twice, the hard body of the rosin will at length dissolve into a purple-coloured liquor; which being now gently dried, and reduced to powder, will afford an excellent tincture, by being boiled for two or three hours in a tall glass, with alcohol.

OBSERVATION.

This process is almost general, or may be advantageously used for making the tinctures of myrrh, gum-juniper, dragon's blood, amber, and other hard gummy substances, which will scarce otherwise yield a tincture in spirit of wine. Any improvement in the extracting tinctures with alcohol, may tend considerably to improve the art of pharmacy, because such tinctures are generally found powerful medicines; the spirit of wine appearing greatly to increase the virtue of the subjects. Thus, though the tincture of amber, prepared in this manner, appears to be only a bare solution of the substance of the amber, yet it is found to have such effects as are no way equalled by any fine powder of amber: and, what seems remarkable, though so large a quantity of fixed alkali be used in the preparation of these tinctures, yet they give no manifest signs of containing an alkali; which is therefore changed in the operation, whether by the acid naturally contained in these resinous and gummy bodies, or by being exposed to the air, or both.

There are more methods of extracting the tinctures of these hard gummy bodies; but that delivered appears to be best, though it might, perhaps, be shortened, by using some proper intermediate substance to divide the particles of the subject, so as that the alkaline salt, the air, and the spiritous menstruum, might all come into fuller consent therewith, and act more forcibly thereon. And for this purpose pure virgin earth is recommended, such as is commonly used for the making of tests or cupels; by means whereof spirit of wine will extract a tolerable tincture from myrrh, without the addition of any fixed alkali.

But when tinctures not spirituous, or only aqueous solutions of these hard gummy bodies, are required, the use of the soluble tartar, or tartarum tartarizatum, is proper; for a solution of this salt will readily dissolve myrrh, even in the cold, as water dissolves gum arabic.

EXPERIMENT III.

The best method of making syrups.

Take three ounces of the yellow external rind of fresh oranges, and infuse them in a close vessel, with a gentle heat in balneo mariæ, for six hours, along with a pint and a half of pure water; then suffer the infusion to cool; filter the liquor, and add to it twice its own weight of hard double-refined sugar, made into a syrup, in a close vessel set in balneo mariæ.

OBSERVATION.

We would not contrive a general example to fit all syrups, because they differ greatly in the liquors of which they are made; or according as those liquors are infusions, decoctions, natural juices, wines, or vinegars. We chose to give an instance in a syrup made of a liquor by the infusion of an aromatic substance, whose virtue would be almost entirely lost if the syrup were to be prepared by long boiling, as it is sometimes directed, with less than an equal weight of sugar. Dispensatory writers have, perhaps, no where erred more remarkably, than in directing the making of syrups, which seems the more strange, because this part of pharmacy is extremely facile: the misfortune seems to have lain, that great men cannot submit to consider common and ordinary things; whence, however, the credit of a physician may sink in the esteem of those who, by their employ, are led to a knowledge of these ordinary things.

It is judged, that the whole of this business may be reduced to a few easy rules, which we shall here endeavour to lay down, for improving this branch of pharmacy. And, (1.) It is matter of experience, that aqueous infusions, decoctions, or other aqueous liquors, require twice their own weight of dry sugar-candy, to make them into a syrup of a just consistence for keeping, without candying or fermenting.

This rule, by directing the use of sugar-candy, seems to fix the consistence of syrups with exactness; because all salts acquire a determinate proportion of water in crystallizing; so that sugar, in the form of candy, consists of one certain proportion of water, whilst different kinds may hold more or less aqueous matter, according to their manner of refining, the accidents of the weather, &c. Hence, therefore, all such infusions for syrups as are of delicate or destructible colour, which

which is impaired by boiling (for example, violets, clove-july-flowers, &c.) and all such infusions as contain any volatile parts, which would evaporate by a boiling heat (for example, those of nutmeg, cinnamon, orange-peel, citron-peel, &c.) should have twice their own weight of sugar added to them, and be kept close covered, in the gentle heat of a *balneum marie*, 'till the sugar is dissolved; and, to hasten the solution, the sugar should be first reduced to fine powder.

(2.) The decoctions of such vegetable substances as lose no valuable parts by boiling, may be boiled down to the form of a syrup, along with their own weight of sugar, the two being first clarified together, with whites of eggs, in the ordinary way; but, if the ingredients here contain any unctuous or balsamic parts, whereon their medicinal virtues depend, let the sugar be added from the first, and boiled along with the ingredients, afterwards straining and clarifying the decoction, before it is boiled to near the full consistence of a syrup.

This rule is founded upon that remarkable property which sugar has to dissolve oils, or the finer resinous substances, so as to make them intimately mix with water: whence it may deserve to be considered, whether the syrup of myrtles, comfrey, and diacodium, should not be thus prepared. It must also be observed, that, by boiling the sugar so long with the decoction, the aqueous part exhales and leaves the syrup much stronger than it could have been made without this boiling.

(3.) All vegetable juices are to be thoroughly purified before they are made into syrups. Thus the juices of citrons, lemons, and oranges, are to pass the filter, and then be made into syrups, without boiling, according to the first rule, observing to use no metalline vessel about them. But the juices of fruits, as particularly mulberries, raspberries, &c. will not clarify without beginning fermentation; but, by standing for a day or two, they will begin to ferment and liquify, and may then be commodiously strained through flannel; after which, these also are to be made into syrups, with about an eighth part less than twice their own quantity of sugar, or with two pounds and twelve ounces of sugar to a pint of juice, on account of their being somewhat saccharine themselves.

And this holds also of wines and vinegars, when they come to be made into syrups; for wine contains an inflammable spirit, which does not incorporate with sugar, and also a thick syrupy substance, which is also found in vinegar. And, by a due application of these rules, we apprehend the business of making syrups may be reduced to tolerable perfection.

The best method of making electuaries, by an example in the *sassafras* electuary.

Take two ounces of the best *sassafras*, newly rasped, and half an ounce of cinnamon, finely powdered; boil them together in a tall glass, in a sand-heat, with 10 ounces of water, and 14 ounces of sugar, so as that nothing might evaporate, for two hours; then straining and pressing out the syrup, add to it an ounce of fresh-rasped *sassafras*, a drachm of cinnamon, and 10 grains of nutmeg, all reduced to fine powder, and make the whole into an electuary.

OBSERVATION.

In the common method of making this electuary, the *sassafras* and cinnamon are boiled in the water, whereby a great part of their virtue is lost, or not extracted, whence the medicine comes to be defrauded of its due: but here, by boiling the ingredients in a tall glass, with a due proportion of sugar and water, to make a syrup (allowing an extraordinary proportion of water for what the *sassafras* will drink up) we obtain the fine aromatic virtues of the ingredients to advantage, without any considerable loss.

To make electuaries in perfection, where a syrup is employed as their basis, (1.) The syrup should be prepared in the manner above delivered, so as that the virtues of the ingredients may be preserved. (2.) The powders, or species employed, should be fresh, and fine ground. (3.) The gums, where any are used, must be well cleansed, and dissolved in their proper menstrua; and, (4.) The whole must be mixed, or thoroughly united into a smooth uniform substance, of a due consistence for keeping, without either candying or running into fermentation.

Where syrups are used in the making of electuaries, care is not only required, that the virtues of the ingredients of the syrups be preserved, as much as the form will allow of, but also that its consistence be not too high, for this would dispose it to candy in the electuary, and render the medicine unduly mixed, or knotty, the sugar thus concreting together in lumps, or shooting away from the species.

If the syrup be made too thin or aqueous, so as not to suspend and hold the powder together, by a binding consistence, the syrup will of necessity ferment in hot weather, and become somewhat vinous, afterwards sour, and at length corruptive, [see the articles *BREWING*, *DISTILLATION*, and *VINEGAR-MAKING*] so as to change, invert, or destroy

the nature of the medicine; for purgative ingredients, by fermenting, lose their purgative virtues: and all other ingredients, by corrupting, are reduced to an indolent kind of faeces, or *caput mortuum*, very different from the thing intended.—See the article *WINES*. Hence electuaries that have thus fermented, or changed their nature, may sometimes prove pernicious, instead of salutary.

The electuaries made with the pulp of fruits are less disposed to keep for any considerable time perfect, on account of the greater tendency which such pulpy substances have to fermentation and putrefaction: thus, though the lenitive electuary were made ever so artificially, it will scarce keep many months without altering its nature, and especially if the consistence was originally too thin: whence such electuaries should be made in small quantities, or fresh as they could be wanted. But this does not hold of the capital electuaries, such as *Venice-treacle*, or *mithridate*, which require to lie for some time, that the ingredients may digest or ripen, as it were, and grow mellow together; for the gums and spices that enter their compositions preserve the medicines from alterations for the worse, and the mixture becomes more perfect by time, provided the honey used in their composition does not candy, or the whole become too dry. To keep the honey from candying, some artists mix the spices and gums with it unclarified, taking care only to separate the foul parts that lodge either at the top or bottom. And, if the medicine prove too dry, it is usual at any time to soften, or beat them up in a mortar, with canary: thus these capitals of the shops are supposed to improve by keeping. But *diacodium* having few of the warm gums in its composition, is more apt to alter, and lose of its astringent quality by keeping: for which reason it seems an alteration here for the better, to use a quantity of *saccharum rosatum* instead of honey, or *diacodium*, as this not only gives a greater compactness to the medicine, but also contributes to preserve its colour and virtues.

The powder, or species, that enter into the composition of electuaries, should be fresh, because they lose of their virtues by keeping, and they should also be fine ground, because they would not otherwise intimately mix with honey or syrup, nor so readily part with their virtues in the stomach, nor render the medicine so agreeable to the eye. The common method of reducing these powders to a sufficient degree of fineness, by the mortar and searce, is faulty; because this method exposes them too long to the action of the open air, whereby their more volatile and grateful parts are carried off, whilst only the grosser are left behind: whence it might be proper to have a close engine contrived for the purpose, so as to prevent this ill effect.

Some artists grind their powders for electuaries by means of a horse-mill; but the mill-stones here wear off, and communicate a stony matter to the ingredients, so as to prove disagreeable in the mouth, increase the bulk of the medicine, without adding to its virtues.—Nor is this method of the mill free from the inconveniencies of the latter; for the finer or more spirituous parts of the ingredients also fly off, as is sensibly found by the whole neighbourhood where any large quantity of the ingredients for *Venice-treacle*, &c. is ground by the common horse-mill.

The better way doubtless is, by the means of iron rollers, moving opposite to each other in a close box, to grind all the ingredients, viz. the purified gums, the roots, herbs, flowers, &c. along with the honey, and wine, after the manner of the chocolate engine: for thus the fine, volatile, and aromatic parts of the ingredients may, as well as the grosser, be entangled with the honey and gums, and all at once be mixed uniformly together, into a smooth mass of a due consistence. But perhaps a much better, though more troublesome method would be in the form of extracts, essential oils, &c. to get out the full virtues of the ingredients, without any of their grosser parts, and mix these oils, extracts, gums, resins, &c. together with a suitable proportion of honey, &c. so as at once to concentrate the medicine, which might, therefore, be given in doses of an agreeable smallness, with all the advantages that can be expected. The same method seems also applicable to the making of pills and troches.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. We learn from the preceding enquiry, that some part of the salts of plants, as well as their oils, will rise by distillation with water, and give an acid or alkaline nature to the simple waters thus proposed, according to the nature of the plant.
2. That no simple waters should be distilled so low as to bring over any remarkable acid or alkaline liquor from the plant, for fear of mischievous effects, or making such waters prove emetic or purgative, contrary to the intention.
3. That the virtues of simple waters chiefly depend upon their containing the essential oil of the plant.
4. That there are two methods of perfecting simple waters, viz. cohobation and fermentation.
5. That all tinctures and infusions of ingredients, whose principal virtues depend upon their lighter, or more subtle and spirituous parts, should not be made with heat, but in the cold.

6. That

6. That if such tinctures or infusions be required rich and strong, they are to be made so, not by suffering the menstruum to remain long upon the ingredients, or by the use of heat, but by adding fresh ingredients several times to the same liquor, infusing them quick, and each time keeping out the ingredients that have once been used.

7. That the fire is apt to exhale, alter, or consume the more subtle and spirituous parts of vegetables, and, therefore, unfit to be used where these more delicate parts are required.

8. That the business of infusions and tinctures may be greatly improved, by extracting the efficacious, or more spirituous parts of vegetables, unaltered in their nature, yet concentrated, or brought into a moderate compass.

9. That rich tinctures may be extracted, with spirit of wine, from the hardest resinous and gummy bodies hitherto known, by means of fixed alkali's, properly applied.

10. That even aqueous solutions may be made of the same kind of bodies, by means of the tartarum tartarizatum, or soluble tartar.

11. That the ways in common use for the making of syrups and electuaries are improveable, by the observance of a few easy rules.

12. That, therefore, there are grounds to expect some improvement of the common pharmacy, upon the footing it now stands, or by barely perfecting the methods of preparing the shop-medicines in use, without either retrenching their number, introducing new ones, or reducing the art to a greater simplicity. See CHEMISTRY, and PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS. The Philippine Islands, situate in the Pacific Ocean in Asia, are computed at 1200 in number, and extend from North latitude 6 to near 20, and from east longitude 114 to 126, of which 5 or 600 are pretty considerable: they are about 400 leagues to the west of the Ladrones, 120 south of China, and 200 east of Cochin-China. The air here is very hot, with little difference of seasons, but the rains begin generally in May, and last three months. Their chief product is gold, rice, the usual Indian fruits, beasts, fowl, and fish, with good large nutmegs, which they do not cultivate, however, lest it should tempt the Dutch to attack them. The natives neither allow the English nor Dutch to trade hither, lest they should discover their riches and weakness.

Their chief islands are, 1. **MINDANAO**, which lies farthest, both to the east and south of them, all extending from north latitude 6, to 9 $\frac{3}{4}$, and from east longitude 121, to 126, 30. It is the biggest of them all, next to Luconia, being, as Dampier says, 60 miles in length, and 40 or 50 in breadth; but Captain Hamilton makes it, 140 leagues in length, and other 76 in breadth; though, after all, the latter is very unequal, by reason of many harbours for shipping, and abounding, as well as it's navigable rivers, with variety of fish. The soil is fat, the valleys well watered, and abound with rice and other provisions; evergreens, nutmegs, cloves, and good cassia lignum, or bastard cinnamon.

It's chief trade is with the island of Manilla, but partly with Borneo. The Dutch come hither in sloops from Ternate and Tidore, two of the Molucca Islands, and purchase rice, bees-wax, and tobacco, the last of which grows more plentifully in this island, than in any other of these seas, except Manilla, and is an excellent sort; but the people do not manage it to that advantage as the Spaniards do at Manilla. The common rate of the Mindanao gold, is 14 Spanish dollars the English ounce, and 18 dollars the Mindanao ounce; which is the rather observed, because these Spanish dollars are the current coin in all these islands.

It is divided into several principalities of different religions and languages. Those who live in the inland country, among the woods and mountains, are called Stilannoos, and have rich mines of gold ore, and great plenty of bees-wax and tobacco, which they exchange with the coasters for cloathing, calicoes, muslins, china-ware, silk, and other necessaries.

BEHOL, north of the former, towards Mindanao, is but 40 leagues in compass. The soil of it produces no rice, but yields cocoa and divers roots, much cattle and fish, and is rich and gold mines.

MINDORA, which extends from north latitude 12, to 13, and from east longitude 119, to 120; is about 20 leagues long, and 12 broad, and 70 in compass, and lies on the west side of the Philippines, and particularly of Masbate. It produces pepper, has mines of gold, and a town of the same name. It is divided by the straits of Mindora from Manilla.

PHILIPPINA, which being first discovered, gave name to the rest, is also called Tandaya and Samar, lies, betwixt north latitude 12 and 14 $\frac{1}{2}$, and is the pleasantest of them all, fruitful and rich. It is about 130 leagues in compass, and is divided from Manilla, on the north-west, by the straits of that name.

XOLO lies to the south-west of the Philippines. All the ships of Borneo touch here, and it may be called the mart of all the moorish kingdoms in the east. It abounds with rice, and is the only island of the Philippines that breeds elephants. The sea throws up abundance of ambergris on it's shore, and yields pearls; and the soil, pepper and other fruits.

MASBATE, to the west of Tandaya, is 30 leagues in compass, and yields wax, salt, civet, and gold, of which here are rich mines, and the ore rises 22 carats fine, but they are not wrought.

We conclude with the biggest, the richest, and the most northern of all the Philippine Islands, viz.

LUCONIA, which the Portuguese call Manilla, after the name of it's chief town, and the Spaniards New Castille. It extends from north latitude 14, to almost 19, and from east longitude 120, to 124, and is said to be 160 Spanish leagues in length, but unequal in breadth, being in some places twenty, in some thirty, and in others forty leagues over. It affords corn, fruit, and roots in great plenty, as well as wild game and fowl. It produces gold of low touch, and is able to furnish good materials for carrying on a considerable commerce.

MANILLA, lies on a point of land made by a river, which issues from the lake of Bahia, and falls into the sea a little lower, at the town of Cavite; where is a spacious harbour, but of difficult entrance, because of rocks and shoals at the mouth of the bay.

This island has the liberty of sending two ships every year to New Spain; but being limited to that number, they therefore build them vastly large. These carry the spices and rich commodities of India to Acapulco, a port in the South-Sea, in the kingdom of Mexico, or New Spain, and bring back the valuable commodities of America and Europe, by which trade the gain is said to be four hundred per cent. See **ACAPULCO**.

PHœNICE. This province lies along the Mediterranean coast, being bounded by it on the west, by Syria propria on the north, by Syria Cava, or Cælo Syria, and Batanea on the east, and Palestine on the south, and is at present part of the Beglebergate of Tripoly. It is but a narrow slip of land from east to west.

TRIPOLIS of SYRIA, to distinguish it from that of Barbary, is pleasantly and commodiously situated, at the foot of Mount Libanus. It's distance from the sea is but about a mile and a half, and hath a commodious haven, which comes up within less than half a mile of the west side of it. As to the port, it is rather an open sea than an inclosed harbour, except that it is in part defended by two small islands, which lie about two leagues from it. (Maunderel.)

The people here spend most of the summer-time in their gardens, where they busy themselves with their silk-worms, which is the greatest manufacture they have.

The air is extremely clear and healthy, and the country round about very rich and fruitful; so that the town is supplied with every thing it wants or can wish for.

BERYTUS is situate on the same coast, about 40 miles south of Tripoly, and about 18 south of Sidon. It's chief commerce, which is very considerable, consists in fine tapestry, silks, camblets, cinnamon, nutmegs, ginger, pepper, cassia, rhubarb, and cocheneal. The sea banks abound with mulberry, pine, lime, and other trees; and with gourds and prodigious quantities of colocynth: some add, that in the neighbouring hills are found a sort of stones, of which some resemble olives. (Moncony & Thevenot.)

SIDON, the antientest city of Phœnicia, is seated in a fertile and delightful soil, between the sea on the west, and Libanus on the east, and about 30 miles south of Berytus.

It is at present but a little town, though formerly the metropolis of Phœnicia, and a place of great trade: one of the chief commodities of the place is that of raisins, which the Bascha lets to proper farmers, who are obliged to be moderate in their prices, lest they should stick in hand. Other merchandizes are oil, ashes, Egyptian soap, rice, blue silks, Turkey-leather, cotton, fenna, pistaches, buffaloes skins, &c. Those they import from Europe, are sattins, damasks of Genoa and Lucca, scarlet and light coloured cloth, paper, and some other of less value. Provisions of all sorts are here in great plenty, and very cheap. The silk-worms are kept in little huts under the mulberries, and thrive very well, unless disturbed by violent claps of thunder.

Leaving the sea-coasts, and turning towards the east, at about 82 miles north-east of Aera, stands the famed city of Damascus, situate on a fertile plain, encompassed with hills, and upon the river Barady, which enriches that city and country with all kind of plenty and pleasure.

The city has separate wards for every trade and calling, and these are shut up every night by gates, and by a stout iron chain by day, to keep off beasts of burthen. It hath, in particular, above 20,000 inhabitants employed in making scymitars, sword-blades, and other cutlery work; bridles, and a world of other things in iron and steel; all which are in great request through Turkey, and beyond, on account of the fine temper which their water or art here gives to those metals. Other commodities are wines, raisins, prunes, raw and wrought silk, and all other merchandizes of Turkey, Arabia, and India, most of which are brought hither by caravans, which go and come from Constantinople, Egypt, India, Aleppo, Bagdad, Mecca, &c. As for those which come from Europe, they are mostly brought hither by the Venetians.

DAMASCUS stands about 43 miles distant from the sea, being parted from it by a long chain of mountains, and about 45 almost east from Sidon, and 65 south-east from Tripoly. In latitude 33 degrees, 37 minutes east, longitude 37 degrees, 4 minutes.

PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL. By philosophy, we understand, the science or knowledge of the nature, causes, properties, and effect of all created beings, so far as they are capable of being known by reason, discovered by art, or any ways adapted to the human comprehension.—By experimental philosophy, we mean, the art or method of making such experiments upon all material things, as will tend to lead and conduct the human understanding into the true and certain knowledge thereof, and their application to all the useful purposes of life.

REMARKS of general utility to lucrative arts, manufactures, and commerce.

In order to acquire this art of philosophizing, it's scientific elements must be well understood; and it's operation personally viewed, and manually performed: whence it's two parts of theory and practice.

It's theory, in general, is acquired not only by information, axiomatically and demonstratively delivered in the synthetical manner, *à priori*; but analytically, and *à posteriori*, in particular. It's practice is acquired by a careful instruction in the proper manual operations; which, in general, are limited by place, time, the subject and suitable means; and, in particular, by the manner of performing. Whence are derived numerous arts, trades, and mechanical employments, and their daily improvement; which has induced us to take notice of an article of this kind. How far this knowledge may be advanced by the means of mathematics, see the article **MATHEMATICS**. How greatly also the knowledge of chemistry may tend to the advancement of philosophy, grounded on indubitable experiments, and consequently of various arts and trades, see the articles **CHEMISTRY**, **AQUA FORTIS**, **AQUA REGIA**, **ASSAY**, **BLACK** [Dyer's Black], **BLEACHING**, **BLUE**, **BOLE**, **BRANDY**, **BREWING**, **CALICO-PRINTING**, **CLAYS**, **COPPER-MINES**, **DISTILLATION**, **DYEING**, **EMERALD**, **ENAMEL**, **FARMING**, **FLUX** [in metallurgy], **GLASS**, and abundance of other articles, which the reader will find in the indexes to both the volumes.

I come now to shew, how Natural Philosophy contributes to afford us the necessities and conveniences of life; whereby our empire is extended abroad, as a knowledge in physic, secures us at home. And experimentalists in philosophy may greatly reform trade, or improve it; and this equally, if not more, perhaps, than those who are engaged in it, which chiefly lies in the hands of the illiterate. Thus, for instance, the husbandman's skill consists in the knowledge of a few plants and animals, their relation to particular soils, and management, with the influence of the celestial bodies and meteors thereon; all which subjects fall properly under the cognizance of a natural and experimental philosopher.

For he who has attentively considered the nature of generation, nutrition, and accretion, both in plants and animals, and knows how to vary an useful experiment, so as to remedy the inconveniences, or supply the defects thereof; and can dextrously apply his own, and others observations, may cultivate husbandry to as much advantage, as the ordinary farmer tills his land.

An attentive consideration of the parts that constitute each particular trade, would shew how they all depend upon philosophy, and might be farther improved. Thus, the principal parts of refining are a knowledge of the preparation of aqua fortis, and it's operation, upon silver, copper, and gold, with the means to purge it, that neither gold may be dissolved, nor silver precipitated, when dissolved, thereby; to know what proportion is dissolvable therein, and the quantity of water necessary to weaken the solution; how long copper-plates should lie, to precipitate the silver it contains; how lead is colligated with, and what proportion thereof is requisite to carry off the baser metals upon the test; how cupels are made; and, with these, to draw off lead or antimony from silver or gold; to discern when the metal is sufficiently refined; and, lastly, to know the proper proportion of gold and silver, to make water-gold. This trade, indeed, is understood by few, and not so diffusive and complicated as hundreds of others; yet, if they were all judiciously resolved into their component parts, it would doubtless appear, that most of them are only corollaries, deduced from particular observations in philosophy, or the bare application thereof, to the uses of human life. And if so, it is very probable, that farther discoveries, in the nature of the materials, the subjects of trade, and a knowledge of the laws they observe, may reform or meliorate several of it's branches.

This too is performable, by odd and unsuspected means; so that, perhaps, the chemist's charcoal, may prove an excellent equivalent for manure, if a vegetable salt, as probably it is, be the cause of the land's fertility. For chemical experiments may discover the nature hereof, and thereby afford useful directions towards the melioration of arable, pasture, and wood-

land. From the experiments which have been made upon earths, dungs, and seeds, whereby it hath been found that salts abounded in the liquors they yielded; we see reason to wish this enquiry were farther prosecuted, towards the improvement of husbandry. Whoever has observed those many particulars in this art, which caused Sir Francis Bacon to pronounce nitre to be the life of vegetables; and considers how land is improved by pigeon's dung, which impregnates it with saltpetre; and, lastly, knows, that moist fat earths, defended from the sun and rain, and left to themselves, will soon abound in nitrous salts; whoever considers these things, will, perhaps, believe a philosophic enquiry into the nature of saltpetre, may be of great use in farming.

I once caused some earth, says Mr Boyle, to be dug up, from under a pigeon-house, and distilling it in a retort, little or no oil, but a considerable quantity of reddish liquor came over, so far unlike spirit of nitre, that it greatly resembled volatile salts; for, without being rectified, it not only turned syrup of violets green, and precipitated a solution of sublimate into a milky substance; but there also came over therewith, into the lower part of the receiver, a dry salt, in taste like the volatile kind, and so far an alkali, that it readily hissed, and caused an ebullition in an acid menstruum. From hence it seems, which is highly remarkable, that a salt, very different from acid, may, by the operation of the earth and air, be so altered, as afterwards, by a slight management, to afford saltpetre, whose spirit is strongly acid. And dropping aqua fortis upon pot-ashes, dissolved in a little fair water, 'till the ebullition and hissing were perfectly ceased; and, having filtered this liquor, and set it in an open vessel to evaporate with a gentle heat, being in two or three days time removed to a cold place, it afforded very pure crystals of saltpetre.

I might add, that the knowledge of the nature and distinctions of saline bodies, may greatly assist to shew the differences of the various saltiness that is found in soils; and with what sort each plant or seed is most delighted. By this means many tracks of land, now thought barren, for want of a knowledge hereof, might be rendered useful. A ground may be made to yield much better crops than usual, by being successively sown with a proper variety of seed, agreeable to the nature of the particular salt, at present inherent in the earth; for, by the absence of one kind of salt, it is better prepared to feed those plants that delight in another. And of this the husbandmen have, in some measure, already taken notice, as appears by their sowing turneps in grounds too remote for the convenient carriage of compost, to serve for manure, and fit them for wheat. And I am of opinion, that any land, except mere sand, might, without much culture, be made fertile, were we but well acquainted with the soil, and provided of the various sorts of grain that nature affords in different countries.

There are various soils, both in England and elsewhere, left quite uncultivated, wherein some foreign vegetables might thrive and prosper. Many large tracks of steep and craggy land, exposed to southern sun, lie waste in several hot countries, where grapes are not planted; though in France, Italy, and even on the Alps, such lands are turned into excellent vineyards. An experienced way of causing wheat to grow and prosper, even in clay, where no grain had thriven, was communicated to me by a person who had used it; and the art consisted in steeping the seed, for a determined time, in a certain expressed oil that is not dear: whence it is probable, that without altering the soil, a slight change, properly made in the seed alone, may so fit them for each other, as to yield a large increase. I have also seen in a collection of rarities, an ear or two of corn, not much unlike our common wheat, one grain whereof, in a warm country, from whence this was brought, would afford so vast an increase, that the possessor was almost ashamed to declare, and I am more afraid to repeat it.

An English gentleman, however, assured me, that having sown some of this corn, in land of his own, he found a single grain to produce several hundreds; though that came nothing near what it was said to do, in a more suitable soil and climate.

The learned Acofta affirms; that in several parts of America, where the European wheat will not prosper, the Indian, or Virginia sort, called also maiz, succeeds so well, that though the grain be large and more than one cluster often found upon one stalk, yet, in a single cluster he has counted seven hundred grains. He adds, it is not unusual in that country, to reap three hundred times the quantity sown. This, indeed, seems a little incredible; but I myself have found, even in England, such a multitude of grains, in one of the vast number of ears produced from a single grain, that I am inclined to absolve Acofta.

In some eastern countries, a sort of rice, the chief food of the natives, thrives excellently upon land so watery, that the person is there obliged to wade who sows it. Yet this is less strange than what Martinus tells us, as a practice in some parts of China; where many places, that lie all the year under water, have feed so well appropriated to them, that though thrown in the water, as baits for fish, it shoots up in it's proper season, appears on the surface like a verdant field, and affords a plentiful crop.

To proceed: chemistry and hydrostatics may help to discover the kinds and degrees of saltiness, residing in several other bodies,

dies, the husbandman employs. I myself have made surprising discoveries, in working upon some sorts of earth, by chemistry. And as, in particular, the fertility of manure seems to depend upon it's salino-sulphureous parts, a practical enquiry into the differences and various operations of salts, may probably assist to discover various kinds of compost, with the proper manner wherein to multiply, compound, and apply them. See MANURE.

And thus, not only fire, but water, by means of the engines, and contrivances to be learnt from hydrostatics, may be made more serviceable to husbandry than ordinary. Martinus assures us, that in one province of China, they water their rice-fields by means of moveable mills, placed as occasion requires, upon any part of the banks of a river. The wheels here, raise the water in buckets to a great height, above the surface of the river; whence it is afterwards conveyed to the destined places in proper channels. But the art of levelling, or conducting water upon the ground, may be farther serviceable in this case. For soils, suited to this way of culture, are thereby greatly improveable; though it be almost entirely neglected, both in England and elsewhere. Some ground, by being skilfully overflowed, has doubled it's increase. And wild boggy places, have been turned into a good dry and compact soil, by barely trenching and overflowing it equally, six or seven times in a year, between the beginning of October, and the middle of April, with water from a neighbouring spring, that is enriched by no land floods, and rose in a barren and uncultivated place; so that this ground afforded hay, in such plenty, as to become worthy twenty times it's former purchase. Other instances of the like improvement have been made, from skilfully overflowing grounds with common water.

I must here observe, that the more comprehensive any trade is, the more improvements it will admit of from philosophy; because, depending upon many natural productions and operations, there must arise many particulars to be meliorated or reformed, either in the manufacture or profession. Thus corn, in husbandry, renders a knowledge of the whole art of tillage convenient, with the ways to order cattle, the dairy, or orchard; a kitchen garden, wood, flax, hemp, hops, bees, &c. and the particular productions of some of these, as honey, cyder, &c. are capable of improvement, and require skill to manage. In the variety of particulars, therefore, wherewith the husbandman deals, there must be some, wherein the superior knowledge and experience of the philosophers will be serviceable. And, as one of the principal parts of husbandry depends upon preserving cattle from diseases, and the fruits of the earth from putrefaction; natural philosophy, founded on experiments, may conduce to both these ends. He who can accelerate, and delay putrefaction in bodies, may shew the husbandman how to prepare variety of manures; to enrich his ground with the peculiar kind of salt it wants; and also, how to preserve several feeds, flowers, and fruits, beyond their natural duration. Thus many have continued fruits, as quinces, for instance, good almost all the year round, by a pickle made only of water, and the refuse of quinces, or what is easily obtained from them; but cherries have been preserved fresh and juicy for more than a year; and that without salt or sugar, only by a proper spirit of wine, well impregnated with the tincture it drew from the skins of the same kind of fruit.

The great advantage accruing to the Dutch, from the best way of pickling herrings; and to others, from so ordering the flesh of animals as to keep sweet, in passing from Europe to the West-Indies, and sometimes, even 'till it comes back again from thence, may shew what benefit husbandry might receive from discovering means to preserve the production of the earth; but especially if it could be extended to small wines, cyder, perry, &c. that are commonly made in large quantities, but soon decayed at home, and are unfit to be transported to very distant countries. The virtue of sugar, to strengthen vinous liquors, and render them durable; and the method of preserving great variety of fruits, and the juices of plants, without the help of salt, or any thing sharp, give some reason to expect, that very different ways may be found to make substances outlast their natural term of duration*.

* To preserve fruit and flowers for a whole year, take salt-petre one pound, bole-armoniac two pounds, common clean sand three pounds; mix them together, and, in dry weather, take fruit or flowers of any sort, not fully ripe, each with it's stalk, and put them singly into an open glass, 'till it be full; cover it close with oil-cloth, and in a dry cellar, put each of these glasses four fingers deep under ground, so that quite round above, as well as below, there may remain two fingers thick of the mixture. See Philosophical Transactions, No. 237. p. 44.

Again, that great damage the husbandman often sustains, by stubborn and contagious diseases in his cattle, might, in good measure, be prevented by the instructions of the philosopher, especially if skilled in physic. For, as many diseases, so many cures also are analogous in men and brutes; though remedies, for several reasons, usually succeed best in the latter. A gentleman has, for several years, preserved his numerous

flocks in a moist country, when most of his neighbours lost theirs, by the use of Spanish salt. After having bled them a little under the eye, he obliged them to take down a small handful of it, two or three times in a few days, without permitting them to drink any thing for some hours after it. This remedy he employed at that season when there is a suspicion the sheep will begin to be bloated. I might here alledge the virtue of crude antimony, against the foulness of the blood, and leprosy in swine; of quicksilver against the worms in horses; of the remedy of Palmarius, which, he asserts, is infallible against the bite of a mad dog in cattle; of a more probable one also, that serves no less in men, the effect whereof has been experienced of the antimonial cup, for several diseases in horses and sheep; and lastly, of another antimonial medicine, very successfully used to fatten horses after sickness; all these, and many more receipts of medicines, highly esteemed for their efficacy in several distempers, both in men and brutes, might here be set down, were it needful.

Moreover, there are many reasons assignable, why husbandry, with the assistance of philosophy, may be improved by the addition of a therapeutic part, with regard, not only to the animal and vegetable productions it consists in, but also to the various distempers of the ground itself.

For, were the causes of barrenness therein, with it's respective indisposition to nourish particular plants or animals, discovered, many of those defects may doubtless be removed by rational applications, and proper means of cure; as we see in other inanimate bodies, and even metalline ones. And, from a knowledge of the particular cause of a barren soil, fertility may perhaps be procured to it, without much cost.

Some ingenious husbandmen have lately declared themselves satisfied with a way of meliorating two of the most fruitful kinds of land, clay, and sand, that consists only in skilfully mixing them, in a due proportion, according to the use for which it is designed. [See MANURE.] And an ingenious gentleman, to satisfy some curious persons, purposely sowed some corn, near a place which prospered so strangely, that one root yielded sixty odd ears: and, what is more surprising, this wonderful increase depended only upon a philosophical observation, without any thing extraordinary having been done, either to the ground or the seed.

To proceed: not only the necessary trades, but also the pleasurable ones, are improvable by philosophy; for they chiefly consist in the knowledge and application, of some natural productions and operations. And the things, by this means acquired, will, without changing their nature, serve us in different capacities; thus wine quenches thirst, recovers a fainting person, and intoxicates: the same spirit of wine, wherewith the physician draws his tinctures and prepares his extracts for medicinal purposes, will dissolve benjamin for the ladies; which, mixed with water, makes an excellent cosmetic; and the same spirit, when applied to the proper ingredients, produces several kinds of fine varnish; the tincture of benjamin, likewise, is applicable to the same uses, and is, itself, a pretty odoriferous varnish, and good against tetter, they being bathed therewith.

That knowledge and skill may make happy applications, even of unpromising things, to the delight of mankind, appears evidently from musical instruments; for, who would imagine, did he not know it, that a few pieces of wood, joined together, and the guts of cats or lambs, twisted into strings, should, when artificially struck, afford the most ravishing pleasure? We might here go on to instance, in the art of colouring, perfuming, confectionary, and of preparing cosmetics, &c. did we not chuse to recommend philosophy, from the pleasure it affords the reason, rather than from the charm wherewith it bribes the senses. Though what has hitherto been delivered about the usefulness of philosophy to trades, belongs chiefly to those wherein nature herself seems more concerned than the artificer; yet such are not here exempted, wherein art has the greatest share. These, indeed, rather depend upon the manual dexterity of men, than a skilful management of nature's productions, by operating on each other; yet, even here the naturalist may be serviceable.

Many manual trades, especially as exercised in large towns, consist of several parts, and require other trades to prepare and dispose their materials before they can be finished and fitted for sale. And although the finisher performs his part, by means of his hands and tools, yet the subordinate workmen usually stand in need of some observations on the conditions of the body they deal with, or must else employ some physical operation; and herein they may be greatly assisted, by an intelligent philosopher. Thus, stone-cutting, though it seems wholly to consist in shaping it's materials, contains many particulars, wherein might easily be shewn, that experimental philosophy would be beneficial. For unusual methods might be discovered to examine the nature and goodness of marble, alabaster, or other stones. A competent knowledge of the sap found in stones, to be employed in building, is so necessary, that experienced master workmen assure us, that stone dug at one season, will soon moulder away; when the same sort, taken out of the same quarry, at another, will endure the weather for many years, if not ages. The cements

also,

also, and stoppings, as they call them, which are of great use in this trade, may be improved by one who is versed in such kinds of mixtures. I remember I once taught an inquisitive artist a fine cement for rejoining broken statues; who, by the like means, in other cases, could counterfeit marble so well, that though large cavities were filled up with cement, the work would pass for entire, those parts being undistinguished from natural marble. Want of curiosity keeps our stone-cutters, in England, unacquainted with the ways of working upon porphire; for none of them will undertake, either to cut or polish it. Other countries also, are ignorant herein, though it was in great use among the Romans; and, even now, at Rome, there are few who make a very great advantage of this art. I am not certain what they employ for that purpose, but believe it to be powder of emery; for I have, in England, caused a porphire to be cut by means of that, steel saws, and water. Not here to mention, that I have an art to stain white marble with durable spots, small or large, and of red or brown colour.

But the art of stone-cutting depending greatly upon the goodness of the steel tools, which they must have from the smith, and the dealers in iron; if these trades were improved, it would tend to the perfection of the other. And that the smith's craft, however manual it appears, may be meliorated by a knowledge of nature, is not difficult to manifest.

The ways of making iron and steel, are not only improveable before they come to the smith's hands, but better expedients may likewise be devised for ordering them, when they come to be fashioned into weapons and tools.

The sword-blades, and other weapons made at Damascus, are every where famed (and that justly, as far as appears from some trials made) for cutting asunder even iron itself; yet it seems to be only the skill of the artificer that gives them this pre-eminence. Their goodness, indeed, might be presumed to proceed from something peculiar in the materials of that place, did not Bellonius inform us, they have no mines of their own, but receive all their iron and steel from other countries, the artists giving them this temper and perfection. In tempering of steel, it is reasonable to suppose, that besides the goodness of the metal, and the particular degree of heat, which is all the workmen regard, the nature of the fluid, or other body, wherein the hot metal is plunged, and other proper methods of ordering it, may greatly contribute to bring it to great perfection. I have met with a graver of so surprizing a temper, that all the known means, both I and others used, could not let it down; though no graver made in England, could have withstood us. This was afterwards affirmed to have been tempered at Damascus. I am acquainted with a way to harden gravers, without quenching them in any liquor, tallow, or unctuous body; and having recommended to another, an uncommon method of tempering them, he brought me one, which, being plunged into a certain cheap mixture, had been hardened and tempered at once. And, what may seem more strange, though ignition and extinction in cold water be the common way to harden steel, yet, by observing one certain moment of time, steel may, by this means, be made surprizingly soft. But farther, a curious maker of steel tools, told me, he observed a difference between pump and river water, in giving their temper, each being fit for it's respective sort. Besides these, there are many other particulars, wherein iron and steel are improveable by the naturalist. And first, the metal may be rendered so soft, as by means of strong moulds to receive variety of figures. This an eminent artificer assured me, he has seen done in iron, with considerable profit. Secondly, it may be rendered fusible, and I myself with a charcoal fire, and a flux powder composed of tartar, sulphur, and arsenic, have run it into an exceeding hard, and very polishable mass. Thirdly, it may be so ordered, as to continue long free from rust; and an ancient virtuoso, who purchased the secret for a great prince, used to shew steel so prepared by tempering it in water, impregnated with the bark of a certain tree. In a word, there are various other means, whereby iron and steel, or the trades that use them, may be meliorated; for the naturalist may advance an art or profession, in abundance of respects; as either by discovering variety of materials, or rendering those already in use better conditioned; by detecting and reforming unheeded errors or mistakes, by devising more easy and compendious methods of operation, by improving the auxiliary branches; by instructing the artificer to chuse, examine, and preserve his tools and materials; for lastly, by shewing how to make the ultimate productions sooner, cheaper, easier, and better, applicable to more uses, or more durable than usual, with other services, too numerous here to relate.

But farther, a naturalist may likewise introduce new trades, as well as improve the old ones; and that, either by inventing them originally, or bringing them into request, where they were unknown before: for neither nature nor human invention, is so far exhausted, as not to afford them, were philosophy employed in the search. We may here observe, that a trade in many cases, differs from an experiment, not so much in the nature of the thing, as it's having been accidentally applied to human uses, or made a business by a

company of artificers, in order to their own profit, which are things extrinsecal and accidental to the experiment itself. Thus, for example, the explosion occasioned by a mixture of nitre, sulphur, and charcoal, whilst it passed no farther than the laboratory of the monk, the reputed inventor of gunpowder, was only an experiment; but, when once the great use to be made hereof became more generally known, and people resolved to make a business of improving and applying it, this single experiment at once, gave rise to founders of ordnance, gunsmiths, engineers, and abundance of other trades.

The discovery of the polar virtue in the loadstone, has occasioned a distinct trade, the art of compass-making: and many other instances of the like kind might be produced, especially where mechanical tools and contrivances conspire with the discovery of natural productions; so that frequently, a very few mathematical theorems, or physical observations, reduced to practice by the manual operator, become trades. Thus, two or three dioptrical propositions, falling into mechanical hands, have introduced spectacles, telescopes, and microscopes. Quicksilver being observed to amalgamate with gold, and to be again separable therefrom without diminution, produced the art of gilding; which principally consists in mixing, by means of a proper heat, pure gold with five, six, or seven times it's weight of quicksilver, till it become of a consistence fit to spread upon the silver or copper designed. For the gold being by this means evenly overlaid, they can easily by fire force away the mercury; and with a liquor, by workmen called colourish, wherein nitre, verdigrease, sal armoniac, and other saline bodies are dissolved, restore it's lustre to the remaining gold, which they afterwards make bright by polishing.

The slight and obvious remark that a spring, physically considered, was a continual and durable force, with it's corollary, that this force, properly applied, might ballance the weight required to move the wheels of a clock, joined to a suitable mechanical contrivance, produced those useful machines called watches, which now afford a handsome subsistence to many dextrous artificers; and which, though custom has rendered them familiar to us, were unknown to the Ancients, and highly prized and admired even in China, when first carried thither.

The discovery that aqua fortis dissolved silver and copper, but would not work upon gold, added to the observation, that lead, melted with either of the noble metals, and then forced from them by fire, will carry off with it any of the baser sort, has, in later ages, produced the art of refining.

The operations of some lixivia, clays, and other common things, upon the juice of the sugar-cane, has not only added to the ancient husbandry the cultivation of these canes, but given birth to the several trades of sugar-boilers, sugar-bakers, refiners of sugar, and confectioners, not to mention the advantage it brings to the apothecary.

But even a very slight contrivance or manual operation, if it prove fortunate, may supply men with a trade, as we see in the art of printing. And the lucky trial made to bore very small holes through broken China cups, with the use of slender wire, instead of thread or silk, to fasten the pieces together, has given being to the exercise hereof, as a vulgar trade in the eastern countries. Their art also of varnishing or japanning as we call it, which depending on a knowledge of some gums and liquors in their country, employs multitudes of tradesmen among them, is, as I am credibly informed, now practised at Paris. And finding from Linchoten, that in China and Japan they made this excellent varnish of gum-lacca, I imitated one of the best sorts of it, by dissolving that gum in highly rectified spirits of wine, giving it a colour, and laying it on in a particular manner. I might farther alledge, the art of cultivating and gathering sugar-canes, with the manner of ordering their juice, as a recent instance of the transplantation of arts and manufactures; for, as I am very credibly informed, a foreigner accidentally bringing some sugar-canes as rarities, from Brazil into Europe, touched at Barbadoes, where an English planter obtained a few of him, with some hints as to their cultivation and use; which, by the curiosity and industry of the English colony there, were soon so well improved, that the island became, and still continues, able to supply great quantities of sugar. I am the more particular in this instance, because it is very remarkable, and shews, how many hands the introduction of a physico-mechanical art may employ: for the negroes, who live as slaves there and at Jamaica, and are almost wholly employed in the sugar-trade, amount to between sixty-five and seventy thousand, according to the Rev. Mr Hughes. Thus then, it appears probable, that experimental philosophy may multiply trades, as well as improve them. Nor do I despair, that among the means of increasing trades, one may be the retrieving of some that were anciently practised, but since lost, of which the learned Pancirollus gives us a catalogue. For, as the skilful diver brings up, not only pearls and coral, but also shipwrecked merchandize, so the experimental philosopher dives into the deep recesses of nature, to recover inventions swallowed up by the injuries of time, as well as to bring to light her hidden riches.

But,

But, still farther, I am inclined to think, there is no profession, condition, or, perhaps, individual person of the species, that may not, one way or other be advantaged or accommodated, were all the truths discovered by natural philosophy, known and applied. So that besides those inventions, which are formed into trades, there may be a multitude of loose particulars, whereby the naturalist might highly gratify and assist mankind. The nature of the thing will scarce permit me to illustrate this assertion, without descending to instances trifling in themselves, if not contemptible; for which, reason, I shall here content myself with a few.

A great lady, lately complaining that she could not write in the common way, without blacking her fingers, I desired her to prepare her paper with a fine powder, made of about three parts of calcined copperas, two of galls, and one of gum arabic; which being fresh mixed and rubbed with a hare's foot into the pores of the paper, when that came to be wrote on with fair water, it would immediately discover black legible letters. Having several times, occasion to make a word or two lately written, appear as if written long before, I lightly moistened them with oil of tartar per deliquium, more or less diluted with fair water, as I desired the ink to appear more or less decayed. Another cleanly way of writing without ink, is by rubbing the fine powder of exquisitely calcined harts-horn, clean tobacco-pipes, or rather mutton-bones, burnt to a perfect whiteness, upon the paper, and then using a silver bodkin or the like, as a pen. A very simple and easy method of making white table books, is a temper pulverized ceruse, with a strong solution of gum arabic in water, which being brought to a thick consistence, must be rubbed over the paper, and suffered to dry. A very ingenious artificer, having contrived an useful engine, a necessary part whereof was a glass filled with fair water and stopped, complaining that frosty weather by freezing the water broke his glass; I advised him to use good spirits of wine, instead of the water, or to save the expence of that, sea-water strengthened with a little salt; or lastly, common spring-water, with a twentieth or tenth part of salt dissolved therein; for I have found none of these, though clear, to freeze in the sharpest of our winters in England. A confection made up with the pulp of sloes, accidentally staining a large quantity of new damask from the top to the bottom, by steeping it for some hours in new milk, and afterwards causing it to be carefully washed in more of the same, the damask came out unstained and white. Urine will usually take stains, even those made by ink, out of linnen; and with strong spirit of salt I have done the same; first wetting the spotted places with fair water, whence after washing, no iron-mole has remained. Some ingenious persons who deal much in lixivia and brines, complaining of inconveniencies that attend the trial of the strength of saline liquors by means of an egg; for to mention no others, the same egg will, by being kept, grow lighter, and therefore, when stale, they have usually a large cavity at the bigger end; I recommended to them the use of a piece of amber for that purpose, of what magnitude best suited their occasions. Being once in a place where I could not procure some Dantzic vitriol that I wanted, and obtaining therefore some liquor which the rain had washed from green vitriol, or copperas-stones, and adding thereto a proper quantity of copper, I made it serve as a menstruum to work upon the metal; and by exhaling the solution, obtained the blue vitriol I wanted. And the like, I doubt not, may be done with all those common green vitriols made of iron, wherein the saline part is not too much satiated with the ferruginous.

A great dealer in cyder, expressing a desire to be able to make that liquor stronger, so as to keep longer than ordinary, I told him to infuse, for twenty-four hours, in ten or twelve gallons of the juice of apples, about two bushels of the same kind of fruit, grossly bruised; then gently pressing them, to repeat the infusion, observing not to make it too thick: and this succeeded excellently.

Searching accidentally in a dark place, where stood some chemical glasses I knew nothing of, negligently stopped, and not wrote upon, one happened to fall, and grievously stain a new suit I had on; but judging, from the nature of the stain, that it proceeded from some acid spirit, by searching about, and smelling to the remaining bottles, I found one that I guessed by its scent, to abound with volatile salt, and with this liquor I bathed the stained parts, which immediately restored them to their former colour. By the like means also, I have presently remedied the discolourations made in garments, by fretting liquors, which would otherwise have been thereby rendered unfit for wearing.

A virtuoso having made a solution of gold, suspected the metal alloyed with copper, and therefore unfit for his purpose; I advised him to precipitate the gold by an urinous spirit, which it did, into a fine calx, while the fluid, remaining highly tinged with blue, betrayed the copper that had been used for alloy.

These trifling instances being more pertinent to my design, than others in themselves of greater value, is the reason I have chose them; nor shall I repent the mention of them, if they serve to shew, that the meanest experiments may sometimes be useful, and better adapted to convince strangers to

philosophy of it's numerous uses, than those of a higher and obstruser nature. As to know the use of a bladder of air, may be more serviceable to a pilot in a shipwreck, than the most hidden properties of the magnet; so in some cases, obvious and slight experiments prove vastly more welcome and useful, than more considerable ones would at another time: so true it is, that 'every thing is beautiful in it's season.' For my part, I cannot but hope, that natural philosophy will prove daily more serviceable both to particular persons, and trades themselves; especially if a farther enquiry be made, and thereby new qualities detected, and unheeded uses of natural and artificial philosophy discovered. For whoever narrowly considers it, will find, that trades at present, deal with but very few of nature's productions, in comparison of those they leave unemployed; and that what they do make use of therein, are their obvious qualities, bating some few more secret properties which chance, or a lucky sagacity, rather than skill and enquiry, have discovered; and, therefore, I scruple not to assert, that if men were thoroughly sensible of their own interest, and would carefully keep their eyes open upon the properties of things, and the application that might be made thereof in human life; they might not only discover new qualities thereby, and so produce NEW TRADES, but even convert them to such uses as the inventor little imagined: and of this I might produce various instances. To these general considerations I must add, with regard to the following, that the reader is not to expect a methodical enumeration of all the grounds and motives I have to expect greater advantages from a future progress in the knowledge of nature, for I chuse to confine myself to what I can render probable by examples, and instances of that which is already acquired, or very likely soon will be. It must not, therefore, be imagined, that I have overlooked all the particulars pertinent to my subjects; nor that I proposed to set down all the inducements that might be brought, to shew the usefulness of experimental philosophy. My design is only to render the expectations of advantages to be received from it probable; to do which, is taking a good step towards the attainment of the things themselves, as Sir Francis Bacon well observes. And I the rather endeavour to heighten mens expectations herein, because many there are, who, being bred up in the vulgar barren philosophy, judge of all philosophy by that; and because some morose authois and despondent persons, who have unsuccessfully attempted to perform things delivered by unfaithful writers, fancy, and would persuade others, that nothing considerable is performable by natural philosophy; our forefathers having, if we credit these persons, had the good luck to hit upon all the profitable inventions which philosophy can afford mankind. It may here also, possibly be expected that I should treat particularly of the principal means whereby a naturalist might advance trades, and assist mankind to recover part of his lost empire over the works of nature. And I confess I have had thoughts of a project to advance experimental philosophy, consisting of such heads as these. A prospect of what may probably be attained to by philosophy, both in theory and practice. A brief account of what is already obtained thereby. The imperfection of our present attainments. What helps we now enjoy. The insufficiency of our present helps. The hinderances and causes of them. And lastly, the means and helps that may be applied. See ROYAL SOCIETY.

PHILOSOPHICAL CHEMISTRY consists of three parts, viz. invention, rationale, and experiment. Whence it might be defined, the particular exercise of the inventive and rational faculties of the mind upon chemical subjects, operations, and effects, leading up to experiments and back again; so as to draw conclusions, account for phenomena, start problems, and attempt their solution in this circle successively*.

* Nec manus nuda, nec intellectus sibi permissus, multum valet: instrumentis & auxiliis res perficitur; quibus opus est non minus ad intellectum quam ad manum. BACON.

Philosophical chemistry, therefore, is the source and soul of the whole art; as by inventing, reasoning, comparing, and adjusting of things, directing experiments, and concluding from the result, it forms new doctrines, and makes new discoveries, for itself, and all the other branches, to improve and apply.

In the way of invention, this part of chemistry is more particularly applicable: (1.) To the imitation of natural and artificial things: (2.) To the production of new artificial bodies: (3.) To the starting of new arts and trades: and, (4.) To the supplying of desiderata, or defects in the old ones. (1.) As natural bodies may be so dissolved or taken to pieces, as in many cases to discover their constituent parts or ingredients; philosophical chemistry hence forms rules for imitating various productions of nature; which, in some particulars, is done to great exactness; as in the making of cinnabar, vitriol, &c. where the resolution has been found easy; in others less exactly, where, by the common methods, the resolution has hitherto proved more difficult, as in the business of artificial gums and metals, though some well meant attempts have appeared in this way too.

The like also is to be understood of artificial bodies, made in one country and imitated in another; whence the imitation of Venice glass in England, the imitation of porcelain, the Japan varnish, various refinements of foreign drugs, sugar, &c. in Europe: all which were not casual, are of pure chemical extraction: and the proper enquiries into things of this kind, fall under the inventive part of philosophical chemistry.

(2.) New artificial bodies are chemically producible ab origine, either in the act of separation or combination.

In the way of separation, chemistry has invented and produced fermented potable liquors, inflammable spirits, salts, sugar, pot-ash; those vulgarly called chemical preparations, as oils, extracts, spirits, &c. various pigments, and all the pure and unmixed metals: and in the way of combination, it has produced soap, glass, vitriol, gunpowder, all the mixed or artificial metals, &c.

(3.) Arts and trades are the genuine fruits or consequences of the preceding discoveries, in which view inventive chemistry is the purveyor to all the other branches, and has thus struck out a very large number of hints, which are frequently formed in trades. Thus the invention of aqua fortis, for example, has given rise to the scarlet dye, the business of etching, the art of refining, &c.

(4.) And, as inventive chemistry strikes out new arts and new trades, it is no less capable of discovering means to promote them, or supply the defect, which may appear in their first establishment, or retard their farther advancement. Instances of this kind are every where to be met with; particularly in the arts of sugar-baking, soap-boiling, fermenting, distilling, &c. wherein many shorter and better methods of working have been severally discovered.

(5.) In the way of rationale, philosophical chemistry is particularly applicable: (1.) To the accounting for natural and artificial phenomena and effects: (2.) To the explanation of the general and particular properties, or forms and qualities of bodies: (3.) To the discovery of the chemistry of nature: (4.) To the consideration of natural and artificial transmutations: and (5.) To the giving a rational theory of medical matters.

(1.) Philosophical chemistry accounts for many natural and artificial phenomena and effects, as it is often in the power of this art to imitate the same; whence reasoning by just analogy, it may be allowed to give fair and satisfactory solutions. After this manner it endeavours to account for lightening and thunder, with their strange effects; the aurora borealis, earthquakes, volcano's, &c. And much in the same way it solves the phenomena of gunpowder, the phosphori, and various other surprising productions of chemistry itself.

(2.) As this part of philosophical chemistry is used to explain the general and particular properties, or forms and qualities of bodies, it considers heat, cold, light, moisture, dryness, volatility and fixedness, fluidity and firmness, continuity and contiguity, colours, tastes, odours, congelation and congelation, effervescences, fermentations, putrefaction, solution, precipitation, and the various operations of chemistry, with numerous other phenomena; so as to shew how they are produced, effected, altered, or changed in bodies, and thence to make out their general and particular histories.

(3.) Philosophical chemistry finds many reasons for allowing a chemical agency in the production of natural bodies, and their manner of acting upon one another, whence they bring about a kind of true chemical effects. And upon this foundation, the original composition and structure of natural bodies, is rationally accounted for, with the operations and effects of the elements upon each other. Thus water and air may be chemically considered, as two grand menstruums of nature; which, by means of the sun's heat, and the subterranean warmth, are continually at work upon all sublunary bodies, in order to bring forward various changes, regenerations, and transmutations, &c. Whence the origin and appearance of meteors, the generation of hail, snow, rain, metals, minerals, &c. And thus all vegetation, anomalization, and mineralization (if these words are allowable) may be considered and accounted for, as operations or effects of natural chemistry.

(4.) The business of natural and artificial transmutations falls the more particularly under the rationale of chemistry, as little else but consideration and reasoning is required to understand and apply it. These transmutations may be entirely natural, or entirely artificial, or partly natural and partly artificial. Under the entirely natural, come such as those produced by putrefaction, long standing or digesting in the air, water, or any natural fluid: whence animal substances are converted into vegetables, wood into stone, metals into one another, bodies into air, water, fire, &c. and these are again into bodies.

The transmutations effected by the joint concurrence of nature and art, are such as those made by fermentation; where art puts the subjects together, and rightly disposes them, but nature performs the business: so in the making of paper, art stamps the rags, but nature half putrifies the matter, and thus contributes to change it.

The transmutations purely artificial, are such as those made

by triture, mixture, long digestion, and other chemical operations; as in extracting the mercuries of metals, and several other instances in the sublimer metallurgy.

Whether these artificial transmutations be real or only apparent, is not so much the question; those who will not allow them for transmutations, may call them alterations or changes of one form into another: and, perhaps, they may be no more at the bottom; for, if the changed body be not always artificially reducible to its pristine state again (which is supposed the criterion of an artificial transmutation) this may be owing not to any impossibility in the thing, but to the want of a suitable method for doing it.

(5.) A just theory of many medical matters will naturally flow from the foregoing considerations, or from a particular application of the rationale of philosophical chemistry to the human body; with a view to observe its natural state, its disorders, and the effects of remedies. Thus, in particular, it helps to clear up the disputes about animal digestion, chylification, sanguification, nutrition, &c. shews how the blood and humours are altered by heat, cold, motion, attrition, &c. Whence the origin, nature, duration, and phenomena of distempers, and their manner of cure.

(6.) In the way of experiment, philosophical chemistry is universally applicable, and many times absolutely necessary to the farther examination, illustration, and confirmation, of the preceding parts, or the whole theory of the art, which indeed cannot subsist without it. For though some kind of theory might be formed of philosophical matters independent of experiments, yet such theories have usually been found barren, unsound, or useless, so as in no respect to be safely trusted*.

* *Omnem philosophiam ab experientiae radicibus, ex quibus primum pullulavit, & incrementum cepit, avulsam rem mortuam esse. BACON.*

(7.) It is the peculiar province of this part of philosophical chemistry to bring new inventions and theories to the touchstone; discover their validity or their insufficiency; and when found just and solid, to confirm or stamp them with a character that makes them universally current, and fit to be employed for farther uses.

(8.) Thus, when any hint is started for a new trade, or chemical method invented for the improvement of an old one, before the least attempt is made to apply it in real business, the proper essay or experiment must be performed in miniature; which proving successful upon repeated examination, with due variation of circumstances, may now encourage the application, or advancement of this discovery into an art.

(9.) And thus philosophical chemistry works in miniature to try the truth, and find out the practicability of things; an example or model of which procedure is preserved and particularly retained in the business of assaying [see ASSAY], which before-hand determines the yield of an ore, and sometimes the best way of working it in large, by previous experiments made in miniature.

(10.) By thus confining itself to work in small, or in the way of trial, enquiry or specimen only, philosophical chemistry has the opportunity of fully commanding its subject; which it chuses of a proper size for the external senses to view, and examine on all sides, and observe the phenomena, effects, and relations, without being oppressed with too unwieldy a bulk, or having the mind distracted with too many considerations; which might attend a large work, and retard its advancement to a regular and stated perfection.

(11.) But when thus the experimental part of philosophical chemistry has perfected any discovery in small, with relation to arts or trades, and clearly and solidly shewn how it may be wrought to advantage in large, it has now performed its office; and here leaves the thing, or turns it over to the other branches of chemistry, whose end is advantage, to be carried on in the form of a business. So Cornelius Drebbel, when he had fairly assayed and proved the invention of the scarlet dye, gave it up to those, who afterwards exercised it as a trade. And this appears to have been the general way wherein arts and trades were originally invented, or first brought into use, for it cannot be supposed, that large expensive works should have been set up, before any trial had appeared to encourage them.

(12.) It is a particular happiness in this business of experiments, that when an enquiry is made by their means, a proper set or competent number of them, gone through in due order, will usually give the discovery, or as it were a spontaneous solution of the problem. But to practise this method to advantage, requires a judicious head and a dextrous hand, with a due observance of the rules laid down by the lord Verulam, in his noble work *De Augmentis Scientiarum*, and *Novum Organum*.

(13.) As the several parts of the philosophical chemistry are thus separately applicable to such good purposes, much greater advantage may be reasonably expected from the joint use and mutual assistance which they are capable of affording each other, especially by a precedent management and application. A great deal has been already done in this way, but more remains to be done. The lord Bacon seems to have gone as far as mortal could, without the assistance of new sets of experiments

experiments in all the parts of philosophy, but principally in chemistry, up to which experiments his attachment to nature led him: but at the fiat experimentum he judiciously chose to stop, rather than to advance farther by the help of conjecture, or supposing the event of experiments, which it would require some ages to make. As if the fiat experimentum had been directed to Mr Boyle, he took up philosophical chemistry where the lord Bacon left it; and to what lengths he carried it, the present state thereof may witness.

(14.) But the English philosophers seem, at present, to be got a little out of this chemical vein; and applying closer to other studies, leave the cultivation of chemistry to the philosophers of other nations. We have had our Bacons, our Digby, and our Boyle; men as eminent in chemistry, as in other parts of useful knowledge: but Germany seems more disposed to encourage this art, where every court has it's laboratory, and every mountain it's mine: whence it has been usually well supplied with a competent set of original chemists, such as Agricola, Ercken, Kunckel, Becher, Homberg, and Stahl.

(15.) Hence also their contiguous neighbours the Dutch have derived so much of this art as suits their purpose; and fits them to supply all Europe with commodities of greatest consumption, new fabricated and refined by their industrious hands. Nor has less industry been used of late, to promote the knowledge of this art in their universities: and though it has been there taught with a view to medicine only, yet some have hence took occasion to launch into the ocean of philosophical chemistry; particularly Boerhaave, that late learned and assiduous professor of Leyden.

(16.) But not to leave this business of philosophical chemistry too loose, it may be necessary to restrain it within it's own bounds. It seems sufficiently distinguished from the exercise of arts by that observation already made, as to it's confining itself to work in miniature, by way of trial and specimen only; whereas arts and trades, produce in large, upon a settled discovery, to supply the demands of commerce.

(17.) Though we distinguish this general head by philosophy experimental (under which we comprehend all kinds of experiments that may be of use in arts and trades), yet there is a distinction between philosophical chemistry, and the common experimental philosophy, which lies here; philosophical chemistry, is the business of experimentally examining into the internal structure and composition, not only of natural, but also of artificial bodies; separating their constituent parts, differently combining these again, and thus producing new concretes, and new modifying both the internal or external form of the old ones: whereas the common experimental philosophy is employed in the discovering the more obvious properties, and external uses of natural bodies; the gross integrant parts, or entire aggregates, whereof it experimentally orders, disposes, and applies in their natural form and substance, to the promotion of knowledge, and the uses of life: but this produces no new bodies, nor enters into the substance, structure, and composition of the old ones; nor changes their external and internal forms; nor separates their constituent parts; nor variously combines these afresh; nor regards bodies at all as they are resolvable and combinable, or as they are simples, mixts, compounds, aggregates, or de-compounds: all which is the peculiar business and office of philosophical chemistry.

(18.) Thus again; it is conceived that natural philosophy cannot, with propriety, be said to extract and purify metals, analyze vegetables, animal and mineral substances, tan leather, brew beer, dye cloth, make glass, produce oils, spirits, soaps, &c. but these and all such, are the direct and proper operations of chemistry.—See TANNING, BREWING, DYEING, GLASS, OILS, SPIRITS, SOAP, &c.

So likewise, natural philosophy discovers the obvious, external properties of the air, fire, water, heat, cold, moisture, wind, &c. by means of various experiments, made with the air-pump, and other suitable contrivances; but it is philosophical chemistry, which more essentially examines into the internal nature, composition, relations, and uses of the elements, and other phenomena, and thence finds ways of applying them as engines and instruments of actual business: and thus in a more particular manner, it applies those two grand instruments, heat and cold.

(19.) In short, there seems to be nearly the same difference betwixt chemistry and the present natural philosophy, as there is betwixt art and nature; so that, perhaps, it might not be amiss, if, by way of distinction, UNIVERSAL CHEMISTRY were allowed to pass under the name of ARTIFICIAL PHILOSOPHY.

(20.) This distinction might not only serve to restrain chemistry to it's proper province, and settle it's real extent and immediate business, but contribute also in some measure, to remove the prejudice too commonly affixed to the name, when chemistry is mentioned.

(21.) The immoral practices of many who have assumed the name of chemist, have greatly contributed to bring a disrepute upon the art; whereto the abandoned and dissolute have usually made their pretensions with no more knowledge of it, than would serve them to cheat dextrously under it's appear-

ance. So odious has chemistry been rendered by this means, as to deter many from the due study and exercise thereof, whence it has been too much left in bad hands. But the damage from this quarter is more sensibly perceived in the sublimer metallurgy; whence GOLDEN MOUNTAINS having been too often seriously expected, the indigent and the knavish pretenders to art, have hence been furnished with a fine handle to practise upon the unwary, or such as they found blinded by an immoderate passion for gain. See CHEMISTRY.

(22.) These and the like abuses, are no way justly chargeable upon the art itself, but entirely upon the artist; yet such is the fate of human affairs, that the faults of men are often laid at the door of the arts they profess, as those arts may prove occasional causes of the ill: whence philosophic chemistry, perhaps, gives more occasion of public and private abuses than other arts, as being less generally understood, and attended with the prospect of greater advantages.

(23.) But, as the best things are capable of the greater abuse, this misapplication of chemistry could hardly of itself, have removed it from the care and patronage of the English philosophers, if more tempting studies had not come in the way; particularly the higher geometry, and speculative philosophy, which have employed most of our greater geniuses. But if upon full examination, these more sublime studies shall be found of narrow use, philosophic chemistry may again chance to be cultivated, as an art whose essence is action, and whose end is usefulness in life.

(24.) And, if the genius of the British philosopher should in earnest turn this way, the art itself might thus be nobly rescued from the hands of such as dishonour it; and be set in it's true light, unfurnished by chicane or delusion: new improvements would be daily made therein, many valuable secrets discovered, new trades advanced, commerce in general enlarged, and useful knowledge increased. And though our philosophers were to be thus employed for ages yet to come, there is no fear of exhausting this rich mine of philosophy and arts: which may be now dug to greater satisfaction and advantage, as there is no want of mechanical hands in England to execute in large, or bring into works, such discoveries as shall give the encouragement. For as much as the English philosophers excel in contrivance, invention, and accuracy of experiment, so much are our mechanical people allowed to excel in adroitness and truth of work. And since the new opening, draining, and working of mines among us, we seem to be called upon afresh to the exercise and improvement of this art; whence it may in time come to meet with that esteem and application it deserves, in a country so justly famous as ours for it's philosophy and it's trade, and thence one day appear in a due body and form of ARTIFICIAL PHILOSOPHY.

(25.) But such a fabric cannot be erected without a number of hands, set to work upon the several parts; and, indeed, all the assistance that can any way be procured, is little enough for the purpose.

(26.) When a general knowledge is gained in the theory and practice of this art, of experimenting philosophically in all respects, so that it's uses and manner of applying to the purposes of life, are become ready and familiar; it seems principally necessary to it's farther advancement, that there should be a free communication of studies, experiments, and trials, among a select number of persons thus qualified: for as it is naturally impossible that any single man should have a competent knowledge in all arts and sciences, so is it expedient, that as much thereof as can be acquired should be lodged in some few, who may freely draw out of each other as occasion requires. Whence they might be enabled to furnish out not jejune repetitions of things already currently known and practised, but results of new enquiries, real improvements, and methods of supplying the defects of particular arts; or essays well fraught with experimental FACTS and useful discoveries, after the manner of Bacon, of Boyle, of Homberg, and of Stahl and Shaw. Nor will such a select body of men fail of procuring all the assistance that can be had from uncommon books, papers, and accounts of particular facts and experiments. And in this manner philosophical chemistry should be kept continually open, or in a state of improvement; permitting as it advances, that arts and trades be supplied, detached, or drawn from it occasionally. See the articles CHEMISTRY, MUSEUM, and ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON.

PICARDY, in France, is bounded on the east by Champagne; on the south by the isle of France; on the west by Normandy and the British Channel; by which also, with the provinces of Artois, Hainalt, and Cambresis, it is bounded on the north. The soil is extremely fertile in corn, and several sorts of fruits, but it affords little or no wine. It is usually divided into three parts, viz. Upper, Middle, and Lower Picardy.

UPPER PICARDY has Hainalt and Cambresis on the north; Champagne on the east, Laonnois on the south, and Vermandois on the west.

At LA FERRE is a powder-mill, in which they make about 120,000 pounds of powder yearly; and at Vermans, a small city on the rivulet Serre, they have a great trade in corn.

MONCORNET,

MONCORNET, near the same river, has a manufactory of coarse ferges.

MIDDLE PICARDY comprehends Vermandois, the country of Santerre, and Amienois.

ST QUINTIN, in Vermandois, near the Somme, is a very populous place, and has divers sorts of manufactures, especially of linnen cloth.

PERONNE, in the district of Santerre, on the same river, is also very populous, and they make a vast quantity of linnen cloth in the neighbourhood, of which they sell yearly at Peronne for above 150,000 livres.

AMIENS, the capital of Amienois, stands also on the Somme, which runs through it in three different channels, which unite again below it.

There are here, and in the neighbouring villages, manufactures of ferrets, or woollen ribbands; they also make here a great quantity of black and green soap.

LOWER PICARDY comprehends Ponthieu, Boulenois, and the Pais Reconquis, or the Recovered Country.

ABBEVILLE, in the division of Ponthieu, is situated on the river Somme, and is the most populous town of all Picardy, next to Amiens. In the year 1665, Mr Van Roberts, a Dutchman, set up here a manufactory of woollen, the success of which has been extraordinary. Lewis XIV. granted him and his people several privileges, and, in particular, the liberty of importing all necessaries for his manufactory, without paying any duty. Those cloths are said to be almost as fine as those made in England or Holland. Some years ago one Turner, an Englishman, went thither, and gave Mr Van Roberts all the insight he could; after which he went into Holland, and found a very good reception amongst the manufacturers of Leyden. There is also at Abbeville a manufactory of mocades, and striped stuffs called tripes, the warp of which is thread, and the woof wool, of several colours, for the figures that are to be traced in weaving. They also make here sail and other coarse cloth, and linens, which being dyed, serve for linings. They have, besides, a considerable manufactory of black and green soap, of which they sell for above 100,000 livres yearly. The musquets and pistols made here are very much esteemed. This city has a good trade, by means of the vessels that come up the river Somme, with all sorts of merchandize, which they exchange for the cloths, linens, and stuffs made here. See FRANCE.

ST VALERY is a populous sea-port town, at the mouth of the Somme. The entrance is very dangerous, because of the shelves and quick-sands, that shift from place to place; however there is a very great trade here, because all merchandizes are easily carried from hence to Amiens, and from thence into Artois, Champagne, and to Paris. They import here spices from Holland, as also pot-ashes for making soap, cod-fish, herrings, cheese, and a great many other different commodities from several countries, and even from America; and they export into Spain and Portugal the manufactures of Picardy.

BOULOGNE, the capital of the country or division of Boulenois, is situated at the mouth of the little river Liane. The harbour is very inconvenient, and the road before it extremely bad, the sea being excessively rough and boisterous with any winds but what blow from the north to the south-east. It is divided into the upper and lower town, which last is the largest and most considerable for its trade.

CALAIS, in the Pais Reconquis, is at present a considerable mart. The port is very happily situated, but yet it has several inconveniences, for no vessel can enter it without running a great danger, whether it comes along the east or west mole, and there is here no road for ships to ride at anchor.

PIEDMONT is bounded on the east by the Duchies of Milan and Montferrat; by the territories of Genoa, and the country of Nice, on the south; by High Dauphiné, and part of Savoy, on the west; and by the duchy of Aoste, and part of the Milanese, on the north. The river Po divides it into two parts. Its length, from north to south, is about 130 miles, and breadth from east to west, where broadest, about 94 miles. It reaches from 43 degrees 25 minutes, to 45 degrees 50 minutes of latitude, and from 7 degrees to 8 degrees 30 minutes east longitude.

Piedmont, as it is a very rich and fertile country, so it is likewise one of the most pleasant and plentiful in all Italy. It produces great abundance of corn of all sorts, wines, and fruits in great variety; as also hemp, flax, saffron, mulberries to feed great quantities of silk-worms, the silk here being a great manufacture; and affording good store of cattle, some metals, and, in a word, plenty of every thing fit for man's use and delight, and so well peopled, that the Italians used to say the duke of Savoy has but one city in Italy, 300 miles in compass.

This country is divided into Piedmont, properly so called, and French Piedmont.

PIEDMONT, properly so called. This country is bounded with Montferrat on the east; the territory of Genoa on the south; the marquisate of Saluzzo on the west; and that of Susa, and the marquisate of Jurea, on the north.

FOSSANO was so called from some medicinal springs in the neighbourhood of it, not unlike those of our Epsum and Tunbridge. It stands upon the river Stura, between Saluzzo to the west,

and Mondovi to the south-west, 27 miles south of Turin, 8 north-east from Coni, and 30 of Pignerol.

FRENCH PIEDMONT. This country scarcely deserves to be made into a separate article, it consisting only of three towns, which lie contiguous to that we have been describing above, and on the west side of it.

REMARKS.

No country of its dimensions yields the sovereign so great a revenue as Piedmont does the king of Sardinia: the English alone have taken off the value of, at least, 200,000*l.* of their raw silk annually, for several years; but their crops of silk-worms are sometimes destroyed by storms of hail, called the plague of Piedmont. See SILK-WORMS, SILK.

PILCHARD. The pilchard is a sea fish, bigger than the anchovy, but smaller than the herring.

The pilchard has a gilt head, a white belly, and the back of a sea-green colour, that is, a little whitish. This fish, eaten when it is fresh, and lightly sprinkled with salt, is reckoned exceedingly good; those of Royan, a small town in Xaintonge, are reckoned the best, if we can credit the French.

There are proper seasons for the pilchard-fishery, being as the anchovy and the herring, a passage-fish.

They are dressed and salted in the same manner as anchovies and herrings, with this difference nevertheless, that they leave the head of the one on, and take it off the other. The anchovy is easily distinguished from the pilchard, though this last had its head taken off; the anchovy having a round back, and the pilchard being very fat.

The pilchard-fishery is very considerable in France; it is carried on from the road of Olone Sands, in lower Poitou, as far as the bay of Douarnenez, even to Brest. It commences in the month of June, towards the sand's side of St Giles. This fish, in those places, is sold as soon as caught, to people that salt them, and carry them on horseback to the neighbouring towns; where, at their first coming in, they are much esteemed.

Pilchards commonly follow the shore, and a little while after they appear at the Sands and St Giles, they begin to take them at Belleisle, next at Port Louis, at Crac, and at Quiberon; afterwards at Concarneau, and, lastly, at Douarnenez, Crozon, and Cameret, near Brest. Pilchards have been caught in the bay of Douarnenez at Christmas.

Along the coast of Bretagne, from Belleisle as far as Brest, there is a great trade of pilchards; some are sold salted, or in piles, some in casks, others are dried by the fire, or in smoke, and others are put into little barrels, and are called pickled pilchards.

They do not prepare such quantities, either salted or in piles, as they did formerly, upon the account of the exactness of the custom-officers, who examine them when they come to the custom-house, and take off all the salt, without which they soon putrify.

Those that come in casks, are called pressed, or pickled pilchards, because when they have been in salt for a while, they are well washed and put into casks, in which they are well packed, in order to drain out all the oil which would corrupt them. The casks which they make use of, are a little bigger than half a barrel, and the best are made of beech-tree, pilchards being preserved therein, better than in any other sort of wood. Though these casks be small, they give but four of them to a ton. There are statutes about their quantities, because in all Bretagne they buy them by the ton, always packed in casks.

Towards the end of the fishing time, when pilchards are a little bigger, they pack some in casks of a common size; but those are bought and sold on account, in which the credit of the fishermen is trusted to, who put them in casks, and mark upon the bottom the quantity of pilchards therein contained. Pilchards that are caught in the months of July, August, and September, are not fit for packing, because the great heats rendering this fish soft, it bursts easily on packing; and for this reason, the pilchards which are packed at Belleisle, Port Louis, Crac, and Quiberon, are not much esteemed, the fishing time lasting, in those places, but 'till the month of September; whereas, it does but begin at Concarneau and Douarnenez, when the weather is not too hard, and sometimes lasts 'till Christmas.

It is from those two last places, particularly Douarnenez, that the best pilchards are caught, and best preserved. The Maloins load whole cargoes of them there, to export to different places of the Levant.

In order to have the pilchards of a good quality, they must be well packed, firm, white, and clear; neither burst, nor soft, nor yellow, but of a good bigness, that a cask may contain 6000 of them; for when it contains more, even 10,000, they are too small, and when less, they are too large; for which reason, a little cask should not contain above 2000, or 3000; so that a trader who is obliged to sell them by retale, can get nothing by them.

The dried pilchards are bought and sold on account; when they are not broiled, they are more valued than those packed, and those salted also, are dearer. It is of the last fishing, and when

when the pilchards are very firm and big, that they dry them. There is a great sale of these fish at Bourdeaux, Rochelle, and Nantes, as well as in some little harbours in the country of Aunis, and the province of Xaintonge.

Sometimes they send them to Bayonne and Biscay; but they are not dear there, but when the fishing has not been favourable in Spain, where great quantities are caught upon the coasts of Galicia.

The pilchard fishery, in France, employs more than 300 shalloops, and almost all the seamen of the country, in the season, upon the coast of Bretagne; each shallop is commonly of 2 or 3 tons burthen, and has 5 men, and 12 nets, from 20 to 30 fathom.

The barrel is sold from 20 to 50 livres; the greatest consumption of this fish is in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and all the Mediterranean; the fishery is commonly so good, that at Port Louis only, they vend 4000 barrels yearly.

Pilchards which are caught in Languedoc, are transported to Roussillon, Dauphiné, and the Lyonnais.

The pressed oil of pilchards is put into casks; it serves to burn, and it would have more virtue if it was not salted.

There is so plentiful a fishery of pilchards upon the coasts of Dalmatia, in the months of May and June, near the south of the Isle of Issa, that it supplies, not only a part of Greece, but also a part of Italy; the Turks take this fish as a medicine, when they are sick.

Pilchards follow the light, and encompass the shallop that carries it in the night, and that contributes very much to their catching. To facilitate which, they make use, upon the coast of France, of cods eggs; those eggs being a kind of bait for pilchards.

A fishing, almost as peculiar to Great-Britain as the herrings, is that of pilchards. The Cornishmen say of the pilchard, that it is the least fish in size, most in number, and greatest for gain, of any fish they take out of the sea.

Their season is chiefly from the beginning of August to All-Hallowtide, as the countrymen call the 1st day of November. They are said to pursue, on the coast of Cornwall in England, a small fish called the brit: and this draws them into the mouths of rivers and havens. They swim so near the surface, that they are discerned by the rippling of the water at a great distance.

There are two ways of fishing for these pilchards, and the fishermen are called drovers or seyners.—The drovers watch the shoals of the fish entering into the mouths of rivers and harbours as above, where they wait with large square nets, placed athwart the tide; and the shoal of pilchards passing by, and over them, all that come in the way of the net are entangled.—The seyners take them in the open sea. These complain that the drovers spoil the fishing, for that those driving nets take but a few, and that they break and scatter the shoals of the fish, driving them from the shores: neither are the fish taken that way so merchantable, being bruised in the meshes of the nets, and in tearing them hastily out.

The seyne is a large net, the same in form with those used in rivers, but far much larger: for, as the river seyne nets are 30 or 40 fathom long, those used in the sea, are sometimes 5 or 600 fathoms; and each seyne is managed by three or four large boats at least, each boat having 6 men. With these boats and seynes, they ply about in the sea, where they expect the fish; and they are directed in their work by a man, or several men, who are placed on the hills, called the balkers or suers. These men standing on a high cliff, can discern the course the fish take, by the rippling of the water: and they give notice by shouting, by waving a flag, or such signal as is agreed on; and accordingly the men in the fishing boats order their matters. At the appointment of these balkers, the men in the boats let down the seyne, and draw it this way or that way, as the shoal of fish lies: then the net being wholly spread, they row round, and coming behind the fish, they beat the water with their oars to drive them into the net: at last, they either close and tuck up the net in the sea, drawing the fish into their boats, or draw it away to land; which, if the shore be free from rocks, and not too steep, is much the surest, and most advantageous way. By this method they sometimes take 2 or 300 tons of fish out of a shoal.

The pilchards are cured by packing and pressing, as the herrings, and sent into the Streights from England, to the several parts of Spain, Italy, and the Levant; where they generally meet with a good market. They formerly cured them by smoking; but they have many years left off that method in England.

P I L O T. A pilot is he that has the government of a ship, under the master, or who is intrusted with the steerage of the same. And it has been usual for pilots not only to direct the ship's course, but also to steer her too themselves, as they are still obliged to do amongst us, when the ship has any dangerous place to pass through, or is so near the shore that a more than ordinary skill is requisite to bring her safe off; but otherwise, such of the other mariners as are most capable of the function are appointed to do it by turns.

By the sea laws of Wisbuy [see WISBUY LAWS] every pilot, mate, or mariner, that does not understand his business, shall be obliged to repay to the master whatever wages he had

VOL. II.

advanced him, and besides be bound to pay half as much more as he had promised him. The laws of Denmark punish an ignorant pilot by sentencing him to pass thrice under the ship's keel: and by the laws of Oleron [see OLERON'S LAWS] if a pilot undertakes the conduct of a vessel, to bring her to any port, and fail of his duty therein, so as the ship miscarry by reason of his ignorance in what he undertook, and the merchant receives damage thereby, he shall be obliged to make satisfaction for the same, if he have wherewithal; and if he hath not, or where the fault of the pilot is apparently gross, that the ship's crew see an apparent wreck, they may lead him to the hatches, and strike off his head. Sea Laws, 176. Leg. Oleron, 23.

The laws of France ordain, That no person shall be received as pilot, nor perform that function, 'till he has made several voyages, and passed a strict examination as to his knowledge and experience in navigation; and he shall be obliged, for proving his voyages, to produce the journals thereof. The pilot shall provide himself with all maps, books, and instruments necessary for his art: and in long voyages, he shall have two journals, in one of which he is to write the changes of the courses and winds, the days and hours of the changes, the leagues which he believes the ship has sailed in each, also the reductions in latitude and longitude, the variations of the compass, together with the sounds and shores he has discovered; and in the other he shall write out, once in 24 hours, the courses, longitude and latitude reduced, and the latitudes observed, and all other remarkable things discovered during the voyage; and at the return of such long voyages, shall lodge a copy of his journal in the Admiralty, on pain of 50 livres. Sea Laws, 291, 292.

And by the same laws, if a pilot, by ignorance or negligence, occasions the loss of a ship, he shall pay 100 livres fine, and be for ever deprived of the exercise of pilotage; and, if he does it designedly, he shall be punished with death. But no masters of ships shall force pilots to pass through dangerous places, or to steer courses against their will; and, in case there be difference in opinion, they shall be governed by the advice of the most expert mariners.

When a ship comes to a harbour or river, and the master doth not know the coast nor the river, he ought to take a pilot of that country to carry her up the river or harbour; which pilot shall be maintained by the master, and paid by the merchant: also, if it is thought convenient in any river, or off any dangerous coast, to take aboard a pilot of the country, though the merchant opposes it, if the master, the ship's pilot, and the major part of the seamen are for it, he may be hired, and shall be paid by the ship and cargo, as avarages are calculated for goods thrown overboard. Leg. Wisb. 44 and 60. Ibid. 185, 188.

The master of the ship generally in charter-parties [see CHARTER-PARTY] covenants to find a pilot, and the merchant agrees to pay him his pilotage: though if a ship should be lost coming up the river, under the charge of the pilot, it has been a question, whether the master should answer for the insufficiency of the pilot, or whether the merchant may have his remedy against both? But it has been conceived, that the merchant hath his election to charge either; and, if he charges the master, then the master must have his remedy against the pilot. After the ship is brought into safe harbour, the pilot is no further liable, for then the master is to see to her bed and lying, and hath all the charge upon himself; so that he must answer all danger and hazard, except that of the act of God: but, before she arrives at her place or bed, and while she is under the pilot's care, if she or her goods perish or be spoiled, the pilot shall make good the damage. Leg. Oleron. Molloy, 254, 255.

By statute 3 Geo. I. cap. 13. If any person shall take upon him to conduct and pilot any ship or vessel, by or from Dover, Deal, or the Isle of Thanet, to any place on the rivers Thames or Medway, before he has been examined by the master and wardens of the society of Trinity-House, and shall be approved and admitted into the said society at a court of load-manage, by the lord-warden of the Cinque-Ports, or his deputy, and the said master and wardens: every such person, for the first offence, shall forfeit 10l. for the second 20l. and for every other offence 40l. to be sued for and recovered by any one in the court of admiralty for the Cinque-Ports, if the offending pilot live within the jurisdiction of that court; or else by action of debt, &c. in any of the courts at Westminster, one moiety to go to the informer, and the other to the master and wardens of the society aforesaid, to be distributed among superannuated pilots, and the widows of pilots of the said society.

And the master, and such two wardens of the said society as shall be appointed to examine into the skill and ability of any person on his being admitted as a pilot, shall take the following oath, to be given them by the register of the said court of load-manage, or his deputy, viz.

I A. B. do swear, That I will impartially examine and enquire into the capacity and skill of T. D. of, &c. in the art of pilotage over the flats, and round the long Sand Head, and the coast of Flanders and Holland, and will make true and speedy return thereof to the lord-warden of the Cinque-

Ports for the time being, or his deputy, without favour, affection, fee, or reward.

So help me God.

The number of such pilots shall not be less than 120, whose names, ages, and places of abode, shall yearly be affixed in some public place at the custom-houses at London and Dover, to which all persons may have recourse; and not returning lists, the master and wardens of the said society shall forfeit 10l.

But this act shall not prevent the master or mate of any ship or vessel, or any part owner, residing at Dover or Deal, or the Isle of Thanet, from piloting his own ship from any of the said places up the said rivers, nor subject any person, though not of that society, to the penalties before-mentioned, who shall be employed by any master to pilot his vessel from the places aforesaid, when none of the said society shall, within one hour after the arrival of such ship or vessel at any of the said places, be ready to pilot the same. And masters of merchant-ships may make choice of such pilot of the said society as they shall think fit; also no person shall continue in this society who shall not pilot a ship at least twice in one year (unless prevented by sickness) to and from the places above-mentioned. And for preventing any exorbitant demands from these pilots, for conducting any ship or vessel from Dover, Deal, or the Isle of Thanet, to any places on the rivers Thames and Medway, the following, and no greater prices, shall be taken or demanded, than are here mentioned, viz. for every ship or vessel drawing seven feet water, 3l. 10s. for eight feet water, 4l. nine feet water, 4l. 10s. ten feet water, 5l. eleven feet water, 5l. 10s. twelve feet water, 6l. thirteen feet water, 6l. 10s. fourteen feet water, 7l. fifteen feet water, 7l. 10s. sixteen feet water, 8l. seventeen feet water, 8l. 10s. and no allowance to be made for odd inches.

In this act there is likewise a clause, empowering the lord-warden of the Cinque-Ports to nominate three persons there to adjust differences between the master of any ship and others, where ships by bad weather are forced from their anchors and cables, for saving and bringing them ashore: and this act shall not hinder any person from assisting a ship in distress there.

By the 7th of Geo. I. cap. 21. The lord-warden of the Cinque-Ports, with the assent of the commissioners of load-manage, and of the master and wardens of the society of pilots of the Trinity-House, of the Cinque-Ports, at a court of load-manage held by the said lord-warden, or his deputy, may make such rules and ordinances for the better government of the pilots residing at Dover, Deal, and the Isle of Thanet, as shall be thought convenient, and may order a sufficient number of the pilots living at Dover, &c. no less than eighteen, to ply constantly at sea, to be ready to conduct such ships up the rivers Thames and Medway as shall have occasion for them: and the said lord-warden, &c. at a court of load-manage, may suspend or deprive any of the said pilots, for breaking the rules or orders; and if any pilot so suspended or deprived, shall undertake to conduct any ship by or from Dover, Deal, &c. to any place in or upon the said river of Thames, &c. he shall be liable to all such pains and penalties as are ordained by the before-mentioned act of 3 Geo. I. against such persons as shall conduct ships from and to the places aforesaid, without being first examined and approved of by the master and wardens of the said society, at the said court, and admitted into the same.

By the statute 5 Geo. II. cap. 20. No person shall undertake the charge of any ship or vessel, as pilot thereof down the river Thames, or through the North Channel, to or by Orfordness, or round the long Sand-Head into the Downs, or down the South Channel into the Downs, or from or by Orfordness, up the North Channel, or the river Thames, or river Medway, but such as shall be licensed to act as a pilot by the master, wardens, and assistants of the Trinity-House of Deptford-Strond, under the common Seal of the corporation, on pain of forfeiting 20l. being convicted before two justices of peace for the city of London, or the counties of Middlesex, Essex, Kent, or Surry, within their respective jurisdictions: but masters of ships in the coal-trade, or other coasting trade, are not obliged to employ a pilot.

The pilots to be so admitted and licensed, shall be subject to the government of the said corporation, provided their regulations do not relate to the pilots keeping of turns, or to settling the rates of pilotage, and shall pay the ancient dues, so as the same do not exceed 1s. in the pound out of such pilot's hire or wages, for the use of the poor of the said corporation, within ten days after the service of any pilot shall be ended. And in case such pilots shall refuse to take the charge of any of his majesty's ships, when appointed thereto by the corporation, or shall misbehave themselves in the conduct of any ships, or other part of their duty, or if pilots shall refuse to obey any summons of the said corporation, or such orders as they shall make, then the general court of the corporation, upon examination thereof, are required to re-call the warrants granted to such pilots; and if, after notice of it given to them in person, or left at their place of abode, they shall act as pi-

lots within the limits afore-mentioned, they shall be subject to the penalties inflicted on unlicensed pilots.

This statute shall not extend to the impeaching of any of the franchises, nor to take away the sole right of piloting merchant-ships from or by Dover, Deal, and the Isle of Thanet, up the rivers Thames and Medway, granted and allowed to the society and fellowship of the master, wardens, and pilots of the Trinity-House of Dover, Deal, and the Isle of Thanet, by the statute of 3 Geo. I. cap. 13.

And nothing herein shall impeach any privileges heretofore granted to, or which by ancient usage have been enjoyed by, the pilots of the Trinity-House of Kingston upon Hull, or the Trinity-House of Newcastle upon Tyne.

Nor to prejudice any jurisdiction of the mayor; or of the mayor, commonalty, and citizens of London, upon the river Thames; nor any jurisdictions belonging to the office of lord high admiral.

The act 8 Geo. II. cap. 21. continues the afore-mentioned statutes for regulating pilots.

OF PILOTS IN SPAIN.

1. There are three several principal pilots belonging to the West-India voyage in Spain, viz. the chief pilot of the India-House, instituted to examine and give their degrees to other pilots, and judges of the charts, and other instruments of navigation. The next is the chief pilot of the armada, or navy royal, to secure the trade of the Indies, commonly called the galleons; and the third the chief pilot of the New Spain fleet. These being all employments of great importance, it may be proper to give an account of the nature of them, their duty, qualifications, and the manner of bestowing them.

2. We are first to speak of the chief pilot of the India-House, because he takes place, and ought to be most knowing, as being to chuse the pilots for the India ships, out of which are chosen those for the galleons and floats: though as to seniority, there were chief pilots of the armadas before there were any of the India-House; because those discovering the new world, made way for an India-House, and, consequently, for a chief pilot of it, who ought to be universal in the theory, not only for the voyage to the Firm Land, New Spain, the coasts of those provinces, and the Windward Islands, but for the river of Plate, for which there was once a particular chief pilot.

3. The first chief pilot of the India-House was Americus Vespasius, settled at Seville, to draw charts upon the discoveries of others, and the salary assigned him was 50,000 maravedies; this was in the year 1507, and in the reign of king Ferdinand. Not only the chief, but all others whom the king received as his pilots, had salaries settled on them; and such as were as well skilled in warlike as in sea affairs, were received as sea-captains, which was done with Ferdinand Magallanes, whom we call Magellan, who first discovered the straight of his name, and Ruy Fallero, his companion, in 1518, assigning each of them, 40,000 maravedies salary; and, in general great encouragement was given to all that were skilful in this profession.

4. The municipal laws of the court of the India-House ordained, That there be in the said house a chief pilot, to be preferred by edict, which is thus: when the place is vacant, the king and the council of the Indies are acquainted with it, and there are edicts, or proclamations, put up in Seville, the universities of Salamanca, Valladolid, and Alcala, and also in those parts where sailing pilots are known to reside, as Cadiz, S. Lucar, Port S. Mary, and Ayamonte; for though it be rare to find among the practical pilots any one so well skilled in the theory as to be fit to carry the place of chief pilot to the India-House, yet they have sometimes been allowed as candidates, and the same may happen again.

When the candidates have made their claims, the court acquaints the king how the parties are qualified, both by their own acts, and the information the president and commissioners have of them, declaring whom they judge most deserving, and what they think of the rest, that the council may advise, and the king decree, as shall be most expedient. The professor of cosmography is made after the same manner; but as for the cosmographer, who is to be an instrument-maker, his skill being of such sort as is not learnt at the universities, the edicts are sent to court, and put up at the council, and in Seville, at the India-House, and Exchange, and the candidates are remitted by the council to manifest their ability before the president and commissioners of the India-House.

5. Though some of the practical pilots have been proposed as candidates, yet none of them have hitherto carried the employment, the council wisely providing, that he who fills this place be the most knowing that can be found, not only in the art of navigation, but in other parts of the mathematics, because he is not only to examine the pilots for the India voyage, but to judge of the professor of cosmography, and the cosmographer instrument-maker, whom he is to examine and censure, as much as he does the mariners that have been his scholars, in order to take the degree of pilots.

Vice-

Vice-admirals have been proposed to fill this post. The design in instituting this chief pilot, was only to examine, and give their degree to the other pilots, forbidding him to teach navigation, or the use of any instruments, upon the penalty assigned, and he that learns of him to be incapable of being examined in two years; which was done to the end that affection for his own scholars might not cause him to wink at their ignorance. For the same reason, he is forbid making any sea-charts or instruments to sell, because it being his business to judge of them used in the voyage to the Indies, he could never see any faults in his own, for no master will speak ill of his own work. For these reasons, the two employments of chief pilot and cosmographer were never but once conferred upon the same person, and many inconveniences appearing in it then, they were ever since accounted incompatible.

6. When any are to be examined in order to be declared pilots, it is to be done in the India-House, and no other place. The cosmographers and pilots that are then in Seville are to be present, to the number of six at least, being men well skilled in sea affairs; the candidates are to be strictly examined, all the examiners taking an oath to do it fully, and give their votes according to the best of their judgment; and the person so approved is to be declared pilot, and not otherwise, upon forfeiture of 10,000 maravedies.

In the year 1604 it was ordered, That one of the commissioners of the India-House should be present at the examination, and then the act was performed in the chamber of direction, the commissioners, chief pilot, and cosmographers, sitting under the president's canopy; which being thought too great an honour for them, they have since sat in the court of consularship, under a canopy, and the pilots and deputies of the corporation of sailors sit on the said benches, two cosmographers taking place under the canopy, according to seniority.

7. It is to be observed, that one previous circumstance to examination is, that they bring proof they are none of those the law forbids to be admitted as pilots, which proof is to be made before the chief pilot, who, upon all public occasions, takes place of the steward and deputies of the company of sailors; and if they, being summoned by the pilot's messengers, refuse or neglect to appear, he may proceed to take information without them. When either the chief pilot, as a member of the India-House, enjoys all the privileges, and is under all the prohibitions that others are, yet there is a particular ordinance, which forbids him receiving any thing whatsoever of the person that stands to be made a pilot; nor is he to take any fees for the commission or warrant he gives them.

8. There are two cosmographers, as has been said before; the one is professor of cosmography, instituted by king Philip II. in the year 1552, to teach the art of navigation and cosmography, with order that none should be admitted pilot or master who had not learnt under him a year, or thereabouts. This time was afterwards shortened to three months, and at last to two, in order to fit them for examination; and as for reading and writing, it was thought enough if they could read the sailing orders, and write their own names; all which was ordered to be taught as follows: the treatise of the sphere, or at least the first and second book of it: the treatise that teaches how to take the sun's altitude, and the elevation of the pole, with all the rest taught in it: the use of the sea-chart, and how to find out the point where the ship is: the use of instruments, and manner of making them, to discover whether they are faulty, that is, the compass, astrolabe, quadrant, and Jacob's staff, and how to observe the needles, to discover whether they vary east or west, which is a matter of great moment, to keep an exact account when they fail: the use of a general dial for day or night: and the pilots must know, either by memory or by writing, what the age of the moon is any day of the year, that they may know how the tides fall out to enter any rivers or bars, and other matters in continual use. A lesson upon these subjects is to be read every day, at the hours appointed by the president and commissioners of the India-House, that may be most convenient for the learners. There is a great room in the Exchange appointed for this use.

9. The other cosmographer is instrument-maker, the use of which the professor teaches; but the first of these is the ancientest employ. Both the cosmographers are to sit with the chief pilot, upon examining of pilots, and to put questions to them; and the law appoints, that if the cosmographer of the India-House informs the said commissioners that the examination is not duly made, the said commissioners shall take care to see right done.

It is also the duty of the chief pilot and cosmographers to approve of, and mark the sea-charts, and other instruments; and they are to have marks for that purpose, which are to be kept in the India-House, in a chest under two keys, whereof the chief pilot is to keep one, and the younger cosmographer the other, that no instruments may be sold or approved without the consent of all three: to which purpose they meet every Monday, and no instrument is to be sold without the mark, under the forfeiture of thirty ducats. Two practi-

cal pilots were to be appointed by the commissioners of the India-House, to examine instruments, together with the chief pilot and cosmographers; but if the instruments were made by the cosmographer himself, then he was to have no vote in the approbation. If an astrolabe be faulty, it is to be broke and cast again; and a chart, that cannot be mended, must be cut, and left in the treasury-chamber, that it may not be put together again. When the pilot and cosmographers meet, if there are any to be examined for pilots, that is the first thing to be done; what time remained after making instruments, was to be employed in examining the general map, and adding what they think necessary; but all these things are now out of use, there being no further discovery made; and the instruments and sea-charts generally used, being those made by the cosmographer of the India-House, of which he makes some profit, but nothing considerable, nor is he to take any fee for touching the needles to the load-stone.

PITCH and TAR. This is a clear, fat liquor, that flows from the trunks of old pines. When they would kill or destroy the tree, the Swedes and Norwegians cut the bark round the tree, which, instead of yielding a white incense, or resin, yields a black liquor, which is the tar; and presently, as soon as all that is fallen, the trees die, and are good for nothing but to burn.

This may help to undeceive several who believe, as many authors have vouched, that tar is made by burning of the pines; for it is certain, that all the tar we now sell is made as already mentioned, and not by means of the pines that are burnt. That which is found clear, is improperly called oil of pitch, and sold under the name of common or false cade oil. The tar is much used by mariners, farriers, and shepherds, to mark their sheep, as well as to defend them from diseases. Chuse such as is natural and clean, not such as is made with oil and pitch, but the true Stockholm tar.

It is generally brought to us from Denmark, Norway, Finland, and Swedeland; but there is much of it made in New England, Virginia, Carolina, and other parts of Florida. It is the produce of all resinous trees. It was first taken from the cedar, the larch-tree, fir-tree, and pitch-trees, but now chiefly from the pine-trees. It cures all sorts of scabs, itch, tetters, ring-worms, and other vices of the skin.

Tar is better than pitch, because, in boiling, the pitch loses the more subtil and fiery parts; this, therefore, is proper for coughs, phthysicks, hoarseness, and other humours that fall upon the lungs. Tar and bees-wax make a plaster that is discutient and anodyne, good against the gout, and all manner of old aches and pains. The spirit is very diuretic; opens all obstructions, and resists the scurvy.

(What we call lamp black, is made by burning the foul parcels of pitch, resin, &c. and gathering the light foot that they sent up; this is much used by artificers of various kinds.)

R E M A R K.

How importantly useful to shipping and navigation the articles pitch and tar are, need not be said: and how they ought to be encouraged in the British plantations, see **NAVAL STORES. PLANTATIONS.** A plantation, or colony, is a place whither people are sent to dwell, with an allowance of land for their tillage, and immunities for the good of themselves and the state they belong to.

A nation, or people, being expelled out of their own land, may seek wastes in some other country; and such possession creates a property against all persons, but he that hath empire there: and if, before they can reap the fruits of their labour, they are in want of necessaries, by the laws of nature they may force a subsistence from a neighbour planter; for subsistence belongs to every man, who hath not merited to lose his life. The written laws are conformable to this; by which, if provisions fail at sea, those who laid in particular stores for the voyage, must produce them for the benefit of all. Our plantations abroad, are the islands in America; and the isles of Jamaica and Barbadoes, with some others, are much frequented by unfortunate persons, who oftentimes become wealthy there. The English plantations in general are, besides these isles, Virginia, Maryland, New England, New York, Carolina, Bermudas, and the Leeward Islands, &c. and the settlement of Georgia.

The islands being originally gotten by conquest, or by some planting themselves there, the king may govern them as he will: but it has been held, that the laws in force before the conquest of them, do bind 'till new laws are given; and even then, some of the old customs may remain, as they do in Barbadoes, &c. But English subjects having found an uninhabited country, all English laws are immediately in force. 3 Mod. Rep. 160. 2 Salk. 411.

The Isle of Man and Ireland, are possessions of the English crown; yet retain their antient laws: so did Jamaica, 'till new laws were made. In Barbadoes, all freeholds are subject to debts, and esteemed but as chattels, 'till the creditors are satisfied, and then the lands descend to the heir, which is different from the laws here. By the laws of Virginia, negroes are saleable as chattels. 2 Salk. 411. 666. 4 Mod. 226. See stat. 7 & 8 W. III. and 5 Geo. II.

If in an action for rent upon a lease of lands in Jamaica, &c. there be a foreign local issue, it may be tried where the action is laid; and the plaintiff may enrol a suggestion, that such a place in such a county, is next adjacent; and it shall be tried in the King's-Bench, by a jury from such place, according to the laws of that country.

Here, it was said, there may be a law in Jamaica against bonds; but it will not confine the action of debt on bonds made there to that country: an action of false imprisonment has been here brought against a governor, and the laws of the country given in evidence. 2 Salk. 651. Mod. Cases 195. In the year 1661, the then governor of Jamaica called the first assembly there, and made laws for raising a public revenue by a tax on strong liquors, for upholding the government there, which were indefinite and perpetual. The king empowered another governor to chuse his own council; and, with consent of the major part, to frame general assemblies of freeholders, as in other plantations, and with their consent to make laws suitable to those of England, to be in force for two years; and the assembly granted the like revenue out of strong liquors for two years only. The question here was, whether this last law had totally laid aside the former? It was resolved, that the last council having power to make laws only for two years, it did not repeal the perpetual law made before, but suspended it's power for that time only. Raym. Rep. 397. King Charles II. by letters patents, of October, in the 32d year of his reign appointed Sir Richard Dutton chief governor of Barbadoes, who appointed 12 men to be of the king's council during pleasure; and by their advice established courts, &c. and had authority to make a deputy-governor, &c. and Sir John Witham being so constituted, was charged with mal administration, and by order of the governor and council was committed to prison; for which having brought an action, it was said for him, that the causes of commitment (if any) were not cognizable by them, but by the king alone, &c. To which it was answered, that being committed by order of council, it ought to be presumed his commitment was legal. Judgment was given in B. R. for the plaintiff, but reversed in the house of lords. 3 Mod. 160, 161.

All governors on their entrance are to take oath, that to their utmost, the acts passed concerning the said colonies be duly observed. And, on failure, complaint being made to the king, such governor to be removed, and forfeit the sum of one thousand pounds. Stat. 12 Car. II. cap. 18. and 7 & 8 W. III. By 11 and 12 W. III. cap. 12. If any governor, deputy-governor, &c. oppress any of the king's subjects under their government, or act any ways contrary to the laws of this realm, or in force with their governments, &c. it shall be determined in the King's-Bench in England: and such like punishments inflicted, as are usual for such offences here in England.

And by 7 & 8 W. III. cap. 22. All laws, customs, &c. practised in any of the plantations, that are repugnant to any laws already here, or to this act, or any other law hereafter to be made, relating to those plantations, are declared null and void. And all places of trust in the courts of law, or relating to the treasury, in any island or colony of England, shall be held by native-born subjects of England, Ireland, or of the said islands. Also persons claiming any right in any of them, shall not dispose of the same to any other than natural born subjects of England, &c. without licence; and all governors appointed by such proprietors, shall be approved by his Majesty, and take the oaths accordingly.

By 12 Car. II. cap. 18. no alien may be a merchant or factor in any English plantation, on pain to lose all his goods: and any governor of the plantations that shall suffer any foreign-built vessel to load or unload, without certificate, that the owners are not aliens, shall be removed.

Goods shall not be imported or exported, in any other but English or Irish ships, &c. and of which the master and three fourths of the mariners are English, on forfeiture of ship and goods. And any abatement or privilege in the book of rates, is to be understood, that the master and three fourths of the mariners be also English.

In the progress of our laws relating to the plantations, no sugars, tobacco, cotton-wool, indigo, ginger, fustic, or other dyeing woods, the growth of any English plantation, were to be transported to any place but some English plantation, or to England, &c. on forfeiture of ship and goods. And for every vessel setting out from England, &c. for any of the said plantations, bond shall be given of 1000l. if the ship be under 100 tons, and of 2000l. if of greater burthen; that if the said vessel load any of the said commodities at such plantations, it shall bring them to some port in England, &c. But these laws were repealed by the acts of the 12th and 20th year of the reign of Geo. II. whereby liberty is given to carry sugars from the British colonies, directly to foreign parts, 'till the year 1757. See also the article RICE.—The progress of the laws follows.

Also for all ships coming from any other port to those plantations, the governor shall take bond as aforesaid. And every ship taking in goods before bond given, or certificate from some custom-house in England, &c. of such bonds being there given, shall be forfeited; and the governors shall twice in

every year return true copies of all such bonds to the officers of the customs at London.

By 15 Car. II. cap. 7. no commodity, the growth or manufacture of Europe, shall be imported into any of the plantations, unless shipped in England, &c. and in English built shipping, legally manned, and carried directly thither, on pain of forfeiture.

But such ships may lade in any part of Europe, salt for the fisheries of New England and Newfoundland; and in the Madeiras and Azores, wines, the growth of those Islands; and in Scotland or Ireland may take in servants, or horses, and all victuals, the produce of those places.

All persons importing by land any goods into the said plantation, shall deliver to the governor, or officer by him appointed, within 24 hours, their names, with a true inventory of the goods. And no vessel shall lade or unlade, 'till the master have given due notice of his arrival, &c. and that the ship is English built, and legally navigated, and have delivered an inventory of her lading, &c. on forfeiture of ship and goods.

And any officers of the customs in England, &c. suffering any tobacco, ginger, cotton-wool, indigo, &c. the growth of the aforesaid plantations, to be transported 'till first unladen in some port of England, &c. shall forfeit their places, and the value of such goods.

All persons who shall plant any tobacco in England, &c. forfeit 10l. for every rod of ground planted. And justices, on information, shall cause it to be destroyed; persons resisting the act to forfeit 5l. and be imprisoned.

This act shall not hinder planting tobacco in physic gardens, &c. so it exceed not half a pole in any one garden.

By 22 & 23 Car. II. cap. 26. every vessel lading at any of the English plantations, 'till bond be given, or certificate produced, or carrying the said goods contrary to the tenor of it, was to be forfeited.

But the act 25 Car. II. cap. 7. seems to have taken off these penalties, ordaining, that if bond be not given, several duties are to be answered, payable, as appointed in the said plantations: and if any persons liable have not money, the officers shall take commodities amounting to the value, at the current price in the same plantations.

By 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 22. no goods shall be imported or exported to or from any plantation, or port in the same, England, &c. in any ship but English, &c. or the said plantations, and duly navigated, on forfeiture of ship and goods, &c. as by former statutes.

No ship shall be deemed English, &c. built, or qualified to trade to any of the said plantations, 'till registered by the proprietor, and oath made by the owners, where the ship was built, who the present owners, and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any interest therein. Which oath being attested by the governor, or custom-house officer before whom it is taken and registered, shall be delivered to the master for security, and a duplicate sent to the commissioners of the customs at London: any vessel trading without such proof, shall be liable to forfeiture as a foreign ship would. And no ship's name registered shall be changed without registering anew, under like penalties; also sale of any share to be mentioned by endorsement on the certificate of the register.

All ships lading or unlading at any of the plantations aforesaid, and the masters of them, shall be subject to the same rules, searches, &c. as in this kingdom by 14 Car. II. cap. 11. And the officers for collecting the revenue, &c. shall have the same authority as the officers of the customs in England, by the said act 14 Car. II. and to enter houses and warehouses, to search and seize such goods; and all persons assisting in conveying or concealing goods, or resisting the officers in their duty, and the boats, &c. shall be liable to the like penalties, as for prohibited goods in this kingdom; and the officers to the same penalties for frauds, &c. as here.

If the governors or officers of the customs have cause to suspect any certificates to be counterfeit, they may require sufficient security for the discharge of the plantation lading in England, &c. and if they suspect the certificate of having discharged the plantation lading in this kingdom is false, they shall not vacate the security given in the plantations, 'till satisfied from England concerning it. And any person counterfeiting cocket, certificate, &c. forfeits 500l. and the cocket, &c. shall be invalid.

The sureties of bonds taken pursuant to the forementioned act, shall be persons of known residence and ability in the plantations; and the conditions of the bonds within eighteen months after the date (danger of the seas excepted) to produce certificates of having landed the goods in England, &c. or the bonds and copies to be in force.

Nor shall it be lawful on any pretence, to land in Ireland any goods the product of the said plantations, unless first landed in England, &c. and the due rates paid, on forfeiture of ship and goods: but if any ship so laden, shall by stress of weather be stranded, or be driven into any port of Ireland, and unable to proceed, her goods may be put on shore, but shall be delivered to the chief officer of the customs there, 'till put on board some other ship, to be sent to some port in England, &c.

Where any question shall arise concerning importation or exportation of any goods, proof shall lie on the owner or claimer: and on any actions, &c. commenced in the said plantations relating to the duties or forfeitures, none shall be of any jury but natives of England or Ireland, or of the plantations; and the offences may be laid to be in any precinct of the said plantations, where they are said to be committed.

By 3 and 4 Anne, cap. 8. Any native of England or Ireland, may ship in any port of Ireland in English built shipping duly manned, any linen cloth the manufacture of Ireland, and transport to any plantation, &c. belonging to England, and there vend the same. But no ship shall break bulk 'till notice be given to the governor, and a true invoice of the lading be delivered him, with a proper certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland where laden; and 'till the master hath taken oath before the governor, &c. that the goods are the same that were took on board, nor 'till the ship be searched. If the master shall break bulk before such notice given, &c. or on search any other manufacture be found, ship and goods shall be forfeited. And ships coming from Ireland to any such plantation, shall be subject to the like rules, searches, and penalties, as ships from England are.

If any ship laden in England for the plantations, shall put into any port in Ireland and take on board such Irish linen, the like certificate and oaths shall be made; and the ship, her master, and lading, shall be liable to such searches and penalties, &c. only suits are to be brought in a twelvemonth after discovery of any offence. See the act 3 Geo. I. cap. 21. The act 6 Ann. cap. 30. recites, That her Majesty by proclamation, dated 18 June, 1704, settled the currency of foreign coins in the American colonies, which was as follows:

A PROCLAMATION, for ascertaining the currency of the foreign coins in the PLANTATIONS.

WE having had under our consideration, the different rates at which the same species of foreign coins do pass in our several colonies and plantations in America, and the inconveniences thereof, by the indirect practice of drawing the money from one plantation to another, to the great prejudice of the trade of our subjects; and being sensible the same cannot be otherwise remedied, than by reducing all foreign coins to the same current rate within all our dominions in America: and the principal officers of our mint, having laid before us a table of the value of the several foreign coins which usually pass in payments in our said plantations, according to their weight, and the assays made of them in our mint, thereby shewing the just proportion which each coin ought to have to the other, which is as followeth, viz. Seville pieces of eight, old plate, seventeen pennyweight, twelve, grains, four shillings and six pence; Seville pieces of eight, new plate, fourteen pennyweight, three shillings and seven pence farthing; Mexico pieces of eight, seventeen pennyweight twelve grains, four shillings and sixpence: pillar pieces of eight, seventeen pennyweight twelve grains, four shillings and six pence three farthings; Peru pieces of eight, old plate, seventeen pennyweight twelve grains, four shillings and five pence, or thereabouts; cross dollars, eighteen pennyweight, four shillings and four pence three farthings; ducatoons of Flanders, twenty pennyweight and twenty-one grains, five shillings and six pence; ecus of France, or silver Lewis, seventeen pennyweight twelve grains, four shillings and sixpence; crusadoes of Portugal, eleven pennyweight four grains, two shillings and ten pence farthing; three guilder pieces of Holland, twenty pennyweight and seven grains, five shillings and two pence farthing; old rixdollars of the empire, eighteen pennyweight and ten grains, four shillings and sixpence; the halves, quarters, and other parts in proportion to their denominations, and light pieces proportionable to their weight. We have therefore thought fit, for remedying the said inconveniences, by the advice of our council, to publish and declare, that from and after the first day of January next ensuing the date hereof, no Seville, pillar, or Mexico pieces of eight, though of the full weight of seventeen pennyweight and a half, shall be accounted, received, taken, or paid within any of our said colonies or plantations, as well those under proprietors and charters, as under our immediate commission and government, at above the rate of six shillings the piece current money, for the discharge of any contracts or bargains to be made after the time aforesaid; the halves, quarters, and other lesser pieces of the same coins, to be accounted, received, taken, and paid, in the same proportion, and the currency of all pieces of eight of Peru, dollars, and other foreign species of silver coins, whether of the same or baser alloy, shall stand regulated, according to their weight and fineness, in proportion to the rate before limited and set for the pieces of eight of Seville, pillar, and Mexico; so that no foreign silver coin of any sort be permitted to exceed that proportion upon any account whatsoever. And we do hereby require and command, &c. (the observance of the directions herein, &c.)

For the better enforcing the due execution of the said proclamation throughout the said colonies, and more effectual

VOL. II.

remedying the inconveniences thereby intended to be remedied, it is enacted, That if any person within any of the said plantations, shall, for discharge of any contract to be hereafter made, account, take, or pay, any the species of foreign silver coins mentioned in the above proclamation, at any higher rate, such person shall suffer six months imprisonment without bail, and forfeit 10l. for every offence.

But nothing in this act or proclamation, shall compel any persons to receive any of the said species of foreign silver coin at the rates in the proclamation mentioned: nor any thing herein contained, restrain her Majesty from settling the rates of the said foreign coins in any of the said plantations, as she shall judge necessary by proclamation, or from giving her royal assent to any law hereafter made in any of the plantations, for the same purpose.

By 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. reciting divers acts, by which diverse commodities of the British plantations, are restrained to be imported into this kingdom, or some other plantation, under securities and penalties therein specified, enacts, That copper ore shall be under the like securities, as for other goods enumerated by any former laws.

By 4 Geo. II. cap. 15. All goods not mentioned in any former act, may be imported into Ireland from the American plantations, the act 7 and 8 Will. III. notwithstanding. But the goods shall be in British shipping legally manned.

By 5 Geo. II. cap. 7. All real estates shall be chargeable with all just debts whatsoever, as they are by the law of England liable to satisfaction of debts due by bond, or other speciality; and subject to like remedies and proceedings in any court, in any of the plantations, in the same manner as personal estates are there.

And for more easy recovery of debts in the colonies in any suit brought there, for debt or account, in which any person residing in Great-Britain shall be party, such debts may be proved here on oath before any chief magistrate near where the person shall reside, and being certified under the common seal of the city or town, &c. shall be of the same force, as if the persons had appeared in open court, or upon commission.

By 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. All sugars and panes of the product of any plantations not under his Majesty's dominions, imported into any of his Majesty's plantations, shall pay 5s. for every hundred weight, and for all rum or spirits of foreign produce, 9d. for every gallon; and for molasses 6d. the gallon. And on importation an entry shall be made with the proper officers, &c. and the duties paid down in ready money before landing the goods, on pain of forfeiture; and every such offence may be prosecuted in an admiralty-court in the plantations, or court of record where committed.

By this act, sugars, panes, &c. rum and spirits of America, not the product of the English sugar colonies, are prohibited to be imported into Ireland, but such only as are shipped in Great-Britain, in ships legally navigated, &c.

By 5 Geo. II. cap. 22. No hats or felts shall be exported from one British plantation to another, on penalty of 500l. and forfeiture of the goods; and persons aiding and assisting therein, shall forfeit 40l. Any persons may seize hats and felts found on ship-board, &c. and carry them to the king's warehouse. And commissioners of the customs, &c. in the plantations, permitting entries for exportation forfeit 500l. This statute also regulates the trade of felt-making, &c. and no person shall retain in the said art any negro, on forfeiture of 5l. for every month.

By 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. Any British ship legally navigated clearing outwards in any port of England for the province of Georgia, may load rice there and carry to any port southward of Cape Finisterre, under restrictions limited in the act. And the officers appointed by the trustees of Georgia, are empowered to do all things there, which may be done by virtue of the said act, by the officers in Carolina. The ships concerning which province, shall proceed directly without carrying rice to any other American plantation; first taking out a licence from the commissioners, on a certificate from the collector and comptroller of the port, that bond is given, that no enumerated goods shall be taken on board at Carolina, or any plantation, unless for necessary provisions in their voyage.

After landing the rice at some port of Europe southward of Cape Finisterre, the ship is to proceed for Great-Britain, and produce a certificate of having landed the said rice, &c. and the master producing the licence to the officers of the port where given, they shall demand the amount of the half subsidy payable for rice shipped in Carolina, which would have remained, had the rice been first imported in Great-Britain, and afterwards re-exported; which not being paid within 30 days, the bond shall be forfeited, &c. At present, rice, as well as sugar, is permitted to be carried to foreign countries from the plantations, without being brought to England.

REMARKS ON PLANTATIONS before the last War.

In the course of this work, we have considered the British plantations in various lights the most nationally interesting to our commercial prosperity. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, COLONIES, FLORIDA, LOUISIANA,

MAP, FRANCE, NORTH CAROLINA, PENNSYLVANIA. See likewise our MAP of North America, compared with the French one of Monf. D'Anville, performed by the order and under the patronage of the duke of Orleans, at a very great expence. Under the preceding heads, the reader will find the causes of the present precarious state of our plantations in America, pointed out to him for several years past; and also such measures, as we humbly apprehend, would have effectually protected our possessions from those insults and depredations, to which they seem daily liable, to the concern of all wise and honest men, who wish well to these kingdoms.

By the before-mentioned map it appears, how contiguous the French colonies in North America lie to the British, which are entirely surrounded by them, and that the claims of the French, in many respects, we have shewn to be groundless and unjust.

Several parts which they now claim, were, about the beginning of the reign of king James II. made over and surrendered by the Iroquois Indians and their allies, to the crown of England, the right and possession whereof we have ever since asserted and endeavoured to secure, both by ourselves and the above-said Indians our confederates, who on their parts, on all occasions of difference with the French or their Indians, have for that and other considerations, demanded the good offices and protection of the English; who knowing it their interest, have never failed, if the cause was just, to afford it them: as they did in the year 1696, when the count Frontenac, governor of Canada, with several thousand French and Indians, attacked the Onondages, one of the Five Nations, and ravaged their country; but on the approach of colonel Fletcher, governor of New York, with some regular forces, militia, and Indians, he was forced to retire, not without a considerable loss from these natives, who constantly attended him in his retreat, often fell on his rear, cut off many of his people, and all the stragglers they could meet with.

The Five Nations, when summoned on our two last unfortunate expeditions against Canada, readily joined the English troops under the command of General Nicholson, with about a thousand men, and the rest of them were in motion in different parts; some to discover and observe the posture of the enemy in their own country, others to scout about the rivers and lakes. And they had so great a reliance on the friendship and protection of the English, whom they have heretofore found and acknowledged to be truly just, honest, and punctual, in their treaties and dealings with them; that during queen Anne's war, they not only permitted, but also invited them, to build a fort in the very heart of their country, and on their main river, the gate of which adjoined to, and opened into one of their capital towns or fortifications, inhabited by the Mohawks, the chief and most warlike nation among them. The English garrison being a detachment from the independent companies of New York and Albany, lived with them in the strictest amity, and daily entered their castle as the Indians did our fort, who constantly supplied the soldiers with venison, wild fowl, fish, and other necessaries in their way.

From these Indians of the Five Nations, the English of New York purchase the greatest part of their furr and peltry-trade, and in exchange supply them with duffels, strowds, blankets, guns, powder, shot, and other the manufactures of Great-Britain.

The French knowing and envying the great friendship and commerce the English of New York cultivate and carry on with these Indians, and being sensible of the mighty use and service they are of, not only to that colony, but to all our other colonies to the northward, have on many occasions endeavoured, by all the artifices imaginable, to draw them over to their party and interests, which when they failed in, they have attempted by force or fraud to extirpate or subject them: but that cunning and warlike people, by the advice and assistance of the English, have ever prevented their designs, to whom they continue most incensed and irreconcilable enemies; though as long as the English have peace with them, they are persuaded to continue the same.

Indeed, during the reign of king James II. they had certainly been cut off and exterminated by the French (the English being prohibited to give them the least assistance) had not the happy Revolution of king William intervened, and the war with France soon succeeded.

Nay, even Col. Dungan, a Roman Catholic, made governor of New York by king James, was at that time so very sensible of the ruin intended to the Five Nations our allies, and in consequence to the English plantations, that he ordered the Popish priests, who were by leave come into his government, under pretence of making proselytes, to depart from thence, because he found their designs was to betray our colonies to the French, instead of making converts of the inhabitants.

The French, as is related above, have many ways endeavoured to ruin or distress the Iroquois; but as they are well assured, nothing will affect them so much and nearly, as to deprive them of their fishing and hunting, which is mostly on the borders of, and between the great lakes, and without

which they must starve; therefore they have attempted to build forts on the several narrow passages thereof, and the rivers which empty themselves therinto, in order to intercept them, either in their going or returning from those places; but the Indians have as often prevented the finishing of them, or otherwise obliged them to demolish or desert them.

But should the French be permitted to establish their projected communication between Cape Breton and the gulph and river of St Lawrence, as far as the Mississippi, and so downwards to the bay of Mexico, which will be a mighty addition and increase of territory, strength, and power to them, it is much to be feared, they will carry their point one time or another, and thereby distress and subject these our allies; the consequence of which will not only be very shocking, but of the utmost concern to the safety of our northern plantations: for if we now, in so great measure, stand in need of, and depend on them as our friends, for the security of our frontiers, what must we expect when that barrier is removed, and they become our enemies? And not only they, but all the rest of our friendly Indians to the southward, which we may of course depend on.

We have heretofore experienced the dismal and tragical consequences attending a defection, of only one or two paucity nations of Indians bordering on Carolina; and though other pretences have been urged as the cause thereof, and were, perhaps, in some measure true; yet the French, since their late settlements on the Mississippi, and the bay of Mexico, have frequently clandestinely fomented and widened the breach, which occasioned the butchering of so many hundreds of the inhabitants of that colony, with the burnings, devastations, and almost entire desolation thereof.

It is well known, that the frontiers of our colonies are large, naked, and open, there being scarce any forts or garrisons to defend them for near two thousand miles. The dwellings of the inhabitants are scattered at a distance from one another; and it is extremely difficult, if not almost impossible, according to the present establishment and situation of our affairs there, from the great number of our colonies independent on each other, their different sorts of governments, views, and interests, to draw any considerable body of forces together on an emergency, though the safety and preservation, not only of any particular colony, but of all the English plantations on the continent, were never so nearly concerned.

For several of these governments, pretending to or enjoying some extraordinary privileges, which the favour of the crown has formerly granted them, exclusive of others, if their assistance is demanded or implored by any of their distressed neighbours, attacked by enemies, perhaps, in the very heart of their settlements, they either by affected delays, insisting on punctilios and niceties, starting unreasonable objections, and making extravagant demands, or other frivolous pretences, purposely elude their just and reasonable expectations; and by an inactive stupidity or indolence, seem insensible of their particular and most deplorable circumstances, as well as regardless of the general or common danger, because they feel not the immediate effects of it; not considering their own security is precarious, since what happens to one colony to-day, may reach another to-morrow. A wise man will not stand with his arms folded when his neighbour's house is on fire.

The only expedient which has been suggested (with the utmost deference to his Majesty and his ministers) to help and obviate these absurdities and inconveniencies, and apply a remedy to them, is, That all the colonies appertaining to the crown of Great-Britain on the northern continent of America, be united under a legal, regular, and firm establishment, over which it is proposed a lieutenant-general, or supreme governor, may be constituted, and appointed to preside on the spot, to whom the governors of each colony shall be subordinate.

It is further humbly proposed, That two deputies shall be annually elected by the council and assembly of each province, who are to be in the nature of a great council, or general convention of the estates of the colonies; and by the order, consent, or approbation of the lieutenant, or governor-general, shall meet together, consult, and advise for the good of the whole, settle and appoint particular quotas, or proportions, of money, men, provisions, &c. that each respective government is to raise for their mutual defence and safety, as well as, if necessary, for offence and invasion of their enemies: in all which cases, the governor-general, or lieutenant, is to have a negative, but not to enact any thing without their concurrence, or that of the majority of them.

The quota, or proportion, as above allotted and charged on each colony, may, nevertheless, be levied and raised by its own assembly, in such manner as they shall judge most easy and convenient, and the circumstances of their affairs will permit.

Other jurisdictions, powers, and authorities, respecting the honour of his Majesty, the interest of the plantations, and the liberty and property of the proprietors, traders, planters, and inhabitants in them, may be vested in, and cognizable by, the above-said governor-general, or lieutenant, and grand convention of the estates, according to the laws of England, but

but these points are not thought fit to be touched on or inserted here: this proposal being general, and with all humility submitted to the consideration of our superiors, who may improve, model, or reject it, as they in their wisdom shall judge proper.

A coalition, or union of this nature, tempered with and grounded on prudence, moderation, and justice, and a generous encouragement given to the labour, industry, and good management of all sorts and conditions of persons inhabiting, or any ways concerned or interested in the several colonies above-mentioned, will, in all probability, lay a sure and lasting foundation of dominion, strength, and trade, sufficient not only to secure and promote the prosperity of the plantations, but to revive and greatly increase the flourishing state and condition of Great-Britain, and thereby render it, once more, the envy and admiration of its neighbours.

Let us consider the fall of our ancestors, and grow wise by their misfortunes. If the ancient Britons had been united amongst themselves, the Romans, in all probability, had never become their masters: for, as Cæsar observed of them, *Dum singuli pugnabant, universi vincebantur*; whilst they fought in separate bodies, the whole island was subdued: so if the English colonies in America were consolidated as one body, and joined in one common interest, as they are under one gracious sovereign, and with united forces were ready and willing to act in concert, and assist each other, they would be better enabled to provide for and defend themselves against any troublesome ambitious neighbour or bold invader: for union and concord increase and establish strength and power, whilst division and discord have the contrary effects.

It must seem to every man a very great indignity offered to his Majesty and the nation, that when there are are 500,000 British subjects (which are, perhaps, three times more than the French have both in Canada and Louisiana put together) inhabiting the several colonies on the east side of the continent of North America, along the sea-shore, from the gulph of St Lawrence to that of Florida, all contiguous to each other, who, for a century, have established a correspondence, contracted a friendship, and carried on a flourishing trade and commerce with the several nations of Indians lying on their back, to the westward and northward, for furs, skins, &c. a most rich and valuable traffic, the colonies themselves abounding with metals and minerals of copper, iron, lead, &c. producing hemp, flax, pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, masts, timber, and planks of oak, fir, and all other sorts of naval stores in great abundance, and the best of their kind in the world; besides wheat, beef, pork, tobacco, rice, and other necessary and profitable commodities; with a noble fishery for whales, cod-fish, &c. along the coast and in the bays thereof: I say it seems a great indignity offered to his Majesty and the British nation, that the French should presume to make those incroachments, and commit those ravages and hostilities on our plantations, which are now the subject of daily conversation and surprize; especially since the English have planted and improved them, from the sea-coast almost up to the sources of the largest rivers, by the consent of the natives, whose lands they have actually purchased and paid for, and whose traffic we may be entirely deprived of, if the French do not meet with an effectual check.

Moreover, if the English suffer themselves to be thus straightly cooped up, without stretching their plantations further back into the continent, what will become of their offspring and descendants, the increase of their own and the nation's stock; who claim and demand an habitation and inheritance near their parents, relations, and friends, and have a right to be provided for in the country where they are born, both by the laws of God and man, and which the prudence and policy of the state does likewise require, as convenient and necessary, both for extending our territories, strengthening our hands, and enlarging our trade?

Besides, as the English are not fond of extending their dominions on the continent of Europe, but confine themselves to their islands, being content with their ancient territories and possessions, except what is absolutely necessary to promote and secure their trade and commerce, the very vitals of the state, I cannot apprehend with what reason or justice the French, or any other nation, should incroach upon their claims, colonies, or plantations in America.

We have heretofore likewise been, with just reason, alarmed in Great-Britain by the many letters, memorials, representations, and remonstrances, which have, from time to time, been transmitted from divers of our colonies upon the continent of America, setting forth the danger they have been frequently exposed to from the neighbourhood of the French, if they obtained full possession of the province of Carolina, (which they some years since attempted) and the lands to the northward of it, as far as the five great lakes, which comprehend great part of what they call their Louisiana.

For through these countries many great rivers have their course, proceeding from the back of our colonies of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina (their springs being not far distant from the heads of the chief rivers that belong to, and run through

those colonies) most of them navigable without interruption from their fountains, 'till they fall into the Mississippi. And by means of their settlements on that and the other inland rivers and lakes, from the bay of Mexico to the river and bay of St Lawrence, the French are drawing a line of communication, and now endeavouring to surround and straighten all our colonies, from Nova Scotia to South Carolina. Thus are they working out their own grandeur and our destruction! Indeed the French, whom all the world acknowledge to be an enterprising, great, and politic nation, are so sensible of the advantages of foreign colonies, both in reference to empire and trade, that they use all manner of artifices to lull their neighbours asleep, with fine speeches and plausible pretences, whilst they cunningly endeavour to compass their designs by degrees, though at the hazard of encroaching on their friends and allies, and depriving them of their territories and dominions in time of profound peace, and contrary to the most solemn treaties.

For besides their seizing on, and settling the great river Mississippi, and some part of the north side of the bay of Mexico, and the claim they seem clandestinely to make to another of our inhabited southern colonies adjoining thereunto, as I shall in the sequel demonstrate, they in some of their writings boast, that their colony of Louisiana hath no other bounds on the north than the arctic pole, and that its limits on the west and north-west are not known much better, but extend to the South-Sea, Japan, or wherever they shall think fit to fix them, if they can be persuaded to fix any at all; intending one day, if it is in their power, to deprive the British nation of all that vast track of land situate between the gulph of Mexico and Hudson's Bay, which includes the province of Carolina, the aforesaid great lakes, and the whole country of our five indian nations and allies, with the furr, peltry, and other trade thereof.

And what further views and designs they may entertain against the Spanish provinces of New Mexico and New Biscay, may be easily conjectured, since we cannot forget the project framed by Monsieur de la Salle, to visit and seize on the rich mines of St Barbe, &c. which if he thought no difficult task to accomplish with about 200 French, and the assistance of the Indians adjoining to, and in actual war with, the Spaniards at that time; how much more easily will they become masters of them, when with the united strength of Canada and Louisiana, both French and natives, they shall think fit to attack them? And after such an acquisition of the numerous mines of those provinces, with the immense riches thereof, what may not all our colonies on the continent of America apprehend from them?

Besides, Jamaica lying, as it were, locked up between their settlements in the island of Hispaniola, and those on the bay of Mexico, will soon be in danger of falling into their hands; and whether the Havannah itself, and the whole island of Cuba, with the key of Old Mexico, La Vera Cruz, will long remain in the possession of the Spaniards, is very much to be doubted, if the Spaniards should neglect their true interest, and not act in concert with Great-Britain, to curb and restrain such measures: and supposing the best that can happen to us, it will be but Ulysses's fate, to have the favour of being destroyed last.

We are all sensible what clamours were raised at the concessions made to France on the conclusion of the peace of Utrecht. There is scarce a man well versed in the interest of trade and plantations, but blamed the then ministry for not insisting on the surrender of Canada, as well as Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, for the security of our northern colonies on the continent of America, and the traffic thereof: nor ought they to have allowed them the possession of Cape Breton, if they had well considered or understood the nature of the fishery in those seas.

The history of former ages, and the experience of these latter times, have informed us, that the French have ever been troublesome neighbours, wheresoever they were seated: historians asserting, that the natural levity and restlessness of their temper, their enterprising genius, and ambition of extending their dominions and raising the glory and grandeur of their monarchs, contribute in great measure to make them so.

Wherefore it is to be hoped, that the British nation will be so far from continuing idle or indifferent spectators of the unreasonable and unjust usurpations and encroachments of the French on the continent of America, that they will let them know they have too much already of Canada and Cape Breton, and that, in reason and justice, they ought to abandon their new acquisitions on the Mississippi and the Bay of Mexico, that river and the country belonging of right to the crown of Great-Britain.

And if, while they were weak, and in the infancy of their settlement in Louisiana, we had duly asserted and maintained our right, we had a much better chance than at present to have kept them from further encroachments: for since they have had time to augment the number of their inhabitants, corrupt and influence the natives to their interest, strengthen themselves, by securing with forts and garrisons, the passes of the rivers, lakes, and mountains, it will be no easy matter to curb and restrain them from going greater and greater lengths;

lengths; but this must be done, or our plantations will be undone.

And I am apt to think, that prudence and policy will, or ought to prompt us to preserve a ballance of power in America, as well as nearer home; and that, as we have, for many years past, found it our interest to check and put a stop to the growing power of France, and set bounds to their dominions here in Europe, we shall not easily be induced to allow them to encroach on, and deprive us of our colonies and plantations in America.

The Spaniards, if they knew their own interest, could not be less jealous and uneasy than we, at the so near neighbourhood of THE FRENCH ON THE MISSISSIPPI; for it is certainly for their security to dispossess them of their settlements there, and on the bay of MEXICO, lest, in time, they render themselves SOLE MASTERS OF THE NAVIGATION THEREOF; and, with the assistance of the Indians, make irruptions into the very hearts OF THEIR COLONIES, ATTACK THEIR TOWNS, SEIZE THEIR MINES, AND FORTIFY AND MAINTAIN THEMSELVES THEREIN.

And perhaps, if this matter was properly represented to the Spaniards, it is not improbable but they might be induced rather to DIVIDE THIS COUNTRY WITH US, AND SURRENDER ALL THEIR PRETENSIONS TO WHATSOEVER LIES EASTWARD TO THE MISSISSIPPI, except St Augustine, on condition that the French are obliged to remove thence, and retire elsewhere. And indeed nothing seems more proper and reasonable, than for that great river to BE THE SETTLED AND ACKNOWLEDGED BOUNDARY AND PARTITION BETWEEN THE TERRITORIES OF SPAIN AND GREAT-BRITAIN, ON THE NORTHERN CONTINENT OF AMERICA, NATURE SEEMING TO HAVE FORMED IT ALMOST PURPOSELY FOR THAT END, AS WILL BE EVIDENT TO THOSE WHO SHALL GIVE THEMSELVES THE TROUBLE OF VIEWING OUR MAPS; and at the same time they will perceive how the French have wormed themselves into a settlement between the English and the Spanish plantations, on pretence of a vacancy, and, with an assurance scarce to be paralleled, have set bounds to the dominions of both. Whether some proper use may not be made of these suggestions, at this critical conjuncture, at the court of Madrid, is most humbly submitted: if France, indeed, has not brought Spain into their scheme of ———, something of this kind might possibly be brought about.

This is certainly a treatment most unjust and dishonourable to the British nation, which I should not have mentioned, if the duty I owe to my sovereign, and the affection I bear to my country did not forbid me at such a juncture, and on so important an occasion, to be silent and unconcerned.

If we tamely submit to these insults and injuries which are daily committed by the FRENCH IN AMERICA, without being alarmed, and taking the necessary steps towards a speedy and effectual redress of them, shall we not seem infatuated, and wanting to ourselves, be arraigned as *felo de se*, and accounted, with good reason, the eternal bubbles of the French? From what has been said, and the several writings, charts, and maps of the French, it is evident to what a narrow extent of ground they have confined the English plantations, and particularly in L'Isle's, as well as D'Anville's map, the best and most approved of any they have lately published: besides many very remarkables, there is one in L'Isle's which we cannot omit taking notice of, viz. that on the part where they fix Carolina, now and long since inhabited by the English, they have inserted this memorable passage, 'Caroline, ainsi nommez en l'honneur, de Charles IX. par les François, qui la decouvrirent en prirent possession et s'establi-
'rent, l'an 15.'—That is to say, Carolina, so named in honour of Charles the IXth, by the French, who discovered, took possession of, and settled it, in the year 15.—By which the author seems to intimate the right of his nation to that province; who, if they were so bold to put in their claim in so bare-faced and so public a manner, will they not, when they think themselves strong enough, attempt by force to assert it?

But if the French should ever grow so powerful in America, as to be able to intercept or engross the trade with the INDIANS, or ruin or subject our plantations, there is an end of the consumption of our home-produce and manufactures in America, of all our shipping-trade thither, of the duties for goods exported thither, or imported from thence, the increase of our sailors, and the advantages of raising our own naval stores; besides the loss of so large an extent of dominion, and at least 500,000 British subjects therein. We may be likewise assured, that all our ISLANDS IN THE WEST-INDIES will soon undergo the same fate, or be terribly distressed, for want of their usual supplies of fish, lumber, and other necessities they constantly stand in need of, and receive from our plantations on the continent; which neither Great-Britain nor Ireland can easily assist them with, and which they purchase with their sugar, rum, and melasses, the vent of which will be, in great measure, stopped on the loss of our NORTHERN COLONIES, whereby they will be mightily discouraged and impoverished, so as to become an easy acquisition to any ambitious and powerful invader.

Thus Great-Britain being deprived of its subjects, dominions, and trade in and to America, our merchants will be ruined, our customs and funds will sink, our manufactures will want vent, our lands will fall in value, and, instead of decreasing, our debts will increase, without the least prospect of the nation's emerging.

It looks with an aspect something very extraordinary and striking, that both France and Spain should take, almost ever since the late peace of AIX LA CHAPELLE, every measure to increase their MARITIME POWER, and procrastinate, from time to time, the adjustment of all misunderstandings between the court of Great-Britain and theirs. Did we give up CAPE BRETON in America the more effectually to enable the French to maltreat and insult us in that part of the world? Was the ASSIENTO CONTRACT given up to Spain for a long, to encourage them to continue their depredations upon our trade and navigation in America, and France to ruin our African trade? Do not FRANCE AND SPAIN SEEM, AT PRESENT, TO ACT IN CONCERT AGAINST GREAT-BRITAIN? Does not their conduct shew, that they have something more in view than the humiliation of the piratical states? [See our article MEDITERRANEAN.] This is an easy pretext, and may, like their domestic jars, be contrived only to cover some latent scheme of ———. Be this as it may, we cannot be too much upon our guard; and WITH THIS VIEW, AND NO OTHER, ARE THESE THINGS TAKEN NOTICE OF. But how far we may with safety depend upon the faith of a certain power, seems, at present, to be quite forgot: it may, therefore, be useful to remind the nation, and indeed all Europe, thereof, by giving a brief history of the late French king's perfidiousness in the breach of solemn treaties.

Additional REMARKS ON THE CONSTANT PERFIDY OF FRANCE, WHICH WE OUGHT NEVER TO FORGET.

Before we come to the facts, it is necessary to take notice that the principles of ambition which led the late French monarch to aspire to the universal monarchy, and the principles of treachery which were needful to be practised towards his obtaining it, were infused into him by those who had the charge of his education, and his conduct gave the world a sufficient proof that he cultivated both to the highest degree.

The bishop of Rhodes, who was appointed his first preceptor, gave him for a model of government the designs of his grandfather, Henry IV. as appears by the book which the bishop published on that subject. After that great prince had made good his title to the crown of France, by renouncing the protestant faith, and subduing those who had made the Catholic league against him, he formed a project to cast Europe into a new model, to reduce all the kingdoms and commonwealths of it to a certain number, and to prescribe them such bounds as he should think fit, reserving to himself such a share as might enable him, or his successors, to grasp the universal monarchy, as his predecessor Francis I. intended before him.

To this end he chose his generals, and other great officers, erected vast magazines of ammunition and arms, and laid up prodigious sums of money; but, as he was going to model his army, he was murdered in his coach by Ravillac.

In pursuance of the like design, Lewis XIV. applied himself in his youth to read the memoirs of the said Henry IV. with those of the present Jeanin and the bishop of Rhodes; but though he copied very well after his grandfather's ambition, he studied nothing of his generous qualifications, which made him the darling of his subjects, and procured him the esteem of the greatest princes and states of Europe: so that he inverted his plan in every thing that carried a shew of equity, and set out upon the foot of making himself an absolute conqueror, and of forcing all Europe to submit to his chains.

In order to this, abundance of mercenary, but able pens, were employed to flatter his ambition, on pretence of making his character glorious: in order to which, they possessed him with the following maxims, 1. That any title was sufficient to take possession by the sword, 2. That the greatest part of Germany was the patrimony and antient inheritance of the crown of France. 3. That his predecessor Charlemain possessed Germany as king of France, and not as emperor: the writers on those subjects were gratefully rewarded; and one of them dedicated a book to him, intitled, The just pretensions of the King of France to the Empire; wherein, besides the above-mentioned principles, he laid down these following propositions, viz. That the dominions of sovereign princes have always been the dominions and conquests of their estates, and that the dominions and conquests of crowns, can neither be alienated nor prescribed; though, at the same time, there were treaties betwixt the crown of France, the empire, and other princes, directly contrary to these maxims.

But, to come to the treaties, the first we shall take notice of is that of Munster, which was concluded betwixt the plenipotentiaries of the emperor and empire, and the French plenipotentiaries at that city, the 24th of October, 1648. A

to which, it is fit to observe, that the Empire having desired the assistance of France against the house of Austria, the French, on pretence of that assistance, possessed themselves of several provinces and considerable towns in Spain, Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands; so that the Empire finding themselves to be in as much danger from France, as they had formerly been in from the house of Austria, they willingly came into that peace, and were content to sit down with their losses, rather than trust their French allies any longer. The court of France perceiving that they could not put off the peace of the empire by their usual intrigues, nor hinder the Dutch to make a separate peace with Spain, they found methods to have the treaty of Munster finished, without including the Spaniards, or the duke of Lorraine, in the general peace; and Monsieur de Wicquefort, in his book, intitled, *L'Ambassadeur & ses Fonctions*, lib. ii. and sect. 13. informs us, that cardinal Mazarine endeavoured to prevent the peace all that he could; and though his master's troops pretended to espouse the interest of the protestants, and that the Spanish ministers pressed the imperial court to grant them all their demands, yet underhand he hindered it, that by continuing the war he might unite the Spanish Netherlands to the crown of France; and at the same time he favoured the elector of Bavaria, the chief of the papists, against the elector Palatine, who had been the head of the protestant League in the Empire. By these intrigues, the cardinal, and others of the young French king's governors, not only laid a foundation for a new war, whenever they should think fit, but got all confirmed to them that they had taken from the emperor and empire in a hundred years before, viz. the city of Brisac, the Landgraviate of Upper and Lower Alsace, Suntgow, and the provincial lordship of the ten imperial cities in Alsace, with all their dependencies, to be incorporated with the kingdom of France for ever. They did also obtain a perpetual right to keep a garrison in Philipsburgh, and to the sovereignty of the cities and dioceses of Metz, Toul and Verdun, by which they opened their way into the empire on the Moselle, and the Upper and Middle Rhine, whenever they saw occasion; or as soon as their king, who was then about ten years of age, should be in a capacity to practise the ambition and treachery which they bred him up to.

When he came of age, cardinal Mazarine brought on the treaty of the Pyrenees, in order to lay a surer foundation for his master's greatness, and had the satisfaction to see his pupil outdo all the copies of perfidiousness and treachery he had set him. This treaty was concluded by the cardinal for France, and Don Louis Mendez de Haro for Spain; by which a peace was made betwixt the two crowns, on the 7th of November, 1659, when the French king was left in possession,

1. Of all Artois, except Ayre and St Omers, with their dependencies. 2. Of Graveling, the forts Philip, the Sluce, Hannum, Bourbourg, and its chatellany, and St Venant, in Flanders. 3. In Hainault, he had Landrecy and Quesnoy, with their chattellanies and dependencies. 4. In Luxemburg, Thionville, Montmedy, and D'Anvilliers, with their dependencies, and the provostships of Ivoy, Chavaney, Chateau, and Marville, with all that belonged to them; Marienburgh and Philippeville, on the Maes with all their dependencies; Avennes, on the Sambre with all that belonged to it; Recroy, in the Ardernes; Le Chatelet, at the head of the Scheld, and Linchamp. 5. On the side of Germany, all that had been granted him by the treaty of Munster was confirmed. 6. By this treaty the duke of Lorraine was in a manner sacrificed to him; for Nancy, his capital, was to be demolished, and not to be refortified; and all the guns, arms, and ammunition to be carried off: he was stripped of the whole duchy of Bar, the county of Clermont, the provostships of Stenay, Dun, and Jametz, Moyenvie, and their dependencies. 7. By this treaty all the French king's pretensions to the kingdom of Navarre, were left in statu quo, and his sovereignty over the county of Carolois in Burgundy, was reserved to him, the king of Spain being to hold it in fee, as before the war. 8. On the side of Spain, the county of Roussillon, the Viguery of Conflans, and part of Cardagna were yielded to him. 9. In Italy, the king of Spain obliged himself to restore Verreil, with its dependencies, to the duke of Savoy, to withdraw his garrison from Correggio, to pay the duke the arrears of the dower of the infanta Catharina, to restore the duke of Modena to his favour, and allow him a neutrality, to restore the prince Manaco; and, on the French king's intercession, the king of Spain restored Juliers to the duke of Neuburg.

By this means the French king had put into his hands the keys of the Empire, Spain, and the Netherlands; which were necessary for his design, to obtain the universal monarchy that he afterwards discovered.

We cannot suppose the Spaniards, who are a wise people, to have made him such a sacrifice, without a valuable consideration; which was to preserve what they had left intire, that they might be at liberty to recover the kingdom of Portugal, which had newly revolted from them, and to obtain restitution of the duchy of Burgundy, and some places of importance the French had taken from them in Flanders. Besides,

they had some hopes of tying down this young aspiring prince, by the bonds of love, since they could not do it by force of arms; especially when the hands of the German branch of the house of Austria were tied up from assisting them, by the treaty of Munster, and their own low circumstances. In order to this, a contract of marriage was agreed on betwixt Louis and infanta Maria Theresa, the king of Spain's eldest daughter, on condition that he and she should solemnly renounce all pretensions for themselves and their successors, to the crown of Spain, or any of the dominions thereunto belonging; which was ratified by the 33d article of this treaty, and there called the chief part of it, and the most worthy, as well as the greatest, and most precious earnest of the surety of its duration.

But that the French court might shew themselves to be still acted by the same maxims of treachery and cruelty; as they made the match betwixt the king of Navarre, afterwards Henry IV. and Margaret of France, a trap to ruin the Protestants, by the infamous massacre of St Bartholomew; so they made the like trap of this match to ruin the family of Austria, and usurp their dominions, which has occasioned so much blood in Europe, and God knows when the current will be stopped.

We come now to the French king's behaviour, at, and after this treaty; which opens such a scene of perjury, atheism, and treachery, as, all circumstances considered, never had its parallel in the world.

To prove this, we shall bring some instances which make it evident, that the French king swore to the clause of renunciation with a design to break it. The first is from cardinal Mazarine's letter to Monsieur Lionne, of August 5, 1659, where he says, 'We could not suffer ourselves to be persuaded to lose so many advantages, which with justice we might pretend to, without agreeing to the marriage of the king with a princess who might come to be heiress of so great a monarchy as that of Spain.' And in the same letter he says, 'That when M. Piementel made the overture of the marriage, it was without making mention of the renunciation.'

In his letter to Monsieur le Tellier, of August 23, he gives an account of his conference with Don Lewis de Haro, the Spanish minister, wherein he would have persuaded him to consent to the marriage without the renunciation; but Don Lewis stopped his mouth, by telling him that the emperor had offered, in case he might have the infanta for himself, that he would break with France, and in all things follow the conduct of Spain; which obliged the cardinal to accept the match with the clause of renunciation.

In that same letter he says, that Don Lewis durst not propose the marriage to the court of Spain, without the renunciation, they being so averse to it, that there were none of the council but himself, and one more, who were for the match, even with that clause; for they all maintained, and he himself was of the same opinion, 'That if the king of Spain should lose his two sons, which there was great reason to fear, they could not expect that the king of France would quit his hopes to succeed him, and renounce so great pretensions.' Upon which the cardinal adds his own reflections in the following words: 'I am fully persuaded of the truth of all this, for several very strong and conclusive reasons.' And he subjoins: 'moreover, I very well remember what the queen, his most christian majesty's mother, who likewise made a renunciation when she was married to Lewis XIII. often told me, that when her brother, the king of Spain, had but one son; but, says he, (in a rapture of joy) I was well pleased to hear the same thing from the first minister of Spain, and that their whole council is of the same sentiments.' These letters being wrote for the king's own perusal, the cardinal durst not have presumed to use so much freedom, had he not been persuaded that it agreed with his majesty's intentions.

The second instance is from Monsieur Aubery's *Life of Cardinal Mazarine*, dedicated to the king himself, by the author, who was an advocate of the parliament of Paris, and one of the king's council. He says, in the second tome of Mazarine's life, p. 554. The cardinal acted prudently to sign the contract of marriage, without having any regard to the pretended renunciation; which being manifestly contrary to common right, and to the law and general custom of the state, might be freely contradicted and disavowed.

These are full proofs of the French king's swearing to the treaty of the Pyrenees, with a design to break it: and what aggravates his crime is, that he had the same treacherous intention when he took his marriage oath; which after, according to the religion he professed, he looked upon as a sacrament, is a clear demonstration that he was not to be tied, even by what he himself accounts to be most sacred. The first open breach he made of this treaty, was, that though in the 6th article of the contract of marriage, it was stipulated, that he should make another ratification of the renouncing clause, jointly with his queen, as soon as he should be married, and enregister the same in the parliament of Paris, with other necessary clauses, according to the usual form, yet he would never comply with it; so early had he learned to play fast and loose with oaths and sacraments, and so little

regard or love had he to the honour or person of the infant, whom he could never have obtained without this renunciation.

The second breach was that of the 60th article of the Pyrenean treaty, by which the French king obliged himself to abandon Portugal, and to give that king no assistance, in the following words: 'His said majesty shall meddle no more with the said affair, and doth promise and oblige himself upon his honour, and on the faith and word of a king, for himself and his successors, not to give unto the forementioned kingdom of Portugal, neither in general, or to any persons of it in particular, of what dignity, estate, or condition soever, neither now nor hereafter, any aid or assistance, public or private, directly or indirectly, of men, arms, ammunition, victuals, ships, or money, under any pretext; nor of any thing else, either by land or sea, or in any other manner: and that he would not suffer levies to be made in any part of his kingdoms and estates, nor grant free passage to those which may come out of other countries to the assistance of the said realm of Portugal.'

But so far was the French king from observing this article, that immediately after the treaty, he sent privately several bodies of troops to Portugal, and encouraged their obstinacy to maintain the duke of Braganza upon the throne, contrary to the house of Austria; which was so much the more gross, because it appears by many places of the cardinal de Mazarine's letters, that the French king must of necessity have continued the war, and gone without his bride; nor would the Spaniards have abandoned the duke of Lorraine, and the prince of Condé, as they did, in so many material points, but merely on the consideration of the French king's abandoning Portugal. When the Spanish ambassador at Paris complained of this breach to the French king, that prince, to shew how well he was versed in the art of dissimulation, sent orders to all his ports, that no forces should embark there for Portugal, which they did notwithstanding; and when the Spanish minister renewed his complaint, he was told, that this was the marshal de Turenne's particular act, and that the court had no hand in it: though, at the same time, the Spaniards intercepted several letters betwixt Monsieur Leon, the archbishop of Ambrun, and Count Schomberg, which fully proved, that the latter kept a constant correspondence with the French court, and received all his directions from thence for carrying on the war. So early had the French king learned the art of debauching Protestant generals, so far as to concur with him in carrying on his treacherous and tyrannical designs.

The treachery of the French king, in this matter, was still more evident by the letters which the Spaniards intercepted; which made it evident, that soon after the treaty, he hindered the Portuguese from accepting the advantageous proposals made them by the Spaniards, by promises of such assistance, as should enable them, not only to defend themselves, but to carry the war into the heart of Spain. And soon after the close of the treaty, Mr Colbert made several journeys into Portugal to encourage them, and to contract a secret alliance with them: and Monsieur Courtin went to England, at the same time, to move the king of Great-Britain not to abandon the Portuguese: nay, the Spaniards intercepted, in a French vessel coming from Portugal, an account of the expences and succours which France had given, without intermission, to the Portuguese from the close of the treaty; and, among other things, that they had maintained troops there to uphold the war: and all this, at the very time when they offered to the Spaniards to compose the differences betwixt them and Portugal, by their mediation. But, as ill men become more and more hardened in their wickedness, by continuing the practice of it, the French king, in 1667, when he began to form his design of invading the Spanish Netherlands, did openly, in defiance of the Pyrenean treaty, make a league, offensive and defensive, with Portugal, against all nations, England excepted.

By this treaty, all the harbours which the Portuguese should take in Spain, either upon the one or the other Sea, were to be put into the power of France, which was to furnish them with men and money by way of loan; and this treaty was to last for ten years, and the French were not to treat until the Portuguese were intirely satisfied, as we are informed by the author of *The Buckler of State and Justice*.

Having thus treacherously enfeebled Spain, by continuing the war of Portugal, the French king dealt in the same manner with the duke of Lorraine; and, contrary to the reservations made for the said duke in the treaty of the Pyrenees, he forced him to sell him his duchy, to the prejudice of his lawful successor: but knowing that the contract was null of itself, the French king obliged him, by force, to put the only place left him into his hands; by means of which he revoked the bargain, and got the thing without paying the price.

The next thing the French king did, was to possess himself of those provinces belonging to the Spaniards, where he was likely to meet with most opposition to his design of making himself master afterwards of the whole Spanish monarchy; either because of their native strength, or because of the interest that neighbouring princes and states were like to take in

their preservation; and these were Flanders, the French county, and Milan.

In 1665, the queen-mother of France, who had made the same renunciation as her son, the French king, had done, told the Spanish ambassador, in a discourse, that she was sensible of the ill advice given her son, the French king, to set up pretensions upon the monarchy of Spain; she was sensible also of his desire of glory, and of the unquiet temper of the French nation, and being afraid that these things might give a disturbance to the peace, of which she looked upon herself to be the author: she therefore desired him to acquaint her brother, the king of Spain, that she thought it necessary, since he had given so much for a peace, to give yet something more for preserving it, and to stop the mouths of those that pushed on the king, her son, to violent resolutions; and that for her part, she would inspire him with all the moderation she could.

But the French king was so far from having any regard to the advice of his mother, or to her honour, that he perfectly gave her the lye, in his letter to the queen-regent of Spain; to whom he wrote, that his mother, in this conference, told the marquis that his pretensions were just, solid, and undeniable.

The Spanish ambassador gave the court an account of what had passed betwixt him and the queen-mother of France; but Philip IV. of Spain dying a little after, they returned no immediate answer, only the ambassador had orders, that if the queen-mother of France should again debate that business, he should inform her fully of the falshood of the French king's pretensions, and that the queen-mother of Spain could do nothing in those things herself, during the regency.

The French king made no complaint of this answer, nor any new proposals upon it: and when he sent the marquis de Bellefonds to Madrid, with a compliment of condolance upon the king of Spain's death, he gave him no orders about his pretensions; but, on the contrary, the archbishop of Ambrun, the French ambassador at Madrid, gave all assurances of his master's intentions to keep the peace, proposed entering into a league with Spain, to compose their differences with Portugal; and reproached those as persons of a seditious and turbulent humour, who would call in question his master's sincerity. Nay the French king himself, when the Spanish ambassador took leave of him to return to Spain, charged him to engage his faith and word to the queen, that he would keep a constant amity with her and her kingdom, without saying one word of his pretensions.

By these false promises he lulled the Spaniards asleep; and, to prevent their making any alliances for their own defence with their neighbours, he declared to the Spaniards, that if they signed any treaty with England, or made a peace or truce with Portugal upon their mediation, he would immediately declare war against them, as appears by Sir William Temple's letter to the earl of Clarendon from Brussels, May 4, 1667.

The French king having also, by his practices and private intrigues with Charles II. king of Great-Britain, raised a war betwixt England and Holland, he continued it by the same arts, because he knew very well that an union betwixt those two powers, would be an effectual curb to his designs upon the Spanish monarchy. Being unwilling, however, to alarm Europe too much, he made his pretensions at first only to the duchy of Brabant, with its appurtenances; the lordships of Mechin, Antwerp, Upper Guelderland, Namur, Limburg, the united places beyond the Maese, Hainault, Artois, Cambray, the French county, and part of Flanders; which was expressly contrary to the PYRENEAN TREATY.

The French king having thus abused the credulity of the Spanish court, and prevented their taking necessary measures for their own preservation, he assembled his army on the frontiers of Flanders, on pretence of a general review; and on the 8th of May 1667, he wrote to the queen of Spain, that he was ready to appear at the head of his army to do himself right, and at the same time sent her his manifesto, without having made any other demand of his pretended rights, but what passed in the conference formerly mentioned betwixt his mother and the Spanish ambassador. The queen-mother of Spain returned him an answer the 21st of the same month, wherein with great modesty and reason, she laid open the injustice of his pretensions and proceedings; but told him, since he desired an accommodation, she was willing to agree to it, and desired him to name commissioners, and appoint a place of treaty; but the French king, that his conduct might be all of a piece, did not stay for her answer, went to his army eight days after the date of his letter, and made those surprizing conquests, which at that time alarmed and amazed all Europe: nay, he was so far from standing to his own proposal of an accommodation, that he rejected it with fury, when the Spanish ministry offered to agree to it, and to refer it to the arbitration of neighbouring princes.

All his neighbours being alarmed at his progress in Flanders, and his conquest of the French county, England and Holland clapped up a peace betwixt themselves; and the king of England brought Portugal to a peace with Spain. In 1668, the triple league between England, Holland, and Sweden, was concluded;

concluded; which put a stop to the arms of France, and brought on the treaty of Aix la Chapelle at that time. This treaty saved the remainder of Flanders, and obliged the French king to restore the French county, after demolishing all its strengths; but he still retained and had confirmed to him for ever, Charleroy, Binch, Aeth, Doway, Fort Scarpe, Tournay, Oudenard, Lisle, Armentiers, Courtray, Berges, and Furnes, with all their appurtenances and dependencies. Yet the French king, far from being satisfied with this, and knowing that the triple league was an invincible barrier against his design of grasping the universal monarchy, he resolved to break it; and for that end sent over the duchess of Orleans, who had an interview with her brother king Charles II. at Dover, in 1670, and not only prevailed with that prince to disengage himself from that alliance, but to concert measures with France to carry on a joint war against the Dutch, which broke out in 1672. The reason of his attacking the Dutch was, that he knew they were concerned in interest, as well as obliged by treaty, to prevent his getting any more of the Netherlands into his possession.

The motive which moved our king Charles II. to join with him was, the assurance given him by his sister the duchess of Orleans, in the name of the most Christian king, that he would assist him to attain an absolute authority over his parliament, and to establish popery in his dominions; as we are informed by the History of the War with Holland, printed at Paris in 1682, with the French king's allowance, but afterwards suppressed; and the count de Maiolo who wrote it, was put into the Bastille, upon complaint of the English ambassador, because it discovered the secret transactions betwixt the two courts. The French king likewise engaged the emperor to approve the confederacy against the Dutch, on condition that he should not invade the empire nor the Spanish dominions. And all things being thus prepared, he actually invaded their provinces, and brought that republic to the brink of ruin. His treachery in this was so much the more palpable, that it was not only contrary to treaty, but without any declaration of war, or demand of reparation for any injuries real or supposed: though the States wrote very respectfully to him upon his preparations in 1671, and promised to make him all reasonable satisfaction if they had failed towards him in any thing. King Charles II. of England followed his example in this, and attacked the Dutch East-India ships in their return home, without any declaration of war.

The French king and he published their declarations afterwards, as did the bishops of Cologne and Munster; but all of them so frivolous, that every body perceived that there was something else at bottom than what was pretended in those declarations. The Dutch published answers to them severally, wherein they sufficiently exposed the treachery of all the four, and the falseness of their pretensions. Thus the French king engaged king Charles II. in treachery and perjury with himself. But the English being dissatisfied with the measures of our court and the progress of the French king, it encouraged the Dutch to send deputies to England to solicit a peace. King Charles accordingly sent over four persons of quality to confer with the States and prince of Orange, to whom they pretended that the king designed only to humble, but not to ruin them; and that being alarmed at the progress of France, he was much inclined to their interest. This was nothing in effect but a French artifice, for the same persons renewed a treaty with the French king for three years, and both of them delivered their demands to the Dutch; which were so extravagant, that the States resolved to risk all rather than agree to them, and applied to the empire for assistance. In 1674, the parliament of England being uneasy at the war with Holland, a separate peace was made with the Dutch and Spain, and a great part of the empire declared in their favour; which, together with the admirable conduct of the prince of Orange, retrieved their affairs. The French king continued his war, however, upon the Spaniards, which occasioned a treaty of defensive alliance betwixt the king of England and the Dutch; which was followed by another soon after, and by a third, by which the Spaniards were considerable losers. For instead of Charleroy, Binch, Aeth, Oudenard, and some other parts of his conquests, which the French king restored to Spain, he had the French county, the towns of Besançon, Valenciennes, Bouchain, Condé, Cambray, with the Cambresis, Aire, St Omers, Ypres, Warwick, Warneton, Poperingen, Bailleul, Cassel, Bavay, and Maubeuge, with their dependencies, confirmed to him for ever, as appears by the treaty of NIMEGUEN.—By this means the Spaniards entirely lost the French county, and had but a weak barrier in Flanders: yet the French king not being satisfied with this, did, according to his usual way of observing treaties, presently after the peace, set up claims to several of the most considerable places of Flanders, &c. under the pretence of re-unions, dependencies, &c. but knowing these titles to be weak, he backed them with a powerful army; and, having secured the friendship of our king Charles II. he did not much value any other opposition. He took Luxemburg, put the Spanish provinces under contribution, and miserably harrassed them; but being sensible that

he could not be long without opposition in these unjust proceedings, he proposed a separate and advantageous alliance with the Dutch, who rejected it, because they saw the snare laid for them: and king Charles II. of England being uneasy at home, because of the too well-grounded jealousies that the nation had of his popish and arbitrary designs, he proposed by Mr Henry Sidney, afterwards earl of Romney, a treaty of guaranty to enforce that of Nimeguen, refused to settle the limits between him and Spain in the NETHERLANDS, according to that treaty, and forced the king of Spain to renounce his title of duke of Burgundy.

He proceeded in the same treacherous manner against the empire; and contrary to the treaties of WESTPHALIA and NIMEGUEN, continued his troops in the empire, refused to evacuate the places there, which he ought to have done by the treaty of Nimeguen, demanded contributions, obliged the ten towns of ALSACE to swear to him as their sovereign, and the vassals and nobles of the country the like; he erected new courts of appeals there, and forbade appeals to the imperial chamber at Spire. He likewise set up pretensions to the sovereignty of the jurisdictions of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and to other imperial states and countries; confiscated the revenues of the chapter of Strasbourg, made new fortifications at Schlestadt and Huningen, refused to restore Montbelliard, dismounted Ducksburgh, took Homburg, Bitsch, and raised new pretensions on Strasbourg: all which were complained of in the diet of the empire, and represented to the French king, who was so far from thinking himself bound by the most sacred treaties and oaths, that instead of redress, he invaded the Palatinate, surprized Strasbourg by treachery; and, in order to grasp the universal monarchy, did all that he could by fraud or force to get the DAUPHIN chosen king of the ROMANS.

Much about the same time, in order to make himself master of Italy; and particularly of the Spanish dominions there, he purchased CASAL from the duke of MANTUA, and by his intrigues with the duchess regent of SAVOY, endeavoured to possess himself of the dominions of her son, then but fourteen years of age, on pretence of sending him to Portugal to be matched with the infanta, and in her right to enjoy that crown. But this design was happily defeated by the nobility of SAVOY.

All these things together brought on the league of AUGSBURG in 1683, by the emperor, the king of Sweden, the states of Holland, and several circles of the empire, of which league the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. was the main instrument. In 1684, the French king continued his conquests in the SPANISH NETHERLANDS; but, perceiving the vigorous opposition he was like to meet with from the prince of Orange, by virtue of the Augsburg league, he proposed a twenty years truce with the persons concerned in it, and also with the king of Spain: which being accepted, he secured himself of all that he had treacherously taken from the Spaniards, except COURTRAYE and DIXMUDE, which he restored after demolishing the fortifications.

It appeared, however, afterwards, that the French king entered into this twenty years truce, with the same treacherous intentions that he had formerly entered into all his other leagues; and when king James II. came to the crown of Great-Britain, he thought himself sure by his interest and long alliance with that prince, where weakness and bigotry had made him his tool, to accomplish his ambitious designs. He put him upon the same design of subverting the English parliament, and of establishing POPERY in his dominions, as he had done his brother king Charles II. Which England being sensible of, they soon grew discontented, and being unwilling to be brought under the cursed yoke of POPERY and SLAVERY, they made application to the immortal prince of Orange for assistance, to free themselves from the intended bondage, in which the States of Holland cheerfully concurred. The French king perceiving this from their preparations, he ordered the count D'Avaux his minister, in 1688, to acquaint the States that he should look upon their first act of hostility against king James, as a manifest rupture with himself, because of the engagements of friendship and alliance betwixt him and that prince. This was an interposition which the French king was no ways concerned to make, had it not been for the treacherous alliance he had made with king James, contrary to the twenty years TRUCE and the TREATIES before-mentioned.

The states of Holland were not to be frightened, however, by this memorial of the French ambassador, but came to a resolution to assist the prince of Orange in his expedition to England; upon which occasion, the Dutch take notice of the strict alliance between those two kings to deprive the state of their allies, and to overturn it. This expedition brought on the late happy revolution, which disconcerted the French king's measures; whereupon, contrary to the twenty years truce, he treacherously invaded the empire, and besieged and took PHILIPSBURG, &c.

It is fit to observe here, that this very step discovered his treachery also to king James: since it would have been a much more effectual assistance to him to have invaded the NETHERLANDS, which must needs have hindered the States

of Holland from lending their army to the prince of Orange, as he might have sent troops to England to assist king James here. But this did not suit with his designs: for he believed, no doubt, that England must needs be engaged in a civil war by that expedition, and he thought it his interest to let Great-Britain be weakened by sheathing their swords in one another's bowels, that they might not be able afterwards, upon the turn of affairs, to put a stop to his ambitious designs of universal monarchy, as they had done several times before: and thus he sacrificed his dear friend and ally king James.

These treacherous proceedings of the French king occasioned declarations of war on both sides, and the allies in theirs charged the French king home with his treacheries. That of the States of Holland charge him, (1.) With invading them in 1672, in a time of profound peace, contrary to solemn treaties then in being, for no other reason, as he expresses himself, but for the increase of his honour and glory. (2.) With the breach of the treaty of Nimeguen in 1678. (3.) With laying exorbitant duties upon their navigation and commerce, contrary to the said treaty. (4.) With disturbing their navigation as well within as without Europe, and attacking their men of war in time of peace, with a manifest design to ruin their trade, and rejecting all their desires of redress with scorn. (5.) That during his persecution of his own protestant subjects, he had also involved their protestant subjects residing in France in the same calamity, and treated them barbarously, contrary to the law of nations and express treaties; parted wives from their husbands, and children from their parents; imprisoned their subjects, refused them leave to withdraw, and barbarously used their consuls. (6.) That he threatened the States for making alliances for their own defence, which, it is allowable to all sovereigns, they had a liberty to do by the treaty of Nimeguen. (7.) That in time of peace, contrary to the said treaties, he had seized the vessels, persons, and goods of their subjects in his dominions; ill used their merchants and traders, clapped them up in prison, and sold their ships, because they would not change their religion. (8.) That his troops had burnt and plundered several places in their dominions, before the war was declared, or at least on the same day, for no other reason, but because they made some extraordinary levies for their own security against his private designs, of which they were too well informed.

The governor of the SPANISH NETHERLANDS, in his declaration of war against France, charges the French king, (1.) With declaring war against the Netherlands in April 1689, for no other reason, but because the king of Spain had entered into an alliance with other princes and states, for his own defence. (2.) With bringing the Turks upon Hungary, and endeavouring to prevent a peace betwixt the emperor and his allies, and the OTTOMAN PORTE.

King William and queen Mary, in their declaration against France, charge him, (1.) With invading the territories of the emperor and empire, their allies; and laying them waste in a barbarous manner, contrary to treaties wherein England was concerned as guarantee. (2.) With many injuries against themselves and their subjects, without giving reparation, though they had not been taken due notice of, for reasons well known to the world. (3.) With invading our trade and settlements in NEWFOUNDLAND, from the governor of which the French did formerly take licence to fish. (4.) With invading our CARIBBEE ISLANDS, and possessing himself of NEW YORK and HUDSON'S BAY in a hostile manner, and treating the inhabitants with the utmost barbarity, while at the same time his ministers were negotiating a treaty in England for a NEUTRALITY and GOOD CORRESPONDENCE in AMERICA. (5.) With his countenancing the seizure of our ships by his privateers; forbidding the importation of a great part of our products, and laying exorbitant customs upon the rest, with a design to destroy our trade and navigation. (6.) With disputing our right to the FLAG, and barbarously persecuting our protestant subjects in his dominions, contrary to the law of nations and express treaties, and forcing them to abjure their religion by unheard-of cruelties; imprisoning and sending to the galleys our merchants, masters of ships, and seamen. (7.) With having promised assistance to overthrow the government of England, and invading the kingdom of Ireland.

During the course of the war, which followed these declarations, he treacherously brought the duke of Savoy to break the alliance, and to enter into a separate peace with him.

We may also take notice here, that during the said war, it appeared plain by the confession of Grandval, and others executed abroad, and by the trial of Sir William Perkins, Charnock, King, and Keys, &c. executed here, that he was engaged with the late king James in several plots to assassinate king William and queen Mary; which is most cruel practice in private persons, but so superlatively vile and abominable in one prince towards another, that the most brutal of human savages have held it in abhorrence and detestation.

The war was at last concluded by the treaty of RYSWIC in 1697. But it soon appeared, that the French king entered into that treaty with no other design than to break it, as soon as he could with safety and advantage: and as the States of

Holland charge him in their manifesto of 1702, he did it with no other view than to induce the confederates to lay down their arms, to disband their troops, and to separate them from one another, in order to weaken and ruin them: for that part of the treaty with the Dutch, which related to traffic and commerce, was scarce well ratified, when he began to invade the trade of their provinces, and openly refused to grant them the tariff stipulated in that treaty, and put their subjects and merchants to numberless troubles on that head, and the States to a tedious and expensive negotiation. After which they were obliged to submit to a disadvantageous tariff, contrary to the tenor of that treaty, rather than hazard a new war: and though it was also stipulated by the said treaty, that the Dutch subjects who settled in France to carry on their trade, should be exempted from the taxes and duties laid upon foreigners; yet he imposed excessive duties upon them, without giving any redress when demanded.

It is also well enough known, how they chicaned and trifled with us about restoring our Hudson's-Bay colony, and would never come to settle a tariff of trade with us. He treated the emperor and empire in the same manner, and broke that treaty, by refusing for a long time to restore the fortress of Brisac, and by the injuries and damages he did to the house of Montbelliard, and countenancing a treacherous explanation of the fourth article of Ryswic, by which the protestants of the empire were persecuted: nor was he any thing more punctual, as to what he ought to have restored to the crown of Spain by that treaty. But notwithstanding these new instances of his perfidiousness and treachery, king William and the States-General being willing to secure the peace of Europe, if possible, and to prevent a new war about the succession to the crown of Spain, upon the death of king Charles II. who was then in a languishing condition; they entered first into a treaty of PARTITION with the French king for settling the succession of Spain on the electoral prince of Bavaria, on condition that Naples, Sicily, Guipuscoa, &c. should be granted to the Dauphin, and the duchy of Milan to archduke Charles. But the prince electoral happening to die, they came to a second treaty of partition, by which the Dauphin was to have Naples, Sicily, &c. and the duchies of Lorraine and Bar, for which the duke of Lorraine was to have the duchy of Milan, and all the rest of the Spanish dominions were to be given to the archduke and his heirs for ever. The French king entered into these treaties with all possible protestations of sincerity, and pretended he had no other design in so doing, but to preserve the peace of Europe, and to remove all obstacles that might interrupt the same. That treaty was no sooner concluded, than it manifestly appeared that the French king never intended to keep it; for he immediately used all manner of artifices in the court of Spain, not only to render the emperor odious to the Spaniards, but likewise to oblige king Charles II. to dispose of his succession by will in favour of France.

Here also it is fit to observe his treachery to king James II. his kinsman and ally, whose interest with that of his pretended son and daughter, he sacrificed to the treaty of partition, contrary to solemn treaties, and all the rules of gratitude, since that unfortunate prince had ruined himself by following his measures.

The author of the fable of the LION'S SHARE, verified in the treaty of partition, who was an able writer employed by the imperial court, makes these judicious remarks upon the design of the French king in the treaty of Ryswic, and those of the partition. (1.) That he sacrificed so many places of importance which he had fortified at a vast charge, besides several provinces that he had conquered, and exposed his own frontiers, by demolishing many strengths, merely that he might have an opportunity of usurping the monarchy of Spain. It was this alone that made the peace of Ryswic absolutely necessary to him; for it is well known, that when he concluded that treaty, he had the advantage of the allies by arms. (2.) His design by the treaties of partition was, to divide the allies among themselves, and to break the two maritime powers, and the elector of Bavaria, with the house of Austria; who he had reason to think would never agree to it, and could scarce ever enter into a friendship again with the English and Dutch, for abandoning them in this manner, since by the fourth article of the first grand alliance, none of the allies were to conclude a peace, 'till the treaties of Westphalia, Osnaburg, Munster, and the Pyrenees, were vindicated, and all things restored according to the tenor of the same. (3.) Considering the weakness of the house of Austria, and their then circumstances, he made no doubt either to bring them to agree to the treaty, or afterwards to break with the allies and join with himself, upon granting them better terms. (4.) Having by this means engaged the maritime powers to acknowledge the electoral prince of Bavaria's right, notwithstanding the renunciation of his mother the archduchess to all the dominions of Spain upon her marriage with his father, he knew it laid a foundation for the dauphin afterwards to dispute his right to the whole with that prince, notwithstanding the renunciation of his mother the late queen of France; who being a daughter of Spain, he was nearer in blood to that crown than the electoral prince.

That

That same author adds, That the Spaniards finding themselves deprived of their allies by this treaty, and their monarchy dismembered, it was a powerful argument to induce them rather to accept of a son of France, than to suffer themselves to be torn in pieces, and their monarchy partitioned. He is very modest, however, as to the motives, which he thinks might have induced king William and the States to enter into this treaty; and supposes, that perceiving the French king ready to break out into a war to make good his pretensions to the Spanish monarchy, when England and Holland were not prepared to resist him, he designed, like a wise politician, to charm the storm with a negotiation; and upon that account was not unwilling that the French king should publish the treaty, by which the house of Austria may take the alarm, and enter into proper measures to prevent it.

But be that how it will, when the king of Spain died, the French king, who had secretly broke that treaty before, by procuring a will which settled the whole Spanish monarchy on the duke of Anjou, then publicly avowed it; and by a jesuitical distinction betwixt the spirit and the letter of the treaty, he preferred that will to the treaty of partition, and advanced his grandson to the throne of Spain, not only contrary to all these treaties, but also contrary,

1. To the laws of the kingdom, which do not allow the alienation of that crown, nor that it should be placed on the head of a stranger; the succession being settled by consent of the States on the house of Arragon, from whom the house of Austria is lineally descended.

2. It was contrary to the renunciation made by Lewis XIII. and the infanta Mary-Anne his wife, at the time of their marriage, the validity of which was not then disputed.

3. It was against the renunciation made by the French king and his wife the famous Mary Teresa, at the time of their marriage, and the oaths which both of them swore on the altar.

4. It was against the treaty of the Pyrenees, of which that renunciation was one of the chief articles.

5. It was contrary to the will of Philip IV. pursuant to that renunciation.

6. It was contrary to all the arguments formerly made use of by Lewis XIV. against the renunciations above-mentioned; which made him guilty of the same injustice to the Dauphin and duke of Burgundy, that he himself had charged upon the said renunciations.

7. It was expressly against the civil law, and the decretal of pope Boniface VIII. which says, 'That every renunciation made upon oath by a daughter above 12 years of age, in favour of her father, in order to contract a marriage, by which a sufficient dowry is assigned her, ought to be good in law, though she be then under the jurisdiction of her father.'

As to the pretended will of king Charles II. of Spain, by which the duke of Anjou claims the crown, we may observe, (1.) That it is contrary to the will of his father, which was founded upon a treaty with consent of the States, and the solemn renunciation of two successive kings and queens of France, ratified by the legislative power of France and Spain; which is no great argument of the piety of those that put him upon making it, or rather signing it. (2.) That it was contrary to a will which he made but a little before in favour of the archduke, to his repeated assurances to the emperor, and to his known inclinations. All which make it evident, that it was an imposition upon him when he was struggling with the pangs of death, and in no condition to peruse, much less to compose, such a will.

To return to the treaty of partition; the French king not only broke it, but upbraided king William and the Dutch with it in such a manner, as discovered both his treachery and ingratitude: for in his memorial after the king of Spain's death, he charges the treaty of PARTITION with being productive of infinite troubles and misfortunes common to all Europe: which was a full proof of his wicked design and insincerity, when he solicited the English and Dutch to enter into it. For here he acted the part of the great enemy of mankind, first to tempt, and then to accuse. In that same memorial he reflected upon them, as having no right to those dominions, which were allotted him by the treaty; by which he charges them as usurpers, and meddling where they had nothing to do: though upon the first publication of the partition treaty, he joined with them in their memorials to the other potentates of Europe; wherein it was expected, that the design of the treaty was to preserve the peace of Christendom; and that the partitioning of the Spanish monarchy for that end, was as necessary as the pulling down or blowing up a street or some houses during a fire, to prevent a whole city's being consumed.

He discovered his ingratitude still further, by charging the maritime powers with insincerity, in demanding what they never designed to obtain; and the Dutch in particular, with framing views contrary to the interest of their republic: and that neither we nor they stipulated any advantage to ourselves. The design of this was to insence the subjects of England and Holland against their respective governments, as if they had concerted measures with France, prejudicial to their

trade and liberty: and we know well enough what use the disaffected faction made of this in England, when in parliament they charged the king with having made a felonious treaty, and impeached his ministers for consenting to it.

The French king having thus seized the Spanish monarchy, by virtue of that pretended will, one would have thought he should have piously observed the contents of it; but he was so far from doing so, that, according to his usual treachery, he broke in upon it in many instances, and particularly by sending Frenchmen to possess the chief trusts of the kingdom, and to govern their councils, contrary to the 23d article, by which king Charles II. ordered that each of his kingdoms should be governed by natives, without any innovation.

This treachery and ingratitude of the French king brought on the then confederacy, wherein the late king William III. was the chief instrument, but died before the war was declared. Her majesty queen Anne, who succeeded to his designs at first for the public welfare of Europe, as well as to his crown, published her declaration of war against France on the 4th of May, 1702, which was less than two months after king William's death. Her majesty charges him there with unjust usurpations and encroachments; with keeping possession of a great part of the Spanish dominions; with exercising an absolute authority over all that monarchy; with seizing MILAN and the SPANISH LOW COUNTRIES, and making himself master of the entrance into the MEDITERRANEAN, and of the ports of the SPANISH WEST-INDIES, with a design to invade the liberties of Europe, and to obstruct the freedom of navigation and commerce.

It is fit to be observed here, that, before the death of king William, the French king had declared the pretender to be king of Great-Britain and Ireland, which was directly contrary to the 1st and 4th articles of the treaty of Ryswick, by which he was bound to a perpetual peace and sincere friendship with king William, to promote his interest, honour, and advantage, and tied up from affording any assistance, directly or indirectly, to any enemy or enemies of king William, and in no manner whatsoever to favour the conspiracies and plots which any rebels, or ill-disposed persons, may in any place excite or contrive against the said king; and that he would not assist with arms, or any other way, any person or persons who should hereafter, under any pretence whatsoever, disturb or molest the said king of Great-Britain in the free and full possession of his kingdom, &c.

Upon this her majesty, in her said declaration, takes notice that the French king, instead of giving that satisfaction for his contravention of the above-mentioned treaties, which ought justly to have been expected, not only proceeded to further violence, but added thereto a great affront and indignity to her majesty and her kingdoms, in taking upon him to declare the pretended prince of Wales king of England, Scotland, and Ireland; and had also influenced Spain to concur in the same affront and indignity, as well as in other oppressions.

The States-General, in their manifesto, recapitulate the French king's former breach of treaties, and particularly that of Ryswick; wherein, besides the other infractions already mentioned, they charge him also with breaking the treaty of PARTITION, notwithstanding the repeated protestations he had made never to depart from it: and that he had violated the same, without giving any previous communication of his intention to those with whom he had made it, alleging, for his principal motives, that the SPIRIT and SENSE of the said treaty, and not the LETTER, were to be regarded; and explained that SPIRIT and SENSE in his own way. He threatened them, at the same time, if they did not concur with him, which they justly observed was an uncommon, as well as unheard-of, breach of faith, and a dangerous instance, which tended for the future to undermine and ruin the faith of all PUBLIC TREATIES. They charged him likewise with having possessed himself of the Spanish dominions, contrary to the treaty of PARTITION, without any regard to the emperor's pretensions; which being the foundation of it, the greatest part of the Spanish monarchy was thereby yielded to the archduke. He likewise, contrary to that, and former treaties, had possessed himself of the SPANISH NETHERLANDS, notwithstanding they had garrisons there by the consent of the king of Spain, for the security of the country; by which the French deprived them of the BARRIER he had settled by former treaties, and particularly by that of the partitions, and had procured an absolute surrender of those provinces from his grandson, whose dominions he governed in as absolute a manner as if France and Spain were one and the same kingdom. He also endeavoured to force the States into a separate treaty, without their allies; and, to compel them to it, seized Liege, and the most considerable places of the electorate of Cologne, that he might invade them on all sides, as in 1672, and for that same end raised a considerable number of troops in the country of Wolfenbuttle. He likewise seized all the harbours of SPAIN, NAPLES, and SICILY, and other islands in the MEDITERRANEAN, and also of the SPANISH NETHERLANDS and the WEST-INDIES, to make himself entire master of the commerce of EUROPE, and to exclude them and other nations

tions from it. He endeavoured likewise to persuade the king of Portugal to deny them his harbours, and sent a squadron to the West-Indies, to seize the PLATE-FLEET, in which the subjects of the States, and of other princes and potentates, had so great a share; and at the same time he endeavoured to AMUSE them with a treaty for a GENERAL PEACE, though he erected a fort in the Netherlands, within cannon-shot of one belonging to the States, contrary to a treaty agreed on with Spain in 1648, contrary to the laws of nations, and those of war.

The emperor, in his declaration, charges the French king with the breach of the treaty of Ryswick, and of the Pyrenees; with seizing several hereditary countries belonging to the house of Austria; with invading the empire, and seizing several of his fiefs; with supporting the elector of Cologne in his disobedience, and his grandson, the duke of Anjou, in usurping several titles, as that of duke of Austria, count of Hapsburg and Tyrol, &c. which belonged to none but the archducal house. In the last place, with seizing the dominions of Spain, on pretence of a will contrived by some bribed Spanish counsellor, according to the direction of the French king, which was offered to the king of Spain when he was so weak in body and mind, as not to be able to read or understand, much less to weigh and examine, as was necessary, the large contents of the said will; which of itself was full of falsties, and incomprehensible contradictions, as well as contrary to the intention of the said king, which he had so often signified to the emperor.

All these things being considered, we may justly say that there was never a prince in the world, and much less any who assumed the title of Christian, whose reign affords so many instances of studied and deliberate perjury, and breach of solemn treaties; nor have we an instance of any prince that ever pretended to the belief of a God, that so frequently profaned his name by the breach of public oaths, or that played fast and loose in such a manner with things that they themselves accounted sacred: so that, like another Pharaoh, he all along bid defiance to the Almighty, and it was the language of his practice, though not of his mouth. Who is the Lord, that I should obey him?

Though the divine vengeance punished him in a remarkable manner, by the defeats of his armies, and desolating judgments upon his dominions, he went on still in his obstinate perjuries and usurpations, and had so chicaned with the Confederates in the business of the preliminaries to the peace of Utrecht, and so egregiously imposed upon the nation in that treaty, and attempted to do so infinitely more than he did, by an infamous treaty of commerce; that we have all imaginable reason ever to distrust the sincerity of a court that has proved so dishonourable, especially if we have sufficient cause to believe, that the same system of disturbing the tranquillity of Europe still prevails, in order to aspire at that universal empire which they have so long had in view.—And what advances they have really made thereto in EUROPE, which seem not to be duly noticed, will appear from what we have urged under the article FRANCE, which the reader is desired to refer to: how far, likewise, their system tends to destroy the ballance of commerce and empire in AMERICA, the reader is desired to turn to our REMARKS on the article BRITISH AMERICA: see also our articles NORTH CAROLINA, CANADA, LOUISIANA, PENNSYLVANIA, and FRENCH AMERICA, and all others to which we refer from those.—And still to confirm our opinion that we have entertained of the measures of this nation, ever since the last treaty of Aix la Chapelle, we shall conclude this head of Plantations with the two following speeches of governor Shirley, of New England.

REMARKS before the last war.

Whilst I have been drawing up this article, the public have had communicated from Boston in New England, the authentic speech of governor Shirley, which, as it gives an account, that may be depended on, of the conduct of the French in that part of America, we judge it necessary to give the same a place in this work.

The speech of his excellency William Shirley, Esq; to the great and general court, or assembly, of the province of the Massachusetts Bay in New England, March 28, 1754.

Gentlemen of the council and house of representatives,

Having received, in the recess of the court, some dispatches, which nearly concern the welfare of the province, I thought it necessary to require a general attendance of the members of both houses at this meeting of the assembly, that the matters contained in them may have as full and speedy a consideration as the importance of them seem to demand.

By account sent from Richmond Fort, and declarations made before me and his Majesty's council, by two of the settlers at Francfort, upon the river Kennebeck, I am informed, that, in the summer before last, a considerable number of French settled themselves on a noted carrying-place, made use of by the several Indian tribes inhabiting that part of the country in their passage to and from Canada, which separates the head of the aforesaid river from that of the river

Chaudiere, which last falls into the great river St Lawrence, at four miles and a half above the city of Quebec.

And I have received further intelligence, that the French are settled very thick for twelve miles on each side of the said river Chaudiere, at about 30 miles distance above the mouth of it, and in the mid-way between the river St Lawrence and the before mentioned carrying-place; and the captain of Richmond Fort, in his letter dated the 23d of last January, informs me, that the Norridgwalk Indians have declared to him, 'That they had given the new French settlers upon the carrying-place liberty to hunt any where in that country, as a recompence for the great service they will be of to them, in a time of war with the English, by supplying them with provisions and military stores.'

The same officer further acquaints me, in another letter, dated February the 11th, that several Indians of the Arreffigunticook, and some of the Penobscot tribe, amounting, together with the Norridgwalk Indians, to 600 effective men, besides boys capable of bearing arms, were then lately arrived in the neighbourhood of the fort under his command: and that, though they assembled there on pretence of writing a joint letter to me, as they have done, yet he had reason to expect, from their haughty insolent behaviour, the repeated open threats of some of them, and the private warnings from others, that, as soon as the rivers should be free from ice, they would commit hostilities against the English, upon that and neighbouring rivers; in which they intimate, they are to be assisted by a number of French from Canada, disguised like Indians. And in another letter, dated the 10th of March, he acquaints me, that the French priest, missionary to the Indians of the river Kennebeck, appeared to him to be continually using artifices to excite the Indians to prevent our settlements from being extended higher up it, to set them at variance with the English, and dispose them to a war with them this spring.

Most of these accounts are confirmed by the declarations of the before-mentioned settlers at Frankfort, with the additional circumstances, that the French priest had been very inquisitive after Roman Catholic families in this settlement, and used endeavours to draw off some of the inhabitants into the service of the French, particularly for building a chapel and a dwelling-house for himself upon that river, about three or four miles above Cushana, and at a distance of 24 from Frankfort, and been very industrious to persuade them that it was within the French territories; and the Indians have further declared, that they have been instigated by the governor of Canada, to hinder the English from settling upon any part of the river; which is strongly confirmed by a deposition of Capt. Lithgow, made in August last.

Upon this occasion, gentlemen, I sent as soon as might be, with the advice of his Majesty's council, the necessary reinforcements of men and stores to all the eastern forts, issued commissions for raising six independent companies in the townships and districts next adjacent, with orders for the officers and soldiers to hold themselves in constant readiness to march, upon any alarm, to the succour of any neighbouring fort or settlement which may be attacked, to cut off the enemy in their retreat; and, in case that they should find that the Norridgwalk Indians have committed hostilities, to break up their villages and settlements upon Kennebeck, and to kill or captivate all they can meet with of their tribe: I likewise ordered an officer, commissioned by me for that purpose, to proceed, by the first opportunity, to the supposed place of the new French settlement, in order to discover the certainty and circumstances of it, and to require the French commandant to retire and withdraw the people under his command from that spot, as being under his majesty's dominions, and within the limits of this government.

And I doubt not, gentlemen, from your distinguished zeal for the defence of his Majesty's territories, and the protection of his subjects within this government upon all occasions, but that, upon a refusal of the French to comply with that requisition, you will make sufficient provision for enabling me to compel them, with the armed force of the province, to free us from their encroachments.

The concern, gentlemen, which you expressed in your message to me at our meeting in December last, upon your apprehensions of the imminent danger which the province was in, from the French having fortified themselves upon the river of St John's, close to our borders, leaves me no room to doubt of your being sensible of the fatal consequences in the general that must attend their encroachments, which it seems plain they are now pushing into the heart of the province (as the general court, in a vote passed the 16th of January, 1749, justly call the river Kennebeck) unless they are timely removed.

But it may not be improper for me to observe to you in particular, that it appears from extracts which I have lately caused to be made of some original letters taken among Father Ralle's papers, at the breaking up the Indian settlement at Norridgwalk in 1724, and which passed between him, Father Laverjat, priest of the Penobscot tribe, and Father La Chasse, superior of the Jesuits at Quebec, during the Indian war in the years 1723 and 1724; that the head of Kennebeck river, near which the Indians have declared the French have made

a new settlement, was the centre of most of the tribes then at war with us, and the general rendezvous of all that came to the eastern parts; the Hurons, the Iroquois of the falls of St Lewis, the tribe of St Francis (or Aressigunticooks) and the Indians of the seignory (as the French call them) of Becancour on the one hand, used to assemble with the Norridgewalks here, from their several settlements; and the Penobscots from their river, on the other: here they held their consultations, and from thence issued out in parties united or separate, as best suited them, against the English; hither they retired after action, and brought their wounded for relief; and here, if they met with provisions, they fared well; if not, they suffered greatly for want of them.

It appears further from these letters, that the several French missionaries chiefly conducted and managed this war; that they had the care of supplying the Indians with the necessary provisions and stores for carrying it on; were employed to make them persevere in it, and to push them on to their boldest enterprises; that they transmitted accounts of their proceedings to the government of Canada, through the hands of the superior of the Jesuits at Quebec, through whom likewise they received their directions from thence, as the governor of Canada seems to have done his, upon this occasion, from the court of France.

And I would further observe, that this route affords the French a shorter passage for making descents from Quebec upon this province, and destroying the whole province of Maine, with the king's woods there, and in the government of New Hampshire, than any other whatever from Canada. These advantages, which the possession of this river would give the French over this province, make it easy to account for their constant endeavours, ever since the treaty of Breda, at which it was determined, in the most solemn manner, between the two crowns, that the river Pentagoet, or Penobscot, was the boundary between New England and Acadia, or Nova Scotia, to extend the limits by claim upon all occasions (as in fact they have done) to the eastern side of the river Kennebeck; though they never attempted, until within these few years, to pass over the river St Lawrence, within the extent of this province.

I am satisfied it is needless for me, gentlemen, to urge any thing more to shew how necessary for the safety of this government it is, that we should secure to ourselves the possession of this important river, against the encroachments of the French, without delay: and I think the present situation of affairs in that country must convince you, how vain a scheme it would now be to have your sole dependence for gaining this point upon making annual presents to Indians, who appear to have entered into an offensive alliance with the French against you, and have shewed evident marks of a disposition to put the river into their power.

How different are such proceedings from those of the French? Whilst we have been suing in vain to a few Indians, for their permission to settle lands within the undoubted limits of this province, and which themselves cannot deny to have been purchased of their ancestors, and have in effect promised them a yearly tribute, to restrain them from committing acts of hostility against us, the French have marched armies into distant countries of numerous and powerful tribes, which, without any colour of right, they have invaded: they have forbid them to make further grants of any of their lands to the English, and have built, and are still building strong forts, with an avowed intent to drive them off from the lands already granted to them, and to exclude them from all commerce with those Indians, whom they have threatened with destruction, if they shall presume to interfere in their favour.

It is time, gentlemen, for you to desist from having your chief dependence upon temporary expedients, which seem rather to have exposed the government to the contempt of these Indians, than to have conciliated their friendship to it; and to take counsel in part from the policy of our neighbours.

Vigorous measures against the French, in case they shall refuse to quit his Majesty's territories within this government, without being compelled to it by force; building a strong fort near the head of the river Kennebeck, above the settlements of the Norridgewalk Indians, and pushing on our settlements upon it in a defensible manner, would effectually rid the province of the encroachments of the former, and either hold the latter in a due dependence upon us, or oblige them to abandon the river.

And further, by making ourselves, through this means, masters of the pass, which was the general place of rendezvous during the Indian war in 1723 and 1724, of all the tribes engaged in it, both in their incursions and retreats, we should have it in our power to curb all those Indians for the future, and in a great measure prevent them from attempting to make depredations in our exposed settlements.

I must further observe to you upon this occasion, gentlemen, how dangerous delays to make suitable preparations for removing the French would be.

How practicable was it, at first, to have put a stop to their proceedings in building their fort at Crown Point? And you can't but remember what mischievous effects of the neglect

to do that in the beginning, were felt by this and the province of New-York, in the ravages which they suffered from thence during the late war.

A short delay to dislodge them from their encroachments near the river Kennebeck, might give them an opportunity of making themselves masters of that river likewise, in the end; and in that case we may expect soon to see another fort built by them, near the mouth of it, and the French in possession of all the sea-coast between that and the river St John.

Gentlemen of the council and house of representatives.

I hope you will proceed in the consideration of these matters with that unanimity and dispatch which his Majesty's service and the safety of the province requires; and that you gentlemen of the house of representatives will make the necessary supplies.

Council-Chamber,
March 28, 1754.

W. SHIRLEY.

Boston, April 25, 1754.

On the 2d instant his Excellency was pleased to make the following speech to the great and general court, or assembly, then sitting here, viz.

Gentlemen of the council and house of representatives.

The occasion of my speaking to you now, is to acquaint you that I have received a letter from the right honourable the lords commissioners for trade and plantations, signifying to me, that his Majesty has been pleased to order a sum of money to be issued, for presents for the Six Nations of Indians, and to direct the governor of New York to hold an interview with them for delivering those presents, at such place and time as he shall appoint; and I am directed to lay this matter before you, and to recommend to you to make a proper provision for appointing commissioners from this government to meet commissioners of Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New Hampshire (to the respective governors of which colonies their lordships have wrote to the same effect) as also for making such presents as have been usual upon the like occasions.

I have likewise to acquaint you, that I find, by a paragraph of their lordships letter upon this occasion to the governor of New York, which his honour lieutenant-governor De Lancey, commander in chief of that province, hath communicated to me, that he is herein directed to take care that all the provinces be, if practicable, comprized in one general treaty, to be made in his Majesty's name.

And that Mr De Lancey hath given me notice, that he hath appointed the said interview to be held at the city of Albany, on the 14th of June next:

I am persuaded, gentlemen, I need not use arguments to convince you, that it is of very great consequence to the interests of his Majesty's colonies upon this continent at all times, that as many of the tribes of Indians inhabiting it as may be (those of the Six Nations more especially) should be kept in friendship with the English, and a dependence upon the crown of Great-Britain; and that as free a commerce and intercourse should be maintained with them as is possible; but I think it my duty, at this time, to enter into a particular detail of these matters.

At the treaty of Utrecht, which is confirmed by that of Aix la Chapelle, these were looked upon to be points of that importance to the British interest in North America, that care was taken in that treaty to have the Indians of the Six Nations acknowledged by France to be subject to the dominion of Great-Britain; and it is herein expressly stipulated, that the French shall give no hindrance, or molestation, either to them or the other natives of America, who were friends to the English: it is also stipulated, that the subjects of both crowns should enjoy full liberty of going or coming (upon this continent) on account of trade; and that the natives of the countries upon it should with the same liberty resort, as they please, to the British and French colonies, for promoting trade on the one side and the other, without any molestation or hindrance either on the part of the British subjects or the French.

With regard to the Indians of the Six Nations in particular, I would observe to you, that, according to an account given by them in an open council at Turpehawkie, at their return from the Indian treaty at Philadelphia in 1742, of the several Indian nations which have been conquered by them, and are now in their alliance, and trade with the English, and which seems to be depended upon, the warriors belonging to those tribes may be computed to amount to 16 or 17,000 at least; and one, who must be a good judge of the strength of the Five Nations themselves, upon being interrogated by me concerning the number of their fighting men, made answer, That he did not know their number, but well knew that they are a numerous people, a terrible body of men, and able to burn all the Indians in Canada.

You

You must be sensible, gentlemen, what frequent attempts the French have made, from time to time, to draw off the Six Nations from the English interest into their own; and from the repeated advices we have received from his Majesty's southern colonies on this continent, what efforts they have lately exerted to win over their allies, together with the other numerous tribes inhabiting the vast countries lying along the great lakes and rivers, and to the westward of the Apalachean Mountains (all which may be reckoned to exceed double the number of the Indians of the Six nations, and those in their alliance) as also what measures the French are taking to exclude the English from all trade and commerce with those Indians.

To compass this, they have, in manifest violation of the afore-said treaties, entered the country of these Indians, upon the back of his Majesty's southern colonies, and within the limits of his territories, with large bodies of troops, seized the effects, and captivated the persons of the English, whom they found trading there; absolutely denied their right to traffic with those nations, and erected a line of forts upon the lakes and rivers, from Canada to Mississippi, to cut off all commerce and intercourse between them; they have committed hostilities against some of the tribes in friendship with the English, engaged others to take up the hatchet against them, and threatened those with destruction who shall interfere with their avowed design to drive the English out of that country.

Should the Indians of the Six Nations, at this critical conjuncture, desert our alliance, and go over to the French, how fatal an influence must such an event have upon the British interest? On the other hand, should proper measures be taken to attach them finally to it, how greatly would it disappoint and check the present schemes and enterprizes of our dangerous neighbours?

It is well known how wavering the dispositions of these Indians have of late been, and how visibly they have abated their former enmity to the French; and we can't be at a loss to discover the real causes of it.

Nothing could at this time so effectually reclaim them to their old alliance with us, as the measures directed to by their lordships of the board of trade, one general league of friendship, comprizing all his Majesty's colonies, to be made with them in his Majesty's name, with stipulations to build such forts in their country as they shall chuse, and may be judged necessary for their shelter and protection against the French.

Such a coalition of the colonies for their defence, would be a convincing proof to them that they might safely depend upon his Majesty for protection, and confirm them in their ancient alliance with the English; and how necessary such a confederacy of the colonies for their safe-guard is, may appear to you from the following account, given by an Indian trader, who for more than 20 years had carried on a trade among the different nations of the Indians, some hundred miles west of Philadelphia, the truth of which I have great reason to depend upon, viz. 'That, at the commencement of the late war, he, with sundry other traders of the English, was taken prisoner by some Frenchmen belonging to a fort upon the river Ohio, and from thence was transported from fort to fort to Quebec; by means of which forts and the lakes, the French, he says, have a communication open from Quebec to Mississippi; that they have forts there within 20 or 30 miles distance from each other, with a command of from 10 to 20 men in each; in which, he says, they put the squaws and papooses of the Indians in alliance with them, for protection, whilst the men go out to war, and there keep them until the men return; and he observes, that, by means of these forts, they bid fair, in a little time, to reduce the Indians in alliance with the English, as the English do not afford the same protection to their women and children, whilst the men are gone to war, as the French do.'

I would therefore earnestly recommend to you, gentlemen of the house of representatives, to make suitable provision for sending commissioners on the part of this government, to join in the approaching interview at Albany, duly authorized to concert such measures, in conjunction with the government of New York, and commissioners of the before-mentioned governments, as shall be judged proper to be entered into for cementing a firm league of friendship with the Indians of the Six Nations, and retaining them in the British interest; and to give those commissioners full power to agree with the other governments upon the quota of money and men to be furnished by this province for this service.

I have taken the liberty to propose the same thing to be done by the other governments concerned in this interview, in my letters to his Majesty's governors, and against the present dangerous enterprizes of the French on every side of them.

I have already let you know, gentlemen, his Majesty's orders to me and his other governors upon this point, signified to us in the earl of Holderness's letter of the 18th of August last, and how necessary it is that such an union should be immediately formed in the common cause: whoever takes a survey of the whole extent of the invasions and encroachments

which the French are surrounding his Majesty's territories upon this continent with, from their most eastern to their most western limits, must soon be convinced.

Close on the back of the settlements of his Majesty's southern colonies, they are joining Canada to Mississippi, by a line of forts and settlements along the great lakes and rivers, and cutting off all commerce and intercourse between the English and the numerous powerful tribes of Indians inhabiting that country, whom they are attempting to engage in their interest by all manner of hostilities and artifices: and, at the same time, they are pushing on their encroachments with equal vigour quite round his Majesty's eastern colonies, where they have secured all the Indians in those parts to join them against the English.

Should the French prevail in the former part of their scheme, and gain a general influence and dominion over the Indians behind the Apalachean Mountains, which they must, in the ordinary course of human events, do in a short time; if they are not timely prevented by an union of his Majesty's colonies, they will have, in a few years, a most formidable army of those Indians at their command, maintained without any expence to themselves; but, on the other hand, with great profit arising from an immense furr-trade carried on with them: and what fatal consequences such an army of warriors (a few of which have been found sufficient to keep a large frontier in continual alarm) must have upon all his Majesty's southern colonies, by continually harrassing them, at the direction of the French, and supported by them from Canada on one side, and Mississippi on the other, and covered in their retreat behind the mountains by a strong line of forts, commanding the navigation of all the lakes and rivers, is easy to conceive; especially if the Indians of the Six Nations should desert our alliance, and join the French, which must, in such case, be a decisive blow to the British interest on that part of the continent.

At the same time, if they are not prevented by a coalition of the colonies, from finishing the scheme which it is most manifest they are forming against the eastern provinces, and already far advanced in, they must soon have it in their power equally to distress them likewise; and all the English colonies will be involved together in one general flame. It is true, those colonies are far superior to the French in their number and strength; but if that strength, gentlemen, is not properly exerted, by an union among themselves, how little will it avail? It is not difficult to imagine such a body of troops as the French may soon collect, together with the assistance of all the Indians scattered throughout this continent on the back of the English colonies (as the French settlements likewise are) when under the command of the governor-general of New France, who, upon all emergencies, can direct their force as he pleases, may reduce a number of disunited provinces, many of them very remote from each other, though much superior to them in point of the number of inhabitants.

For forming this general union, gentlemen, there is no time to be lost: the French seem to have advanced further towards making themselves masters of this continent, within these last five or six years, than they have done ever since the first beginning of their settlements upon it: and how determined they are to accomplish their scheme as soon as possible, appears from their breaking through the most solemn recent treaties and agreements made between the two crowns in order to effect it.

Gentlemen,

His Majesty hath given the strongest proof of his paternal care of his colonies, and constant attention to their safety, in directing his governors to promote this union within their respective governments: and I hope you will not be wanting on your parts to contribute all in your power towards effecting it, by improving the opportunity which the approaching interview with the Indians of the Six Nations at Albany happily presents for that purpose: and I doubt not but that you may depend on all reasonable support and protection on the part of his Majesty, against all present and future enterprizes and attempts of the French against you.

Council-Chamber, April 2, 1754.

W. SHIRLEY.

REMARKS on our article PLANTATIONS, since the last war and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

From the whole drift and tenour of what we urged under this article, one would be led to think, that we were possessed of the gift of political prophecy; every thing falling out, with respect to the last war with France and Spain, as we had prejudged, though this work was begun just after the peace of Aix la Chappelle: and the revival of the past perfidy of France could not be malapropos, as being intended to rouse and alarm us to guard against the treachery of that state. The precaution, we have all the way suggested, in relation to Spain joining France also, did not prove visionary: we have likewise pointed out what came to pass, in relation to the

the making the Mississippi the boundaries between Great Britain and Spain; and even suggested the total extirpation of France from the whole American continent: and if it should prove true, that France has actually ceded NEW ORLEANS, and their western parts of the MISSISSIPPI to Spain, it will manifest how far human foresight may reach in matters of a public nature, when a man is governed in his representations by facts and impartiality. See LEEWARD ISLANDS, AMERICA, COLONIES, MEXICO, FLORIDA, BAHAMA ISLANDS, NEWFOUNDLAND.

PODOLIA. This province has Volhinia on the north, the river Niefter on the south, which separates it from Moldavia, Oczrakow, Tartary, on the east, and the palatinate of Lemberg on the west. It is divided into Upper and Lower, and is 250 miles in length, and near 80 in breadth, according to Moll. It is exceeding fruitful, and abounds particularly with wax and honey, and asparagus grows wild in the fields: but the east part of this province, although it be good land, is in a manner a perfect desert, by reason of the frequent invasions and ravages of the Turks, Tartars, and Cossacks, to whose incursions the whole province is very subject.

The upper, which is the west part, is populous and fruitful, though mountainous in some parts, and abounds with honey; and the valleys are well watered by rivers. In several places it has sundry sorts of marble and alabaster.

CAMINIEC, the chief city of the Upper, and indeed of all Podolia, stands on the river Smotrzyck, which about 110 miles below, falls into the Niefter, not above 12 miles from the confines of Moldavia, 98 south-east from Lemberg, 224 east from Cracow, 230 south-east from Warsaw, and 480 north-west from Constantinople.

The **LOWER PODOLIA**, which is the east part, and also called, the palatinate of Braclaw, from its chief town on the river Bog, 40 miles from the confines of Moldavia, and 92 east from Caminiec.

POITOU, in France, is bounded on the east by Touraine, Berry, and La Marche, on the north by Anjou and Britany, on the west by the Ocean, and on the south by Aunis, Saintonge, and Angoumois. It is a large province, and more or less fruitful, according to the different situation of its several parts.

CHATELLERAUD is situated on the river Vienne. The inhabitants of this place are industrious, and inclined to trade. They make a great quantity of watches, clocks, knives, scissars, and other works of that kind. Their corn and wine they dispose of within the country, but they export some flax and hemp.

PARTENAY, has a pretty considerable trade in cattle and corn.

ST MAIXANT has a manufactory of woollen stockings, caps, and serges, which they sell within the kingdom and abroad: but their chief trade is in corn and all sorts of grain, and in oxen, sheep, horses, and mules, of which they sell a great many to the merchants of Auvergne, Lyons, Piedmont, and Savoy. They keep two markets weekly, and six fairs in the year.

FONTENAILLE-COMPTÉ, is a small, but well built city, with a pretty good trade. They make here cloths, and several other woollen stuffs.

NIORT, is situated on the river Sevre. Within the district of this city they drive a great trade in cattle, horses, and mules; and have in the city, manufactures of shamoy-leather, druggets, serges, and other woollen stuffs.

OLONE, is inhabited by people who apply themselves chiefly to the marine, and are very good seamen.

POLAND, as it is now extended, is bounded on the north with Livonia, Muscovy, and the Baltic; on the south with Upper Hungary, Transylvania, and Valachia, on the east with Moscovy, and Little Tartary; and on the west with Germany. Its extent is from the frontiers of Pomerania on the west, to the frontiers of Tartary on the south-east, about 700 miles; and from the frontiers of Livonia, to the Crapach, or Carpathian mountains, which are the limits of Hungary, on the south, above 600 miles.

By the situation, the climate is temperate, and the air not excessive cold; yet sometimes its lakes and rivers are so frozen, that coaches and carts pass over them for 5 or 6 months together. The soil also is generally fertile, fit for tillage and pasture, and produces a vast quantity of corn and cattle; even enough to feed the populous nation of Holland, who yearly send vast fleets to Dantzick to buy the corn and oxen, sent down thither from the several parts of Poland.

LITHUANIA, in particular, produces honey, wax, hemp, flax, leather, pot-ashes, salt, wood, saltpetre, vitriol, and quicksilver. With these staple commodities they purchase those of other nations, viz. wines, cloth, stuff, wrought-silks, tapestry, jewels, sables, martens, tin, steel, iron ware, brandy, and spices. The country of Poland, in general, produces also all kinds of fruits and herbs, and a good breed of horses; so that their cavalry is numerous, and well mounted. There are vines in many places, whose grapes are grateful to the taste, especially if the summer and harvest be favourable, but the wine generally is very sharp, when drawn off. In the moun-

tains there are mines of lead, silver, copper, and iron; but the most considerable of all, are the salt mines in Lesser Poland, which are the chief riches of the country, and bring most money into the Exchequer. They work in those mines as the colliers do in our coal pits. The salt is generally of a bluish colour, but some of it white and transparent. When it is dug it has a brackish taste; but when exposed to the air, it becomes brittle and more sweet. They have also some veins of fal-gemma. The woods are well stored with hares, coneys, squirrels, deer, foxes, bears, wolves, and boars. The Masovian forests have plenty of elks, wild asses, wild oxen, called uri, and buffaloes, whose flesh when powdered, the Poles esteem a great dainty. In the Ukraine there are wild horses also, whose flesh is equally esteemed by the nobility. The wolf, resembling a hart, or the European linx, called lupus cervarius, and by the natives ris, with spots on its belly and legs, affords the best furs in Poland. The quails in Podolia have green legs; it is said their flesh is unwholesome, and, if immoderately eaten, breeds the cramp.

It is a plain flat country, rather inclining to marsh lands; so that no considerable woods or mountains are found here, except those that make the frontiers to Hungary, which is a craggy ridge of 300 miles in length, and called the Crapach, or Carpathian Mountains. The eastern part of the country, indeed, is full of woods, forests, lakes, marshes, and rivers, which affords a delightful prospect to that part of it which is open. As for its rivers, the most considerable is the Vistula, the Niemen, or Cronus, the Nieper, or Borysthenes, the Niefter, or Tyras, the Bog, or Vagus.

The kingdom of Poland consists of these parts.

- I. Poland, properly so called, in the west.
- II. Prussia on the banks of the Baltic.
- III. The great dukedom of Lithuania in the east.
- IV. Samogitia and Courland, in the north.
- V. Warsovia, Polachia, and Polesia in the centre.
- VI. Red Russia, and Podolia, in the south.
- VII. Volhinia, and the Ukraine, in the east.

The subdivisions whereof are thus:

Poland, properly so called, is divided into the Upper and Lower.

Upper Poland, called also the Lesser Poland, contains the three Palatinates of Cracow, Sandomir, Lublin.

Lower or greater Poland, contains the Palatinates of Posenia, Kalisz, Brezesty, Wladislaw, Lencici, Inowloiz, Sirad, Rava, Ploezko, Dobrizin.

Prussia is divided into Royal, and Ducal.

Lithuania, is divided into the Palatinates of Witna, Troky, Breslaw, Novogrodeck, Minsky, Mzeczaw, Witepsk, Poloeza, Rosiem.

Samogitia hath these cities, Midnick, Schivende, &c.

Courland is divided into Semigallia, Courland.

Warsovia, otherwise called Masovia, hath one Palatinate of Czerskow, and the city of Warsaw.

Polachia, the Palatinate of Bielsk.

Polesia, Breslici, or Breste.

Red Russia contains three Palatinates, Lemberg, Belcz, Chelm.

Podolia, divided into Upper, wherein is the Palatinate of Caminiec. Lower, wherein is the Palatinate of Braclaw.

Volhinia, divided the Upper, which contains the Palatinate of Lufuck. The Lower, which is commonly called the Ukraine, contains the Palatinate of Kiow.

The Upper or Lesser Poland, is situated between the Lower Poland and Warsovia on the north, Hungary on the south, Red Russia on the east, and Silesia on the west, containing in extent, from east to west, near 200 miles, from north to south, about 120, lying between 49 and 51 degrees of latitude. The river Vistula, or Veissel, passes through it; the Warta hath its source here, and several other rivers water the land, which is reasonably fruitful, but over-run with woods.

It is divided into three Palatinates, wherein are these cities and chief towns, viz.

In the Palatinate of Cracow, being the south-west part of the province, are, Cracow, Novoguria, Severia, Czenzerow, Lelow, Oswieczin, Zator, Wieliczka, Bochna, Sandecz, Lubowla, Bryecz.

In the Palatinate of Sandomir, which is the middle part, are, Sandomir, Zawicheft, Cunow, Schidlowitz, Radom, Zarnaw, Malogocz, Pkzow, Wislickia, Corezin, Polaniez, Pilsno.

In the Palatinate of Lublin, which is the north-east part, are, Lublin, Kasimiers, Piotrowin, Urzendow, Epol, Scodlec.

The **PALATINATE** of **CRACOW** has Silesia on the west, the palatinate of Sandomir on the east, Hungary on the south, and Siradin on the north. There is a sort of manna in this country, which they gather in May and June, sweep it off the grass with sieves, together with the dew, and make several dishes of it.

CRACOW, **CRACOVIA**, the metropolis of this palatinate, and of the kingdom of Poland, is seated on a rocky bank of the river Vistula, about the middle of the Palatinate; 36 miles east from the confines of Silesia, 40 east from Germany, 44,

north from the confines of Upper Hungary, 86 south-west from Sendomir, 120 south-east from Almutz, and 127 from Breslaw, 135 south-west from Warsaw, and 185 north-east from Vienna, 173 north from Buda, 250 south from the Baltic Sea, 680 north-west of Constantinople, and near 720 west of Moscow.

Near this city are salt mines, of which Dr Conner gives this account. They were discovered in 1548, are about 300 geometrical paces in depth, and have so many alleys and passages, that one can scarce go over them all in a week.

They are generally so cold as is scarce to be endured, and the winds are sometimes so furious, that nothing can withstand them. The yearly revenue of these mines is about 400,000 French livres, of which 50,000 go to the king, 10,000 to the queen, and some thousands more to the officers of state; besides which, the proprietor is obliged to make a yearly present to all the cities of Poland, and their starostas.

The salt here is of four kinds; one extreme hard, like crystal; another softer, but clearer; a third white, but brittle: these are all brackish; but the fourth is somewhat fresher. On one side of these mines there is a stream of salt water, and on the other one of fresh.

The other towns of note in this palatinate, are,

ZATOR, on the south side of the Veissel, 22 miles south-west from Cracow, and 20 from the confines of Silesia.

SEVERIA is capital of a large duchy of the same name; in the neighbourhood are mines of silver and lead.

BIEEZ, 33 miles south-east of Cracow, is watered by the river Rapa, a branch of the Veissel, of whose froth they make sulphur. This town stands on the confines of the palatinate of Sendomir, and has good mines of vitriol in the neighbourhood.

SANDECZ, 24 miles south-east from Cracow, is noted for trade, the industry of the inhabitants, and some mines of gold and copper.

OSVIECZIN, 30 miles from Cracow, on the south side of the Veissel, near the river Sala, 12 miles from the borders of Silesia, is reckoned the capital of Polish Silesia. This town is a thoroughfare from Cracow to Vienna, and has a great trade in hard salt, of which there are great lumps exposed to sale in the public squares, of from 20 to 30 quintals in weight. It is dug out of the mines near Cracow, to the inhabitants of which, it is sold for 8, 10, or 12 florins each, and the others from 50 to 70.

CZENTOCHOW, 57 miles north-west from Cracow, and 70 east from Breslaw, stands on the river Warta, and the confines of Silesia. It is famous for good beer, transported over the nation and into Germany.

SLACOVEA, 25 miles north-west of Cracow, gives name to a duchy, and is noted for silver mines, which bring great profit to the bishop of Cracow.

PROSZOWICE, 10 miles north of Cracow, on the banks of the river Sozienova. The king has a palace there, in which is kept a provincial dyet.

ILEUSSIA, 20 miles west of Cracow, is a royal town, noted for silver and lead mines, and the best bread and beef in Poland.

WIELIEZ, 25 miles east from Cracow; and Bochnia, another town in the neighbourhood, are noted for quarries of excellent rock-salt, discovered in 1252, of which that of the latter is most transparent. The mines which are below the town, make one of the best branches of the revenue, and employ a thousand men and many horses. Such of them as work under-ground, grow blind, from the sharpness of the salt. Here are also several springs, the water of which is boiled into salt. Our Philosophical Transactions, N^o. LXI. p. 1099, call them salt-gem mines. Here are three sorts of salt, one coarse and black, another finer and whiter, and the third very white and clear, like crystal. The black salt is cut out into masses of three Polish ells long, and one in thickness. They lay the great pieces before the doors, that the cattle may lick them. These pieces are ground by mills and other engines.

This palatinate is small, exceeds all the rest in mines, except that of Sendomir only: for, beside those already mentioned, there are some, both of copper and gold, at Novoturgus; marble of all colours at Silesia; pit-coal at Tencinum; and iron mines, and glass-houses at Olstina.

The **PALATINATE** of **SENDOMIR** has that of Cracow on the west and south-west, Hungary on the south, Mazovia and Great Poland on the north, and Red Russia and the palatinate of Lublin on the east. It is divided into eight districts, and has nine senators, viz. the palatine and castellan of Sendomir, and the castellans of Wislicz, Radom, Zayichost, Zarnow, Malagosh, Polowicz, and Sechow. It abounds with mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, and marble, and has its name from its capital, viz.

SENDOMIR, on the west side of the Veissel, near its confluence with the San, 70 miles north-east of Cracow, and 75 south of Warsaw.

The other towns of any note, are,

KUNOW, 40 miles north of Sendomir, noted for quarries of marble of all sorts and colours.

SYDLOVEEZ, 40 miles north-west of Sendomir, is noted for store of timber, iron, and steel, in its neighbourhood, and plenty of fish.

VIARDEN, a new built town, of good trade much frequented.

ITZA stands on a river that falls into the Veissel, 70 miles north-east of Cracow, and furnishes all Poland with earthen ware.

KIELEZ is famous for mines of copper, and lapis lazuli.

CHENEIN, 12 miles east of Kielez, noted for mines of lead and silver, and quarries of marble.

LAGOVIA is a city famous for making earthen ware.

The **PALATINATE** of **LUBLIN** lies north-east from that of Sendomir, out of which it is taken; has Masovia on the north, with Podlachia; is bounded on the east by Lithuania, and the palatinate of Russia. It has two senators, viz. the Palatine and Castellan; and the Veissel and the Wieperd are its two chief rivers.

LUBLIN stands at the foot of a hill, near the river Ustrieza, 20 miles from the frontier of Red Russia, 35 west of Chelm, 56 north of Sendomir, 55 south-east of Warsaw, and 130 north-east of Cracow. It has a considerable trade, and is frequented by merchants of Turkey, Armenia, Muscovy, Germany, Italy, France, England, &c. at its four annual marts, which last each a month.

The **LOWER** or **GREAT POLAND**, is bounded on the north by Pomerania and Royal Russia, by the Upper or Lesser Poland on the south, by Silesia and the marquisate of Brandenburg on the west, and on the east by Masovia, or the duchy of Warsaw. It is 165 miles from south-east to north-west, and the like, where broadest, from east to west, according to those geographers who include Masovia in it: but, excluding this, which is rather a boundary than a subdivision of it, it is 200 from east to west, and about 100 from north to south.

It is, in general, a level champaign country, has pleasant rivers, lakes, and ponds, and is well furnished with all manner of fish and fowl. Its hills abound with sheep, and other cattle, and its valleys with corn.

POSNANIA, called by the Germans **POSEN**, is bounded on the north by Pomerania, on the east by Pomerelia, and by the palatinate of Kalish, part of which, together with Silesia, bounds it also on the south; and on the west it is bounded, partly by Silesia, and partly by the marquisate of Brandenburg.

Its capital city of the same name stands in a plain, among several little hills, by the river Varta, or Warta, 28 miles west of Gnesna, 40 north of Wratislaw, 43 north-west of Kalish, 135 south of Dantzick, and 143 west of Warsaw.

There are three very famous commercial fairs kept in this city, much resorted to by the German traders and gentry. The first is kept about the beginning of Lent, and lasts a month; the second and third at Midsummer and Michaelmas, each of which continues five weeks.

The **PALATINATE** of **KALIS** lies along the river Warta, between the palatinate of Posnan on the west, Siradia on the south, Sendomir on the south-east, and Cujavia on the east and north-east.

The chief city of this palatinate, is,

GNESNA, which is the capital of the Lower Poland, and was formerly the metropolis of the whole kingdom, and seat of the king. It stands in the middle of the palatinate, in a plain, between hills and lakes, 37 miles north of Kalish, and east of Posnan, 46 south-west of Thorn, 95 north of Breslaw, 118 south of Dantzick, 121 north-west of Warsaw, and 155 north-west of Cracow.

The **PALATINATE** of **SIDARIA** lies on the east and west sides of the river Warta, and is divided into four districts, having Silesia on the west, Little Poland and Sendomir on the south and south-east, Kalish on the north, and Lencicia on the east. It has five senators.

The **PALATINATE** of **LENCICIA** has that of Rava on the south-east, and Little Poland on the south; is divided into three districts.

The **PALATINATE** of **RAVA** lies east from Lencicia, between Lesser Poland, Masovia, and Cujavia, and is separated from Sendomir by the river Piltza.

The two following palatinates are comprehended in the province of Cujavia, which has Royal Russia on the north, Kalisch on the west, Lencicia on the south, and Dobrin on the east.

The **PALATINATE** of **BREZESTEY**, on the south-side, is fertile in all sorts of grain, of which it exports vast quantities to Dantzick, by several navigable rivers. It is divided into four districts, and has its name from a little town 16 miles west of the river Veissel, 30 miles south-west of Thorn, and west of Ploczko, and 60 east of Gnesna.

VLADISLAW is a palatinate, whose capital city of the same name is built among marshes near the Veissel, in the midway between Ploczko and

THORN, 14 miles north-east of Brezestey, 20 south-east of Thorn, and 75 north-west of Warsaw. Though the adjacent soil is marshy, and so scarce of fuel, that the inhabitants suffer very much for want of it; yet it is fruitful in corn, and sends great quantities to Dantzick.

The

the PALATINATE of INOWLOCK. It extends from the lake of Goplo and the city of Grufwick, to the Veiffel, and the confines of Pomerania; has Pruffia on the north, the Veiffel on the east, Kalifh on the fouth, and lies north-weft from Brezeftey. It is divided into three territories.

ARBIN is by fome made a diftinct palatinate of the province of Mafovia, and by others a territory belonging to that of Brezeftey. It lies on the east of the Veiffel, between Cujavia and Pruffia; abounds with fruits and fifh of all forts. It is divided into three diftricts.

OCZKO, on the weft fide of the country, is by fome alfo reckoned a palatinate of Mafovia, from which it lies rather to the east, between the Veiffel and Ducal Pruffia. It is divided into four diftricts.

R E M A R K S.

DANTZICK being the chief city of traffic in Poland, we fhall more particularly describe that and it's commerce from the beft accounts.

Dantzick, east longitude 19, latitude 54, the capital of Royal Pruffia, in the kingdom of Poland, fituate on the western fhore of the Viftula, which a little below falls into the Baltic Sea. It is an excellent harbour, and has the beft foreign trade of any port within the Baltic. It ftands 140 miles north of Warfaw, and 70 miles fouth-weft of Koningsburg. The town is large, and encompassed with a wall and fortifications of a great extent. The houfes are well built of ftone or brick, fix or feven ftories high, and the grainaries, containing vaft magazines of corn and naval ftores, are ftill higher, to which the fhipping lie clofe, and take in their lading; for the Dutch annually import from hence a great many thoufand tons of corn, timber, and naval ftores, and other nations fome; but the Dutch have the greateft fhare of this trade, paying for their merchandize with pickled herrings, the fpecies of India, fugars, brandy, and other produce of the more fouthern countries; whereas, the Englifh and other nations are forced to purchafe thefe things chiefly with treafure. The inhabitants are computed to amount to 200,000 fouls.

The moft confiderable part of the trade of Dantzick confifts in corn, which the Polanders bring down the Viftula in large ftrozues or barks, which carry in bulk about 50 tons Englifh. Thefe barks generally come down annually, in very plentiful years to the number of 1600. They reckon by lafts, of 11 Englifh quarters; the grain is fmall, but the red fort often fells for 180 Polifh gilders the laft, and rye about half this value.

As thefe cargoes are often expofed to the weather, it is a cuftom to fpread their fails on the banks of the river, and dry their corn on them. They alfo export bees-wax annually, to near 1000 fchip-pounds, for which they often get the price of 300 gilders per fchip-pound. Narrow linens, of about 21 inches broad, and facking of different qualities, for bags and imbalage, are alfo exported to a great amount*; alfo potafh †, weed-afh ‡, and pearl-afh; this laft is calcined, and takes it's name from it's colour. Pipe-ftaves are alfo a confiderable article, and oak-plank, of which the greateft part is 4 inches thick, 16 to 20 inches broad, and 50 feet long §. This fpecies of timber will not ftand the weather fo well as Englifh oak, but under the water is efteemed equal.

* Some fay near 100,000 l.

† Sold there at 50 f. per fchip-pound.

‡ Sold at 22 ½ f. per barrel of 360 lbs.

§ Of this near 30,000 l. value.

They import iron from Sweden, to the quantity of 1500 or 2000 tons, but of the woollens, and other manufactures of England, an inconfiderable quantity. The laws of commerce are very ftrict to prevent one foreigner from felling to another, or to re-fell to any other burgher than to the perfon he bought of, which muft neceffarily cramp the trade very much. Peter the Great made a law to the fame purpofe for Petersburgh, and yet it is unrepealed; but the government knows very well, that to inforce the execution muft be extremely prejudicial, and contrary to the maxims of all wife ftates. Even in Dantzick, in the time of the fair, all ranks and degrees of people are admitted free, to fell what, and to whom they pleafe.

Poland abounds in Jews, faid to be of the tribe of Benjamin: whatever tribe they are of, they appear as defpicable as any people in the world; yet their acutenefs and induftry have given them an eftablifhment, in which it is the intereft, both of the lords and the clergy, to fupport them; for the trade which they carry on, enables them to pay an intereft of 10 per cent. per annum for large fums.

They keep their accounts here in gilders, grofch, and phen-nigen, a ducat paffing for 8 gilders, 6 grofch.

The Current Money here is,

3 fhillings, or 18 phennigen	-	-	1 grofch,
3 grofch	-	-	1 ditkin,
2 ditkins	-	-	1 fixer,
3 fixers	-	-	1 tymph,

7 ½ grofch	-	-	-	1 ach de halber,
4 ach de halbers	-	-	-	1 gilder.

A current dollar is 3 gilders, and a fpecie dollar 4 gilders.

Here are alfo half, whole, 2 gilders, and 4 gilders pieces, of which the laft is a French crown of Lewis XIV. efteemed the beft money current, when they have not been in the hands of the Jews. Polifh coin fells from 1 to 2 per cent. advance. The exchange is ufually 280 to 290 grofch per pound Flemifh banco. Koningsburg draws in current money, 1 per mil. according to cuftom, being deducted.

Weight in Dantzick.

32 lote	-	-	1 pound,
24 pounds	-	-	1 fmall ftone,
34 dittos	-	-	1 large ditto,
120 dittos	-	-	1 centner,
320 dittos	-	-	1 fchip-pound, or 2 ½ hundreds Englifh.

The weight is there 4 per cent. lighter than the Englifh. A laft of corn is 60 fheffelt, but of malt 90.

Long Meafure.

12 inches	-	-	-	1 foot.
2 feet	-	-	-	1 ell.
102 ells Dantzick	-	-	-	make 50 ells Englifh.
6 dittos	-	-	-	5 Brabant ells.

The whole amount of the trade here, is ordinarily computed twelve millions of current dollars, on which the duties are about 7 or 8 per cent. One half is called the revenues of the crown, the other the property of the city.

This duty is paid in Alberto fix dollars of 4 gilders. HANWAY.

Of the General Courfe of Exchange of Dantzick and Koningsberg.

72 rixdollars, more or lefs,	in France,	100 crowns d'or fol.
270 Polifh gros—idem	in Holland,	1 pound gros banco.
100 rixdollars	at Breffaw,	103 rixdollars, more or lefs.
84 Polifh gros, more or lefs,	at Frankfort,	1 rixdollar current.
110 dittos—idem	at Hamburgh,	1 rixdollar banco.
100 rixdollars	at Leipfic,	101 rixdollars, more or lefs, current.
56 Polifh gros, more or lefs,	at Haremburg,	1 florin current money.

London exchanges, with Poland and Pruffia, by the way of Amfterdam and Hamburgh,—See HOLLAND.

R E M A R K S before the laft war between ENGLAND, FRANCE and SPAIN.

It is recent in every one's memory, that the death of king Auguftus of Poland gave rife to a bloody war between the houfes of Austria and Bourbon.

The late emperor Charles VI. was very far from being fatisfied with the conduct of king Auguftus, in the latter part of his reign, becaufe he fufpected, not without grounds, that he had fome engagements with the courts of France and Bavaria, not very favourable to the Pragmatic Sanction; for which reafon the imperial intereft was employed in Poland, rather to traverse than promote the king's views, with refpect to the fucceffion.

But when his Polifh majefty was dead, and the imperial court found his fon, the prefent king, very tractable, with refpect to it's favourite point, the Pragmatic Sanction: this gave a new turn to the councils of the court of Vienna, and engaged them to favour that meafure which they had hitherto impeded.

On the other hand, France, from firft to laft, openly fupported the intereft of king Staniflaus, whose history, from the time of his being driven out of Poland, is, in a few words, this.

His generous friend, the king of Sweden, affigned him his paternal inheritance, the little duchy Deux Ponts for his fubfiftence, which he held fo long as that prince lived; but upon his demife, the next heir took poffeffion, and king Staniflaus was forced to retire to Strafburgh, where he lived on the bounty, as well as under the protection of his moft Chriftian Majefty, who in the year 1723, married the princefs Mary, his daughter; which confequently interefted France extremely in his favour. His great alliances, his many virtues, and his being freer from vices than almoft any prince in his time, had preferved him many friends in Poland; fo that it was no difficult matter for the marquis de Monti, the French ambaffador in that kingdom, at the death of king Auguftus, in conjunction with the primate, to form a great faction in his favour, more efpecially as they were both men of great abilities.

But the electoral prince of Saxony being fupported by the courts of Vienna and Petersburgh, a double election enfued. King Staniflaus, who paffed into that country immediately after the throne became vacant, went to Warfaw, where he was received and treated as king, but was very foon driven out again by the Ruffian army commanded by count Munich, and obliged to retire to Dantzic, in which he fufained a long fieve, ran great hazards, fuffered many hardships, and at laft with infinite difficulty made his efcape to Konigsberg, where he was protected by the late king of Pruffia.

In the mean time, the crowns of France and Spain broke with the emperor, upon pretence of this dispute, and of his having supported king Augustus III. and prosecuted that war with great vigour in Germany and Italy; 'till at last having carried their point, and forced the emperor to a peace, all the care that was taken of king Stanislaus was, that he should enjoy the title of king of Poland and the duchy of Lorrain for life, and on the other hand, France and Spain acknowledged king Augustus.

It was very clear from their whole management of this affair, that the court of Versailles was never in earnest in the support of Stanislaus's title to this crown; but made use of it only as a colour, first for engaging in a war against the house of Austria, and next for obtaining an immediate possession of LORRAIN under his name, which otherwise they could never have gained.

It hath been the constant view of France for many years past, to extend her frontier to THE RHINE; and, upon the breaking out of several wars there, she hath constantly seized great numbers of places, and fortified them at a vast expence. The return of peace hath generally demolished them, and put the French under a necessity of employing large sums again, upon the renewal of every war. The experience of this, and that they may be the more ready upon any occasion, hath convinced them long before now, that LORRAIN, if not the greatest, is at least one of the most considerable acquisitions, that they could possibly gain or desire.

That Lorrain is of great use to the French in the design they have long since laid, of carrying their frontier to the Rhine, hath been sufficiently seen in the great advantages they have received by that country, all the time of their usurpation.

The union of Lorrain with France, advances THEIR FRONTIER FORTY LEAGUES INTO THE EMPIRE; for so many there are, from the extremity of the duchy of Bar to the city of Strasburg; makes them masters of all the country between Queitsch, the Saar, and the Moselle; opens a way into the Palatinate, and into the territories of Mentz and Triers. See LORRAIN.

This duchy secures the communication of France with the county of Burgundy, and the two Alsatia's; is situated at the head of the Moselle and the Mease, and therefore cannot but be extremely commodious, as well to preserve their old conquests, as to make new. Here they may assemble their forces, to distribute them in every part; make provision of corn to fill their magazines in Alsatia, and KEEP AN ARMY IN WINTER-QUARTERS, TO BE READY TO ACT UPON THE RHINE, BEFORE THEIR ENEMIES CAN TAKE THE FIELD. It is hard to imagine greater advantages than these; and if we add to all, that out of this country above 30,000 men are raised and paid, we shall find, that the French had good reason to obtain it, as they have done. Thus has France made dupes of all Europe, and gradually pursued their ambitious point towards UNIVERSAL EMPIRE; which is greatly to be feared they may still one day obtain, if they are not effectually checked. To confirm the truth of which, see the articles FRANCE, and PLANTATIONS.

REMARKS on the article POLAND, since the last great war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, concluded in 1763.

The immense load of PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, with which this kingdom is at length incumbered, and by which our whole commerce and navigation are now oppressed, will, it is to be hoped, be a striking memento to our rulers, that this nation may be as little as possible involved for the future in wars with the continent, which do not immediately concern the interests of Great Britain: for it is certain, that by engaging ourselves in continental, in that most expensive and profuse manner we have done, has been greatly instrumental to entail upon us our tax-incumbrances. However necessary such policy may have been heretofore judged, our own immediate safety will instruct us as readily to relinquish such a system as we have been to embrace it; our wares in general becoming so excessively dear, by one tax-incumbrance after another, that foreigners will not be able to purchase them at all; and if we cannot sell our commodities and manufactures, how can we be able to buy the commodities of other nations? Can any means prove so effectual to the ABSOLUTE RUIN of our whole foreign trade, as to be eternally loading it with more and more taxes? And if once our imports decrease, in proportion as our exports do, will not the revenues both of CUSTOM AND EXCISES be gradually annihilated? and what then must become of the public credit, every wise man will tremble to consider.

The choice of a king of Poland seeming to threaten Europe with a fresh continental war, in the opinion of some, we are willing to hope that this nation will by no means be drawn into it: for such a war may be kindled by certain potentates, with the sole view to that end, that thereby we may more and more incumber and oppress our commerce, that at length they may gain the dominion therein, and by that means re-

cover more than the full value of what they lost in the last war.

The election of a king of Poland being the first occasion that has offered since the last peace, whereby certain powers may try the disposition of the court of London towards another continental war; it will be our present as well as future interest, to convince them, that it is our intention never more to be trappan into that DESTRUCTIVE SYSTEM, in the manner we have heretofore been—That we have sufficiently experienced, that the chief security and prosperity of this nation will depend upon its maritime strength, which we are determined to cultivate to the utmost, and that we are resolved to raise every shilling's worth of NAVAL STORES IN OUR OWN PLANTATIONS; and that whatever we shall expend for the future upon our maritime force, shall be raised WITHIN OURSELVES, and every shilling thereof shall likewise be SPENT AMONG OURSELVES: and to this great end, we are further determined to raise all FUTURE SUPPLIES to carry on our NAVAL WARS WITHIN THE YEAR; in consequence of which, we shall be able to bid our enemies DEFIANCE.—These are the measures that shall be steadily adopted by an English-born king; because these measures, and these only, will constantly promote and advance the prosperity and happiness of his people of Great Britain.

As the foregoing observations were drawing up, and not printed off, we have advice of the choice of a king of Poland; and it is worth remarking, that the election to that crown gives us the most striking instance that we can imagine, of the effect the late war has had, in prejudice to the power of the court of Versailles. If we look back a century past, the retrospection will shew the amazing influence of France in the choice of Polish kings; and if we take the slightest review of the public transactions of a few months in Poland, since the death of Augustus, we shall find that her interest there has actually dwindled into nothing; or that she is determined to avoid future continental wars, and not interfere so much as she hath been wont to do in the wars of other states, but seems determined now to mind more her own affairs; which it is to be hoped will caution other states to pay a due regard to their own interest, and not interpose in the concerns of others so much as they have done.

It is at present currently said, that Prussia desires assistance from the Court of England, against Austria and France, in case of new troubles, which that monarch is apprehensive of, from their jealousy of his influence in Poland; and that a strong memorial has also been presented to the States of Holland, requesting the same, and to have immediate answers to both. And on the other hand, it is said, that Austria and France, in their memorials to our court, complain heavily against Prussia and Russia, and insist on knowing what part England intends to take in the new troubles that threaten Europe.

In answer to which memorials, we are informed, that they have been given to understand, that Great Britain would no ways interfere in the affairs of Poland, as the Poles certainly have a right to chuse their own kings; and that if they had a mind to go to war, they might fight it out among themselves: which wise answer, if persevered in, will preserve the peace of Europe; for if we pay either side, the Germans will soon find an enemy.

POLITICAL ARITHMETIC. By political arithmetic, we mean the art of reasoning by figures, upon things relating to government.

The art itself is undoubtedly very antient, but the application of it to the objects of revenue and trade, is what Sir William Petty first began, who as yet has been followed by very few; he first gave it that name, and brought it into rules and methods; and his excellent discernment would have carried it very far, if he had lived to this time; for his skillful hand did all along want right materials to work upon, with which he might have been furnished, by the variety of new taxes that have been since his time levied in this kingdom.

The foundation of this art is to be laid in some competent knowledge of the numbers of the people; see the article PEOPLE: and in all his enquiries, he took for guides the customs, excise, and hearth-money, but the accounts of these revenues were not fully stated, and their produce was not known, at least to him, when his books were written.

He endeavoured to compute the number of the people from the trade and consumption of the nation, into which the excise and customs were to give him an insight, and where the hearth-money might afford him yet better lights. He was to guess at our strength and wealth, by the general stock employed in trade; and he might see a little into the quantity of money in the nation, by the turnings it made into the Exchequer, in the payments of customs and excise; the number of houses in England shewed him in the number of families, from whence he was to gather how many inhabitants the kingdom might contain.

But his chief schemes were calculated, before the true produce of these three branches was fully known; for as to the excise, 'till the beginning of Mr Vincent's farm, which was anno 1674, the farmers in their several contracts, had never been

been obliged to give in a real state of their accounts, and a true produce of their respective counties. And as to the hearth-money, it's gross produce was likewise kept private 'till Mr Trant's farm (which began anno 1679) who was obliged by his contract to give it in. And we have yet never been able to meet with any true account of what the customs produced, 'till from the year 1674.

So that the very grounds upon which he built his calculations being probably wrong, he must, in many instances, be mistaken in his superstructure; and the true produce of these branches being concealed from him, and indeed from every body else but the parties concerned, in all likelihood, he over-reckoned them in his mind, and was thereby brought to over-rate the inhabitants of England, and to under-rate the numbers, and the strength and wealth of other countries: and this error in a fundamental, has led him into many others, and has misled such as have followed him in these matters.

It is true, Sir William Petty had very much studied the bills of mortality, and the accounts of the births and burials, not only of this kingdom, but of other nations, which did certainly help him to very useful lights.

But, through the whole course of his writings it may be plainly seen, by any observing man, that he was to advance a proposition not quite right in itself, but very grateful to those who governed.

The growth of the French king, and chiefly of his naval power, was a very unpleasant object for the parliament and the people of England to contemplate, and no doubt it did disquiet the mind of king Charles II. But this prince delighting to be soothed in his ease and pleasures, and to have no anxious thoughts, was very glad to see one of Sir William Petty's repute for calculations of this nature affirm*, That France exceeded England very little in point of territory; that we came near them as to the number of men, and that our numbers were as effectual in point of strength; that the people of England had, head for head, thrice as much foreign trade as the people of France; that France was under a natural and perpetual impediment of being powerful at sea; and that the French had not above 15,000 seamen to manage their trade, out of which, not above 10,000 could be spared for a fleet of war.

* Sir William Petty's Political Arithmetic; page 74; 75, 7, 85, 56, 57.

Every good Englishman does undoubtedly wish all this had been true; but we have since had manifest proofs, that this great genius was mistaken in all these assertions; for which reason we have ground to suspect, he rather made his court than spoke his mind.

The king was well pleased to be lulled asleep by a flattering council, which suggested, that the power of France was not so formidable, and could never be prejudicial to this kingdom: for it excused his breach of the tripple alliance, and all the other measures which have since proved so pernicious to the interest of England. See the article PLANTATIONS.

But if such as meddled with computations at that time, had truly compared the strength of both kingdoms, and if the ministers themselves had duly weighed the increasing wealth, trade, naval force, and growing greatness of that nation, it might, perhaps, have awakened both the king and parliament from that lethargy, which has since proved so fatal and expensive to us.

The abilities of any minister have always consisted chiefly in this computing faculty; nor can the affairs of war or peace, be well managed without reasoning by figures upon things. As for example, suppose a nation entering into a war, that may have a good event, if they can hold it out longer than the enemy; and a bad one, if they shall be obliged to give back first: in such a case, does not a wise statesman, even in the beginning of the business, compute and compare the power and riches of the adverse party, with the wealth of his own country; and all in order so to husband it's strength, that it may continue to the very last? Does he not sum up the revenues of the enemy, and, at the same time, reckon what may be gathered at home? And does not all this help him to govern wisely his prince's affairs, and to give his master wholesome and safe counsels? Does it not often happen that a nation, which, without any prejudice, may spend three millions a year for a long space of time, may be ruined by the expence of twenty millions in three or four years? For that body which can bare frequent but moderate bleedings, must die, if too great a quantity of blood be drawn from it at once. Great statesmen, therefore, have always taken care, not only to know the exact posture of their own country, but likewise to understand perfectly the power or weakness of other people, with whom they have wars or alliances; and the judgment formed from thence, is political arithmetic.

It was by this computing faculty, that Fabius Maximus found out the way to break the strength of Hannibal, and restore the affairs of Rome. Fabius considered, that the forces of his enemy were not of a repairing nature; that their supplies were to come from a factious and a distant country; that

Hannibal was a wary captain, full of stratagems, and not to be surprized himself: that his voluntary troops, composed of different nations, were invincible in battle, and to be wasted and wearied out only by a long war, which might consume their numbers. On the contrary, that the Romans were at home, and had recruits ready at hand; he therefore quite changed the manner of the war: and thus, by rightly computing and comparing the Roman and Carthaginian strength, he prevailed more by not fighting, than many consuls and dictators had done with their courage, not so wisely governed and directed.

If it could be clearly stated what the real wealth and stock of a kingdom is, and if it can be known by what degree it grows rich in time of peace, and by what steps it becomes poor at other seasons, some opinion might be formed, and judgment made, how long, and upon what foot a war might be carried on with safety to the public.

In the same manner, if the condition of the enemies affairs can be rightly understood, some guess may be made how long they can probably hold out, supposing fortune to incline neither way, and to distribute her favours (as she usually does among nations strong and wise alike) with equal hands.

And if a country (engaged in a league with other nations) can be truly apprized of the strength and riches of their allies, they may know whether any of their confederates are not justly to be called upon, and pressed for a larger quota, and to assist with more vigour in the common business.

For these reasons, able statesmen in all ages, have been at a great expence in embassies, or spies in foreign courts, to get intelligence of the posture of affairs in those countries with which they are at war, or with whom they hold alliance.

He that would furnish himself with such skill in foreign affairs, as may make himself useful at home, must begin with an enquiry into the condition of his own country; in which, if he can attain to a competent knowledge, he will more easily find out the posture and state of other places. See the articles BALLANCE OF TRADE, BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN], BRITISH AMERICA, CREDIT [PUBLICK CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, BULLION, CASH, COIN, COLONIES, EXCHANGE, EXPORTATION, IMPORTATION, LABOUR, LANDED INTEREST, MANURE, MONEY, NAVAL AFFAIRS, PEOPLE, REVENUE, SHIPPING, TREATIES OF COMMERCE.

He must know the laws, constitution, humour, and manners of his own country, with the number of it's inhabitants, and it's annual expence and income from land, [see the article LAND] with it's product from trade, manufactures, and the other business of the kingdom: and mankind in the mass being much alike every where, from a true knowledge of his own country, he may be able to form an idea, which shall prove right enough concerning any other, not very distant people.

As for example, when the number of inhabitants in England is known, by considering the extent of the French territory, their way of living, and their soil, and by comparing both places, and by other circumstances, a near guess may be made how many people France may probably contain. See the article FRANCE.

In the same manner he that knows the income of England from trade, by contemplating the frugality and industry of the Dutch, their several sorts of commerce, the places to which they deal, and their quantity of shipping, shall be able to find out what annual profit arises to the Hollanders, from their foreign traffic. See HOLLAND and UNITED PROVINCES.

And he who knows what taxes [see TAXES] and impositions one country can pay, by considering the different humours of the people, their stock and wealth, their territory, their soil and trade, shall be able, by comparison, to form a good conjecture, what revenues can be raised in another nation; and consequently he may make a near guess, how long either kingdom can carry on a war.

In the art of decyphering, it is said, where three or four words, perhaps letters, can be found out, the whole cypher may be discovered: in a great measure, the same holds in the computations we are treating of: and very probable conjectures may be formed, where any certain-footing can be found, to fix our reasonings upon.

No commonwealth or monarchy did ever arrive at a very great power, but by methods to be comprehended by the understandings of men; and we read of no great empire ruined, but the seeds of it's destruction may have been observed long before, in the course of it's history; there being a certain degree of wisdom, industry, virtue, and courage, requisite to advance a state; and such a measure of folly and ill conduct, necessary to pull it down.

In the same manner, the ways are evident by which a country grows rich, and the decays in the wealth and substance of a nation, may be likewise foreseen early, by such as bend their study to matters of this nature: for where the causes are apparent, we may judge easily of the effect. A people who keep their expence at home, or who protect their trade, [see the article COMMERCE] will not be much wasted by a war. A foreign war must needs drain a kingdom of it's treasure,

ture. This treasure being the common stock, if it be diminished, must certainly diminish the trade and business of that nation; and by how much the trade and business of a country is lessened, and by how much its treasure is exported, [see *BALANCE of TRADE*] by so much that country is grown poorer: indeed, to compute the exact degrees in all this, is difficult; but in so dark a point, conjectures that come somewhat near the truth, may be of service to any statesman.

It is true, that speculations in the closet, which have not been enlightened and assisted by practice and experience, will be very uncertain guides to him who desires to know the state and condition of his country: a statesman, therefore, who would compute with any effect, conducive to the public good, must consult variety of men, and men of different talents; and, in any scheme he is to form, above all things, he must avoid projectors, [see the article *PROJECTORS*] his flatterers or admirers, or those who depend upon him. For the projectors are always too full of their own thoughts and business, to judge rightly of it. His flatterers will always assent; his admirers will be too much biased by his opinions, and, from his dependents, he can never have that contradiction, by which truth must be sifted out.

A great statesman, by consulting all sorts of men, and by contemplating the universal posture of the nation, its power, strength, trade, wealth, and revenues, in any counsel he is to offer, by summing up the difficulties on either side, and by computing upon the whole, shall be able to form a sound judgment, and to give a right advice, and this is what we mean by political arithmetic. See the article *PARLIAMENT* [*MEMBER of PARLIAMENT*.]

He that has such a computing head, will seldom enter into ill measures; he will not put the wars of his prince upon a wrong foot; he will not engage him in weak alliances; he will not propose ill digested schemes and funds for revenues that shall not answer. In any new council he will weigh the event beforehand, and consider how far it may disturb his master's affairs, or affect the nation's credit. Happy are those kingdoms, which abound in statesmen so qualified; but miserable is that country, where the men of business do not reckon right; and where, in matters very important, and on which the whole welfare of a people depends, they are allowed to say, they are mistaken.

This computing faculty may not only be useful to statesmen in the general and higher affairs, but it will likewise help them in the more subordinate and ministerial parts of government. It shall not only contribute to their well guiding and conducting the nation's whole strength and wealth trusted to their care, but if they know rightly how to reason upon things by figures, they shall commit very few errors in relation to their prince's revenues, or to the trade of the kingdom.

There are few places which afford better helps for computation, than England does at present. The excise, the customs, and land-tax, are criteria, by which we may judge, not only of what the people consume, but, in some sort, they let us into a knowledge how their numbers increase or diminish. Those duties are the very pulse of a nation, from which its health or decays may be observed. And these revenues must be the better guide to computers, because the accounts of them are fairly kept and stated, and because the respective branches have been under so exact a management, that their produce is known and understood.

The wealth of all nations arises from the labour and industry of the people: a right knowledge therefore of their numbers, is necessary to those who will judge of a country's power and strength. See the article *PEOPLE*.

And upon this account undoubtedly, the Romans did so often make the census, that a judgment might from thence be formed, how able the commonwealth was to defend itself, or to invade others.

And the sin David committed in numbering Israel, might be probably this, that it looked like a second proof of rejecting theocracy, to be governed by mortal aids and human wisdom. For without doubt, it must very much help any rules to understand fully that strength which he is to guide and direct; since he may thereby know how many are fit for war, what hands support the commonwealth by their labour and industry, and what sort of men are idle and useless in it.

And this is so far from being a matter of mere speculation, as some think, that very many conclusions may be drawn from thence, useful and reducible to practice.

For if the numbers of the people can be truly stated, if they can be divided into proper ranks and classes, if it can be distinguished who are rich, who are easy, who can barely subsist, and who, by reason of poverty, can contribute little in any tax or aid to the public: if all this can be thoroughly understood, in the laying any kind of tax or imposition, a very near computation may be made, what such a duty should produce to the government, supposing it to be duly collected, and under a good management.

When the different ranks and qualifications of men are divided and stated, when there is a right distinction made, be-

tween the number of solvent and insolvent persons, when it is known how many pay not to church and poor, how many receive alms, and how many are mere vagrants, a very good judgment may be made what any personal or family-tax ought to yield, still supposing it to be well and carefully levied.

The number of the people leads us to know, what the yearly income may be from land, and what from mines, houses, and homesteads, rivers, lakes, meers, ponds; and what from trade, labour, industry, arts, and sciences: for, where a nation contains so many acres of arable land, so many of pasture and meadow, such a quantity of woods and coppices, forests, parks, and commons, heaths, moors, mountains, roads, ways, and barren and waste land; and where the different value of all this is computed, by proper mediums, it is rational to conclude, that such a part of the people's expence is maintained from land, &c. and such a part from mines, houses, &c. and that such a part is maintained from trade, labour, &c. And the poor, exceeding so much the rich in numbers, the common people are the proper medium by which we may judge of this expence.

There is a certain sum requisite to every one for food, raiment, and other necessities; as for example, between 7 and 8*l.* per annum; but some expending less, and some more, it may not be improper to compute, that the mass of mankind in England, expend one with another, near 8*l.* per annum: from whence it may be concluded, that an annual income of so many millions is needful for the nourishment of such and such a number of people.

And if land with its product will not reach this sum, it is rational to infer, that the rest must arise from trade, arts, and manufactures.

And further, when a nation contains such a number of people, skilled in husbandry and the improvement of land, when they have such an extent of territory, and when their acres are, one with another, of such a value, it may be from thence concluded, that the land of this country will produce such and such a sum.

So much of the product of the earth will nourish such a number of the people; and a soil so and so improved, will yield such a product; and if this be above what the people consume, it follows, that there must be such and such a quantity of goods for exportation.

Such a number of men skilled in maritime affairs, versed in traffic, with variety of ports, dealing to many countries, with such and such a native product to export, and such an acquired stock to turn and wind, must gain so and so by trade.

And if land and trade do not reach the expence in question, it follows, that the rest must arise from arts, manufactures, and the other business of a people.

But if land and its product, with what is done at home, is sufficient to nourish such a number of inhabitants, and that they are besides able to export many commodities and manufactures, and that their stock is such, as to deal in many goods with foreign people; we may infer, that there is superfluity of wealth accruing to such a country by their traffic.

Therefore a right distinction to be made between what part of the people's expence arises from land, &c. and what from trade; and what from arts, labour, &c. must be a good guide to princes and states, in laying any kind of taxes or impositions.

Expence must arise from income, and suppose	
the general income of a nation, from land	44,000,000
trade, arts, &c. should be	-
Suppose of this, land to be	14,000,000
Trade	10,000,000
And arts, labour, &c.	20,000,000
	44,000,000

And where this is the case, can it be reasonable in taxing the people to lay almost the whole weight upon the twenty-four millions, and to let the other twenty millions in a manner escape. And yet this must happen, in countries the whole burthen is generally put upon land and trade.

So that such a political arithmetic, as could distinguish in all the different parts which compose a nation's wealth, must be very useful and of public service.

The eighth penny, raised upon the annual income or expence of England, would have maintained the war of king William a great while, on the foot of five millions a year, if the burthen had been put upon all degrees of men alike, with geometrical proportion; for, in all probability, an *EQUAL* land-tax, and moderate duties upon the whole consumption, would have produced such a sum: and if this could have been compassed, the landed men had undoubtedly been in a better condition than they are at present, and we had avoided the vast debt, which was a weight upon the king's affairs.

This computing faculty consists in comparing the strength of nations, and in considering their number, power, policies, wealth, trade, shipping, naval force, land armies, and alliances.

But there is in this art a sphere for lower capacities to move in, who can presume no further than to find out and prepare materials, to be made use of by abler hands, and who think it praise enough to them, if they can make tools for skilful artists to work withal.

If general computations had been more studied and improved, those errors relating to the revenues, must probably have been avoided, which have so entangled the public affairs.

If some of the men of business had consulted political arithmetic, the parliament had not been troubled ever session, to make good so many deficient funds, which have loaded England with a heavy debt.

Most undoubtedly a right skill in this art, would be of great use in all considerations relating to the public revenue: for though the number of people could not be certainly fixed, and though the consumption of any commodity could not be truly known; yet he who goes by some rule (though not capable of a mathematical proof) shall seldom err, than he who gropes entirely in the dark, and only follows the suggestions of his fancy.

The projectors of most new funds, have hitherto been generally mistaken two parts in three: that art is therefore to be praised, the rules of which, if rightly followed, will show *a priori*, within a small difference, what any branch of the revenue shall produce, making allowance for the difference between war and peace, or any other extraordinary occurrences.

In all computations, the number of people is the groundwork; however, that knowledge will be but an uncertain guide, without other helps and directions. For in reckoning what any branch may yield, consideration must be had of the present abilities and condition of the kingdom; of the current cash, and even of the disposition of the people to pay the duty. The nature of the commodity likewise to be charged must be considered, whether it be the proper object of a duty, and not easily concealed and evaded, and whether its collection is to be ascertained by high or easy penalties; and whether it is to be come at by a few or by many officers; and the law itself, which is to give the duty, must principally be weighed; for if it is to be slackly penned, the branch will answer accordingly: by an universal contemplation of these matters, and by making every where proportionable allowance, in all the foregoing, and some other instances, a judgment may be formed, what sum the government may reasonably expect from any new revenue.

And, in computing any new duty, the number of the people will be an uncertain guide to those who do not distinguish rightly, between the rich and the poor of a country: for in most computations, men are led into error, by reckoning and concluding, from what is in view, and just before them. But they who will make a true estimate in things of this nature, must consider the mass of the people together, and not measure the riches of the whole, by that plenty and pomp, which they see among a few.

He who will pretend to compute, must draw his conclusions from many premises; he must not argue from single instances, but from a thorough view of many particulars; and that body of political arithmetic, which is to frame schemes reducible to practice, must be composed of a great variety of members.

He who will arrive at this art, must look into all the public revenues; he must understand something of their management; he must not be a stranger to the product and manufactures of every country and place; he must know what goods we export, and what foreign commodities are imported to us; and only from this general view, he must frame any scheme that may be useful to the public. A contemplation of one object, shall give him light into things, perhaps, quite of a different nature: for as in common arithmetic, one operation proves another, so in this art, variety of speculations are helpful and confirming to each other.

Nor is the faculty of computing less useful in matters relating to trade, than in what concerns the public revenues.

The councils of a country are always inquisitive after truth, but to hide it from them, and to perplex things which have relation to trade, is the interest of so many, that in the greatest deliberations, wise men are often misled by such as in all their actions, consult more their private profit than the common welfare.

There is hardly a society of merchants, that would not have it thought the whole prosperity of the kingdom depends upon their single traffic.

So that at any time, when they come to be consulted, their answers are dark and partial; and when they deliberate themselves in assemblies, it is too frequently with a bias, and a secret eye to their own emolument.

There is hardly a commerce, but the dealers in it will affirm, we lose by all the rest: when, perhaps, in time of established peace, the kingdom gets by trade in general.

A true account of the ballance of trade would set all this right, and shew what traffics are hurtful, and what are beneficial to the nation; and the general ballance is not to be

accurately found out, but by the aid of political arithmetic, and a skill in the foreign exchange. See *BALLANCE of TRADE, and EXCHANGE*.

And, perhaps, this art alone can shew the links and chains by which one business hangs upon another, and the dependance which all our various commercial dealings have each upon the other.

In first appearance, those traffics seem hurtful which export money; but when we come to reason upon things by figures, we find that such trades are often beneficial, when they bring in one way more bullion than they carry out another. See the article *BULLION*, Vol. I. page 397.

We may seem to lose by the ballance in one place, but perhaps, that trade may be the cause of another, twice as profitable: so that to object against the motion of one wheel, without knowing and seeing how the whole engine moves, is to no manner of purpose.

He that would, therefore, compute with any good effect in matters relating to trade, must contemplate the wealth, stock, product, consumption, shipping, exportations and importations of his country; and, at the same time, he must consider the state and condition of other places.

In this art, the most deficient point is, to find good materials, and to have a footing probably sure to fix our reasonings upon; for where our premises can be certain, our conclusions shall be almost undeniable.

It is a great guide, in concerns of this nature, to have before us an account of all the exportations from London and the out-ports, to every distinct country; and also of all the importations to London and the out-ports, from every distinct country, and of their values at prime cost, and so downwards. Every commodity should be under a separate head, and the drawbacks upon re-exportation taken due notice of, and the value taken into consideration, where the duty on goods is *ad valorem*. These materials are very helpful in our computations of this kind.

But it would be a further light into the general ballance of trade, if we could form a good judgment of that beneficial trade of buying goods in one place, to sell in another country, and what we gain by the articles of freight. If the true state of these matters could be obtained, it would greatly contribute to our information in regard to the general loss or profit made by commerce.

The general posture of our traffic, as well in time of war as peace, is likewise requisite to be taken into consideration; for by contemplating the various charges in our exports and imports in those different junctures, a judgment may be formed, from political arithmetic, how the ballance of trade formerly stood, and how it is like to stand hereafter, with the several countries wherewith England has commercial negotiations.

These are the out-lines of the art of political arithmetic; and how far this work may contribute to give the reader some knowledge of the art itself, can be known only by those who shall peruse our work throughout; wherein they will, perhaps, find more matter, if rightly applied, tending to information of this kind, than those who have not dipped into it may be aware of.

POMERANIA. The ancient Pomerania was of a much larger extent than the modern; for it included Pomerelia, and Cassubia, called Black Pomerland. The modern duchy of Pomerania, taken all together, is a long narrow track, above 200 miles from east to west, and from 50 to 80 from north to south, the breadth being very unequal.

It has Polish Pomerania on the east: the Baltic Sea on the north; the marquisate of Brandenburg on the south; and the duchy of Mecklenburgh on the west. It's air, by reason of it's being the extreme north-east corner of Germany, is reckoned the coldest of any part of it. The soil in many parts is sandy and barren, and their arable lands near the shore are frequently overwhelmed with sand; yet in other parts they have corn enough, both for consumption and export, besides good pastures filled with cattle, and many large woods and forests, which abound with deer, wild boars, hares, foxes, wolves, wild horses, wild bulls, &c. and fowls of all sorts. Here are also beavers, and such plenty of water-fowls, that they reckon 20 sorts of ducks. They have great plenty of salt and fresh-water fish, particularly salmon, and very large lampreys, especially in the bay of Stetin and lake of Laffen. About Gripswald and Rugen they have good herring-fishing; and in the lake Madduje, near Colbatz, there is a large broad fish, called muscum, found no where else in Germany. There are many fair and fertile meadows between the branches of the Oder, and has great quantities of fruits of all kinds, as in any province of Germany. They have no wine of their own growth, but excellent mum, and beer of several sorts, particularly the bitter beer of Stetin, the mum of Gripswald, and the stout of Wollin, which mariners transport elsewhere: and as there are scarce any mountains in the country, it has no mines, but some few of iron in the Upper Pomerania. It abounds with amber, especially on the coasts of Brandenburg Pomerania, where it is not only thrown up by the sea, and found among the sea-weeds and sands, but also dug out of the rocks and mines. It is frequently dug out of

of the ground, at a great distance from the sea, and many times found by the husbandmen, as they plow their lands. There is a particular lake in this country, that communicates with the sea, where they gather it in nets, when the sea begins to flow, and sometimes haul up pieces as big as one's fist. At first taking up it is soft, but soon hardens, by the air, into a stony substance: it is of several colours, white, yellow, black, and red: the sort found in Pomerania is a dark yellow.

It is well watered by rivers and lakes: among the former are, the Oder, the Pene, the Rega, the Persant, the Wiper, the Stolp, the Rekenitz, and the Barte. The Rekenitz separates Pomerania from Mecklenburg, forming a large lake near Damgarten, and falling into the Baltic at Dars. The Barte rises near Stalsund, and falls into the sea at Bardt. The Oder, soon after its entrance into Pomerania, divides into several branches, and after having passed by Garts, Griffenhagen, Schwedt, and Stetin, flows into the Damish lake, and then into Damantzkt, and at last dilates itself into a freshwater lake, or sea, called the Great Frisch-Haff, which is an excellent road for shipping, 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth, abounds with fish, and falls into the Baltic by three currents, through which ships pass to Stetin. Besides the abovementioned, there are many more rivers in Pomerania, which fall into the Baltic.

The most common division of this country is, into the western, viz. the Upper, or Swedish Pomerania; and the eastern, viz. the Lower, or Brandenburg Pomerania; which latter is also called Ducal Pomerania, or the duchy of Pomerania, because it was given to the ducal house of Brandenburg by the treaty of Munster.

The chief towns of the eastern, or Brandenburg, i. e. Ducal Pomerania, are,

1. STOLPE, 22 miles north-east from Rugenwald, 52 east of Colberg, and 64 west of Dantzick.
2. RUGENWALD is the capital of Wenden duchy, on the river Wiper, 18 miles north-east from Cölin, and 20 from Carmin.
3. COSLIN, 18 miles north-east of Colberg, is a very pleasant town with a good air. It being but a league from the Baltic, the inhabitants can easily export their coin, and import what commodities they want from abroad. The Frisch-Haff lake is a treasure to them, for they often, in the winter, bring up an hundred tons of fish there, at one draught of the net, if we may credit some. The adjacent country is fruitful, and interspersed with little hills, on which stood formerly Popish chapels, much frequented by pilgrims. Here are three annual commercial fairs, viz. the Saturday after Lady-Day, the Thursday after the fourth Sunday in Lent, and All-Saints Day.
4. CORLIN, 13 miles east of Colberg, and 12 west of Cölin, has two annual fairs, viz. on the Saturday before Palm-Sunday, and on Ascension-Day.
5. BELGART is a little town, with a good trade, five miles south-east of Corlin, 16 from the Baltic, 18 from Colberg, and 56 north-east of Stetin.
6. COLBERG is the capital of that called the duchy of Cassubia, and stands at the mouth of the Persant, near the Baltic shore, 30 miles north-east from Carmin, and 55 from Stetin. Salt is made here, of which large quantities are sent abroad, to the great enriching both of the town and of the elector of Brandenburg, to whom the town came by the treaty of Munster. Its harbour, which is a good one, though somewhat too narrow, is defended by a strong castle.
7. CAMIN is a small city, which some, however, reckon the capital of Ducal Pomerania, but five miles from the Baltic Sea, 32 north of Stetin, and 33 east of Wolgast: it stands on the mouth of the Oder that is called Druvenow. It has three trading fairs a year, viz. the second Sunday in Lent, on Trinity-Sunday, and Holy-Cross-Day.

UPPER, or SWEDISH, called also the ROYAL POMERANIA, extends from the Oder to the frontiers of Mecklenburg, and from the marquisate of Brandenburg to the Baltic.

1. GRIFFENHAGEN stands on the east side of the Oder, above Stetin, almost opposite to Gartz. It has three fairs in a year, viz. on Thursday after the first Sunday in Lent, on Trinity-Sunday, and on the 28th of October.
2. DAM is a small but strong town, on the east side of the Oder, overagainst Stetin. There are three annual fairs at this place, viz. on the Friday before the first Sunday in Lent, the eve of Palm-Sunday, and Michaelmas-Day.
3. STETIN, the metropolis of this Pomerania, stands on the rising of a small hill, with a fine castle on the west side of the Oder, which runs from thence through the lake called Gros-Haff, into the Baltic, by the isle of Usedom. It is 18 miles from the frontiers of Brandenburg, 73 north of Frankfort 74 north-east of Berlin, 153 west of Dantzick, 170 east of Lubec, and 320 north of Vienna. Its trade was the most considerable of any in these parts, till the settlement of the Dutch republic. It was formerly one of the Hanse-Towns, and the rendezvous of the fleets which those towns used to fit out to protect their trade, and secure their privileges. It is 40 miles to the sea, yet ships of good burthen come up to the very walls of the city, where they have a fine key,

though the river itself, which is navigable a great way above the town by lesser vessels, is a sufficient harbour.

One branch of its trade is, the exporting of salt and fresh fish, especially those taken in the Gros-Haff, the lake abovementioned, which is about 15 miles below the town; and from thence they also ship off great quantities of naval stores, especially oaken plank, masts, with other wood, both for building and fuel; canvas, linen, yarn, honey, wax, rosin, &c. Many ships come yearly from hence to London: and as the Oder brings down a vast quantity of corn, which comes into it from Poland and Silesia by the river Warta, about 50 miles above the city, here is a very great exportation of it, especially for Sweden, which is sometimes much distressed for want of it. In fine, it is so proper a center for exchanging the commodities of Poland and Germany, with those brought from the Baltic by the conveniency of the river Oder, that it cannot fail of having a great share of trade, and it is now said to be so populous, that many of the inhabitants are obliged to live in cellars and vaults. They have large granaries, store-houses, an arsenal, and a dock for building ships.

4. TRIPTOW, a pretty town, defended by a strong castle on the Tollen Sea, or lake, not far from the confines of Mecklenburg, 26 miles south of Gripswald: it has three fairs a year.

There is a town of this name in the Lower Pomerania, near Cölin, which is called Triptow on the river Rega, or New Triptow. The townsmen have an opportunity, by their river, of trafficking to sea: it has a fair on St Peter and Paul's-Day.

5. PASSEWALCK, anciently PAZDEWALCK, stands between Prenzlau and Turgelow, on the west side of the river Ucker, by which the inhabitants send their goods through the Haff to the Baltic.
6. GARTZ is another town on the same confines, and is one of the passes of the Oder.
7. UKERMUNDE stands where the Uker river falls into the Gros-Haff.
8. ANKLAM, on the river Pene, 17 miles south-west from Gripswald, and 31 north-west of Stetin. It made a good figure once among the Hanse-Towns. It is advantageously situated among good arable lands and excellent pasture, with the conveniency of fishing, and of exporting their commodities abroad by the river Pene.
9. GUTSKOW is a town on the river Pene, 8 miles south of Gripswald, and 10 west of Wolgast, between Anklam and Loytz, and capital of a county of the same name, which formerly included Gripswald, Loytz, and the abbey of Eldenow.
10. LOYTZ stands on the Pene river, between Gutschow and Demain. It has four fairs a year, viz. the Monday before Lent, the Monday before Whitsuntide, a fortnight after Midsummer, and a fortnight after Michaelmas.
11. WOLGAST stands very pleasantly, near the mouth of the Oder called Pfin, nine miles south-east from Gripswald, 27 from Stralsund, and 40 north-west from Stetin. It is a very handsome, well-built, populous, and strong town. The harbour, though 12 miles from the sea, is the best in all this duchy, Stralsund excepted.
12. The ISLE of USEDOM lies west from that of Wollin, and is formed by the Pene, where it falls into the Baltic along with the Oder, so that one of the mouths of the Oder, which runs between this and Wollin, is called the swine, and the other, beyond Usedom, the Pfin. Upon the destruction of Wollin, the town of Usedom was resorted to by the Danish and Polish merchants, and became a place of very good trade, being very large, and well fortified; but since 1473, when it was burnt down by an accidental fire, it has been only an inconsiderable sea-port. This island is about six miles in length, abounds with wild boar, deer, and hares, and was the park where the dukes of Pomerania kept their game.
13. WOLLIN is the easternmost of the two islands formed by the two mouths of the Oder: it is 25 miles long, 15 where broadest, and is divided by the Swine from Usedom. The town, which stands at that mouth of it called Drenow, is five or six miles south-east of Rugen, 25 miles north of Stetin, and 25 south-west of Wolgast. It was built out of the ruins of Julinum, once a very famous town, and was one of the largest cities in Europe, and its greatest mart, next to Constantinople, being inhabited by Danes, Swedes, Russians, Jews, and merchants of all nations, who had their separate streets and houses of exchange; and said to have been so powerful, as singly to maintain a war against Denmark; but having been partly destroyed by lightning, and partly by the arms of Woldemar king of Denmark, it was, in 1170, totally demolished, and has been but an inconsiderable town ever since: its commerce has been transferred to Lubec and Dantzic. This is the common fate of all places that lose their trade.
14. GRIPSWALD, 9 miles north-west of Wolgast, 29 south-east of Stralsund, and 46 north-west of Stetin, which was one of the Hanse-Towns, and formerly imperial, stands within half a league of the Baltic, at the bottom of a small gulph, which they call the sea of Stralsund, over-against the isle of Rugen:

Rugen: and there being another bay in the island just opposite, both together make the passage above 20 miles over. The place is not so big as Stralsund or Stetin, yet it is a considerable town, being well built, well fortified, and has a good trade by sea. The best salt was made here of any place upon the Baltic, but the works have been discontinued for want of fuel, which in this country is scarce. They have abundance of cattle here, and deal much in hides and tallow. Here is a good harbour, and a great many ships belonging to it, which are brought to the quay by means of a canal, that is cut from the gulph to a great lake on the other side of the place.

5. RUGEN is strong both by art and nature, and much celebrated in ancient history for the courage of the Rugii, it's old inhabitants. It is about 30 miles in length, and as much in breadth (though some say the latter is not more than 20): it is so fruitful in corn, that it is called the granary of Stralsund; and in grass, that it is well stocked with horses, black cattle, sheep, and the largest geese in Europe. The seas and lakes here abound with fish; and the Rugeners are not only good fishermen, but reckoned the best pilots in the Baltic, which makes them very useful to the merchants of Stralsund. The forest of Jafund furnishes them with fuel and timber, and the sea, bays, and lakes, with plenty of fish for consumption and export.

16. STRALSUND, the largest and richest town in Pomerania, the sixth in rank of the Hanse-Towns, and a free imperial city, by some reckoned the most considerable in the circle of Upper Saxony; stands near the banks of the sea, over-against the island of Rugen, 19 miles north of Gripswald, 32 miles north-east of Rostock, and 66 north-west of Stetin. It has an excellent haven, where ships come up to the very town, and is so well situated for trade, that it has a very great and lucrative commerce, both by sea and land; for it is to be observed, that here begins the export of those staple commodities which all Europe sends for to the Baltic, as corn and naval stores, viz. hemp, flax, &c. but especially corn, of which great quantities are exported, this being the first city in the Baltic, to which the Dutch trade for it. Here are also great quantities of honey, and wax, tar, pitch, rosin, hides, and tallow, as also of linen, especially canvas, of which a good sort is made here.

POOR. There is certainly no state in which may be found more laws than in ours concerning the poor: laws wiser in appearance, or more humane, more equitable: or so many books and excellent representations on this subject: so many hospitals: or, in short, so great a fund of generosity and charity, as in England: at the same time too, there is not, perhaps, a country in which there are so many poor.

Yet those laws must be intrinsically defective, which being so important as they are to every member of society, have not the force to make themselves be executed, or which one may easily elude.

The poor's-rate for England only, which is from two shillings as far as to six and eight shillings in the pound, in some parts, exceeds three millions and a half sterling. If we add to it the private charities, and foundations of hospitals, a sum sufficient to maintain the tenth of the inhabitants.

The charges of the roads, and of the public works, are also immense, and continual resources for such as want employment.

The charity-schools maintain and bring up the twentieth part of the children that are born: nevertheless, in the towns, the streets swarm with poor, some of whom soon after, perhaps, beg on the high-way with a presented pistol in hand.

The abuse of the particular administrations of the poor's revenue, and the insufficiency of the laws, are too glaringly evident, and the consequences of this evil are too dreadful for the administration not to become a national concern.

There is no more effectual method of redress for it, than to appoint a committee of members of Parliament, before whom should be annually laid a state of the sums levied, or applied to the maintenance of the poor, and a list of the poor maintained in every county.

By these circumstantial states and lists, by comparisons and indisputable facts, it would be made manifest,

1st, That some of the principal causes of there being so many poor are, privileges, exclusive rights of freemen, and corporations; the indiscreet, as well as unfaithful, distribution of the parish-alms; the money scattered through towns and country, by the candidates, in the time of elections; the multiplicity of alehouses, taverns, and other infamous snares of idleness, and debauchery.

2dly, That robbers owe their origin not to want, but indiscreet charity. The class of men which has no right to the parish-alms, is far less abundant in robbers than that which has: that right is an encouragement to, and the certain refuge of, idleness, the parent of debauchery and crimes.

In short, it would appear convincingly plain, that the only prompt remedy that can be brought for this urgent evil would be,

VOL. II.

1st, To form a common national aggregate of all the sums levied throughout all the parishes, under the name of the poor's tax, to which should be joined the funds of all the ancient charitable foundations: with reservation, however, of liberty to all future donors to appropriate particularly their charities to whatever counties or parishes they should think fit.

2dly, To take into workhouses, or alms-houses, all beggars, even every person applying to the parish for charity, equally in case either of sickness or of health, without any distinction even of the private poor, that is to say, of such as are ashamed of begging: because there ought to be no poor of that nature in a nation where it is no shame for any one to work.

3dly, To assign to every person so received into these workhouses, that sort of work of which he should be capable, inasmuch that the sick, and such as should be deprived of the use of all their senses, should alone be dispensed with from it.

4thly, To divide these workhouses into two wards, the one for the poor who should work voluntarily, the other for them to be carried to, in cases of necessary correction, and forced to work, should they refuse to submit to it.

5thly, It would also be very necessary to collect together, in one common house, all the children dispersed in the different schools and establishments of each parish. The care of their first years of life, and of breeding them up to work, would be better administered in one common house than by parish-nurses, who inhumanly sacrifice, even in the cradle, so many innocent victims to their barbarous avarice. This is a truth incontestably proved, by a comparison of the number of dead beneath the age of seven years, amongst the children nursed by the parish-nurses, and amongst those brought up in the Foundling-Hospital.

6thly, Every workhouse or alms-house throughout England should render an account of it's administration, attested by the magistrates or officers of each town or parish, to the committee of the nation. These accounts would serve for checks upon one another. The members for every county should be called to the inspection of the account of the general administration, and, upon the report of this general committee, the poor's tax should be settled, and passed by the nation.

From such a form of administration as this, would result the following advantages:

The real misery of the sick and disabled would receive the relief which is due to it.

The malversation of particular administrations would be remedied.

The number of the poor would sensibly diminish: many now receive private alms, who would then resolve to work, rather than receive public ones.

Society would be delivered from beggars, of whom the example and enormities are so much to be dreaded.

The produce of the work of such as should be free to leave the house when they pleased, and the work of the poor under confinement, would be a clear and new profit to the public.

The poor's tax would diminish considerably.

All the recensions of the above-deducted three classes of men, and of their subdivisions, should be draughted and framed in each parish, by it's respective churchwardens, aldermen, overseers of the poor, or the like proper officers. A short enough time, and a great deal of order and method, would suffice to carry them to the requisite perfection for making all the use to be promised from them, without much expence.

Dr D'Avenant's SCHEME for setting the POOR to WORK.

First, That such persons as shall subscribe and pay the sum of 300,000*l.* as a stock for and towards the better maintaining the impotent poor, and for buying commodities and materials to employ and set at work the other poor, be incorporated and made one body politic, &c. by the name of the governor and company for maintaining and employing the poor of this kingdom.

By all former propositions, it was intended that the parishes should advance several years rates to raise a stock; but, by this proposal, the experiment is to be made by private persons, at their risk; and 300,000*l.* may be judged a very good stock, which added to the poor's rate for a certain number of years, will be a very good fund for buying commodities and materials for a million of money at any time. This subscription ought to be free for every body; and if the sum were subscribed in the several counties of England and Wales, in proportion to their poor-rates, or the monthly assessment, it would be most convenient; and provision may be made, that no person shall transfer his interest but to one of the same county, which will keep the interest there during the term; and as to it's being one corporation, it is presumed this will be most beneficial to the public. For first, all disputes on removes, which are very chargeable and burthensome, will

be at an end, this proposal intending, that wherever the poor are, they shall be maintained or employed. Secondly, it will prevent one county which will be diligent, imposing on their neighbours who may be negligent; or getting away their manufactures from them. Thirdly, in case of fire, plague, or loss of manufacture, the stock of one county may not be sufficient to support the places where such calamities may happen; and it is necessary the whole body should support every particular member; so that hereby there will be a general care to administer to every place according to their necessities.

Secondly, That the said corporation be established for the term of 21 years.

The corporation ought to be established for 21 years, or otherwise it cannot have the benefit the law gives in case of infants, which is their service for their education; besides, it will be some years before a matter of this nature can be brought into practice.

Thirdly, That the said sum of 300,000*l.* to be paid in, and laid out for the purposes aforesaid, to remain as a stock, for and during the said term of 21 years.

The subscription ought to be taken at the passing of the act, but the corporation to be left at liberty to begin either the Michaelmas or the Lady-Day after, as they shall think fit; and per cent. to be paid at the subscribing, to persons appointed for that purpose, and the remainder before they begin to act, but so as 300,000*l.* shall be always in stock during the term, notwithstanding any dividends, or other disposition: and an account thereof to be exhibited twice in every year, upon oath, before the lord chancellor for the time being.

Fourthly, That the said corporation do, by themselves or agents, in every parish of England, from and after the day of during the said term of 21 years, provide for the real impotent poor, good and sufficient maintenance and reception, as good, or better, than hath at any time within the space of years before the said day of been provided or allowed to such impotent poor; and so shall continue to provide for such impotent poor, and what other growing impotents shall happen in the said parish during the said term.

By impotent poor is to be understood all infants and old decrepit persons not able to work; also persons who by sickness, or any accident, are for the time unable to labour for themselves or families; and all persons (not being fit for labour) who were usually relieved by the money raised for the use of the poor: they shall have maintenance, &c. as good, or better, as within years they used to have.

This does not directly determine what that shall be, nor is it possible, by reason a shilling in one county is as good as two in another; but it will be the interest of the corporation that such poor be well provided for, by reason the contrary will occasion all the complaints or clamour that probably can be made against the corporation.

Fifthly, That the corporation do provide (as well for all such poor which on the said day of shall be on the poor-books, as for what other growing poor shall happen in the said term, who are or shall be able to labour or do any work) sufficient labour and work proper for such persons to be employed in; and that provision shall be made for such labouring persons according to their labours, so as such provision doth not exceed $\frac{2}{3}$ parts as much as any other person would have paid for such labour. And, in case they are not employed and set to work, then such persons shall, until materials or labour be provided for them, be maintained as impotent poor; but so as such persons who shall hereafter enter themselves on the poor's books, being able to labour, shall not quit the service of the corporation, without leave, for the space of six months.

The corporation are to provide materials and labour for all that can work, and to make provision for them not exceeding $\frac{2}{3}$ parts as much as any other person would give for such labour. For example: if another person would give one of these a shilling, the corporation ought to give but nine-pence. And the reason is plain; first, because the corporation will be obliged to maintain them and their families in all exigencies, which others are not obliged to do, and, consequently, they ought not to allow so much as others. Secondly, in case any persons able to labour shall come to the corporation, when their agents are not prepared with materials to employ them, by this proposal they are to allow them full provision as impotent poor, until they find them work, which is intirely in favour of the poor. Thirdly, it is neither reasonable nor possible for the corporation to provide materials upon every occasion for such persons as shall be entered with them, unless they can be secure of such persons to work up those materials; besides, without this provision, all the labouring people of England will play fast and loose between their employers and the corporation, for, as they are disobliged by one, they will run to the other, and so neither of them shall be sure of them.

Sixthly, That no impotent poor shall be removed out of the parish where they dwell, but upon notice in writing given to

the churchwardens and overseers of the said parish, to what place of provision he or she is removed.

It is judged the best method to provide for the impotent poor, is in houses prepared for that purpose, where proper provision may be made for several, with all necessaries of care and maintenance: so that in some places one house will serve the impotent poor of several parishes, in which case the parish ought to know where to resort, to see if good provision be made for them.

Seventhly, That, in case provision be not made for the poor of each parish, in manner as aforesaid (upon due notice given to the agents of the corporation) the said parish may order their poor to be maintained, and deduct the sum by them expended out of the next payments to be made to the said corporation by the said parish.

In case any accident happens in a parish, either by sickness, fall, casualty of fire, or otherways, and that the agent of the corporation is not present to provide for them, or having notice doth not immediately do it, the parish may do it, and deduct so much out of the next payment; but there must be provision made for the notice, and in what time the corporation shall provide for them.

Eighthly, That the said corporation shall have and receive, for the said one and twenty years, that is to say, from every parish yearly, so much as such parish paid in any one year, to be computed by a medium of seven years; namely, from the 25th of March, 1690, to the 25th of March, 1697, and to be paid half yearly; and besides, shall receive the benefit of the revenues of all donations given to any parish, or which shall be given during the said term, and all forfeitures which the law gives to the use of the poor; and to all other sums which were usually collected by the parish for the maintenance of the poor.

Whatever was raised for, or applied to, the use of the poor, ought to be paid over to the corporation; and where there are any donations for maintaining the poor, it will answer the design of the donor, by reason there will be better provision for the maintenance of the poor than ever; and if that maintenance be so good as to induce further charities, no doubt the corporation ought to be entitled to them: but there are two objections to this article: First, That to make a medium by a time of war is unreasonable. Secondly, To continue the whole tax for one and twenty years, does not seem to give any benefit to the kingdom in that time. To the first, it is true we have a peace, but trade is lower now than at any time during the war, and the charge of the poor greater; and when trade will mend is very uncertain. To the second, it is very plain, that although the charge may be the same to a parish in the total, yet it will be less to particular persons; because those who before received alms, will now be enabled to be contributors; but besides, the turning so many hundred thousand pounds a year (which in a manner have hitherto been applied only to support idleness) into industry, and the employing so many other idle vagrants and sturdy beggars, with the product of their labour, will altogether be a present benefit to the lands of England, as well in the rents as in the value: and further, the accidental charities in the streets, and at doors, is, by a very modest computation, over and above the poor rates, at least 300,000*l.* per annum, which will be intirely saved by this proposal, and the persons set at work; which is a further consideration for it's being well received, since the corporations are not allowed any thing for this service.

The greater the encouragement is, the better the work will be performed; and it will become the wisdom of the parliament, in what they do, to make it effectual; for should such an undertaking as this prove ineffectual, instead of remedying it will increase the mischief.

Ninthly, That all the laws made for the provision of the poor, and for punishing idle vagrant persons be repealed, and one law made to continue such parts as are found useful, and to add such other restrictions, penalties, and provisions, as may effectually attain the end of this great work.

The laws hereunto relating are numerous, but the judgments and opinions upon them are so various and contradictory, and differ so in sundry places, as to be inconstant with any one general scheme of management.

Tenthly, That proper persons be appointed in every county, to determine all matters and differences which may arise between the corporation and the respective parishes.

To prevent any ill usage, neglect, or cruelty, it will be necessary to make provision, that the poor may tender their complaints to the officers of the parish; and that those officers having examined the same, and not finding redress, may apply to persons to be appointed in each county, and each city for that purpose, who may be called supervisors of the poor and may have allowance made them for their trouble; and their business may be to examine the truth of such complaints; and in case either the parish or corporation judge themselves aggrieved, by the determination of the said supervisors, provision may be made that an appeal lie to the quarter sessions.

Eleventhly

Eleventhly, That the corporation be obliged to provide for all public beggars, and to put the laws in execution against public beggars, and idle vagrant persons.

Such of the public beggars as can work must be employed, the rest to be maintained as impotent poor; but the laws to be severely put in execution against those who shall ask any public alms.

This proposal, which in most parts of it seems to be very maturely weighed, may be a foundation for those to build upon, who have a public spirit large enough to embrace such a noble undertaking.

But the common obstruction to any thing of this nature, is a malignant temper in some who will not let a public work go on, if private persons are to be gainers by it: when they are to get themselves, they abandon all sense of virtue, but are clothed in their whitest robe; when they smell profit coming to another, masking themselves with a false zeal to the commonwealth, where their own turn is not to be served. It were better, indeed, that men would serve their country for the praise and honour that follow good actions; but this is not to be expected in a nation, at least leaning towards corruption; and, in such an age, it is as much as we can hope for, if the prospect of some honest gain invites people to do the public faithful service. For which reason, in any undertaking where it can be made apparent, that a great benefit will accrue to the commonwealth in general, we ought not to have an evil eye upon what fair advantages particular men may thereby expect to reap, still taking care to keep their appetite of getting within moderate bounds, laying all just and reasonable restraints upon it, and making due provision that they may not wrong or oppress their fellow subjects.

It is not to be denied, but that if fewer hands were suffered to remain idle, and if the poor had full employment, it would greatly tend to the common welfare, and contribute much towards adding every year to the general stock of England.

Among the methods that we have here proposed of employing the poor, and making the whole body of people useful to the public; we think it our duty to mind those who consider the common welfare of looking with a compassionate eye into the prisons of this kingdom, where many thousands consume their time in vice and idleness; wasting the remainder of their fortunes, or lavishing the substance of their creditors, eating bread and doing no work, which is contrary to good order, and pernicious to the commonwealth.

We cannot, therefore, but recommend the thoughts of some good bill, that may effectually put an end to this mischief, so scandalous in a trading country, which should let no hands remain useless.

It is not at all difficult to contrive such a bill as may relieve and release the debtor, and yet preserve to his creditors all their fair, just, and honest rights and interest.

Thus have we endeavoured to shew, that to preserve and increase the people, and to make their numbers useful, are methods conducing to make us gainers in the balance of trade.

Extract of two letters wrote to the author, from an English gentleman of honour, who some time since resided in Holland, and is now appointed in a public character at a certain court in Europe.

S I R,

It is easy to answer your question, How are the poor maintained in Holland? But to do it so as to please you, who look farther than the outside of things, would require more than one day or one letter. However, deferring other things to next post, I will be as particular as I am able, upon so short warning, to be upon this subject; sensible that it is of the greatest consequence to us, and that those who have never considered it, will hardly imagine what an IMMENSE PROFIT England might make by setting her poor at work, besides all the advantages of getting quit of all your pickpockets, &c. &c. &c.

I will first give you some extracts of the laws of this country [meaning the UNITED PROVINCES] about the poor, and then an account of their practice.

The earliest law that I find in their statute-books relating to the poor, is a long one of the emperor Charles V. It enacts,*

* 7 October 1531.

ARTICLE IX.

That whereas the poor of our provinces are now much more in number than they formerly used to be, and whereas it is found by experience, that many abuses have arisen from suffering them to beg and ask alms, particularly that it fixes them in IDLENESS (which is the beginning of all evil), and that neither THEY NOR THEIR CHILDREN FOLLOW ANY TRADE OR METHOD OF GETTING THEIR LIVING, but

are thus brought into BASE ACTIONS, AND A BAD MANNER OF LIFE: so that though young, strong, and healthy, they nevertheless extort, by great importunities, what ought to go to the poor and sick; to the impotent, and those who are in danger of starving: and whereas, before our departure, we desire to remedy and regulate these evils, &c. &c. &c.*

* Groot Placart. book 1. B. 20. T.

R E M A R K S.

It appears by this article, and the following one, and by the end of the 12th, that before this law, every body that had a mind WAS FREE TO BEG IN THESE PROVINCES.

ARTICLE X.

That no one, be it man or woman, from this time forward, shall BEG OR ASK ALMS, BY DAY OR BY NIGHT, SECRETLY OR OPENLY, in the streets; in the churches, nor in or at the houses of our good people, in any manner whatsoever, upon the penalty, that whoever acts contrary to this law shall be put, for the first offence, in PRISON, AND FED WITH BREAD AND WATER, according to the discretion of our officers, judges, and magistrates, who shall be commissioned to execute this our edict, &c. &c. And for the second offence they are to be WHIPPED AND CORRECTED, according to the discretion of our officers, &c. except always the mendicant friars, &c. &c.

ARTICLE XI.

No FOREIGNER, nor outlandish person, shall beg or ask alms, but shall be liable to the same penalties, except pilgrims, &c.

R E M A R K S.

Upon these two articles I cannot help observing, that the great freedom Holland once enjoyed from beggars, robberies, &c. &c. seems to have been entirely owing to the strict execution of the article enjoining them to be kept upon BREAD AND WATER; this simple circumstance being of the greatest consequence in taming otherwise incorrigible offenders, to whom not death itself is so terrible as LOW LIVING; and this plainly appears by their conduct, for they risk their lives, only for the satisfaction of living LUXURIOUSLY, and therefore abstinence is a more effectual punishment to them than hanging.

ARTICLE XII.

All poor people, who shall remove from one CITY OR VILLAGE TO ANOTHER, there to live or reside, shall be liable to the same penalties and corrections, unless they are reduced by fortune of war, inundation, fire, or other such misfortunes, and that they make this properly appear; in which cases, and not otherwise, it is permitted to let them LODGINGS OR HOUSES; and all the poor residing in our said provinces, and having been there a whole year, must remain in the places where they are settled, and have their share and part of the alms which shall be there ordered them, without going about TO BEG ALMS OR BREAD, openly or secretly, as hitherto.

R E M A R K S.

This article is quite contrary to our NOTIONS IN ENGLAND, and to the liberty we give our poor, of trying to get their livelihood better in one parish than in another. I shall not venture to decide which of the two nations is in THE RIGHT, where much may be said for both.

ARTICLE XIII.

Whoever shall permit their children, whether great or small, to go and permit any RASCALITY, or to beg and ask alms, shall undergo the aforesaid penalties; and the children shall be whipped with rods, and otherwise corrected, according to the discretion of our officers and magistrates of the places where the offence shall happen.

R E M A R K S.

The making PARENTS PUNISHABLE in this case for their children (especially if understood to be those under 12 years of age) appears highly reasonable.

ARTICLE XV.

As for the support of the POOR, SICK, AND OTHERS, not able to get their bread, nor having any thing to live upon, in any town or village of our said provinces; we order, that a common purse shall be made of all CHARITIES, POOR-HOUSES, HOSPITALS, BROTHERHOODS, and others having the distribution of the PRODUCT OF ALMS, and that part

part thereof shall be given to the poor, according to the advice of the masters and governors of the aforefaid CHARITIES, POOR-HOUSES, &c. joined with fuch of the officers and magistrates of every town, parish, or village, as shall be deputed for that purpose, according to the manner hereafter declared; except that alms founded for ecclesiastics, as well mendicants as others, shall be distributed according to the directions of the founders.

R E M A R K S.

Might not the charities given annually by our COLLEGES, by being put into a common purse, be more usefully employed than now they are?

A R T I C L E X V I.

That, for the future, boxes shall be placed in every PARISH-CHURCH of our provinces, to receive the SECRET ALMS OF GOOD PEOPLE; the said boxes to be locked with three keys, of which the parish priest shall keep one, the magistrates another, and the deputies, who shall be appointed according to the manner hereafter declared, another; which said persons are empowered to take the money out of the said boxes, whenever they shall think good; and farther, the magistrates and officers of each parish shall depute an honest man or two to go round the said churches, once or twice a week, to collect for the poor; and besides, the aforefaid deputies of every parish shall go once a week, or oftener, to every house, in order to BEG ALMS FOR THE SUPPORT OF THE POOR; and all these several committees or deputies, as well those who receive, as those who distribute these contributions, are obliged hereby to give an account, at the end of every month, of what they receive or distribute, before the magistrates or their deputies, IN PUBLIC AND OPEN PLACES, where every body shall be admitted that have a mind to come in.

R E M A R K S.

This last paragraph seems to be a wise provision against MISAPPLICATION OF THE MONEY COLLECTED: as to the manner of collecting, I shall only say, that I have sometimes thought—That one good way of collecting with us, as well as of altering a shameful custom of giving money to SERVANTS BEFORE THEIR MASTERS FACES, would be for every gentleman to hang up a box in his hall, where every visitor might put his VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTION, and that it should be understood, that at the end of the year this was to be divided, one half to the POOR, and ONE HALF TO THE SERVANTS OF THE FAMILY. By this means no man would be obliged to pay more than he chuses for dining with a lord, and a good use would be made of HALF the vast sum collected in a year from those who visit their friends: besides, servants would be mended by the temptation of staying a year in their places, for the sake of their division.

A R T I C L E X V I I.

In order to regulate and conduct this work of charity, the officer * and magistrates of every town and village are hereby required to chuse out persons RESIDING AMONGST THEM, the best qualified for the said purposes, whom we require and order to take upon them this care, according to their duty to God, and out of a true spirit of charity, and to regulate themselves in it according as is prescribed them by our edict; and the said deputies so chosen, shall appoint themselves a treasurer to keep their particular accounts of the aforefaid alms, and what belongs to them on that account, and shall each in his district, take or cause to be taken, an EXACT LIST OF THE NUMBER, STATE, QUALITY, AND CONDITION OF THE POOR within it, of WHAT TRADE, and of WHAT AGE they are, how they are burthened with children, what they gain or may gain.

* Officer signifies here, the chief magistrate for executing of justice in criminal affairs.

A R T I C L E X V I I I.

The aforefaid committee shall keep a REGISTER IN EVERY PARISH, wherein shall be plainly written the result of their several enquiries, viz. the number of the POOR IN EACH FAMILY or dwelling, and the quantity OF MONEY NECESSARY FOR THEM, over and above what they can gain, consideration being had of their abilities, necessities, and burthens.

A R T I C L E X I X.

The alms shall be distributed in every parish, according to the discretion of the said deputies, be it in MONEY, BREAD, FIRING, CLOATHS, OR OTHER NECESSARIES, consideration being had of the QUALITY AND CONDITION OF THE AFORESAID POOR PERSONS: to drunkards, idlers, gamblers, and such like, NO MONEY is to be given, but only BREAD, FIRING, CLOATHING, AND OTHER NECESSA-

RIES TO MAINTAIN THEIR FAMILIES; and those that lead idle or roguish lives, and are able, shall be COMPELLED TO WORK, and to bring their GAINS HOME, under the penalty of being deprived of the benefit of the alms-purse, and besides, of being CORRECTED ARBITRARILY by the magistrate.

R E M A R K S.

These three last articles shew how the poor were governed, and the alms distributed, before the Reformed Church, and the offices of elders and deacons were established in these provinces.

A R T I C L E X X.

That SICK AND WEAK PERSONS, who cannot come out of their houses, and women in childbed, shall be visited and assisted by the alms-purse, and provided with linen, sheets, and coverlids, with victuals, with firing, and other necessaries; and so likewise, must young orphans and foundlings be maintained out of the said alms-purse.

A R T I C L E X X I.

As to the CHILDREN OF THOSE POOR PEOPLE, who, before the publication of this edict, were idlers living upon roguery, some shall be put to school, and some to trades or to service, and shall, on Holidays and Sundays, be taught the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, and the Commandments, and shall be carried to mass and to vespers every Sunday; and that the said children may be put in a condition to go to TRADES OR SERVICE, the said committee shall have them cleaned from all filth and nastiness, and cloath them in a decent manner.

A R T I C L E X X I I.

The poor that live upon this alms-purse must wear a BADGE.

A R T I C L E X X V.

We forbid all persons, who by themselves or their children, enjoy any share of the distribution of the alms-purse, from henceforth to go into, or converse in TAVERNS, CABARETS, OR SUCH LIKE PLACES: we likewise forbid them playing at ninepins, bowls, dice, or other such forbidden games, upon pains of arbitrary punishment; consenting, nevertheless, that they may sometimes drink a pot of beer for their recreation with their wives, but not so as to be drunk. We are now come to the laws made since the Reformation, of which the first is an edict of the States of Holland, the nobility, gentry, and cities of Holland, &c. &c. *

* 19 March 1614.

A R T I C L E I.

That all men and women, who being in health go a begging, or are vagabonds, either in the towns or open countries, shall be obliged, within FOUR DAYS from the publication of this edict, to quit the province of Holland, or to acquaint the officer of the place where they design to get their livelihood, by WORK OR BY TRADE, and to give him a declaration who they are, whence they came, what is their business, and likewise inform him where they lodge and lie at nights, and pray permission to stay in that place, one, two, or three days, engaging themselves not to beg in the mean time.

A R T I C L E I V.

The beggars and vagabonds, who are not able or FIT TO WORK, shall, within two days after the publication of this edict, be sent to the place of their abode, where they must be maintained according to the usage and custom of the place; and from thence they are forbid to wander, or beg in other towns and villages, under the penalty of being, for the first offence, put to diet of BREAD AND WATER, according to the discretion of the magistrates; and, for the second offence, to be WHIPPED AND BANISHED; the third offence, publicly whipped, marked with the burning-iron, and banished again.

A R T I C L E V I I I.

All children forbid to beg, on pain of being put to bread and water, if above 8 years of age.

A R T I C L E I X.

The fathers and lodgers of children, as well above as under 8 years old, are required to take good care that their children do not go a begging, under the penalty of being punished as beggars themselves.

A R T I C L E X I.

For the clearing of the open country, all the drofts are ordered to go about their district every 8 days, and take up a vagabond

vagabonds and beggars, and to deliver them into the hands of the officer of the place where they are taken, to be proceeded against according to this law. We command likewise the ordinary officers of justice, so often as they can, and at least once a month, to do the same; and the aforesaid drosts are ordered to give an account to the provincial council of state, and the aforesaid ordinary officers to the court of Holland, either by word of mouth or by writing, of what they have done, touching the execution of this article.

ARTICLE XII.

Officers required to search inns, and all suspected places, to find out beggars and apprehend them.

ARTICLE XV.

All carriers, waggoners, &c. &c. are forbid to transport any beggars, from one place to another, under penalty of three gilders for every offence.

The last law I shall quote, is one of the States-General, of the United Provinces*.

* Placart 25 June 1649.

ARTICLE IV.

It is likewise enacted, That every TOWN, VILLAGE, OR PARISH, shall maintain its poor out of the income of the charitable foundations and collections, so far as it will go; and, in case that these means shall fall short, then the magistrates shall maintain them at the general expence of the inhabitants, as can most conveniently be done; provided always, that the poor be obliged TO WORK AND LABOUR, either for merchants, farmers, &c. &c. according to their strength and abilities, for REASONABLE WAGES. In order that they may, as far as possible, be supported that way; provided also, that they are to be indulged in no idleness nor insolence.

ARTICLE VI.

Forbidding, for the future, all masters of poor-houses, hospitals or charity-houses, masters of inns or taverns, farmers, or any other persons whatsoever, to lodge or harbour, either in their houses, granaries, or stables, or to support with meat or drink, any idlers or vagabonds, foreigners, or others, who are HEALTHY AND SOUND OF THEIR LIMBS, and who nevertheless appear in various forms and manners of beggary and idleness: forbidding also agreements with them to go shares in the profit which they make by such unlawful means, or to attend their rendezvous, or to go with them, or to shew them the way, unless along the common roads; or otherwise to shew them any favour or assistance, on pain of being taken for their accomplice, and being punished as such, as to justice shall appertain.

ARTICLE VII.

Nor shall it be any excuse for the said innkeepers, &c. that these people came by force and against their will to lodge with them, unless it be proved, that the said innkeepers, &c. gave SECRET NOTICE to the officer of the place, that such vagabonds were at his house.

ARTICLE IX.

To the end that the officers of the towns and open country may be better informed and advertised, where such vagabonds and offenders are, we command and require them and their under-officers, to go about all ordinary markets, churches, hospitals, and poor-houses, upon fair-days, upon marriages, and such-like assemblies or feasts, where these offenders are commonly found, to take them up, and proceed against them according to the contents of this edict.

ARTICLE X.

And to provide against the CHEATS that some beggars practise, of appearing to be afflicted with sickness, or otherwise infirm; it is ordered, that beggars suspected of such deceits shall, by order of the magistrates, and at the expence of the place where taken, be visited and examined by sworn physicians and surgeons, that the truth being known, those who have been guilty of such cheats, may be PUNISHED according to the nature of their offence.

ARTICLE XIII.

Charging and commanding all officers of justice in their respective districts, to do their duty, by apprehending all such idlers, wanderers, and vagabonds, on pain of being, not only arbitrarily punished, but of being obliged to pay all the damages which shall happen to any person, through their having neglected to apprehend such offenders.

VOL. II.

ARTICLE XV.

And that no difficulties may be made by SCHEPENS, JUSTICES, or officers of particular places, before whom the said offenders shall be brought, about the JUDGING OF THESE OFFENDERS; we strictly and expressly command, that whoever such offenders are brought before, whether it be high-bailiff or other officer, he shall be obliged to examine, and SENTENCE THEM, upon pain of being not only deprived of his office, but otherwise arbitrarily punished.

REMARKS.

Thus much for their laws; upon which I beg leave to make this observation; that this manner of providing for their poor was not begun at the Reformation, or occasioned by the dissolution of monastries; but rather was a natural consequence of their increasing in PEOPLE AND TRADE, which brought both busy and idle people amongst them: in the same manner, our law of the 43d of queen Elizabeth was made, upon our having flourished for about the said term of years. The disputes between the archduke Maximilian, and the States of Flanders, which forced a great deal of trade into Holland, having only ended about 1491; and the first of these laws is made just 40 years after, as our law was forty years after the end of queen Mary's persecution, and the beginning of queen Elizabeth's encouragement to trade*.

* See Mr North's Manuscript upon the Poor, § 2.

Now, as to their practice, every town or congregation maintains its own poor, either out of the collections which are made every Sunday, and church-day, or the ordinary collections which are made four times a year, from house to house, or the extraordinary ones, which are made when necessity requires, which have been frequently four times more. These voluntary contributions are laid up and distributed by the deacons of the several congregations, and the poor are by them, either maintained in their own houses, or lodged with others, according to their circumstances or infirmities.

The charity of the people of Holland is such, that the collections suffice, in ordinary years, for the maintenance of the poor; but in extraordinary ones, the magistrates have advanced great sums for that purpose: as for example, in the year 1740, the magistrates of the Hague paid 15,000 gilders, and those of Leyden 30,000 on that account.

But the diacony, or treasury of the reformed and established church of Amsterdam, is upon so good a footing, that they did not even in that year, want the aid of the magistrate; they distributed 578,758 gilders, but their income is about 500,000.

The Romish, Lutheran, and other diaconies, are directed in the same manner as those of the established religion, and distributed to about 500, and may keep in houses 6 or 700 old people and children in Amsterdam: the established church to about 1000 or 1200 poor families, besides their three almshouses, where are about 1300 old people and children.

REMARKS.

There are other hospitals and poor-houses, besides these three, of which the great one, that takes in beggars children of all persuasions and foundlings, has about 1500 children.

The poor are here, not only free of all excises, but they have an allowance paid of some branches of the excise, and a third part of all fines in criminal cases, computed, goes to the poor-houses, of which there are two sorts where poor children are maintained; one goes by the name of the orphan-house, the other of the poor-house; the former is filled with children of a BETTER RANK than the other, with the children of decayed SHOPKEEPERS, and those who have LIVED WELL, and the latter with those of the LOWEST SORT OF PEOPLE. When a child is taken into either of these houses, the governors possess themselves of whatever little effects they have for the use of the house.

These children are extremely well taken care of; they have masters and mistresses, to teach them reading, writing, and accounts, and the girls plain needle-work. When they are fit to go out, they are put to masters and mistresses by the day to LEARN TRADES, and they come back to these houses to dinner, and in the evening; what they gain during this time, in the poor-house, belongs to the house; but in the orphan-house, the children are allowed A FOURTH OR A FIFTH PART of what they gain for themselves.

When they come to be upwards of 20 years of age, and are able to gain their living, the house CLOATHS THEM WELL, and TURNS THEM OUT; in the orphan-house they return likewise the value of the capital brought in with them, but the interest falls to the house: there are, however, some who, on account of defects in their understanding, or other reasons, are maintained in the house all their days.

These houses have been some of them pious foundations of private persons; some of them have been built or bought by the towns, and afterwards supported from pious legacies and charities, by which some of them are become rich.

The public old mens and womens house in Amsterdam, was founded by the profits of two LOTTERIES, about the year 1600, and is supported by some donations, and by periodical collections, in the old-church, and by one third of the profits of the PLAY-HOUSE, which is from 12 to 15,000 gilders a year; the other two thirds go to the support of the burghers orphan-house.

The direction of these houses is always in the BEST PEOPLE OF THE COUNTRY, and it is esteemed an HONOUR, as well as a PIOUS OFFICE, to assist in looking after them. Thus ladies of the FIRST QUALITY have gone, once in three weeks, or oftener, to see that things are well administered, to examine the childrens linen, cloathing, nourishment, &c. &c. and to inspect the expence and accounts.

As to the Rasp, and Verbetering, or correction-houses for rogues, and those who being able will not work, these are maintained by the respective towns, generally at a small expence, there being a good deal of PROFIT MADE OF THE WORK THAT IS DONE IN THEM: they set the offenders reasonable tasks, and when those are well done, they allow them certain hours TO WORK FOR THEMSELVES: a few years ago the workhouse at Breda cost the barony a TRIFLE, AND MADE VERY FINE MANUFACTURES: the master, who was put in there, had been a broken CLOTHIER at Leyden, but who, tho' become a bankrupt by misfortunes, understood his business well, and instructed numbers of people in the workhouse to make good cloths, by setting them first to comb wool, and so bringing them by degrees to more difficult branches.

The yearly expence of the Rasp-house at Rotterdam, is from 8 to 10,000 gilders, of which generally about 5 or 6 accrues from the labour of the people, and the remainder is supplied by the magistrates out of the surplus of some of their taxes. There is a kind of Bridewell (called the Vrywillige Rasphuys) at Amsterdam, which is partly maintained BY AN ADDITIONAL TAX ON ALL THE GIN-SHOPS, PETTY HOUSES FOR SELLING WINE AND BEER, AND LITTLE TOBACCO-SHOPS.

The people in the Rasp-house are employed in two kinds of labour, CHIPPING AND RASPING LOGWOOD: a chipper must chip 3600 pounds in 14 days, Sundays included, for which the house is paid at the rate of 5 stivers per pound. A rasper must rasp 300 pounds nett in 12 working days, and the house is paid for it 30 stivers per 100 pounds. When they perform more than their ALLOTTED TASK, TWO-THIRDS go to themselves. The women are employed in a great many different branches, and contribute in proportion as much towards the GENERAL EXPENCE AS THE MEN.

By more or less allowance of MEAT AND DRINK, as well as by the quality of it, the GOOD ARE ENCOURAGED, and the bad BROUGHT TO REASON: to those who are remarkably obstinate, they use such severity as soon reduces them to order, but it cannot be enough repeated, that the grand secret of reducing ALL ROGUES TO TEMPER AND REASON, is by DIET more than by any other correction; and I am perswaded, if this was ONCE TRIED STEADILY IN ENGLAND, IT WOULD PREVENT ROBBERIES, &c. &c. more than any other method of severity.

In the villages, or open country where there are no HOUSES OF CORRECTION, offenders are sent to the towns who have them, and so much is allowed by those who send them to the towns for their maintenance; and their poor children are taught and taken care of in the villages, by persons appointed by the magistrates of the place.

In general, the administration of the poor here is excellent, tho' their discipline, with regard to foreign beggars, is much relaxed; but there being many CHECKS UPON THE ACCOUNTS OF ALL THEIR CHARITIES, it is difficult to attempt, and rare to hear of any fraud in the RECEIPT OR DISPOSITION OF THEM: the provision of the 16th article of the emperor Charles the Vth's law, enjoining the making up the accounts PUBLICLY, is, perhaps, alone sufficient to guard the poor-money from any notorious mal-administration.

These, Sir, are the informations I proposed to give you relative to the poor of this country, their conduct with regard to them having been often cited as a pattern worthy imitation.'

GENERAL REMARKS on the article of POOR.

Let us cast our eyes on the multitude of unfortunate people in this kingdom of reputable families, and of liberal, or at least easy education: some undone by guardians, some by law-suits, some by accidents in commerce, some by stocks and bubbles, and some by suretiship. But all agree in this one circumstance, that they must either be burthensome to their relations, or betake themselves to little shifts for sustenance, which (it is ten to one) do not answer their purposes, and to which a well-educated mind descends with the utmost constraint.

What various misfortunes may reduce the rich, the industrious, to the danger of a prison, to a moral certainty of starving! These are the people that may relieve themselves, and strengthen our plantations, [see COLONIES and PLANTATIONS] by resorting thither, and Great-Britain by their departure. I appeal to the recollection of the reader (though he

be opulent, though he be noble) does not his own sphere of acquaintance? (I may venture to ask) Does not even his own blood, his set of near relations, furnish him with some instances of such persons as have been here described? Must they starve? What honest mind can bare to think it? Must they be fed by the contributions of others? Certainly they must, rather than be suffered to perish. Are these wealth to the nation? Are they not a burthen to themselves, a burthen to their kindred and acquaintance, a burthen to the whole community?

I have heard it said (and it is easy to say so) let them learn to work; let them subdue their pride and descend to mean employments, keep ale-houses or coffee-houses, even sell fruit, or clean shoes for an honest livelihood. But alas! these occupations, and many more like them, are overstocked already by people who know better how to follow them, than they do whom we have been talking of. Half of those who are bred in low life, and well versed in such shifts and expedients, find but a very narrow maintenance by them. As for labouring, I could almost wish that the gentleman or merchant, who thinks that another gentleman or merchant in want, can thresh or dig, to the value of subsistence for his family, or even for himself: I say, I could wish the person who thinks so, were obliged to make trial of it for a week, or (not to be too severe) for only a day: he would find himself to be less than the fourth part of a labourer, and that the fourth part of a labourer's wages could not maintain him.

I have heard it said, that a man may learn to labour by practice; it is admitted: but it must also be admitted, that before he can learn, he may starve. Suppose a gentleman was this day to begin, and with grievous toil found himself able to earn three pence, how many days or months are necessary to form him, that he may deserve a shilling per diem? Men, whose wants are importunate, must try such expedients as will give immediate relief. It is too late for them to begin to learn a trade, when their pressing necessities call for the exercise of it.

Having thus described (I fear, too truly) the pitiable condition of the better sort of the indigent, an objection arises against their removal, upon what is stated of their imbecility for drudgery. It may be asked, if they can't get bread here for their labour, how will their condition be mended in our plantations? The answer is easy, part of it is well attested, and part self-evident. They have land there for nothing, and that land is so fertile, that they receive an hundred fold increase for taking very little pains. Give here in England ten acres of good land to one of those helpless persons, and I doubt not his ability to make it sustain him, and this by his own culture, without letting it to another: but the difference between no rent and rack-rent, is the difference between eating and starving. See the article MANURE.

If I make but 20l. of the produce of a field, and am to pay 20l. rent for it, it is plain I must perish if I have not another fund to support me: but if I pay no rent, the produce of that field will supply the mere necessities of life.

Besides the persons before described, there are others whom it may be proper to send abroad, for reason will also shew that whose expence these other sorts of indigent people ought to be removed. I think it may be laid down for a rule, that we may well spare all those, who having neither income nor industry equal to their necessities, are forced to live upon the fortunes or labours of others; and that they who now are a heavy RENT-CHARGE UPON THE PUBLIC, may be made an IMMENSE REVENUE TO IT, and this by a happy exchange of their poverty for an affluence.

Believing it will be granted that the people before described ought in prudence to go abroad, or have land given them to cultivate at home, and that we are bound in humanity and charity to send them, there arises a question, Whether our aiding their departure be consistent with good policy? I raise this objection on purpose to answer it, because some who mean very well to the public have fancied, that our numbers absolutely taken, WITHOUT A DISTINCTION, ARE REAL WEALTH TO A NATION. Upon a little examination, this will appear to be a mistaken notion. It arises from a misapplication of Sir William Petty's Political Arithmetic, and of Sir William Temple's Observations on the United Netherlands. But when these great men esteem people as the wealth of a nation, surely they can only mean such as labour, and by their industry add yearly to the capital stock of their country, at the same time that they provide the necessaries or comforts of life for themselves.

Perhaps the Rasp-houses may be reckoned part of the riches of Holland, because the drones are made to work in them: but is an infirmary of incurables wealth to a community? Or (which is worse, because it is remediable and is not remedied) are hundreds of prisons filled with thousands of English debtors, and are they a glory or a reproach, a benefit or a burthen to the nation? Who can be so absurd as to say, that we should be enriched by the importation of a multitude of cripples, who might not be able, perhaps, to earn a fourth part of what is necessary to sustain them?

If ten thousand of these would be an addition to our wealth, ten millions of them must add a thousand times as much to it. Did the fire of London add to the wealth of the nation? I am sure it gave abundance of employment to the poor, just as people are employed in trade to feed and cloath the inhabitants of prisons. But these are also a slow fire, an hectic fever to consume the vitals of the state.

The true state of national wealth is like that of private wealth, it is comparative. The nation, as well as individuals, must work to save and not to spend. If I work hard all day, and at night give my wages to the next cripple I see, however good it may be judged of in a religious sense, my worldly fortune is in the same condition as if I had stood idle. If the produce of the nation be in moveables, land, and labour, fifty millions in a year, and only forty-eight millions are expended to maintain the people, then has the nation added two millions to its capital: but if it spends fifty-one millions, then is that to be made good by sinking part of the personal estate, or mortgaging the real. And upon a par, plus a million, and minus a million in earning and expences, will operate nothing towards increasing the national wealth: if you proceed in infinitum, it is only impoverishing the RICH TO MAINTAIN THE POOR: it seems, indeed, to have something of levelling in it; to prevent which, I think our men of fortune would act wisely once for all, to put these poor people on a footing of their own, and shake off the perpetual incumbrance by a single act of prudent beneficence.

Some would have Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, sunk under water, but all the people saved and settled in England. Such certainly deceive themselves with a view of the artificial strength of the Dutch, when their fishery was at the highest pitch, and when they were carriers for mankind.

But they have not been able to preserve these branches of trade entire, and their numbers must decrease as do the means of maintaining them*. Therefore, instead of taking it for granted, that numbers of people necessarily create a traffic, we may invert the proposition, and safely hold, that an extensive traffic will infallibly be attended with sufficient numbers of people.

* To illustrate the doctrine laid down in this sentence, take the following part of a description of a neighbouring country by a celebrated author,

I met in my day's journey nine cars loaden with old musty shrivelled hides, one car-load of butter, one cow and calf driven by a man and his wife. A colony of one hundred and fifty beggars, all repairing to people our metropolis, and by increasing the number of hands, to increase its wealth: upon the old maxim, That people are the riches of a nation. And, therefore, one thousand mouths with hardly ten pair of hands, or any work to employ them, will infallibly make us a rich and flourishing people. Secondly, Travellers enough, but seven in ten wanting shirts and cravats; nine in ten going barefoot and carrying their brogues and stockings in their hands. One woman in twenty having a pillion, the rest riding bare backed. Above two hundred horsemen, with four pair of boots amongst them all; seventeen saddles of leather (the rest being made of straw) and most of their garranes only shod before. I went into one of the principal farmer's houses out of curiosity, and his whole furniture consisted of two blocks for stools, a bench on each side the fire-place made of turf, six trenchers, one bowl, a pot, six horn-spoons, three noggins, three blankets (one of which served the man and maid-servant, the other two, the master of the family, his wife and five children) a small churn, a wooden candlestick, a broken stick for a pair of tongs. In the public towns, one third of the inhabitants walking the streets barefoot, &c.

And yet these unhappy people, who are not able to earn above a fourth part of their subsistence at home, and as we have shewn, are a load on the fortunes and industry of others, may in several of our plantations, or by cultivating more land in Great-Britain and Ireland, provide by their labour a decent maintenance, and at the same time enrich their mother-country. See the article MANURE.

Upon what has been said, the reader may be desirous to see a state of the difference (with respect to the interests of the industrious and wealthy part of the nation) between a poor person here, earning but half HIS SUSTENANCE, and the same person settled in a freehold, of a FERTILE SOIL WITHOUT TYTHES OR TAXES; and in this computation, let us remember, that of the many thousands of poor debtors who fill our prisons, few earn any thing at present; and our colonies are chiefly intended for the UNFORTUNATE, there being no danger of the departure of such as are able to maintain themselves here.

A man who is equal in ability only to the fourth part of a labourer (and many such there are) we will suppose to earn four pence per diem, or five pounds per annum in London; his wife and a child of above seven years old, four pence per diem more: upon a fair supposition (because it is the common case) he has another child too young to earn any thing. These live but wretchedly, at an expence of twenty pounds per annum. To defray which, they earn ten pounds; so that they are a loss to the rich and industrious part of the nation of ten pounds per annum; for there are but three general methods of

supplying the defect of their ability. Whatever they consume more than they earn, must be furnished, first, either by the bounty or charity of others; or, secondly, by frauds, as by running in debt to the ruin of the industrious, &c. or, thirdly, by what our law calls force and felony, as theft and robbery, &c. They must be supplied at some of these rates; therefore, as observed, this family is a loss to the rich and industrious of ten pounds per annum.

REMARKS on the article P O O R.

Since the drawing up the foregoing, I have been informed by a gentleman of great honour and veracity, resident at Ipswich in Suffolk, that their poor there are so wisely managed, as to maintain themselves; which example, if it could be happily reduced to practice as successfully in all other parts of Great Britain, would prove an extraordinary saving to the kingdom: certain it is, that to obtain such easement from the poor rate, and at the same time to add thousands upon thousands of industrious subjects to the community, who are at present a dead weight upon it, well deserves the efforts of every public-spirited man in his parish: and if once we had a few more examples evidencing the practicability of the Ipswich one, it would animate other parishes to imitate it, whereby the same might become universal throughout the nation. The employment of a million of hands, perhaps, amongst the poor, would have a tendency to lower the price of labour in general, and consequently fall the prices of our commodities and manufactures, which is so much wanted at this crisis. See our articles DUTIES, LABOUR, TAXES, WAR, and such other, to which from them we refer.

PORCELAIN, or PURCELAIN, a fine kind of earthen ware made in China, and therefore also called China, or China-ware; but brought into Europe from other parts of the east, as Japan, Siam, Surat, and Persia.

The annals of the city of Feou-learn relate, that since the year 442, the workers in porcelain have always supplied the emperors with it: and that one or two mandarines, sent from the court, had the care of that work. It is, however, probable, that before the year 442, this ware was in use, and that it has been gradually brought to its present perfection.

The fine porcelain, which is of a bright and lively white, and of a beautiful sky blue, is all brought from King-te-tching.

There is porcelain made in other parts, but it is very different from this both in colour and fineness. The emperors have brought to Pekin workers in porcelain, and all the materials employed in making it, but their work never succeeded. King-te-tching alone, has the honour of sending porcelain to all the parts of the world. The Japonese come to buy it at China.

The matter of which it is made, is composed of two kinds of earth; one of which is called petunse, and the other kaolin. This last is intermixed with corpuscles, which have a kind of splendor, but the other is simply white, and very fine to the touch. At the same time that great numbers of large barques ascend the river of Jaotchéou to King-te-tching, to be loaded with porcelain, almost as many small ones descend from Kimuen, loaded with petunse and kaolin, reduced to the form of bricks, for King-te-tching produces none of the materials proper for the porcelain.

The petunses, whose grain is so fine, are nothing else but pieces of rocks dug out of quarries, and moulded into this form. All stones are not proper for this purpose, otherwise it would not be necessary to go twenty or thirty leagues, into the other provinces for it.

The Chinese say, that the stone ought to be of a greenish colour. The first step of the preparation is this; they break these pieces of stone with a large bar of iron, after which they put the broken pieces into mortars, and with pestles which have heads of stone covered with iron, they reduce them to a very fine powder. These pestles play continually, either by the labour of men or by water, as the hammers of our paper-mills do. After this they throw the powder into a large urn full of water, and stir it briskly about with an iron pestle. When they allow it to rest some minutes, a kind of cream four or five fingers breadth thick, floats on the surface. This they take off, and pour it into another vessel full of water. Thus they several times agitate the water of the first urn, gathering the cream each time, till there remains none but the grosser parts, which subside to the bottom. These are taken out and pounded afresh.

With respect to the second urn, into which they throw what they had collected from the first, they wait till a kind of paste is formed at the bottom of it. When the water above this paste appears very clear, they pour it off by inclination, that they may not disturb the sediment, and they throw this paste into large moulds proper to dry it. Before it is quite hard, they divide it into small square pieces, which are sold by the hundred. This figure and its colour have made it get the name of petunse.

The moulds into which this paste is thrown, are a kind of very large and broad cases. The bottom is filled with bricks laid end-ways, so as to make the surface equal. Over this

bed of bricks thus ranged, they spread a cloth, as large as the cavity of the mould. Then they pour in the matter, which they cover with another cloth, over which they place a bed of bricks laid flat on each other.

This is done in order to force out the water the sooner, without losing any thing of the matter of the porcelain; which by becoming hard, easily receives the form of bricks. There would be nothing to be added to this labour, if the Chinese were not accustomed to alter their merchandize; but people who roll small grains of paste in pepper, in order to cover them with it, and mix them with genuine pepper, do not care to sell petunse without mixing some sediments with it; for which reason, they are obliged to purify them at King-te-tching, before they make use of them.

The kaolin, which enters the composition of the porcelain, gives less trouble than the petunse, nature having a greater hand in producing it. There are mines of it in the bosom of certain mountains, which are covered eternally with a reddish earth. These mines are pretty deep, and contain the kaolin in lumps, which they cut into squares, in the manner with the petunse. The white earth of Matta, commonly called St Paul's earth, has a great resemblance to the kaolin, though the former has not the little silver grains with which the latter is interspersed.

It is from the kaolin, that the fine porcelain derives all its strength. Thus it is the mixture of a soft earth which gives strength to the petunses, which are taken from the hardest rocks. Some English and Dutch bought some petunse and brought it into their own countries to make porcelain, but their enterprize failed, because they had no kaolin.

Besides the barques loaded with petunse and kaolin, with which the skirts of King-te-tching are covered, we see others full of a whitish liquid substance, and this is the oil which gives the porcelain its whiteness and lustre. This oil or varnish is drawn from the hardest stone, which is not surprising, since it is thought that stones are principally formed of the salts and oils of the earth, which mix and are intimately united with each other. Though the species of stone of which the petunses are made, may be indifferently used to obtain the oil, yet they generally chuse that which is whitest, and has the greenest spots.

Though the History of Feou-learn does not descend into a detail, yet it says, that the good stone for the oil, is that which has spots of a colour of a cypress-leaf, or which has red marks on a brownish ground. This stone must be first well washed, after which it undergoes the same preparations with the petunse. When they have in the second urn the hardest parts they could take from the first, they throw a pound of stone or mineral like allum, upon a hundred pounds or thereabouts of this cream. It must be made red by the fire, and afterwards pounded. This is, as it were, the pressure which gives it consistence, though they take care to keep it always liquid.

This oil of stone is never employed alone. They mix another with it, which is, as it were, the soul of it. The composition is as follows: they take large pieces of quick lime, on which they throw a little water to dissolve and reduce them to pieces. Then they make a bed of dry fern, over which they lay another of slacked lime, of these they put several alternately over each other. After this they set fire to the fern. When the whole is consumed, they spread these ashes on new beds of dry fern.

This is done five or six times, and the oftener they do it the oil is the better. Formerly, says the History of Feou-learn, they used besides the wood of a tree, whose fruit is called fe-tse.

If we judge of this tree by the sourness of the fruit before it is ripe, and by its small top, we should take it to be a kind of medlar.

It is no longer used at present, probably because it is become too scarce in that country. Perhaps it is for want of this wood, that the present porcelain is not so beautiful as that of former times: the nature of the quick lime and fern contributed to the goodness of the oil; and it is observable, that what is brought from some parts, is better than what comes from others.

When they have a certain quantity of the ashes of quick lime and fern, they throw them into an urn full of water. Upon an hundred pounds they must dissolve one pound of ke-kao, stir the mixture well, and allow it to rest, 'till there appears on the surface a cloud of crust, which they take off, and put into a second urn. This they repeat several times. When a kind of paste is formed at the bottom of the second urn, they pour off the water by inclination, and keep this liquid paste, which is the second oil, to be mixed with the former; for a just mixture of these two depurated oils, they must be equally thick. In order to judge of this, they several times plunge into each of them pieces of petunse, by taking which out, they see upon their surface whether they are equally thick.

This is what relates to the quality of those two oils. As for the quantity, the best way is to mix ten measures of the oil of stone, with one measure of the oil of quick lime and fern. They who are most sparing, never put less than three mea-

asures. If the merchants who sell this oil, have the least inclination to cheat, they can easily augment its bulk by throwing water into it, and adding a proportional quantity of ke-kao, to cover this fraud and hinder the oil from being too liquid.

Before I explain the manner of applying this oil, or rather varnish, I shall describe how the porcelain is made. We shall first begin with the work performed in the least frequented parts of King-te-tching. There is an inclosure of walls, within which they build vast piles, one story above another, of a prodigious number of earthen urns. In this inclosure live and work an incredible number of labourers, each of whom has his task set him. Before a piece of porcelain is taken out of this to be carried to the furnace, it passes through more than twenty hands, and that without confusion. They have no doubt found, that by this means the work is much more quickly carried on.

The first labour consists in purifying again the petunse and the kaolin, from the dregs which remain in them when they are sold. They bruise the petunse, and throw it into an urn full of water. Then they dissolve it, by stirring it about with a large spatula. They let it rest some moments, and take off what swims on the surface, and so of the rest, in the manner above explained.

As for the pieces of kaolin, it is not necessary to break them. They only put them into a basket, which they immerse into an urn full of water. The kaolin is easily dissolved of itself; there generally remains a sediment, which must be thrown away. In a year's time the dregs are accumulated, and form great heaps of white sand separated from the kaolin. Thus prepared, there must be a just mixture of them. For fine porcelain, they put in as much kaolin as petunse; for ordinary, they put four parts of kaolin to six of petunse. The least they ever put, are five parts of kaolin to three of petunse.

After this first operation they throw this mass into a large cavity, well paved and cemented every where. Then they tread upon it and knead it 'till it becomes thick.

From this mass thus prepared, they take different pieces, which they extend upon large slates. On these they knead and form them into different shapes, taking care that there be no flaws therein, nor no mixtures of extraneous bodies; for a hair, or a grain of sand, would spoil the whole work; for want of rightly managing this mass, the porcelain splits, cracks, and warps. It is from these first elements, that we have so many beautiful works of porcelain, some of which are made on the wheel, others are only made upon moulds, and afterwards perfected by the chissel.

All the plain or smooth works are in the former manner. A cup, for example, when it comes off the wheel, is no more than a kind of imperfect cavity, almost like the crown of a hat before it is formed on the block. The workman first gives it the diameter and height he wants, and it comes out of his hands almost as soon as he has begun; for he has only three farthings English money for a shelf, and every shelf contains twenty-six pieces. The foot of the cup is at that time only a piece of earth of the bulk and diameter which it ought to be of, and which is hollowed out with the chissel when the cup is dry, and has acquired consistency; that is, after it has received all its ornaments.

This cup on coming from the wheel, is first received by another workman, who places it upon its bottom. A little after it is given to a third, who applies it to its mould, and gives it the same figure: this mould is a kind of turning-wheel.

A fourth polishes this cup with the chissel, especially near the lips, to render it thin and transparent. He scrapes it several times, moistening it a little with water, if it is too dry, lest it should break. When the cup is taken off the mould, it must be rolled gently on the same mould, without pressing more on one side than another; without which there will either be flaws in it, or it will warp. It is surprising to see with what speed and dexterity one of these cups passes through so many different hands. Some say, that a piece of porcelain has passed through the hands of seventy workmen.

The large pieces of porcelain are made at two different times. One half is raised on the wheel by three or four men, who support it, each on the side next to him, to give it its figure. The other half being almost dry, is applied and united to it by the matter of the porcelain, diluted in water, which serves as a kind of mortar or cement. When these pieces thus united are entirely dry, they with a knife, scrape the internal and external sides of the part where the union was which, by means of the varnish with which they cover it becomes equal to the rest.

It is in this manner, that they apply handles, ears, and other ornaments to vessels. This principally regards the porcelain made upon moulds or by the hands, such as ribbed pieces, or such as are of a whimsical figure; such as animals, idols, or busts, which the Europeans bespeak, or other things of a similar nature. These kinds of moulded works are made in three or four pieces, which they join to each other, and afterwards perfect with instruments proper to hollow, polish and repair the different parts, which had escaped the mould.

As for their flowers, and other ornaments, which are not raised, but, as it were engraved, they are applied to the porcelain with seals and moulds. They also apply raised work prepared almost in the same manner, that gold lace is sewed on a coat.

When they have the model of the piece of porcelain which is wanted, and which cannot be imitated on the wheel by the hands of the workmen, they apply over the model, earth proper for the moulds. This earth receives the impression, and the mould is made of several pieces, each of which is pretty large. They suffer the mould to become hard, when the figure is imprinted on it. When they want to use it, they place it near the fire for some time; after which they fill it with porcelain, in proportion to the thickness they want to give it: they press with their hands on all parts, and then for a moment, present the mould to the fire. The imprinted figure is forthwith detached from the mould by the action of the fire, which a little consumes the humidity that glued this matter to the mould. The different pieces of the whole drawn separately are afterwards re-united, with the somewhat liquid matter of the porcelain. In this manner they make figures of animals, which are all solid. They leave this mass to harden, give it the figure proposed, perfect it with the chissel, or add the parts formed separately. These kinds of works are made with great care and pains. When the work is finished, they lay on the varnish and bake it. Then if they please, they paint it of various colours and gild it. Afterwards they bake it a second time. Pieces of porcelain thus finished, are sold extremely dear. All these works ought to be defended from the cold; humidity makes them split, when they are not dried equally, for which reason they sometimes keep fires in these laboratories.

These moulds are made of a fat yellow earth, which is found in a place near King-te-tching. This earth is kneaded, and where it is united, and becomes a little hard, they take a quantity of it necessary for the mould, and beat it strongly; when they have given it the desired figure, they dry it, and form it on the wheel.

This kind of work is sold dear. In order speedily to answer a commission, they make a great quantity of moulds, that a vast number of labourers may be employed at once. If these moulds are taken care of, they last a long time. A merchant who has them ready for the porcelain-works, bespoke by an European, may sell his commodity better, and make a much more considerable gain than another who should have them to make. If these moulds should happen to crack, or have their surfaces splintered, they are no longer of any service, except for porcelain of the same figure, but of a smaller size. In this case, they put them on the wheel and smooth them, that they may serve a second time.

They often embellish their porcelain, by making it pass through the hands of painters, who are not much richer than the other workmen. At this we need not be astonished, since, except a few of them, they would only pass in Europe for apprentices, who had been some months at the business. The whole science of these, and of the Chinese painters in general, is founded upon no principles, and only consists in following a certain beaten track, assisted with a narrow and confined imagination; they are ignorant of all the beautiful rules of this art: we must, however, confess that they paint flowers, animals, and landscapes, which are admired on the porcelain, as well as on screens, and the window blinds of fine gauze.

The painting is divided in the same laboratory among a great number of hands. One only forms the first coloured circle near the edges of the china; the other traces the flowers, which a third paints; one is for rivers and mountains, another for birds, and another for animals; human figures are generally most mangled by them. Certain landscapes and plans of cities illuminated, carried from Europe to China, afford us the liberty of laughing at the Chinese method of painting. As for the colours of the Chinese painting, they are of all sorts; the most common in Europe is of lively blue, on a white ground; there are some in which this ground resembles that of a burning-glass: some are entirely red, and among those some are coloured in oil, while others are of a blown red, and intermixed with small points, almost like our water-colours. When these two works succeed to their perfection, which they rarely do, they are accounted extremely valuable, and are sold at a great price.

There is some porcelain in which the landscapes are formed of a mixture of almost all sorts of colours, heightened by the gilding: these are very beautiful, when of the right kind, but the ordinary porcelain of this sort is not comparable to that painted with azure alone.

The annals of King-te-tchin say, that formerly the meaner people only used white porcelain; this probably happened because they had not in the neighbourhood of Joa-tcheou, found a less valuable azure than that used for the finest porcelain, which is brought far, and sold dear.

It is said that a merchant who dealt in porcelain being shipwrecked on a desert coast, found there much greater riches than he had lost: as he wandered on the coast, while the crew were building a small barque of the wrecks of the ship,

he perceived that the stones proper for the most beautiful azure were very common there. He brought a large cargo with him; and it is said that, by that means, there was never so beautiful an azure seen at King-te-tchin. The Chinese merchant in vain attempted to find that coast again, on which he had been thrown by chance. The azure is prepared in the following manner: they bury it in gravel, which is about half a foot high in the furnace; here they bake it 24 hours; then they reduce it to an impalpable powder, as well as the other colours, not upon marble, but in large porcelain mortars, whose bottoms are without varnish, as well as the pestles employed to pound it.

The red colour is produced with copperas: they put a pound of copperas in a crucible, which they lute with another crucible, in the superior end of which is a second aperture, which is covered in such a manner, that it may be easily uncovered, if necessity requires. They surround the whole with a large charcoal fire, and, that they may have the stronger reverberation of the heat, they enclose the whole with bricks. So long as the smoke rises very black, the matter is not duly prepared; but as soon as a small cloud, fine and subtle arises, it is sufficiently done. Then they take a little of this matter, dilute it in water, and make a trial of it upon a piece of board; if a beautiful red is produced by it, they remove the fire which surrounds it, and in part covers the crucible; when the whole is cold, they find a small cake of this red at the bottom of the crucible, but the best red adheres to the superior part of it. A pound of copperas yields four ounces of the red with which they paint the porcelain.

Though the porcelain is naturally white, and rendered still more so by the varnish, yet there are certain figures for which they apply a particular white upon the porcelain, which is painted of several colours. This white is made of the powder of transparent flints, which is calcined in the furnace, in the same manner as the azure. To half an ounce of this powder they add an ounce of cerufs pulverized. For example, to make the green, to one ounce of cerufs, and half an ounce of the powder of flints, they add three ounces of what they call tom-hoa-prien, which, according to all appearances, are the finest scorix of copper reduced to powder.

The prepared green becomes the matter of the violet, which is made by adding a proper quantity of white: they add more of the prepared green in proportion, as they want the violet more deep. The yellow is made by taking seven drachms of prepared white, to which they add three drachms of copperas. All the colours laid upon the porcelain already baked, after they are varnished, do not appear green, violet, red, or yellow, till they are baked a second time. These different colours are applied with cerufs, salt-petre, and copperas; some say that they only employ cerufs, which is mixed with the colour, when they dissolve it in gum water.

The red colour in oil is produced by mixing the red tom-lon-hum, or even the red I have mentioned, with the ordinary oil of porcelain, and another oil made of white flints, in the same manner with the first species of oil: several trials discover the particular quantity of each to be used; then they leave the porcelain to dry, and bake it in the ordinary furnace: if, after the baking, the red comes out pure and sparkling, without the least stain, they have attained then to the perfection of the art. These kinds of porcelains do not sound when they are struck. The other species of blown red is made thus: they have the red prepared; they take a pipe, of which the apertures are covered with fine gauze; they gently apply the lower end of the pipe to the colour laid on the gauze, after which they blow into the pipe against the porcelain, which is, by that means, beautified with red spots. This sort of porcelain is still dearer and rarer than the preceding, because the production of it is more difficult, if the workman observes all the requisite proportion.

The black porcelain has also its beauty and value: it is called oumien. The black is leaded, and resembles that of our burning-glasses; the gold laid upon it renders it still more agreeable. They give this black colour to the porcelain when it is dry; and, for this purpose, they mix an ounce of azure with seven ounces of the ordinary oil of stone: trials exactly teach the proportion of this mixture, according to the deeper or fainter colour they intend to give to the porcelain. When this colour is dry, they bake the porcelain, after which they lay on the gold, and bake it again in a particular furnace.

There is also a kind of porcelain made, which externally is all pierced, like pinking; in the middle is a cup proper to contain the liquor: the cup, however, is but one substance with the pinking work. There are other porcelains, on which the Chinese or Tartar ladies are painted to the life; the drapery, the complexion, and the features, are all preserved: at a distance these works are taken for enamel.

It is to be observed, that, when they lay no other oil on the porcelain than that of white flints, this porcelain is of a particular species, and is called tsou-tschi; it is all marbled and crossed in all directions, with an infinite number of veins.

The colour which this oil gives is a white, somewhat cineritious. If the porcelain is all azured, and if they lay this oil on it, it will appear both cut and marbled when the colour is dry.

When they apply the gold they pound it, and dissolve it in the bottom of a porcelain vessel, 'till they see under the water, a small canopy of gold. They suffer it to dry, and, when, they want to use it, they dissolve a sufficient quantity of it in gum-water. With thirty parts of gold they incorporate three parts of cerufs, and lay it on the porcelain in the same manner with the other colours.

There is also a species of porcelain made in the following manner: they give it the ordinary varnish, and bake it again; they sometimes designedly delay the painting 'till after the first baking; sometimes, also, they have recourse to the second baking, to conceal the faults of the porcelain, by applying colours to the defective places. This porcelain, which is full of colouring, is agreeable to the taste of a great many people. It generally happens that we feel inequalities on this sort of porcelain, and these have been necessary either to supply the shades of the painting, or cover the defect of the porcelain.

When the painting is dry, as well as the gilding, if there is any, they make piles of the porcelain, and putting the small into the large vessels, place them in the furnace.

These furnaces may be of iron, when they are small, but generally they are of earth. Some of them are as high as a man, and almost as wide as one of our largest hogheads for wine. They are made of several pieces, of the same matter with the cases for the porcelain; they are large pieces, about an inch thick, a foot high, and a foot and a half long.

Before they bake them, they give them a figure proper for becoming round; they are placed over each other, and well cemented. The bottom of the furnace is raised about a foot and a half above the ground, and placed upon two or three rows of thick, but not very broad bricks. Round the furnace is a well-built inclosure of bricks, which at its bottom has two or three air-holes, which serve as bellows to the fire. This inclosure is a foot and a half distance from the furnace, except in three or four places, which are filled up, and serve as supports to the furnace; they, at the same time, remove the furnace and the inclosure, without which the furnace cannot stand. They fill the furnace with the porcelain they want to bake a second time, piling the small into a large vessel; when this is done, they cover the mouth of the furnace with pieces like those of which its sides are built. These pieces, whose edges are laid over each other, are closely united with mortar, or a kneaded earth fit for that purpose. They only leave an aperture in the middle, in order to observe when the porcelain is baked. They afterwards kindle a quantity of coals under the furnace; they also kindle coals on the covering, whence they throw the ashes into the spaces between the inclosure of bricks and the furnace. The aperture at the top of the furnace is covered with a piece of a broken pot. When the fire is burning, they now and then look through this aperture, and, when the porcelain appears to be shining, and painted with brisk and lively colours, they remove the fire, and take out the porcelain.

There may naturally arise a thought concerning the colours which are incorporated with porcelain already baked and varnished with cerufs, to which, according to the annals of Feou-leam, they added salt-petre and copperas: if we employed cerufs in the colours with which we paint the squares of glass, and afterwards give them a second kind of baking, might not this cerufs restore to us the ancient secret of painting glass, without destroying any thing of its transparency? But this is only to be judged of by experience.

The Chinese had formerly the art of painting, on the sides of porcelain vessels, fishes, and other animals, which were only perceptible when the vessel was full of some liquor. They call this species *kia-hin*, that is, azure, is put in press on account of the manner in which the azure is laid on: this is all, that is retained of this secret; perhaps, in Europe, we may conjecture at what the Chinese are ignorant of. The porcelain to be painted thus ought to be very thin; when it is dry, we ought to apply a pretty faint colour, not externally, as is usual, but within on the sides. They paint fish, as most proper to appear when the cup is filled with water.

When the colour is once dry, they lay over it a slight bed of strong but fine glue, made of the same earth as porcelain; this bed incloses the azure between these two laminæ of earth.

When the bed is dry they lay the varnish on the inside of the porcelain; some time after they put it on the mould and wheel.

As it has received a body in the inside, they render it externally as slender as possible, without penetrating to the colour.

Then we must put the outside of the porcelain into the varnish, and, when the whole is dry, they bake it in the common furnace. This labour is extremely nice, and requires a dexterity of which the Chinese are no longer masters; they are, however, every now and then trying to recover the art of this magical painting, but to no purpose.

Be this as it will, we may at present say, that the beautiful azure appears again upon the porcelain, after having disappeared for some time. When it is first applied, it is of a palish black colour; when it is dry, and has received the varnish, it is totally eclipsed, and the porcelain appears white; the colours are then buried under the varnish; the fire makes them blow, almost in the same manner as the natural heat brings

out the most beautiful butterflies, with all their variety of colours. It is to be observed, that, before the varnish is laid upon the porcelain, it is to be polished, and its irregularities removed: for this purpose, they use a pencil made of very fine feathers, which they moisten a little with water, and pass every where with a gentle hand.

Besides, there is great art in the manner of laying the varnish on the porcelain, both in putting on a sufficient quantity, and spreading it equally on all parts. To very thin and slender porcelain they give, at two different times, two slight beds of varnish, for, if these beds were too thick, the weak sides of the cup would not bear them, but bend immediately. These two beds are as good as an ordinary varnish, which they give the fine and strong china: they lay on the one by impression, and the other by immersion. At first they take the cup in one hand, on the outside, and holding it slopingly over the urn where the varnish is, they with the other throw as much into it as is sufficient to varnish it every where; this is done successively to a vast number of cups. When they are dry within, they varnish the outside in the following manner: they hold one hand on the cup, and supporting it with a small stick under the middle of its bottom, they plunge it into the vessel full of varnish, and immediately take it out; it is to be remembered, that the foot of the cup remains solid: in a word, it is not 'till it has received the varnish and becomes dry, that they put it upon the wheel to hollow the bottom; after which, they paint upon it a small circle, and often a Chinese letter. When this painting is dry, they varnish the cavity they have made under the cup, and this is the last hand put to it, since it is forthwith carried from the laboratory to the furnace to be baked.

The place where the furnaces are, presents us with another scene. In a kind of area, or entry, before each furnace, we see heaps of cases, destined to contain the porcelain: every piece of porcelain, however coarse, as well those which have lids as those which have not, has its case. These lids are but weakly attached to the lower part in baking, and are easily disengaged by a small stroke which they give them. As for the small porcelain-ware, such as tea and chocolate-cups, they have a case common to many of them. The workman in this imitates nature, who, in order to concoct and mature fruits, includes them under a common covering, that the heat of the sun may only penetrate them gradually, and that its internal action may not be too much interrupted by the external air, during the cold damps of the night.

These cases have in the inside a kind of bed of sand, which is covered with the powder of koalin, that the sand may not adhere too much to the foot of the cup, which is placed upon this bed, after having pressed it, and given it the figure of the porcelain, which does not touch the sides of the case: the mouth of the case has no covering. A second case, of the figure of the first, furnished in like manner with porcelain, is so fitted into it, as to cover it intirely, without touching the porcelain below. In this manner they fill the furnace with large piles of earthen cases, all furnished with porcelain. By means of those thick coverings, the beauty, and, if we may use the expression, the complexion of the porcelain, is not defaced by the fire.

With respect to the small pieces of porcelain, which are contained in large round cases, each of which is placed upon a supporter of earth, about the thickness of two crowns, and as wide as its foot, the bottoms of these are also covered with the powder of koalin. When these cases are large, they put no porcelain in the middle, because it would be too far from the sides, by which means, the case being destitute of due strength, would break and fall down, and endanger the whole pile. We must observe, that these cases are the third of a foot in height, and some of them are not baked no more than the porcelain; however, they intirely fill those which have been already baked, and are still fit for use.

We must not forget the manner in which the porcelain is put into these cases. The workman does not touch it immediately with his hands, for, by that means, he might either break it, or produce irregularities in it; he draws it from off the plate by means of a small cord; this cord is fixed at one end to two somewhat crooked branches of a fork of wood, which he takes in one hand, while with the other he holds the two ends of the cord, crossed and open, according to the bulk of the porcelain. In this manner he surrounds it, raises it gently, and places it on the small pedestal in the case. All this is done with incredible expedition.

We have already observed, that the bottom of the furnace is covered with a bed of gravel, a foot and a half thick; this gravel is designed for the more securely placing the piles of porcelain, whose rows, which are in the middle of the furnace, are at least seven feet high. The two cases at the foot of each pile are empty, because the fire does not act sufficiently below, and because they are in some measure covered by the gravel: for the same reason, the case placed at the top of the pile is left empty. In this manner they fill the whole furnace, leaving no vacuity, except at the place which is immediately under the vent.

In the middle of the furnace they place the piles of the finest porcelain, at the bottom such as are coarser, and at the entry such as are of a deeper colour, which are composed of an equal quantity of petunse and kaolin, and on which they have laid a varnish made of the stone which has spots a little black or red, because that oil has a stronger body than the other. All these piles are placed very near each other, and united below, above, and at the middle, with some pieces of earth which they apply to them in such a manner, however, that the flame has a free passage to insinuate itself equally on all sides. This depends on the eye and dexterity of the workman, and is absolutely necessary to succeed in his attempt, and avoid certain accidents, nearly similar to those which arise from obstructions in the animal body.

All earths are not proper for the cases which contain the porcelain. There are three sorts used; the one is yellow, and very common; it is used in the greatest quantity, and constitutes the base. The other is called laotu, that is, a strong earth. The third, which is an oleous earth, is called yeoutou. These two last earths are in the winter-time taken from very deep mines, where it is not possible to work during the summer: if they were mixed with equal quantities, which would cost a little more, the cases would last longer. They bring these earths ready prepared, from a large village at the foot of the river, about a league from King-te-tching. Before they are baked they are yellowish; but, when baked, they are of a dark red colour: as the workmen are very sparing, they put in most of the yellow earth, which is the reason why the cases do not last above two or three bakings, after which they split altogether; if they are but slightly split, they tie them round with a band of osiers: the band is burned, but the case serves for that time, without doing any harm to the porcelain. They must not fill a furnace with new cases, which have not been used before; the half of them must be such as have been baked before: these are placed at top and bottom; in the middle of the piles they place such as are new made. Formerly, according to the History of Feou-learn, all the cases were baked separately in a furnace, before they were used for baking the porcelain; no doubt, because at that time, they had less regard to the expence than to the perfection of the work: it is not so at present, because the workers in porcelain are multiplied to an incredible number.

We shall now consider the structure of the furnaces. They are placed at the bottom of a pretty long entry, which serves as a bellows to them, and is of the same use as the arch of a glass-founder's. The furnaces are, at present, larger than they were some years ago, since in former times, according to the Chinese books, they were only six feet in breadth and height; at present they are two fathoms high, and almost four fathoms broad. The arch as well as the body of the furnace, is pretty thick, that they may be able to walk upon it, without being incommoded by the fire. This arch, in the inside, is neither flat, nor formed into a point, but runs slanting, and grows narrower in proportion as it approaches the great vent, which is at the extremity, and through which the flames and smoke are discharged. Besides this vent, the furnace has in it's top five small apertures, which are, as it were, the eyes of it; they cover them with some broken pots, in such a manner, however, that they assist the air and fire of the furnace; it is by these eyes that they judge whether the porcelain is baked enough: they uncover the eye which is a little before the great vent, and with iron tongs open one of the cases. The porcelain is enough baked when there is a clear fire in the furnace, and when all the cases are red-hot, and when the colours are bright and clear: then they discontinue the fire, and close up the door of the furnace for some time; the furnace having a deep fire all over it. They pass over a plank into the cavity of the furnace, in order to range the porcelain. When they have kindled the fire, they forthwith shut the door, leaving in it an aperture necessary to throw in pieces of wood a foot long, but very small. They first heat the furnace for a day and a night: then two men, who relieve each other, constantly throw wood into it; for one baking they generally burn four-score loads. To judge of this matter by what the Chinese book says, that quantity cannot be sufficient: in it we are assured that they burned 240 loads for this purpose, and 20 more if the weather was rainy, though at that time the furnaces were smaller by one half than those used at present. They at first kept up a gentle fire in them for seven days and seven nights, and on the eighth day made a very strong fire. It is to be observed, that at this time the cases of the small porcelain were baked apart, before they were put into the furnace; it must also be owned, that the ancient porcelain had more substance than the modern.

The old workers also observed one thing, which is neglected at present; when there was no more fire in the furnace, they did not open the door till after five days, for the small: at present, indeed, they delay opening the door, and taking out the large porcelain, for some days, for without this precaution they would split; but for the small, if the fire has been extinguished in the evening, they take them out the next day: the design is probably to spare wood for the next

baking. As the porcelain is excessively hot, the workman, in order to lay hold of it, uses long slings hung about his neck.

After having in one day burnt a hundred and four-score loads of wood in the entry of the furnace, it is surprizing that the next day no ashes should be found. They who attend these furnaces must be well accustomed to the fire: it is said they put salt into their tea, that they may drink as much of it as they please, without being the worse; but it is not easy to comprehend how this salted liquor allays their thirst.

After what has been said, it is not surprizing that porcelain should be so dear in Europe. It is also to be observed, that, besides the great gain of the European merchants, and that which their Chinese commissioners make of them, it is rare that a baking succeeds entirely, that often the whole is lost, and that, on opening the furnace, they find the porcelain and cases reduced to a mass as hard as a rock; and too great a fire, or ill-tempered cases, may destroy the whole; that it is not easy to regulate the fire which ought to be applied; that the nature of the weather instantaneously changes the action of the fire, the quality of the subject on which it acts, and that of the wood which supports it. Thus for one workman who becomes rich, there are an hundred others who ruin themselves, and tempt fortune, from the hopes they have of amassing wherewithal to set up a merchant's shop.

Besides, the porcelain transported into Europe is almost all made upon new models, which are often whimsical, and in which it is difficult to succeed; provided it has but the smallest fault, it is disliked by the Europeans, who will have nothing but what is perfect; for this reason, it remains in the hands of the workman, who cannot sell it to the Chinese, because it is not agreeable to their taste: it is, therefore, necessary, that the pieces sold should defray the expence of such as are rejected.

According to the History of King-te-tching, the gain formerly arising from porcelain was much greater than at present. This can hardly be believed, for there was not at that time so great a vent for porcelain in Europe. This happens because the living is at present dearer than before; because the wood in the neighbouring mountains being exhausted, they are obliged to bring it a great way, and at a vast expence, because the profit is divided among so many different persons; and lastly, because the workmen are less skilful than they were in former times, and consequently less certain in succeeding. This may also proceed from the avarice of the mandarins, who employing a great many workmen, make rich presents to their protectors at court, and pay the labourers ill, which are sufficient reasons why the merchandize should be dear, and the merchant poor.

The difficulty of imitating certain models sent from Europe, is one of the circumstances which augment the price of porcelain; for all the workmen cannot labour upon all the models sent from foreign countries: some of them are impossible to be imitated in China, just as some of their works surprize strangers, and are thought impossible to be done.

The following are some examples of this: we there see a large porcelain lantern, through which a flambeau enlightens a whole room. This work had been bespoke by the hereditary prince, who also bespoke several musical instruments, and, among the rest, a kind of small organ, called t-feng, which is near a foot high, and composed of fourteen pipes, whose melody is very agreeable. They succeed perfectly in flutes, flagelets, and another instrument called yun-lo, which is composed of several small, round, and somewhat concave plates, each of which has a particular sound; they suspend nine of them in a square, which corresponds to so many different stages, which are touched with sticks, like the drum: there is a small chime, which agrees with the sound of other instruments, and imitates voices. It is necessary, they say, to make a great many experiments, in order to discover the thickness, and the degree of baking proper for the tones necessary for harmony.

To return to such of the Chinese works as are curious. They succeed principally in grotesque pieces, and the figures of animals. The workmen make ducks and tortoises, which float upon the water; they make cats, painted in the natural manner, which upon their heads carry a small lamp, the flame whereof forms the two eyes of the animal; by this means the rats are frightened in the night-time. They also make a great many statues of Kouan-in, a goddess celebrated in China; they represent her holding an infant in her arms, and she is invoked by barren women who want to have children: she may be compared to the antique statues which we have of Venus and Diana, with this difference, that the statues of Kouan-in are very modest.

There is another kind of porcelain, the making of which is very difficult, and is, therefore, very uncommon. The body of this porcelain is extremely thin, and it's surface very even, both within and without; it has mouldings, however, in it, groups of flowers, for example, and other similar ornaments. It is made in the following manner: when it is taken off the wheel, they put on a mould, on which the figures are engraved, and these are imprinted on the inside; they render it as smooth and fine externally as possible, work-

ing it with the chissel, after which they varnish and bake it in the ordinary furnace.

The European merchants sometimes desire the Chinese workmen to give them plates of china for tables, the seats of chairs, or the frames of pictures; but these cannot be had: the largest and longest plates are about a foot square; if they are made larger, let them be as thick as they will, they warp. For this reason, instead of making these plates thick, they make them with two surfaces, which they unite, leaving the inside hollow: in the two sides they make two apertures, to enchase them in joiner's works, or in the backs of chairs, where they make an agreeable appearance.

The History of King-te-tching speaks of several works ordered by the emperors, which they in vain attempted to make. The grandfather of this present emperor bespoke urns, almost of the same figure with those pots in which we put orange-trees; these urns he wanted to contain small red, gold, and silver-coloured fish, which are accounted curiosities. Perhaps he also intended to bathe in these vessels, for they were to have been three feet and a half diameter, and two feet and a half high; the bottom was to have been half a foot thick, and the sides a third of a foot in thickness. The workmen laboured three years successively at these vessels, and made two hundred, none of which succeeded. The same emperor ordered plates for the porch of an open gallery; every plate was to be three feet high, two feet and an half broad, and half a foot thick. All these things, say the Annals of King-te-tching, could not be made; for which reason the mandarins of that province petitioned the emperor to have the work discontinued.

As every profession has its idol, and as divinity is there as easily communicated as the quality of count and marquis in Europe, it is not surprising that there should be a god of porcelain. The Pousa, which is the name of this idol, owes its origin to these designs which the workmen cannot execute. It is said, that formerly an emperor would absolutely have porcelain upon a model which he gave. It was represented to him, that the thing was impossible; but all remonstrances only excited his curiosity.

As porcelain has been in great esteem for so many ages, perhaps the reader may want to know wherein that of former times differs from the present, and what the judgment of the Chinese is in this particular. It is not to be doubted but China has its antiquaries, who are prepossessed in favour of their ancient works. Though the Chinese are certainly admirers of antiquity, yet some of them stand up in defence of the modern works. But the porcelain does not, like old medals, give us an acquaintance with remote times.

The old porcelain may be adorned with some Chinese characters, which, however, denote no point of history; so that the curious find nothing in it but the taste and colours, to make them prefer it to that of the present days. It is said in Europe, that porcelain must be long buried in the earth before it arrives at its perfection. This is a false opinion, at which the Chinese laugh. The History of King-te-tching, speaking of the most beautiful porcelain of former times, says, that it was so much sought after, that the furnace was hardly opened, till the merchants were disputing with each other, who should have the first parcel. This by no means supposes that it was buried in the earth.

It is true, in digging in the ruins of old buildings, and especially in cleaning old wells, there are sometimes beautiful pieces of China found, which have been hid during revolutions in the state. This porcelain is beautiful, because the inhabitants only hid what was valuable, that they might find it again when the troubles were at an end. If it is esteemed, it is not because it has acquired any new degree of beauty in the earth, but because it has retained its ancient lustre; and this alone is of great importance in China, where they give large sums for the smallest vessels, which were used under the emperors Yan and Chun, who reigned many ages before the dynasty of Tang, at which time porcelain began to be used by the emperors. All that porcelain acquires by lying long in the earth, is some change in its colouring or complexion, which shews that it is old. The same happens to marbles and ivory, but more speedily; because the varnish hinders the moisture from insinuating itself so easily into the porcelain.

According to the annals of King-te-tching, there were formerly urns sold at fifty-eight, or fifty-nine taels, which amount to more than eighty crowns. What an immense sum must these have been worth in Europe?

Certain mandarins, to their protectors at court, make presents of old porcelain, which they have the talent of making themselves; that is, they have found the art of imitating ancient porcelain, or at least such as is pretty old. The matter of these false koutongs, or counterfeit antiques, is a yellow earth, found near King-te-tching. A plate of this earth weighs as much as ten porcelain ones of the same size. There is nothing particular in making this kind of porcelain, if not that they give it a varnish made of yellow stone, mixed with ordinary oil, which prevails most in the composition. This mixture gives the porcelain a sea-green colour. When

it is baked, they throw it into a very rich broth, of fowls and other victuals, in which it is boiled. After this they put it into the filthiest sink they can find, and there leave it a month or more. When it comes out of this sink, it passes for three or four hundred years old, or at least as old as the dynasty of Ming; when the porcelain of this colour and thickness was much esteemed at court.

These spurious antiques likewise resemble the genuine ones in this, that when they are struck, they do not sound, and when they are applied to the ear, they produce no humming noise.

The natives of China are almost as curious about glasses and crystals which come from Europe, as the Europeans are of the Chinese porcelains; but, whatever esteem the Chinese have for our commodities of this kind, they do not cross the seas for European glasses, finding their own porcelain of more use, because it bears hot liquors.

The method of giving a lustre to the gold laid on porcelain; the different kinds of varnishes and colours given to the porcelain; the method of preparing these varnishes and colours; new designs of porcelain works; manner of embossing porcelain.

As gold laid upon porcelain is, in process of time, effaced, and loses a great deal of its lustre, they restore its splendour by wetting the porcelain with pure water, and rubbing it with an agate-stone; but they must take care to rub the vessel in the same direction, for example, from the right to the left.

The lips of the porcelain are principally subject to scale off. To remedy this inconveniency, they fortify them with a certain quantity of bamboo-coal pounded, which they mix with the varnish that is laid on the porcelain, and which gives it a grey, or cineritious colour. Then, with the pincers, they make a border of this mixture round the porcelain already dry, putting it on the wheel. When it is time, they apply the varnish to the border, as they do to the rest of the porcelain; and when it is baked, the edges are extremely white. As there is no bamboo in Europe, its place may be supplied by willow-coal, or rather that of alder, which more approaches to bamboo.

It is to be observed, First, That, before the bamboo is reduced to coal, its green skin must be taken off, because the ashes of that skin make the porcelain break in the furnace. Secondly, That the workman ought not to touch the porcelain with greasy or oily hands, since by this means the part touched, would infallibly crack in the baking.

In blowing the colours of red and blue upon the porcelain, the latter is more easily done. The Chinese workmen agree, that if it was not too expensive, they could blow gold and silver upon porcelain, of a black or blue ground, as they do a red or blue; that is, diffuse gold or silver equally all over it. This sort of porcelain, of a new taste, could not fail to please.

They blow the varnish as well as the red. They have, for the emperor, made works so delicate and fine, and they were obliged to place them on cotton, because they could not handle pieces so tender, without danger of breaking them; and, as it is not possible to plunge them in the varnish, without touching them with the hand, they blow the varnish upon them.

It is to be observed, that in blowing the blue, the workmen take a precaution to preserve the colour which does not fall on the china, and to lose as little of it as possible. This precaution is to place the vessel on a pedestal, posited over a large piece of paper, which serves for some time. When the azure is dry, they take it off, by rubbing the paper with a small brush.

They have likewise found a new substance, proper to enter the composition of porcelain. This is a stone, or species of chalk, called hoache, which the Chinese physicians use in a ptisan, which they say removes weariness, is aperient and refreshing. They take six parts of this stone, and six of liquorice, which they pulverise. They put half a spoonful of this powder into a large draught of fresh water, which they order the patient to drink.

They pretend that this ptisan refreshes the blood, and tempers internal heats. The workers of porcelain have thought fit to employ this stone instead of the kaolin. Perhaps such parts of Europe, where kaolin cannot be found, may furnish the stone hoache. It is called hoach, because it is glutinous, and resembles soap.

The porcelain made of hoache is rare, and much dearer than the other kinds. It has an extremely fine grain; and, with respect to the work of the pencil, if we compare it with the ordinary porcelain, it is almost what vellum is to paper.

Besides, this porcelain is extremely light, which surprises a person accustomed to handle other porcelains. It is also more brittle than the common sort, and the true degree of baking it is very hard to be hit upon.

Some workmen do not use the hoache for the body of their work, but make a thin glue of it, in which they dip the porcelain.

lain when dry, before it receives the colours and the varnish, by which means it acquires some degree of beauty.

They use the hoache in the following manner. First, When they have taken it from the mine, they wash it with river or rain water, to separate it from the yellow earth which adheres to it. Secondly, They break it, and put it into a vessel to dissolve; after which, they prepare it in the same manner with the kaolin. They affirm, that porcelain may be made of the hoache alone, without any other mixture. Some Chinese workmen, however, say, that to eight parts of hoache, they put two of petunse; and that in other respects they proceed in the same manner as in making ordinary porcelain with petunse and kaolin.

In this new species of porcelain the hoache is in place of the kaolin, but it is much dearer than the other. The load of kaolin costs only twenty pence, whereas that of hoache comes to a crown. Thus it is not surprising, that this should be sold dearer than the common porcelain.

There is another observation to be made on the hoache; when they prepare it, and form it into small squares, like the petunse, they dissolve in water a certain quantity of these squares, of which they form a very clear glue or cement. In this they dip the pencil, and draw various designs on the porcelain; and when it is dry they give it the varnish. When the porcelain is baked, we perceive these designs to be of a different white from the rest. They seem to be a delicate steam spread on the surface. The white of the hoache is called siamyape, or ivory white.

They paint figures on porcelain with chekao, as well as with hoache, which gives it another species of white colour; but the chekao has this peculiar to itself, that before it is prepared like the hoache, it must be toasted on the hearth; after which it is broken, and prepared in the same manner with the hoache. They throw it into a vessel full of water, and agitate it there. They, at different times take off the cream which floats upon it; and when all this is done, they find a pure mass, which they employ in the same manner as the purified hoache. The chekao cannot serve as the body of the porcelain. Hitherto, nothing but the hoache has been found to supply the place of the kaolin, and give solidity to the porcelain. If, according to the Chinese workmen, they were to put more than two parts of the petunse to two parts of the hoache, the porcelain would infallibly be destroyed in baking, because its parts are not sufficiently united.

We have not as yet spoken of a kind of varnish, called tse-kin-yeou, that is, burnished varnish of gold. We might rather call it varnish of a bronze, or coffee-colour, or of the colour of a withered leaf. This varnish is of a late invention, and in order to make it, they take common yellow earth, and manage it in the same manner they do the petunse. When it is prepared, they employ only the most delicate part of it, which they throw into water, and which forms a glue, as liquid as the ordinary varnish, called peyeou, which is made of pieces of rocks. These two varnishes, the peyeou and the tse-kin, are mixed together, and for this purpose they ought to be rendered equally liquid. Of this they make a trial, by plunging the petunse into both; and if each of the varnishes penetrates its petunse, they judge them equally liquid, and proper to incorporate with each other. They also mix with the tse-kin, varnish or oil of quick lime, and ashes of fern, and of the same liquidity with the peyeou; but they mix more or less of these varnishes with the tse-kin, according as they want it, deeper or fainter. This may be known by several trials; for example, mix two cupfuls of the tse-kin, with eight of the peyeou; then, to four cupfuls of this mixture, add one cupful of the varnish of lime and fern. It is not long since they found the secret of painting the porcelain with tsoi, which is of a violet colour, and gilding it. They have tried to make a mixture of gold leaf with the varnish and power of flints, which they applied in the same manner as the red, with oil; but this varnish does not succeed, and they have found that the varnish of the tse-kin had more beauty and splendor.

Formerly they made cups, to which they gave the outside a gilded varnish, and the inside the pure white varnish. They afterwards varied, and to a cup or vessel they intended to varnish, they in one or two parts applied a square or circle of paper; and after having laid on the varnish, they raised the paper, and painted the unvarnished space red or blue. When the porcelain was dry, they gave it the usual varnish, whether by blowing or otherwise. Some fill these empty spaces with a ground of blue or black, in order to apply the gilding after the first baking. In this respect we may imagine several combinations, according to our fancy.

They have also invented a new sort of porcelain, which is of an olive colour, and which they call long-tshen. This species was formerly called tshinko, the name of a fruit among them, whose colour resembles that of olives. This colour is given to the porcelain, by mixing 7 cups of the varnish called tse-kin, with four cups of peyeou, two cups, or thereabouts, of the oil of quick lime and fern, and one of tsoyeou, which is an oil obtained from flint. The tsoyeou makes a large quantity of veins appear on the porcelain. When they use it alone, the porcelain is brittle, and without sound when struck;

but when it is mixed with the other varnishes, it is variegated by beautiful small veins, and neither renders the porcelain less sonorous, nor more brittle than the common sort.

We must not omit one thing, which is, that before they give the varnish to the porcelain, they polish it, and smooth all its smallest inequalities. This is done by a pencil made of very fine feathers, which they moisten with water, and gently pass it over the whole; but it is principally with the fine china that they use so much pains.

The shining or reflecting black, is given to the porcelain by plunging it in a liquid mixture composed of prepared azure. In this case it is not necessary to employ the finest azure, but the composition must be a little thick, and mixed with the varnish of peyeou and tse-kin, adding a little of the oil of lime, and of the ashes of fern. For example, with ten ounces of azure, pounded in a mortar, we must mix one cup of tse-kin, one cup of peyeou, and two cups of the oil of fern, burnt with quick lime.

This mixture carries its varnish with it, so that it is not necessary to give it another. When they bake this species of black china, they place it in the middle of the furnace, and not near the vault, where the fire has the greatest force.

It is not true, that the red laid on with oil, called the yeou-cihunc, is drawn from the red of copperas, such as that which is employed in painting their baked porcelain red. This red laid on with oil, is made of the grains of red copper, and of the powder of a certain stone or flint of a reddish cast. It is thought that this stone is a kind of allum employed in medicine. The whole is pounded in a mortar, along with the urine of a young man, and the oil of peyeou. This mixture is applied to the porcelain before it is baked, and they give it no other varnish. They must take care, during the baking that the red colour falls not to the bottom of the vessel. The Chinese workmen say, that when they want to give this red to the porcelain, they do not make use of the petunse to form it; but that, in its stead, they employ, together with the kaolin, a yellow earth, prepared in the same manner with the petunse. It is probable that such an earth is more proper to receive this kind of colour.

Perhaps the reader will be glad to know how the grains of copper are prepared. In China there is no silver coin, since in commerce they use it in lumps, and there are a great many pieces bad. There are, however, certain occasions on which it is necessary to refine these bad pieces, when, for example, taxes or similar contributions are to be paid.

Then they have recourse to workmen, whose only business it is to refine the silver in furnaces made for that purpose, and to separate it from the copper and lead. Before the melted copper is hardened and congealed, they take a small broom, which they dip slightly in water; then, by striking on the handle of the broom, they sprinkle the melted copper with water. A pellicule is formed on the surface, which they take off with iron pincers, and plunge it in cold water, where the grains are formed, and multiplied in proportion as they reiterate the operation. It is evident, that if they employed aqua fortis to dissolve their copper, the powder would be more proper for making the colour of which we speak. But the Chinese are unacquainted with aqua fortis and aqua regia, and their inventions are all extremely simple.

They have executed designs which were thought impracticable. These are urns, as before-mentioned, three feet high and more without the cover, which rise a foot high, like a pyramid. These urns consist of three different pieces, so elegantly joined, that they seem to make but one.

There are also pieces of porcelain, which they call yao-pien, which signifies transmutation. This transmutation is caused either by the defect or excess of the heat, or by other causes, which are not easily discovered.

These pieces, which have not succeeded agreeably to the intention of the workman, and are the pure effects of chance, are not less beautiful and valuable than the others.

A workman intended to make vessels with red flowers blown; a hundred pieces were entirely lost, while only one came out of the furnace, perfectly like a species of agat.

If they would run the risk, and be at the expence of different trials, they might effectually discover the art of making, what chance at that time produced. For this reason, they have thought fit to make porcelain of a shining black, which they call oukom. The caprice of the furnace has determined them to this research, in which they have succeeded.

When they want to give a varnish, which renders porcelain extremely white, they add to thirteen cups of peyeou, one cup of the oil of fern ashes, as liquid as the peyeou. This varnish is strong, and ought not to be given to the porcelain which is to be painted blue; because, after baking, the colour would not appear through the varnish. The porcelain which has got the strongest varnish, may without any dread, be exposed to the greatest heat of the furnace. Thus they bake it all white, either with a view to keep it in that colour, or to gild it, or paint it in different colours, and then bake it a second time. But when they want to paint porcelain blue, with a design that the colour should appear after the baking, they only take seven cups of peyeou, with one cup of varnish, or of the mixture of lime and fern ashes.

It is to be observed in general, that the porcelain, whose varnish contains a great deal of fern ashes, ought to be baked in the most temperate part of the furnace; that is, either after the three first ranks, or at the bottom, about the foot, or a foot and a half high. If it was baked at the top of the furnace, the fern ashes would be fused with precipitation, and fall to the bottom of the porcelain. The case is the same with the red laid on with oil, the blown red, and the long-tfiven, on account of the grains of copper contained in these varnishes: on the contrary, in the top of the furnace they bake the porcelain, to which they have only given the tsoui-yeon, which is the varnish that gives the porcelain so many viens, that it seems to consist of pieces joined together.

The red of copperas, laid on the rebaked porcelains, is made in like manner with copperas called tsa-fan. But before we give the method of composing this colour, we shall first explain the proportion and measure of the Chinese weights. The kin, or Chinese pound, consists of sixteen ounces, which they call leams or taels.

The leam or tael is a Chinese ounce.

The tsien or mas, is the tenth part of the leam or tael.

The fuen is the tenth part of the tsien or mas.

The by is the tenth part of the fuen.

The hoa is the tenth part of the by.

To a leam or tael of cerufs, they add two mas of this red. They pass the cerufs and the red through a sieve, and mix them together dry; then they incorporate them with water impregnated with common glue, reduced to the consistence of mouth-glue.

This glue fixes the red to the porcelain, and prevents its melting. As the colours, if laid on too thick, would produce inequalities on the surface, they now and then dip the pencil in water, and then in the colour which they intend to use.

In order to obtain a white colour, to a leam of cerufs they add three mas, and three fuen of the powder of the most transparent flint calcined, after having luted them in a vessel of porcelain, which they bury in the sand of the furnace before they heat it. This powder ought to be impalpable. They use simple water, without any mixture of glue, in order to incorporate it with the cerufs.

In order also to make the deep green, they add to one tael of cerufs, three mas and three fuen of the powder of flint, with eight fuen, or near a mas of tom-hoa-pien, to make the green. They must wash it well, and carefully separate the grains of copper which are mixed with it, and which are not proper for the green. They only employ the scoræ, that is to say, the parts of the metal which are separated when they work it.

As for the yellow colour, it is made by adding to a tael of cerufs three mas and three fuen of powder of flint, and one fuen and eight by of red, which has not been mixed with cerufs. To make a beautiful yellow, you must add two fuen and a half of this primitive red.

A tael of cerufs, three mas and three-fuen of powder of flint, and two by of azure, form a deep blue of a violet cast. Some workmen add eight by of azure.

The mixture of green and white, for example, one part of green, added to two of white, makes the water green, which is very clear.

The mixture of green and yellow, for example, two cups of deep green, added to one of yellow, produces the colour which resembles a leaf somewhat faded.

In order to produce black, they dilute the azure in water, but the solution must be very thin. They mix with it a little common glue, macerated in lime-water, and boiled to the consistence of mouth-glue. When with this black they have painted the porcelain, which they intend to bake a second time, they cover the black parts with white. In the baking, this white is incorporated with the black, just as the common varnish is with the blue of the common porcelain.

There is another, called tsin, which is prepared of a stone, or mineral, resembling Roman vitriol. It is probable that this substance is taken from some lead mine, and that carrying imperceptible particles of the lead along with it; it insinuates itself into the porcelain, without the help of the cerufs, which is the vehicle of the other colours given to the re-baked porcelain.

It is of this tsin that they make the deep violet. It is found at Canton and at Peking, but that found at the last of these places is by far the best. It is sold at seven shillings and sixpence a pound. The tsin is fused, and when it is so, silversmiths, by way of enamel, lay it upon silver works. They will put, for instance, a small circle of tsin about a ring, or they will enchase it by way of a stone. This species of enamel comes off at last, but they endeavour to prevent this by laying it on a slight ground of mouth or common glue.

The tsin, as well as the other colours we have mentioned, is only used for the re-baked porcelain. The tsin is prepared in the following manner. They do not toast it as they do the azure, but break it, and reduce it to a very fine powder; then they put it into a vessel full of water, which they agitate a little; then they pour out the water, in which there is some nastiness, and keep the crystal which has sunk to the bottom of the vessel. This mass, thus diluted, loses its

beautiful colour; but the tsin recovers its violet colour when the porcelain is baked. The tsin may be kept as long as they please. When they want to paint any porcelain vessel with this colour, they must dilute it with water, mixing a little common glue with it; which, by some, is thought unnecessary, but this must be determined by experience.

In order to gild or silverize the porcelain, they add two fuen of cerufs to two mas of dissolved gold or silver leaf. The silver upon the varnish tse-kin has a beautiful splendor. If they gild some, and silverize others, they do not leave the silverized work so long as the gilt, in the small furnace, otherwise the silver would disappear before the gold obtains the degree of baking necessary to give it its lustre.

There is another sort of coloured porcelain, which sells dearer than those painted with the colours we have mentioned. Perhaps the account I am to give of it, may be of some use for perfecting the English pottery-ware, though we should not be able to obtain to the perfection of the Chinese porcelain.

To make these kinds of works, it is not necessary that the substance employed should be extremely fine. They take cups that have been already baked in the large furnace, without being varnished, which are consequently all white, and have no lustre. They colour them by plunging them in the vessel, where the colour is prepared, when they want them of the same colour. But if they want them of different colours, such as the works called hoan-tou-houan, which are divided into a kind of squares, some of which are yellow, and others green; they apply these colours with a large pencil. This is all the ornament they give to this species of porcelain, only after the baking, they lay a little vermilion on certain places; as, for example, on the beaks of certain birds; but this colour is not baked, because the fire would destroy it, for which reason it does not last long. When they have applied the other colours, they re-bake the porcelain in the large furnace, with other porcelains which have not been baked before. It must be placed at the bottom of the furnace, and below the air vent, where the fire has less activity; because an intense fire would destroy the colours. The colours proper for this sort of porcelain are prepared in the following manner: in order to make the green, they take tam-hoa-pien, saltpetre, and powder of flint. When they have reduced them separately into an impalpable powder, they dilute, and mix them together with water.

The most common azure, together with saltpetre, and powder of flint, forms the violet.

The yellow is prepared by adding three mas of the red of copperas, to three ounces of the powder of flint, and three ounces of cerufs.

For producing the white, to four mas of the powder of flint, they add a tael of cerufs. All these ingredients are to be diluted in water; and this is the whole of what relates to the colours of this sort of porcelain.

When speaking of the furnaces, where they re-bake the painted porcelain, we have observed, that they make piles of porcelain vessels, putting the smaller into the larger, and thus ranging them in the furnace. Care must be taken, that the vessels do not touch each other in the parts which have been painted; for, in this case, all the vessels would be lost. The foot of one cup may be supported by the bottom of another, though it be painted; because the edges of the bottom of the smaller cup are not painted: but the sides of one cup must not touch those of another. Thus, when they have cups which do not easily enter into each other, such as the long chocolate cups, the Chinese workmen range them in the following manner.

Upon a bed of these porcelains, laid in the bottom of the furnace, they lay a covering, either of plates made of the earth with which the furnaces are built, or of the pieces of cases for the porcelain; for in China every thing is used to the best advantage. Above this covering they lay another bed of these porcelains, and continue to do so to the very top of the furnace.

It is not true, as we have before observed, that they know that the painted or gilt porcelain is sufficiently baked, when they see the gold or colours sparkle with all their lustre. The colours are not distinguished till the re-baked porcelain is become cold. They judge that the porcelain, baked in the small furnace, is ready to be taken out, when, looking through the aperture at the top, they, to the very bottom, see all the porcelains red with the fire; when they distinguish the piled cups from each other; when the porcelain has no longer these inequalities formed by the colours, and when the colours are incorporated in the body of the porcelain, in the same manner that the varnish laid upon the beautiful azure, is incorporated with it by the heat of the large furnace.

As for the porcelain re-baked in the large furnace, they judge that it is sufficiently baked, 1. When the flame which comes out is not of a very red, but rather of a whitish colour. 2. When looking through one of the apertures, they perceive that the cases are all red. 3. When, after having opened a case at the top, and taken a piece of porcelain out of it, they perceive when it is cold, that the varnish and colours are in the condition in which they want them. And, 4. When

looking

looking in at the top of the furnace, they perceive the gravel in it's bottom to be shining. By all these marks, a workman judges whether the porcelain is perfectly baked.

When they would have the blue entirely to cover the vessel, they use leao or azure, prepared and diluted in water to a due consistence, and in this they plunge the vessel. As for the blown blue, called tsui-tsin; they in it use the most beautiful azure, prepared in the manner before-mentioned. They blow it upon the vessel, and when it is dry, they lay on the ordinary varnish, either alone, or mixed with tsui-yeou, if they would have the porcelain veined.

Some workmen upon this azure, whether blown or otherwise, draw figures with the point of a long needle. The needle removes as many small grains of the dry azure, as is necessary to represent the figure; after which, they lay on the varnish. When the porcelain is baked, the figures appear painted in miniature.

There is not so much labour as may be imagined, in making the porcelains, on which flowers, dragons, and other similar figures are embossed. They first trace them with the graver on the body of the vessel; then they make small incisions round them, which raise them; and, lastly, they apply the varnish.

The following things are to be observed in the manner of preparing the leao, or azure. 1. Before burying it in the gravel of the furnace, where it is to be toasted, it must be well washed, in order to remove the earth which adheres to it. 2. It must be included in a case of porcelain well luted. 3. When it is toasted it must be pounded, and passed through a sieve. Then they put it into a well varnished vessel, and pour boiling water upon it. After having agitated it a little, they take off the froth on the surface, and pour out the water, by inclining the vessel to one side. This preparation of azure, with boiling water, is to be repeated twice. After this they take the azure, thus moist and reduced into a kind of thin paste, and putting it into a mortar, pound it for a considerable time.

The azure is found in the mines of rock-coal, or in the red earths adjacent to those mines. It sometimes appears on the surface of the ground; and this is an infallible sign, that by digging farther, more of it may be found. In the mine it presents itself in pieces as large as a man's thumb, but flat, and not round. The coarse azure is pretty common, but the fine is very rare, and not easily discerned by the eye; and we must make trial of it before we can judge of it's value.

This trial consists in painting a porcelain vessel with it, and then baking the vessel. If Europe produced beautiful leao, or azure, and fine tsin, which is a kind of violet colour; these would, among the Chinese, be commodities of great value, and easily transported: so that we might bring back the most beautiful porcelain in exchange for them. We have already observed, that a pound of tsin is sold for a tael and eight mas, that is, for seven shillings and six-pence. For two taels they sell a box of beautiful leao, which contains only six ounces, and this amounts to twenty-pence an ounce.

They have tried to paint some porcelain vessels black, with the finest of the Chinese ink; but this attempt had no success: for when the porcelain was baked, it was found to be very white. As the parts of this black have not a sufficient body, they were dissipated by the action of the fire, or rather the had not force enough to penetrate the bed of varnish, and produce a colour different from it.

Of the SAXON PORCELAIN, according to Mr HANWAY.

Perhaps it may be some indulgence, to a female curiosity at least, to be informed concerning this brittle commodity, which has been so passionately sought after by the fair sex. But can this passion be deemed a folly, when we see even mighty princes * pride themselves in it? Here are a great number of porcelain figures of dogs, squirrels, monkeys, wolves, bears, leopards, &c. some of them as big as the life; also elephants, and rhinoceros's of the size of a large dog; a prodigious variety of birds, as cocks, hens, turkeys, peacocks, pheasants, hawks, eagles; besides parrots, and other foreign birds, and a curious collection of different flowers. The Apostles, near three feet high, are in white porcelain. There is a representation of the crucifixion, four or five feet high, with numerous other curious pieces: these last are intended for the Romish chapel, which is to be furnished with these rare materials. A clock is preparing for the gallery in this palace, whose bells are to be of porcelain: I heard one of them proved, and they are sufficient to form any music; but the hammers must be of wood.

* His Majesty of Prussia sometimes calls his brother of Poland the Porcelain King.

Baron Botgen, about 46 years since, first began to make this porcelain; his first trial was the red, and from thence he proceeded to glazing, and since that, gilding and painting have been carried to an amazing perfection. In order to preserve this art as much as possible a secret, the fabric at Meissen, which is near Dresden, is rendered impenetrable to any

but those who are immediately employed about the work; and the secret of mixing and preparing the materials, is known to very few of them. They are all confined as prisoners, and subject to be arrested if they go without the walls; and consequently a chapel, and every thing necessary is provided within. There are about 700 men employed, most of whom have not above ten German crowns a month, and the highest wages are forty; so that the annual expence is not estimated above 80,000 crowns. This manufacture being entirely for the king's account, he sells yearly to the value of 150,000, and sometimes 200,000 crowns *, besides the magnificent present he occasionally makes, and the great quantity he preserves for his own use. They pretend they cannot execute fast enough the commissions which they receive even from Asia, as well as from all parts of Europe, and are consequently under no necessity of lowering the enormous prices; however, this must be the consequence ere long, if the English and French continue to make such great improvements in this art. It is with great satisfaction that I observe the manufactories of Bow, Chelsea, and Stepney, have made such a considerable progress. On the other hand, it is equally a subject of horror to see so many shops in the streets of London, supplied with the porcelain of Dresden, though it is importable, only under oath of being for private use, and not for sale.

* 35,000l.

R E M A R K S.

The French court seems to have very much at heart the promotion of the new manufacture of porcelain, which has lately been set up in the royal castle of Vincennes, with a view of equalling that of Saxony. The Sieur Charles Adams, the undertaker of it, has, in particular, extraordinary power given him over his workmen, to prevent their engaging with other projectors, to the damage of the said Adams.

What renders the Oriental porcelain so universally estimable is, not only it's general delicacy, but it's general greater cheapness compared to that of Dresden, or any other nation: and 'till England, France, Holland, or Saxony, can afford this manufacture at as reasonable rates as the Eastern nations do, it can never be expected that any, or indeed all the united European porcelain manufacturers, will vend so large a quantity as is done by the Asiatics in general.

It is certain that the art of pottery, as well in England as in Holland and France, has, within these twenty years, arrived to great perfection. And, if ever this, or any other European nation should advance in the manufacture of China ware, to the degree of perfection that the Eastern countries have done, I am inclinable to think it must depend rather upon art than on the mere productions of nature; for, although in the eastern countries there may be earths of a quality for the purpose, superior to such as may have yet been discovered in any other parts of the world, yet the extraordinary beauty of their earth, we apprehend, is owing chiefly to art: and, if once the Europeans obtain that art, we believe there are earths enough, even in England, from which as good porcelain may be made, as from any that ever came from the East-Indies, or from Dresden, and that it may come as cheap too, as some of our pottery-ware.

PORTO RICO. See ANTILLES ISLANDS.

PORTS, are those places to which the officers of the customs are appropriated, and which include all the privileges and guidance of all members and creeks thereunto allotted.

Members are those places where anciently a custom-house hath been kept, and officers or the deputies attending, and are lawful places of exportation or importation.

Creeks, are places where commonly officers are or have been placed, by way of prevention only, and are not lawful places of exportation or importation, without particular licence from the port or member under which it is placed.

The several ports and members as now they account at the Custom-house, are,

PORTS.	MEMBERS.	CREEKS.
London	- - - - -	Gravefend
	Malden	{ Leigh
		{ Burnham
		{ West Mersey
Ipswich	- - - - -	East Mersey
	Colchester	{ Brickley
		{ Wivenhoe
	Harwich	Maningtree
	Woodbridge	
	Aldborough	{ Orford
		{ Dunwich
Yarmouth	- - - - -	{ Walderfwich
	Southwold	{ Leostoff
	Blakeney and Cley	

P O R

PORTS.	MEMBERS.	CREEKS.
Lynn Regis	Wells and Burnham Wisbich	Hitcham Crofs-keys Spalding Fosdick Wainfleet Numby Chapel Thettletorp Saltfleet
Boston		Grimby Gainthorp Bridlington Scarborough
Hull		
Newcastle upon Tyne	Whitby Stockton Hartlepool Sunderland Shields	Middleborough Seaton Sluice Blyth's Nook Aylemouth Warnewater Holy Island East Marches, containing the coast of Northumberland bordering on Scotland. West Marches, containing the coast of Cumberland bordering on Scotland. Workington Ravinglafs Milnthorpe Pyte of Fowdery Graunge Wyre-water Preston and Ribble-water Sankey-bridge Fradsham South shore of the river Mersey to the red stones Hilbree Dawpool Neston Burtonhead Baghill Mostin
Berwick		
Carlisle	Whitehaven Lancaster Poulton Liverpool	
Chester		
	Aberconway Beaumaris Caernarvon Conway Holyhead Pulhelly Aberdovy Cardigan Pembroke Swanzy	Amlough Barmouth Aberustah Newport Fiscard Haverfordwest Tenby Caermarthen Lanelthy North Burrys South Burrys Neath or Briton-ferry Newton Aberthaw Penarth Newport Chepstow River Severne, from Bridge-north to King-road. Pill Uphill
Milford		
Cardiffe		
Gloucester		
Bristol		
Bridgewater	Minehead	

P O R

PORTS.	MEMBERS.	CREEKS.
	Padstow St Ives Penzance Gweeke Falmouth Fowey Lowe Penryn Truro	St Maws
Plymouth		Saltafh Stonehouse Cousland
	Ilfracomb Barnstaple Biddeford	Clovelly Appledore
Exeter		Tincomb Starcrofs Bear and Seator Topsham Pouldram Sydmouth Lympton Exmouth Aylmouth Saltcomb Brixham Torbay Tortnefs Bridport Charmouth Portland Lulworth Swanidge Wareham Christ Church Lymington Yarmouth Newport Emsworth
Pool	Lyme Regis Weymouth	
Southampton		
	Cowes Portsmouth	
Chichester	Arundel Shoreham Lewes Pembey Hastings Rye Hythe Dover	Pagham Point Selfey Brightelmstone Newhaven Seaford Winchelsea Lyd Romney Ramsgate Margate Whitstable
Sandwich	Deal Feversham Milton Rocheffer	Queenborough.

Note, All the ports and havens in England, are infra corpus comit. and that the Admiralty-court cannot hold jurisdiction of any thing done in them. Holland's case, earl of Exeter, 30 Hen. VI. And because he held plea in the Admiralty of a thing done below the port of Hull, damages were recovered against him two thousand pounds. Godbolt 260, 261. The port of London being of great concern as to the customs, it's extent is by the Exchequer settled, and declared to be, from the North Foreland in the Isle of Thanet, and thence northward to the opposite point called the Naeze, on the Essex coast, and continued Westward through the river Thames, and the several streams falling into it, to London-bridge, save the usual right to the ports of Sandwich and Ipswich, and their members, and of the customers, comptrollers, &c. within those ports, and the several creeks, &c. belonging to them within the counties of Kent or Essex. And because when ships did come up to the port of London, great frauds used to be committed by a promiscuous shipping and landing of goods at several unknown wharfs, it was provided that a commission might issue from the Exchequer, to ascertain

ascertain all such places, and his Majesty hath been pleased to allow to be lawful keys, for lading or landing goods,

Brewer's Key	}	* The stone-stairs on the west side are declared not to be a place for shipping or landing of goods.
Chester's Key		
Galley Key		
Wool Dock		
* Custom-house Key	}	* Excluding the stairs there, which are declared no lawful place for shipping or landing of goods.
Porter's Key		
Bear Key		
* Sabb's Dock		
Wiggon's Key	}	* The stairs there declared no lawful place for shipping and landing of goods.
Young's Key		
Ralph's Key		
* Dice Key		
Smart's Key	}	* The stairs there declared unlawful for shipping and landing of goods.
* Somer's Key		
Lyon Key		
Botolph Wharf		
Hamon's Key	}	* The stairs on the east declared unlawful for shipping or landing goods.
* Gaunt's Key		
Cock's Key	}	One other place betwixt Cock's Key and Fresh Wharf, called part of Fresh Wharf, the stairs are declared unlawful for shipping or landing of any goods.
Fresh Wharf.		
Billingsgate	}	To be a common open place for the landing of fish, salt, victuals, or fuel of all sorts, and all native materials for building and for fruit (all manner of grocery excepted) and for carrying out of the same, and for no other wares or merchandize.
Bridge-house in Southwark		
	}	Is only allowed for landing of any kind of corn for the city of London, and not upon any private or particular person's account.

Any person may lade into any ship or vessel on the river of Thames bound over seas, horses, coals, beer, ordinary stones for building: fish taken by any of his Majesty's subjects, corn or grain, the duties being paid, and cockets, &c. duly passed.

So likewise deal-boards, balks, and all sorts of masts and great timber, may be landed at any place between Limehouse and Westminster, the owner first paying or compounding for the customs, and declaring where he will land them, and on licence had, and in the presence of an officer, he may unlade them, otherwise he incurs a forfeiture.

PORTUGAL. This kingdom borders northwards on Gallicia in Spain, and is divided from it by the Minho next the sea, and by some small rivers and hills farther up land towards the east. The west and south sides are washed by the ocean, including the little kingdom of Algarve on the south, and on the west, the Guadiana parts the said little kingdom from Andalusia, from whence drawing a line northwards, Portugal borders on Andalusia, Estramadura, and Leon. The whole extent of it from north to south is 300 miles, that is, from 37 to 42 degrees of latitude. From east to west where broadest, which is about the middle, it is about 120 miles, that is, from 7 to 9 degrees west longitude, and where narrowest next Algarve, about 60.

Here are several mineral and medicinal springs, of great virtue, and much resorted to, some of a hot, and others of a cold nature.

The soil here is, perhaps, the very worst in all Spain, yet not universally so. But, upon the whole, it never produces corn enough to maintain it's inhabitants, but must be supplied either from Spain, or, when at war with it, from England, and other northern countries. As to wheat, it has been always observed to come short of what the people require. Pasture is no less scarce, if we except some of the northern parts, as the province called Entre duero e Minho, and along the banks of some of their great rivers, where the best and largest cattle are fed; but on the southern side, is very scarce, small, and lean, though the flesh generally good.

To make amends for this want of corn and pasture, here are vast quantities of wine made, which is indeed the best commodity of this kingdom, and so well known at present to all England, that we need say the less about it. Oil is here likewise, in great abundance, but far inferior to that which we have from other countries, that of Portugal being commonly so strong and foetid, that no one can dispense with it, that hath been ever accustomed to the Spanish and Italian. Lemons and oranges also grow here, and are exported in great quantities, though the acidness of the latter, be nothing near so pleasant as that of those which come from Seville; nor are indeed any of their fruits, raisins, figs, almonds, chesnuts, &c. either so large or well tasted, as those of Spain. Herbs and flowers of all sorts are here commonly very good, and abundance of perfumed waters are distilled from those of the odoriferous kind, which are here in great request, they being

in some shape or other, used in almost every thing that is eat, drank, or worn. This country produces likewise great quantities of allum, white marble, alabaster, and especially salt, of which immense loads are continually exported hence from the port of Setuval, for most northern nations. The woollen manufactures of this country are of so indifferent and coarse a nature, that they are only worn by the meaner sort, being scarcely fit for any other. Their silks are, in some places, much better, but far inferior, not only in beauty and goodness, but in quantity, to those which are made in Spain.

The country in general is well peopled, and filled with goodly cities, towns, and villages, though not every where alike.—We shall, in the sequel, give an account of the most remarkable ones.

This kingdom is divided into five provinces, to which if we add the little kingdom of Algarve, they will be in all six, of which we shall now speak in due order, beginning at the north, and so descending to the south. They are as follow:

- I. Entre Duero e Minho.
- II. Tra los Montes.
- III. Beira.
- IV. Estramadura,
- V. Alentejo.
- VI. Algarve.

I. The province ENTRE DUERO E MINHO. This province hath the Minho on the north, to divide it from Galicia, and the Duero on the south, which parts it from Beira; on the west it is bounded by the ocean, and on the east by a ridge of mountains, which severs it from the province of Tra los Montes, or over the hills. It is but small, not extending in it's utmost length above 36 miles, and in it's greatest breadth above 30, and where narrowest above 12 or 14. It extends from 41 to a little above 42 degrees of latitude, and within the 8th degree of west longitude; but though so small is the best inhabited, has the greatest number of cities, towns, and villages, of all the rest, in proportion, besides that it is one of the pleasanter and most fertile, though mountainous, having many other rivers besides the two that inclose it, and a vast number of rivulets, and sweet springs to water it, as we have already hinted; which makes it abound in good pasture more than any other part of Portugal, though inferior, in this respect, to many of the provinces of Spain. Besides these, the plains are every where covered with vines, fruit, and other trees of all sorts, and the country well supplied with every necessary of life, except, as we observed before, that it hath not a sufficient quantity of corn for it's inhabitants.

Braga, and Porto or Oporto, are the chief cities.

Guimaraes, Viana, Caminha, Valenza, Monzao, Barcelos, Ponte de Lima, Villa de Conte, and Amarante, are towns of note.

BRAGA, formerly the metropolitan see of Portugal, is seated on the south side of the river Cavado, about 41 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, and 8 degrees of west longitude: it is distant about 180 miles north of Lisbon.

PORTO, OPORTO, a famed city and sea-port, on the north side of the Duero, about three miles from the sea, is pleasantly built on a rocky ground, that river washing it's walls. The port, a very commodious one, is so well known and frequented by our nation, that we need say the less of it. The harbour is safe against all winds, but when the floods come down, no anchor can hold the ships; at which times they are forced to squeeze and fasten them to each other along the walls, to avoid the fury of the torrent. The city stands in 41 degrees 10 minutes latitude north, and 8 degrees 30 minutes west longitude. It's distance is 120 miles north from Lisbon.

GUIMARAES is seated upon a hill, and is encompassed by a good wall. It stands about 10 miles east from Braga, and about 150 miles north of Lisbon. The chief manufactures of this place are linen and fine thread, of both which considerable quantities are made and exported.

VIANA DE FEZ DE LIMA, situated on the mouth of the Lima, is a considerable sea-port, encompassed with strong walls. This town is become very considerable for trade, ever since the great consumption of Portuguese wines in England; and is itself famed for a delicate sort of it's own product, which is small, and not unlike the French, nor hardly inferior to it; whereas those that grow in the more southern parts, are heavier and less pleasant. It is distant from Braga about 20 miles south, and about 130 north from Lisbon.

CAMINHA another, but small, sea-port, seated on the mouth of the river Minho.

VALENZA DE MINHO, about 12 miles above the last on the same river.

MONZAO, about six miles above the last on the same river.

BARCELOS stands on the river Cavado, in the territory of Viana.

PONTE DE LIMA stands about 180 miles north of Lisbon.

VILLA DE CONDE is situated on the sea-coast, at the mouth of the river Ave.

AMARANTE stands on the banks of the river Tamada, and has the river of Locia running through the midst of it. It hath a linen manufacture.

II. The province called TRA LOS MONTES. This small province is called in Latin Transmontana, because seated on the other side of that chain of hills which parts it on the west, from that of Entre Duero e Minho we have just described; on the north it borders on Galicia, and eastward on the kingdom of Leon, and on the south the Duero parts it from Beira. Its length from east to west, is at most about 74 miles, and breadth near 60; being situated between the 41st and 42d degrees of latitude, and stretching from 6 degrees 40 minutes, to near 8 degrees west longitude.

This country is but dry and barren, being watered by but few rivers, and none of them of any considerable length or breadth. For this reason the territory has but few corn fields, except rye and some barley, but yields plenty of wine, and fruits of several sorts, and abundance of game.

The cities of this province are Braganza and Miranda.

BRAGANZA is situated on the furthest angle of Portugal, but six miles distant from the borders of Leon, and at near the same distance from those of Galicia. It stands on a spacious plain, watered by the river Fervenza, which runs along its walls. It is seated in the 42d degree of latitude, 6 degrees 30 minutes west longitude, and about 120 miles northward from Lisbon.

MIRANDA DE DUERO, stands on a rocky eminence, and its walls are washed by a large pleasant brook, which falls into the Duero a little below it.

III. The province of BEIRA is divided on the north from the province Entre Duero e Minho by the former of those rivers; it is bounded by the ocean on the west, and by some part of Estramadura; on the south by another part of that province, and by the Tagus; and on the east it runs contiguous to the Spanish Estramadura, and the kingdom of Leon. The country, though not so rich and fertile as some in this kingdom, is yet capable of producing good corn, wine, and other useful commodities, if rightly cultivated.

COIMBRIA, once the metropolis of Portugal, is still one of the finest cities in this kingdom, and no less celebrated for its famed university. It is pleasantly seated on the north side of the river Mondego. It stands in 40 and a half degree of latitude, and 8 degrees 20 minutes of west longitude, being about ten miles from the mouth of the river Mondego, and about 90 north from Lisbon.

AVEIRO is a considerable market-town, commodiously situated in a plain, upon a bay at the mouth of a creek, on the western coast, and made by a small river, which divides the town into two parts, joined by a stately bridge. In this creek, which is pretty large, and forms a kind of haven, is made a vast quantity of salt, which is exported some into other parts of the kingdom, and the rest into foreign countries. It stands in 40 degrees 40 minutes latitude, 8 of west longitude, and about 101 miles from Lisbon.

IV. The province of ESTRAMADURA is a long narrow slip, running along the sea-coast, and reaching from the mouth of the river Mondego northwardly down, southwardly quite below the town of Setuval; so that it extends from the latter to the former, that is, from south-west to north-east, about 110 miles, or from 38 degrees 30 minutes to 40 degrees 10 minutes of Latitude. In breadth it is scarce 50, and in some places much narrower; and its utmost verge westward, which is the Cape la Roca, or, as the sailors term it, the rock of Lisbon, lies under 9 degrees 45 minutes west longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Mondego above-mentioned, which parts it from Beira, and the province of Alentejo. It hath again Beira on the east, and the ocean on the west.

The land is here for the most part the very best in Portugal, and the climate very pleasant and mild, by its being so near the Western or Pacific Ocean. It produces wheat and other grain, in greater plenty than the other provinces, abundance of wine, oil, fruits of all sorts, especially citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, dates, almonds, &c. upon which account the people here live much better, and above want. Here are also greater variety of manufactures carried on, and a much larger share of trade and commerce; all which is owing partly to its commodious situation and sea-ports, to its nearness to the city of Lisbon, the metropolis of this province and kingdom; to its commodious harbour, and to the noble river Tagus, which is navigable a considerable number of leagues inland, and carries a very considerable commerce from that metropolis.

LISBON, the head city of this kingdom, the residence of its monarchs, the great seat of all the courts of justice, the metropolitan see of Portugal, the most noble and celebrated university of it, an emporium of the world, the receptacle of all the richest merchandizes of the East and West-Indies, and the best sea-port in the whole kingdom. It is situated in 38 degrees 46 minutes of latitude, and about 9 of west longitude, in an excellent air; and though that climate be rather inclinable to be hot, yet is refreshed by the delightful breezes of the sea, and of the river Tagus, on the banks of which it is pleasantly and strongly situated, and which conveys to it all the wealth of Asia and America, as well as the chief commodities of Europe and Africa.

The harbour is one of the most commodious in Europe, it lying upon the Western Ocean, and being capacious enough of itself to contain ten thousand ships, all riding in safety, and without incumbering each other, and carries water enough for the largest vessels to anchor before the windows of the royal palace. The entrance into it is defended by two handsome forts, the first seated on the shore, the other standing opposite to it, on a shelf, in the midst of the water. Besides these, nature has provided it with another defence, which is the bar, very dangerous to pass without pilots belonging to the place. Within this appears a vast capacious bay, which contracts itself as it draws near the city.

SETUVAL is a considerable sea-port on this coast, a little below Lisbon. It is seated on a handsome bay, close to the ocean, where the river Zadao discharges itself, and is much resorted to by most northern nations, especially for the vast quantities of salt that are made here every year.

It stands about 20 miles south of Lisbon, and on the south side of the Tajo, but in the same province with the metropolis, its latitude is 38 degrees 27 minutes, and longitude about 8 degrees 48 minutes.

SANTARÉM is situated on a high hill, close to the Tajo. It hath on the south side a deep valley, with a steep winding ascent to the town, and on the north is a craggy solid rock, altogether inaccessible; but on the west it faces a delightful plain, covered with gardens, orchards, and fertile fields, producing vast quantity of corn, oil, and variety of fruits. The Tajo abovementioned, which is here very broad and navigable, enriches, moreover, all that country, by little channels that are cut from it; insomuch that we are told by some Spanish authors, that it yields a prodigious increase of wheat and other grain, but that it is often sown, cut down, and threshed, within the space of two months. The town stands in 39 degrees 12 minutes latitude, 8 degrees 20 seconds west longitude, and about 42 miles north-east from Lisbon.

SINTRA is seated near the sea, at the foot of a ridge of mountains, and by the cape that bears its name, almost on the utmost western verge of Portugal. The town is justly esteemed the most delightful spot in the whole kingdom, both for the beauty of its situation and prospect, and for the fruitfulness of its territory, which produces, among other commodities, plenty of corn and wine, oil, lemons, oranges, and other fruits; and the rock on which it stands, hath a noble quarry of black and white marble, in great request.

ALCAZAR DO SAL, so called, from the great quantities of salt which this territory produces, is situated on the river Zadao. It stands thirty-five miles south-west from Lisbon, on the other side of the river Tajo, and about thirty at its nearest distance from that river.

V. The province of ALENTEJO borders on the north, on part of Estramadura, and of the river Tajo; eastward, on the Spanish province of Andalusia and Estramadura; on the west it is bounded by the ocean, and part of the Portuguese Estramadura; and on the south, by the little kingdom of Algarve. It lies between 37 deg. 30 min. lat. and about 39 degrees west longitude; but so irregular, and runs so much into the adjacent provinces, that its extent can not be precisely stated. In the whole it runs, where widest, between 90 and 100 miles; and in some places beyond, and in others much less than 80.

The country is reckoned the finest and fertilest in all Portugal; and its inhabitants, according to Faria, the wealthiest and best bred. The far greater part of these are farmers; and the land here is so rich, so well watered by a number of rivers, which fall either into the Tajo, or Guadiana, which two last great ones, run quite across this province, that they are all wealthy and industrious, and have few poor people among them.

This territory abounds not only with corn of all sorts, wine, oil, fruits, and good pastures, sufficient for its own inhabitants, but likewise to supply some of the adjacent provinces, which are more barren, or less cultivated: and this exportation is very much facilitated by those rivers, which intersect the country, and run into the great ones above-mentioned, and some into the sea.

EVORA is a very antient and considerable city, seated in the heart of this province, on a pleasant hill, encompassed about with mountains. It stands about 60 miles south-east of Lisbon, and in 38 degrees 30 minutes latitude, and about 7 degrees 25 minutes west longitude.

ELVAS is situated on an eminence, strong by nature, six miles from the frontiers of the Spanish Estramadura, where the river Coa divides it from Portugal. The country about is very pleasant and fertile, and produces, in particular, great abundance of oil. The chief trade of this town is in the woollen manufacture.

ESTREMOS is seated on an high hill, on the top of which is a very strong castle. Here is a curious manufacture of red earthen-ware, formerly much admired in England, and brought hence, rather for an ornament to mix among China-ware, than for any other use.

Near the town is a noble spring, which throws up so much water

water in summer, as serves to turn several mills; and, contrary to all others, is dried up all the winter.

The town is about 105 miles distant east from Lisbon, and 15 from Elvas.

The little kingdom of ALGARVE. This is that part of Portugal, called, by some antient authors, Cuneus, or Wedge, being really wedged in by the ocean on the west and south; on the east by the Guadiana, which parts it from Andalusia; on the north, by the mountains called Serra de Algarve, and Serra de Monchique, which divide it from Alentejo; so that it is but 90 miles in length, where longest, and but 28 in breadth, where broadest.

The country, though very mountainous in most parts of it, is yet very fertile. It does not, indeed, abound with any great quantity of corn, but abundance of wine, oil, figs, raisins, dates, almonds, pomegranates, and other fruits. In the main, the country is nothing populous or wealthy, nor their cities and towns remarkable for any great matters.

Of the MONIES, WEIGHTS, and MEASURES of PORTUGAL.

The Portuguese keep their accounts in milreas and reas, 1000 reas making a milrea [see the article LEDGER]; they separate the milreas from the reas thus, 769 \cup 210, which is to say, 769 milreas, and 210 reas.

The GOLD MONIES of PORTUGAL are as follow, viz.

	Sterling money.
The 25 \cup 600 reas piece	1. 7 : 4 : —
The 24 \cup ditto	6 : 15 : —
The 12 \cup 800 reas ditto	3 : 12 : —
The 12 \cup ditto	3 : 7 : 6
The 6 \cup 400 reas ditto	1 : 16 : —
The 4 \cup 800 reas, or moydore stamped	1 : 7 : —
The 3 \cup 200 reas piece	— : 18 : —
The 2 \cup 400 reas ditto, or half moydore	— : 13 : 6
The 1 \cup 600 reas ditto	— : 9 : —
The 1 \cup 200 reas, or quarter-moydore	— : 6 : 9
The 800 reas or testoon-piece	— : 4 : 6

Their SILVER MONIES are,

The 400 reas, or cruzado, or the exchange-piece not stamped	— : 2 : 3
The 480 reas, or one-tenth moydore-piece stamped in 1643	— : 2 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
The 240 reas, or 12 vintin-piece	— : 1 : 6
The 100 reas, or 5 vintin-piece	— : — : 9
The 50 reas, or 2 and a half vintin ditto	— : — : 4 $\frac{1}{2}$

Their COPPER COIN.

The 20 reas, or vintin-piece	— : — : 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
The 10 reas, or half vintin ditto	— : — : — $\frac{1}{2}$
The 5 reas, or quarter vintin ditto	— : — : — $\frac{3}{8}$

Their WEIGHTS

Are but of one kind, and divided thus: 2 drams = 1 octave, 8 octaves = 1 ounce, 16 ounces = an arrate, or pound, 32 pounds = an arobe, 4 arobes = 1 quintal, or 128 pounds, half an arobe = 16 pounds. They divide the said ounce also into penny-weights and grains, as we do our ounce Troy weight. Their weights are about 3 or 4 per cent. heavier than our English avoirdupois.

Their MEASURES.

Their long measure.—The vare is the length of the ell English, and 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ = 100 yards English. The other measure is the cavida, and is $\frac{3}{4}$ of a yard English.

Their liquid measure.—Their largest is the almuda = 2 cava-das, and half and quarter cava-das; they have other measures, that contain one half and one quarter of a gallon: the almuda = 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ gallons of our Winchester measure.

Corn and salt measure.—60 alquiers = 1 moy = 3 English quarts, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ alquiers = 1 English bushel.

Of the EXCHANGES of PORTUGAL with the principal places of EUROPE.

Portugal exchanges with London on the milrea, and London gives pence sterling, more or less, for the same, from 60 to 66.

With Holland, and throughout the United Provinces, and with Hamburg, on the cruzado of 400 reas, and gives gros Flemish, more or less, for the same.

With Spain for the Spanish ducat, and gives reas, more or less, for the same.

With France on the exchange-crown, and gives reas, more or less, for the same.

With Florence on the crown of 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ livres, and gives reas more or less.

With Genoa on the scudi, and gives reas more or less.

With Leghorn on the dollar of 6 livres, and gives reas more or less.

Exchanges are frequently made by the way of Amsterdam, Antwerp, or Hamburg.

Suppose I owe the following sums to my correspondents, what will they amount to in the money of their respective countries?

Course of exchange.

	Cruz.	Reas.	
At Paris	560	300	at 490 $\frac{3}{8}$ reas per crown of 60 sols Tournois.
Amsterdam	1120	72	at 44 $\frac{3}{8}$ den. de gros per cruzado of 400 reas.
London	2128	163	at 5s. 6d. sterling per milrea.
Madrid	1250	250	at 830 reas per ducat of 375 marvadees.
Genoa	1430	230	at 880 reas per piafre of 5 liras banco.
Leghorn	900	300	at 770 reas per piafre of 20 sols d'or.
Messina	2000	200	at 420 reas per florin of 12 carlins.

Of the EXCHANGE of LISBON upon FRANCE.

E X A M P L E.

To reduce 560 cruzadoes, 300 reas, of Portugal, into crowns of France, of 60 sols Tournois, the crown of exchange being at 490 reas per crown.

O P E R A T I O N.

Cruz.	Reas.
560	: 300
400	
<hr/>	
490	224300 reas (457 crowns, 45 sols, 3 deniers, for which the draught upon Paris ought to be made.
2887	
33	60
<hr/>	
1800	(3

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Multiply the 560 cruzadoes by 400 reas, the value thereof, and take in the 300, and divide the product, 224,300 reas, by the price of exchange, of 490 reas, and the quotient will give 457 crowns, with a remainder of 370; which multiplied by 60 sols, the value of a crown, and divided by the same divisor, the quotient gives 45 sols, with a remainder of 150; this multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a sol, and divided by the common divisor, it produces 3 deniers, to be received at Paris for the said cruzadoes, &c.

Of the EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon HOLLAND.

E X A M P L E.

To reduce 1120 cruzadoes, 72 reas of Portugal, into florins and sols bank money of Amsterdam, the course of exchange being at 44 $\frac{3}{8}$ deniers gros per cruzado.

O P E R A T I O N.

1120 cruzadoes, 72 reas, to be multiplied
By 44 $\frac{3}{8}$ deniers gros, the exchange

4480
4480
280—for $\frac{2}{8} = \frac{1}{4}$
140—for $\frac{1}{8} = \frac{1}{8}$ } of 1120 cruzadoes
5 $\frac{4}{8}$ for 50 reas = $\frac{1}{8}$
2 $\frac{2}{8}$ for 20 reas = $\frac{1}{10}$ } of the exchange-price
 $\frac{2}{8}$ for 2 reas = $\frac{1}{10}$ of 20 reas

410)4970|8 deniers gros.

1242 florins, 14 sols, bank money, for which the draught
on Amsterdam should be made.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Multiply the sum of the cruzadoes by the price of exchange, and divide by 40, the deniers in a florin, and there will remain 28, the half of which is 14 sols bank money, to be received at Amsterdam.—For the proof hereof see the article HOLLAND, Vol. I.

Of the EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon LONDON.

E X A M P L E.

To reduce 2128 cruzadoes, 163 reas of Portugal, into pounds, shillings, and pence sterling money of England, the course of exchange being 5s. 6d. sterling per milrea of Portugal.

O P E R A T I O N.

P O R

OPERATION.

2128cruf. 163reas, to be multiplied
By 400

851 1/2 363
And multiply again by 5 : 6, the price of exchange

4255 d.
425 : 6, for the 6d. [price of exchange.
1 : 1, for the 200 reas, the 1/2 of the
0 : 6, for the 100 ditto, the 1/6 of ditto.
0 : 5, for the 63

Shillings ster. 210)46812 : 6(

1. 234 : 2 : 6, sterling money, for which the draught ought to be made upon London.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the crusadoes into reas, in multiplying by 400 the value thereof in reas, taking in the 163 odd reas, and the product will be 851 1/2 363 reas, which multiplied by the price of exchange, and the aliquot parts taken as above, and added, make shillings sterling, which divided by 20, give pounds, shillings, and pence sterling.—For the proof hereof, see the article ENGLAND, Vol. I.

Of the EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon SPAIN.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 1250 crusadoes, 250 reas of Portugal, into rials of plate of 16 quartos of Spain, the price of exchange being 830 reas per ducat of Spain of 375 marvadees.

OPERATION.

1250 crusadoes, 250 reas, to be multiplied
By 400 reas

500250 reas, to be multiplied
By 375 marvadees of Spain

2501250
3501750
3501750

Answer.

282210)1875937510(6647 rials, 18 marvadees of old plate,
16932 ... for which the draught must be made
on Madrid.

18273
16932

Price of exchange.
830 reas
34 marvadees

13417
11218

3320
2490

21295
19754

28220 divisor.

1541
34

6164
4623

52394(18

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce into reas the 1250 crusadoes, 250 reas, in multiplying them by 400, the value of the crusadoe, the product will be 500250 reas; these multiplied by 375 marvadees, the value of the ducat, the product thereof will be 187593750, for a dividend.

Multiply the 830 reas, the price of exchange, by 34 marvadees, the value of a rial, and the product will be 28220, for a divisor.

Carry on the division, and you will have a quotient of 6647 rials, with a remainder of 1541, which being multiplied by 34 marvadees, and divided by the same divisor, it gives 18 marvadees old plate, to be received at Madrid : for the proof of which, see the article SPAIN.

The EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon GENOA.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 1430 crusadoes, 230 reas of Portugal, into piaftres, fols, and deniers d'or, bank money of Genoa, the price of exchange being 880 reas per piaftre of 5 lires of Genoa.

P O R

OPERATION.

1430 crusadoes, 230 reas, to be multiplied
By 400 reas

8810)572310(to be divided by the price of exch. of 880 reas
442 (650 piaftres, 15 fols, 2 deniers, bank money
for which the draught upon Genoa should be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce into reas the 1430 crusadoes, 230 reas, in multiplying them by 400 reas, the value of a crusadoe; divide the product, 572230, by the price of exchange, 880 reas, and you will have a quotient of 650 piaftres, with a remainder 23 : this multiplied by 20 fols, the value of the piaftre, and divided by the same, it will give 5 fols, and 20 for a remainder; which multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of the fol, and divided again by the common divisor, it gives 2 deniers bank money, to be received at Genoa.—For the proof of which, see the article GENOA, Vol. I.

Of the EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon LEGHORN.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 900 crusadoes, 300 reas of Portugal, into piaftre fols, and deniers d'or of Leghorn, the exchange at 770 reas per piaftre of 20 fols d'or.

OPERATION.

900 crusadoes, 300 reas, to be multiplied
By 400

7710)3603010(to be divided by the exchange of 770 reas
5211 (467 piaftres, 18 fols, 5 deniers d'or, for which
67 the draught must be made upon Leghorn.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 900 crusadoes, 300 reas, into reas, in multiplying by 400 reas, the value of the crusadoe; divide the product 360300, by the price of exchange, of 770 reas, and you will have a quotient of 467 piaftres, 18 fols, and 5 deniers d'or to be received at Leghorn; for the proof of which see the article TUSCANY, where you will find the port-town of LEGHORN.

The remainder of the first division must be multiplied by 20 fols d'or, the value of the piaftre, and that of the second by 12 deniers, the value of the fol, and dividing by the same it will give 18 fols, 5 deniers d'or.

The EXCHANGE of PORTUGAL upon MESSINA.

EXAMPLE.

To reduce 2000 crusadoes, 200 reas of Portugal, into florins, ounces, tarins, grains, and piccioli of Messina, exchange at 420 reas per florin of 12 carlins.

OPERATION.

2000 crusadoes, 200 reas, to be multiplied
By 400 reas

4210)8002010(reas, to be divided by the exchange of 420 reas.
38210 (1005 florins, 1 tarin, 8 grains, 3 piccioli.

381 ounces, 1 tarin, 8 grains, 3 piccioli; for which sum the draught must be made upon Messina.—For the proof of which, see the article SICILY, upon PORTUGAL.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce into reas the 2000 crusadoes 200 reas, in multiplying by 400 reas, the value of a crusadoe, and divide the product, 800200 reas, by the price of exchange of 420 reas, and the quotient will be 1905 florins, and 10 for a remainder; which multiplied by 6 tarins, the value of a florin, and dividing the product by the same, it gives 1 tarin, with a remainder of 18, which also multiply by 20 grains, the value of the tarin, and dividing by the common divisor, you will have 8 grains, and a remainder of 24; this again multiplied by 6 piccioli, the value of a grain, and being divided by the same, it produces 3 piccioli.

To reduce these florins, &c. take the 1/2 (because the ounce is equal to 30 tarins, and the florin 6 tarins) and you will find that you have to receive at Messina 381 ounces, 1 tarin, 8 grains, and 3 piccioli, for the same.

With relation to negotiating bills of exchange in Portugal, it must be observed, that

Ufance { Of France
Of Holland
Of England
Of Genoa
Of Leghorn
Of Venice } is two months, comprehending the date; and that there are 6 days of grace allowed after the bill becomes due.

Of the ARBITRATION of the FOREIGN EXCHANGE wherein LISBON is concerned.

O P E R A T I O N.

Between AMSTERDAM, LONDON, LISBON, and LYONS,

If - - - 1 florin banco - = 402 deniers gros banco
And 100 den. gros banco = 99 1/2 ditto, provision deduct.
And 12 ditto - - - = 1 fol gros banco
And 17 3/4 fols gros banco = 240.20 pence sterling
And 11 1/2 pence sterling = 99 1/2 d. ster. provision deduct.
And 66 ditto - - - = 1000 reas.
And 500 reas - - - = 3 livres Tournois, what will 2000 florins banco make?

17 x 11 = 187, the divisor.

9900 1/2 x 20 x 4 = (2 x 2), the dividend.

The quotient will be 4235 livres, 8 fols, answer.

Again,

O P E R A T I O N.

Between AMSTERDAM, LONDON, LISBON, LEGHORN, and LYONS.

If - - - 1 florin banco - = 402 deniers gros banco
And 100 den. gros banco = 99 1/2 ditto, provision deducted
And 12 ditto - - - = 1 fol gros banco
And 17 3/4 fols gros banco = 240 pence sterling
And 11 1/2 pence sterling = 1000 reas.
And 770 reas - - - = 83 3/4 fols Tournois for Leg.
And 100 fols Tournois = 99 1/2 ditto, provision deducted
And 60 ditto - - - = 3 livres Tournois, what will 2000 flor. banco amount to?

17 x 11 x 77 = 14399, divisor.

985074 7 x 31 x 2 = 61074642 1/2, dividend.

Which gives for quotient 4241 livres, 13 fols, the answer, and the product of the circulation upon the abovesaid places.

Another E X A M P L E.

Amsterdam being to remit to London 750l. Flemish, the negociator first sends it to France, at 12 crowns per pound Flemish; from thence to Venice, at 100 crowns per 100 ducats; from thence to Hamburg, at 100 grots per ducat; from thence to Portugal at 50 grots per crusadoe of 400 reas; and from Portugal to London, at 3000 reas per pound sterling: it passing through so many places, the question is, how much sterling money must be received in London for the abovesaid remittance, exclusive of charges?

1 l. Amsterdam = 3 crowns
Crowns French = ducats of Venice
1 Ducat = 20 grots of Hamburg
Grots of Hamb. = 8 reas of Portugal
Reas of Portugal = 1 l. sterling

3 x 20 x 8 = 480l. sterling, to be received in London.

R E M A R K.

In order to understand the reason and foundation of the preceding operations, the reader is desired to consult the articles ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, ENGLAND, GENOA, HOLLAND, SICILY, SPAIN, TUSCANY, VENICE, and UNITED PROVINCES. Under these heads, also, is shewn the application of the foregoing general arbitral rule, to the weights and measures, as well as to the monies of foreign countries.

Antecedents. Consequents.
Suppose again that 5 l. Amsterdam = 12 French crowns
100 French crowns = 100 ducats Venice
1 Ducat Venice = 100 grots of Hamb.
50 Grots Hamb. = 400 reas of Portu.
3000 Reas of Portugal = 1 l. sterling
How much sterling at London = to 750l. Flemish?

Now, suppose that you would find out the antecedent of the 400 reas of Portugal belonging to the foregoing question; dispose of the terms as follows, omitting the antecedent 400 reas, after which abridge, as directed under the preceding heads; then multiply and divide, and you will find 50 grots of Hamburg to be the antecedent: thus

5 l. Flemish = 12 crowns
100 Crowns = 100 ducats
1 Ducat = 100 grots
- Grots = 400 reas
3000 Reas = 1 l. sterling
480 l. sterling = 750 l. Flemish

which abridged, will give 25 x 2 = 50 grots of Hamburg, the antecedent required by the question.

Let it be proposed to find the antecedent to 1 l. sterling, which must be reas, because the consequent that precedes it is 400 reas.

Antecedents.

Consequents.

5 Amsterdam - = 12 French crowns
100 French crown - = 100 ducats of Venice
1 Ducat of Venice = 100 grots of Hamburg
50 Grots of Hamburg = 400 reas of Portugal
Reas of Portugal - = 1 l. sterling
480 l. sterling - - - = 750 l. of Amsterdam

The above abridged, as directed under the heads referred to, will give 12 x 2 x 5 x 25 = 3000 reas, according to supposition.

Suppose, also, that you would find the consequent of the antecedent of 50 grots of Hamburg, pursue the same method as directed in the last question, and you will find it to be 400 reas; for the terms being properly ranged and abridged, the answer will turn out 50 x 4 x 2 = 400 reas, which answers the question.

The application of this rule to find the just par of monies of exchange, according to the INTRINSIC VALUE of the real monies, by taking this value according to the weight and standard.

E X A M P L E.

To find the par of money of exchange between France and another state or kingdom, by the means of the real silver money, for instance, of the piafre of Spain, of 8 rials of old plate, or 128 quartos, by that of the effective piafre, marked with two globes, we must previously understand, that

170 Quartos is the value of this effective piafre in Spain,
506 88/100 Grains is it's weight
4608 Grains is the number that the mark contains
529 Grains fine is the standard that the coinage gives to this piafre
262 Grains fine is that of the French silver crown
576 Grains is the number that the ounce contains
277 1/2 Grains is the weight of the crown, 60 fols is now it's value
128 Quartos is now the value of the piafre of exchange in Spain.

These preliminaries being known, we must proceed, according to the foregoing conjoint rule, by antecedents and consequents, as follows:

If 170 quartos - - - = 1 piafre effective
And 17 such piafres weight - = 506 88/100 grains
And 4608 gr. are receiv. for stand. = 259 grains fine
And 262 grains fine - - - = 8 oz. of French crowns
And 1 such ounce weight - = 576 grains
And 277 1/2 grains of silver - - = 60 fols Tournois, how much are 128 quartos worth?

Answer, 81 fols, 6 deniers Tournois.

O P E R A T I O N.

If 170 - 506 88/100
4608 - 259
131 262 - 8
1 - 576
277 1/2 - 60 - 128
64
131
17
917
131
2227
277 1/2
15589
15589
4454
1113 1/2
617992 1/2 divisor
506 88/100
259
4554
2530
1012
129 6/12 for 100
64 9/12 for 25
25 10/12 for 10
5 12/12 for 2
2 12/12 for 1
131281 10/12, or 1/2
6
787691
64
3150764
4726146
5041224 divid. (81 f. 6 de.
is the answer, and the
solution of the rule.

As this fraction produces nothing, we suppress it, though if you con-

vert it into a decimal of $\frac{1}{10}$, for greater precision sake, you may divide by it; yet it will occasion no alteration deserving practical notice.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Multiply the antecedents together for a divisor, which will give 617992 $\frac{1}{2}$; and the consequents, which will produce 5041224, for a dividend, and the quotient will be 81 sols, with a remainder of 354872, to be multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a sol, and dividing by the same divisor, it will give 6 deniers: so that the par of the exchange piastre of 8 rials old plate, of 16 quartos each, is in France equal to 81 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols, estimating the standard of the piastre with two globes at 10 deniers 19 grains, as the coinage-office at Lyons receives it; and as they give in evaluation for the French crown of 60 sols, which is its current value.

But if the par of this exchange-piastre is required, according to the standard of which the piastre of two globes is received in the mint of France, instead of 10 deniers 19 grains, or 259 grains, you should substitute, in the course of the operation, 261 $\frac{1}{2}$ grains, and only 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols; which is the proportional price of the mark of the said French crowns, paid by the mint instead of 60 sols currency.

In this case, the conjoint rule should be thus constructed:

If 170—506 $\frac{88}{100}$
 4608—261 $\frac{1}{2}$
 262—8
 1—576
 277 $\frac{1}{8}$ — 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ —128? Or, if 170—506 $\frac{88}{100}$
 4608—261 $\frac{1}{2}$
 262—46 liv. 18 sols—128?

The answer to these positions is 77 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols:

To which may be added, for the 4 den. per }
 livre, given upon 10,000 livres - - - } 1 $\frac{1}{4}$

Then the par of the piastre will be, accord- }
 ing to this operation - - - - - } 78 $\frac{1}{4}$ sols Tour.

The 46 livres 18 sols of the last consequent, are the price at which the mark is estimated with the French crown, in the mint of France.

And if you will suppress several proportions, to substitute in their stead the number only of piastres of two globes contained in the French mark, that is to say 9 $\frac{1}{11}$, and the price that is paid in their mints, which is 46 livres 9 sols, you must then form your rule thus:

If 170 ——— 1 piastre
 9 $\frac{1}{11}$ = 46 livres 9 sols
 1 livre 20 sols. How many—128? The answer is,
 a little less than 77. sols,
 To which we add as above - - - - - 1 $\frac{1}{4}$
 The true par, according to this operation - 78 $\frac{1}{4}$ sols.

You will observe that there is a difference of 6 deniers between the two preceding pars, which is occasioned by reason that the mint pays the mark of the French crown, as if it was of the standard of 11 deniers, or 264 grains; whereas it is in effect but of 10 deniers 22 grains; for if, instead of the antecedent of 262 grains, we had placed the said 264 grains, the two answers would have come out equal.

81 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols is the par of the first operation,
 78 $\frac{1}{4}$ sols is that of the last,

3 $\frac{1}{4}$ sols is the difference; which evidently proceeds from this, that the French crown issued by the mint for 60 sols, pays no more than 56 $\frac{1}{2}$: and this difference would be still greater, even 5 $\frac{1}{3}$ sols, if the assay-office, instead of receiving the said effective piastre at the standard of 10 deniers 19 grains, should receive it at the mint at that of 10 deniers 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ grains.

This being the case, you will ask, How comes it to pass that any one will carry these to the refiners? The answer is, Because they give in payment ingots which the commerce of Lyons affords, that are worth more than 50 livres the mark of the standard of 10 deniers 20 grains.

Observe that to find the par of the places or countries to which France gives the variable course of exchange, you should place in the proposition the value in such country, of the effective specie, and that also of exchange, as is done in finding the par of the exchange piastre of Spain, by placing to the first antecedent of the rule, 170 quartos, and 128 to its last term.

But it must not be so for the places or countries to which France gives the certain or invariable money: since in that case, you would find what will be given for the intrinsic value of the French crown, which is composed of sols, and then you must place in the proposition the price in sols that the mint pays for the mark of the said crown: that is to say, at 46 livres 18 sols, or 938 sols, to the first antecedent, and to the last term of

the rule the 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols of the crown, according to the course of exchange, and passes current for 60 sols; which is done for England and Holland, France giving the certain and invariable exchange crown for an uncertain price of exchange.

O P E R A T I O N.

If 938 sols, the value of the mark of the French crown, are for 8 ounces,

And 1 ounce contains 576 grains weight,

And 565 grains weight of the English crown are worth there 60 pence sterling, what will 65 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols be worth?—Answer, 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ pence sterling.

Note, The standard of the English crown-piece being the same with that of the French crown, we must only place, in the construction of the rule, its weight and its value in the country; and as the 4 deniers per livre are not added to the first consequent, you are not to take notice in the last term of the rule of the 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols.

But the standard of Holland being different from that of France, the rule must be thus constructed:

If 938 sols are given for the standard of 262 grains fine,
 And 245 grains is the standard of the mark, containing 4608 grains weight.

And 536 grains is the weight of the crown of Holland, there worth 100 deniers gros; What will be 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols be worth? Answer, 53 deniers gros, and a little more.

R E M A R K.

If the effective piastre should be diminished in Spain to 160 quartos, instead of 170 that it is there worth, the first antecedent of the arbitral rule being diminished, and the divisor, in consequence thereof, to 581640, it undoubtedly follows, from this diminution, that the quotient must be greater, since, instead of the par of 81 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols, of which we have spoken, it will give 86 $\frac{2}{3}$ sols.

And if the price of the Spanish piastre remaining of the same value in Spain, the price of the French crown should rise to 70 sols, the product of the multiplication of the consequents becoming thereby greater (to 58814208) the divisor being the same, the par, or the quotient, will be greater in the like proportion, that is to say, 90 $\frac{1}{4}$ sols.

If France, by increasing the price of their crown, the par with Spain should only increase, it is not easy to conclude, that, if France diminishes the price of this same crown, the par in question should also diminish in the same proportion; and, if there was both in Spain and France an augmentation of specie, exactly proportioned the one to the other, the par whereof we have treated will be the same, 81 $\frac{1}{2}$ sols; and in like manner, if the augmentation was, at the same time, more considerable, both Spain and France.

Upon these certain principles, in relation to the par between France and Spain, to which France gives the uncertain price, to receive the certain, you may easily fix your point in view, and form your rule of conjunction accordingly, to obtain the par of Holland, &c. &c. to which France gives the certain for the uncertain price of exchange.

General REMARKS upon the whole of this part of EXCHANGE.

1. There is more difficulty, perhaps, in this matter of calculating the par of money between nation and nation, than most people imagine, yet there is no one who has fully discussed it; but since it is what ought to be well understood, as well by persons of quality as by merchants, we shall observe, by way of further illustration, that all foreign coin is esteemed as bullion to us, and ours as bullion to them; so that the extrinsic value regards chiefly the temporary interest of foreign money negotiations, in their commercial, or foreign banking concerns.

2. Another point requisite to be observed, is the fineness of our own coin, and the weight and fineness of the foreign, which we are to receive in exchange; and this knowledge of the foreign must be acquired, either by the experience of some assay-master of allowed repute and accuracy [see the articles ASSAY and COIN], or by the merchant's actual assay, few of whom are at all acquainted with the art of ASSAYING and REFINING, and, therefore, are obliged to depend on the representation of workmen who make it their business, or on the assay-master at the Tower, or Goldsmiths-Hall, on whom it is thought we may more safely depend, than on the ordinary assay-masters, though many of them are very accurate in their assays.

Admit it were required to know how much sterling bullion, or coin may be given for 1000 pieces of eight Seville.

oz. dwt.
 The fineness of our coin we know is - - - 11 : 2
 And suppose the fineness of a piece of eight, we }
 will suppose to be, though more or less - - - } 11 : 3
 And its weight 17 dwts. 12 grains,
 Or the weight of 1000 pieces we find to be - - 875 : 0
 3. The

3. The third particular is, to know how many ounces of silver, 11 oz. 2 dwt. fine, are equal to 875 oz. of 11 oz. 3 dwt. fine; which is found by single indirect proportion thus:

oz. dwt. oz. oz. dwt. oz.
11 3 : 875 :: 11 2. to 878,94144 decim. the answer.

Here it is found that we may give 878,94144 oz. of bullion, 11 oz. 2 dwt. fine, for 875 oz. of bullion of 11 oz. 3 dwt. fine (or for 1000 pieces of eight Seville of the aforesaid standard) which if paid in coin, we must, for the 1000 pieces of eight, pay l. 227 : 1 : 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ sterling: for

Grains. Grains.
1858,0645 : 1.1 sterling : 421891,89 : 1.227,059 sterling.

That is to say, as 1858,0645 (the grains in 1l. sterling) are in proportion to 1l. sterling, so is 421891,8912 (the grains in 878,94144 ounces of bullion, 11 oz. 2 dwt. fine, which are equal in value to the 1000 pieces of eight) to l. 227,059 sterling, or l. 227 : 1 : 2 $\frac{1}{4}$.

4. But so often as I can buy 878,941 ounces of bullion for less than l. 227 : 1 : 2 $\frac{1}{4}$. (which we can always do so often as sterling silver is under 5s. 2 d. per ounce) so often we gain by making our exchange in bullion: if, however, we can buy bullion for 5s. 1 d. per ounce, at that rate the 878,941 ounces (which we are to give for the 1000 pieces) will stand me in l. 223 : 7 11 $\frac{1}{2}$, which is less than l. 227 : 1 : 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ (the sum we pay in exchanging coin) by l. 3 : 13 : 2 $\frac{1}{4}$, which is my gain by exchanging in bullion: thus in exchange, the par of money and bullion ought to be considered, as well as the par of domestic and foreign coins.

5. Though the foregoing rules, judiciously applied, contain the method of calculating the par of money; yet, since the price of exchange is agreed on in the currency of negotiations by bills of exchange, it is useful to know how much sterling money each of these foreign pieces are worth; for which reason we have, under the article COIN, shewed, according to the assays of Sir Isaac Newton, the intrinsic value of the chief gold and silver coins of Europe; whereby the merchant will know when he may negotiate therein to advantage, and the politician also be informed whether the nation gains or loses in the ballance of trade with such nation.

The standard of the gold coin of this kingdom is 22 carats fine, and 2 alloy, per pound of gold; and 11 oz. 2 dwt. fine silver, and 18 dwt. alloy, the standard pound of silver; and the division of the pound of gold is into 44 $\frac{1}{2}$ guineas, and the silver into the usual number of crowns. The guineas have varied in the nominal value several times, rising up to 30 shillings, and declining to 21, the present current value, but never have been reduced again to the level of 20 shillings, nor indeed ought, when compared with the Portugal pieces of 3l. 12s. or 1l. 16s. it appearing to be better worth 21 shillings.

	To the lb. Troy.	l.	s.	d.
Portugal 1. 3 : 12	- 13 -	46	16	0
English guineas 1 : 1	- 44 $\frac{1}{2}$ -	46	14	6
		0	1	6
And the Portugal standard worse $\frac{1}{4}$ grain	-	0	2	6

Total worse in lb. Troy, by standard and tale l. 0 : 4 : 0

This, with the difference in point of exactness in coining, wherein the Portugal is more defective than the English coin, may be good reasons for their being refused in payments in the receipts of the public revenue; but answer very well the purposes of those who benefit by the irregularity in trading with the heavier, and passing off the lighter by tale, and which if they can turn into guineas or heavy silver, make another gain.

A SHORT ACCOUNT of the COMMERCE of PORTUGAL, on a very INTERESTING OCCASION.

The Portuguese themselves, carry on no active commerce of consequence with any other European dominions: the British, French, Germans, Dutch (and those who go under the denomination of Hamburgers), Danes, Swedes, Spaniards, and most of the states of Italy, having consuls and factories settled in Lisbon: and some of them, particularly the English, have the same at Oporto; also a few houses in Viana, Figeira, Faro, and likewise on the island of Madeira. Of these people, the Portuguese merchants purchase the necessary commodities for their India, Guinea, and Brazil commerce; as the town and country dealers do those for their home consumption. And the same merchants purchase of the natives, or take in barter, the several products of their dominions, which they export to the countries proper for their sale.

The native exports of Portugal are wine, lemons, oranges, dried figs, ordinary raisins, almonds, salt, oil, cork, shumac, tunny fish, and other smaller articles. Wool used likewise to be exported in considerable quantities, but the extraction of it from that kingdom is now prohibited. However, there

is reason to believe, that the Dutch get a good deal of it off still under the name of Spanish wool, by the help of forged certificates and false swearing; of which bad practice the Portuguese make as little scruple for gain, as even the worst of our own countrymen.

The commodities the Portuguese bring from their foreign dominions, and sell chiefly at Lisbon, for other European countries, are diamonds of Brazil and India, sugars, tobacco, Brazil-wood of several sorts, cocoa-nuts, coffee, cotton, pepper, several sorts of drugs, some inferior kind of spices, whalebone, raw and tanned hides, elephants teeth, arrac, orchella, citrons, and occasionally China ware, Indian silks, and cotton piece-goods. And here it may be proper to observe, that all their India commerce is going to be made more regular and extensive. To these exports we shall add, silver and gold. The former, as no product of their own, is allowed to be shipped off by entry and licence. The latter is not, except for corn in time of great want, and by stipulation for some articles they receive from Sweden. But in either of those cases, the procuring of the licence would be attended with so much trouble, that it is rarely, if ever, solicited. However, in their exports, gold must be, and is, understood as a COMMODITY, at the exportation of which Portugal ought to wink, or they could not carry on any of their other commerce. But Britain receives as small, or a smaller proportion of gold, than any other nation trading with Portugal, as will be apparent from a general view of their commerce, notwithstanding the weight of that accusation in Portugal is levelled at us, through the folly and ignorance in some, and from a want of spirit, abilities, and resolution in others; for Portugal, of all kingdoms in the world, has the least reason to misuse or affront Great-Britain. The imports in Portugal, for their home and colonies consumptions, are almost all things necessary for the support, convenience, ornament, or luxury of life; of most of which articles we shall give some account, when we come to treat separately of the trade of each country.

The nature of the government of this kingdom, which is entirely absolute, has too strong a tendency to oppressions, destructive of industry, especially in those parts of the country where the climate is an additional encourager of laziness, as well as the promoter of vice. To which may be added, the invincible pride of all noble and genteel families, every branch of whom will absolutely starve, rather than use any sort of employment for their support. But above all, the burthens of priests, friars, nuns, and the superstitious influence they have over the people, as well as an universal litigious disposition in the whole nation, conspire to make every order of the people in that country poor. These, joined to the natural sterility of the soil, the number of soldiers necessary to garrison a country which is almost all frontier, and whose pay is so small as to oblige them to a life of celibacy, the great number of religious orders of all sorts, and the necessary draught of people for their immense extent of territory in America, keeps the mother-country continually weak in people. So that they do, and must always, depend on the succours and supplies of other nations, both for their protection and subsistence.

But the all-wise dispenser of blessings, to supply their deficiency in strength, and the extent of kingdom, as well as of the exterior wealth of the earth, and even industry, has given them a treasure from under it. Their gold and diamond mines in America, have enabled their monarchs of late, to figure amongst the great potentates of Europe, and made them generally respected, from the convenient and necessary commerce carried on to their dominions, greatly beneficial to all. The people of Portugal in general, look on no nation with so evil an eye as Spain: France they have no affection nor esteem for; and always express a just sense of the natural connection they have with Great-Britain in commerce and interest, as well as faith and reliance on our support in times of need.

We shall now return to the state of the commerce; and, for the reasons given above, must observe, the native poverty of Portugal was so great, on the discovery of their gold mines, that they would have found it impossible to have worked them, but from the credit given by other countries, and particularly Great-Britain, in the necessary commodities for that purpose. And as their returns of bullion augmented, their credit from us, and by degrees all other countries, grew greater; and though now considerably enriched themselves, they still work their very mines, and carry on almost all their colony commerce, and much of their home trade, with foreign capitals. For they are credited with all articles of traffic, 'till the returns come round: insomuch that the merchants of other countries, not only stand the disburse of the cost of their goods, and the charges of transporting them to Portugal, but also of the king's duties there, (which are very high on most of the articles that are re-exported) 'till, as was said before, the returns for them arrive. A custom and confidence so greatly advantageous to the king, as well as the subjects of Portugal, that the foreign merchants settled among them, especially the English, ought to live under the fairest and strongest protection, even had they

they no treaty to exact it; because, on the support of the foreign factories, that necessary credit must depend: for, without such merchants or factors residing in the kingdom, no such credits could with safety be given, nor would it be so at all: and this as strongly behoves every nation, that would preserve it's commerce to that kingdom, to support it's merchants established there; otherwise the trade of that country will go gradually declining, and at last be entirely lost.

The exports from Portugal to the Baltic, are some cargoes of salt, a few lemons and oranges, a little arrac, and a meer trifle of wine; so that the ballance paid in specie must be exceeding great.

From Hamburgh and other neighbouring ports are imported immense quantities of German linens of all kinds and qualities; and, occasionally, many of the Baltic commodities.

The exports of Hamburgh and it's neighbouring ports, are some salt, sugar, and tobacco, whalebone, a little wine and arrac, a few lemons, oranges, and dried figs, some cocoa-nuts, coffee, cork, citrons, a few India goods occasionally, and other trifling articles; the whole of which, however, cannot amount to one quarter of the value of their imports, consequently the ballance paid in specie must be very great. It is, notwithstanding, to be acknowledged, the silver imported into Lisbon is chiefly in return for German linens, and ordinary English woollen goods; a trade greatly beneficial to Portugal.

From Holland are imported great quantities of fine thin woollen cloths, hair camblets, linens, spices, cordage, anchors, and all sorts of naval stores; most of the Baltic commodities, all kinds of grain, prodigious quantities of small round cheeses, coach-horses, arms, ammunition, and accoutrements of war, indigo, toys, and other articles.

The exports for Holland are a few lemons, oranges, and dried figs; a small quantity of wines, some candied citrons, orchella, wool (under certificates of it's being Spanish), several cargoes of salt; diamonds, whalebone, a little sugar and tobacco, Brazil-wood, some cocoa-nuts, coffee, Brazil hides, India goods, in considerable quantities, when to be had at public sale; cork, shumac, canes for weavers, and other articles. The ballance paid by Portugal to Holland in specie, and absolutely carried over in their own ships, &c. is very great.

The French send to Portugal fine woollen cloths, various kinds of stuff, particularly a sort of black goods called druggets, of which they sell immense quantities for the habits of the clergy (having thereby entirely destroyed the consumption of ENGLISH CRAPES, once a very important article of our trade), wrought silks, a great quantity of linens and cambricks, dressed CALVE-SKINS (another branch taken from us), HATS, SILK-STOCKINGS (both of which articles they are also getting from us every day), all sorts of toys, furniture, ribbands, and most of the ornamental parts of female dress; grain of all kinds, when they have it to spare, and sometimes in immense quantities; claret, champagne and brandy, though prohibited, are smuggled in; as are flowered and figured silks, gold and silver laces, India goods, and other contraband commodities: they likewise import printed books, some ordinary sort of cutlery ware, and an abundance of smaller articles, which it would be too tedious to enumerate.

By the help of wool smuggled from us, the French have made attempts to rival us in Portugal, in our very great article of LONG-BAYS, but hitherto without success. God grant their future endeavours, aided by our inattention, may not bring such a project to bear.

The French take from Portugal some raw hides, a small quantity of fruit, a few cocoa-nuts, and occasionally a little pepper; also some Brazil wood, and orchella. They formerly, likewise, used to receive some Brazil diamonds, but I think they now prohibit the importation of them in France. So that Portugal pays them a very great ballance in bullion, and for articles, in general, the least necessary of any they import.

The Portuguese take from Spain immense quantities of cattle, both for labour and slaughter, a great deal of Biscay iron, a vast many cheap wrought silks and velvets (most of which are smuggled, to defraud the king of his duties), many cargoes of a thin strong kind of rushes, for ordinary cordage, and other uses; printed books, some dried raisins, and occasionally corn and oil, and some other commodities.

The Spaniards take from Portugal, cured tunney-fish, some tobacco, a few sugars, some cocoa-nuts, which are smuggled in, as is also a vast quantity of specie; some part of which ballance Portugal, however, gets from them again, by the same method, in another part of the world. To this article we must also add, the vast sums of money Portugal pays to Spain for the labour of the people of Galicia, who are the principal ordinary working persons at Lisbon, and in many other cities; they come young into Portugal where they work hard, and fare hard, for a considerable number of years: and then retire with incredible sums, for such people, to their own country.

The Italians import into Portugal immense quantities of wheat, a great deal of barley, and also a good deal of Levant rice, vermicelli, and oil occasionally. They likewise import a prodigious quantity of writing paper, abundance of wrought silks and velvets, coral, and many expensive curiosities; great quantities of glass beads, for their Guinea and home consumption, a great many cotton goods (by special licence from Malta), many toys, and other inferior articles; not to particularize religious traffic, which is very great and public.

The Italians export from Portugal hides, a considerable quantity of sugars and tobaccos, cocoa-nuts, pepper, ordinary-spices, elephants teeth, Brazil wood, some drugs, and an immense quantity of bullion. Insomuch that of late, while gold bore so high a price in England, it has been a drug all over Italy: a circumstance well worthy of British attention.

The exports from England to Portugal are long bays of all kinds, Colchester bays, Spanish, Yorkshire, and some few Gloucester cloths; long-ells, shalloons, says, serges, Spital-fields, Norwich, and Coventry stuffs of various kinds; printed linens, watered tabbies, silk and worsted stockings, hats, great quantities of Birmingham and Sheffield wares, some wrought plate, lead, shot, copper, pewter, tin, coals, corn of all kinds, pulse, flour, biscuit, iron, hoops, toys, watches, arms and accoutrements of war, some cordage, ship-chandlery articles; and, in fine, almost every thing produced or made here that is useful, and cheaper than in other countries.

From Scotland they have barley, and a little cured ling.

From Ireland they receive butter in great quantities, salted beef and pork, salted salmon, and some ordinary camblets, barley and potatoes.

From Newfoundland, New England, and Nova Scotia, dried cod-fish, and particularly from the former place, in great quantities.

From Carolina, several cargoes of rice.

From New York, Philadelphia, Virginia, and Maryland, wheat, flour, Indian corn, biscuit, pipe-staves, bees wax, and lumber.

They also buy most of their commercial shipping from us, some river built, by order, but mostly of Old or New England construction, that have been used.

We export from Portugal almost all the wines that are shipped from their whole dominions, including the western islands and Madeira. The same of lemons and oranges, salt for all our fisheries, and most of our colonies use, in North America; for our fisheries in England and Scotland, and to Ireland prodigious quantities for their fisheries, exported provisions, and the whole national use; dried figs, raisins, almonds, cork, shumac, orchella, citrons, sugars of late, in very great quantities for Ireland, near, if not sufficient, for that kingdom's consumption, and from thence we have heard a great many, when refined, have been run into England; the whole to the great reproach of our colony management, as is also our traffic there in French sugars. Diamonds, both of Brazil and India, Brazil wood, arrac, and occasionally other Indian commodities, which our ships smuggle into many parts of the British dominions; oil when they have it to spare, at a reasonable rate; and sometimes cocoa nuts, elephant's teeth, drugs, a few tobaccos and other articles.

N. B. I have not placed their cotton among the exports for any particular country, as hitherto they have not received great quantities from Marnham, and there are generally bidders upon it of all nations, who send it to those places where it is likely to turn to account, the importation, I think, being prohibited no where.

From this short view of the particulars of the Portugal commerce, it is apparent, that the trade of Great-Britain with Portugal, is the least burthenfome, and disadvantageous to them of any; that in no article do we enjoy any preference, or receive any favour; but, on the contrary, in the branch of fine cloths, a manifest injury.

I shall now recommend a few points, says this judicious patriot merchant, to the immediate consideration of whom they may concern.

And first, I recommend to some substantial fabricant, or public-spirited gentleman, to endeavour in some place where labour is cheap, to set a manufacture on foot that may rival the BLACK FRENCH DRUGGETS; an article which, if it could be brought to bear, would employ every inhabitant of a considerable village*.

* Since this worthy gentleman has suggested this matter, for the public benefit, I have also followed his example, and recommended the same to one of the most ingenious master woollen manufacturers in the kingdom, who resides in a cheap country, and who has assured me, that he will undertake the same, provided I can furnish him with patterns of that species of the French manufacture. Wherefore, I must request the favour of this public-spirited gentleman, to oblige me with patterns of such druggets as he would have our manufacturers imitate; and I hope to be able to give him an acceptable account of the success. They are desired to be directed, in a packet, for me, to be left with Mr Knapton, Bookseller, in London.

NEW REMARKS SINCE THE FOREGOING.

Since the above, I have received patterns of the beforementioned French druggets, and put them into the hands of certain manufacturers, in order that trials might be made thereof in our kingdom; and the trial has succeeded, with respect to the quality of the manufacture, but not in price, by every one who has attempted it. I have been informed, that one of the manufacturers did succeed at PENRYN IN CORNWALL; and it has been affirmed, that they were made so cheap, at the commencement of the last war, as to have been delivered at the Lisbon markets for the same price that the French do theirs.—But it seems, that it so fell out, that this branch of manufacture, which would have been attended with great national advantages, has been put a stop to, and the manufacturer almost ruined, because he voted according to his conscience for members of parliament, at the last general election.

Whether this can be done, since the encrease of our taxes, occasioned by the last war, I have never heard.

These light druggets, commonly called the French druggets, is a kind of cloth greatly esteemed by the Spaniards and Portuguese, for it's being well worked, though at the same time thin, light, and cheap. The French were the first introducers of this manufacture; and are, at this time, the sole venders thereof in the Lisbon and Spanish markets, to the great detriment of our trade. These druggets are made in France of the best of the Spanish or Turkey wool, which are very well prepared and scribbled; and afterwards spun into the finest yarn that those wools will admit of.—When placed in the loom, the chain and filling, or warp and woof, must be of one quality, and be driven pretty close, as this cloth must not be beat up close after it is wove; (THESE LAST PARTICULARS ARE WHAT THE GENERALITY OF OUR BRITISH MANUFACTURERS HAVE ERRED IN) a yard of this cloth, which is half-ell wide, when finished, should not weigh above four ounces.

The French sell their druggets at Lisbon from 1s. 6d. to 1s. 10d. per yard. The French and Dutch superfine cloths, which they undersell us with, at the Lisbon and Turkey, and other southern markets, are greatly inferior to the superfine cloths which are made in England, for lasting; but this is not the principal quality which the inhabitants of those hot countries desire in their cloth. They desire a cloth, which is thin, and light, and of an inferior price to our superfine cloth; but, at the same time it must be well dyed, and look pleasing to the eye: this is the kind of cloth which the French and Dutch supply them with, and which our manufacturers cannot be brought to manufacture, because they imagine it greatly inferior to our own; but if we expect those people should buy our goods, we must supply them with such as are the most agreeable to them. Both of those branches of manufacture may be carried on in several parts of this kingdom; and, therefore, if the government would give a bounty for the exportation of those cloths, for a few years, till proper manufactories were established, by way of encouragement, and use every measure to annihilate all those taxes, will fall the heaviest upon our manufactures, and duly regulate all the poor of the kingdom, we shall be able to rival, and undersell both the French and Dutch at all the southern markets. See our articles, POOR, TAXES.

Secondly, To some of our northern counties, or to Ireland, I recommend, continues this gentleman, the making the sort of cheese sent by the Dutch to Lisbon; of which many cargoes go in a year: and I cannot think but in our country, they are to be made cheaper.

Thirdly, To whom it concerns, to support and extend our HAT TRADE; chiefly by preventing the sale of beaver to the French, and to encourage the importing of greater quantities of it.

Fourthly, Improving our silk-stocking business as much as possible, in point of cheapness and quality; particularly in gauze fabrics.

Of the extraction of gold from Portugal.

I am now, says this gentleman, to discuss the interesting point, that has puzzled so many weak heads; I mean the extraction of gold from Portugal, which has been ever foolishly represented as an immense evil to that kingdom, suffered, however, out of great kindness and particular favour to us, as is pretended.

Nothing is more evident, than that gold is, in itself, of no other value than for the necessary and convenient uses it can be put to. For example, I will suppose every Portuguese had his house full of that metal, and was at the same time in want (as he must be if he would not part with it) of comfortable food and raiment; might he not, in such a case, with propriety, be said, amidst his useless heaps of shining ore, to be miserable, poor, and wretched? What are individuals, or what is a state the better for dead and useless piles of wealth? It certainly might as well be kept under ground,

as brought above it to no purpose; nay, it had better be kept there, on such principles, than produced to the light; because the care and labour of working the mines would then be avoided.

Should the whole race of Portuguese fall again into their old penurious, and inelegant methods of life; feed upon pulse, or other such ordinary food, and that in a sparing manner, nay, even without cleanliness; when their own corn was exhausted, if they would content themselves with eating chestnuts instead of bread, as the poor, in bad years, yet do in the north part of their kingdom; or with the pods of the locust tree, which often supply the like wants to this day in Algarve: I say, if the people of the metropolis and other affluent parts of their kingdom, could condescend to forego the comforts of grateful food, kick off their shoes and stockings once more, and make, as in times past, an ordinary cloak their cloathing by day, and only bed by night, of what value would gold become? Or, in what shape could they propose to make it serviceable to them? For my part, I see no other use it could possibly be put to, than the buying of themselves, in time of need, a protection obstinately to possess a wretched and comfortless independence. Whereas, on the contrary, by parting with their gold in commerce to other kingdoms [see the article BULLION], they enjoy, not only the comforts, but elegancies of life; make a respectful figure in Europe, and are secure, singly from Great-Britain (while they are so wise as to preserve her friendship), of a fuller and safer protection than they could possibly buy from the hire of all the mercenary troops upon earth.

That Portugal must and does pay a great ballance in bullion to every other nation she trades with, I hope, has been made apparently obvious: but if a further proof thereof is wanting, I appeal to the weekly, nay, I may almost say daily, practice of our buying bills of exchange for those ballances of the several countries to whom they are due.

Such debts of Portugal do we purchase, commonly for ready money, in an exchange business, which seldom gives a profit equal to national interest, and a decent premium for sea risques: and yet is a negotiation more favourable for us than any other nation, on account of our situation, and the number of privileged ships we continually have at Lisbon; as also from the superior characters of our mercantile navigators, to those of Holland and other countries; inasmuch that our ships not only bring the money to England, but are also the general carriers of it, for all nations, to Italy. Thus because our shipping is principally used for the extraction of gold, and our country is made greatly a channel for it's conveyance, both the ignorant of Portugal and of Great-Britain imagine the ballance of our commerce with Portugal immensely greater than it really is; for, as I said before, England is only a channel for the greatest part of the specie our ships bring from Portugal; most of it going out of the kingdom at her eastern ports, as surely as it enters at the western ones; so that our gain on the traffic for the payments Portugal makes to many other nations, by the way of England, including freight, commission, profit, and charges, may be reasonably estimated at from two and an half, to three per cent. and no more. Such is the profit for which we do the business, run the risques, and bear the odium in Portugal, belonging to other countries.

I cannot quit this head without observing, that it is exceeding ill policy in Portugal to make the risque of extracting gold great; because, according to the difficulties, the exchanges will be proportioned more or less against them. And I must add, if we were not the carriers of any, it would nevertheless go, and more to the disadvantage of Portugal: for national ballances, like those of private people, must be paid, ought to be so, and will be, in bullion, let what laws forever be made to hinder it. See BULLION, and BALLANCE of TRADE.

The Portuguese, therefore, as our friends and well-wishers, ought, by all means, to preserve to us the advantage of being the carriers of their bullion. Nay, the late king of Portugal did so, on a patriot principal, after his eyes were once well opened, as they were in Wingfield and Roberts's affair*; for it is well known he ever after discouraged informations and diligences about the extraction of coin, being well satisfied of the absolute necessity there was for it's going out of his kingdom.

* Two English merchants of eminence who were condemned to be hanged in Lisbon for shipping off gold (but not dust, as has been ignorantly imagined), on which his late Britannic Majesty appointed a fleet to be immediately equipped, as was really done; and the very order had it's proper effect, by saving the gentlemen's lives, restoring their effects, and convincing the king of Portugal of his error.

Nothing shews the sense and spirit of the British court better, in regard to this matter, than the speech of the great lord Galway, made in the year 1709, to his late Portuguese Majesty (when that nobleman was general there of the British forces, and ambassador from queen Anne) on a project then in agitation at the court of Lisbon, to prevent the extraction of bullion: of which lord Galway having received information,

mation, he immediately demanded an audience of the king, to whom he strongly and elegantly delivered his sense on the subject, in the following manner :

‘ Your Majesty cannot be sufficiently commended for the steady attention you have always shewn to the affairs of your government. And the pains you have lately bestowed on examining into the ballance of trade, is a new proof of that merit which would entitle you to the crown, had it not descended to you from a long and glorious line of royal ancestors. — But permit me, Sire, to observe, that there is a greater king ; one by whom all kings reign, and whose providence is over all his works. According to his distribution of things, riches belong to some nations, and industry to others ; and by these means the liberality of Heaven is made equal to all. Vain, Sire, are all human councils, when opposed to his wisdom ; and feeble the efforts, even of royal powers, when directed to cross his will. You have forbid gold to be exported out of your dominions, and you would willingly enforce the prohibition : but the thing is impracticable. You may restrain your subjects, but you cannot set bounds to their necessities. But say this was possible : suppose you could defeat the industry of the northern nations ; what would be the consequence ? Their husbandmen, graziers, weavers, and all that infinite train of manufacturers that now labour quietly at home, to cloath and feed your subjects, would then turn foldiers ; and, instead of seeing their marchantmen in Lisbon, you would hear of their fleets conveying them to BRAZIL, to fetch much more of that gold you now fetch for them. Besides, Sire, if they are gainers by their trade, they thereby become the natural guarantees of your dominions. It is not only their treaty, but interests, that bind them to your services. You have potent enemies, and you require powerful friends. The ambition of France knows no bounds, and the pride of Spain will teach her to keep up a perpetual claim to your territories and crown. You have no recourse to frustrate the views and defeat the endeavours of these potentates, but to the MARITIME POWERS ; and, therefore, let me beseech your Majesty to consider, that every project to distress them, is, in effect, a scheme to destroy yourself.’

This speech had it's desired effect, as such speeches ever must have in Portugal ; at least while the present systems of power and politics remain as they are in Europe, or the Portuguese preserve their senses, or the governing men their true loyalty to their king, and a generous zeal and patriot love for their country.

Of the privileges to which the British subjects in Portugal are entitled by treaty.

Of these privileges, many were the special grants (doubtless for wise reasons) of several of the kings of Portugal in antient times, and were mere acts of grace and favour, 'till the celebration of Cromwell's treaty with John the IVth, when they became our absolute right, by being declared such in the third article thereof.

I shall now mention the particular articles of privileges at present contended for, as well as others that are lost, and shall subjoin a short observation on most of them.

We will begin with a very necessary one, which is the right of having justice duly administered in Portugal : and that certainly ought not to be reckoned a favour in any nation : but it is at present too well known to be the case in Portugal (and I am afraid has been for many ages past the custom there) to regard personal influence more than impartial justice, in judicial determinations ; which, doubtless, occasioned the treaty's being so very full as it is, of regulations on that head.

The office of judge-conservator is our stipulated right, by the 7th article of the treaty, whose province it is to judge all our causes : but with a right, however, for either party to appeal to a body of judges, who are to give the final sentence within four months : which rule is so far from being observed at present, that law-suits may be kept undetermined for forty years.

The judge-conservator is, likewise, to protect the subjects of Great-Britain (not from justice, but) from wicked or vexatious insults. But that authority, like every other, is now taken from him ; and our merchants of the most respectable figure, are thereby subjected to the insolences of the very meanest fellows in office, having many of them been carried by such (unheard, unexamined) both with and without orders from their superiors, to the Newgates and Gatehouses of the kingdom ; and suffered outrages in their houses and properties (as we shall hereafter give examples of) without a possibility of obtaining reparation, or any sort of satisfaction whatever ; even after proving the illegality of the proceeding, and the innocence of the insulted person.

Let every merchant of Great-Britain, every subject of these kingdoms, think seriously of such a situation ; and never venture more to pronounce a valuable body of their country-men blameable for soliciting, nay demanding (for it is their right) protection from such unjustifiable violences ; or that their judge-conservator may be restored to his stipulated authority for that purpose.

As to the navigation articles for America, they are all become now of no account : our ships are not allowed, unless in

distress, to go to any of their colonies, except Mazagam and their African islands, and there without preference. The right of having houses of trade in Brazil, and their other settlements, is also entirely taken from us.

The right of a legal navigation and commerce to Portugal, with an equitable security of property, particularly in perishable commodities, and some of them owing no duties to the king, are stipulated to be free from all vexatious embarrassments ; all of which is agreeable to reason, justice, and good policy, for them to allow of ; and yet in most of those articles our merchants are eternally plagued with vexatious obstructions and plunderings, of which several very extraordinary examples shall be produced.

We have also, by stipulation, a right to the wearing of such arms for our defence, as are used by the native : an article which I hope is not thought a favour for us to enjoy, because those nations who have no treaties with them do the same, and ought to do it in every country.

The liberty of professing our religion, likewise, I hope this nation has too much dignity to receive as a favour from any in Europe, especially while the same indulgence is granted to the people of all countries in Great-Britain.

That debts owing to our merchants by persons sequestered by the king or inquisition, should be made good to the creditors, is certainly a very reasonable and necessary stipulation : yet in regard to the king it is not observed, in regard to the inquisition it is.

That the king, or any other power, by arbitrary protections, shall not guard the effects of our debtors from legal executions, is likewise an article of mere justice, yet it is frequently and wantonly violated.

The not protecting our run-away sailors, on a pretence of changing their religion, and the obliging them, when demanded to return to their ships, is an article now not at all regarded by the Portuguese : on the contrary, they are encouraged in unreasonable and insolent prosecution of their captains, seduced from their duty, and supported in their resistance ; debauched in infamous houses, where they are encouraged to run in debt ; for the payment of which, they are afterwards sold like cattle to the Portuguese and others ; such practice being absolutely become a traffic in Lisbon, to the dishonour as well as prejudice of Great-Britain.

The British factory have a right, under the authority of their judge-conservator, to appoint, out of their own body, administrators of the effects of such of their countrymen who die without partners, or intestate : which is certainly, not only a very reasonable, but very necessary article, and can be no evil to Portugal.

Our merchants are exempted from hired or personal military service, as well as their domestics ; and from civil and religious offices, and all church tributes, which in some points are merely reasonable and agreeable to the practice of all nations : in others, most necessary exemptions. They have, moreover, the right of having all necessaries for their houses and persons, and those of their families, duty free, but this privilege is now made of little consequence to them. They have likewise, by royal decrees and the laws of the land, the right of being treated as gentlemen, even in the article of criminal prosecutions ; but it is so far lost to them, that they are continually, even from wanton insolence, treated as slaves : and they have another privilege, which is that of being prisoners at large for debt.

By the separate and secret article, the regulation of DUTIES on our WOOLLEN GOODS is made ; but to the manifest prejudice both of Great-Britain and Portugal, it is, like most of the others, never regarded.

Such are the British privileges in Portugal, and the substance of the stipulations in our favour of the treaty with that crown, which ignorant persons have thought full of mighty advantage to this nation : whereas the fact is so far otherwise, that if they join Charles the II'd's treaty, and that of queen Anne to Oliver Cromwell's, and then take a cool view of our situation, and that of other nations in Portugal, it will be found we are upon much the worst footing with them of any nation, being in nothing favoured in trade, and yet we are the only nation obliged to succour and protect them, as we frequently have done at an immense expence.

The treaty made between queen Anne and Peter the II'd of Portugal, consisting but of two articles (except the preamble and conclusion) and those being short ones, I shall here give them entire to the public.

ARTICLE I.

‘ His sacred royal Majesty of Portugal promises, both in his own name, and that of his successors, to admit for ever hereafter into Portugal, the WOOLLEN CLOTHS and the rest of the WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES OF THE BRITONS, as was accustomed, 'till they were prohibited by the laws ; nevertheless upon this condition, that is to say,

ARTICLE II.

That her sacred royal Majesty of Great-Britain shall, in her own name, and that of her successors, be obliged, for ever hereafter

hereafter, to admit the WINES of the growth of Portugal into Great-Britain; so that at no time, whether there shall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Britain and France, any thing more shall be demanded for these wines by the name of custom or duty, or by any other title whatsoever, directly or indirectly (whether they shall be imported into Great-Britain in pipes or hogsheds, or other casks) than what shall be demanded for the like quantity or measure of French wine, deducting or abating a third part of the custom or duty. But if at any time this deduction or abatement of customs, which is to be made as aforesaid, shall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it shall be just and lawful for his said royal Majesty of Portugal, again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the rest of the British woollen manufactures.

I must here observe, that the cloth trade is not the only article to which we have an exclusive right; because the treaty manifestly gives it for WOOLLEN GOODS IN GENERAL; and such was the right that we accordingly did enjoy, in its full and genuine sense, 'till the late Dutch consul M. Hesterman, found the means of explaining it away in favour of his nation, who thereupon began introducing Dutch cloths, now increased to a great trade.

And the French have since taken the like advantage of our supineness to traffic in cloths to Portugal, though in secret; and the better to cover it, their cloths go with ENGLISH MARKS, TICKETS, and PACKAGE, [to confirm the truth of which, see the article FRANCE, Vol. I. page 815] though they are well enough known: and as to any other kinds of FRENCH WOOLLEN GOODS, they are imported into Portugal openly, and in very great quantities.

From the sense of the treaty, enforced by many years practice, it should seem clear, that we have the SOLE EXCLUSIVE RIGHT of importing woollen goods of all kinds into Portugal; and we are the only nation who gave them an equivalent for that right; the conditions whereof, to their advantage, being duly observed by us, surely demands as honourable an observation on their part, of the stipulations made in our favour; and I see no reason for suffering ourselves quietly to be elbowed out of our rightful possessions by any intruders whatever.

In regard to our national dignity, weight, and privileges, I have only to add, as a serious truth, that the Portuguese people laugh, nay, cry shame on us, for given them so tamely and readily up. The French act in all points with a quite different spirit: they have NO TREATY, NO PRIVILEGES, but from favour; and yet, from being better supported, their MERCHANTS gain ground on ours every day.

Of the unjustifiable treatment that our British merchants have lately sustained in Portugal.

Having already explained, that a principal use of the consular office is to protect our merchants from oppressive vexations and persecutions, I shall now, in proof of the ill consequence of that officer's losing his power, mention two recent and very extraordinary imprisonments, that our British merchants have suffered in Portugal.

The first was of a gentleman, who went on board of an English packet boat, on the morning she was to sail, to take leave of a friend, who was coming in her to England. He had been guilty of no transgression; yet, on his return to the shore, he was seized by the officers of a custom-house boat, and without any legal authority, nay even without carrying him before any magistrate whatever, he was, by people of no higher account than tide-waiters, hurried to the most ignominious prison of Lisbon, where he remained a considerable time; and, at last, from the strongest intercession of one of the highest * noblemen, both in rank and employment, made to the governing man of the custom-house, he was, reluctantly, by that officer, suffered to become a prisoner at large; and has since left the kingdom, without receiving an entire release, or any sort of satisfaction for the insult.

* The marquis of Mariabua, captain-general of the forces of Portugal, and master of the horse to the king.

The second was of a gentleman, who had a barrel of beer deposited under his charge, about which there was a judicial contention; and there happening to leak out of the cask a trifling quantity of the liquor, the same head officer of the custom-house made the leakage a pretence (to gratify a pique) for committing him of a sudden to the common prison; from whence he, however, soon got released, by the interposition of a * lady of very high quality, as no sort of offence could be reasonably alledged in excuse for the violence done him.

* The marchioness of Gouvea, lady to the hereditary lord steward of the king's household.

Biscuit is a commodity that pays no duty to the king of Portugal, nor any fees but a few at the custom-house. Yet the same good director of that office, took it of a sudden into his head to insist, that an English merchant, who had then im-

ported a considerable quantity, should pay a duty on it. The merchant disputed the point: a process ensued, and the biscuit was thereby detained in the custom-house warehouses 'till it was spoiled: then the health-officers seized and condemned it, nay, laid a fine on the merchant for having bad provisions on hand; whilst his antagonist of the custom-house notified him at his own charge, to throw his biscuit into the river; which he was forced to comply with, and has never been able since to obtain any kind of redress for the wrong.

Also a British house of great figure, that had large warehouses, at a country-seat they hired about a league above Lisbon, on the banks of the river, had a visitation there by the very meanest officers of the custom-house, under a pretence of searching for smuggled goods. The family being in town, and only one servant there, who had not the keys of the warehouses, on their being demanded to be opened, the officers were told by the servant that he would send for his masters and the keys, as he immediately did: but they insolently, and without legal authority, broke open the doors; and finding nothing to seize, left the warehouses exposed to plunder, as the gentlemen found them when they arrived; for they went thither directly with their keys, on receiving the notice that was sent them. For this, like all other violences, no sort of satisfaction could be obtained: and yet if these fellows had carried but a pound of foreign tobacco, snuff, or soap, or a single pack of foreign cards, and then swore they had found them there, this British house of trade would have been confiscated and ruined.

The 17th article of the treaty expressly says, 'If it happens that any controversy does arise between the said king's inspectors, officers, or ministers, and the said merchants, concerning the goodness of fish, or any other sorts of provision whatsoever, which shall be carried to any of the said king's dominions; the same shall be determined by the arbitration of good men, provided they are Portuguese, who shall be equally chosen by the magistrate of the place, and the consul of the English nation, and they shall determine the business in such a manner, that no damage may accrue to the owner in the mean time, while the matter is in dispute.'

Notwithstanding the equitable precautions in this article of the treaty, the health-officers are guilty of such arbitrary insolences and plunderings, as are wicked and infamous to the highest degree. For example, in the summer of the year 1752, a great quantity of foreign grain being then at Lisbon, under false and ridiculous pretences, they exercised such tyrannies as would disgrace, even a Barbary government. They seized on whole warehouses of corn, fined the owners of it, condemned the grain, and threw considerable quantities, at the expence of the owners, into the river. From others they took bribes to be quiet, which was the real end they drove at, and not the safety of the public; for it is well known the people of that office are capable, for money, of suffering the very plague to be imported and sold. With such proceedings it must be concluded, all the holders of grain were greatly terrified; insomuch that the prices of wheat, and especially the English (which is not so fit for keeping as Straights grain at any time, and was that year, from a wet harvest, of an inferior quality) fell 50, 60, nay 70 per cent. in price; so that the whole British commerce did not lose less that summer than 50,000 l. sterling, besides the sums given in bribes to those harpies the health-officers.

On that occasion, the whole Portuguese nation cried shame on such proceedings! However, the spoilers found protection, the merchants were plundered without redress, and the dealers in English grain suffered more in proportion than any others. I must here beg leave to instance one barbarous act of their wanton tyranny, which was as follows:

Two English houses, who had a great deal of our country wheat on hand, finding their corn begin to suffer in quality, from the hot weather and weavel, joined together in a petition to the health-office, for leave to ship it off, under bond-security for producing certificates of its being landed in other countries; which petition was rejected, under the unwarrantable and improbable pretence, that they might convey it to other parts of Portugal, and obtain forged certificates to cover the fraud: whilst their real motive for the refusal was, not to let a commodity get out of their power, which they had hopes of squeezing gains from. And, as a proof of the iniquity of this proceeding, I can aver, that the corn was afterwards sold for making bread at Lisbon; also, that it made very good bread; and yet it was embarrassed in its sales by the health-officers, to the great loss of those who had sued for a just and reasonable right, and were refused it.

The hard impositions that even attend the unlading of corn on its arrival at Lisbon, can be vouched for by almost every master of a ship that uses the trade. It must be easily conceived, that hardly any cargo of corn can be navigated without receiving some little damage, either from heating, or water made by the ship on her passage. The first kind of prejudice is always removed by care in the warehouse, after it is landed; and for the second, any corn damaged by salt-water, it has been customary to sell for what it might be found worth, to feed hogs or other animals with; for corn can hardly be so bad, as not to serve well for some necessary use.

use. Yet the health-officers have been so tyrannical of late, as to throw into the river great quantities of grain but little damaged, and sometimes when it was not at all so, merely to extort iniquitous fees for themselves.

It was not long ago that a merchant had a cargo of corn consigned to him, some of which was spoiled by the ship's making water on the voyage; when he heard of it, he ordered the damaged wheat to be thrown overboard: no, says the health-officer, there must be a diligence done, and fees paid: the gentleman replied, there was no necessity for any such diligence, since all he could do was to cause the corn to be thrown away, and he did not want to preserve it: but his remonstrances were in vain, for the pickpocket innovation was insisted on.

Such were the transactions in the corn trade, in the year 1752; and in the last summer, which was the following one, another game was played equally tyrannical and unjust: the harvest had failed in Spain, and the crop also proved very short in Portugal: however, in the latter kingdom there was a very considerable stock of foreign grain on hand; and, though the price of it was raised, yet the merchants went on selling it in their usual manner, without any combination, fraud, or ill practice in their proceedings. They were not molested for a considerable time, that orders might be given for buying up farther great quantities, as was actually done, for a future supply: but in the month of August, just the dangerous time for embarrassments to the stock on hand, misrepresentations having been made, out comes a ROYAL ORDINATION to circumscribe and impede the sales of grain; nay, in effect, to take it, in that critical season, out of the proprietors hands; or at least, putting it out of their power to use the proper means for its preservation, thereby exposing many people to ruin: nay more, they were made liable to a treatment due only to the vilest of felons, and that, even without the power of being heard in their own defence, for the order expressly directed the president of the corn-market to take out secret informations concerning all transgressors of it, and transmit them to the secretary of state, for the king to determine the punishment in his closet.

Down falls corn on this proceeding, 25 per cent. in its prices, which might make the difference of near another 50,000*l.* sterling on the year's trade; besides the danger to the merchants (from false informations) of sequestration, corporal punishment, and banishment from the kingdom; all against the force of judicial determination, as well as reason and custom; and also against the sanction of a NATIONAL TREATY, in the 10th article of which there is this stipulation: 'And the people of this republic (England) may freely carry arms, corn, fish, and all other sorts of merchandize, into the kingdom, ports, and territories of the king of Portugal, and sell the same at their pleasure, either by RETAIL or WHOLESALE, TO ANY PERSON WHATSOEVER, and for whatever prices they can get; AND THEY SHALL NOT BE PROHIBITED, CIRCUMSCRIBED, OR INCAPACITATED, BY HIS SAID ROYAL MAJESTY, OR HIS MINISTERS, GOVERNORS, FARMERS OF THE REVENUES, OR MONOPOLIES, OR BY ANY CHAMBER OR JURISDICTION OF ANY TRIBUNAL, EITHER PUBLIC OR PRIVATE.'

Such were the securities under which the merchants had sent for the corn, about which they were treated as before described. I have now only to add on the subject, that foreign grain is, by the very laws of the kingdom, a free trade; owing no kind of duty to the king, nor any fee whatever to his officers, except a trifle for any entry at the corn-table; and, therefore, there was no lawful plea for causing the prejudices our merchants were made to suffer, or the very alarming dangers to which they were so arbitrarily exposed.

The Portuguese unjustifiable treatment of the British merchants in other respects.

Part of the separate or secret article of the treaty between England and Portugal begins thus: 'That the people and inhabitants of England, trading (as has been already mentioned) in the kingdoms, dominions, ports, and territories of the said king, shall not pay more duties and taxes, but only in the manner following, viz. That the English goods, merchandize, and manufactures, shall never exceed 23 per cent. on their valuation, for the payment of the DUTIES; and they shall be favourably VALUED, according to the regimen (or book of rates) of the custom-house, and the ancient laws of the kingdom; and suppose there should be any motive for raising the valuation, by reason of a rise in the real value of goods and merchandize, it shall not be done but by the consent, and in the presence of two English merchants, who reside and dwell in Portugal, and are chosen by the English consul; and, granting that the merchandize should fall from its present or future exact value, the valuation and doubt shall be determined by disinterested persons, who shall be chosen by the English consul and the officers of the custom-house.'

Such are the stipulations by treaty for regulating the duties on our British manufactures in Portugal; but these are at pre-

sent as little attended to in that kingdom as the rest, to our manifest injury, and indeed to that of the Portuguese also.

The great article of CRAPES, which, as before observed, we have now lost, was a commodity that paid a most enormous duty: and at present, LONG ELLS and SHALLOONS, and some other sort of stuffs, pay from 28 to 30, and even upwards per cent. DUTIES on their valuation. The consequences of which are, that these branches greatly decline, and most of the traffic in them becomes clandestine, to the great prejudice of the fair traders, and also of the royal revenue of Portugal. Besides, Spain lies so very convenient for smuggling in her cheap and strong filks, that, if not timely checked, they must infallibly undermine a very great part of our stuff-trade to Portugal, which can only be preserved by a better and juster regulation of the duties these goods are to pay.

It has become a practice of late for the provedors, or chief officers of the custom-house, to act in so capricious and tyrannical a manner, that our merchants can make no certain calculations on hardly any thing they deal in, notwithstanding there is a printed BOOK OF RATES*; and there are also certain officers in the custom-house, whose sole business is to assert the qualities of merchandize; but their determinations are no farther attended to, than as the superior pleases. I shall furnish two instances, out of hundreds that might be produced, of his overbearing and arbitrary management.

* Let any foreign merchant suppose this to be the case in England, upon what a precarious footing would he send the commodities of other countries hither? Were not the duties upon the Portugal wines duly ascertained here, and the treaty in this case inviolably regarded, what would soon become of the vintages in Portugal? If we should be obliged to retaliate in the like manner upon the Portuguese, they would soon feel the calamitous effects of our resentment.

The first was of some English cloths, of a quality often imported by the gentleman those belonged to. The valuers of the goods put them at their usual rate, the director of the custom-house insisted they should pay according to another. The owner remonstrated on the injustice of such a demand: every valuer in the custom-house peremptorily asserted they could not possibly have an higher estimation than their OLD one given, without a manifest injury to the merchant; yet the chief officer persisted in his demand. The merchant appealed to the higher tribunals, his cloths lying all the while (I believe near a twelvemonth) open in the custom-house, but could obtain no redress, and was forced to submit to the imposition.

The second instance I shall produce was concerning printed linens. One English house dispatched in the beginning of a week, some cases of them, at the usual rate of paying duties for such goods, which had always been regular and certain: about the middle of the same week, another English house sent to dispatch some cases of the very same goods, both for kinds and qualities, and the valuers declared the rates for them to be as USUAL. But Mr chief director peremptorily insisted they should pay more than CENT. PER CENT. higher duties. The owner remonstrated, but in vain; he was obliged to pay the unreasonable exaction; nay, the duties were afterwards raised greatly higher. When that gentleman reproached the custom-house valuers for the imposition, thinking it was their fault, the poor men shrugged up their shoulders, and shaking their heads, replied, 'What, Sir, would you have us to do? We are as badly used as yourself. Since I——T—— came over here and did nothing, you must look upon yourselves as given into the hands of this man, as we are, for him to do what he pleases with.'

Such capricious and unreasonable exactions, made without any the least previous notice, destroy all calculation, and render uncertain every rule by which merchants can, and do regulate their proceedings; and, therefore, are acts of the most barbarous oppression and injustice.

Such were the violences and injuries, that have, from time to time, created uneasiness in the minds of our merchants at Lisbon; and, as they were contrary to stipulated regulations, they were certainly stronger grounds for complaint.

Our merchants were, upon too good grounds, put under an extraordinary apprehension some time ago. A method was taken to quiet their fears on that head, which effectually did it. They were, however, at the same time, promised their grievances should also be redressed, and their just privileges restored: but what has been the event thereof? Reader, thou shalt be impartially informed; for the following novelties have happened within the two years last past.

1st, The few remaining powers of our judge-conservator, for protecting the British merchants, have been entirely taken away, by a public printed decree of his most faithful Majesty's.

2dly, Our corn trade has been made ten times more precarious, and the persons and fortunes of our merchants rendered unsafe, from the worst and most arbitrary violences, warranted by a written ordination of the king of Portugal's, which was stuck upon the doors of the corn-market in Lisbon.

Lisbon: it's whole tenor expressly contrary to the 10th article of the treaty; which they now so effectually annul, as to dispatch no petition about corn, in which a right from that treaty is claimed.*

* By petitions all kinds of applications are made to every office, and all legal processes are likewise formed upon them.

3dly, By a decree of the king of Portugal's, in favour of that righteous officer called the provedor of the custom-house, all cases, wrappers, barrels, and package whatsoever, are made his due, of any merchandize, imported into Portugal, and may be taken by him in specie if he pleases. A most unjust ordination, as well as enormous tax! for the package is certainly as much the merchant's, as the goods it contains; and, in some cases, such as butter, rice, and flour, for example, cannot be separated. In short, never was there a law so unreasonable, or so unjust. That officer's chief pay arose formerly on a duty only on package, which the kings of Portugal might have some grounds for exacting, as it was a light charge to the merchants; but henceforward it may be made, what an arbitrary officer pleases: though, in fact, we ought to pay no sort of duty on package, as by a decree of king Emanuel's, (now incorporated with our rights) we are entitled to import, free of duties, canvas, wrappers, bags, and other necessaries for carrying on our business, provided they are for our use, and not for sale.

4thly, The insecurity of the persons and fortunes of our merchants, from the before-mentioned corn ordination, well deserves the attention of Great-Britain.

The enumerating of these facts are the best and fullest vindication of our merchants at Lisbon, that can, or need to be given for their proceedings, in appealing to their sovereign (through the proper channel of his ministry) for his royal support and protection. They are well known to have hearts filled with zeal, loyalty, duty and affection for their king, and a becoming respect for all who are in authority under him: but they would no longer deserve the name of Britons, if they acted in a manner so unbecoming of themselves, as to forget that justice is their due, and legal liberty their birth-right. There never was a more false and injurious opinion propagated, than that our merchants at Lisbon are either factious, turbulent, or unreasonable; they are not so, but the reverse: and as their cause is just, they trust it must prevail.

Of other disadvantages under which the British traders in Portugal labour.

The first we shall name, is the prejudice which bigotry inspires them with against us, on account of our religion. It must be acknowledged, to the great honour of the Portuguese, that all orders of them are very civil to foreigners, and the better sort are particularly polite: but still they are rigid Roman Catholics, with whom it is a necessary point of faith, to think too severely of those who differ from them in religious principles. And although there are many of the nation who are very obliging in their carriage, nay, that do many kind and friendly actions for our Protestant merchants; yet it is not to be doubted but the very best of them would like us still better, if we professed the same tenets with themselves: and there are others, no doubt, who esteem it a merit to hate us; and who think it a much less crime to deceive, over-reach, and defraud us, than any such as are of their own Church. Besides, the difference in religion does in a great measure prevent a free intercourse with them; and hinders our having that interest with the clergy, in particular, which is often of very great service to the Roman Catholic merchants of other countries.

The next disadvantage our countrymen labour under, is that of having too often improper, or incapable c—s. For example, what service can any man be of, in that office, who goes over advanced in years, unacquainted with the laws, language, and customs of the country, and is withal, totally ignorant of commerce? Such a man, at best, can be of no use to the merchants; and if to the want of these necessary qualifications, are to be joined the possession of some bad ones, such as p—de, ind—ce, ob—n—y, or p—rv—fln—fs, he is sure to do them infinite disservice; of which having really happened several times, numberless instances can be given. Whereas, other nations have the most able and experienced resident traders appointed to that office [see our article CONSUL]; men, who have been of the profession themselves, will certainly feel, as well as know how to act, for the merchants. And if the national end is to appoint a consul for the service of commerce, and the same to be the motive for the merchants paying for his support, both are disappointed, both are wronged, by the nomination of any man, who wants affability, assiduity, or abilities: and what, alas! must be the case, when all these, and many more necessary, qualifications are wanting?

The factory of Lisbon had formerly the indulgence of chusing and recommending a consul; but foolishly resigned it, to prevent animosities from growing up among themselves;

V O L. II.

and there are persons yet on the spot who signed the letter for that purpose. Fatal resignation! for thereby, the office is now fallen, amongst thousands of others, to be squabbled for by people who regard it for nothing but for it's profits; and who, without considering consequences, think of little else but making the post as easy as it is profitable to them. Now, rightly considered, I believe it will appear, there is no power can legally oblige one Briton to pay money to another, without an act of the legislature to authorize it: and therefore consular can be considered only as a voluntary gratification for satisfactory services; consequently the merchants have a right to demand reasonable and proper services, or refuse paying any consul his appointments; especially if it is made a resolution of the majority of their body. But as this is a point of law, any able practitioner would greatly oblige the world by impartially discussing it, as a matter in which the prosperity of commerce, and the rights of the subject, are greatly interested.

To the ill execution of the c—r o—ce must be added, that our countrymen labour sometimes under the disadvantage of having the m—ft—l functions too, as badly performed. It is well known, that in Portugal, spirit and dignity in a minister, are very essential qualities for preserving a national respect, as the certain consequences of an abject, mean, or pusillanimous behaviour, are it's being slighted, despised, and trampled on. I will suppose, for example, that if our nation should be so unfortunate, at any time, as to have a minister at that court, who, in the face of so very proud a people, could be so mean as to trade, nay, so indiscreet, as even to let his name appear at the head of a composition in a bankruptcy, what figure can it be thought he could make? And how little must he of necessity be respected, either by the natives or his own countrymen? Nay, I will carry my supposition farther, and imagine a Protestant merchant of our factory, prosecuted without a crime, should apply to him, by the direction of the body of merchants, for his protection, and should receive from him this answer, 'I cannot protect you, I come hither for other purposes; if you want protection you must go to A CONVENT FOR IT.' I say, if such a thing as this could possibly happen, what opinion would Portugal have of Great-Britain? How would our merchants there look? How would they be treated by the very meanest of that people? And how long, after such a disgrace, could Portugal be tolerable to a Briton?

A noble negociator, that, not an age ago, left Lisbon, on terms bad enough with his countrymen, had, (notwithstanding his piques) the wisdom and honour to deliver his true sentiments on the very evening of his departure from thence, in or near the following words: 'Well, after all, the trade of this place is of great consequence to Great-Britain; and there ought to be a MINISTER here of illustrious birth, with a high character, and large appointments (nor is the best nobleman in the kingdom too great for the office) to support properly the dignity of the crown, and the rights of the nation. And there ought to be a CONSUL of sufficient abilities, who should be a merchant; one that could obtain weight and influence in the tribunals of the kingdom, and do all the under parts of business, without troubling the minister, who ought never to appear but in matters of real importance; and, when he does move, he should have such powers as to enable him to act with great weight and dignity: and so I will inform the ministry when I get to London.'

It is to be hoped that so wise and necessary an information was given; and that, to this nation's great benefit as well as honour, a time will come for carrying such prudent counsel into execution.

Were, therefore, the national disadvantages of having bad c—s, and improper m—ft—s prevented by wise determination here, most others would thereby be greatly weakened, if not entirely removed. Even the first I mentioned; their prejudice against us, on the score of religion, would a good deal be blunted, or at least many of it's bad effects removed, by a glare of grandeur on one hand, and a steady, wise, and prudent conduct on the other; especially if attended with affability, liberality, and politeness. But from the reverse of these qualities, either in ministers or consuls, I am sure all honest and worthy merchants of Great-Britain will join me in saying, GOOD LORD DELIVER US!

Of the late misunderstandings, said to have arose between the British factory, and the B—h c—l in Portugal, and the ill consequences attending their unhappy differences.

The B—h c—l, in a public debate at a factory-meeting, opposing the whole body of merchants, in points of great concern to the nation, as well as themselves, was so rash as to say, that 'the treaty existing betwixt the two crowns, could not, nor ought to, prevent the king of Portugal from making what laws he pleased in contradiction to it, in his own kingdom.' To which a merchant, deeply interested in point of property in the matter debated, said, in his reply, 'Sir, if you wilfully sacrifice the rights of the nation, you will be a traitor to your king, and an enemy to your country.' There was no explanation demanded of these words, conformable

to the practice of all public assemblies; nor, indeed, was any explanation necessary, as the words if, and will be, made it clearly a supposed case. What followed was, that this officer, whose express duty it was to protect his fellow-subjects from extra judicial violences, applied to the arm of a foreign absolute power, to punish a supposed offender for what had passed in a British national assembly, and of which that court had no sort of right to take any cognizance.

A secret process was formed; the merchant who never was judicially accused, or, of course, allowed to make his defence, was banished (of a sudden and unexpectedly) from his house, at twenty-four hours warning, and from the kingdom of Portugal in five days: nor could then obtain the justice of being heard for himself, or even of making a written representation against so violent an outrage. These are the facts that have been told, and most of them given in a printed narrative of the affair; and the truth of them is vouched for by every one acquainted with the proceedings. The whole of which are so uncommon, so unjustifiable, in respect to the merchant's banishment, that history does not furnish a precedent of the kind.

As to the supposed crime, what was it? A warm expression, uttered in the heat of an entirely legal public debate; and that too, in reply to such a one as may, perhaps, be found to merit a most weighty censure. Is not every speaker on public affairs liable, from human frailty, to say more offensive things than were uttered by this man? Who, it is to be also observed, was not, on the occasion, an officious, idle babbler; but a speaker in behalf of his king, his country, of commerce, of the whole community present, of his own immediate property, and that of his friends entrusted to his care, in a foreign country.

In so very interesting a cause, if he had made a real rash slip, what did it, what could it deserve more than a reprehension? And even that, a gentle and polite one? But for a c——l, for such an offence, to drive a man to ruin, ignominy, banishment, and expose, he cared not whom besides, to inconveniences and prejudices; was surely acting so wild, so outrageous a part, as must startle and shudder every humane and honest man to hear of. Can there be produced, from amongst the ablest and coolest speakers in public debates, hardly a man who has not been so much off his guard, as, on some occasions, to let words fall from his tongue, that drew on him the disapprobation of his hearers? Nay, that even himself has not been afterwards sorry for having uttered? Sure I am, that many instances can be given, on the affirmative side, of men who were even celebrated for an uncommon command of their tempers.

The mischiefs that followed the outrage done to this man, are many of them known, and others may be most reasonably supposed. It is not, therefore, a mere restoration, however honourable, that is satisfaction sufficient, either to him or his house of trade: they ought, likewise, to have a full indemnification, a most ample reparation; the voice of equity, the common practice of courts of judicature, the safety of commerce, and the honour of the nation, all demand it.

When a gentleman has been prejudiced in his affairs, and others in theirs through him, is it satisfaction sufficient, that, after a tedious time of suffering, the illegal and unjustifiable embarrassments and evils are merely removed? Surely no: an honest jury, in any court of justice, could not do otherwise than award very high damages; and every man, making the case fairly his own, would think they were undoubtedly his due.

But it may be said, justice is left open against the offender; who, I must say, may, or may not be able to be responsible for the determination; nor do I think it ought to be put on that issue: those who put him in the way of doing such mischief, or those who so unwarrantably did it at his instigation, ought in conscience, in justice, in honour, to stand in his place for the indemnification.

Of some other disadvantages, under which our Portugal merchants have laboured of late years.

Among the many particulars relating to our Portugal commerce, which have lately appeared in public, it has been a matter of surprize, to find that no one has wrote upon the subject of the money lost by our merchants, from on board the prince Frederick packet-boat, which was seized on her homeward voyage from Lisbon by the Algerines, seven years ago, carried into their port, and there plundered, under pretence of her not having a proper pass on board for her protection.

The king's colours, which those packet-boats are authorized to carry, were always thought, 'till that time, a sufficient protection; and the money put on board that vessel by our merchants, was shipped on a full persuasion that such colours were a full security against the plunderings of the Barbary corsairs: however, it has proved to be otherwise; for their money has been seized, divided, and is irrecoverably lost.

Nothing can be more evident, than that the Moorish pleas, urged in defence of this piece of roguery, were all chicanery; trumped up pretences, and temporary evasions of truth,

reason and justice; however, they served their turn, in merely furnishing excuses for keeping of our money; which we thought not worth hazarding the safety of our navigation to quarrel about, and therefore accepted of their proposed expedient of making a new, and more explanatory treaty, which has been done; and the money, so unwarrantably seized, was accepted in lieu of a national present, which it is customary for us to make on such occasions.

Had no treaty been made, or any other national benefit accrued from this unwarrantable action, as the treasure was taken from under the king's colours, it is but reasonable that the royal revenue should be charged with the loss, since the presents to the piratical states must have been made out of that revenue. For if, as a new treaty has been obtained, for the fuller security of respect to our flag, and safety of our mercantile navigation, which that money has expressly paid for, there can be no just reason assigned, why a PUBLIC benefit should be purchased by INDIVIDUALS; and therefore it is an high injustice, that the money mentioned, has not been repaid to the just proprietors of it long ago.

If any man's absolute property, of what kind soever, is made subservient to public utility, by an application of any sort, contrary to his own free disposition, it has been the invariable practice of parliament (or the crown, if done on an emergency) to assign an ample equivalent for the appropriation they take upon them to make. And, therefore, as on the concluding of a national treaty with the Algerines, it is customary to make them an expensive present; and they, sensible of the illegality of this capture, agreed, on the making of a treaty, that it should stand in the place of such a gift; certainly the people, whose property that treasure was, ought to have it made good to them again, and without delay; honour and justice demand it should be done: and no man, no minister, who would be thought to have the interest of trade at heart, ought, for his own credit, or the national honour, to evade or obstruct so clear and necessary an act of justice.

And it must be observed, that public faith and honour were never more necessary to be set in a conspicuous light, than at present, when the French are said to be attacking our distant colonies, and where, for the preservation of them, it may be necessary that particulars should have strong grounds to rely on public honour and justice, for the voluntary disbursements and services that may be of the highest consequence for them to contribute; more especially so, since in those very parts of the world, there were, but a very few years ago, many too just and well-grounded complaints for hard treatment, in proceedings of the utmost service and importance to this nation.

Besides what has been represented, in relation to the conduct of the Portuguese towards our British trading subjects in general, they have begun, like some other of their neighbouring nations, to seduce our people into their commercial system, in order still more to insult and maltreat that kingdom which has been their protection. For by late authentic accounts from Lisbon, it appears, that the new EAST-INDIA COMPANY established there, are indefatigable in rendering their trade successful. Not long since five of the ships fitted out for that service, failed from thence under the conduct of Mr Stevens, who was a lieutenant in the British navy. He was sent from thence to London, to procure persons to go as captains, and returned with three, who are also sent out commanders, upon their being strongly recommended for their great skill in navigation, and their knowledge of the country. And their salaries, which are very considerable, are to be paid by ENGLISH factors, who are principals in this undertaking, and agents for the company.

Nor are British factors only employed in this Portuguese undertaking; but it is very currently said and believed, that British captains, British sailors, and British money, are all employed in advancing the Portuguese East-India traffic, a considerable part of which returns, may very probably be smuggled into the British dominions. Is it not strange insatiation, that Britons should thus encourage a nation in their trade, at the very time such nation is attempting to ruin that of our own country? Is it not requisite, that strict inquiry into

this matter should be made on our side? Should not enquiry be made, who invited Mr S-----s to Lisbon? Under whose patronage did he live there? From whom did he receive his credit on England, when he came last hither? On whom was that credit given? What are become of the British sailors who navigated the two ships from London to Lisbon, called the King and Queen of Portugal, that were built here for the Portuguese India trade? Who are the British factors gone from Lisbon in the Portuguese service? To what houses of trade there did they belong? What connections have they with any partners in such British houses; and what are the conditions and obligations of their engagements? Will the alluring away our sailors, our merchants, and our money, by some nations; and our manufacturers, artizans, and ship-builders, by others, tend to the advancement of the British trade and navigation? If we have it not in our power to retaliate upon the Portuguese, will not our laws call British subjects to account for practices so highly detrimental to the nation?

national commerce of our own country? Was the conduct of the Portuguese towards this kingdom, as unexceptionable as it ought to be, practices of this kind should by no means be connived at among ourselves: but when it is otherwise, too much rigour and severity, consistent with the laws, cannot be used to suppress evils of this kind, for if they are suffered with impunity, in regard to one nation, will not our own subjects follow the like example in respect to others? Will not an unrestrained toleration of this nature, render the skill and ingenuity, as well as the capital stocks, of our British merchants, subservient to the aggrandizement of the commerce of other nations instead of our own, under which they are protected?

Did all the Portugal gold that temporarily circulates in this nation, proceed from the advantageous balance of our trade with that kingdom, it would, even in such case, be a high indignity to Great-Britain to suffer such treatment as our merchants have met with in Portugal. Would not this be the natural step to bring us into irrecoverable contempt and ignominy, without due resentment; and would not that soon reduce the balance of trade, as well as sink the honour and glory of the British nation? But when nine tenths of the Portugal gold that makes its appearance among us occasionally, belong to other countries, and England only is the carrier thereof, and the bridge over which it passes, to pay the balances due from Portugal to other nations, that are greater gainers by her, what obligation is there on us to bear with the least insult? Where is the nation that takes so much of their wines and their fruit as Great-Britain does? What state is more highly favoured in the duties laid upon their productions imported into these kingdoms, than Portugal? Is not an hundred pounds worth of our woollen goods worth an hundred pounds worth of their wine, without a pipe of which we can easily do, and yet not drink worse in quality, or less in quantity, as I will one day attempt to demonstrate? And what nation will they then get to take their luxuries off their hands, in the like proportion that Great-Britain does? Is not a thousand pounds worth of our lead or our tin worth a thousand pounds worth of their gold? Cannot Great-Britain find the way to the Brazils as well as the Portuguese, as lord Galway, in effect, gallantly told the late king of Portugal: and as his late Majesty king George had resolution and magnanimity enough to threaten to send a fleet to bombard the city of Lisbon, may not that be one day done in reality, if that nation should once dare to rouse that lion against them, who has been their great safety and protection? What potentate have the Portuguese to depend upon, in case of need, except Great-Britain? and does wisdom and policy dictate to them to ill treat their best and tried friends!

The natural and dangerous enemy of Portugal is Spain; for as the acquisition of that kingdom would be of such infinite consequence in the points of ease, convenience, and power, to the Spaniards, the Portuguese would be blind and ignorant indeed, not to suppose their ambitious neighbours would miss no opportunity, on any pretence, for seizing on their country. And that such an apprehension does always exist in Portugal, is evident from the alarms constantly taken on any movements or augmentations of troops on the Spanish frontier. The antipathy and hereditary hatred the people of those kingdoms have for each other (putting the Galicians out of the case) are most extremely obvious and strong. From traditions of former sufferings, and a dread of future ones, the Portuguese even abhor Spaniards; they consider them as having been the unwarrantable seizers of their country, and the tyrannical ruiners of it afterwards, to make the acquisition secure: while, on the other side, it may be said as violent a prejudice operates, and almost to an equal degree. The proud Spaniards consider the Portuguese as a province of rebellious and revolted slaves, whom they want to shake their whips at, and constrain to a servile obedience, but cannot; they affect to despise the Portuguese, but, in the manner of expressing their contempt, always manifest an anger, that shews they are most sensibly hurt. Such is the animosity that reigns now, and has for ages reigned betwixt these nations; nor is there the least likelihood of an abatement of it, but, on the contrary, rather an increase: for if the present most Catholic king dies without issue, his successor brings in the neighbourhood of Portugal a specious claim to its dominions, in right of his mother, heiress of the house of Parma, and, by direct descent, representative of an elder daughter of king Emanuel's of Portugal, than her from whom the house of Braganza inherit the throne. And, as a proof that the king of the Two Sicilies is not insensible of his claim, he wears the arms of Portugal, in an escutcheon of pretence, on his other royal bearings, if I greatly mistake not, even on his very coin: and, therefore, it is probable neither he or his descendants will ever think they are in conscience obliged to acquiesce in the determination of the law of *Lamego, or the nobility's choice at the restoration of Portugal, especially if any favourable opportunity for the exertion of power should offer.

* An ancient and fundamental law of the kingdom, by which it is determined the crown cannot be inherited by a prince.

born out of the kingdom; but that law, in other particulars, has been frequently violated.

To such an unlucky and disagreeable situation as this, a new and important affair has happened, which puts Portugal under great difficulties with regard to Spain; and that is, the treaty concluded between his late most faithful Majesty and the present Spanish king, for the former giving up Nova Colonia to the latter, in exchange for other specified territories in South America. An adjustment so disadvantageous, and even dangerous to Portugal, that every subject of that kingdom speaks of the negotiation in the harshest terms, saying it was an imposition on their king, in his very infirm state of mind and body. However, the treaty having been ratified in form, the Spanish court claims it's being duly executed; and Portugal would be put to hard shifts for evasion, did not, by great good luck, the Jesuits intrigue in their favour: those pious fathers, not chusing any other European neighbour too near their own valuable possessions in America, have stirred up the natives of that country ceded to Portugal to oppose the surrender of it; and they accordingly profess a voluntary obedience to the Jesuits, and refuse it to the king of Spain; while the Portuguese, it may be concluded, secretly encourage the opposition, as in the mean time they remain possessors of Nova Colonia, and hope, in the end, to overset the treaty; all which management must be plainly seen, and the purposes understood by the court of Spain, who seem, on their side, determined to carry their point. These are the affairs that have occasioned alarms of late in Portugal, from the military motions and reinforcements on the Spanish frontiers.

Thus having made appear that Portugal does, and always must, want a powerful ally for her support, it is next to be considered who, of all her European neighbours, is the best able, and most to be depended on, for that purpose.

Of the dependency of Portugal on Great-Britain.

France has had, since the treaty of Utrecht, and possibly may have for many ages to come, a most close, but unnatural connection with Spain; I call it unnatural in regard to interest and commerce, for in these points Spain has been greatly and manifestly injured, by the national advantages having been made subservient to the mere family ties, as well as partial ambition of its sovereigns. The Spaniards, notwithstanding they are become such passive vassals, as, in respect to their crown, to glory in being obedient slaves, are not insensible that their French alliance is hurtful to them, and also, that their nation is not truly interested in providing dominions for the collateral branches of their royal family, or in extending such foreign possessions at any price: a humour, however, that France will probably find her account by encouraging at the court of Madrid: but in the pursuit she must tread warily, for the connection of the nations can never be other than a ministerial one, that of a royal relationship, or the vanity of the Bourbon house: for, as I said above, the subjects of Spain do not think such an alliance for the national interest or honour; and besides, are of manners so very different from the French, that they hate them, and seldom miss an opportunity of expressing an abhorrence even equal to that they have of Moors, since nothing is more common than to hear them to say, in point of religion, That the heretics of other countries are better Christians than the Roman Catholics of France.

In such a situation with Spain, France can never be a safe ally to Portugal: for if ever, on any account, she was to take part with Portugal against Spain, she must lose her interest infallibly with the latter; which would be giving up a greater convenience for a less, both in point of a military and commercial interest, as also be a sure means of causing the last thing France is desirous of seeing, the closer unity of Spain with Great-Britain.

Nor, indeed, is there wanting this speculative influence in Portugal against the French, the people of that nation having no opinion either of French faith, generosity, or honour: they never speak of them with esteem or respect, are open in their ridicule of them, and behave to them, more than to other nations, as impertinent and unwelcome intruders, that come either as spies, or to pick their pockets.

Thus with Spain for an hereditary enemy, and France a friend that she dares not trust, where can Portugal, too weak to defend herself, look for an able and trusty ally? To Italy? No: they have no succours to send, but, on the contrary, live themselves in perpetual need of them from others. Can Holland do the business? Most certainly no: her strength and weight are no more. As for the more northern kingdoms, they are at too great a distance, and too poor, to enter upon, or comply with, such an engagement. Great-Britain, then, is the only nation that ever has been, can, or will be, the safe, the trusty, the generous, the able, supporter of Portugal. If we examine history, from almost the first foundation of their monarchy, it will be found we were always their true and honourable allies. We generally helped them to conquer their country, and have ever protected them in it: for the truth of which I appeal to their own historians, as well

as ours. At the restoration of their monarchy, our Charles the First was one of the first princes that acknowledged their John the Fourth, and entered into a treaty with him: the good effects of which were, however, in some measure prevented, by the unhappy troubles that just then broke out in Britain. If a squabble happened in Oliver's time, it was from an indiscretion of the court of Portugal, that they paid heartily for: and, on their becoming wiser, we became their friends again. Charles the Second was no sooner restored to his dominions, than the interests of Portugal were by him taken to heart. He married their Infanta, in preference to all other princesses, notwithstanding the Spanish king offered to portion higher any other Catholic or Protestant princess that he would chuse. He confirmed all former treaties made betwixt the nations, and made a new and perpetual one with Alphonso the Sixth; by which Great-Britain is to succour them in times of need, and particularly with a naval force adequate to the necessity of their demand. It was under the same king's single and express mediation the treaty was negociated, by which Spain first acknowledged the independency of Portugal, Charles being guaranty; and by his power did the earl of Sandwich absolutely accomplish and sign the treaty.

In consequence of our abovementioned engagement, did Great-Britain, in the year 1735, send them a succour of near thirty ships of the line, so very expeditiously fitted out, that they carried themselves the first public news of their appointment; which fleet remained under the command of Sir John Norris, twenty-two months in the river Tagus, to the cost of above A MILLION STERLING to this nation. And whenever they require another and greater assistance, I hope we shall as readily grant it, on the single condition that Portugal as fully and willingly complies with her obligations to us, in observing those regulations in respect to commerce which the same national treaty confirms and prescribes, and which is not demanding from them any favour, nothing dishonourable to their crown, or disadvantageous to their country; nothing but what impartial justice exacts, and what good policy on their side would readily promote.

R E M A R K.

That Great Britain might be made amends by the court of Portugal for the obligations, under which she lies to her; that court established in the year 1756, a wine company at Oporto; and endowed the same with the following exclusive powers; which by law strikes at the root of the privileges of an Englishman in the kingdoms and dominions of Portugal. See our article TREATIES OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION, where is contained THE TREATY OF PEACE concluded by OLIVER CROMWELL, in favour of England: also various other laws, decrees, &c. made at sundry times, and on divers occasions, made by the kings of Portugal, in favour of the ENGLISH NATION. To which is added, the king of Portugal's new law, concerning the diamonds found in the Brazils.

INSTITUTION of the GENERAL COMPANY for the culture of the VINEYARDS of ALTO DOURO, in the kingdom of PORTUGAL.

MOST GRACIOUS SOVEREIGN,

Your majesty's dutiful subjects, the vintagers of Alto Douro, and the good men of the city of Porto, humbly beg leave to represent to your majesty, that, whereas the subsistence of great part of the religious communities, private families, and chief inhabitants of the three provinces of Behira, Minho, and Tralos-montes, depends upon the culture of the vines; this species of agriculture is nevertheless reduced to so great a decadency, and is in so ruinous a state, that besides the detriment occasioned by the circumstance of the wines not yielding a sufficiency wherewith to cultivate the lands which produce them, this loss of capital, to the proprietors in particular, is aggravated by the farther loss of health to the public in general. For, as the number of taverners in the city of Porto is multiplied to an extravagant excess, forbidden by your majesty's laws, as well as by the regulations of the guild of the same city, beyond the possibility of reducing that multitude to rule; it thence follows, that, as the said taverners adulterate the wines, and corrupt them from their native purity, by a multiplicity of mixtures hurtful to human constitutions, they destroy not only the reputation of so important and considerable a species, but also all the commerce which is carried on in that commodity; nay, and the very constitutions of such of your majesty's subjects as make use of the wines which the said taverners vend for home-consumption. Animated therefore by the unparallel'd clemency with which your majesty has already afforded relief to your afflicted subjects, even in cases of lighter grievance than the above-mentioned, the petitioners have agreed among themselves to form, under your majesty's royal favour, a company, which, by competently promoting the culture of the vineyards, may at the same time preserve the produce thereof for the advantage

of foreign and domestic commerce, as well as of the health of your majesty's subjects.

S E C T. I.

The said company shall constitute a body politic, having a governor, twelve directors, and a secretary; all of whom shall be qualified such in the manner hereafter declared. Besides the said directors, there shall be six consultors, men well versed in this branch of trade. The said company shall be stiled, THE GENERAL COMPANY FOR THE CULTURE OF THE VINEYARDS OF ALTO DOURO. All the authentic papers issuing from it shall be dispatched in name of the governor and directors of the same company, and sealed with it's common seal, which shall exhibit the image of St Martha, protectress of the territories of Douro, and underneath it, a scrip, or label, with this device: PROVIDENTIA REGITUR.

S E C T. II.

The said governor and directors shall be either natural-born, or at least naturalised subjects of your majesty, and inhabitants of the city of Porto, or of Alto Douro, who have in the company's funds ten thousand crusados stock, or upwards.

S E C T. III.

The elections of the said governor, directors, and consultors, shall always be made in the common hall, or guild of the company, by a majority of votes of all such proprietors therein as are possessed of three thousand crusados stock, or upwards. Such of them, however, as have not so much capital stock, may unite to make up out of lesser shares one total to the above amount, wherewith to constitute a single vote in the name of several, to be given by whom they shall judge proper to be nominated for that purpose. The first chosen for this establishment shall serve the office for the space of three years, and all others, who shall succeed him, shall serve for the space of two years; provided always, that such as shall have served may not be rechosen in the next election, without having a majority of votes in their favour not less than two thirds, as is more expressly declared in section iv. At the same time, and in the same manner, shall be chosen, from among the said directors, a sub-governor and a substitute, who shall gradually fill the office of governor, in cases of death or hindrance.

S E C T. IV.

The governor, directors, and consultors, shall at the first election be nominated by your majesty, to serve for the space of three years; at the expiration of which they shall produce, in a general court, the accounts of their whole management, and distribute to the proprietors the dividends belonging to them, or such as the court, by a plurality of votes, shall appoint to be made. This done, they shall immediately proceed to the election of the new governor, directors, and consultors: on whom it shall be incumbent first, and before all things, to examine the accounts delivered in by their predecessors, in order to pass to contest them, according to their desert: and the same shall continue to be the practice in future elections, so long as this company shall subsist. Still, in case the proprietors should think fit to re-elect one or more from among the said governor, directors, or consultors, they shall be entitled to admit the same again into office, on condition of their having a majority of votes of at least two thirds in their favour. The judge conservator (or recorder) shall tender to those first, who are to be nominated by your majesty, an oath that they will well and faithfully manage the effects of the company, and maintain it's several members in their respective rights: and to those who shall be thenceforward chosen, the same oath shall be tendered at the board of the company, by the governor who quits the office, and registered in a special book he is to set apart for that purpose.

S E C T. V.

The said governor and directors shall be the treasurers of the capital stock, of which this company shall be possessed from it's first establishment, and of all interests thence arising, 'til the times of making a dividend of them among the respective proprietors: to which effect they shall keep one or more coffers, as occasion may require, with proper keys to them of which keys every one shall keep his own, so that each may remain bound for himself, and every one for all, to answer for every deficiency which may be found in the said stock, 'til they deliver up the capital to their successors, and make a dividend of the interests thereof among the several proprietors in the said company.

S E C T. VI.

All affairs, which shall be proposed at the board, shall be decided by a plurality of votes, and all which shall be thereb

thus done, and ordain'd, shall have full credit given to it, and shall be put in its full and due execution, in the same manner as is practised in your majesty's tribunals; provided that at the said boards nothing be disposed in alteration of the established laws and regulations relative to the state of the Brazils, or that be contrary to any other of your majesty's laws, save what is allowed to it in virtue of its present establishment. The said governor and directors shall make choice of what officers they shall deem necessary for the good government of the company, as well in the city of Porto, and within the kingdom, as in foreign parts. They shall have ample jurisdiction over them; to suspend them, put them out, bring them to justice, and provide others in their places: all of them shall continue in their post so long as shall seem meet to the company, which shall have the inspection of their accompts, and pass to them acquittances, sign'd by two of the directors, and sealed with the company's seal, after their said accompts have been revised and examined at the board.

S E C T. VII.

This company shall have a judge conservator (or recorder) who, with privative jurisdiction, and exclusion of all other tribunals, shall hold courts of oyer and terminer for all contentious suits, wherein the governor, directors, consultants, secretary, clerks, managers, and other officers of the company, shall be either plaintiffs or defendants; whether the matter of the said suits be criminal or civil, so long as they are carried on between the said officers of the company, or between them and persons who do not belong to it: which said judge conservator (or recorder) shall call the said suits to his tribunal in the city of Porto by positive decree, and elsewhere by precatories; and shall have a definitive power in himself to the amount of 100 cruzados, without appeal or demur; as well in civil causes, as in the penalties decreed by him: but in all other cases, and in those, which being proved, are capitally criminal, he shall proceed in judgment in the high court of justice, call'd the *relação*, by one sole joint form of process, with the assistants which shall be appointed him by nomination from the chief justice for the time being of the *relação* and king's bench at Porto, or whoever shall serve office. Both the judge conservator (or recorder) and his clerk, as also his marshal, shall be nominated by the said board, and confirmed by your majesty, who shall oblige the ministers, whom the company may chuse to serve the said office; and that notwithstanding the statute, lib. 3. tit. 12. and all other laws hitherto published, relative to the office of conservatory (or recordership); for as the judgment of the said judicature is not recurr'd to, as a voluntary privilege for the molestation or vexation of the parties, but as a weighty contract for the service of your majesty, for the common good of your subjects, and for the good management of the affairs of the company, and the writings which it shall pass in your majesty's royal name; all these motives render the said judge conservator (or recorder) absolutely necessary. Such disputes, however, as may arise between persons interested in the same company, concerning the capital stocks, interests, and the dependences thereof, shall be proposed at the board of administration, and there verbally decided, in mercantile form, by plain dealing, according to the known truth, without form of process, or other allegations than those of simple matter of fact, and those of the rules, usages, and customs of commerce and navigation, commonly received as such, in the presence of the judge conservator (or recorder) and of the attorney-general of the company; which said board, with the approbation of the two aforesaid ministers, shall decide all causes, not exceeding the amount of 300 mil-reis, without appeal or demur: and such as exceed the amount of that sum, where the parties are unwilling to abide by the decision of the said adjudgers, shall be forthwith laid before your majesty, in a humble address from the board, for your majesty to nominate such judges as to your wisdom shall seem meet, who shall determine the same in like form, without intervention of any other ordinary or extraordinary recourse; all other dispositions of law or statutes to the contrary notwithstanding.

S E C T. VIII.

The said conservator (or recorder) shall, by summonses in the royal name of your majesty, dispatch all such orders as shall be forwarded to him by resolution of the company, for the good government of the same; as also for the hiring of carts, and embarkations for the carriage of wines, and for the compulsion of vintagers, coopers, taverners, and all other artists on whom this branch of commerce may depend, to enter into the service of the said company, on condition of its paying them their salaries. And the ministers of your majesty shall not take away, or interrupt their boats, carts, vessels, or any other things whatever, on which the dispatch of their loadings may depend; but rather, having occasion for more, the ministers to whom it may belong shall be required to send them more. And for whatever else may be further necessary towards the good government of the said

company, it shall be empowered to summon such ministers, as do not comply with, and effectually execute its orders, before the *relação*, (or court of king's bench) of the city of Porto, whither they shall repair to answer to the charge, the said judge conservator being first heard, who shall attend the board of the company, whenever he shall receive a message for that purpose, having there a seat suitable to his dignity.

S E C T. IX.

It being indispensably necessary for the company to have sufficient house-room, for its dispatch of business, for the security of its coffers, for the accommodation of its clerks and other officers, and for warehouses wherein to keep their wines, vessels, and other materials thereto necessarily appertaining; your majesty is graciously pleased to grant to it the privilege of settling, so as that their judge conservator (or recorder) may cause dwellings to be assigned over to its use, wherever the company shall judge them to be most for its conveniency, without becoming subject to the having the rents, they were valued at before, raised upon that account; which rents the company will pay to the owners; and in case of dispute, the same shall be adjusted to the satisfaction of the parties, by the arbitration of proper persons, your majesty having for this effect abrogated all privileges of settlement, which the persons may be possessed of, from whom such dwellings shall be taken, or who have lodged their effects therein.

S E C T. X.

The main purpose of this company being that of supporting, together with the credit of the wines, the culture of the vineyards, and to promote, at the same time, the advantage of the commerce, which is carried on in this commodity, by fixing such a regular price for it, as may produce a competent profit to the manufacturers of it, and a reciprocal lucre to the traders in it; by avoiding, on one hand, the exorbitant prices, which, rendering its consumption impossible, destroy the species; and not suffering it, on the other hand, to fall to so low an ebb as that the vintagers shall be unable, without loss to themselves, to support the yearly expences of their agriculture; it is necessary for these useful ends to establish certain competent funds: wherefore the capital stock of this company shall be one million two hundred thousand cruzados, divided into actions of four hundred mil-reis each; the half of which may be advanced in competent wines fit for vent, by such as shall be willing to be concerned in the actions; and the other half shall be constituted in absolute cash, that the company may be enabled to fulfil its engagement of supplying the necessities of the vintage, and commerce, in the following manner.

S E C T. XI.

On the strength of the abovesaid fund, the company shall lend to necessitous vintagers, not only the necessities for the construction and dressing of the vineyards, as well as for the managing of the wines, but also whatever else may be needful to them towards some of those minute expences, which the preservation of human life makes a daily matter of indispensable necessity, without requiring of them, for such loan, any higher interest than at the rate of three per cent. per annum; provided always that the said loans shall not exceed one half the value in general of the wines, which every such vintager is wont to collect: which wines, in consideration of the said loans, shall become and remain, effectually pledged to the company, in such manner as to give it the same preferable right over them as landlords of houses have over the goods therein contain'd, without its having occasion for any other title thereto, or other proof, than that of the said loans being entered in the books of the company, and verified by a writing under the debtors hands, recognized with the signature of some public officer.

S E C T. XII.

The company shall hold in readiness all materials necessary for the making of wine-vessels, not only for the year in which it may make its loadings, but also for the year following, that no deficiency of this kind may occasion either damage to the wines, or a baulk in the provision of them, which they are to furnish the ports of Brazil with, according to your majesty's gracious grant for this commerce.

S E C T. XIII.

And that the said ports of Brazil may not experience any want of this commodity, the company shall, for the present, settle a stock of 10,000 pipes of good wine, and fit for exportation, to enable it the first year to bear any disappointment it may meet with in its first loadings, and to wait for the produce thereof for a competent time.

P O R

S E C T. XIV.

In order to facilitate the purchase of stocks, in favour of the vintagers of the wines of Alto Douro, the company shall take of the purchasers of actions, such wines as are of the best sort, and in their natural perfection, without mixtures or brewings, capable of spoiling them, at the price of 25 mil-reis per pipe of common measure; and such of an inferior sort as are nevertheless fit for navigation, it shall take in like manner at the rate of 20 mil-reis. At the same prices they shall purchase the said wines for the time to come, whether this commodity happen to abound or fall short: wherefore as the company is to pay for their wines at the above rates in the years of plenty, so likewise shall the vintagers be obliged to deliver them at the same rates, without any alteration, in the years of scarcity, or dearth: the respective interests of each party being thus fairly compensated to the advantage of the commodity itself.

S E C T. XV.

And that neither the company may destroy the navigation of the city of Porto, by disappointing it of the lading of wines, which is its principal support, nor the navigation may prejudice the company by omitting to supply it with a competency of shipping for the transport of wines to the states of Brazil: your majesty is graciously pleased to establish, that for the carriage of every pipe of wine, brandy, or vinegar, which the company shall ship from the city of Porto for Rio de Janeiro, it shall pay to such ships ten mil-reis freight, after the manner heretofore practised, without any alteration in this respect whatever, on one side or the other. For such wines, &c. as shall be shipped for Bahia, it shall pay eight mil-reis per pipe as above; and in like manner eight mil two hundred reis per pipe freight, for those it shall send to Pernambuco, which freights shall not be altered in any wise whatsoever, neither by the company nor the proprietors, nor by the captains of ships, on pain, to such as shall act in any wise contrary to this regulation, of paying double the amount of such freights, the whole of which shall be applied, one half to the informer's use, the other half to the use of the hospital of the city of Porto, besides two months imprisonment of the delinquents.

S E C T. XVI.

The wines, brandies, and vinegars, which the company shall send to the Brazils, shall be shipped on board the vessels of the respective squadrons of that city, which shall put up for loadings, dividing them among them, and each of them, in proportion to their assortments; and the said vessels shall be obliged to receive them, without hesitation, in the same manner as is practised with regard to the salt-contract. Nevertheless, if it should happen that the consumption of the said commodities should increase to such excess in the states of Brazil, that the private ships of the trade be not able to convey thither the quantity necessary for daily provision, the company in that case shall be obliged to get ready, and send at its own expence, the ships necessary for such transport, only, however, to that port, for whose use the wines exceed the burthen of the said private ships belonging to the mart of the city of Porto. And in this case, neither such shipping, nor their equipages, nor whatever shall be necessary for their construction and fitting out, shall be seizable to any other uses than those of the said transport and the dependencies of the same company, not even under colour of your majesty's royal service, on pain to the persons acting in opposition thereto of paying to the said company, out of their own effects, all the damage thence resulting to it; to which intent they shall be called to an account before the judge conservator, or recorder, of the same company, and not at any other tribunal whatever, notwithstanding any privileges they may enjoy to the contrary.

S E C T. XVII.

Considering the notorious prejudice which salt, in its nature, does to wines in general, and the absolute necessity there is for that commodity in the states of Brazil, which obliges all the shipping to take competent loadings of it, your majesty is pleased to will, that none of the vessels on board of which the above wines are shipped shall carry any loadings of loose salt, but shall carry the whole in wooden chests, as they ought and are bound to do, stowing them well and close on that side where the wines are put, and placing between the wines and the salt other moist commodities, so as by every possible means to prevent the damage which may result to the wines from their immediate nearness to the salt, on pain to the captain or commander, who shall act contrary, of paying to the company double the value of all the wines which shall be found damaged at their arrival, as also of three months imprisonment for the first offence, and the penalties shall be doubled in proportion to the relapses into the same.

P O R

S E C T. XVIII.

The chief agent and deputies of this company, and the factors or administrators it shall employ in the states of Brazil, for their administration, and the clerks it shall employ in the city of Porto, for their salaries, shall be entitled only to their commission, at the rate of six per cent. to be levied in the following manner: two per cent. on the costs the company shall be at in its several dispatches at Porto; two per cent. on the sales which shall be made in the said harbours of the states of Brazil; and two per cent. on the returns and charges in the city of Porto; which said six per cent. shall be made to suffice for the full payment of the whole administration belonging to the trade, without the company's being liable to any other charges of the like nature; save only that it shall be chargeable with all costs arising from the salaries of such ministers, and other officers, as are to make a part of their body politic and economic, as also with such as may arise from the renting of houses and magazines, all which shall run on the company's account.

S E C T. XIX.

In order that this company may be able to support itself, and be enabled to make such a profit as may compensate the obligations it lays itself under by this establishment, and be a valuable consideration for the advantages thence resulting to the common-weal of the said provinces, your majesty is pleased to grant to it in the four governments within the states of Brazil, of S. Paulo, of Rio de Janeiro, of Bahia, and of Pernambuco, the exclusive commerce of all the wines, brandies, and vinegars which shall be shipped from the city of Porto for the said four governments and their respective harbours; to the intent that no person of any condition whatever shall be qualified to send thither any of the said commodities, except the same company, which shall enjoy the said exclusive privilege in the following manner:

S E C T. XX.

The brandies and vinegars may not be sold by the company in the said harbours for more than fifteen per cent. free to the proprietors of the principal cost, caskage, carriage, freight, customs of import and export, shipping, commission, the one per cent. to the coffer, and of all other charges thereon to be made to the act of sale, which shall wholly run on the account of the buyers; considering, however, the greater danger the wines are in of suffering damage in their quality, and that, on that account, they more immediately threaten some loss to the said company, therefore the said company shall be allowed the liberty of selling their wines at sixteen per cent. free to the said company from all the above-mentioned charges, but not at any higher price.

S E C T. XXI.

And in order to justify its sales, and make appear the exactness with which the company observes the said prices, it shall be obliged to send to its respective factors, or administrators, the accounts of the several cargoes signed in an authentic manner, by all the deputies, and sealed with the seal of the company, in order to be thus made known to the people, that every purchaser may be enabled to examine thereby the true value of the several commodities as may be parcelled out, in which accounts of cargo shall be specified in the most circumstantial manner the prime costs and other charges of each of the said commodities, that there may be no room to suspect the least unfair dealing.

S E C T. XXII.

This, however, is to be understood on supposition, that the said commodities be sold for ready money, or paid for, in case of sale, at the precise term agreed upon; because the debtors, on default of payment, shall incur the penalty of farther paying five per cent. interest, for the whole time of their delay of payment, or so long as the execution shall last, with which they may be served: But if the said wines be trucked in exchange for the goods of those governments, whose value is uncertain, and depends on the free will of the sellers; in that case, the agreement shall be fixed by convention of the parties; as it would not be fair for the inhabitants of that state to raise their goods to such a height as may do hurt to company, nor for the company to undervalue them, so as to discourage their agriculture.

S E C T. XXIII.

And because, likewise, it would not be fair for the company to hurt such persons in those governments, as sell the said commodities by retail, by depriving them of the means of subsistence, the said company shall not be entitled to sell at any time by itself, or its factors, any of the above-mentioned commodities.

P O R

commodities by retail, nor dispose of any lesser quantity than one pipe of each of the said commodities; the sale of which shall always be made at the magazines of the said company, and never in shops, or such like private places, on pain to such of it's factors as shall act contrary hereto of being chastised for every disorder, which shall thence result; remaining (*ipso facto*) incapable of serving the company, as also of all and every the offices of justice, or property, besides being condemned in a five years banishment to Angola.

S E C T. XXIV.

No person, whatever be his qualifications or condition, shall be allowed to send, take, or introduce into the said governments of S. Paolo, Rio de Janeiro, Bahia, and Pernambuco, the said wines, vinegars, and brandies, which are to be exported in the squadrons from the city of Porto, or shall be of the product of the lands of Alto Douro, on pain of the forfeiture of them, and as much more of their value amounts to: the whole to be applied, one half in favour of the company, and the other half in favour of the informers, who may give their information publicly, or in secret, (provided their informations be made good, upon corporal apprehension) in this kingdom, before the judge conservator (or recorder) of the company, and in that state before the presiding minister of the house of intendancy, or before any common judges, in places where there are no intendants; all which shall cause the informations to be notified to the company's factors, that they may act as plaintiffs in the matter, being entitled thereby to a fifth part of the value; and they not thus fulfilling their duty, their effects shall be liable to answer the damages thence arising.

S E C T. XXV.

Nevertheless, if it should happen that some of the vintagers do not agree to the prices determined in section xiv. and should have a mind to ship the wines of their own manufacture for the said ports of Brazil, they shall be allow'd so to do by the hands of the directors of the company; who, at the charges and risk of the same vintagers, shall send them to their factors, to be sold in the said state, at the same prices as the company's wines shall be sold at, and by no means at greater; provided always, that the quality thereof be equivalent to the said prices. And for the very reason that any such vintager did not care to content himself with the established prices on one occasion, he shall be excluded the privilege of obliging the company on any other, to take his wines at the said prices; and the company shall reimburse the said vintagers the amount of their product, abating commissions, according to the established rule, and all other expences attending the returns, so soon as the company shall have received the same: it being understood, that all charges attending the said wines, till put on board, shall be paid at the cost of the vintager, and not of the company.

S E C T. XXVI.

If the company should find any advantage in extending it's commerce of wines and brandies to the foreign nations of Europe, it shall be at liberty to do so, on paying the duties already established in the same branch of trade; as also those of entry at the custom-house of the goods it imports in exchange; and for that purpose, the company may retain in it's service the shipping it may stand in need of, which it may dispatch, as it shall think best, without any hindrance, and without being liable to have them, or their crews, disturbed, or taken from it, even under colour of your majesty's royal service.

S E C T. XXVII.

The company shall pay all the duties hitherto wont to be paid on the above commodities, as well in this kingdom, as in the said state of Brazil, in the same manner as has been heretofore practised; and the same shall be observed with the returns it shall make from the same state of Brazil to this kingdom.

S E C T. XXVIII.

Whereas every one knows the grievous prejudice, which has been done to the reputation of the wines of Douro, and consequently to the culture of the same, by the great liberty hitherto taken in the dealing therein, and by the excessive number of taverners, who retail them in the city of Porto, and the neighbouring towns; every one endeavouring to adulterate them from their native purity, with mixtures, and foreign compositions: and whereas the whole is contrary to what remains established by the charter of the 23d of February, 1605, by the act of consulship of the 18th of June, 1655, and by the provision of the board of Dezembargo do Paço, (or senate) of the 23d of August of the same year: your majesty, in order to provide against these evils, is graci-

P O R

ously pleased to ordain, that in the city of Porto, and in the neighbouring places, within the distance of three leagues, no wines shall be sold, but on the account of this company, by retail; which said company, for that purpose, shall purchase of the proprietors the quantity of wines necessary, and the governor and directors shall be entitled to no more than one per cent. on the price thereof, and the other charges thereto incidental, on account of carriages, casks, duties, warehouses, and sale, or other trifling expences, by way of commission; out of the product of which they shall pay the factors they may employ in this service; and all the remaining profit shall belong to the several persons interested in the said company, by a liquid balance to be divided among them in the manner above established in sect. iv. And that this regulation may be put in force, without any notable trouble to the parties, regard is to be paid to the following sections.

S E C T. XXIX.

Whereas an entire and absolute separation is to be made of the wines of the coasts of Alto-Douro, and it's district, in order to be shipped for America and foreign nations, from all the other wines of such places as only produce a sort fit to be drank in the country, that by this means the inferiority of these wines may not destroy the credit due to those on account of their native excellence; your majesty is graciously pleased to will, that there be made, with the greatest expedition, a map and general survey of the two coasts of the river Douro, north and south, wherein may be described all that territory which produces THE TRUE WINES FOR EXPORTATION, capable of passing forth of the bar of the said river, severally and distinctly specifying the great and small vintages of this peculiar kind, and exhibiting an estimate, by a common supputation or average, according to the produces of the last five foregoing years, of what each of the said vintages is wont to yield, in order that the proprietors thereof may not sell any, without making known to the company what they do sell, nor be enabled to sell to the company, or to foreigners, any greater number of pipes, than that which is allotted to them in the said register or survey, on pain, in case of exceeding the said quantities in their sales, of paying nine times the value of the excess, and remaining incapacitated to sell wines any more out of the kingdom.

S E C T. XXX.

No wine whatever shall be brought from without the limits of the territory above described into the same, unless accompanied with permits, passed by the whole body of the guilds of the places whence the said wines are brought; which permits shall declare the place they are bound to, the use they are destined for, the name of the vintager and vintage where they are received, the persons to whom they are consigned, and the direct road by which they are to be transmitted; which permits, in the above form, shall be exhibited to the commissaries, whom the company shall have nominated in the respective places, to inspect whether, in fact, the use be made of them for which they were designed. All this under the penalty, that the wine which is transmitted without permits, dispatched in the above form, or which shall be found to be out of the direct roads and highways, shall be forfeited in favour of the company: and this, in order to prevent the sorry wines from being mingled with the good, to increase their quantity in prejudice of their credit, and to the detriment of the company, and of foreigners, who are to become purchasers thereof. And if inferior wines should happen to be discovered in houses not approved for their reception by the guilds, with the company's consent, not only the said wines shall be forfeited, but those persons in whose custody they be found, shall be fined the treble of their value to the profit of the same company.

S E C T. XXXI.

In like manner, to prevent the fraudulent introduction of adulterated and sorry mixed wines into those foreign countries, whither the wines which are to be qualified as above are transported, no person, whatever be his state or condition, shall, under the above ordained penalties, be entitled to embark any wines for the city of Porto, but such as come addressed with the domestic manifestos of the vintagers to the board of directors of the company; which, finding them exact, shall order their mark to be put upon them as fit for exportation; finding them to be of another inferior quality, it shall order the proper mark to be put on them as inferior wines, fit only for home consumption on the spot, or within the kingdom; and finding them fit to be shipped for the Brazils, or for foreign countries, licence shall be granted for the sale thereof, and the board of the said company shall be obliged to make out annually a general and particular list of all the pipes of qualified wine which shall be shipped out of the bar of Porto to be navigated as above; putting on every one of them, with a hot iron, the mark of their approbation, and pointing them out with permits, signed by the

the governor, and all the directors of the company to the several custom-houses to which they are bound; and declaring in the said permits the names of the persons who make the ladings, and the certain number of pipes which every one of the said persons shippeth, though it be but a single pipe, or even but a barrel; to the intent, that if any should have an inclination to introduce into any of the said foreign countries any wines without permits, or in quantities exceeding the number specified in the said permits, on the supposition of their being wines of Alto Douro, the cheat may be instantly discovered in the respective custom-houses of the said foreign countries, as it will be evident in both cases that the wine is of different territories, and subjected to those mixtures and frauds which the company is endeavouring to prevent for the common good. And for a still greater security the company will, at the end of every year, remit to the different ports of America and Europe, to which any wines are exported, a printed general account, and circumstanced as above, with the names of the laders, and with a declaration of how much every one of them shipped, that it may reach the knowledge of every body.

S E C T. XXXII.

For the sale of wine by retail in the city of Porto, no more taverners shall be allowed than the ninety-five established by the charter of the 23d of February 1605. by the act of consulship of the 18th of June, 1655, and by the provision of the board of Dezembargo do Paço (or senate) of the 23d of August of the same year: insomuch, that neither the number of taverns shall be altered, nor any change made with respect to the places appointed for them; nor shall any taverner be admitted to hold any one of them, who is not approved and licensed for that purpose by the board of the company, on pain of forfeiture to the company's use, of all the wine found in taverns not licensed as above, and of six months imprisonment to such as shall be detected selling therein: this penalty to be doubled and trebled, in cases of relapse, against such taverners or owners of wines as shall be subject thereto.

S E C T. XXXIII.

That the manufacturers of wine, and the purchasers thereof, may be enabled to act upon certain grounds, so as that neither the manufacture may claim, by selling it, such profits as may prove prejudicial to the commerce, nor the commerce be able to ruin the manufacture in its beginning for the purchases thereof, the company shall unalterably pay for all the wines it may take up for exportation at the rate of twenty-five mil-reis per pipe, according to the two different qualities thereof, in the manner above declared in sect. xiv. so that, in case of there being a great deficiency of the above-said qualified wines, and a great demand for the same, those of the first rank may not exceed the price of thirty mil-reis per pipe, nor those of the second surpass the price of twenty-five mil-reis. Such, however, as may prove unfit for exportation, and yet proper enough for home-consumption, shall also be bought and sold by the same company at certain fixed prices, in the following manner: such as are of the growth of the lands lying between Porto and Arnellas shall be bought at the rate of four mil-reis per pipe, and sold at the rate of ten reis per pint, the company being at all expence and charges thereof: those of the growth of the lands lying between Arnellas and Bayao shall be bought at the rate of five mil-reis per pipe, and sold in the same manner at the rate of twelve reis per quart: those of the growth of Anse de and its territory, which shall be hereafter described, shall be bought as above at the rate of six mil-reis per pipe, and sold in like manner at the rate of twelve reis and a half per quart: those of the growth of the lands of Barqueiros, of Mazaofrio, of Barrou, and Penhajoya, shall be bought at the rate of eight mil-reis per pipe, and sold at the rate of fifteen reis per quart: the other ripe wines of the hills beyond douro, lying without the limits described of the lands productive of wines for exportation, shall be sold at the rate of twelve mil-reis per pipe, and sold in like manner at the rate of a vintem (or twenty reis) per quart: and the governor and directors of the company shall cause the said wines to be distributed among the taverns, to be sold at retail in the manner established in section xxviii. with this farther declaration, that for each of the abovesaid sorts of wine the said company shall provide proper casks, marked with a hot iron, distinguishing their several qualities and prices: and that the taverner who inverts the said orders, either by putting the better sort of wines in the casks of the inferior sort, or by mingling the one with the other, shall for the first offence pay a hundred mil-reis, shall forfeit all the wine he may be found possessed of, in favour of the informer, and have six months imprisonment; for the second, the same penalties shall be doubled; and for the third, he shall be liable to the same, and shall be over and above publicly whipped and transported to the kingdom of Angola. And because there will be some wines of so bad a sort as to be only fit to burn, or make vine-

gar, the company shall immediately grant licences to the proprietors of such wines for reducing them to brandies or vinegars, and being disposed to make their provisions of these two commodities, they shall purchase the same by mutual agreement of the parties.

S E C T. XXXIV.

If in some years the growth of the wines should be so redundant as to render it impracticable for the company to dispose of it readily, neither for American consumption, nor for that of the city of Porto, the vintagers shall be at liberty to sell the said commodity; for the consumption of any part of the kingdom, where there is no prohibition thereof; and if it is to be convey'd without the bar, the quality thereof shall be marked on the casks it is conveyed in, and the whole shall be accompanied with the company's permit, that the place it is designed for may be known; and that it may not be transmitted to foreign countries, and become productive of the ill consequences before mentioned.

S E C T. XXXV.

Whereas this company is established on the stock and proper substance of the persons therein interested, without any mixture of stock from the royal revenue; and whereas every one is free to dispose of his own effects as to himself may appear the most for his own advantage, the said company and the management shall be under the immediate subjection to the royal person of your majesty, and independent of all the tribunals, as well the greater as the lesser ones, so as that no minister or tribunal of your majesty shall in any case or accident whatever interfere with it or with what belongs to it, nor shall be intitled to hinder or interrupt the same in the management of all which belongs to it, nor demand of it any account of its proceedings, it being the duty of the directors, who quit their office, to lay before those who succeed them, in the manner laid down already in sect. iv. And this is to be understood with express inhibition to all the said tribunals and ministers, and notwithstanding the right of their respective jurisdictions; for though it may seem that the management of the said company's affairs should be subject to such or such jurisdictions, nevertheless, as they do not interfere with your majesty's royal revenues, but belong wholly to the persons who put their own stock into the said company, it is they who are to have the management thereof entirely to themselves, with that separate and privative jurisdiction which your majesty is pleased to grant them. In the case, however, of a tribunal's wanting to be informed by the board of managers of any thing relative to your majesty's royal service, it may order its secretary to write to the secretary of the said board of managers, who being by him acquainted therewith, will direct him what answer to give. If it should be what the board does not think expedient to comply with, the tribunal which shall have made the enquiry may address your majesty, to the intent that, after the said board has been heard upon the subject, your majesty may take such resolutions as to your great wisdom shall seem meet.

S E C T. XXXVI.

In case the agents and factors of the company in America, or elsewhere, should happen to die, neither the judges for the dead and the absent, nor the judges for orphans, nor any other than the proper judge appointed by the company to take cognizance of its affairs in the respective places, where such agents or factors shall die, shall interfere in the seizure of the books and effects of the deceased; which said judge, or superintendant of the company's affairs, shall seize the said books and effects, and shall give an account thereof to the board of the company in the city of Porto, that the same may first, and with preference to all other titles, separate what belongs to the company, and then deliver up the remainder to the judges or parties where and to whom it may belong. The same is to be understood with regard to the coffers and superintendents of the city of Porto, with whom the company shall settle accounts in the foregoing manner, down to the hour of death, admitting their heirs to be heard, to whom, however, the right of administering to the deceased is not to be transferred, but must always remain untransferable.

S E C T. XXXVII.

It is your majesty's royal pleasure, that the debts due to this company, which have been contracted from effects of the same, and not of any other nature, be recovered in favour of the company by its recorder (or judge conservator) or by the ministers every where, who shall be required to recover them, the same as your majesty's royal revenue, notwithstanding any privileges or resolutions which the debtors shall allege to the contrary.

S E C T. XXXVIII.

It is also your majesty's royal pleasure, that all persons concerned in the trade, whatever be their state or condition, and however privileged they be, on being called before the board of the company for any affair belonging to the management thereof, shall be obliged to attend the same forthwith, and on failure of so doing the recorder (or judge conservator) shall proceed against them as to him shall appear most proper.

S E C T. XXXIX.

All persons who shall enter into this company with six thousand crusados stock, and thence upward, shall, as long as the said company persists, enjoy the privilege of not being confinable but within their own houses, in those cases in which such privilege is usually granted: and the officers of the same, for the time being, shall be exempt from bearing arms in any companies, whether of horse or foot, and from furnishing recruits, or attending general musters, in virtue of their respective employments. And the trade which shall be carried on in the said company as above, or by means of stocks, or by employments exercised by the board of the company, in the post of governor and directors thereof, shall not only be of detriment to the nobility of the persons, who carry it on, but shall rather be, on the contrary, a proper means towards attaining to acquired nobility; so that the afore-mentioned voting members, constituted by your majesty to serve at this first establishment, shall remain habilitated for being installed in the military orders, without any dispensation on the score of mechanics, and their child shall also, without such dispensation, be qualified to contend for promotion before the senate of Lisbon; on condition, however, that after having exercised the said employment, they do not themselves sell by retail in warehouses or shops, and that they do not take up any business degrading to the said post, after having filled it: this, nevertheless, is to take place upon future elections, only in favour of those persons who shall have filled the posts of governor and sub-governor, after having served at least two years compleat, to the satisfaction of the company.

S E C T. XL.

The offences committed against any officer of the company, by deed or word, in matter concerning his office, shall be punished by the recorder (or judge conservator) as if done to your majesty's officers of justice.

S E C T. XLI.

No brokers shall be allowed to interfere in the purchase or sale of the company's effects; and only when the managers thereof shall think fit to make use of them in bargaining upon any affair, they shall be paid for the same, the hire agreed upon between them; which otherwise they shall not be obliged to undertake.

S E C T. XLII.

Though the company be resolved to act in every thing which relates to preparing and dispatching it's ladings and shipping with the utmost mildness, and without applying to methods of severity, as nevertheless it may find itself in absolute necessity of having recourse to the assistance of the ministers of justice: it is your majesty's royal pleasure, that, to this effect, the board, by means of it's recorder (or judge conservator) may send message to the judges of criminal and to the high bailiffs of the city of Porto, for these to execute the orders which shall be sent them; and your majesty will look upon the good offices done by them on such occasions, as if done for the advantage of the royal service, that they may receive from your majesty the reward thereof in their promotions, on presenting to the said judges for that purpose a certificate from the said board: and on the reverse; if they do not comply with this obligation, it shall be matter of complaint, and be imputed to them as a failure of duty in their residences.

S E C T. XLIII.

Your majesty is graciously pleased to grant to the governor, directors, secretary, and consultors of this company, the special favour, that, while they continue to serve in the said posts, they may not be taken up, or confined, by order of any tribunal, military commander, or minister of justice, in any case civil or criminal (unless it should be in flagrante delicto) without authority therefore from his recorder (or judge conservator:) And that their factors and officers, who shall repair to the provinces, and other places out of the city of Porto, to make purchases and execute the commissions with which they may be charged, may make use of

all sorts of steel and fire-arms necessary for the safety of their persons and the capital they have with them; on condition that they carry with them licences for so doing, dispatched by the recorder (or judge conservator) of the company, in your majesty's royal name.

S E C T. XLIV.

Whereas the fund, or joint capital stock of this company consists of one million two hundred thousand crusados, divided into actions of four hundred mil-reis each, as is already established in sect. x. every proprietor may have one or more actions, as he shall think fit, provided that, on completing the number to the amount of ten thousand crusados, which is the sufficient share towards qualifying persons possessed of actions for posts in the management thereof, those actions, over and above the said amount, do remain concealed in the books of the company, without being laid down in the public accounts, which are to be distributed among the members, who have a right of voting at general elections.

S E C T. XLV.

The company shall remain open to the reception of the sums competent for the aforeaid actions, to wit, for the city of Porto and the whole kingdom, for the space of five months: for the islands of Açores and Madeira, for seven: and for all the Portuguese dominions in America, for the space of one year: the said terms to commence from the day of publishing the proclamations, that it may reach to every one's knowledge. And after the said terms are ended, or before the expiration thereof, if the abovementioned joint capital stock of one million two hundred thousand crusados be compleated, the company shall be closed, so as to be no more enabled to admit into the same any other person whatever: with this declaration, that for every one who shall enter into this company, it will be sufficient to pay down at his entrance one half the amount of the actions he subscribes for, and for the other half a credit will be given him of six months, reckoning from the day of fixing up the said proclamations to pay in the same, at two different payments, of three, and three months each.

S E C T. XLVI.

The persons who shall enter with the aboveaid actions, whether natives or foreigners, may dispose of the value thereof in that manner, and to that intent, which they shall think best, whether by way of intail, chaplainship, trust temporal or perpetual, deed of gift to the living, or reversion in case of death, or other such methods, making such adoptions, and applying such disposals and clauses as they shall think fit; all which it is your majesty's royal pleasure to approve and confirm, from this instant, of your own free will, certain knowledge, and royal plenary and supreme power, notwithstanding any dispositions to the contrary, though naturally requiring to be especially mentioned, so, and in the same manner, as if the said disposals, adoptions, and clauses had been written in deeds of gift under specious claims, or in last wills, confirmed by the death of the testators. Forasmuch as, since the right which every one, in virtue of natural liberty, is entitled to of freely disposing of what is his own, authorises donors and testators to contract and dispose as above in favour of private families and persons, much more may the persons entering with the said actions be authorised to act in the same manner, when over and above the onerous titles of the contracts they enter into with the company, and the company with your majesty, they concur to the improvement of the advantages arising from this establishment to your majesty's royal service, to the commonweal of your kingdom, and to the preservation and credit of a commodity, which, though so important, is in so ruinous a situation.

S E C T. XLVII.

The money which shall be thrown into this company shall not be extracted thence, during the time of it's continuance, which shall be that of twenty years, reckoned from the day of the departure of the first squadron it shall dispatch; which term of years may nevertheless be renewable for ten more, if the company shall request as much, and your majesty be graciously pleased to grant it the same. However, that the persons who shall enter with their several capitals may have it in their power to make use thereof, they shall be at liberty to sell the whole, or part of the actions they are possessed of, as if they were absolute masters of the same, at the prices they shall agree for, transferring the same actions to the persons who shall be the purchasers, which contracts the board of the company shall be immediately informed of, and the same shall cause the necessary minutes to be taken of the said transfer, without fee or reward on that account, passing new policies in favour of the

new owners of such actions, and entering marginal notes in the old policies of the sellers thereof, whereby the sale they have made of the same may evidently appear, and taking care to fix to the said actions such necessary lights as may serve for a full title to the new proprietors. All which is to be understood, so long as the said company shall remain with a mercantile form of management, and vested with the privileges your majesty is pleased to grant to it as above. For, in case of it's mercantile form of government being changed, or of failure of the accomplishment of the same privileges, every person possessed of actions in it shall be at full liberty to call out immediately the capital of his actions, together with the interest thereof, which till that day shall be found due to him. And your majesty confirms the same, with the same clauses, to be literally and inviolably observed, without interpretation, modification, or any meanings of fact or law, which can or may be alleged to the contrary.

S E C T. XLVIII.

The interests arising from the funds of this company shall be divided for the first time in the month of July, of the third year, to be reckoned from the departure of the first squadron, on board of which the said company shall ship it's goods for the Brazils, and from thenceforward a dividend pro rata of the said interests, shall be annually and successively made in the month of July aforesaid; although the directors should happen to have more than a year to remain in their offices.

S E C T. XLIX.

Such stocks and interests as shall be found after the expiration of the twenty years, which compleat the term of the company's charter, or after the expiration of the farther term for which it may be renewed, having the nature of an entail, of a chaplainship, of a trust temporal or perpetual, or being the property of the absent, shall immediately be passed from the coffers of the company to the general deposit of the court and city of Lisbon, where they shall be laid up with the same security as the said deposit itself is, in order to be disposed of, applied, or delivered up, according to the disposal of the persons who so settled them at the time of putting into the company. But those stocks which are not under any such restrictions, and are perfectly allodial and free, shall require nothing more or less to entitle their proprietors to receive the full value thereof, than the very policy of the same; and the money being paid to the person who produces the said policy, this shall remain in the coffer, to serve as a discharge from the said action or stocks; for the recovery of which no copies shall ever be of use, but the originals themselves shall be always required.

S E C T. L.

All this shall extend to foreigners, and persons residing in foreign countries, whatever quality or condition they be of; and in case, that during the above twenty years term of charter, or the farther renewal thereof, this crown (which heaven avert!) should be at war with any other power whose vassals have thrown their effects into this company, nevertheless no arrest, embarrassment, sequestration, or reprisal, shall affect them, or the interests thence arising to the owners, but rather they shall remain to them as perfectly free, exempt, and secure, as if every one had them in their own hands: a special favour which your majesty is pleased to grant to this company from the motives above-mentioned; and which your majesty, thus on your royal word, promises to fulfil to them.

S E C T. LI.

And because in course of time many things may occur, which cannot at present be expressed for want of reflecting on them, your majesty is graciously pleased to empower the said company, as occasion shall offer, to lay them before your majesty, by means of the secretary of state for the affairs of the kingdom, that your majesty may determine concerning them as your wisdom shall find best for your own royal service, and for the common good of your dutiful subjects and of this company. And the company shall do so accordingly, even in matters relating to it's own advantage, whenever any one of the directors shall insist on a case being laid before your majesty, provided the affairs be of moment, and it's consequences of importance to your royal service, to the common-weal of the kingdom, or to some weighty affair of the company.

S E C T. LII.

Whereas it is of great use to fix a time certain for the departure of the squadrons from the city of Porto to the states of Brazil, as well as that the wines may be navigated at a convenient season, as that the inhabitants of those governments may

make their necessary provisions at a certain period of time: It is your majesty's royal pleasure, that the squadrons, bound for those governments, do precisely set sail in the spring tides of the month of September, or, at the latest, in the first of those of October of every year, on pain, that the ships which do otherwise, shall not be empowered to go out till the like time of the following year; and that leave shall not be granted to them to lade or to sail at any other time.

S E C T. LIII.

And whereas your majesty, after hearing the petitioners, has been graciously pleased to nominate the persons, whose names are hereunder subscribed, to establish and govern this company for the first three years; they, and every one of them, sign this writing in the name of the said vintagers and good men of the city of Porto; personally binding their own effects with which they enter into the company, and also those of the persons in general, who shall enter into the same, so far only as the portions wherewith they enter therein may extend: that your majesty may vouchsafe to confirm the said company with all the clauses, pre-eminence, privileges, and conditions contained in the same writing, and with all the strength and force necessary for it's validity and security.

Porto, on the 31st of August, 1756.

Sebastian Joseph de Carvalho e Mello.
Joseph da Costa Ribeiro.
Luiz Beleza de Andrade.
Joseph Pinto da Cunha.
Joseph Monteiro de Carvalho.
Custodio dos Santos Alvares Brito.
John Pacheco Pereira.
Lewis de Magalhaens Coutinho.
Antony de Araujo Freire de Sousa e Vieiga.
Emanuel Rodrigues Braga.
Francis John de Carvalho.
Dominick Joseph Nogueira.
Francis Martins da Luz.
Francis Barboza dos Santos.
Lewis Diogo de Moura Coutinho.

I, the king, make known to those who may see this charter of confirmation, that having, and with persons of my royal council, and other ministers learned, experienced, and zealous for the service of God, of myself, and of the common-weal of my subjects, whom I thought fit to consult, maturely weigh the three and fifty chapters and conditions contained in the three and thirty afore written half sheets, marked by Sebastian Joseph de Carvalho e Mello, one of my council, and secretary of state for the affairs of the kingdom, which the principal vintagers of upper Douro, and the good men of the city of Porto, therein mentioned, have made and ordained, with my royal approbation, in order to establish a company, which may competently support the culture of the vineyards of Alto Douro, and at the same time preserve the growths thereof in their natural purity, to the advantage of domestic and foreign trade, as well as of the health of my subjects, without any expence to my revenue, but rather to the improvement of that and of the common-weal of my kingdom: and whereas upon examination of the said conditions, with mature counsel, and prudent deliberation, they have been found not only convenient, as well as the company itself, which is of manifest utility to the said city of Porto, and to the provinces thereto adjoining; but also, that the said company is of singular service in this particular, as also the persons, who thereby contribute to the advancement of commerce and agriculture, by so advantageous and solid an establishment: it is my royal will and pleasure to confirm all the said conditions, and every one in particular, as if they were, word for word, here inserted and declared: and, by this my charter, I confirm to it and them the same, of my own free will, and certain knowlege, royal and absolute power, to the intent that they may be put in execution, and fully observed, according to the tenor and meaning thereof. And it is my royal will that this confirmation, in the whole and for every part thereof, be inviolably observed, and never be repealed, but do always remain in it's full force and vigour, as firm, valid, and perpetual, without diminution; and that no doubts or demurs be raised to obstruct the accomplishment of the same, either in part or in the whole, in judgment or out of it; and that it be understood to be done in the best form, and in the most perfect meaning which can be expressed and understood in favour of the same company, and it's commerce and the support thereof; supplying, and having for supplied, (as if inserted in this charter) all clauses and formalities of law and practice, which may be requisite to give it it's full force; and I repeal, and have for repealed, all and every the laws, statutes, ordinations, decrees of courts, provisions, extravagants, other charters, and opinions of doctors, which by any means, or in any manner whatsoever, may be contrary to the conditions of the said company, or to any one of them, though they should be such as to render it necessary to make herein a special and express recital thereof, word for word,

word, notwithstanding the ordination of the second book, title forty four, which ordains that no ordination shall be deemed to have been by me repealed, unless express mention of the same be made: and for the greater force and irrevocable existence of this confirmation, I promise and give assurance, on my royal word, thus to fulfil it, and to cause it to be fulfilled and maintained, and not to revoke it, but to support the persons interested in the said company in the preservation of that and of its commerce, in the quality of protector thereof, as I am in fact: and this charter shall have the force of a law, that the confirmation of the conditions and chapters therein contained may always remain in their full vigour without any alteration. Wherefore I command the senate of Lisbon, the courts of requests, the court of exchequer, the ultra-marine-council, the board of conscience, the guild of the city of Porto, and other courts and tribunals, as also all the governors, generals of the Brazils, officers majors, intendants of the revenue, auditors general, and guilds of that state, and all the magistrates, ministers, judges, and justices of my kingdoms and lordships, that they in like manner do fulfil and observe it, and cause the same to be fulfilled and observed, without doubt or demur, of any sort, not admitting any plea which may obstruct, in the whole or in part, the effect of the said conditions, as whatever relates to the company belongs to the board of the same. And it is my pleasure, that this charter have force as an instrument, without passing through the chancery-office, and notwithstanding the ordination, book second, title 39, to the contrary, though it be more than a year before it have its full effects.

Given at Belem the 10th of
September, 1756.

R E Y.

Sebastião Joseph de Carvalho e Mello.

Charter, by which your majesty is pleased, for the reasons therein alleged, to confirm the fifty-three chapters, and the conditions contained in the thirty three half leaves aforewritten, which the principle vintagers of Alto Douro, and the good men of the city of Porto, have made and ordained, with your majesty's royal approbation, for forming a company, which, maintaining the culture of the vineyards, may preserve the produce thereof in its natural purity, to the advantage of the vintage, of commerce, and of public health.

For your majesty's inspection,

Done by JOACHIM JOSEPH BÖRALHO.

Registered in the office of the secretary of state for the affairs of the kingdom, in book I. of the said company, leaf 1. and the following.

The printer, Michael Rodrigues, may print the chapters, and the conditions of the general company for the culture of the vineyards of Alto Douro; I having, by this decree, granted him the necessary licence for that purpose only.

With his majesty's royal signature.

Registered.

REMARKS ON OUR ARTICLE PORTUGAL, since the last war, and the treaty of peace of 1763.

The Portuguese being invaded by the Spaniards in the year 1762, we again succoured them at no less expence than we did before, and they became a contracting party to the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. See AMERICA for the treaty at large. But we have not received or got any grateful returns, suitable to all the obligations which Portugal is notoriously under to Great-Britain; though it has been said, we are in daily expectations to receive such in a commercial way, as will make us an ample compensation for all the expences, which we have been at: but we know there is little gratitude amongst princes, when their turn is served. However, if Portugal only amuses and deceives us again; it is to be hoped, that this nation will never more assist them, without previously consulting her own immediate interest by so doing: we are no longer in a condition to fight the battles of other nations, without receiving advantages, more than equivalent to the expence, and the attention required by the court of England, when engaged in such enterprizes. The largeness of our PUBLIC DEBTS, and the multiplicity of our TAXES, it is to be hoped will be a memento to relinquish such systems, till we have got rid of our national incumbrances, or sufficiently reduced them.

Let any man of candour and impartiality judge, whether the above wine company is not an establishment, calculated to destroy and annihilate all the commercial privileges to which the English are entitled in the kingdom of Portugal: we are persuaded, that he cannot think otherwise, when he compares it with the articles in Oliver's peace, which he will find under our article of TREATIES OF COMMERCE.

However, whether the court of Portugal, will or no think proper not only to ratify and confirm all the ancient privileges of British subjects in that kingdom, but add some fresh one to them, in grateful remembrance of the greatest expence the crown of Great-Britain has been at for the support of that nation, and the distinguished attention this nation has lately given to her preservation; we shall soon hear, his excellency Count de la Lippe being just now charged with a special commission from our court to Portugal, for that purpose, than whom no one could be more acceptable to the court of Portugal, the count having done it such important services, by means of Great-Britain.

PORTUGUEZE AFRICAN TRADE. The Portuguese have a great share of the trade to Africa; and, as the Dutch trade thither for gold rather than for slaves, so the Portuguese trade there rather for slaves than for gold, though they have some share of the gold also, especially on the east coast. But this trading chiefly for slaves has been, in some respect, the safety of the Portuguese commerce: for as the Dutch, who are every where their rivals in trade, have kept the coast where there is most gold, so the Portuguese quietly possess their factories in Congo, Angola, and the south coast of Africa, where there are slaves, but no great quantity of gold.

As the Dutch want but few slaves, because they have but few plantations in America, so the Portuguese want a great number, because their plantations in Brazil are so very great; and they increase their trade upon the coast of Africa, because their colonies in Brazil increase considerably every year. See the articles BRAZIL and PORTUGUEZE AMERICA.

In order to supply themselves with negroes, they have a trade with all the factories upon the coast of Angola, and the whole kingdom of Congo is, as it were, their own; by which they enjoy all that which geographers call the coast of Congo, or the Lower Guinea, from the Portuguese fort on the north of the island Fernando, in the latitude of 7 degrees south, to Cape Negro, in latitude 16 degrees, besides a powerful settlement up the country, at St Salvador.

In this vast extent of country they have a most extensive and advantageous trade, having made very considerable settlements; but the principal, and where their governor or viceroy keeps his residence, is at Loando in Angola, and Cape Palmerhino, where they have strong garrisons, and are able to bring together, for their defence against the natives, 2 or 3000 men at a time, very well armed. See the following particulars of all their settlements in that country, with a brief account of the trade they carry on at all of them respectively: for they have no settlements here like that of the Cape of Good Hope, merely for baiting and refreshing their ships.

The Portuguese settlements on the coast of Africa, with their trade, are as follow:

IN GUINEA PROPER, OR UPPER GUINEA.

ARCHIEM, a fort upon a small river, near Cape Three Points: their trade here is chiefly in elephants-teeth, some gold, but not much.

They once had DEL MINA, a strong castle, and now the biggest and fairest fortification in all Guinea. N. B. This castle was taken from the Portuguese, who built it, by the Dutch, anno 1631, and the Dutch still hold it, and have made it very strong.

WIDDRAW: here they have a small settlement, but not much trade; they say they pretend to settle there chiefly for intelligence.

IN CONGO.

FERNANDO Po, an island the farthest north, and near the English factories. Here they obtain some gold and elephants-teeth, with much bees-wax and civet; but the chief trade here is for fresh provisions for the Portuguese ships out-bound for India.

CAPE LOPOS. Here they have such a settlement that the king of the country lives in the fort with them, and they are all confederates; they get here a great many slaves, and some drugs.

LOANGO: it is a kingdom, and has its proper king; but the Portuguese may be said to be more properly kings of this whole country, especially the sea-coast, which they are fully possessed of for 1100 miles together; and they carry from thence yearly 25,000 slaves, or negroes, for the Brazils, but little or nothing else.

GREAT CASCAIRS, at the mouth of a small nameless river, not navigable.

GOANGO, at the mouth of the river Zaire: here also they get abundance of slaves.

ST SALVADOR, the capital city, above 100 miles within the country.

LOANDO, where the Portuguese governor resides.

In ANGOLA.

CAPE PALMERHINO,

CAPE LEHDO,

LIBOLO,

BENGUELAS, or ST PHILIP.

The Dutch have a small settlement here, but the Portuguese drive a very good trade from hence notwithstanding.

TORTUGA,

ANGRA DE NEGROS.

These are the places where the bulk of their slaves are collected, and where also they load their ships with what other things they find.

Besides all these, they have some small factories on the northern coast, about Cape Verd and Rio Grand.

From these southern parts they carry a very great number of slaves every year to the Brazils; and as their colony there is exceeding great and populous, as well as rich, were it not that they have such extended settlements on the coast of Africa, for the supply of negroes, they could not be able to carry on their sugar-works, their mines, and other planting business in the Brazils, where the slaves are not long-lived.

But this is not all they have to depend upon for supplying the Brazils: they have several considerable settlements on the east coast of Africa, as in the territory of Mozambique, and the whole coast of Zanguebar, a country that takes up the sea-coast from the Rio de Ladrones, in latitude 27 degrees south of the Line, where the Portuguese say the government of Mozambique begins, to Jubo, which lies directly under the Equator, or within one degree north latitude, and from thence even to the gulph of Moccha, or the Red Sea.

The Portuguese governor of all this territory resides at Mombaza, in the kingdom of Melinda, where the king of Melinda also resides. They are absolute masters of all these coasts, where they are never interrupted by the visits of any ships or company from Europe, except their own, or except they be ships in distress, in their return from India; for in their going they steer quite another course.

On this coast of Africa they possess vast dominion, and have several powerful people, countries, and even kingdoms tributary to them; of which we must take notice, otherwise their trade from those places cannot be fully described.

In MONOMOTAPA.

INHAGUA, an island near the mouth of the river St Esprit, where the Portuguese dominions south of the Line begin. Here they get abundance of elephants-teeth, and also much gold: here also they begin to be full of black cattle, and they furnish great quantities to the Dutch at Cape de Bonne Esperance.

ST MARTIN, an island also, in the mouth of the great river Cumana, where they have a traffic with the natives for European goods, but bring little away but provisions.

PUADO, an island in a branch of the same river Cumana. By this river the Portuguese carry on a great commerce with the Caffres, or inland negroes, exchanging a vast quantity of European goods for slaves and gold, to their very great profit.

MOZAMBIQUE, and therein

The coast of ZANGUEBAR, containing two governments:

ST JOHN of MOZAMBIQUE, an island with a city in it, which is very populous, and full of trade: it is wholly possessed by the Portuguese as sovereigns. They have a strong fortress here for protecting their trade, in the nature of a citadel, which commands both the country, the city, and the harbour, which is also very good; and here most of their ships for Goa and Macao call, as well for trade as to refresh themselves, as they return from China and India. Here also they drive a very gainful trade, trucking the manufactures of Europe for gold and elephants teeth, but not many negroes.

MONGALE, an inland town, possessed also by the Portuguese, and garrisoned, and which is the staple of their European goods, manufactures, &c. of which they sell great quantities to the natives, for small bits or lumps of gold, to very great advantage.

QUILSA: this is a strong fort, built by the Portuguese, but the country is unhealthy, so that the factory could not hold it, and they demolished it again: but the king is tributary to them, and pays for their protection, as they call it, 1500 pounds weight of gold per annum, and a great quantity of ivory; and, as the people are clothed here also, the Portuguese sell them abundance of European goods, manufactures, &c.

MOMBAZA, a government and strong fortress, but lost to the natives in 1631, who took it by storm, and cut all the Portuguese to pieces in it; but the Portuguese returned it, for they recovered it again, with greater slaughter of the inhabitants, and made it very strong. Here they have also a very advantageous trade.

MELINDA, a large country; subject to the Portuguese, though they have a king of their own also. The capital city is called likewise Melinda, a large populous place, wholly built by the Portuguese in the latitude of 8 degrees, a sea-port, with a very good harbour, and a strong citadel, which commands the entrance into the port. At this city the Portuguese are so numerous, that they have 17 churches, besides religious houses. Here they have such large warehouses for all sorts of European goods, that they supply the whole coast and country for 1000 leagues within land; and here they yearly carry off a very great number of slaves, as also gold, horses, rich gums and drugs, and some oriental pearl.

Adjoining to this country there are five several kingdoms, all tributary to the Portuguese; so that they have the sovereignty of as much land in this country, as the whole kingdoms of Spain and Portugal take up in Europe; and the merchants of Melinda are immensely rich.

BRAVA: some call it a republic; whether it be so or not matters not much, they are subject to the Portuguese, and pay a tribute for carrying the Portugal standard. The Portuguese trade here chiefly for ambergrease, elephants-teeth, and gold; and they take off great quantities of European goods, because the people go clothed after the Portuguese manner.

From hence to the Red Sea the Portuguese have the command of the coast, though no settlement or trade with the people.

Whoever considers the extent of the Portuguese dominions on these coasts, and includes the many nations and kingdoms which are their tributaries, must necessarily allow their trade to those countries to be exceeding great: and though the people of many of those nations go almost naked, or with very little cloathing, and, therefore, consume not much woollen or silken manufactures (the climate being exceeding hot where most of them live), yet this is greatly supplied by the infinite number of people, who all make use of somewhat; and the export in the whole, from Portugal to those places, must be very great. As for their returns, they are made with great advantage to the merchant, as well as to the nation in general, for they are in some of the most precious and valuable things in the world; such as,

Slaves,

Gold-dust,

Elephants-teeth,

Gums of the richest kinds,

Ostrich-feathers,

Bees-wax.

Drugs, { Senna,
Aloes,
Guinea grains,
Civet,

Ambergrease,

Incense,

Frankincense, &c.

Wild beasts and birds, { Lions,
Leopards,

Tygers,

Civet-cats,

Elephants,

Ostriches,

Apes,

Parrots,

Horses, very fine, of the Arab breed, from Magadoxa.

The Portuguese have also several possessions, and a great trade, in some islands in several parts of the world. For example,

MADAGASCAR, right against the shore of Mozambique and Kanguabar, on the coast of Africa, where they get slaves in considerable numbers, but no gold.

MADEIRAS, a body of islands near the Canaries, and which carry on a large trade in wine of that dominion also.

TERCERAS, or the AZORES, or WESTWARD ISLES. These are also a small cluster of islands, seven in number, not far off from the coast of Africa, and have a small trade with Portugal for European manufactures and corn, but have very little returns to make, except corn and cattle: they lie very convenient for victualling the Brazil ships outward-bound. See AZORES ISLANDS.

CAPE DE VERDE ISLANDS. From whence they derive their name is easy to judge, they lying just off Cape de Verde, or, in English, the Green Cape.

All these islands are possessed by the Portuguese, except that of Madagascar, and even there they have the people under such command, that it is all one as if they possessed it. In all these they have a very considerable trade, but especially to the Cape de Verde and the Madeiras: the latter, in particular, is said to send 20,000 pipes of wine a year to the English and French colonies in the West-Indies, particularly to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and Martinico; and the Cape de Verde islands to furnish salt to New England, and the English colonies on the north of America, for their fishing-trade.

The Portuguese had once begun a trade into the empire of the Abyssines, or Ethiopia, but were given out of it again by the Ethiopians, who fancied they intended to stop the channel of the river Nile, and turn it into the Red Sea, and so cut off their commerce and communication with Egypt.

One thing is to be noted of the Portugal trade, viz. that having no manufacture worth naming in trade, with which to carry on their affairs to all these remote settlements, and where they have infinitely more people to supply than their whole country in Europe contains, all their ships therefore go loaded with the product and manufactures of other nations, just as the Spaniards do to New Spain, such as those of England, France, Holland, and Hamburgh: and as the English have the greatest opportunity to oblige them, by the treaties made between them in trade, so the greatest quantity of English manufactures have heretofore been sent to them, which they have again exported to all these remote parts of the world.

All these things confirm what is said above, viz. how greatly the trade of Portugal is increased in a few years, upon the occasion of the growth of those colonies, and of their interest in them; inasmuch that it is apparent Portugal alone has taken off more English goods yearly, within the last 40 years, than both Portugal and Spain took off together any year before.

This is chiefly owing to the increase of their colonies in the Brazils, and on the eastern African coast, which are so very much improved of late, and are daily increasing, by the vast number of native Portuguese who go to settle there, and who all grow rich, that it is believed Brazil only, in 40 years more, if it goes on as it has done for 40 years past, will be the greatest colony in America, and have more people in it than are in all Portugal and Algarve in Europe.

R E M A R K S:

From this account of the Portuguese situation in Africa, the following particulars are observable:

1. That as the success of the gold and diamond-mines in Brazil, as well as the sugar-works, belonging to the Portuguese, depends upon the labour of negroes, they constantly take care to obtain a competent number for this purpose, by virtue of their African settlements.

2. That from the greater dominion in sovereignty, as also the greater extent of territory in Africa than any other European power has, they necessarily purchase the productions in this part of the world at cheaper rates than other powers can do: that is to say, they exchange less quantities of the merchandizes of Europe for their African slaves, their gold, ivory, &c.

3. That their having brought far more of the natives to cloath in the European manner, than all the rest of the potentates considered together who have settlements there, the general traffic of the Portuguese in Africa is not of less consideration to them, perhaps, than that of all the other powers of Europe unitedly comprehended.

4. That the policy of the Portuguese in Africa points out, and even demonstrates, that it is by no means impracticable for the English in particular, who have such a number of good forts and settlements in Africa [see ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY] to make at least as great advancement into the inland commerce of Africa as the Portuguese; and to bring thousands, perhaps millions, of the natives, so to cloath in the European manner, as to add infinitely more to the exports of this nation in that part of the world, than we have ever hitherto done: for, although England has been in possession of forts and settlements in Africa since the time of queen Elizabeth, yet we have never enjoyed any thing but a trifle of the coast-trade; we have never yet entered into the heart of Africa, and, consequently, have not enlarged our commerce there any thing like to the degree it will admit of.—But this, we apprehend, depends upon quite other measures than what they have ever yet been taken. See the article ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, Vol. I. and such other heads to which from hence we have referred.

PORTUGUEZE AMERICA. The territories belonging to Portugal in America, are the Brazils; which for situation, extent, and other advantages derived from nature, have proved unspeakably beneficial to the possessor. We shall not enter farther back into the history hereof, than what may be requisite to our purpose. Among the various contentions amidst several powers for these territories, the Dutch were the last who declared war against Portugal on this occasion; but after five years, they were glad to make a peace, under the mediation of our king Charles II. which was signed in August 1660; and the Portuguese have, since this time, remained in quiet possession of this vast country. See the article BRAZIL.

The trade which the Portuguese carry on to this colony has been so great, that some have thought that to have been the principal cause why they have neglected that of the Indies.—See the article PORTUGUEZE EAST-INDIA TRADE.

The trade of the five northern captainships of Brazil, viz. Paria, Maragnen, Siere, Rio Grande, and Parayba, is carried on in the last mentioned port, which lies on the river of the same name, at five leagues distance from the sea.—It is a pretty fair and populous town, and there are annually about 7 or 8 ships sent thither from Lisbon and Oporto, of about 250 tons burden. Their lading consists chiefly in sugar, of which they make more in these northern captainships, than in the south; especially since the discovery of the gold mines, which has made the inhabitants negligent in respect to this and all other productions and manufactures.

There was a time when the trade of Brazil sugar was superior to that of any in the world; for the Brazil sugar was the first known in Europe, and the Portuguese are said to have set up their sugar-works in this country, about the year 1580; and their long possession has made them more careful and exact in it, than any other nation; so that even at present, the clayed sugars from Brazil are whiter and finer than ours, and yet the method of doing it is no great secret. See the article SUGAR.

Besides sugar, they bring from hence dyeing woods, several sorts of drugs, and other valuable commodities from Parayba, which is the least frequented port in Brazil, though these northern captainships are the best peopled, and the inhabitants are easy in their circumstances, notwithstanding there have been no mines yet wrought in these parts.

TAMARCA, which lies next to Parayba; and the captainship of Fernambuco, carry on their trade from the city of Olinda. It is seated on a hill not far from the sea, which renders the streets uneven and incommodious. The port is but narrow, and entry extremely difficult; yet there is a considerable resort of shipping there from the other parts of Brazil, and from the Canaries: and the annual fleet from Lisbon, consists generally of about 30 sail, escorted by a man of war. These merchantmen are generally about the same size with those sent to Parayba, and their cargoes are composed chiefly of sugar and Brazil wood, which last is said to be the best of its kind in the world. See BRAZIL WOOD.

BAHIA, or the BAY of ALL SAINTS, is the next captainship of Brazil, is about 12 leagues over, but scarce navigable in several places. There are in this bay several small islands, where there are tobacco and sugar plantations; and they have also very good fisheries on the coast of these islands, and on the banks.

ST SALVADOR city lies in the latitude of 14 degrees south, and is at present the center of the Portuguese trade in this part of the world. Authors differ in the accounts they give of the fleets sent annually thither from Lisbon, some making them double what others report; but the reason of this is, we apprehend, that the one speak of the whole Brazil fleet, which generally assemble in the Bay of All Saints, in order to return together to Europe; and the other of the fleet from Lisbon expressly destined for the Bay, which is about 30 sail escorted by two men of war, about the month of March commonly.

The commodities they carry are wines, brandies, meal, or flour; oil, cheese, cloths, stuffs, linen, iron, rough and wrought; paper, all kinds of kitchen utensils, laces, and most kinds of apparel. On the other hand, they bring from thence the best tobacco in Brazil, so highly esteemed in Europe; also sugar, indigo, balsam capaiva, ipecacuanha, pareira brava, cinnamon, long-pepper, ginger, woods for dyeing, and some for inlaying; ambergrease, and other rich drugs and perfumes: besides these, they also export from hence raw hides, train-oil, and whale-fins, abundance of these creatures being taken upon the coast, and, for above these forty years last past, gold, amethysts, and diamonds.

There are likewise some silver mines in Brazil, which, though not wrought to such profit as to allow the exporting much of this metal to Portugal, yet furnish sufficient for home circulation; and of this silver that money is coined at St Salvador, which is current through the whole colony; and which bears on one side the arms of Portugal, and on the other a cross charged with a sphere, with the following motto: Under this sign will I stand.

The rest of the captainships which lie farther to the south, carry on their trade by the Rio Janeiro, so called for its having been discovered in the month of January 1515; and which, from being scarce known till of late years, is, at present, become one of the most considerable rivers in the world. The banks of it are as beautiful and pleasant as can be imagined, the climate fine, the soil extremely fertile, producing sugar, indigo, tobacco, and cotton, all in perfection.

It has also been experienced, that European corn will grow here with little trouble and to great perfection; but for the reasons assigned, this, and all other improvements, have been disregarded, though independent of the gold mines, which have been discovered in this and the neighbouring captainships of St Vincent, this might be considered as the richest part of Brazil. The Portuguese settled here are quite a different people from those in the Bay of All Saints; for they are active, industrious, well inclined to foreigners, and suffer the Indians who live among them, to enjoy as much freedom

as themselves, which renders the country a paradise; and it is not easy to imagine, what vast cargoes were brought from the Rio Janeiro, before the gold mines in that country were discovered.

ST SEBASTIAN city is the capital of this country, and stands commodiously in 23 degrees south latitude on the west of the river, about two leagues from the sea. It is the seat of the Portuguese governor, a bishop's see, suffragan to the archbishop of St Salvador, and is well fortified.

There are likewise several other considerable towns on the Rio Janeiro, all of which have a large share of trade, as may appear from the number of ships which compose the fleet sent hither annually from Portugal, and which consists of between 20 and 30 sail of vessels, of 500 tons burden, which are usually escorted by two men of war.

The commodities brought from hence are generally the same with those from the Bay of All Saints, diamonds only excepted.—In regard to the diamond-mines, it is about forty years since, that some precious stones were brought to the city of St Sebastian, taken out of a small river lying westward of that city, which were at first judged to be very fine pebbles, but it was not so soon that they were brought over to Europe. About the close of queen Anne's war, these fine pebbles were found in greater quantities; and we are told, that some rich planters began to employ their slaves in digging the black heavy earth, on the sides of the mountains, from whence this river descended, and then these stones were found in greater plenty: some of them were very large, but most of a black or yellowish cast, which blemished their lustre, and sunk their value; notwithstanding which, many of the yellow stones were brought to Lisbon and sold for topazes. See the article TOPAZ.

After the crown of Portugal interposed, the working of these mines were prohibited; which, however, did not hinder their coming in considerable quantities; for it was sometimes said, they were found in this or that river, and not dug out of any mine; sometimes they had other names given them, and many were sent to St Salvador, and from thence exported to Europe, under pretence of their coming from the East-Indies by the Goa fleet. This involuntary fraud raised their value, and at length the crown of Portugal became convinced, that such as pretended to great skill in stones had deceived them, and that some of these Brazil stones were scarce to be distinguished from Oriental diamonds: upon this the court altered their measures, and it was permitted to send over rough diamonds in the Rio Janeiro fleet, under certain restrictions; which licence rendering the value of those jewels still more and more apparent, the king of Portugal resolved to put this trade under a new regulation. This new order took place in the year 1740, when his Portuguese majesty let these mines to a company at Rio Janeiro, for an annual rent of 138,000 crusadoes, which is 26,000*l.* of our money, upon condition that they employed no more than 600 slaves at these mines.

These stones coming into Europe, sunk the price of diamonds at first considerably; but this discovery has, notwithstanding, proved highly beneficial to the Portuguese, since it has operated in their favour greatly, with regard to the general balance of their trade; for as they have disposed of these stones to any nation, upon whom they have already a balance, they must bring money into the kingdom; and if, on the other hand, they have sold them to such nations to whom they pay a balance in trade, this has lessened the balance in the favour of such nations, and has prevented the exportation of gold in the like proportion; so that take it either way, the discovery of these diamond mines has been of high consequence, and may prove still of far greater advantage to this nation.

ST VINCENT captainship lies southward from that of Rio Janeiro, which is the richest country in Brazil, perhaps in all South America. It is bounded on the north by the captainship of Rio Janeiro, on the east by the ocean, on the south by that of Del Rey, and on the west by the mountains of La Plata, and countries inhabited by various savage nations: it extends from the latitude of 22 degrees to 27 degrees south, and is in length from north to south about 300 miles, and in breadth from east to west, in some places near 180 miles, but the greatest part of it is not above half so broad.

ST VINCENT town is situated on a fine bay of the Atlantic Ocean, or a kind of peninsula according to some, well fortified: a little to the north-west lies the town of Santos, which some look upon to be the capital of the province; and which has as fine a port as any in the West-Indies, capable of holding the largest ships.

R E M A R K S.

A summary of this trade and possession.

The extent of this colony and government is the greatest at this time in the world, that is administered by one deputy or viceroy: the dominions of the Spaniards in America are, indeed, greater, but then they are divided into separate governments, and under governors independent of one another, though all subject to the same sovereign.

The proper bounds of this colony from north to south, is from the river Amazons to the river Paraguay, or La Plata, [see the article PARAGUAY] above 2200 miles, being from the line, or within half a degree of it, to latitude 37 degrees south, and the breadth above 1000 miles; but of that indeed they possess very little, for the Portuguese are so ill beloved by the natives, and the latter, who are a terrible people, and the most furious and bloody of all savages, are so numerous in the inland parts of the country, that the Portuguese, who are not the bravest men in the world, dare not venture far among them; that is, dare not plant far from the coast. And this is the reason, that though the Brazils are so exceeding large as above, and that the Portuguese are possessed of the whole coast for above 2000 miles, yet they are hardly any where settled above fifty miles from the sea, except in the Bay of All Saints, and on the south parts to the banks of the Rio de la Plata; which also may be called a coast, because bounded by the banks of that great river.

The length of the sea-coast entitles them to a great many good ports for trade; and the extent of the land entitles them to many different productions fit for merchandize. As the most northern parts are excessively hot, being under the line, and consequently cannot produce corn or maintain cattle; on the contrary, the southernmost parts produce very good corn and maize, and such an abundance of cattle, that the hides and tallow are very considerable articles in their exportations. The produce of the country in general is as follows.

Rice, corn, maize, sugar, cotton, tobacco, Brazil woods, fustic, hides, tallow. Some valuable stones and metals, as emeralds, jasper, crystal, diamonds, silver, gold: drugs, as balm, lacque, saffron, ambergrease, cassavy.

But the chief produce for merchandize besides the gold and diamonds, are only three of these heads, namely, sugar, tobacco, and hides.

It was many years the Portuguese carried on the trade of this colony, and with success too, without knowing any thing of its subterranean wealth: silver, indeed, they expected, though they found very little at first; and the number of ships sent to the Brazils, was usually but from nine to twelve sail in a fleet, and those fleets once a year; one fleet to the Bay of All Saints, and the other to Fernambuco, then newly recovered from the Dutch.

About the year 1680, they discovered a great deal of gold in the mountains, at some distance from the city of St Salvador; and after that they found the like in several other parts, chiefly in the mountainous country, and remote from the sea: by this their trade has been so enlarged, and the number of their inhabitants so wonderfully increased, multitudes going over every year, tempted by the good fortune of their countrymen, that it is supposed the Portuguese in Brazil will in a few years be richer and more numerous than they are in Portugal itself.

The increase of this commerce may be guessed at by this, that they are said to bring yearly from the Brazils to Portugal, the value of five millions sterling in gold, coined and uncoined, besides a great quantity of sugar, tobacco, and hides.

The tobacco is a very considerable article, it comes all very fine drest, and spun up in great rolls, which sometimes weigh between two and three hundred weight: it is most of it made afterwards into fine snuff, which is somewhat medicinal, and is esteemed the most valuable tobacco in the world.

On the south side of the Brazils, towards the Rio Paraguay, there are such multitudes of cattle running wild, that thousands of them are killed every year for the hides and tallow; and every fleet brings home the hides to Portugal, sometimes from 17 or 18,000, to 20,000 at a time.

In return for all this wealth, the Portuguese send over in every fleet exceeding large quantities of the richest European goods, and especially of British manufactures about 30 years since, of which they made such vast demands in England, that in the year 1722, Portugal took off more English goods in one year, than ever Portugal and Spain together had called for in any year before 1700.

This general trade, as has been shewn, still continues, and is like to continue and increase, among the European powers in general, though it is in a great declension with relation to England in particular, if the flux of gold continues in the country; and, as the Portuguese tell us it is inexhaustible, we may venture to say it will increase; because, as the wealth of the Portuguese in the Brazils shall increase, so also will their numbers of inhabitants: for every fleet carries away multitudes of people, who go thither to plant and settle, so that the colony spreads continually; and as they increase, and their wealth increases, so their expence in living (as it is with all the European nations) will increase every year, and consequently they will make still larger demands of goods from the other European states, and England is entitled to have a share equal to the encouragement she gives to the consumption of the wines and fruit of that kingdom.

It is for the support of this vast colony, and for working in the hills where this treasure is found, that the Portuguese call

for so many negroes from Africa; and the number is so great which they have now there, that if we may believe the Portuguese, they have above 200,000 in that part only which lies to the south of the Bay of All Saints, and inclusive of the bay and colony adjoining; besides what they have at Fernambuco, where they may, perhaps, employ one third of the number more.

Nor can it be less, if they carry over 50,000; and more, every year from the eastern coast of Africa, as hath been affirmed to be the case by themselves, when speaking of the Portuguese trade at the city of Melinda on the coast of Mozambique.

The Portuguese had not shewn any great concern, either for extending or improving their territories in Brazil after the expulsion of the Dutch, 'till a certain statesman advised Don Pedro, about the year 1685, to think of improving his American dominions, and more especially the two extremities of Brazil.

That minister suggested, that the climate at the Bay of All Saints, would frustrate whatever endeavours might be used to render the people active and industrious; but that it was otherwise, both with the northern and southern extremities of Brazil, where a wise government and a little encouragement, might render the country of much greater advantage to the crown of Portugal, than hitherto it had been. This advice was received and followed, which gave birth, on the one hand, to the establishing the Portuguese forts and settlements towards the river of Amazons; and on the other, to the improvement of the new colony at Santos, which was then but very small.

The method taken for this purpose was singular enough; most of the persons made choice of were of the mixed herd, or, as the Portuguese call them, Mestices, who married Brazilian women, and the person intrusted with the government of these new plantations, were priests and monks; but they were sent expressly from Portugal, and care was taken that they should be fit for the purpose. The captain-general of Brazil, and all the officers of the southern captainships, had orders to treat these people kindly, and to give them no disturbance in their measures.

It very soon appeared by the effects, that this plan was very wisely concerted; for they multiplied prodigiously, and, in the space of about fifteen years, the priests added several hundreds of families to their colony; extending westward fourscore or one hundred miles, farther than the Portuguese had any settlements before that time. By degrees they purchased slaves, more especially the ecclesiasticks, whom they employed in the silver mines; and, treating the negroes better than most of their neighbours, they soon became very rich; so that several parish-priests in the captainship of St Vincent were worth from ten to fifteen thousand crusadoes; that is, from fifteen hundred to eight thousand pounds sterling a piece. They paid the king's fifth very regularly, and this was the beginning of the riches drawn from this part of the world. But when it was once known, that so much wealth was to be had in these hitherto uncultivated regions, there began very soon to resort thither abundance of adventurers, of all countries and of all characters; when we say of all countries, we mean Spaniards as well as Portuguese, free negroes, Mulattoes, and all the different mixtures that are to be met with in Brazil, down to the Caribos, who are the offspring of Brazilian savages by negro women; and by different characters, we mean monks as well as laymen, soldiers, mechanics, broken planters; and, in short, all that sort of men who are ready to go any where, or do any thing to get a living. As these were quite a different race from those of the new colony before-mentioned, it is not to be supposed that they could dwell together, more especially as the former were the quietest and most simple, the latter the most riotous and turbulent, people in the world.

These adventurers, therefore, took care to look out for a new settlement, and they found one of the properest places in the world for their reception, at no great distance. This was the thick and vast forest of Parnabaccaba, which overspread all the mountains at the back of this captainship, and in which hitherto none but wild beasts took up their dwelling. They soon cleared a part of this wilderness for their habitation, in which they established not only a new town, which they call San Paulo, but a new republic also, in which they lived after the manner they liked best. At first this was overlooked, because the country was judged of no great value, and the adjacent captainships were very well pleased to be rid of those sort of folk, who resorted thither. In the space, however, of a very few years, they grew too strong to be dealt with; for, receiving, as they did, all sorts of people, they quickly increased from two or three hundred, to as many thousand men; and being a bold, hardy, enterprising, and daring crew, the governors knew not how to manage them. In the first place they took care to fortify the avenues to their territory, which were naturally strong; and they seldom ventured abroad, but in bodies of fourscore or one hundred men, and in such parties they frequently traversed the whole extent of Brazil. These were the people who first discovered and wrought the gold mines, which must be excessively rich,

since they were able to obtain such vast quantities of metal, without any of those assistances which the Spaniards have in their settlements in Chili.

As this required, however, a great number of hands, they seized upon all the straggling Indians and negroes they could meet with, and compelled them to undergo such fatigues as they thought proper.

This new and extraordinary commonwealth, was denominated; from the place of its situation, Paulists, and they would not suffer any of the Portuguese officers to enter their territories; yet they acknowledged the sovereignty of the crown of Portugal, and paid regularly what they said was the fifth of the gold they obtained; which, in the year 1691, amounted to one thousand marks, or eight thousand ounces; which shews, that at that time they drew annually from the rivers and mountains in their possession, forty thousand ounces of gold: they took care, however, every time they paid the tribute, to declare, they did it freely, and of their own accord, out of respect to the crown of Portugal, and not from any sort of fear or sense of obligation. The tyranny of the governors of Brazil, and the oppression of the Spanish governors in the adjacent provinces, furnished this new state with abundance of members, so that at last it became a very difficult thing to get admittance amongst them, and the method in this respect was singular enough to deserve notice.

They obliged such as presented themselves upon their frontiers, which they never suffered any stranger to enter, to submit to a very strict examination, that they might know whether they were fit for their community, and to be sure they were not spies, or persons who intended to betray them: upon the bare suspicion of which, they made no scruple of beating their brains out: but if, upon this examination, they judged they might prove useful members, they obliged them to bring in two slaves for their support; assigning them a dwelling and plantation, by which they commenced Paulists, and were to continue so to the end of their lives; for any attempt to desert, was punished with death without mercy. They made no exception of country or complexion; a savage was as welcome to them as an European; and every man after his admission, was at liberty to lead what kind of life he liked best, provided he did not disturb the peace of the society. The Jesuits of Paraguay, either as they pretended out of concern for the souls of the people, or rather moved by the report of their great riches, made several attempts to get amongst them, but to no sort of purpose; yet they lived upon very fair terms with this strange society; and the Portuguese shrewdly suspected, that the reverend fathers furnished them with fire-arms and ammunition, because they knew not how they could be furnished any other way. See the article PARAGUAY.

How this little republic was subverted, we do not satisfactorily learn; but it is certain, that all this country is now in the hands of the Portuguese, and as much under the obedience of the king of Portugal, as any other part of Brazil; but the city of St Paul is still looked upon as the center of the mines, and a garrison is maintained there for their security. Nor are we well informed, in what manner the gold is wrought or refined there; but, in all probability, their chief works are lavadero's, since we do not hear of their using quicksilver, as the Spaniards do: but it is very certain, that they are much increased in value, since the king of Portugal's fifth amounts very commonly to about 300,000 l. per annum: and it appears by the latest account, that these mines in particular are continually improving.

DEL REY is the only captainship to the southward of that of St Vincent, extending from the latitude of 28 to 34 degrees 30 minutes south, being about four hundred miles in length, but not above one hundred broad in any part of it. The country is fruitful and pleasant, but the Portuguese absolutely neglected it, 'till the discovery of the mines of St Vincent put them upon planting and securing it, by erecting several forts on the north side the river La Plata, to which the Spaniards formerly pretended, and upon which they are still supposed to cast a jealous eye.

The country in this province is as pleasant and fruitful as any in Brazil, and as capable of improvement; but as it has not been so long inhabited as the other captainships, it is far from being thoroughly peopled. There are only a few villages upon the sea-coast, and some fortresses upon the river of Plate. The chief advantage which the Portuguese draw at present from this province, is a kind of smuggling trade, which they carry on with the Spaniards whom they furnish with rum and tobacco of their own growth, and with wines, brandy, cloths, silks, and linens from Europe; which occasion quarrels and disputes between the two nations, though in reality the true ground of their contentions is the thirst of gold in both parties, and the desire that each has of becoming idle possessors of the large ridge of mountains, which are the western boundaries of this province and that of St Vincent, and are supposed to be full of mines.

Some speculative politicians have insinuated, that it is not impossible, that the Spaniards may, some time or other, carry their point; but if they do, they must begin with the Paraguay Indians who are at present subject only to the Jesuits;

for

for otherwise it is very certain, that they cannot raise men enough to give the Portuguese any uneasiness, who, though they have not people to spare for settling this last district in Brazil, have, however, such numbers in the adjacent captainship of St Vincent, as would very soon repel any invasion from their neighbours, who, after all, it is very certain, are on this side rather weaker than themselves. So that struggles of this nature, if ever this should happen, may be reputed at a great distance; and, if the Portuguese were as free from any apprehension of intestine disorders, it might be affirmed, that scarce any colony is more secure than that of Brazil. But this may one day give some other power an occasion of supplanting the Portuguese, if they especially are weak enough to forfeit the good-will of Great-Britain towards them.

The small country of Portugal, which had hitherto made so inconsiderable a figure among the kingdoms of Europe, began to take the lead of them all; and, from creeping along the coasts of Africa with a few little vessels, her fleets began to stretch to the East-Indies, [see the article PORTUGUEZE EAST-INDIA TRADE] and to embrace that trade, which was the object of Alexander's ambition. The East-Indies, by the rout of the Cape of Good Hope, was their proper discovery; and, though Columbus had a little the start of them, yet the finding and settling of Brazil, plainly proves that America could not have lain long hid from their researches.

The fruit of these great discoveries and conquests, was a prodigious trade, immense riches, and an amazing naval power, all deduced from a right turn in the government, which established it's power in the extension of that of it's subjects, without exerting a tyrannical authority over them. This created fleets, armies, and a dominion superior to any thing the Europeans had enjoyed, from the destruction of the Roman empire. These are the effects of well chosen colonies! But as a true and laudable ambition raised the Portuguese to such a height, a false and bastard ambition made way for their ruin. Sebastian king of Portugal was a hero, he had all the virtues incident to that character, but they took a wrong turn: he embarked the whole force of Portugal in a war upon the continent for his own glory, and to serve no national purpose whatsoever; there he perished, and all his army with him; which, in itself, was a great misfortune to his subjects, but in it's consequences a much greater; for this threw them under the dominion of Spain, which was the greatest mischief that could befall them; for after this, there appeared no public spirit in the government; all their conquests in the East-Indies were either given to men who had an interest at the court of Spain, or to such as that court desired to get out of their way.

There was no longer any spirit of virtue, generosity, or concern for public good, either left or encouraged; the enriching of private families took place of this, and while a few of these carried their point, the Dutch stripped them of their empire in the East-Indies, and bid fair for making themselves masters of Brazil; which, if they had, Portugal had remained a province of Spain, and not a very considerable province ~~neither~~.

When the Portuguese recovered their former government, they recovered spirit enough to preserve Brazil; but since that time, the court has been infected with the Spanish policy; and the desire of extending their royal power has, in a great measure, extinguished that spirit which once made them a great people. But, to confine our reflections to Brazil, the great point in the Portuguese councils at present is to secure this trade, or at least the profits of it, to the crown; in order to which, the several fleets destined for Parayba, Fernambuco, the Bay of All Saints, and Rio Janeiro, sail as regularly as the Spanish galleons, and in the very same manner. If this trade had been left more open, the number of ships would have been vastly greater, and there would have been no need of men of war to escort them, or of another squadron being sent to look out for, and bring them home, as is at present the case every year, and yet the Algerines frequently pick up some.

Yet all this policy is far from producing mighty things, as we shall see from a few examples: Brazil-wood is now a royal commodity, that is to say, it is sold for the advantage of the crown only [see BRAZIL-WOOD]; and it produces about 200,000 crusadoes, which is something better than 30,000*l*. sterling annually: we have already seen what the diamond-farm brings in: and take the whole of the king's fifth from the gold-mines, and it will never be found to exceed a million of our money.

There was, indeed, a project of quite another kind set on foot, for the improvement, as they call it, of this trade in Portugal, of which we shall give a very short account. In the year 1709, the king of Portugal, perceiving that the vast quantities of gold that came from Brazil did but just touch at Lisbon, and then travelled over all the countries of Europe, directed this matter to be very seriously examined in his council: supposing, that if a method could be found out to prevent this gold from straying, the business would be done, and himself become, at once, the richest prince in

Europe. His council accordingly examined this point very carefully, and they reported that the English and Dutch ran away with all the gold, in consequence of their furnishing the goods and manufactures, which should be prohibited in that colony; and that the people should be content with what could be sent them from Portugal. This was considered as a great stroke of policy, and was on the very point of being put in execution, when it was prevented by the famous lord Galway, as we have before noticed under the article PORTUGAL.

Further OBSERVATIONS on the nature of this TRADE.

'There is not a place in the world, says an ingenious French author, in a voyage to the Brazils in the year 1717, China only excepted, where there is so much trouble to get on shore, or to know how to act when one is on shore, as in Brazil. We came into this bay on the 16th of November, and, when we were within a league of the city of St Salvador, we were restrained from proceeding any further, by a gun fired from a little fort, upon which we came to an anchor, and sent our sepercargo ashore in our boat; he was a very sensible man, and withal had a great deal of gravity, a quality of all others the most necessary for one who has any business to transact with the Portuguese. As soon as he came ashore, he was conducted to an audience of the viceroy, who received him with a great deal of state, and yet shewed him, at the same time, as much civility as he could expect. He told his excellency, That he came on behalf of three French ships homeward-bound from the East-Indies, that were in many respects greatly distressed, and had no hopes of performing their voyage, but from his affording them protection and relief.

The viceroy continued for some minutes silent, and then gave him his answer to this effect: That he was very sorry for their misfortune, because his master's orders were very precise against admitting any foreign vessels into any port; and that he was the more concerned to hear that they were French, because it was chiefly on their account that these orders were given, because several vessels of their nation, that had been admitted into the ports of that country upon the very same pretences, had carried on an illegal trade directly contrary to the king's orders, and had shipped great quantities of tobacco. He told him further, That the king's orders were to seize and confiscate, without distinction, whatever foreign vessels entered that port, unless it plainly appeared they were in such a condition as not to be able to keep the sea; that therefore they were to have 24 hours given them to consider whether they would come and anchor under the guns of the fort, in order to be examined, or to put to sea without receiving any relief at all. He added, That if the case was such as our agent represented it, he might very freely enter the port, and, upon examination, all the care should be taken to assist and supply him that he could desire; but that he would do well to remember that the Portuguese were not to be imposed upon.

As our ship was really in such a condition that we had no reason to fear any examination, we made sail immediately on the return of our supercargo, and came to an anchor under the fort. The next day the judge came on board, attended by several secretaries, and other officers, all of them very grave sober-looking people, who examined every thing with all the nicety and strictness of an inquisition. They called for our journals, questioned our pilots, mariners, and even the cabin-boys, particularly as to this point, Whether we had not formed a design of touching at Brazil before we were in such distress? They all answered in the negative; but still we had so little hopes, that every one in the ship, who had it in his power, made them some present or other, which they took indeed, but scarce gave us thanks. At last they took their leave, and sent some carpenters on board, to whom our captain made such an application, that they reported our leaks to be so dangerous, that the crew were very much alarmed, and were afraid of sinking before they got out of the ship.

As soon as this report was made, we had leave to go on shore, which was refused us before, and we had also leave given us to take lodgings where we thought fit in the city, but with strict caution not to attempt any kind of trade on pain of forfeiting both ship and cargo. The officers put on board the vessel talked the same language at first; but seeing the impression it made, and that our people were very exact in that particular, they were so kind as to explain themselves the third day, telling us that this was all a farce; that the judges themselves knew it; that they understood by our presents, we were a good sort of people, and that we should have, every night, boats come off with all sorts of merchandize, and that they would take care we should run no sort of risque, either in buying or selling. The boats came accordingly, and though at first we were a little suspicious, yet, in one week's time, their language was perfectly understood, and trade went on briskly every evening, as soon as it was dark.'

A SHORT HISTORY thereof.

The Portuguese were once the chief navigators of the world, and the first Europeans who visited the Indian coast from the new way by the Cape of Good Hope.—Upon their arrival, on their first voyage, at Callicut, on the coast of Malabar, they found Zamorin, the king of the country, receiving them kindly, and encouraging his people to trade with them, and offering to enter into a league with the king of Portugal, for settling a further commerce to mutual advantage.

They found in all the ports of India abundance of shipping, of Arabians and Moors: those called Moors were such as Ethiopians or Egyptians, who dwelt on the west border of the Red Sea, and traded by their shipping between the said sea and the coast of India, Malabar, Ceylon, Coromandel, Golconda, Bengal, &c. as also others, who were mere Arabians, from the gulph of Persia.

These traders, when the Portuguese first came, were as civil to them as Zamorin was before: but, when they came to understand that these Portuguese were Europeans, that they had found a way about by long sea, from the coast of Spain and Portugal, into their Indies, and, returning the same way, they would carry the Indian goods directly thither, and without seeing that they were stout ships, of prodigious burthen, and would carry a great quantity of goods, and that also they had more ships (for a second fleet of 13 sail soon arrived), they presently found that all their trade to Suez, and to the Arabian and Persian gulphs (the way whereby it had been carried on before) would be ruined: upon which they turned first the secret, and at last, the open and implacable enemies of the Portuguese, and of their whole commerce; and they shewed it first by provoking Zamorin, the king of Callicut, against them, and making him, from their friend, become their utter enemy.—This was in the year 1499.

The next year Alvarez de Cabrale, another Portuguese admiral, coming again with six ships more, the same people opposed him also, not only by engaging the king against them, but by engrossing all the goods, and forestalling the markets: so that, notwithstanding the king's orders, the Portuguese could buy nothing.

But the Portuguese were not, in those days, so easily mastered as they have been since; for on complaint to the king, and his majesty declaring that it was not with his knowledge, or by his direction, the admiral, Seignior de Cabrale, fell upon the Moors and Arabs ships in the harbour [the Arabians were at that time called Saracens] and soon beating their sailors, they disposed of their cargoes much cheaper and better than they might have had them before. This put the Arabians upon a military revenge: for the Portuguese having taken several houses on shore in the town, the Arabians attacked them in the night, plundered them, and killed several of the Portuguese.

Cabrale applied for satisfaction to the king, concluding, that as he had disowned the Arabians before, he would absolutely renounce them now: but the king appearing partial and cold, and the Portuguese not obtaining the satisfaction which they demanded, their admiral attacked 10 other Arabian ships in the same harbour, killed all the men, and unladed the ships into his own: and, when he had so done, to convince the king that he had not courted his friendship out of fear of his power, he turned his broad-sides upon the city, and furiously battered it for several hours; and, leaving it in that shattered condition, sailed out of the harbour before their faces, for Cochin, where he was kindly received, and all the trading advantages given him that he could desire.

The next voyage the Portuguese made was not to Callicut, but directly to Cochin: but the Arabians, &c. not forgetting the affront offered them before, fell upon them with 20 stout ships in those days; but Vasco de Gama, another Portuguese admiral, gave them so warm a reception, that he entirely overthrew them. From this time the Portuguese grew potent in the Indies, and carried on a prodigious commerce, by means of their forts and settlements.

It was towards the latter end of the sixteenth century that the English and Dutch began to interfere with the Portuguese in these parts; and they very soon, by the assistance of the natives, took from them the most considerable places they possessed, and some of them they abandoned themselves. It would take up a great deal of room, and, perhaps, answer the purpose but indifferently, if we should attempt to give a large history of the manner in which these places were reduced, and therefore we shall rather take them in the course of their situation, by which the reader will clearly perceive how the empire of this nation in the East was dissolved.

Shah Abbas, when monarch of Persia, had an earnest desire to rid himself of the neighbourhood of the Portuguese; but he wanted a maritime force sufficient to accomplish his design, and, therefore, he applied himself to the English, who had likewise suffered much by the pride and avarice of the Portuguese; and, by their assistance, part of his forces were transported into the island of Ormuz (whereof the Portuguese

were possessed) which was attacked both by land and sea, on the 20th of January, 1622. The defendants behaved with great bravery and good conduct, and made a noble resistance; but the English having destroyed their fleet, took the garrison, which ruined the power of the Portuguese on that side.

The rich city of Surat, formerly a place of the greatest trade in the Indies, suffered severely from the Portuguese, who burnt it down to the ground, on purpose to favour the commerce of their own city of Diu, which stands at the entry of the gulph of Cambaya, and which they had rendered one of the strongest and finest places in the East, keeping the monarch of that country in absolute subjection. But, notwithstanding their policy in this respect, and that they still remained masters of Diu*, yet the Indian princes in the neighbourhood traded freely with all Europeans; and Surat, which they took so much pains to destroy in 1520, is now in as flourishing a condition as ever, and the Portuguese are almost the only nation that are not benefited by its traffic.

* This city of Diu stands in the latitude of 21 degrees, 20 minutes, upon an island about a league in length, and not a third part of a league in breadth. The country about it abounds with all the necessaries of life; and the city itself is as well built, and as well fortified, as any in the Indies. At present, the Portuguese are about to establish as well the trade of this city, as of others in the Indies.

On this coast they were possessed of several strong places, down to Goa; of these, Daman is still in their hands, and is a place of pretty good trade; Bacaim is lately fallen into the hands of the Indians. Bombay they yielded to the English, on the marriage of queen Catherine with king Charles II. and has continued in our hands ever since. From Goa to Cape Comorin they had also very considerable settlements, most of which they have been dispossessed of by the Dutch, who in the year 1663 becoming masters of Cranganor, Cochin, and Coulam, soon after deprived them of Cananor, which was the first place they had settled at: and thus was their power greatly reduced on the coast of Malabar.

Doubling this famous cape, and proceeding along the coast of Coromandel, we meet first with the port and fortress of Nagapatan, which, when the Portuguese came first into the Indies, was no more than a village; but they, considering the importance of the place, fortified it with great care, and rendered it in every respect very considerable. But after the Dutch had deprived them of the island of Ceylon, they did not long let them rest here, but, by the assistance of an Indian prince, besieged and became masters of that place, in 1658. From thence all along the coast, quite up to Bengal, the Portuguese have lost all power; and as for settlements, they had none of any great consequence to lose, having, in the time of their greatest power, contented themselves with a small establishment at Meliapour, or St Thomas, restraining all the rest of the coast by their squadrons, which were continually cruising in the bay of Bengal.

On the opposite side of the gulph, the Portuguese had once very great power in the kingdom of Pegu [see PEGU] in consequence of their assisting the monarch of that country against the king of Siam, who had invaded his territories, and would very probably have made him his tributary, if a body of Portuguese had not come to his assistance, by whom he was enabled not only to defend himself effectually against his enemy, but even to pursue him into his own country.

It is very easy to discern what mighty advantages might have accrued to the Portuguese from this favourable turn, if they had known how to improve it; but what might have turned so much to their benefit, proved, by their own ill management, the cause of their ruin, and that in a very short space of time. The king of Pegu, it seems, was so sensible of the service they had done him, in driving the king of Siam out of his country, that, in pure gratitude, he made one Seignior Thomas Pereyra, who commanded the Portuguese in the war, generalissimo of all his forces, which preferment made the Portuguese so insolent, that, in a few years, they became intolerable to all ranks and degrees of persons in Pegu. Both kings grew tired of war, but both were too proud to make advances towards peace; so that, for many years, they had skirmishes with small parties, though not set battles; and wherever the Portuguese arms went, they had victory to accompany them.

The king of Pegu, to have his forces nearer the borders of Siam, settled his court at Martavan, and kept the Portuguese near him, to be ready upon all occasions, either to repel or assault the Siam forces, as opportunity served; and Thomas Pereyra was the great favourite at court: he had his elephants of state, and a guard of his own countrymen to attend him.—But he lost his life, and the Portuguese were all cut off, from an act of violence committed by him on the wife of one of the natives.

The kingdom, or, as some call it, the empire of Siam, lies next to Pegu, and is a country of vast extent, the monarch of which was too powerful for the Portuguese to think of making any great conquest in his dominions, and therefore they chose to live with him upon good terms, for the sake of the vast trade carried on in his dominions, which are extremely

tremely well situated for commerce, having on one side the kingdoms of Laos, Camboya, and Cochin-China, and on the other the countries bordering on the gulph of Bengal. Besides, there annually resorted thither a fleet of merchant-ships from China, laden with all the rich goods of that empire. They continued to hold a fair correspondence with this monarch and his subjects, as long as their power subsisted in the Indies; but, by degrees, the Dutch have, in a great measure, excluded them from their influence here since 1630, when they erected their factory here, and have since wrought themselves so effectually into the confidence of this prince, that he has granted them an exclusive privilege of purchasing all the tin in his dominions, which is a branch of commerce of prodigious importance; yet the Portuguese are not wholly ejected, though their trade is greatly fallen from what it was. There are several small principalities on the isthmus, before one comes to the country of Malacca, which were all of them formerly under the power of the Portuguese, as appears by their retaining still a mixture of that language with their own. The chief of these principalities are those of Ligor on one side, and Quedah on the other; but the people are so barbarous and perfidious, that the Europeans carry on scarce any trade on their coasts.

The great peninsula of Malacca, at the time the Portuguese came thither, was subject to the king of Johore; but the viceroys of the crown of Portugal attacked, and made themselves masters of that city. After it came into their hands, it changed its conditions entirely; and from being a place of small account, in a short time became famous all over India and Europe, lying almost in the centre of trade, brought thither by shipping from the rich kingdoms of Japan, China, Formosa, Luconia, Tonquin, Cochin-China, Cambodia, and Siam, besides what Johore produced, and Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Macassar, Banda, Amboina, and Ternate Islands, that abound in valuable commodities.

After Goa and Ormuz, this was by very far the richest city in the Indies, and a great market for all the different commodities that these countries produced. The whole was encompassed with a strong stone wall, regularly fortified with bastions, the place extremely well peopled, and the garrison numerous, and well supplied, because the Portuguese considered it as the eastern frontier of their dominions.

In 1605, the Dutch [see the article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY], who were then become very potent in the Indies, attacked and destroyed the fleet of the Portuguese here, consisting of thirty-four sail, on board of which were three thousand men; but they were not able to take the place. The next year, the king of Johore invested it with an army of sixty thousand men, in revenge of what the Portuguese had done against him three years before, when they took and destroyed his capital; however, he was obliged to raise the siege with great loss. But the Dutch well knowing the importance of the place, and the vast advantages accruing to the Portuguese from its situation and commerce, the former affording them an opportunity of levying 10 per cent. upon all vessels passing through the Straights, and the latter producing annually a large revenue, they attacked it in the year 1640, so vigorously, that they became masters of it, after a siege of six months. The walls and fortifications they preserved, and some of the churches, and the great hospital they have turned into a warehouse. In the kingdom of Cambodia, or Camboia, the Portuguese have still a considerable trade, and they are likewise well received in Tonquin.

The troubles in the Low-Countries, which produced a war between the crown of Spain and the republic of the United Provinces, began about 1570, and England interposing in favour of the States, their power increased to such a degree, that they were not only able to defend themselves against Spain by land, but to give that potent monarchy inexplicable trouble by sea. But this war seems to have no relation to Portugal, and we do not hear of their attacking any but the Portuguese settlements in the East-Indies. In order to resolve this difficulty, we must remember that the crown of Portugal was united to that of Spain in 1579, by which means Philip II. became master of both the Indies, and consequently the States of the United Provinces were as much at war with the Portuguese, who were subjects to the king of Spain, as with any of the rest of his subjects; and consequently this gave them a right to attack the Portuguese settlements, both in the East and West-Indies, which they prosecuted with such vigour, that they bid fair for becoming masters of all that the Portuguese had possessed in either Indies.

We have seen what mighty acquisitions they have made in the East; but it is necessary to our subject to observe likewise, that their West-India company became in that space of time, so powerful, as to make almost an entire conquest of Brazil. It is very evident from hence, that nothing but the union of the crowns of Spain and Portugal could have afforded the Dutch either a pretence for attacking, or an opportunity of reducing these countries, both of which, in a singular degree, they from this accident obtained. For as, on the one hand, his Catholic Majesty had enough to do in defending his hereditary dominions, before this accession of the territories of

Portugal; so he was tempted to apply the revenues of that crown to the immediate wants of the Spanish government, which we may conclude were very great, since on his death-bed he owned, that the wars of the Low-Countries had cost him five hundred and sixty-four millions of ducats, which is upwards of one hundred and twelve millions of our money; whence it is easy to perceive, that he could not spare as much as was requisite for the defence of the Portuguese territories. On the other hand, the Portuguese themselves, though they had always been distinguished for their loyalty to their natural princes, were far enough from shewing so much zeal in the service of the king of Spain; and it is very natural, when the minds of private men are entirely despoiled of public spirit, for the affairs of the state to fall into confusion.

But one would have imagined, that after the separation of Portugal from Spain, which happened in the year 1640, things would have taken another turn; because, with king John IV. the Dutch had no pretence of making war. To give the reader a clear idea of this matter, we must remember that the Dutch had taken Brazil from the king of Spain, or rather from the Portuguese, while they were his subjects; but afterwards, that nation considering this as an injury not to be borne, attempted to drive the Dutch out, notwithstanding the treaty concluded between the States and the king of Portugal, in 1641; which, to say the truth, had been but indifferently observed on both sides*; that is to say, the Dutch had encroached upon the Portuguese in the East-Indies, and they, on the other hand, gave the Dutch little or no respite in Brazil, out of which, in ten years time, they drove them entirely.

* At the time the Portuguese delivered themselves from the Spanish yoke, the Dutch were employed in reducing the island of Ceylon, and made use of abundance of artifices, in order to prosecute the advantages they had gained, notwithstanding the peace concluded between the States-General and the crown of Portugal in Europe; neither did they desist from their hostilities, even after the peace was proclaimed in the Indies, but continued to give the Portuguese almost as much trouble as while the war continued. This they did under pretence of being allies to such Indian princes as were at war with the Portuguese; and where this pretence was wanting, they took care, by their emissaries, to stir up new wars, and, under pretence of restoring the Indians to their freedom, contrived things so as to engage them in long and bloody wars, which had no other end than to oblige them to change their masters, with this difference only; that whereas the Portuguese endeavoured to keep large countries, and to oblige the Indian princes to pay homage to the king of Portugal, the Dutch contented themselves with the sea coasts, and forbidding those princes to trade with any other nation; so that their slavery was equally great, though not always equally apparent, which ever side prevailed.

About this time died king John IV. and left his son Alphonso VI. a minor, which advantage the Dutch took to declare war against the crown of Portugal, from a persuasion that this opportunity of regaining what they had lost in the West, and prosecuting their conquests in the East-Indies, was not to be lost; the rather because Portugal was at that time engaged in a dangerous war with Spain, and the Dutch had lately concluded a peace with that crown.

It was in consequence of this new war, that the Dutch attacked the Portuguese again in the East-Indies, and even endeavoured to deprive them of Goa; but in this they did not succeed: and, on the other hand, the Portuguese found means to traverse all the attempts that the Dutch made to establish a trade in China, as also to raise such a storm, as deprived them of the island of Formosa, which they had conquered, and which was of prodigious consequence to them.

But, in the mean time, the great fleets they sent to the East-Indies, enabled them not only to extend their conquests, but in the year 1661, to defeat the whole naval power of the Portuguese in two general engagements. But while the public suffered excessively from the consequences of this fatal war, some private merchants in Lisbon and in the East-Indies, fitted out so many privateers, and of such strength, that the Dutch suffered excessively in their trade; and therefore both nations began to be weary of the war, and inclined to a negotiation.

The crown of Great-Britain interposed its mediation, in consequence of the marriage between king Charles II. and the Infanta of Portugal, by which peace was brought about in the year 1661, and thereby the Portuguese were left in possession of Brazil, and the Dutch accepted a sum of money as a satisfaction for their pretensions.

In the East-Indies things were to remain as they then stood, and both parties were to keep what, at the conclusion of this peace, should be in their respective possessions; but the Dutch kept this no better than they did the former treaty; on the contrary, in 1663, they attacked all the places which the Portuguese held on the coasts of Malabar, particularly Cochin, which they had no sooner taken, than they destroyed all the wild, or bastard cinnamon, which, after the loss of Ceylon, had proved an advantageous branch of commerce to the Portuguese. There were high complaints made of this

in Europe to the States-General, who were either deceived by the plausible accounts given them by their East-India company, or pretended to be deceived, that they might, with a better grace, protract the negociation relating to this affair, 'till their subjects in the East-Indies had so fortified the places they had taken, as to put it entirely out of the power of the Portugueze to attempt the recovery of them. *

* The Dutch, though their East-India company gained sufficiently by these practices, suffered very severely, as a state, from the jealousies they excited in their neighbours. The English had some experience of a like disposition towards them; and though the French had not, at that time, any grounds of complaint in the Indies, yet they were far enough from being pleased with the growth of the Dutch naval power; and therefore readily joined in a war to humble them, as they phrased it, which was that of 1672; and how far the causes of that war were connected with the conduct of the Dutch in the Indies, may appear from a fact charged upon them by Mr Tavernier, who, in his Travels, relates, that the Dutch factory of Gambrun in Persia, publicly burnt the picture of king Charles II. in a fire partly made of cinnamon, which was such an indignity as that prince never forgot, and which gave a very bad impression of the Dutch to the Persians, who laboured all they could to hinder it.

These proceedings gave the finishing blow to the ruin almost of the Portugueze, who have never since been able to undertake any thing of consequence in the East-Indies; but, on the contrary, have exhausted much of their remaining strength in defending themselves against their Indian neighbours, who, encouraged by the progress of the Dutch, and excited thereto by some of their agents, have been since endeavouring to tear from them the small remains of their possessions in India, and have often kept Goa itself blocked up for many months together. We have already pointed out many of the causes of the declension of that mighty power, which, in so short a space of time, the crown of Portugal acquired in the East; but as this is, perhaps, the most useful part of the present article, it may not be amiss to add a few farther observations on this subject. One great cause of their ruin was, the circumstances of their government at home; where, for many years together, they were engaged in a long, expensive, and dangerous war against the crown of Spain, in defence of their independency, which at once employed their whole force, and exhausted their whole revenue. It is true, indeed, that this was rather the misfortune, than the fault of the Portugueze, since it was what they could not avoid; but it was, nevertheless, the great cause of their losses in the Indies.

We may add to this, their sending over men of too great quality, as viceroys to Goa, with a view rather to better their fortunes than the public service; which is the reason that, of late years, we hear nothing more of the Gamas, the Albuquerque, the Pereyras, or the Galvanos; but are forced to search for the names of their viceroys in the private registers of the palace, instead of the public records of history: besides, as these men have been, generally speaking, too poor to mind any thing so much as mending their own estates; so they have been too well allied to be called to any account, on their return, for their mal-administration.

When their affairs began first to decline in this part of the world, it was a common thing for a governor of Mosambique, which was esteemed the first viceroyship, and with all the other governors in the power of the viceroy, to become immensely rich. Now, as it is impossible that such exorbitant sums should be made any other way, than by oppressing the Indians, and taking large sums from the merchants, we may easily perceive, that all these private fortunes were made at the expence of the public interest.

The bad examples of the governors, had a bad effect on all the subordinate officers; so that pride, vanity, luxury, and a pompous display of wealth, attained by illicit means, took place of that disinterested public spirit, which enabled their ancestors to lay the foundation of so large an empire, with an inconsiderable part of that power, which was in the possession of those who lost it.

The clergy too followed the example of the laity, and instead of promoting, as at the beginning, the conversion of the natives to the Christian faith, from the pretended view of saving their souls, they now prosecuted that work from the motive of making them subservient to their own purposes, and enabling them to acquire vast riches, FOR THEIR KINGDOM IS OF THIS WORLD. This corruption proceeded so far by degrees, that not only many of the Jesuits at Goa, engaged in trade, contrary to the rules of their order and their duty as missionaries, but even descended so low, as to disguise themselves in the habits of faquirs, or Mohammedan monks, that they might have an opportunity of visiting the diamond mines, and purchasing stones there of extraordinary value *.

* We owe this circumstance to the History of Holland, by M. de la Neuville, who tells us, that the Dutch being extremely piqued at the trouble the Jesuits gave them at China, discovered this practice to the governor of the diamond mines at Visapour, who caught two of the fathers

disguised like faquirs, with stones about them to the value of twenty-five thousand pounds, which he took from them, and after whipping them publicly, for profaning the habit of those holy men, took such measures as prevented their carrying on that trade in this shape ever after.

But what most of all contributed to corrupt the inhabitants of the Portugueze settlements, was the little care taken to prevent their leaving all things to the care of their negroes and other slaves, and their intermarrying with the people of the country; practices ever fatal to all European establishments, because it not only effeminates the minds of such as fall into this way of living, but also makes them lose all regard for their country, and inclines them to take such measures, as are most likely to preserve them in the enjoyment of such servile pleasures.

The Portugueze at Goa have been, for more than a century past, so much addicted to this sensual kind of life, that provided they might enjoy their magnificent houses in the city, and their country palaces in it's neighbourhood, they gave themselves no pain about what happened elsewhere, or how great progress the Dutch made in subduing their distant settlements. The natural consequence of this was, that when such settlements were lost, those who were driven from their habitations, instead of repairing to Goa, and taking arms in the king's service, for the recovery of any part of his dominions, went into the territories of some Indian prince, and there, for a pitiful subsistence, entered into his pay, or accepted of some low office in his court; so that while the fleets and armies of Portugal grew thin and contemptible, for want of soldiers and seamen, there were many thousands of that nation scattered all over the Indies, disgracing their country, by the manner in which they got their bread; when, by a proper behaviour, they might have restored the affairs of their prince, as well as their own fortunes.

One may safely affirm, that all these mischiefs were, at the bottom, owing to the want of a right administration in Portugal; where, if a council for the Indies had been settled [see INDIA-HOUSE OF SPAIN], composed of men of real abilities, and competent experience in commercial concerns, who had been intrusted with the sole power of bestowing places in that country, and had been charged to look carefully into the conduct of such as were employed by them, might, before things had gone too far, have restored discipline in their colonies, and recalled such, as from discontent or diffidence in their former governors, had taken refuge in other places.

But their attention to other things, and more especially to their settlements in Brazil, which have, indeed, accidentally compensated, in some measure, their losses on this side, hindered them from thinking of their affairs in the east, 'till they became almost past recovery.

In this distressed and dejected state they lie at present, which, however, must not excuse us from giving the reader a view of them, even in this condition, because the Portugueze are still considered as having some interest in the Indies, though it be in a manner nothing in comparison of what it was; they are, however, at present, taking measures to revive and establish their trading interest again in this part of the world, and that, as we have before seen, by the means of BRITISH MERCHANTS, BRITISH SAILORS, and BRITISH MONEY.

The dominions at present subject to the Portugueze viceroy of the Indies are very easily described. The city of GOA, of which we have spoken before, is still the capital, the seat of the viceroy, the archbishop, and the inquisition, which are heavy burthens on so exhausted an establishment. In the neighbourhood of this city they preserve the islands of Salfette, Bardes, Augedive, and some others of no great consequence, farther than that they supply the city of Goa plentifully with provisions, which is hard to say whether it be an advantage to that place or not: for as rice comes in great quantities, and very cheap, to Goa, it encourages the citizens to keep a vast number of servants, especially negroes, who are content with one dish of this food at noon, and another at night. If these were kept for any kind of labour or manufactures, there would be no great objection to it; but almost every house-keeper has six, some of them 12, some 30 or 40, that have no other business than carrying their master's palanquin and umbrella; so that, in reality, they are not kept so much for service as for state: and thus they rather exhaust, than increase, the riches of the inhabitants.

DIU, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Guzarat, is the strongest place they have, and is, indeed, very well situated for commerce. It has a very good port, and, while the Portugueze had any fleets of consequence, they were generally laid up here; and at this city the Moors, and other traders in those seas, were obliged to take out their passports, before they proceeded any farther to the East. At present, almost all the trade which was carried on here is removed to Surat, and what little still remains at Diu, in the hands of the Portugueze, is carried on under Gentile colours; that is to say, the Portugueze think themselves safer under them than

than under the flag of Portugal, formerly so much respected in the Indies.

The port of DAMAN, on the gulph of Cambaya, is yet in tolerable good condition, though nothing in comparison of what it was, the old town being in a manner deserted, and the new not near so well peopled as might be expected from its extent.

There are, however, still some manufactures carried on here, particularly in silk, with which they furnish the market of Goa, and thereby enable the merchants settled to carry on what small commerce they have left. CHAOL stands behind the mountains, on the same coast, and has a very safe and good port.

These are all the places that they have on the Malabar coast; and in other parts of the Indies they have few factories, and no establishments at all, except it be in the islands of Innor and Solor, not far from the Moluccas, which they possess jointly with the Dutch. Once in two or three years they send a ship from Goa to these islands, the chief commodities of which are sandal-wood, much esteemed in China, very good wax, and a sort of medicine called solor-stones, which are very little, if at all, inferior to the best bezoar. On the coast of China they have the island and port of Macao, from whence they carry on a considerable trade to China and the Philippines.

All that remains under the Portuguese dominion, from the Cape of Good Hope in Africa, to the city of Macao in China, is governed by a viceroy, with the title of captain-general, who resides at Goa, as the metropolis of India. There are six, and sometimes eight, desembargadores, or judges, that attend the government as a sovereign court, or council, who wear gowns down to their heels, over a cassock of the same length, the gown with wide sleeves down half way their arms: they wear golillas, and huge perukes of the French fashion. The chief court these gownmen sit in is called Relacon; which administers justice in civil and criminal cases, having power over all ministers, and tries all appeals brought from all parts of their dominions. The viceroy sits as chief of this court, under a canopy; the gownmen sit on benches placed on the plain floor. The council de Facada is like the court of Exchequer, where one of the gownmen sit as the viceroy's deputy. Thus the pomp and splendor of this government is still kept up, though the extent of it is much lessened, and the power and credit of it in a manner decayed.

There are still as many governments as ever, that is, in title; for otherwise they are of no great consequence; and those on whom they are bestowed have the characters of generals. There is, for instance, a general of the gulph of Ormuz, who has four ships under his command; a general of the north, who directs the small towns on the coast of Malabar; a general of Salsette, who has a territory of about fifteen miles; a general of China, who is, properly speaking, governor of Macao, and an absolute vassal to the Chinese. There is another general in the islands of Timor and Solor, to whom even the Portuguese there scarce pay any obedience, and who lives in a miserable fort, the guns of which are in no condition for service. There is likewise a general of Goa, whose business is to take care of the channels between the islands, and to restrain smugglers*.

* There is a very wide difference between these titular preferments and the governments formerly in the gift of the viceroy of Goa, which were five; the first was that of Mosambique, which is still in their hands, and the only one of the old government that is so; the second was that of Mascot, on the Arabian coast, which was of very great importance, and brought in a large revenue; the third was that of Ormuz, on the coast of Persia; the captain-general of the island of Ceylon was the fourth, and the governor of the important fortress of Malacca was the fifth. Upon each of these general governments there depended many others of less consequence, and of which these generals had the absolute disposal; but those who held them, were continued in them for no longer than three years. And it was for this reason they were guilty of so much extortion, looking upon their governments as leases for so many years, in which they were to make their fortunes.

But the best of all the governments that still belong to the Indies, is that of Mosambique [see PORTUGUEZE AFRICAN TRADE], which is an island situated near the coast of Africa, in the latitude of 15° south, within half a league of the continent. They have a strong fort there, with four good bastions, which commands the channel, and in which there are seventy pieces of brass cannon; and here there is always kept a good garrison, and in tolerable order. The governor is honoured with the title of general of the river of Senna, where he has his lieutenant, which employment was worth to him several hundred thousand crowns a year. There are but a few houses about the fort, the inhabitants keeping their effects on the neighbouring continent: but notwithstanding the narrowness of the place, there are monasteries of Jesuits, Dominicans of St John de Dios, besides the chief church and that of the Misericordia. The merchandize

brought to this place by the ships of the company, are bought at a set price by the royal factory, which afterwards sends them to Chelimani; the mouth of the river of Senna running three hundred miles along the coast, in galiots and small vessels, because of the flats from Chelimani; the goods are sent up the river against the stream, in almandies or little boats, which are ten days going up and about five coming down. It is very difficult going up, for those who are not well acquainted with the shallows and windings of the river. The Cafres, or Blacks, resort to this port from provinces and kingdoms three or four months journey distant, to buy or take up goods upon trust for so much gold, which they never fail to bring punctually the next year, unless death prevents them. This trade yields above cent. per cent. so that the Portuguese may be said to have another India in Africa.

SENNA is a little town on the right-hand of the river, inhabited by fifty Portuguese families, who make it populous enough, by the great number of blacks they keep. These till the ground, and dig in the mines, and by that means maintain their masters instead of being kept by them.

About fifteen days journey from hence lies Sofala, where the Portuguese have likewise an establishment, subject, however, to the general of Mozambique, and here a prodigious trade is driven on, of which the Portuguese are, or might be, masters. It consists chiefly in gold, of which there are greater quantities here than in any other country in the world, since the annual produce of this market is computed, by the best judges, at forty-six thousand ounces. There are vast quantities of Spanish and Canary wines, oil, silks, linens, cottons, coral, and other European goods sold here, which are carried by the inhabitants of the little kingdom of Sofala, through all the great empire of Monomotapa, which the Portuguese stile the empire of gold, from the prodigious quantities of that precious metal which is brought to them from thence. There are likewise, some other very rich commodities brought hither by the negroes, such as the most excellent ebony in the world, great quantities of ivory, abundance of fine mats, which are much esteemed in the Indies, and a great number of slaves; so that Goa, and all the rest of the Portuguese settlements, are furnished from hence. One may justly wonder, that, considering the value of this settlement, and its convenient situation, the Dutch had not made themselves masters of it long ago, as well as of all the other places belonging to the crown of Portugal on this coast.

In the year 1605, they attempted Mozambique with very little success, which, however, did not discourage them; as it must be allowed, that where there is a prospect of gain, the Dutch are not easily discouraged: and, therefore, in 1607, they attacked it a second time with greater force, but with the same ill-luck as before, except that they made themselves masters of a rich Portuguese fleet, which, in some measure, paid the expence of the expedition. This rich trade, notwithstanding, is much fallen off by the Arabs making themselves masters of Monbaza, and other places which give them an opportunity of supplying the Africans with European goods, which they purchase in different parts of the Indies.

As for the share which the Portuguese still retain, the gold obtained thereby is sent to Goa and to Diu, where it is coined into small pieces, called St Thomas's, which are not worth above half a crown of our money; and it is observed, that this coin is of a worse touch, that is, of a baser alloy than any other in the Indies [see the article EAST-INDIA TRADE in general] which is another sign of a declining trade; for the Saracens, which were formerly coined at Ormuz, when in the Portuguese hands, were esteemed the best gold in the Indies; but they are now become extremely scarce, and the St Thomas's are coined in less quantities every year.

These possessions are said to produce so little to the king of Portugal, that it has been more than once debated in the council of that prince, whether it would not be for the interest of the crown to abandon them all together with drawing their artillery and effects; and we are likewise told that it is not any political, but purely a religious motive, that has hindered this measure from being taken, the priests having suggested that, in such case a multitude of souls would be lost to the Church. We shall the less wonder at this, if we consider, that such as are best acquainted with the last India trade assure us, that a single merchant and a single ship of reasonable burden, may carry on as great a commerce, what at present subsists between Lisbon and Goa. The matter, however, deserves some explanation. There are yet a great many ships employed from Goa, Diu, and Damat to the coasts of Persia, Pegu, Manilla, and China, but they are mostly on the account of Indian merchants, there being scarce a Portuguese trader at Goa able to furnish a cargo of the value of 10,000 crowns; and it is very much doubted, whether in the whole of their trade, they employ above two hundred thousand crowns; so that it is not at all strange, that once a year with another, there are not above two ships sent direct from Goa to Lisbon, and those not a fourth part so rich, when they annually sent twenty.

Yet there has been a late regulation made at Goa, for the preservation and promotion of trade, which those who understand that subject best, agree compleated it's ruin. This is an exclusive company, which has the sole right to the commerce of Mozambique and Macao, which company has taken upon itself the payment of the royal officers, who are also two thirds concerned therein: this has given such a blow to the natural commerce of Goa, that the best part of the Indian merchants that were left, are now retired from thence. To say the truth, it was the great share the viceroys, governors, and other officers, always took in commerce, without contributing any thing thereto, except protecting the merchants from the violence committed by themselves on such as did not admit them to a share in their trade, that first destroyed the extensive commerce they enjoyed. And, upon this subject, the wits of the Indies have framed a very pretty allegory: they say, that when the Portuguese came first there, they had a sword in one hand, and a crucifix in the other; but that they might fill their pockets the faster, they quickly dispensed with the first, and soon after laid down the last, by which they have lost all. But though their power and their commerce are so much declined, their pride is as great as ever, insomuch, that they refuse the natives of the country, who are called Canarians, the privilege of wearing stockings, though they employ them as physicians, lawyers, and merchants, by which many of them are so rich, that they keep a dozen or fourteen slaves, and are in much better circumstances than the Portuguese themselves. The revenues of the Church have suffered very little by this surprising change in the State; there being hardly a monastery that does not receive four or five thousand crowns out of the treasury, at the same time the soldiers starve and mutiny for want of pay; which is so much the harder upon the government, because the reverend fathers know very well how to take care of themselves, insomuch that it is affirmed, the Jesuits in Goa have a better revenue than the crown of Portugal. It is not easy to know what becomes of the money these Popish churchmen raise, but it is very evident, that the wealth they possess, together with the establishment of the inquisition at Goa, is such a dead weight on the settlement, as must sooner or later destroy it, unless other measures are soon taken to prevent it.

The wisest of the Portuguese in Europe understand this very well, and would be glad to see some proper remedy applied, not from any prejudice against the Church or Churchmen, which is far enough from being the vice of that nation, but out of pure regard to the crown, and to the nation; and one would think, that the Clergy themselves, instead of grasping at more, ought to be willing to part with some proportion of what is already in their hands, in order to render the State more able to protect them in the possession of the remainder. Besides, there is nothing clearer, than that the erecting of religious houses is directly opposite to the very scheme of planting, and must always ruin the settlements where it prevails, and consequently the religious houses themselves, which is certainly an argument that ought to prevail even with Popish princes, to lay some restraint on the missionaries that are sent abroad, unless they prefer the reputation of zeal among such as are no competent judges, not only to maxims of policy and good government, but to the principles of true religion. For, if there be any piety in converting Pagans to the Christian faith, it follows, that there is still greater piety in doing this effectually, and in maintaining for ever the establishments necessary to support them, which reason and experience shews, the building monasteries, and maintaining numbers of idle people in them, will not do, but, on the contrary, will bring on in time the destruction of those colonies, in which this humour is suffered to prevail.

A few years since we had advices from this part of the world, that several Indian princes were driven from before Goa, which they had blocked up with a numerous army, by the powerful succours sent by the present king of Portugal, and by the excellent condition of the late viceroy, who was the count De Laurical, and behaved there with great reputation. Such expeditions, however, are to be considered as expedients only, which may for a time preserve that settlement, but can never restore it, or bring the affairs of this nation in these parts into so good order, as to make them worth the attention of a prince, who has the honour of his crown and the good of his people at heart.

But, it seems, the Portuguese are, at present, determined to take effectual measures for the restoration of their East-India commerce, and they intend to commence the same at the port of Diu; which has been long since observed by M. Tavernier to be well situated for trade, and as capable of improvement, as any in that part of the world, or more so: and, if put under a proper regulation, that is, if made in some measure a free port, as it is said the Portuguese design, it must necessarily come in for a large share of that commerce now carried on at Surat, and, in all probability, retrieve much of the Arabian and Persian traffic that has been so long lost to them. And as the Portuguese have still some factories at Bijnagar, and other places on that coast, it would be no difficult matter to re-establish their commerce in the heart

of India, at the same time that the port of Macao would furnish them with the means of supplying the China market as cheap, or cheaper, than any other European nation, because their colony at Mozambique is so situated, as to serve them for the same purposes that the Cape of Good Hope does the Dutch, or the island of St Helena the English.

POSTAGE of LETTERS. Soon after the restoration of king Charles II. an act of parliament passed for erecting a general post-office in England; and in the 1st year of king William III. an act of parliament passed in Scotland, for erecting a post-office in that kingdom; but in the ninth of queen Anne, after the Union, an act of parliament passed for repealing both those statutes, and for uniting both the said post-offices, and for erecting and settling one general post-office throughout all her Majesty's dominions; by which it is enacted, That there shall be one general post-office in London, and one post-master general, who shall have the sole receiving and dispatching all letters within this united realm, and without, &c. except letters which concern goods sent by common carriers, and which shall be delivered with the goods, without any profit for receiving or delivering them; and except merchants letters, and those of masters of ships; so as such letters be delivered to the persons to whom they are directed, without receiving any profit for them; and except provisions, affidavits, writs, &c. and any letters sent by private friends, in their journey, or by any messenger about private affairs or business.

Proviso, That carriers do not receive letters which do not concern goods then in carrying, nor drivers of stage-coaches, nor masters of passage-boats, nor passengers therein, nor watermen or bargemen, though without hire or reward.

The post-master general, and his deputies, and no other person, shall provide horses and furniture for any person riding post; where any post-roads shall be settled, at the rate of 3d. per mile for every post-horse, and 4d. for the guide, and shall not charge any thing for carrying a bundle, so as it does not exceed eight pounds.

And for letters he shall take, viz.

For every single letter not coming from, or directed from on ship-board, and to and from any place in England, not distant above 80 miles from London, 3d. and for every double letter 6d. and for the packets of writs, deeds, and other things 12d. per ounce: for every single letter above 80 miles from London, 4d. and for a double letter, 8d. and for other things, 1s. 4d. per ounce; for every single letter from London to Edinburgh, or vice versa, 6d. and a double letter, 12d. and for other parcels, 2s. per ounce; for any letter from Edinburgh, to any place not exceeding 50 miles in Scotland, 2d. and a double letter, 4d. and for other parcels, 8d. per ounce; and if above 50 miles, 3d. and for a double letter, 6d. and for other parcels, 12d. per ounce; if above 80 miles, then for every single letter 4d. and for a double letter, 8d. and for other parcels, 1s. 4d. per ounce: and for the postage of letters and packets directed on board, or brought from any vessel riding or stopping in any port in England, 1d. over and above the said rates; and for the postage of all letters and packets passing and repassing by the penny-post, and to be received and delivered within 10 miles distant from the General Post-Office 1d.

The post-master may erect cross-stages, and he or his deputy may demand and receive the same rates in any such cross-stages, in proportion to the distances of places, as letters to and from London are rated.

He may appoint one to measure the roads by the wheel, except such roads where the stages are already settled; and he who makes such surveys, shall make oath before some justice, &c. in each kingdom respectively, to perform the same according to the best of his skill, and the justice, &c. shall certify the same in writing, to be kept and entered in the General Post-Office, without fee.

Proviso, That merchants accounts, not exceeding one sheet, and all bills of exchange and invoices, and bills of lading, shall be allowed to pass without rate in the price of letters; and likewise the covers of letters, not exceeding one fourth part of a sheet, sent by the way of Vienna, Marseilles, Venice, or Leghorn, to be sent to or from Turkey.

None other but the post-master general, or his deputies, shall receive, take, or carry letters, either by land or sea, or provide horses for riding post, or collect any letters, or set up any foot-post, horse-post, or packet-boat, or any other conveyance for the carrying or delivering of letters, under the penalty of 5l. for every offence, and also 100l. for every week that the offender shall continue the said offence.

If through the default or neglect of the post-master, any person riding post shall fail of being provided with sufficient horses, after demand, the party offending shall forfeit 5l. one moiety to the crown, the other to the prosecutor, to be recovered in any court of record.

Proviso, That if the mail be carried out of England in any vessel which is not a free ship, and navigated by seamen as by the law is required, that then the post-master-general shall forfeit 100l. one moiety to the crown, the other to him who will sue, to be recovered by bill, plaint, or information.

All money due for letters not exceeding 5l. shall be recovered in the same manner, and under the same rules, as small tithes, by complaint in writing before two justices, who may summon the party complained of, and, on default of appearance, determine the cause, and give allowance and costs, not exceeding 10s.

If the party refuse to pay in 10 days after notice, the constables, &c. are to distrain, by warrant from the justices, and the distress to be sold in three days.

All inland letters must pay at the stage where last delivered, unless they are directed to any ship or vessel, or to any person in the army, or sent by the penny-post, and unless letters going out of Great-Britain, which have usually paid rates in England.

After the 1st of June, 1743, the old rates shall be taken for letters again.

Persons opening, detaining, or delaying any letter, after the same is delivered into the General Post-Office, except by warrant in writing, under the hand of a secretary of state, or unless the person to whom directed refuses to pay the postage, or where the letter shall be returned for want of due or true direction: the person so offending, or embezzelling a letter, forfeits 20l. to be recovered in the courts at Westminster, if in England; if in Scotland, in the court of session or exchequer, by such persons who will sue, with full costs, and the offender is disabled, and rendered incapable of any employment in the Post-Office.

Post-master general, and all in any employment relating to the Post-Office, must take the oath following, before one justice of the peace of the county where such person resides.

I A. B. do swear, That I will not wittingly, willingly, or knowingly, open, detain, or delay, or cause, procure, permit, or suffer to be opened, detained, or delayed, any letter or letters, packet or packets, which shall come into my hands, power, or custody, by reason of my employment in, or relating to, the Post-Office, except by consent of the person or persons to whom the same is, or shall be directed, or by an express warrant in writing, under the hand of one of the principal secretaries of state for that purpose; or except in such cases where the party or parties to whom such letter or letters, packet or packets, shall be directed, or who is or are hereby chargeable with the payment of the post or posts thereof, shall refuse or neglect to pay the same; and except such packets or letters as shall be returned for want of due directions, or when the party or parties to whom the same is, or shall be directed, cannot be found; and that I will not any way embezzle any such letter or letters, packet or packets as aforesaid.

It is enacted, by stat. 6. Geo. I. cap. 21. That when bills of exchange are sent wrote on one and the same piece of paper with a letter, as also several letters to several and distinct persons, are sent wrote on one and the same piece of paper, that every such bill, and every such letter, should be rated and paid for as so many several and distinct letters, according to the rates 9 Ann. cap. 19.

And whereas by the act 9 Ann. cap. 19. it is provided, That all bills of exchange, invoices, and bills of lading, shall be understood to be allowed without rate in the price of the letter; and some doubts having been made, touching the said proviso, it is by the said 6th of king Geo. I. cap. 21. declared and enacted, That it was, and is the intent and meaning of the said act, that the said proviso and allowance shall extend only to such merchants accounts, bills of exchange, invoices, and bills of lading, as shall be sent to or from the General Post-Office in London to any parts beyond the seas not within his Majesty's dominions; and that all other merchants accounts, bills of exchange, invoices, and bills of lading, shall be rated and paid for as so many several letters, according to the rates mentioned in the said act 9 Ann. cap. 19.

By stat. 4 Geo. II. it shall be lawful for any penny-post-man to demand, for every letter originally sent by the Penny-Post, which shall be delivered to, or for any person, at any place out of London, Westminster, or Southwark, and their respective suburbs, one penny besides the penny paid on putting the letter into the said office; and no penny-post-man shall incur any penalty for detaining such letter until the payment thereof.

A letter, in which there were bills of exchange, was delivered at the General Post-Office in London, to one who was appointed by the post-master to receive letters, and there it was opened, and the bills taken out; and, in an action brought against the Post-master, three judges, against Holt, chief justice, held, That it would not lie, because this was an office of intelligence, and not of insurance, or of conveyance of treasure; but the chief justice held, that the action would lie, because the post-master hath a reward, which is the reason that inn-keepers and carriers are to keep goods safely.

By the 26th of Geo. II. every writ is to pay as a distinct letter; and letters inclosing several patterns, not exceeding one ounce weight, to pay only as a double letter.

N. B. The last act in relation to postage of letters, included in the tobacco-act.

A warrant to take a distress for money ordered to be paid, by two justices, for postage.

Essex, ff. Whereas, on complaint this day exhibited, by A. B. of, &c. unto us, W. B. and J. S. Esqrs. two of his Majesty's justices of the peace for the county aforesaid, That L. M. of, &c. has refused to pay the sum of, &c. by him justly due for the postage of letters, and the sum of, &c. which we awarded for costs on his refusal, as aforesaid: upon examining into, and determining the cause of complaint, according to the direction of the statute in that case made: these are therefore to require you to levy the said several sums of, &c. on the goods of the said L. M. by distress and sale, if not redeemed in three days; and, for your so doing, this shall be your sufficient warrant, Given, &c.

POT-ASH, are the lixivious ashes of certain vegetables, used in the making of glass, soap, bleaching, dyeing, &c.

Although pot-ash is a thing daily used, and well known even to the vulgar; yet, as the making of it is a mechanic art, practised only by the vulgar, and neglected and overlooked by the learned, so we have had no satisfactory account of it; and they who understand it, generally keep it a secret, lest others should learn so beneficial an art. But, as it is a commodity that no nation hardly can well be without, either for making soap, glass, dyeing, or bleaching, so the way of making it, is generally understood in most countries except our own. For, in France and other countries, where they make wine, they make a kind of pot-ash, in an easy manner, from the lees of their wine. In those, and other more southern climes, they have many kinds of herbs hereafter mentioned, either spontaneous, or cultivated on purpose, which they as easily convert into pot-ash. In Germany, and other more northern countries, they make great quantities of pot-ash, by extracting the salts of their wood-ashes, in a manner that is well known. But it is only in Russia, Sweden, and other northern nations, where the art of converting their wood-ashes into pot-ash, without the tedious process of elixivation, is either well known to the learned, or practised by the vulgar. By this means most nations are supplied with this necessary commodity of their own, except the English, who might be supplied with any quantities of it, from the great plenty of otherwise useless wood they have in their colonies, if not at home, if they knew how to make it. But it seems this art is so little understood among us, that many attempts have all proved unsuccessful, merely upon that account, so as to be intirely laid aside. This has put us, for some time, upon enquiring into the ways of making this commodity, of which several have been suggested, from the several trials and informations hereafter mentioned.

It is well known, that the ashes of all kinds of vegetables whatever, afford pot-ash in some measure or other; although some are much more fit for that purpose than others, which may be determined from the experiments of Redi, in the Philos. Trans. No. 243, p. 281. Boerhaave, Merret, and others; so that we need not insist upon them here.

As for the trees and herbs of our colonies in North America, most of those that are common in their woods are known to be fit for this purpose, as the ashes of them all, burnt promiscuously in their houses, make a very strong lye fit for soap. Of these, the fittest for that purpose is their hickory, the most common tree in their woods, which makes the purest and whitest ashes, of the sharpest taste, and strongest lye, of any wood. Their stickweed is said to do the same, which is as common a weed. For this reason, the ashes of both these plants were used by our Indians there, instead of salt, before they learnt the use of common salt from the Europeans. The ashes of tobacco likewise, when damnified, or not fit for a market; or it's stalks, stems, and suckers, of which great quantities are thrown away, and rot and perish, are very fit for pot-ash, as they contain a great deal of salts, and are well known to make a strong lye.

On the other hand, pines, firs, sassafras, liquid amber, or sweet gum, or all odoriferous woods, and those that abound with a resin or gum, are unfit for pot-ash, as their ashes are well known, even to our planters, to make a very weak lye, unfit for soap.

Besides these that contain little or no salt, there are some other vegetables that afford a large quantity of it, but make a bad kind of pot-ash, at least for many purposes, on account of a neutral salt with which they abound. This seems to have been the case of the pot-ash made in Africa, in a manufacture of that commodity, set up there by the late African company, which Mr Houston (who was chiefly concerned about it) tells us, in his travels, proved so bad, on account of a neutral salt it contained, that the manufacture was left off on that account; or, perhaps, from their not knowing how to make it right. What those vegetables are, that afford this kind of ash, is not well known, if it be not fern, and some sea-plants.

Whatever vegetables we make our pot-ash of, should be fresh or green, and no ways rotten, dried, or decayed. They should

should likewise be burnt to ashes by a slow fire, or in a close place; otherwise, when they are burnt in the open air, by a strong fire, great quantity of the ashes is consumed in smoke, by the saline and terrestrial parts being carried up in fumes, before they are separated from these exhalable parts, by the action of the fire. For the difference between burning wood in a close place, or the open air, is so great, that the quantity of ashes obtained from one, is more than double the other. This we learn from the experiments of Lundmarck hereafter-mentioned, who tells us, he burnt a quantity of birch in a close stove, from which he obtained five pounds of ashes; whereas, the same quantity of the same wood, burnt in the open air, yielded only two pounds.

It is for this reason, that most people who make pot-ash, burn their wood in kilns, or pits dug in the ground; although the Swedes burn it in the open air, as the author above-mentioned informs us. This first step, or the burning the wood to ashes, seems to be taken, by many, for the whole process of making pot-ash; for they who pretend to have learned this art in Russia, as well as Lemery, and some other authors, hardly give us any other account of it.

But, in order to convert the ashes, prepared in this or any other manner, to what is called pot-ash, there are many different ways practised in different countries, which make as many different kinds of pot-ash, that are all to be found in our markets, and have all their respective uses.

1. The first of these is commonly called pearl-ashes by our people, who import great quantities of it from Germany. This is no other than the lixivial salt of wood-ashes, extracted by making a strong lye of them, and by evaporating it to dryness, in a manner that is well known, and sufficiently explained by Kenkelius, in his art of making glass, Boerhaave, and many others; so that we need not insist upon it here: we shall take a more fit opportunity to explain it, for the use of our people in America.

2. But the art of converting these wood-ashes into pot-ash, without this tedious process of elixivation, is only practised in Russia, Sweden, and other northern countries, where it has been lately disclosed by one Lundmarck, who tells us he had often made it himself, in the manner he now describes. This account is contained in an academical dissertation upon this subject at Aboe, in Sweden, and was communicated to Dr Mitchell, by Dr Linneus, professor of botany at Upsal, as a genuine account of this art; which I think has hitherto been generally unknown.

This author tells us, 'They have many large woods of beech in Smoland, and other parts of Sweden, in want of which they take alder: of these they are allowed to use only the old and decaying trees for this purpose, which they cut to pieces, and pile in a heap, to burn them to ashes upon the ground, by a slow fire. They carefully separate these ashes from the dirt or coals in them, which they call raking them; after which they collect them in baskets of bark, to carry them to a hut built in the woods for this purpose. This they continue to do till they have a sufficient quantity of these ashes. Then their whole art follows: for which they chuse a convenient place, and make a paste of these ashes with water, by a little at a time, in the same manner, and with the same instruments, as mortar is commonly made of clay or lime. When this is done, they lay a row of green pine or fir logs on the ground, which they plaster over with this paste of ashes: over this they lay another layer of the same spruce logs of wood, transversely, or across the others, which they plaster over with the ashes in the same manner: thus they continue to erect a pile of these logs of wood, by layer upon layer, and plastering each with their paste of ashes, till they are all expended, when their pile is often as high as a house.

This pile they set on fire with dry wood, and burn it as vehemently as they can; increasing the fire from time to time till the ashes begin to be red hot, and run in the fire. Then they overset their pile with poles, as quickly as they can; and while the ashes are still hot and melting, they beat and clap them, with large round flexible sticks, made on purpose, so as to incrust the logs of wood with the ashes; but which the ashes concrete into a solid mass as hard as stone, provided the operation has been rightly performed.

This operation they call walla, i. e. dressing. At last they scrape off the salt thus prepared, with iron instruments, and sell it for pot-ash; which is of a bluish dark colour, not unlike the scorix of iron, with a pure greenish white salt appearing here and there in it.

All the pot-ash we have from Russia, Sweden, and Dantzick, is exactly like what our author here describes, and seems to be made in this manner. It is, however, generally observed, that the Russian is the best of these, on account of the greater quantity of salt in it. Now if, in the preceding process, we make our paste of ashes with lye, instead of water, it is plain the pot-ash will be impregnated with more salt, and make all the difference there is between these sorts of pot-ash. This then is likely to be the practice in Russia; where their wood may likewise be better for this purpose, and afford more salt. This is well known to be the case of different kinds of wood: so our author above-mentioned tells us, he obtained 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. of salt out of eight cubic ells of po-

plar, which was very sharp and caustic; but the same quantity of birch afforded only one pound of salt, and that not so strong; and fir hardly yielded any at all.

The way of making pot-ash above described, may be the more easily understood by our people in America, for whom this is chiefly intended, as it is the same with their way of making lime of shells, the only lime they use in most places.

These shells they burn to lime between the layers of a pile of wood (instead of a kiln) till reduced to ashes, in the same manner as is here directed to be done with ashes, to make pot-ash. The lime thus made, is reckoned very good; but, as it is impregnated with the ashes of the wood, and the marine salt that is often in the shells, it is apt to make the houses that are built with it very damp in moist weather, so that the water often runs down their walls in streams; which cannot but be very unwholesome, in an air that is naturally close and damp: the only way to prevent which, would be to wash and dry their shells frequently, and burn them in dry pine, that afford little or no lixivial salt. But to return to our purpose:

3. There is another way of making pot-ash, practised chiefly in England, where they make it in the following manner.

With their ashes of fern, or wood of any kind, they make a lye, which they reduce to what they call pot-ash, by burning it with straw. To do this, they place a tub full of this lye nigh a clean hearth of a chimney, in which they put a handful of loose straw, so as to take up a quantity of lye with it. The straw thus impregnated with lye, they carry as quick as they can to hold it over a blazing fire on their hearth, which consumes their straw to ashes, and at the same time evaporates the water from the salts of the lye. Over the blaze of the first parcel of straw, they burn another, dipped in lye in the same manner. This they continue to do till their lye is all expended. By this means the coals and ashes of the straw, and salts of the lye, are left on the hearth, and concrete together into a hard solid cake, of a greyish black colour, which they scrape off, and sell for pot-ash.

This is an easy way of making pot-ash, in want of proper vessels to extract the salt of the lye by evaporation, or in want of wood to reduce ashes to pot-ash, in the way above-mentioned, for which it seems to be contrived, and for which it is only to be commended. For the pot-ash made in this manner, is full of the coal of the straw, and its salt is not so strong; as our workmen say, or so sharp and corrosive as the salt of the foreign pot-ash, that is calcined in an open fire; besides other differences hereafter mentioned, which makes this pot-ash unfit for some purposes, and not above half the value of the foreign.

4. They have a very different way in the north of England of reducing their kelp to pot-ash, which they use for making allum. This is made of the different kinds of fuci, or seaweeds, thrown upon the shore, or gathered upon the rocks; which they dry a little in the sun, and afterwards burn in a kiln, built of the stones they find on the shore, in a cylindrical form, and about two feet or less in diameter. In this they first burn a small parcel of the herb, and before it is reduced to ashes they throw on more, till the kiln is full, or their materials are expended. This is said to reduce the ashes to a hard and solid cake, by the heat of the kiln, and quantity of salt in the herb, which makes what is commonly called kelp-ashes.

There are some other ways of making pot-ash, suggested by several, both authors and others, which appear to be more easy and ready than any of the above-mentioned; for which reason they are apt to be tried, by those who make attempts of this kind. These are deduced from what they reckon the nature and properties of this production: and there is no doubt, but if that was well understood, it might afford some insight in the way of making it. For this reason we made the following experiments with the best Russian pot-ash, in order to discover its nature and properties, and how they are most probably communicated to it; that we might see what we are to make, in order to imitate the best, or to make what is accounted good pot-ash.

1. Russian pot-ash, as it is brought to us, is in large lumps, as hard as a stone, and black as a coal, incrustated over with a white salt, that appears in separate spots here and there in it.

2. It has a strong foetid sulphureous smell and taste, as well as a bitter and lixivial taste, which is rather more pungent than other common lixivial salts.

3. A lixivium of it is a dark green colour, with a very foetid sulphureous smell, and bitter sulphureous taste, somewhat like gunpowder, as well as sharp and pungent, like a simple lixivium.

4. Although it is as hard as a stone, when kept in a close place, or in large quantities together in a hoghead; yet, when laid in the open air, it turns soft, and some pieces of it run per deliquium; whilst most other kinds of pot ash only turn friable, and crumble in the open air.

5. It readily dissolves in warm water, but leaves a large sediment of a blackish grey colour like ashes, which is in a fine soft powder, without any dirt or coals in it, that are to be observed in most other kinds of pot-ash.

6. As it is dissolving in water, there has been scummed off from some lumps of it, a dark purple bituminous substance, like

like petroleum or tar, which readily dissolved in the lixivium. 7. This, or any other true pot-ash, or a lixivium made thereof, will presently tinge silver of a dark purple colour, difficult to rub off; whilst a mere lixivial salt has no such effect.

8. Pieces of this pot-ash, boiling in water, make a constant explosion like gunpowder; which was so strong, as not only to throw the water to some height, but to lift up, and almost over-set, a stone cup in which they were boiled. These explosions were owing not so much to the included air, which some perhaps may imagine, as to the sulphureous parts of the composition expanding and flying off: for this boiled lixivium had neither the green colour, nor foetid sulphureous smell and taste; at least, in any degree, like what it has, when made of the same pot-ash, by a simple infusion in warm water.

9. We evaporated some of the green lixivium, made only by infusion, and filtered through a double rag: as soon as it began to boil, a green powder, to which its colour is owing, fell to the bottom, and the lye became pale. After it was evaporated to a pellicle, and set in a cool place, a salt separated from it on the sides of the cup, in angular crystals like tartar. These crystals were soon formed, and in pretty large quantities, but were difficult to separate from the alkaline lye and salt, in which, and the open air, they were apt to dissolve: but from the pellicle, I obtained some pieces of the same salt that would not dissolve in the open air.

10. Oil of vitriol makes a strong effervescence with this green precipitate, with a white fume, and a very strong sulphureous smell. It does the same with these white crystals, although the sulphureous smell is not so strong. But with the pure fixed alkali, there was no such sulphureous smell to be discerned.

From these experiments, we may determine something about the nature and contents of pot-ash. This we are the better enabled to do, from the accurate experiments and reasonings of the learned Mr Geoffroy, on a like substance made of charcoal, and an alkali salt calcined together; in which he observed all the properties and contents of pot-ash above-mentioned, particularly related in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy, for the year 1717. This was made of the same materials, and had all the properties above-related of our pot-ash; particularly a green lixivium, a strong sulphureous smell and taste, a sulphureous green precipitate, crystallized salts, and sulphureous fumes, with oil of vitriol. From hence this learned author concludes, that this substance contained the active sulphureous parts of the wood, blended with more active igneous particles. These united with the alkaline salts, make a kind of soap, or sulphureous saponaceous salt, resembling soap of tartar, or hepar sulphuris. The crystallized salts he attributes to the acid of the wood mixing with the alkaline salts. All these parts of the wood then are contained in our pot-ash; and he observed the same in the common soda, or cineres clavellati, although they are in a less degree in that than in the Russian pot-ash.

Besides these, he shews that pot-ash contains a metallic substance, which affords the Prussian blue [see BLUE, PRUSSIAN BLUE]. We may add further, that the combination of these principles makes many properties in pot-ash, more than what result from them in a state of separation. The most remarkable of these seems to be its explosive quality; which we take to proceed from the crystallized salts approaching to the nature of nitre, and uniting with the sulphur and charcoal; by which they form, from all these ingredients of gunpowder, a kind of that explosive substance, whose parts are highly rarefied in an intense and confined heat, by which they readily explode in boiling lye.

By this we may perceive, that the difficulty in making pot-ash a-right is, first, to reduce the materials to cinders and ashes, and at the same time to preserve their volatile, sulphureous, and exhalable acid parts, that are totally destroyed in such a degree of heat; and, secondly, to calcine these ashes still further, so as to flux their salts, and vitrify their terrestrial parts, and at the same time to keep them separate from each other, or prevent their running into an indissoluble glass. To give pot-ash some of these properties, seems plainly to require a degree of heat that will totally deprive it of others.

The most likely way by which it comes to receive all these properties, is from the way of making it in Sweden above described. In that process, the green fir in which the ashes are burnt, impregnates them with the acid saline parts of the wood or tar, which is well known to be in pretty large quantities, and is absorbed and fixed by the alkaline salts, and porous terrestrial parts of the ashes in this process; so that, besides the fixed alkaline salts of the ashes, the pot-ash thus made, must likewise contain the more volatile salts of the pine, which are exhaled in smoke, by burning the pine alone in the open air. Besides these, it likewise contains the resinous parts, and sulphureous fumes of the pine, that are hindered from exhaling by the heap of the mass.

At the same time the alkaline salts are fluxed in the open fire, and in a manner vitrified with the terrestrial parts of the ashes, which gives them their hard and solid consistence; whilst the sulphureous and acid parts of the green wood hin-

der them from turning to a perfect glass, or inert calx. All these parts united together in the fire, make that saponaceous substance we find in the pot-ash thus made, which further hinders the vitrification of the mass, and endows it with many of its most peculiar and active properties.

From hence we may see how difficult it is to make a substance, endowed with all these properties, in any other manner. This is the reason why we could never before make pot-ash equal to that of Russia, and the other northern countries, although we have much greater plenty of materials, and perhaps better: for this way of making it has never before been thought of by the learned, or practised any where else.

Somewhat of the same qualities are communicated to the English pot-ash, by the way of making it above described; but in a degree as much inferior, as dry straw, used for that purpose, is to green wood: accordingly our workmen find that pot-ash is much inferior to the foreign, for many purposes.

From this account of the contents and qualities of pot-ash, and the way of making it, we may form some judgment of the other ways of making it, proposed by authors, and suggested by many. Thus Lemery and others tell us, pot-ash is made in Russia, and all the northern countries, only by calcining the ashes in pits bricked within, and sprinkling them well with lye, till they become hard and solid. But such a calcination of ashes with a lixivial salt, must render them whiter instead of black, and must further destroy the active sulphureous parts of the wood, which we find in pot-ash rightly made. So that this only leaves the ashes in the state they were at first, or turns them into a kind of indissoluble glass, as we have found upon trial.

This, and the like mistakes, about the way of making pot-ash, seem to proceed from a general error concerning the nature of it; for it is commonly supposed to be only a kind of inert calx, impregnated with nothing but a lixivial salt. Some such mistakes seem to have frustrated all the attempts hitherto made of making pot-ash in America; for, upon trial, what they have made there, was found to be no better than common ashes.

But the most general mistake about the way of making pot-ash, seems to proceed from the accounts we have of making it, from glass-wort, and some marine plants, which are said to be easily converted to this kind of substance, in the manner above-mentioned. But we apprehend, the way of making it from wood must be very different: for these herbs are easily reduced to ashes by a small fire, that does not intirely consume their sulphureous parts, which wood is not. These ashes abound with a great quantity of alkaline and some neutral salts, that readily convert them to a hard and solid consistence, which wood does not. They have likewise few or no terrestrial parts, to run them into an indissoluble glass, when fluxed in the fire, as happens in wood ashes. Besides, these herbs have few or no sulphureous or acid parts, like most woods; and the pot-ash made of them has few of these principles in it, like what is made of wood.

It is, however, generally said, if we burn our wood in a close place, as a kiln in which we burn lime, or make charcoal, or a pit dug in the ground, we may impregnate the ashes with the sulphureous fumes and acid parts of the wood, only by the closeness of the place, or by smothering the fire in it. If at the same time, we impregnate them with a greater quantity of lixivial salt, it will flux the whole mass, and make it run into a solid hard consistence like pot-ash. This is commonly directed to be done, by throwing fresh or green wood or herbs upon the others, as they are burning, before they are quite reduced to ashes; or by smothering the fire, as in making charcoal; and at the same time to sprinkle the ashes, thus burnt with a strong lye, from time to time, in the manner commonly practised with glass-wort.

This would be a more ready way of making pot-ash than any of the above-mentioned; but as those who give their advice about it, have neither tried it, nor seen it done; and those who have tried this or any other way, find more difficulty in it, than at first imagined, we shall suspend our judgment about it, till we see it fairly tried, lest we should deter some from making useful experiments of it, or lead others into fruitless and expensive attempts.

By the various ways of making pot-ash above-mentioned, and the different materials it is made of, there appear to be many different kinds of it, that have as different qualities. It would lead us too far beyond our present design, to give a particular account of each of these; but as they are used in many of our manufactures, it seems worthy of enquiry, to know what sorts are generally used, and what are the fittest to be used in them.

The workmen in England make two general kinds of it, which they distinguish by the names of pearl-ash and pot-ash. The first is a mere lixivial salt, which is supposed to be the only ingredient of any efficacy in pot-ash; but, upon trial, there is found to be a great difference between them, especially in making soap. The salt is so weak in the pearl-ash, that it does not entirely dissolve and unite with the fat. The reason seems to be, that these salts are dissolved in water, in

order to extract them; by which they lose many of their caustic igneous parts; whereas in pot-ash the salts are calcined, and fluxed in an open fire, with the ignited terrestrial parts of the ashes, which makes them more sharp and corrosive: they are likewise incorporated with the coal and fuliginous parts of the vegetables they are made of, or with the resinous parts of fir, which gives them the sulphureous quality above-mentioned, and makes a kind of soap of tartar, or hep-*par sulphuris*, in all pot-ash; which makes these salts so ready to dissolve, and incorporate with oil, or other pinguious substances.

This is, perhaps, the reason why the *Cineres Russici* are ordered for this purpose, instead of a mere lixivial salt, by the College of Physicians, in their late Dispensatory. The soap made of them must be impregnated with their heating sulphureous quality, which will make it more aperient and detergent, but not so mild and soft as some others; by which it may be more fit for obstinate and indurated obstructions, but will be more offensive to the stomach; which is much complained of by some people, who take large quantities of the sharper kinds of soap.

But, to consider pot-ash as a commodity in trade and manufactures, which is its chief use; it appears that the people in England not only have it at a dear rate, but the worst sorts of it, at least for most purposes; which cannot but have a proportional influence on their manufactures: for it is generally of as great, and some sorts of a greater value in their markets, than a pure lixivial salt; notwithstanding the small quantity of such salt in ashes, and the trouble and expence of extracting it; which seems to be occasioned by their not knowing how to convert ashes into this commodity; for in Sweden, where the art is known, Lundmarck tells us, pot-ash is sold for little more than a farthing a pound, which cost our workmen nigh sixpence.

But this is not the only inconvenience we labour under for want of this commodity; the sorts we are chiefly supplied with, are perhaps the worst of any, and unfit for many purposes for which pot-ash is used. The only pot-ash almost to be met with here, comes from Russia, Sweden, and Dantzick, or is made in England. These are all made either of wood or fern-ashes, whose salts are never so pure and white at the best, as some others: but, by the way of making them and the experiments on them above-mentioned, they appear to be impregnated with coal, smoak, and soot, which renders them still more foul and impure, makes them of a black, brown, or green colour, and of a peculiar sulphureous quality. On this account they are entirely unfit for making white glass: they make a very coarse and strong kind of soap; they are too foul, sharp, and corrosive for bleaching, and are as unfit for dyeing, at least many colours.

It is, perhaps, for this reason, that the workmen here make all their white glass with saltpetre; which must not only be more costly, but Neri, Merrer, and others, tell us it is not so good, at least for the better sort of glass, as a sharper lixivial salt. See GLASS. It is said they use the volatile alkali of urine; but the French pot-ash, made of the lees of wine, is generally allowed to be the best for that purpose. So likewise the Alicant pot-ash is reckoned much the best for bleaching, and making of soap; as the Syrian and Egyptian is for making of glass.

These purer kinds of pot-ash are all made of herbs, that grow only in the more southern climates, whose salts are finer and whiter, and less acrid and corrosive than the salts of wood, or most other vegetables; and by the way of extracting them by calcination in a more open fire, they are more free of coal, smoke, and soot, or any other heterogeneous mixture. On this account they are much better for the purposes above-mentioned, than the coarse and foul kinds of pot-ash that our people are supplied with.

All we have of these kinds of pot-ash, it seems, comes only from Spain; for which reason our people were obliged to petition, to allow the importation of pot-ash from thence, during the late war; as appears by an order of the king and council, of the 24th of June, 1742, since they could not do without it in many manufactures: so that it may be worth our enquiry, to know what it is that produces so necessary a commodity.

This kind of pot-ash is commonly called *barrilha*, from an herb of the same name in Spain that produces it. The first account we have of this *barrilha*, is from Amatus Lusitanus, who leaves us much in the dark about it. It is generally said in England, to be a plant pretty well known to the Botanists, by the name of *Ficoides Neapolitana*, flore candido. Hort. Ludg. Bat. but for what reason I cannot say. We have as little reason to believe with John Bauhine, that it is what he calls *Kali vulgare*; for Monsieur de Jussieu has shewn us, that the true *barrilha* is a different plant from any of these, from his own observations of it in Spain, where it is cultivated; of which he has given us a particular account of them, anno 1717, p. 93.

The pot-ash made of this plant, he tells us, makes the best soap, the finest glass, and is the best for bleaching of any other; for which reason it is much sought after in all countries, where they value themselves for these manufactures.

See BLEACHING. But I question very much, whether our workmen have it either pure and genuine, or in sufficient quantities for these purposes. All the use I find made of it among them, is to make hard soap; although they say what they have of it spoils their soft soap, by making it curdle. This is well known to be the effects of sea-salt; and Monsieur de Jussieu and others tell us, that the true *barrilha* is often adulterated with sea-weeds, which contain such a marine salt: so that it is probably only this adulterated sort that they have. Accordingly, all the *barrilha* we have found here, was of a dark brown colour, and very foul and ponderous; whereas, the true sort is said, by all who know it, to be more porous, pure, and of a blueish colour. It is for this reason, in all probability, that notwithstanding all the *barrilha* our workmen have at so dear a rate from Spain, yet they have not been able, till very lately, to make so good soap as what comes from thence, and some other places; which is now done as I am informed, by captain Marchant, at his soap manufacture near Stepney.

The only way then, by which we are likely to have this commodity, either pure and genuine, or in sufficient quantities at a reasonable rate, is from the herb itself that produces it. Whether or not it would grow in England, is not known; as I believe it has never been tried: but there is no doubt but it would grow very well in our colonies in America, as I am certainly informed it does in the Spanish colonies there, where they have great plenty of it; and a sort that is indigenous, particularly in Peru, which might probably be found in our colonies, if sought for by those who knew it. But wherever it will grow in any of the English dominions, there is no doubt but it would be a considerable improvement, where pot-ash of all kinds is so valuable a commodity, and so much wanted; for it grows on the same ground with corn of any kind, which it does no harm to, as it is a small annual herb, that does not spread till the corn is ripe, or off of the ground.

There are some other plants that are known to make a kind of pot-ash, commonly called *rochetta*, which is said to be even preferable to the *barrilha*, especially for making glass. These are the first and second kinds of *kali*, described by Prosper Alpinus, in his account of the plants of Egypt. The first of which is the above-mentioned *ficoides* that grows in Italy, and all over the Levant, but the other is peculiar to Egypt. These would be fit improvements for our colonies in America, where we seem to want nothing more than some proper productions for the vast tracts of land we are possessed of there. But these plants alone afford a commodity, which Prosper Alpinus, and Rauwolfius tell us they saw many large ships yearly loaded with in Egypt, and which gives the excellency to the glass and soap that are made at Venice.

It would be worth while then, at least to make a trial of a production, that is likely to improve both our trade abroad and our manufactures at home.

REMARKS on Pot-ash since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

In our remarks on the article NORWAY, we have shewn the national emolument that would accrue from supplying ourselves, from North America, with every species of TIMBER our colonies will admit of, as well for every sort of house building, as that of shipping, that we may stand in need of. It was too long before the legislature could be prevailed on, to admit of the importation of sow and pig-iron from America, and but very lately bar; we were so wise as to give the preference to foreign iron, as we do still for Norway timber, than give our own people in our plantations due encouragement to attempt those articles. Herein daily experience evinces our egregious impolicy. It has been the same by pitch and tar, and continues to be so, with regard to other NAVAL STORES, to the great loss of the nation, all which might have been long since prevented.

In regard to the article of pot-ash, which we have two long also taken from Russia, as well as HEMP and IRON, we may amply furnish ourselves with this ingredient in the manufacture of SOAP; for as these colonies abound with timber of a great variety of qualities, and all proper measures are taken for the felling of timber, and saw mills erected for the cutting the same into boards for every kind of use, the very saw dust, and the underwood, and topping will furnish plenty of material for making pot-ash, if skilful people are employed, who are masters of the process, to instruct our people in the best manner of making it; and, when our nation is highly loaded with public debts and taxes, it is necessary to make every national saving, the better to enable us to lessen our weighty incumbrances. We can now have no excuse for neglecting the production of every possible material in North America, since we have no body to oppose us, except the Savages, who will soon be reduced. See INDIAN AFFAIRS.

POTTERY, the art of making earthen pots, and other vessels, or the manufacture of earthen ware.

The perfection of this art consists chiefly in the choice of proper earth, and the right management thereof, so as to afford the most beautiful matter for vessels.

P O T

REMARKS.

The delicacy of this art should seem to depend, rather upon the peculiar preparation of certain kinds of earth, than upon the use of them as they are produced by nature: thus we find, that the Dresden and the Chelsea porcelain exceed the ware of China, although it is allowed, that no part of the world produces earths so good for the purpose, as that of the eastern nations; and yet we do not find that any of the oriental earths are imported into Europe for the works of Dresden, &c.—If this be the case, and Europe affords no earths that will naturally produce wares so beautiful as those of the East; the Europeans who excel herein, must do that by art, which the Chinese do chiefly by virtue of the natural excellency of some particular earths.

The end of this art is to produce a matter that will not vitrify and turn into glass by fire, and yet will be as beautiful and transparent, by proper management, almost as glass itself. Now nature affords divers materials, that seem to admit of these properties; as oyster and cockle shells, and various other the shells of fish; which bid fair to answer this intent, by due calcination and purification, and by composition with other suitable materials. Pebbles, bones, pipe-clay, spars, and talc, and divers other fossils, may, in some shapes be advantageously applied to several kinds of pottery wares: but the due preparation hereof, depends upon the philosophical application of the active and passive principles of nature. By the active principles of nature, in this respect, we not only understand fire, air, and water, but some peculiar kind of fossil productions; which will easily work a great change upon certain bodies, but the success of such things depends upon a series of experiments, made with judgment, upon bodies that seem proper subjects, for the intention, with regard as well to the active, as to the passive natures.

For the improvement of the art of pottery many good hints may, perhaps, be derived from what we have said, under the articles PORCELAIN, EARTH, CLAYS, BOLES, and FOSSILS in general; for many of those things, judiciously prepared, will afford earthen wares, perhaps, little inferior to those of China; and why we may not, one day, fall upon some compositions that will produce a porcelain, as cheap and as good as the Indian in general, we see no reason to despair of.

And if we can once obtain the fit materials for the purpose, our potters are already so expert in the art of moulding, and management of the fire, that there will be no obstruction on that account to the improvement of the art of pottery in this kingdom to it's last perfection.

The art of glazing and painting on fine earthen ware.

Potters who paint with colours on earthen ware, may be ranged in the same class with painters upon glass, since they use almost the same materials, and, in many respects, the same method.

To prepare a white glazing.

Take of lead two pounds, tin one pound, calcine them to ashes, and melt them together. Of this take two parts, calcined flint or pebble one part, salt one part; mix them well together, and melt them in a cake.

The Rotterdam fine shining white.

Take of clean tin ashes two pounds, lead ashes ten pounds, fine Venice glass two pounds, tartar half a pound, and melt them to a cake. Or,

Lead ashes eight pounds, tin ashes three pounds, fine clear calcined flint or pebble six pounds, salt four pounds, melt them into a cake. Or,

Calcine eight pounds of lead and four pounds of tin into ashes; of these take one quart, salt and pebble of each one pound, and melt them into a cake.

Another fine white for earthen ware.

Calcine six pounds of lead, and three pounds of tin to ashes; whereof take two parts, salt three parts, pebble or flint three parts, and melt them into a cake.

Another white.

Take eight pounds of lead, and four pounds of tin ashes, among which mix six pounds of Venice glass and a handful of rock salt; melt them into a cake.

A Salzburg white.

Take three parts of lead, six parts of tin; or six parts of lead, and three parts of tin, salt three parts, tartar one part, and pebble five parts, &c. Or,

Take five pounds of lead, one pound of tin, three pounds of flint, three pounds of salt, &c. Or,

P O T

Take six pounds of lead, one pound of tin; melt and burn them to ashes, whereof take twelve spoonfuls, twelve of flint, and twelve of fine wood ashes.

To lay a ground upon earthen ware, on which the white glass will better spread.

Take calcined tartar one pint, flint and salt of each one pint; mix them together, and use them for a layer or ground over your earthen wares, before you glaze them.

The right Dutch mastirat for white porcelain.

Take calcined pebble, flint or sand, 100 pounds, soda 40 pounds, wood ashes 30 pounds. This mixture is by the Dutch called mastirat; of this take 100 pounds, tin and lead ashes together 80 pounds, common salt 10 pounds, and melt them three times in a cake.

The tin and lead ashes are made of 100 pounds of lead, and 30 pounds of tin.

The common ware is thus glazed.

Take 40 pounds of clear sand, 75 pounds of litharge or lead ashes, 26 pounds of pot-ashes, and ten pounds of salt; melt them three times into a cake, quenching it each time in clear cold water. Or,

Take clean sand 50 pounds, lead ashes 70 pounds, wood ashes 30 pounds, salt 12 pounds; melt them to a cake.

With this mixture they glaze fine and coarse ware and set it in an earthen glazing pan, which is round; the ware is set on them upon three cornered bars, that go through the like holes in the pan, and the ware is kept asunder from touching one another.

The opening before, is only left in the figure to see how the wares stand, otherwise the pan must be entirely closed up.

Of several colours for potter's glazed-work.

A fine yellow.

Take red lead three pints, antimony and tin of each two pounds; melt into a cake; grind it fine, and melt it again. Repeat this several times, and you will have a good yellow. Or,

Take 15 parts of lead ore, three parts of litharge of silver, and 15 parts of sand. Or,

Take eight parts of litharge, nine parts of calcined flint, one part antimony, and a little iron filings; calcine and melt them to a cake.

Fine citron yellow.

Take six parts of red lead, seven parts of fine red brick dust, two parts of antimony; melt them to a cake.

A green colour.

Take eight parts of litharge, eight parts of Venice glass, four parts of brass-dust; melt them for use. Or, Take ten parts of litharge, twelve parts of flint, or pebble, one part of æs ustum, or copper-ashes.

Blue colour.

Take lead-ashes one pound; clear sand, or pebble, salt two pounds; white calcined tartar, one pound; Venice, or other glass, 16 pounds; zaffer half a pound: mix them well together, and melt them; quench them in water, and melt them again; repeat this several times: but, if you will have it fine and good, it will be proper to put the mixture in a glass-house furnace for a day or two. Or,

Take litharge four pounds; clear sand two pounds; zaffer one pound; calcine and melt it together.

Take 12 pounds of lead, one pound of tin, and one pound of zaffer, five pounds of sand, and three pounds of salt, tartar and glass one pound; calcine and melt it into a cake. Or,

Take two pounds of litharge, a quarter of a pound of sand, one pound of zaffer, and one pound of salt; melt them. Or, One part of tartar, one part of lead-ashes, one part of zaffer, one part of sand, and two parts of salt; melt it as before.

A brown colour.

Take of common glass and manganese, or brown stone, of each one part, lead-glass twelve parts.

A flesh colour.

Take twelve parts of lead-ashes, and one of white glass.

Purple brown.

Take lead-ashes 15 parts, clear sand 18 parts, manganese one part, white glass 15 measures, and one measure of zaffer.

P R I

Iron grey.

Take 15 parts of lead-ashes, 14 parts of white sand, five parts of copper-ashes, one of manganese, one of zaffer, and one of iron filings.

A black.

Take lead-ashes 18 measures, iron-filings three, copper-ashes three, zaffer two measures; this, when melted, will make a brown black; but if you would have it blacker, put some more zaffer to it.

Brown on white.

Manganese two parts, red-lead and white glass one part; melt them well together.

A fine red.

Take antimony two pounds, litharge three pounds, rust of iron calcined one pound; grind it to a fine powder.

To glaze with Venice glass.

When your ware is well dried, and ready to bake, strike it all over with white-wine lees; then lay on the Venice glass (ground fine, and mixed with salt of tartar and litharge) and bake it as directed.

A green.

Take copper-dust two parts, yellow glass two parts; melt them twice. Or, Two parts of copper-filings, one of lead-ashes, and one of white glass; melt them to a cake.

Yellow.

Menning three parts, brick-dust two parts, lead-ashes two parts, antimony two parts, sand one part, of the above white glass one part, well calcined and melted. Or, Red-lead four ounces, antimony two ounces; melt them to a cake.

Gold yellow.

Take of antimony, red-lead, and sand, an equal quantity, and melt it to a cake.

A fine blue glass to paint with.

Take lead-ashes one pound, clear sand two pounds, salt two pounds, white calcined tartar one pound, flint-glass half a pound, zaffer half a pound; melt them together, and quench them in water; then melt them again, and repeat this several times.

Zaffer finely ground by itself makes good blue, to paint white glazed earthen ware.

A liver colour.

Take twelve parts of litharge, eight of salt, six of pebble, or flint, and one of manganese.

A sea-green.

Take five pounds of lead-ashes, one pound of tin-ashes, three pounds of flint, three quarters of a pound of salt, half a pound of tartar, and half a pound of copper dust.

To lay gold, silver, or copper, on earthen ware, so as to resemble either of these metals.

Make an utensil of fine potter's earth, form and shape it thin, neat, and silver-fashion; then bake it, and, when baked, glaze it: but before you bake it again, if you will silver, gild, or copper it, take a regulus of antimony, melt your metal with it, and beat it to a powder, grind it with water very fine, and glaze it therewith; then bake it; and, when done, the whole utensil will look like silver; for, when it comes into the fire, the antimony evaporates, and leaves the silver, &c. behind. But if you will silver or gild it only for ornament-sake, and keep it from any wet, then you may lay on the gold or silver leaves with brandy, and afterwards polish and finish it in the best manner, after the common method.

R E M A R K.

In regard to the glazing of the earthen or porcelain ware, on the insides, we would, by all means, recommend to the workmen the leaving out of lead and its litharge, acids dissolving them, and their nature being insalubrious and sometimes poisonous: and this we conceive, may be easily done, by proper experiments.

PRINTING, the art of taking impressions with ink, from certain types, or characters, upon paper, parchment, vellum, or the like matter.

P R I

It's ORIGIN and PROGRESS, especially in EUROPE.

1. At Haerlem I obtained, says the judicious Mr Ellis, the sight of the first book printed by Costerus: it was not Donatus, as the Inscriptions Hollandicæ say; nor Virgil, nor Tully's Offices, as others have acquainted the world; but a Dutch piece of Theology, printed on one side only of the paper; and after this is a single page of Latin, intitled, Liber Vitæ Alexandri Magni, which made some believe it to be Q. Curtius, but it is a monkish Latin of that time. This and the theology were printed in the year 1430; whereas the Inscriptions, and some other authors, have told us, from Costerus's picture, that printing was by him invented but anno 1440; but a picture of Costerus before another Dutch piece (bound up in the same volume, and printed 1432) bears the date of 1430; under which picture is the inscription mentioned by Mr Ray (only the date is ten years sooner) and the tetraëch which is transcribed by the author of the Inscriptions, from an effigies of Costerus, which was then extant in a garden at Haerlem, but is not now to be found.

2. What Mr Ellis says about the books printed at Haerlem by Laur. Coster, agreeing so well with the account given by Theodore Schrevelius and others, leaves us little or no room to doubt (who must needs take it for granted, that his observation is accurate, and the dates to be true) whether the honour of the invention be due to this or the other cities, whose writers have so eagerly contended for it, since none of them have pretended to shew any book printed so soon as A. D. 1430, or 1432, or near that time. But the difficulty lies either in shewing why the practice of this art should be at a stand from A. D. 1432, to the noted reviving of it at Mentz, by John Fust and Peter Schoeffer, who, as it has been vulgarly, but erroneously said, did print the first printed book there, A. D. 1465, namely, Tully's Offices; or else, in giving any tolerable account of the progress of this invention during an interval of above 30 years.

Boxhornius (as I remember) as well as Schrevelius, and other authors, do expressly say (and, if they had not, it might well be imagined) that Coster could not advance this invention so far as to print so large a work as the Speculum Salutis, without gradual improvements, and that his first essays were on loose and small leaves of paper, before he attempted whole books; these being loose and single, are supposed to be all lost; but I once observed a loose leaf of paper in octavo, lying in an old MS. breviary in her Majesty's royal library at St James's which I then thought (and am still of the same opinion) that it was one of Coster's first pieces, done when he had attained to some experience in the art, and to get money. It is a little rude wooden cut, of the five wounds of our blessed Saviour, and the instruments of his passion, with a Latin inscription at the bottom, to this purport, That those who should say so many Ave Maria's before it, should have so many thousand years of pardon. In this cut, or print, the ink which made it was writing-ink, and it was all black, without those other colours with which Coster seems afterwards to have adorned his books.

In the abovementioned Boxhornius's book de Origine Artis Typographicæ, it is said, That Hadrianus Junius had a book printed by Coster, and like that kept in the chest at Haerlem: now amongst those bequeathed to the Bodleian library at Oxford, by Mr Francis Junius (who was a kinsman of Hadrianus's) there is a thin book in small folio (numbered 31) which may probably be the same, and which Mr Foss, a learned and curious Danish gentleman, did assure me was very like to that of Haerlem. This contains the sum of the history of the Old Testament, all represented in rude wooden cuts, coloured with divers colours without shadows, like to our cards (which, with sheet-ballads, are remains of the old manner of printing) and stamped upon one side only; the white side of two leaves being pasted together, the black both in the pictures and inscriptions, which shew the meaning of them, being writing-ink* (as the aforesaid leaf) inartificially spread upon the wooden block, here thick, there thin, spreading and yellowish; the letters extremely rude, and altogether manifestly shewing that art was yet in its infancy. The stamping of this book on one side only, was not (as some think) because the printer did not know how to dispose the pages in such manner as might be proper and easy for the bookbinder's use, for it has its signatures all along, in minuscule letters (set in the middle of the page, which is remarkable) but because it was thought that the paper would not bear a second impression on the backside; just as the book-writers of those times (when paper began to be cheap, and to be made up into books) would yet have the first and last leaf of each quaternio, senio, &c. to be of parchment,

* It is to be wished that Mr Ellis, when he had Coster's books in his hands, had observed whether the black ink was printing ink or not; whether Coster's picture was ancient, and coloured or not; or if there were more in either of the books: whether the whole was cut upon wood, or composed with printing-letters; whether there were signatures for the bookbinders, &c.

for strength sake. This book (as I remember) is imperfect, and has no date now appearing, and perhaps never had any; neither has such another book as this, which contains the history of St John, and the Apocalypse, in such like wooden coloured pictures and inscriptions: this is inscribed LAUDE 65, in the same Bodleian library, and has its signatures also in majuscule letters (as indeed I have observed signatures in many MSS. of different ages, as high as a thousand years ago, and upwards, expressed either by letters or numbers); this book, though printed on one side, and pasted as the former, is yet more elegant, and shews that the art was much improved.

And here it may not be impertinent to observe, that in the same library (Arch B. Bodl. 88.) is an antient MS. with the same figures and inscriptions, though the habits of the figures be different, those of the MS. being of the older fashion; and it is very likely there is another copy of this book in the emperor's library at Vienna; for Lambecius, *Comment. de Biblioth. Cæs. lib. xi. page 772*, reckons amongst those which he brought away from the archducal library at Inspruck, a book of which he gives this account, *Apocalypsis S. Joannis apostoli & evangelistæ, Latino-Germanica, chartacea in folio, una cum vita ipsius, & multis figuris ligno incisus quæ propter vetustatem suam spectatu sunt dignissimæ*; and in this book at Oxford, besides the printed cuts, also a commentary upon the Apocalypse, in High Dutch. Besides these two most antient printed books, Mr Bagford told me, That in the manuscript library of Corpus Christi, or Bennet College, in Cambridge, he saw a third, containing the history of our Saviour, printed on one side only of the paper, with such like wooden cuts, but yet more neatly than either of the former which I had before shewn him at Oxford. And these three books being, as is aforesaid, stamped but on one side of the leaf, the whole wrought or cut upon wood, not set or composed with printing-letters, and printed with writing-ink, do sufficiently demonstrate, that the art was as yet in its infancy, and may, though they bear no workman's name, be very reasonably ascribed to Coster, not only because no body else lays claim to them, but because, in divers circumstances, they agree with the history of the man, and with what remains of his workmanship.

If it be asked, Why Coster did not set his name and the year to these books, as well as to that at Haerlem, mentioned by Mr Ellis? it may be answered, That Schrevelius tells us, that Coster bound Fust abovementioned by oath of secrecy, and not to betray the art to any person whatsoever; wherein it is likely that his design was not so much to let the world think that he had a new way of multiplying the copy of a book much quicker than the quickest penman, but that he had designed to impose upon the world, by selling his printed books for new written copies, whereby the book-writer and illuminator must (as he might well pretend) be so paid for their work as to maintain themselves and families. This trick might be long undiscovered in and about Haerlem, because there was no other printing whereby this might be condemned; but at length, as Boxhornius and Schrevelius write, Fust ran away with all his master's tools and materials, and, in process of time, set up a printer's shop at Mentz, being assisted by his servant Peter Schoeffer (a young man of a good genius) who afterwards married his daughter, and became his partner in the business.

The story goes, that this John Fust went to Paris (but whether before or after his settling at Mentz I cannot tell) and that he there offered a great number of printed Bibles to sale, as if they were manuscripts. But the French were not to be so caught; they considered the number of these books, and their exact conformity to one another throughout the whole, to a line, a word, a letter, a point, and that the best of book-writers could not be thus exact; and, therefore, by indicting him of diabolical magic (or threatening him with it) they at once gave birth to the story of Dr Faustus, and caused him to discover the art. And I doubt not but about this time very many books were printed and sold for manuscripts, I have seen divers such books without dates, which looked rather older than any I have seen with them. I speak now of those that are set, or composed of letters, which, with printing-ink of lamp-black and oil, and the printing-press, is said to be the improvement of Schoeffer abovementioned, though Schrevelius, with less reason, ascribes the two former to his countryman Coster.

When Fust and Schoeffer began first to work at Mentz is uncertain; but the first mention I find of him, as a printer at Mentz, is in Schrevelius, Haerlem, p. 272. where he says, That this Fust (or Faustus as he calls him) published *Alexandri Doctrinale, cum Petri Hispani tractatibus*, A. D. 1442; but this, and some other books mentioned by writers on this subject, are never said to be extant in any particular place, in order to be consulted upon occasion, and, therefore their titles and dates are not so much to be relied upon. But another date, which, though not so old, is more authentic, may be found in the above-cited book of Lambecius, p. 989, where he says, he brought away from Inspruck, amongst other choice volumes, and placed in the imperial library at Vienna, a Psalter printed upon parchment, with

this inscription at the end: *Præfens Psalmodum codex venustate capitalium decoratus, rubricationibusque sufficientur distinctus, ad inventionem artificiosa impendi ac characterizandi, absque calami ulla exaratione sic effugiatus, & ad Eusebiam Dei industria est consummatus per Johannem Fust, civem Moguntium, & Petrum Schoeffer, de Gernzheim, Anno. Dom. Millesimo CCCCLVII. in vigilia Assumptionis*. From this time there are constant remains of the industry of those men; and I can mention more books printed by them than the Durandus (in the library of Basil in Switzerland) printed (as a gentleman who saw it told me) A. D. 1458. Joannes Joannensis's *Catholicon* (in her Majesty's and the lord bishop of Norwich's libraries) printed 1460; the Latin Bible of 1462, yet extant in the French king's library, and in divers monasteries beyond the seas, and perhaps in England; the Tully's Offices, printed both in 1465 and 1466 (if both these be not the same edition, the last sheet or leaf being composed afresh); so on 'till Schoeffer worked for himself, after the death of Fust, and Schoeffer's posterity after him.

I add also, that upon the first discovery of the art by Fust at Paris, or at his first settlement or public profession of it at Mentz, it quickly spread over the best parts of Europe †, and was commonly used in other countries before it was known in England (notwithstanding what some writers do affirm to the contrary) the first book that we pretend to have been printed here being Hierom (or rather Rufinus) on the Creed, printed at Oxford, A. D. 1468.

† From these places, and from books, or parts of books, where, or wherein such sorts of letter were used, the printers do still call their letter Italic, Roman, English, &c. austrian, canon, pica, primer, brevier, &c.

To prove this in some measure (not to mention the progress of printing in other countries) I instance in Italy, and particularly Rome. Here, not to insist on the large catalogue of printed books described in an epistle to pope Xystus IV. published at the beginning of the fifth tome of the Bible, printed, with Lyra's commentaries, at Rome, A. D. 1472, and transcribed by Boxhornius, I shall only relate the sum of what I meet with in Bernard Montfaucon's *Diarium Italicum*, tom. i. p. 255, 256; it is, That Joannes Alericensis, in a flattering epistle to pope Paul II. (who was elected A. D. 1464) congratulates him because printing was first used at Rome under his pontificate: which, if spoken of the very first practise of the art at Rome, and not of an established imprimerie, seems to be false, because this learned monk, in the same place, says he saw a Lactantius in the museum (or study) of Mons. de la Thuliere, which has these words at the end: *Lactantii firmiani institutiones causæ in venerabili monasterio Sublacensi, anno 1461, antepenultima Octobris*. Now unless a man will suppose printing to be invented in this monastery, he must believe it to be brought hither from Rome, which is but about 20 miles distant from it; and the same author says, That Floravantes Marrinellus, in his *Roma Sacra*, affirms, that printing was practised at Rome, in the palace of the Maximi, A. D. 1455, under pope Nicolaus V. by Conrad Sweynheim and Arnold Pannartz, who were both Germans, and continued printers there for many years after.

The custom of putting the dates of printed books at the end of them, was taken up in imitation of divers of the middle-aged and recenter manuscripts (for I never saw or heard of any ancient manuscript in capital letters, either Greek or Latin, which has a professed date written in the first hand); but here the inspector ought to be cautious, lest he be led into an error, for several manuscripts at the end have a date, which may be by some understood of the time when those individual copies were written, when as they only notify the time when the author finished his work; and some of these dates, being printed from the manuscripts, have deceived many curious men: for example, the first edition of Lynwood, *Paulus à Sancta Maria*, and others which I could name; besides some dates in ancient printed books, being not corrected are false: such as a book printed in the beginning of the 16th century, in the library belonging to the Ashmolean museum at Oxford, which thus pretends to 400 or 500 years of age: Julius Hyginus, once shewed to me by Mr Millington the bookseller, printed at Paris (as there put down) Ann. Dom. MCCCCXII, instead of MCCCCCXII; for the printer is mentioned as then living in L'Origne de l'Imprimerie de Paris. I have indeed a book, wherein, amongst other tracts, is one of an old print, at the end of which there seems to be such a mistake, though not so easily rectified as the former: the words are these, *Explisit opusculum Enee Sylvii de duobus amantibus in civitate Leydeni, Anno Domini Millesimo CCCC quadragesimo tertio Leien*. Now though Leyden seems to be the place where it was printed, yet 1443 cannot be the time when: for just before Sylvius says himself, *Vale, ex Vienna quinto nonas Julius Mo CCCC quadragesimo quarto*. Sylvius was elected pope by the name of Pius I. A. D. 1458, and died A. D. 1464: now it may seem probable, that, if this tract was printed after his election (as suppose A. D. 1463) or even after his decease, his

papal dignity might have been remembered; if it be judged to have been printed before his election, I know of none that will allow of printing at Leyden (or even in Lyons) so very early.

One objection may be urged against what is said of Coster's or the old printed books abovementioned, being printed upon paper about A. D. 1430, or soon after: for some authors are of opinion, that paper made of linen rags was first made at Basil, by some Greeks who fled out of their country after the sackage of Constantinople, A. D. 1452, in imitation of the cotton paper, commonly used in the Levant. But this can have no force, our paper being much older: for I have a piece, the writing upon which seems to be about 350 years old, and agrees very well with a charter which I have seen of Thomas Beauchamp earl of Warwick, bearing date, A. D. 1358, and 32 Edward III. In the archives of the library belonging to the R. R. dean and chapter of Canterbury, I saw an inventory of the goods of Henry, prior of Christ's Church there, taken upon his decease (as I remember) the 20th year of king Edward the IIIrd, and this is written upon paper in the Cottonian library, though searching after other matters, I could not but observe several writings upon our paper, in the time of most of our kings and queens, as high as the 15th of king Edward IIIrd, and I doubt not but there are others more antient in the same place. But in the East the use of cotton paper is much more ancient; and I have, in the Bodleian library, seen an Arabic manuscript (amongst those which the university bought out of Di Huntingdon's) written in the 427th year of the Heigra, A. D. 1049; and others in the same place, without dates, seem older.

The proximity of the subject causes me here to take notice, that, though the invention of the rolling-press is commonly ascribed to Lipsius, yet it seems older than his time, from a printed book in the Bodleian library, placed Laudi D. 138. this is a *Missale secundum usum ecclesie Herbipolensis* (i. e. Wurtzburgh in Germany): Rodolfus, archbishop of that church, sets forth, in an instrument at the beginning of the book, the reasons why he caused this Missal to be published, which instrument bears date the 8th of November, 1481; by which time he orders all the copies to be finished by Jorius Ryser, his printer, who seems to have done so, since his name, and this year 1481, is written at the end of the book.

Instead of a seal to this instrument, is an engraven print, being the arms of the see, supported by two angels, and St Kilian (it's first bishop and protector) behind; as also this prelate's own arms, with those of the see, in another escutcheon, and a very fine mantling. This is extremely well engraven for the time, and equals the performances of some of our best workmen at present. The evident marks of pressure by the plate, with some touches of ink at the edges, the roughness of the print, and other circumstances concurring, I thought this must needs be wrought off at the rolling-press: but being unwilling to rely too far upon my own judgment, I shewed it to divers very knowing and curious gentlemen, to several printers, engravers, and others working constantly at the rolling-press, who all concurred (though at different times, one not knowing what another had said) that it was not only excellently well engraven (and this before Albert Durer's time) but that it was certainly pulled from the rolling-press, and could be done no other way. And that this print was not done after that time, appears from several notes written here and there in the book: one of them specifies that William Keuth, vicar of Bartholomew's church in Wurtzburgh, bought this book the same year 1481, paying 18 florins for the parchment, printing, rubrication, illumination, and binding. By another it appears, that he gave it to his church for ever; and by some others it appears, that it remained there during the time of his several successors, till the last age, when, as I suppose, the Swedes under Gustavus Adolphus, plundered the church, and brought it out.

3. The antiquity of printing, and the first inventors, having been treated of by many authors, I shall now only give a short account of the observations I have made in many years, from old books of several sorts and kinds. The general notion of most authors is, that we had the hint from the Chinese; but I am not in the least inclined to be of that opinion, for, at that time of day, we had no knowledge of them. I think we might more probably take it from the ancient Romans, their medals, seals, and the marks, or names, at the bottom of their sacrificing-pots, which antiquities we had amongst ourselves in Europe, rather than fetch it so far.

But if it be certain, that cards are as old as our king Henry the VIth, nothing, that I have seen or considered of, seems to give so fair a hint for printing as the making of cards; as is evident by the first specimen of printing at Haerlem, and by some books in the Bodleian library at Oxford, one in Junius's collection, another in archbishop Laud's, and a third in the same, being the lives of the Russian saints, in a thin folio: the leaves are not pasted together, as the former two, but cut on wooden blocks, and illuminated. There is also another rare specimen of the first, in that valuable collection of archbishop Parker, in Bennet college library at Cam-

bridge, bound up with a MS. book. This was shewn me at first by Mr. Bullord, and differs very much from them at Oxford; it is the life of Christ, in figures, or rather the types, of the Old and New Testament. They have not so many specimens of the first printing at Haerlem, as we have in England; and I am apt to believe, that, if some curious persons had the liberty of looking over the libraries in both universities, and that of the Royal Society, there might be found other specimens of the ancient printing, the aforementioned books being taken notice of but of late.

The cutting of the moulds or blocks for making our playing cards, is after the same manner as those of the books printed at Haerlem. They lay a sheet of moist or wet paper on the form or block, being first lightly brushed over with ink, made of lamp-black mixed with starch and water; then they rub it off with a round list with their hand, which is done with great expedition: this is for picture or court cards: after which they paste them together threefold, the coarsest in the middle. They colour them by the help of several patterns or stenciles, as they call them; they are card-paper cut through with a penknife, for every colour, as red, &c. (for at the first printing the card has only a mere out-line:) these patterns are painted with oil-colours, to keep them from wearing out with the brushes; they lay it upon the picture, and by sliding a brush that is full and loose gently over the pattern, it fixes the colour into the cut holes, and leaves it on the print that is to be a card, and so goes through all the colours you see on cards; but this cannot be so well understood by a description, as by seeing them perform it. This I humbly conceive to be their way of printing first at Haerlem, and those books abovementioned. This, methinks, might have been considered before now, if they would have put themselves to the trouble of inspecting the old manuscripts 900 years old; for the great letters are done by the illuminators, the same way as card-making.

The next form of printing at Haerlem was by cutting whole forms in wood from manuscripts exactly written, and without pictures: such I take the Donatus to be, mentioned in Histories; and this might bear date in 1450, some say 1440. This may be as plainly demonstrated as the former, from copy-books which we have seen printed at Rome, Venice, Switzerland, and England, as high as 1500; and, if I mistake not, there is a block cut in box in the collection of the Museum of the Royal Society. This writing is harder to perform than either the Roman, Italic, or any other letters used in printed books.

The third way of printing was with single types made of wood, but to whom the honour of the invention is due, is not very evident; it was then esteemed so great a rarity, that the printers carried their letters in bags at their backs, and got money at great mens houses, by printing the names of the family, epitaphs, songs, and other small pamphlets.

The fourth improvement of this noble art, was the invention of single types made of metal. Here we must entirely give the honour to Peter Schœffer of Grenschien, servant, and afterwards son-in-law, to Faust, who entertained him to work in his house at Mentz: he observing how industrious his master was every day to improve this art, undertook it himself, and with much study and industry brought it to perfection. After he had made several essays, at last he shews it to his master Faust, who having tried some experiments with his new invented single types, finding that it would answer his expectation, was so transported with joy, that, for his reward, he promised he should marry his daughter, whose name was Christian, which some time after he performed; and continued together improving this art with great secrecy, till it became known, and spread itself over all Europe. Sometimes you have their names to the books they printed at the end, and sometimes not; sometimes with dates as high as the year 1457, as the Psalms printed by them, now in the emperor's library, which Lamberius mentions in his Bibliotheca, and as low as the year 1490; and for this we have the authority of Erasmus, in a preface to Livy, printed at Basil by Froben, in 1500.

As for John Guttenburgh, though by abundance of authors he is said to be the first inventor of printing, we cannot find one book with his name and printing.

We may rationally conjecture, that printing with plates of pewter, brass, or iron, either graved, or eat with aqua fortis, was first practised by the working goldsmiths; for they have a way of taking off the impression of their work by the smoke of a lamp, which, perhaps, gave the hint to the graving on brass. We have a dark story of it in some authors.

Having treated of printing, to satisfy the curious, I shall say something of the several advances and improvements it hath received.

The Haerlem printing at first was a book with pictures; they took off the impression with a list coiled up, as the card-makers use the same to this day.

But when they came to use single types, they made use of stronger paper, with vellum and parchment: then they made use of a press, although they afterwards contrived and made it more useful.

Neither was their ink for printing brought to the perfection it is at the first, but improved by degrees.

Rolling press printing was not used in England, 'till king James I. and then brought from Antwerp by our industrious John Speed.

Now, as printing itself is but another way of writing, and brought to perfection by degrees, as other arts; and as pictures either painted, cut in wood, or graved, were called the laymens books, for every one could read a picture, and say this is an house, and that a tree; so I may say, that the pictures or drawings of the Antients, gave the first hint of printing: and if the scribes in process of time, had not brought their art of writing into the decorum and uniformity, and rule in their several volumes, the printers could not have followed them so exactly in the imitation of their letters and pages of their books. Pictures first were those of devotion; then the making of cards was another introduction to the invention of printing: the making of cards I take to be very ancient.

For the first specimen of printing was on one side only, as that at Bennet College, most in figures, with some few words only on the side in labels, like that at Oxford.

The next step is that book at Haerlem; the designs of the prints are better performed; and then they came to have not only lines, but whole pages of words, besides the pictures on a page.

The next step was ballad-printing, with the like pictures, and them but on one side.

The next improvement of this noble art, was the cutting of whole pages on wooden blocks or moulds, and printing on both sides of the page; and the first specimen of this nature was a Donatus, and, as authors say, was printed at Haerlem and at Mentz, although some say a Bible was printed the same way 1457.

Since arts and sciences, especially statuary and sculpture, were arrived at so great perfection, when the Roman empire was in it's glory, as the many beautiful statues, the exquisite intaglia's, and fine medals, which time hath handed down to us, do sufficiently evince; it is much to be wondered at, that they never hit upon the method of printing books.

The dies they made for their coins, and the stamping them on the metal, was in reality printing on metal; their seals cut in cornelians and agates, and their pressing them on dough and soft wax, was another sort of printing; and a third sort was their making their earthen vessels, while the clay was soft, with the name of the potter, or the owner the vessel was made for. These being of a larger size, were properly called signa; the seals cut in stone were called sigilla; sigillum being a diminutive of signum, as tigillum is of tignum: but the later and more barbarous Latinists, have formed the diminutive of signum into signetum; and if a very small pocket-seal, they have called it signaculum.*

* See Joh. Mich. Heinecius de Sigillis. Francof. 1709. fol. p. 16, & seq. Vol. IX. Part. IV.

Montfaucon, in his *Antiquité expliquée*, Tom. III. part 2. chap. 12. gives us the figures and descriptions of several of these larger sigilla or signa, whereon he saith, the names were all cut in hollow in capital letters, Domini patronique nomen majusculis literis insculptum, which he expresses in French, imprimé en creux; and he imagines their use to have been to mark earthen vessels, particularly those great earthen jars, wherein the Romans used to keep their wines. If any of them had occurred to him with the letters excisæ, exsculptæ, protuberant or standing out, as the types in our modern way of printing are made, so accurate a describer of antiquities could not have passed such an one over, without having mentioned it, and that the rather, because of it's being a greater rarity: though several lumps of terra cocta are stamped with letters impressed or hollow, from such protuberant letters as in the following described stamp, but the greater number have the letters raised, or standing out.

The last sort of stamps, where the letters are exsculptæ or protuberant, as is likewise the edge or border round the whole stamp, is made of the true ancient brass, and is covered over with a green scale or coat, such as is usually seen on ancient medals. There was one found in or near Rome. On the back is fastened a ring, whereof the hole is $\frac{2}{3}$ of an English inch one way, and $\frac{2}{3}$ the other way; the plate itself is two inches long, wanting $\frac{1}{10}$, and it's breadth exactly $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch: the sides are parallel to one another, and the ends are likewise parallel to each other, but they are not upon an exact square with the sides, varying about one degree and an half from an exact rectangle. On the under side stand two lines or rows of letters $\frac{7}{16}$ of an inch in height, and well formed Roman capitals: the faces of them stand up all upon an exact level with one another, and with the edge or border of the stamp; their protuberance or height above the ground is different, the ground being cut uneven; for close to most of the letters the ground is cut away only $\frac{2}{10}$, close to some near $\frac{3}{10}$, and close to the edges full $\frac{3}{10}$. The first line contains these letters, CICAECILI, with a stop or leaf to fill up the line; in the second line, HERMIAE SN. which is judged

to be read Caii Julii Cæcilii, Hermiæ Signum. Who this Caius Julius Cæcilius was, we cannot find, he being probably a man in a private station, and so his name hath not been handed down to us in any monuments, but only accidentally in this stamp. In Gruter occur two of the name of Hermias, and several of the Cæcilii, but none with these two names joined together.

The use of this stamp seems to have been for the signature of the above-mentioned private man, to save him the trouble of writing his name, as some people have now a-days. It was certainly used on paper or membranes, being first dipped into ink, or some sort of paint, because of the protuberance of the letters, the hollow letters being fitter for soft substances, on which they leave the impression standing up, and consequently more eligible. Another argument that this stamp was not to be used on any soft substance, into which it might be pressed quite down to the ground, is the unevenness and roughness with which the ground is finished; which, was it to have made part of the impression, the workman would have finished it with more accuracy; but he, knowing that the surface of the letters was to perform the whole work required, was only attentive to finish them with that accurate evenness that these have.

Mr Mattaire, in his *Annales Typographici*, Hægæ 1719, in 4to, p. 4. concludes from the best authors, that our modern art of printing was first thought of about the year 1440. A copy of the book he mentions, ib. p. 13. called *Speculum nostræ salutis*, being pictures of stories out of the Bible, with the verses underneath in Dutch, is to be seen in the Stadt-house at Haerlem. Each page was printed from a block of wood, like a sorry wooden cut; and this was the first essay of printing, which hint was taken from engraving, and is what he means, p. 4. by typi fixi; after which they soon improved to use separate types, as we now do, which he terms, ibid. typi mobiles. This stamp is, in reality, a small frame of fixed types and prints, with our modern printer's ink, which is only a sort of black paint, as readily as any set of letters, cut in the rude manner these are, can be expected to perform.

By the foregoing described stamp of two lines, we may see that the very essence of printing was known to the Romans, and they had nothing to do but to have made a stamp with lines three or four times as long, and containing twenty instead of two lines, to have formed a frame of types that would have printed a whole page, as well as Coster's wooden blocks, which he used in printing the *Speculum Salutis*, which we have in his history.

In the first volume of a Collection of several pieces of Mr John Toland, printed London 1726, in 8vo, p. 297. is a small tract of his, entitled, *Conjectura verosimilis de primæ Typographiæ Inventione*, which is founded upon the following passage in Cicero, in cap. 20. lib. ii. *De Natura Deorum*; where Balbus the Stoic uses the following words in an argument against Velleius an Epicurean.

Hic ego non miror esse aliquem, qui sibi persuadeat, corpora quædam solida atque individua vi & gravitate ferri; mundumque effici ornatissimum & pulcherrimum, ex eorum concursione fortuita? Hoc qui existimet fieri potuisse, non intelligo cur non idem putet, si innumerabiles unius & viginti formæ literarum (vel aureæ vel quales libet) aliquo conjiciantur; posse ex his in terram excussis annales Ennii, ut deinceps legi possint, effici; quod nescio anne in uno quidem versu possit tantum valere fortuna.

He conjectures, that this very passage gave the first hint to the inventors of printing, about the year 1445, because they retained even Cicero's name for their types, calling them formæ literarum, and made them of metal, as he says, aureæ vel quales libet. Moreover, in cap. 10. lib. iii. *De Divinatione*, Cicero hath the very phrase imprimere literas. Brands for making cattle were in use in Virgil's time, Georg. lib. iii. ver. 158. where he says,

Continuoque notas, & nomina gentis inurunt.

Procopius, in his *Historia Arcana*, says, the emperor Justinus, not being able to write his name, had a thin smooth piece of board, through which were cut holes in form of the four letters JUST. which, laid on the paper, served to direct the point of his pen; which being dipped in red ink, and put in his hand, his hand was guided by another. Possibly this may likewise have given the hint to the first of our card-makers, who paint their cards in the same manner, by plates of pewter or copper, or only pasteboards, with slits in them in form of the figures that are to be painted on the cards.

The advantage of printing above writing, has prevailed with the Grand Seigneur to permit a printing-press to be set up at Constantinople. It was obtained upon a memorial presented to him by the Grand Vizier, with the consent of the Musti: the privilege was first granted to Zaid, the son of Mehemet Effendi, ambassador in France, above 20 years since, and Ibrahim Mutafarrica, the author of a small tract. The licence extended to the printing all sorts of books written in the oriental languages, except such as treated of the Mahomedan

medan religion: this book seems to be one of the first that ever was printed there. For, though Gianhauri's Arabic Dictionary translated into Turkish, was what the Turks designed, for particular reasons, to begin withal, yet the manuscript from which they printed off the first sheets, was found to be so incorrect, that the Grand Signor ordered the printing of it to be stopt, 'till a more correct copy could be procured.

During this stop, the book I am to give a brief account of was printed, containing about 150 leaves. The language of it is not Arabic, as was supposed, but Turkish, though it has several words and some sentences that are so.

The title, or what may serve as such, is *TUHHFAT ILKIBAR*, or, *A PRESENT TO THE GREAT*, containing an account of several engagements at sea. The author is Hagi-Caliba, stiled Chelebi Almurhhum, i. e. A gentleman who has obtained mercy or deceased. It consists of two tracts, a large, and a very small one. The latter is done by the publisher, Ibrahim Mutafricca; Mutafricca is a title of honour, signifying a horse-soldier, obliged to go to the wars when the Grand Signor goes in person, but not else. It is a short account of geographical measures of distances, &c. particularly of the circumference of the earth. The principal treatise is partly historical, and partly geographical; the latter treats of the nature of the terrestrial globe, the use of maps, and situation of places, particularly of Venice, Corfu, Albania, &c. and such as border upon the Turkish dominions. The historical part is an account of several naval expeditions and battles between the Turks and Christians, especially during the Holy War in the Mediterranean Sea, with their conquest of the islands and places of note upon the sea-coasts. It is an abridgment of the history of their admirals, from the taking of Constantinople to the year 1653; gives a description of the Grand Signor's arsenal at the Porte, with the charges of maintaining it, and concludes with some directions to the Turkish officers.

Besides a general map of the world, there are three others; one of the Mediterranean, or White Sea, as the Turks call it; another of the Archipelago, and the third of the Venetian Gulph: they have each scales of Turkish, French, and Italian miles annexed; but what is something surprizing, these maps have the degrees of latitude, but not of longitude, marked upon the sides. The last plate has two mariner's compasses, the one containing the Turkish names of the several points, the other, besides the Turkish, has the Arabic names, which are taken from certain stars supposed to rise and set upon or near these points.

The book ends with words to this sense: this treatise was done by the persons employed in the business of printing, at the printing-house erected in the noble month of Dulkaadah, in the year 1141 (i. e. 1728) in the good city of Constantinople. May God, &c. I forgot to observe, it has the imprimature or commendations of a Turkish divine, and three effendies, prefixed; and at the end an index of the errata, with their emendations, in three pages. The whole is done upon shining or gummed paper, stamped with three crescents in pale and an imperial crown, proper to the Turks.

Those who would enter into the history of printing in England, may consult the *TYPOGRAPHICAL ANTIQUITIES: Being an Historical Account of Printing in England: With some Memoirs of the Antient Printers, &c.* By the curious and judicious Mr Joseph Ames, F. R. S. and Secretary to the Society of Antiquaries.

The method of printing with metallic types, is so well described by others, and so generally understood, that we shall not dwell upon this matter. The art, at present, is brought to as great perfection in England, as in any part of Europe.

PRINTING OF CALLIGRAPHY. See *CALLIGRAPHY-PRINTING*.

PRINTING FROM COPPER-PLATES.—The ink being duly prepared, they take a small quantity of it on a rubber, made of linen rags, strongly bound about one another; and there-with smear the whole face of the plate, as it lies on a grate over a charcoal fire. The plate being sufficiently inked, they first wipe it coarsely over with a foul rag, then with the palms of the hand; and to dry the hand, and forward the wiping, rub it from time to time on whiting, which is no advantage to the beauty of the work.

In cleansing the plate well, yet without taking the ink out of the engraving, consists a good part of the addess of the workmen. The French printers use no whiting, as being detrimental to the colour of the ink; nor do they lay the plate on the grate to warm, 'till after inking and wiping it.

The plate thus prepared, is laid on a thick paper, fitted upon the plank of the press: over the plate is laid the paper, first moistened to receive the impression; and, over the paper, two or three folds of blanketing, smoothly laid.

Thus disposed, the arms of the press are pulled; and, by that means, the plate, with its furniture, passed through between the rollers; which pinching very strongly, yet equably, presses the moistened paper into the strokes of the engraving, whence it licks out the ink. See the articles *ENGRAVING, DESIGN,* and *PAINTING*.

Some works require being passed twice through the press, others only once, according as the graving is more or less deep, or the greater or less degree of blackness the print is required to have.

It must be observed, that the stronger and thicker the ink is, the stronger must the rollers pinch the plate: this tempts many of the workmen to use a thinner oil, in order to save labour; which proves prejudicial to the impression.

The wetting of the paper ought to be done two or three days before printing it, to render it the more supple and mellow: as the prints are drawn off, they are hung up to dry.

After the number of prints desired have been wrought off from the plate, they rub it over with olive oil, to prevent its rusting, and set it by against a new impression. If the strokes of the graving be perceived full of ink, hardened therein in the course of the printing, they boil it well in lye, before the oil be applied.

Plain instructions for limning and colouring prints, maps, &c. with water colours

Of the colours generally used in that art.

For	1 White lead.		1 Yellow oaker.
White,	2 Flake white.		2 Masticot.
use,	3 Mussel silver.		3 Pale masticot.
	1 Indigo.	Yellow	4 Dutch pink.
	2 Blue lake.		5 Gamboge.
	3 Blue verditer.		6 Naples yellow.
Blue	4 Smalt.		7 Shell gold.
	5 Ultramarine.		1 Brown oaker.
	6 Latinus.	Brown	2 Chimney foot of a wood fire.
	7 Prussian blue.		3 Cologne earth.
	1 Vermillion.		4 Umber.
	2 Red led.		1 Lamp black.
Red	3 Red oaker.	Black	2 Ivory black.
	4 Lake.		3 Sea-coal black.
	5 Carmine.		4 Indian ink.
	1 Sap green.		
Green	2 Verdigrase.		
	3 Terra verde.		

Out of these colours you may temper all the rest which your work may require.

Some colours are to be washed and ground; as for instance. 1. White lead. 2. Brown oaker. 3. Dutch pink. 4. Umber. 5. Cologne earth. 6. Ivory black.

Some are only to be washed, which are, 1. Red lead. 2. Masticot. 3. Blue bise. 4. Smalt. 5. Ultramarine. 6. Vermillion.

Others are only steeped in fair water; as, 1. Gamboge. 2. French yellow, to which you must add a little allum. 3. Sap green. 4. Blue lake. And 5. Latinus.

And others again are only ground, viz. 1. Flake white. 2. Indigo. 3. Lake. 4. Distilled Verdigrase.

Grind all your colours with fair water, on a hard stone, or on a piece of looking-glass, which fix with white pitch and rosin upon a flat board, having also a muller of that kind.

Of the colours (after you have ground them very fine) you may take as much as will serve your present occasion, and temper them in a gallipot, or shell, with gum water, in which you have also dissolved some sugar-candy. You must observe, that colours which are very dry, require a stronger gum-water; in others it must be used very sparingly.

If your colours will not stick, or the paper or print be greasy, mix a very little ear-wax, or a little drop of fish or ox gall amongst your colour; you may dry your fish or ox gall, and dilute it when you have occasion for it, with a little brandy. If your paper or print sinks, then with clean size and a sponge wipe it over, after you have fastened the edges round upon a board, and let it dry.

You should be provided always with phials, containing the following liquids, which are very necessary and useful in painting or colouring with water colours.

1. A phial with water, in which allum had been dissolved. This you use in wiping over the table, parchment, or paper, before you begin to lay on your colours; it will cause them to lay smooth, and with greater a lustre.

2. A phial with lime-water; you dissolve or slacken some quick lime with fair water, then take the water from off the settled lime, and put it up for service; this is of great use in tempering of sap green and litmus, which colours being apt to turn yellow, are preserved thereby.

3. Gum-water is made of gum-arabic dissolved in fair water; if you add a little white sugar-candy to it, that will keep the colours from cracking, and flying off the parchment or paper.

4. Ox gall, or the gall of eels, boiled up in a little water, and scummed, then put up in a phial; this is of great use in painting of water colours, where the parchment or paper happens to be greasy, by only touching the point of your pencil, to touch it therewith, and to temper it with your colour.

5. White

5. White wine vinegar ; this is of use in grinding of distilled verdigrease, as preserving that colour from changing upon the yellow.

6. A little phial of spirit of hartshorn, a little drop whereof, mixed among the carmine, adds to the beauty thereof.

You must chuse pencils of several sizes, agreeable to the work you are to use them for ; as for laying on a ground, a sky, or clouds, chuse a larger size than those that you use for drapery, trees, &c. wherein you must follow your own reason : those pencils of which the hairs, after you have wetted them between your lips, and turned them upon your hand, keep close together, are the best.

To paint or colour a clear sky.

Take clear blue verditer, mixed with a little white : with this begin at the top of your landscape or picture, and having laid on the blue for some space, break it with a little lake or purple, working it with a clean pencil, one colour imperceptibly into another ; apply more white and masticot, in order to make it fainter and fainter towards the horizon, working all the while the colours imperceptibly one into another, from the horizon to the blue sky ; after which, you may lay some stronger strokes of purple over the light, so as to make them appear like clouds at a distance.

For a fiery red sky, use red lead, and a little white instead of the purple streaks or clouds, working them, according to art, imperceptibly one into another.

Clouds you are to lay on with white and black, sometimes mix a little purple therewith ; but the best and surest direction you can have, is from nature herself.

To lay a ground for walls of chambers, halls, &c.

You must use for a common wall, which is of reddish hue, brown, red, and white, and temper your colour according as it is old or new ; shade it with brown or red, only mixed with a little bistre or foot.

Other walls lay on with black and white, and shade it with the same colours ; sometimes mix a little purple with it, and then you shade it with black and lake.

For waniscotting, that is embellished with carved mouldings, and figures, you must use one colour, for both the plain and the carved work, shading and heightening it with judgment and care.

To paint a fore ground, in imitation of sand or clay, lay on the darker parts with brown oaker ; to what is in their distance, add a little white, and so on in proportion, shading it with brown oaker, and the strong shades with foot.

Of carnation, or flesh colour.

In carnation, or flesh colour, use for young women and children flake white, burnt oaker, and a little vermilion ; some add a little lake, but that must be but sparingly : having laid on the colour for the carnation, you shade the lips, cheeks, chin, knees, and toes, with fine lake and vermilion, and the naked parts, with sea-coal and a little lake, or brown red, or with brown oaker and lake, or else with Indian ink or lake ; for a brownish complexion, mix a little brown oaker among the carnation colour.

Some artists lay the dead colouring of the carnation for young women on with white ; they shade it with paper black, and bring in the carnation colour where it is required.

The paper black is made in the following manner.

Take the paper in which the leaves of gold have lain, burn them quick one after another, and let them drop into a basin of clean water ; then take them out and grind them on a stone to a fine paste, form it into little tents, and let it dry ; when you use it, temper it with gum-water as you see meet.

For ancient people use vermilion, brown oaker, and white ; shade it with bistre and lake.

A dead corpse of a young person, paint with flake white, brown oaker, and a little indigo, or sea-coal, and shade it with bistre or sea-coal.

For an old dead corpse, leave out the indigo, but shade it as before.

For dead bones, take white lead, mixed with a little bistre or chimney foot, with which you shade and heighten it with white lead.

For the hair of young women and children, lay them with light oaker, shade them with deep oaker, and heighten them with masticot and white.

Grey hair, lay on with black and white ; shade them with black, and heighten them with white ; and thus proceed in painting any other coloured hair.

Drops of blood, lay on with red lead, shade it behind, where the light falls, with carmine and lake.

Trees are laid on, some white, black, and bistre, shaded with brown oaker, and heightened with the same colour, with more white in it. Those that stand at a distance, are

laid on with indigo blue, brown oaker and white, and shaded with indigo and brown oaker. Those that are further distant lay on faint, and shadow them but slightly ; which order you must observe in colouring of ships, houses, and other buildings.

In thatched houses, paint the thatch or straw, when new, with Dutch pink, and shade it with brown oaker ; and, to heighten the straw, use masticot and white. Old straw, lay on with brown oaker, sometimes mixed with black and white ; heighten the straw with brown oaker and white.

In colouring cities, castles, or ruins, you must observe nature, for no rules can well be given ; however, to give a little light to a young practitioner, it must be observed, that those houses which lie nearest the fore ground, are coloured with vermilion, white, and a little brown oaker, shading it with that and some bistre ; the heightenings are done with more vermilion, and more white.

Houses further distant, are laid on with lake, and a little blue and white, shaded with blue and lake, and heightened with adding more white.

Such buildings as lie still further, are laid on with a faint purple, and a little blue, shaded softly with blue, and heightened with white ; and the further they are off, the fainter and slighter must be your colour.

Flames and smoke, are laid on with a pale yellow ; shade the smoke with paper black, or foot ; the flames shade with red lead, or vermilion, and heighten them with Naples yellow.

In colouring of rocks, hills, &c. that are at a great distance, observe the same rule. Such as lay nearer the fore ground, you are to imitate according to nature. Trees that are upon the fore ground, you paint with several sorts of greens, the better to distinguish one from the other ; such as are on distant hills, must be done with the same colour as the hills.

Of a fine collection of prints.

A collection of this kind may be divided into historical and moral subjects, the progress of arts, and mixed subjects.

The historical will contain the history of the world, according to its ages, monarchies, and nations, represented by maps, battle-pieces, medals, statues, bas-reliefs, portraits, &c.

The moral part will comprehend emblems, devices, enigmas, of the religion, manners, and politics of different nations, with representations of their virtues and vices.

R E M A R K.

I have often thought that it would prove greatly serviceable to the cause of liberty and protestantism, if some of our best artists for design and engraving, would oblige the world with a set of curious prints, representing the progress of POPERY and SLAVERY, in all its various lights. Nothing, we are inclined to think, could have a more general and happy tendency to discountenance, and indeed, in time, eradicate, if possible, those destructive principles, from among mankind. The Papists we know, study every delusive art to captivate, by their paintings and idolatrous images, the minds of the vulgar, and instigate them to become bigots in their cause : and will it not well become the Protestant interest, to baffle the wiles of such deceivers, with artillery of the like universal power and prevalence ? Certain I am, that something of this kind, executed in a masterly manner, would greatly contribute to root out of the minds of the mass of the people, those detestable notions, and not only strengthen the British constitution in particular, both in Church and State, but tend to the universal propagation of the Protestant interest throughout the world.—Such prints would also be of great use among our Indian allies in North America, and give them, in general, a more lively idea of the happiness which attends living in constant friendship with the friends to liberty, than with those of slavery and arbitrary power.

The progress of arts, will take in the different styles ; by comparing the antique remains with the works of the Gothic ages, and of those eminent masters who have flourished within these 250 years ; in order to observe their original increase and declension, and their re-establishment, to the degree of excellency to which they are now arrived.

The mixed subjects may contain volumes of portraits of celebrated personages, hunting-pieces, and grotesque subjects, &c.

In relation to the history of the world, the 1st, should contain the account thereof, as given us in the Pentateuch.—The 2d, ought to be the sequel of the sacred history, as we find it in Joshua, Judges, Kings, &c.—The 3d, the remainder of the history of the Old Testament, according to Esdras, Tobit, &c.—The 4th, may exhibit an abridgment of nature according to the antient poets and philosophers.—The 5th should shew the fabulous history of the Heathen Deities.—The 6th, the history of the heroic times, the voyage of Argonauts, the war of Thebes, and also Ovid's Metamorphoses the wars of Troy, voyages of Eneas and Ulysses, with the

last acts of the heroic ages.—The 7th, should contain maps and actions of the first and second monarchies of the Assyrians and Persians, with other Asiatic, Egyptian, and African histories.—The 8th, the third monarchy of the Macedonians, comprehending the acts of Alexander the Great, and his successors.—The 9th, the commencement of the 4th monarchy of the Romans; the reign of their 7 kings: under Numa Pompilius may be ranged, those pieces which relate to their religion, sacrifices, ceremonies, and burials of the Romans: under Tullius Hostilius, every thing that relates to their militia: under Tarquinius Priscus, whatever gives an idea of their habits, ornaments, magnificence and triumphs, with the pomp of their public spectacles, feasts, and baths.—The 10th, may take in part of the transactions of the Roman republic, from the expulsion of their kings, under their consuls and dictators, 'till the time of Julius Cæsar; to which should be added, a collection of medals, and other monuments of the antient Roman families.—The 11th, may contain what we have of the reigns of their emperors, Julius Cæsar and Augustus.—The 12th, might shew the manner of the wars of the Greeks, Romans, and antient barbarians.

From the Christian Æra, should be shewn, 1. The subjects of the birth, life, and miracles of our Saviour, who appeared in the 42d year of the Roman Empire, under the reign of Augustus: also the death and sufferings of Christ, and a collection of holy parables.—2. The reigns of the emperors Tiberius, Caligula, and Claudius; under which will be included the history and purity of the infant Christian Church.—3. What passed under Nero and his successors, to the end of the reign of Trajan, with regard both to sacred and profane history.—4. The history of the Dacian war, as represented in the column of Trajan.—5. The ages and reigns of the emperors, from Adrian to the government of Alexander, the son of Mammæa.—6. The emperors, from Alexander to the time of Constantine the Great.—7. The empire of Constantine and his children, to the end of Theodosius's reign, which may be called the last period of the Roman grandeur; at the end of which volume should be placed, the ecclesiastical geography of the patriarchates.—8. The dissipation of the division of the Roman Empire, which began to be usurped by the barbarous nations in the times of Arcadius and Honorius, and ended in the East, by the taking of Constantinople, in the year 1453.—9. The dreadful conclusion of the eastern affairs in Africa, by the conquests of Mahomed, and other Ottoman emperors, by the sophies of Persia, and the kams of Tartary.—10. Should be a series of Mahomedan princes, and Egyptian sultans; the cherifs of Morocco, and kings of Barbary: with which may be connected, a collection of historical pieces to this third part of the globe; the Assyrians, the kingdoms of Congo, and several others.—11. Should contain the habits and ornaments of the Christian Greeks, and other subjects of the Grand Seigneur, with those of the Turks and Romans; of the Tartars, and other barbarous nations: also a collection of some cruelties, and executions.—12. Should be the commencement of the religious orders, which were instituted in the East; such as those of St Anthony, St Basil, the Cross-Bearers, the Jeromites, and the Carmelities.—13. Some historical pieces of the knights of Malta.—14. The institution of the western religious orders, as those of St Augustin and St Bennet.—15. The different orders that have flourished in the East, since St Bennet; to the time of St Dominic and St Francis; i. e. of the Carthusians, Premonstratenses, of the Shady-Valley, the Mathurins, and of the order of the Cistercians.—16. The order of the Dominicans, and historical pieces of the Holy Rosary; a collection of the images of the Virgin Mary, held in veneration by Papists.—17. Whatever can give an idea of the life of St Francis, and of the most remarkable male and female saints, of his three orders: also a description of his desert of Avesne.—18. Should be the sequel of the order of St Francis, with some pieces relating to the order of the Capuchins.—19. Whatever relates to the religious confraternities that have arose in the Romish Church since St Francis and St Dominic, to the present time.—20. A collection of all the whimsical habits and ornaments of ecclesiastical persons, and of the orders of monks and nuns.—21. The representations of religious ceremonies, and of the magnificence of the court of Rome.—22. The ceremonies practised at the interment of Christians, and of the ancient Pagans, and barbarous nations.—23. Public rejoicings, entries, triumphs, tournaments, fire-works, comedies, dances, and masquerades.

1. Of the chronological history of the Papacy, divided into centuries, from the time of Leo III. to the present Pontificate.—2. The sequel of the history of the West, containing a description of the modern city of Rome, its churches, palaces, public buildings, villas, ornaments, and monuments of its ancient grandeur.—3. Of the temporal state of the Popes, as now within and out of Italy.—4. Of the sovereign States of Italy, wherein should be a collection of what chiefly relates to the Republics of Venice, Genoa, Lucca, Ragusa, and St Morino.—5. The sequel of Italy, including the dominions of the kings of the Two Sicilies and Sardinia, the grand duke of Tuscany, duke of Modena, and of the house

of Austria, and other princes in Italy, and those of New Spain, and all that relates to America.—6. The historical subjects relating to the kingdom of Old Spain.—7. Those of the kingdom of Portugal.—8. Historical pieces relating to the house of Austria in the Low Countries.—9. The dominions of the king of Spain in Asia; under which should be comprized what relates to the East-Indies, China, Japan, India Proper, and the rest of the Indian princes.—10. A collection of what concerns the republic of the United Provinces. 11. An historical collection of whatever regards the kingdoms of England and Ireland, to the end of the reign of queen Elizabeth.—12. What relates to the kingdom of Scotland, and to the three kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland, since the union of those crowns in the person of king James the VIth of Scotland, and Isth of England, with a description of this monarchy.—13. What regards the northern States, as Russia, Poland, Sweden, Denmark, and other northern countries.—14. Should contain the state of the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, the archduchy of Austria, the county of Tirol, and other hereditary dominions of the house of Austria.—15. Historical subjects concerning the emperors of Germany, from Conrad, duke of Franconia, who transferred the empire from the French to the Germans, to the late emperor.—16. What relates to the several electors of the empire, as well the ecclesiastical as secular.—17. What concerns the other German princes.—18. Of the free cities of the empire.—19. What relates to the Republics of Switzerland, Geneva, the Grisons, the principality of Neufchatel, and the other allies and subjects of the Switzers.—20. What concerns the duchies of Burgundy, Normandy, Lorraine, and Britany, before they were united to the French monarchy.—21. The antiquities of the Gauls, and portraits of their illustrious persons, before the coming of the Franks, under their first king Pharamond.—22. What regards the history of the French, during the first race of their kings, after their arrival in Gaul, under the conduct of Pharamond.—23. What regards the second race of their kings, from Pepin to Louis the Vth.—24. Should begin with the third race of their kings, and contain all materials that relates to them, from Hugh Caput, to the end of the reign of Charles the Fair, where the right line of the eldest branch ended.—25. What concerns their kings of the third race, from Philip of Valois, to the death of Louis XI.—The reigns of their kings Charles the VIIIth, Louis the XIIth, Francis the Ist, and Henry the II; and as by the marriage of Mary of Burgundy with Maximilian, Europe has been divided into the two families of Austria and Bourbon, to avoid confusion, those pieces relating to the foreign wars of the French, with the portraits of the eminent men who have been either their allies or enemies, may be put under the reigns of their kings.—26. May contain the reigns of their kings, Francis the II, Charles the IXth, and Henry the III.—27. What relates to the order of the Holy Ghost, instituted by Henry the III: here may be added the names and arms of all the commanders and knights of the order, from its first institution to the last creation.—28. What relates to the reign of Henry the IVth.—29. May contain the beginning of the reign of Louis XIII. his portrait, those of the queen, the princes and princesses of the blood, with the arms and portraits of the cardinals, bishops, and great officers of the crown.—30. The arms and portraits of distinguished ecclesiastics, religious, and seculars, who lived during the reign of Louis the XIIIth; to which may be joined Vandyke's portraits.—31. Pieces of the magnificent ceremonies, rejoicings, and other festivals that passed in France, during the reign of Louis the XIIIth.—32. What passed of the same kind in foreign countries, in this reign.—33. Pieces representing the warlike exploits of the French nation, from the beginning of the reign of Louis the XIIIth, to the year 1629, when all the cautionary towns of the Protestants were reduced to his obedience.—34. The military actions that passed in Europe, from the time of Louis the XIIIth, to the rupture of the peace with Spain, in the year 1635.—35. The military actions of the treaty of peace at Treves, to the death of Louis the XIIIth.—36. May contain the habits and ornaments of the ancient and modern French, from the establishment of that monarchy to the present time; to which may be added, those of the conquered provinces, with the cries of Paris, Callot's beggars, and the rural sports of the French.—37. A series of the military actions during the reign of Louis the XIVth, the regency of the duke of Orleans, and the reign of Louis the XVth, now living.—38. A series of the magnificent ceremonies, festivals, public rejoicings, fire-works, &c. during the same period.—39. Geographical description of the French monarchy, as divided into provinces, parliaments, generalities, &c. to which may be added, charts of the coasts, plans, or profiles, of the fortified towns and fortresses, of the principal churches, royal palaces, and public buildings, &c.—40. Maps of the States and Provinces, with plans, or profiles, of the principal towns and fortresses which have been added to the French monarchy, from the beginning of the reign of Louis the XIIIth, to the present time.—[This would convince all Europe of the strides of the French to UNIVERSAL EMPIRE.]—See our article FRANCE.—41. Suitable representations of the

unchangeable treachery and perfidiousness of the French, in regard to treaties, down to the present times.—[See our article PLANTATIONS.]—42. Portraits of all the eminent men in the kingdom of France, either for arts or arms, since the reign of Louis the XIIIth, to the present time; to which may be added, those of Flanders and other countries.—43. Portraits of those people who ought to be avoided; such as the authors of different sects of religion, of men noted for impiety or libertinism, &c. to which may be added, the representations of monsters in the brute creation, by way of contrast.—44. Portraits of saints and martyrs, and their persecutors, with representations of the various tortures inflicted on them, to the present time.

Pieces which illustrate the fine arts of painting, sculpture, and engraving, and curious matters of antiquity, will compose many volumes.—The first may contain the origin of the art of painting, in the Egyptian hieroglyphics, some bas-relievs, trophies, rings, cameo's, vases, urns, ornaments of architecture, ancient inscriptions and epitaphs.—2. Pieces relating to the ancient Hebrews, with a collection of festivals, medals, and antique statues.—3. May regard the two books of the marquis Justiniani's gallery, which are full of antique pieces, and the Trajan column, the most entire piece of antiquity extant.—4. May shew the decline of painting and sculpture, during 1100 years, that the empire was on the decline, from Constantine to the end of the fifteenth century; which should be composed of pieces in the Grecian, Egyptian, and Gothic styles, taken from the old paintings, tombs, medals, seals, and tapestry.—5. May be the books intitled Roma Subterranea, filled with pieces in the decline of the empire, of the Gothic stile.—6. Should be the sequel of the decay of arts, with several pieces from wooden plates, which shew the rudeness of their designs, since the invention of printing.—7. May be the origin of the art of engraving, about the year 1490, containing pieces of the most ancient artists; as of Israel and Martin Tederco, the master of Albert Durer; of Daniel and Jerom Hopfer, and others.—8. The works of Albert Durer, the restorer of painting, and great perfecter of engraving, in Germany and the Low-Countries, about the year 1520.—9. A sequel for the works of the German and the Low-Country masters, containing pieces of Lucas of Leyden.—10. May be filled with pieces engraven on wood, done in Germany since 1500, to this time, as well by Lucas Cranis, Jacob Pens, Holbeins, Hans Schanflig, as others.—11. May be a series for Germany and the Low-Countries, containing pieces of the lesser masters, such as George Pentz, Aldegræf, Lebalde, John D'Hispanien, &c.—12. Should be composed of the works of Francis Flora, who is called the Flemish Raphael, and those of Martin Hemskirk.—13. A sequel for Germany and the Low-Countries, containing some pieces of Lambert Serave, Lambert Lambard; of Peter Brughel, John Mabuse, M. Quintin, George Behan, Gilles Massart, and Gilles Coignet; of Otho Venius, Cornelius Cort, and Theodore Bernard, of Amsterdam; of Francis Klein, a Dane, and of John Strada.—14. Should be still a sequel for Germany and the Low-Countries, containing some pieces of Charles Mander and Francis Pourbus, of Dierlin, and Lambert Lenoir, H. Utouch, Denis Calvaert, Abraham Janssens; of Paul Morelser, Nicholas Hoey, Geldorp, Goltzius, Joshua of Monpre, John Hæfnaghel, Gerard of Groningen, Cornelius Vansichem, John Bol, David Van Boons, and Peter Vander Borch.—15. Should contain some of the works of Henry Hubert, and James Julius Goltzius.—16. The works of William and Crispin de Pas of Magdalen and Barbara de Pas, and of several others of that name.—17. A suit for Germany and the Low-Countries, comprising some of the works of Nicholas le Bruyn, of Theodore de Bry, and of James de Gehin.—18. The works of John, Raphael, Justus, and Gilles Sadalaer, and also those of Martin de Vas.—19. A suit for Germany and the Low-Countries, and to contain some pieces of Anthony and Jerom Wierx, of Lucas Vesterman, Valder, John Saenredam; of John and Herman Muller, James Mathan, Simon Phrygius, Bartholemew Dolende of Mireuelt, and the Balfwert's; of Michael Synders, Baptift Urintz, Hans Bel, Peter and Gerard de Sade; of Asfuerus Londerseel, and of Adrian Collaert.—20. Another suit of masters that flourished in Germany and the Low-Countries, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, viz. of Joseph Heintz, John of Vingth, John Abhac, John Rottenhamer; of M. Kager, Peter Candide, and Dominic Custos; of Christopher Schuvars, John Speccard, and Gerard Seghers; of Bartholemew Sprangers, Abraham Bloemaert, Anthony Van Dyck; of Abraham Brower, Gerard Hontherst, James Jordeans, and of Robert prince Palatine.—21. Should be the works of Sir Peter Paul Rubens, a famous painter of the Low-Countries.—22. The representations of night, and other dark gloomy pieces, of various masters of all nations: as of L. Genth, J. Velde, Wittembrouck, Rembrant, Vanuliet, and others.—23. A collection of divers landskips, done by masters of different nations; that is to say, of Paul and Matthew Bril, of the Sadalaers, Peter Stephano, Cornelius Corneli, Roeland Savery of Monperche, Claude of Lorraine; of Fouquieres, Perelles; of Frederic Scalberge, Som, and the Nains, and seve-

ral others; to which may be added, the pieces of ruins of Henry of Cleves, Michael Colyns, and Newland; with some sea-pieces and maritime prospects.—24. Should be another suit of different landskips, viz. by Peter and John Brughel, Londerseel, J. Velde, Tobit Verdach, Vanderboons, Merian, and others.—25. In order to see the re-establishment of the art of sculpture and engraving, should contain some pieces of the first painters and engravers, as of Anthony Pollarolo, Andrew and Benedict Montegna; of Dominic Campagnola, John of Brescia, and James of Verona; as also of several ancient engravers, whose pieces are only known by their marks: as the masters of the name of Jesus, Mercury, the crab-fish, the bird, the star, and several others; to which may be added some pieces of the first Italian painters, as of Giotto, Chirlandaio, or Hercules of Ferrara; of Peter of Perugia, the master of Raphael, and of Giorgione, the master of Titian.—26. Should be a suit of the Italian masters, containing only some of the works of Raphael of Urbin, and those engraven only by Mark Antonio, and Augustine of Venice.—27. A suit of the works of Raphael, engraved by the ancient masters, from 1530 to 1560; that is to say, by Julius Bonafone, Sylvester, and Mark of Ravenna, Beatrix of Lorraine, and others.—28. Should contain some pieces of Michael Angelo.—29. Another suit of the works of the Italian masters, containing some pieces of Anthony of Correggio, Francis Matzuolo, surnamed Parmigiano, and Polydore of Caravaggio.—30. The works of Titian.—31. Should contain the works of Julio Romano, the Caracci, and Perin del Vaga, engraved by John B. of Mantua, and Diana his daughter, as also by Theodore Ghisi, and George Julius of Mantua.—32. The works of the painters and sculptors that were contemporaries of Raphael and Michael Angelo, to the end of the sixteenth century, viz. of Baccio Bandinelle, the Salviati; of Balthazar of Peruzzi, Dominico Beccafumi; of Sodom of Sienna, Pordenone, Marcellus Venusio, and Baptift, a monk of the order of Camaldoli.—33. Should contain some pieces of Thaddeus and Frederick Zuccherò, of Daniel of Volaterra, Mark of Sienna, and Baptift del Moro.—34. Some pieces of Paul of Verona, Paul Farinate, the Bassans; of Tintoret, Baptift Franco of Mutiano, and the elder and younger Palma.—35. Some pieces of those who flourished between the year 1550 and the end of the sixteenth century, viz. of Æneas Vico, Martin Rota, and Reverdino; of Camillo Proccacini, Baptift Fontaner; of Cornelius Cort, Pasfaro, and Sebastian of Venice.—36. A suit of the works of the Italian engravers who flourished towards the latter end of the sixteenth, and the beginning of the seventeenth century; that is to say, of Cherubino Alberto, Villamena, of Raphael Shiaminosa, and the Tomasini.—37. Should contain the pieces of Francis Vanius, Ventura, Salembeni; of Civoli, Michael Angelo, Caravaggio, and the three Caracci.—38. Should be a suit of the works of the Italian painters of the seventeenth century, viz. of the Capuchin friars, Piazzo, and Cosmo of Castel Franco; of Hippolitus Scarzelin of Schiavone, Cangiage Borgian, Charles of Venice, Pasqualin of Verona, Alexander Cefalani, Bernard Castello, Vespasian Strada, Anastasius Fontebuono, Francis of Virterbo, Luke Ciamberlani, Andrew of Ancona; of Anthony Pommerange, of Matthew and Frederic Greuter; of Philip of Naples, and Stephen Dellabella.—39. A suit also of the works of the painters and sculptors that flourished during the seventeenth century, viz. of Cavalier Josepino, Guercino, Cirano, Francis the Fleming, and Marcel of Provence, the restorer of mosaic painting; of Gentilique, Valentin, Edward Fialetti; of Peter Beretino of Cortona, Dominichino and Guido Rheni.—40. Should be to shew the re-establishment of painting in France, and contain some pieces of René, king of Sicily, of Leonard da Vinci, Andrew del Sarto, and Rosso.—41. A suit of some of Primaticcio's works, engraved by Leo of Avesennes, and Anthony Jantus, his engravers; as also some pieces of Jeffrey of Montiers, Leonard of Limogues, Stephen of Losne, René Boivin, Luke Penis, Dominic of Florence, and Leonard Thury.—42. May be filled with the works of John Courfin, John Genet, of Swiss, of Little Bernard, Peter of Latour, Laurence the glazier, Justus of Egmont, and of several others engraven in France since the commencement of the sixteenth century.—43. Should contain some pieces of those masters who flourished at the latter end of the sixteenth century, and during the reign of Henry the IVth and Mary of Medicis, viz. of Freminet de Breuil, Burnet, Caron, du Bois Lallemand, Thomas de Leu, Leonard Gaultier, and others.—44. The works of those masters who flourished about the middle of the seventeenth century, that is to say, of James Blanchard, de Rabel, Ferdinand, Isaias Fournier, John Lis Faber, and Mallerac; of Ruelle, Bellango, and James Calot.—45. Should also be composed of the works of James L'Homme, of Little Francis, Vanmol, Mellin, Quesnel, St Igny, Joffelin, Rouffellet, and Peter Brebiette.—46. May be filled with the works of the best French engravers, viz. Claudius Mellan, Gregory Huret, Peter Daret, Gilles Rouffellet, Michael Lafne, and many others.—47. With the works of the most eminent French painters; that is to say, of Simon Vouët, Nicholas Poussin, James Stella, Champagne Bourbon,

Bourdon, de la Hire, Vignen, Loir, Charles de Brun, and Peter Mignard, engraved by the best masters.—48. May be filled with the finest pieces of the most celebrated engravers of the seventeenth century.—49, 50, &c. may contain a collection of pieces of different masters of all nations, who have been either omitted or forgotten in the preceding account, or have flourished since the end of the seventeenth century, as well as of others now living, whose names we shall not specify, having an equal veneration for them all.

The subjects of morality will also form several volumes, viz.

1. May contain some emblems of the Christian worship.—
2. May be the representations of the virtues and the vices, with their symbols.—
3. A collection of different emblems, fables, and enigmas.—
4. A collection of devices of popes, king's, prelates, princes, noblemen, and others.—
5. May be composed of a collection of historical emblems, devices, and enigmas, relating to love and death.

The mixed subjects will compose some volumes, viz. 1.

- May be a collection of the remarkable women mentioned in the Old and New Testaments.—
2. Of holy virgins, martyrs, female saints, beatified nuns, &c.—
- 3, 4. May also be collections of Christian empresses, queens, and illustrious women of different nations.—
5. The representations of Roman ladies, taken from the antique statues, busto's, bas-relievo's, &c.—
6. A collection of the goddesses of the ancient pagans, with some illustrious Egyptian, Grecian, Asiatic, Persian and Mahometan ladies.—
7. May be filled with the portraits of women, both ancient and modern, who were either imperfect, mad, or prostitutes.—
8. May comprehend a collection of all sorts of hunting, fishing, and fowling-pieces; to which may be added, a collection of remarkable animals that are treated of in the aforesaid pieces.—
9. May be filled with a number of grotesque pieces; to which may be added, a collection of all sorts of masquerades.

R E M A R K S.

Our principal reason for enumerating the preceding particulars is, with a view to give the reader a general idea how extensive a subject the article of prints may be rendered, what scope there is for the genius of the greatest artists, and how considerable a branch of trade is derivable therefrom. See our articles DESIGN, ENGRAVING, and PAINTING. For these reasons, it is certainly good policy to give all reasonable public encouragement to all our own subjects who shall excel herein, that the catalogue may be swelled as well with the names of Britons as of foreigners; for, in that case, we may become exporters as well of the productions of our own celebrated masters, as importers of those of other countries. Besides, to excel in the refined arts in general, gives a reputation and dignity to a nation in all its commercial concerns; and, indeed, where these arts do not flourish, commerce can never arrive to that height it will do in nations where they do, they being the foundation of multitudes of other dependent trades.

It is needless to say a word in favour of an art so apparently useful in other respects, it tending to communicate an universal knowledge of nature and history, men and things, in general, in the most familiar manner, and greatly to aid and assist the memory in the retention of what we may have read for the embellishment of the mind, and the improvement of the understanding.

The elegancies of life, to a polite and wealthy people, become necessities; the very natural wants of a refined Briton and a savage Indian are not the same. Artificial desires, by long habit, work themselves into our constitution, and in the next generation become, as it were, innate. A new refinement creates a new desire, as importunate as any of the immediate calls of nature, when we once perceive the gratification within the reach of a little more industry. Hence a peculiar passion arises, useful, like all the rest, under proper regulation, and productive of much social good, serving both to excite our own industry and that of others, to carry the standard of genius, and rational invention still higher, and to find endless employment for an increasing people. Luxury, if the name were not in ill repute, might be distinguished into virtuous and vicious: so far as it partakes of invention, and discovers the application of the higher gifts of God in the creation, it is virtuous; and grows vicious only, when we are tempted by it to an abuse of these improvements.

The lower branches of manufacture, wherein the price is paid chiefly to labour, contribute most to the increase of labouring hands. The trades of refinement are no ways comparable to these, for the number they employ. The arts of elegance are in next esteem, wherein we are an age behind our neighbours; what these may want in merit, as to increase of numbers, they make up in that of wealth, the price of art rising above labour, in proportion as genius is a scarcer commodity than strength.

There is nothing incompatible in the arts of ingenuity and

those of labour; and all the plainer trades may be retained, notwithstanding the higher arts are introduced, in which case we should be both a richer and a greater people.

This art is the parent of many others: it is the parent of DESIGN in general, and that is the great parent of numberless useful and elegant arts and trades. An academy for the fine arts under a royal charter has been long talked of in this nation, and why it should be so long neglected is matter of concern.

In the liberal sciences in the knowledge of nature, and the means of conveying it, we are not inferior to any other nation in Europe. He that designs, as well as he that writes, must find his advantage in this; since the learning of the historian, poet, and philosopher, are as requisite to the accomplished painter, as to him that is distinguished by either of those particular appellations. At least, the painter cannot universally excel without a tincture of all those sciences, in which the professors of literature are severally and distinctly excellent.

But the greatest pre-requisite, the most essentially necessary of all qualifications, is skill in drawing. Without this, neither the genius nor learning of the designer, painter, or sculptor, can be displayed to advantage. It is the *sine qua non*, after all other accomplishments are obtained.

Monsieur de Voltaire observes, that the Italians, on the revival of the liberal arts and sciences, gave them the name of Virtue. From this word was derived the term *Virtuoso*, which has been accepted throughout Europe, and is of daily use in England. Should not this appellation intimate, to those who assume it to themselves, that the study of what is beautiful, in nature or art, ought to render them more virtuous than other men?

That these studies have really such a tendency, when not perverted to lascivious or immoral purposes, is undeniable: and whether, when thus perverted, they ought to be ranked among the ornaments of life, I very much doubt. We are certain that the poets, artists, and philosophers, who have acquired the highest seats in the temple of Fame, are not those who prostituted their genius or skill to the gratification of the sensual and culpable passions.

The painter, the sculptor, the architect, (who, with the musician, are properly distinguished from other artists by the epithet liberal added to their professions) have so near an affinity with the poet, the philosopher, the orator, and the geometrician, that there needs no apology for the frequent parallel we have made betwixt them. A noble and admired author, no less an one than the earl of Shaftesbury, has done the same; and whilst he prefers the artist of genius, to the mere scholar by profession, gives such reasons for it, as I should do myself an injury not to transcribe.

‘Hardly can I forbear, says his lordship, making some apology for my present recourse to the rules of common artists, to the masters of exercises, to the academies of painters, statuary, and the rest of the virtuoso tribe. But in this I am so fully satisfied I have reason on my side, that, let custom be ever so strong against me, I had rather repair to these inferior schools to search for truth and nature, than to some other places, where higher arts and sciences are professed.

I am persuaded that to be a virtuoso (so far as befits a gentleman) is a higher step towards the becoming a man of virtue and good sense, than the being what in this age we call a scholar; for even mere nature itself in its primitive simplicity, is a better guide to judgment, than improved sophistry and pedantic learning. The *faciunt, nœ, intelligendo, ut nihil intelligunt*, will be ever applied by men of discernment and free thought to such logic, such principles, such forms and rudiments of knowledge, as are established in certain schools of literature and science. The case is sufficiently understood, even by those who are unwilling to confess the truth of it. Effects betray their causes. And the known turn and figure of those understandings, which spring from nurseries of this kind, give a plain idea of what is judged on this occasion.

To imitate nature agreeably, is undoubtedly the perfection of art; but this can be done only by a good eye, which makes a beautiful choice among the objects that nature presents.’ This is well explained by the same noble author, whose thought, attentively considered, might reconcile those who dispute concerning the propriety and just extent of that imitation.

‘A painter, says his lordship again, if he has any genius, understands the truth and unity of design; and knows he is even then unnatural, when he follows nature too close, and strictly copies life. For his art allows him not to bring all nature into his piece, but a part only. However, his piece, if it be beautiful and carries truth, must be a whole by itself, complete, independent, and withal, as great and comprehensive as he can make it. So that particulars, on this occasion, must yield to the general design, and all things be subservient to that which is principal. In order to form a certain easiness of sight, a simple, clear, and united view, which would be broken and disturbed by the expression of any thing peculiar or distinct.’

An act for the encouragement of the arts of designing, engraving, and etching historical and other prints, by vesting the properties thereof in the inventors and engravers, during the time therein mentioned.

Whereas divers persons have by their own genius, industry, pains, and expence, invented and engraved, or worked in mezzotinto, or chiaro oscuro, sets of historical and other prints, in hopes to have reaped the sole benefit of their labours: and whereas printfellers, and other persons have of late, without the consent of the inventors, designers, and proprietors of such prints, frequently taken the liberty of copying, engraving, and publishing, or causing to be copied, engraved, and published, base copies of such works, designs, and prints, to the very great prejudice and detriment of the inventors, designers, and proprietors thereof; for remedy thereof, and for preventing such practices for the future, may it please your Majesty that it may be enacted, and be it enacted by the king's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That from and after the twenty-fourth day of June, which shall be in the year of our Lord 1735, every person who shall invent and design, engrave, etch, or work in mezzotinto, or chiaro oscuro, or, from his own works and invention, shall cause to be designed and engraved, etched, or worked in mezzotinto or chiaro oscuro, any historical or other print or prints, shall have the sole right and liberty of printing and reprinting the same for the term of fourteen years, to commence from the day of the first publishing thereof; which shall be truly engraved with the name of the proprietor on each plate, and printed on every such print or prints; and that if any printfeller, or other person whatsoever, from and after the said 24th day of June, 1735, within the time limited by this act, shall engrave, etch, or work, as aforesaid, or in any other manner copy and sell, or caused to be engraved, etched, or copied and sold, in the whole or in part, by varying, adding to, or diminishing from the main design, or shall print, reprint, or import for sale, or cause to be printed, reprinted, or imported for sale, any such print or prints, or any parts thereof, without the consent of the proprietor or proprietors thereof first had and obtained in writing, signed by him or them respectively, in the presence of two or more credible witnesses, or, knowing the same to be so printed or reprinted without the consent of the proprietor or proprietors, shall publish, sell, or expose to sale, or otherwise, or in any other manner dispose of, or cause to be published, sold, or exposed to sale or otherwise, or in any other manner disposed of, any such print or prints, without such consent first had and obtained, as aforesaid; then such offender or offenders shall forfeit the plate or plates on which such print or prints are or shall be copied, and all and every sheet or sheets (being part of, or whereon such print or prints are or shall be so copied or printed) to the proprietor or proprietors of such original print or prints, who shall forthwith destroy and damask the same; and further, that every such offender or offenders shall forfeit 5s. for every print which shall be found in his, her, or their custody, either printed or published, and exposed to sale, or otherwise disposed of contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act; the one moiety thereof to the king's most excellent Majesty, his heirs and successors, and the other moiety thereof to any person or persons that shall sue for the same, to be recovered in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in which no wager of law, essoin, privilege, or protection, or more than one imparlance shall be allowed.

Provided nevertheless, That it shall and may be lawful for any person or persons, who shall hereafter purchase any plate or plates for printing from the original proprietors thereof, to print and reprint from the said plates, without incurring any of the penalties in this act mentioned.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That if any action or suit shall be commenced or brought against any person or persons whatsoever, for doing or causing to be done any thing in pursuance of this act; the same shall be brought within the space of three months after so doing; and the defendant and defendants, in such action or suit, shall or may plead the general issue, and give the special matter in evidence; and if upon such action or suit a verdict shall be given for the defendant or defendants, or if the plaintiff or plaintiffs become nonsuited, or discontinue his, her, or their action or actions, then the defendant or defendants shall have and recover full costs, for the recovery whereof he shall have the same remedy, as any other defendant or defendants in any other case hath or have by law.

Provided always, and be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That if any action or suit shall be commenced or brought against any person or persons, for any offence committed against this act, the same shall be brought within the space of three months after the discovery of every such offence, and not afterwards; any thing in this act contained to the contrary notwithstanding.

And whereas John Pine of London, engraver, doth propose

to engrave and publish a set of prints copied from several pieces of tapestry in the house of lords, and his majesty's wardrobe, and other drawings relating to the Spanish invasion, in the year of our Lord 1588; be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That the said John Pine shall be intitled to the benefit of this act, to all intents and purposes whatsoever, in the same manner as if the said John Pine had been the inventor and designer of the said prints.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that this act shall be deemed, adjudged, and taken to be a public act, and be judicially taken notice of as such by all judges, justices, and other persons whatsoever, without specially pleading the same.

R E M A R K S.

This act has given some little encouragement to those artists, but is no way equivalent to the difficulties and discouragements under which they have long laboured, by printfellers and others, as I could instance, though it is apparent that they have manifested talents no way inferior to the artists of any other nation: so great is this merit, that they stand in need of nothing but the effectual patronage of the great to render them superior to any other artists in all Europe. See the articles ENGRAVING and DESIGN.

P R I S A G E and B U T L E R A G E.

I. * Prifage is a certain taking or purveyance of wines to the king's use, out of every ship bringing in wines, belonging to the natives of England, except those particularly hereafter exempted, being the only duty or custom that was anciently payable for the same to the kings of England: † and that the king's butler might not take more than was really necessary for the king's use, the steward of the king's house, and treasurer of the wardrobe, were to send the certain quantity to all the ports of England, the which he was to take within ten days.

* 40 Hen. III. 28 Edw. I. 6 Edw. III. 20 Rich. II.
† 20 Edw. III. cap. 21. 43 Edw. III. cap. 3.

This duty is not due 'till the unlading or breaking of bulk, for the words are, *De qualibet nave importante vina & disonerante inde*, so that the breaking of bulk, or the landing of any part of the cargo, subjects the ship to the whole duty, according to the quantity on board, though there be not more than one ton landed; therefore, when there are any wines on board, designed for foreign parts, the master should distinguish them in his report, from those which are to be landed in England: and when prifage is taken at any one port, and the ship proceeds to another, the collector of that port should be acquainted thereof, by noting it on the back of the master's report, which he is to carry with him, to prevent it's being taken again.

This duty is either single or double.

Single prifage is one ton, and is due in kind, when the quantity imported amounts to, or exceeds, 10 tons, but is under 20 tons: for if under ten tons, there is not any prifage due.

Double prifage is two tons, and is due in kind, when the quantity imported amounts to, or exceeds, twenty tons, which is the most due out of any one ship: one ton to be taken before the mast, and the other behind the mast, at the pleasure of the king's butler or prifage-master; who may taste the whole cargo, and chuse the best wines, and fill up the vessels, or chuse those that are the fullest, and take them away, allowing only * 20s. per ton for freight; or if the owners had rather, he may compound with them for the whole quantity at a certain price, as is the practice in London, and most other ports.

* 28 Edw. I. cap. 2.

But note, if any merchant brings in, to the quantity of above nine or nineteen tons, be it but a tierce or upwards, whereby to evade the payment of prifage, he is liable to the same, as if the full quantities of ten or twenty tons had been imported; or if any ship brings into the quantity of prifage at several times within the compass of the same vintage, this duty is due as if all those quantities had been imported all together; or if any merchant enters any quantity of wines in several bottoms at the same time, or at several times within the compass of the same vintage, in the whole quantity amounting to prifage, the same is due, as if imported in one bottom, and at one time.

But king Edward III. by his charter, dated 6 Martii, anno regno primo, granted a discharge from prifage to the mayor, commonalty, and citizens of London, in hæc verba, *quod de vinis civium, nulla prisa fiat, sed perpetuo inde essent quieti, &c.* which was afterwards allowed in the Exchequer. Though it is not every citizen that is capable of this exemption, but only those that are resident within the city, being freemen and housekeepers, paying scot and lot; for he that would

would claim the benefit of this discharge, ought to be civis & incola commorans: for upon complaint that the lord mayor of London made strangers citizens, it was declared by an act of the 4th of Henry VI. (a private act) that the discharge from prisage should not extend to such citizens as were donati, made free, but only to such as commorant, incolant, and are resident in the city: and not only the merchants of London, but also of the Cinque Ports, Southampton, and Chester, are exempted from prisage by particular charters; yet if an inhabitant of any other place, should consign wines to be delivered and landed at any of those places, the bare discharge of the goods will not acquit the importer; for it is not the party's importation, but his domicile that exempts him.

II. * Butlerage is a duty of two shillings for every ton of wines, for which freight is to be paid, brought into this realm by merchant-strangers; being a composition (in lieu of the duty of prisage payable in kind by English only, and from which strangers were exempted) in consideration of the liberties and freedoms first granted by king John, and afterwards by king Edward the 1st, to all merchant-strangers by these words, in a charter called † charta mercatoria; Concesserunt de quo libet doleo vini quod adducunt, vel adduci facerent, infra regnum, &c. solvent nobis & hæredibus nostris, nominæ custumæ, duos solidos, &c.

* Book of Rates referred to by 12 Car. II. cap. 4.
† 31 Edw. I. cap. 1 & 2. 27 Edw. III. cap. 26.

With regard to those duties of prisage and butlerage, it must be observed, That if * wines are entered in another man's name, in order to defraud the king of the duty, the penalty is double the value of the prisage, and all the offender's goods and chattels personal for ever, provided the prosecution be within three years: and that the † collector, comptroller, and surveyor, are not to take any man's entry of wine, 'till he hath produced the butler's or his deputy's bill, testifying that he hath seen the same.

* 1 Hen. VIII. cap. 5. §. 6, 7. 2 & 3 Edw. VI. cap. 22. §. 3, 4, 5. 1 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 6.
† In Rot. Scac. Term. Sanct. Hil.—7 Eliz.

And though by the * act of tonnage and poundage, a subsidy and additional duty were laid upon all sorts of wines imported, yet as the prisage of wines, or prise wines were exempted from those duties, the duties of prisage and butlerage were still continued and confirmed to be paid in like manner as before.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 15.
† 12 and 27 Rules of the Book of Rates.

Though prisage and butlerage (which were originally the only duties due upon the importation of wines) were taken and received for the proper use of the crown; yet for many years past, the kings of England have been pleased to grant the same to some nobleman, who by virtue of his patent or grant, is to enjoy the full benefit and advantage thereof, and may cause the same to be levied and collected in the same manner as the kings themselves might, and were formerly wont to do, and under the same pains and penalties.

The patentee or proprietor of these duties, appoints a deputy in every port (usually the collector of the customs) to levy and collect the same for him, in the best manner he can, by taking the prisage either in kind, or by making a composition, the latter whereof is the most usual method.

And when prisage is compounded, it is by paying a certain rate per ton, according to agreement made with the prisage-master, for all the wines on board each ship, liable to this duty: but as there is a difference in favour of the prisage-master, between the customs and other duties due to the crown, which are to be paid by him and the merchant; so that if the merchant compounds, and enters the quantity for prisage, which, if taken in kind, must have been entered by the prisage-master, he will pay less duty to the king for the said quantity; therefore, in this case, over and above the composition aforesaid, such difference in the duties must be allowed to the prisage-master, unless the composition be at such an high rate as shall be equivalent.

Some law cases relating thereto.

King Edward I. having laid some impositions on the merchants, which in the twenty-fifth year of his reign were taken away, with promise that neither he nor his successors should do the like, without assent of parliament, in the 31st year of that king they granted him an increase of customs: in lieu of which, he granted to some places divers immunities, as release of prisage, &c. And king Edward III. by his charter, dated the 6th of March, in the first year of his reign, granted to the mayor, commonality, and citizens of London, that they should be for ever discharged from prisage of wine; which charter was afterwards allowed in the Exchequer. 44 Eliz. It has been held, that it is not every citizen of London that is capable of this privilege, but only those citizens that are

resident within the city; so it was ruled in the case of one Knowles, who being a citizen and free grocer of London, removed with his household to Bristol, where he dwelt, but yet kept his shop in London; and a ship of his arriving with wines at London, and being unladen, the prisage was demanded: he claimed the benefit of discharge as a citizen, these being his own proper goods. It was adjudged he was not intitled to the same; for he who claims the benefit of his exemption, ought to be a citizen and inhabitant there. In this case, it was said for the defendant Knowles, that if a person unlade his wines before prisage paid, then the king's officer cannot have his election. Trin. 4. Hen. VI.

If a ship bound for the port of London, should by stress of weather or otherwise, be forced into any other port, in such case the citizens are to enjoy their privilege, as well as if the ship had arrived at London. Hardr. 311. In case several ships of burden import wine into a port in small parcels, as where only nine tons and three hogheads were imported in each vessel; this was held to be fraud, and that prisage should be paid for them: and, in equity, it hath been the usual custom to cause single prisage to be paid for nine tons and a half; but not if it be only nine tons imported. Hardr. Rep. 218, 477.

The king granted to a Venetian merchant, that he should be quit of all customs, subsidies, and impositions, and all other sums of money, debts and payments, for any merchandizes whatsoever imported, and that he should be as free as the citizens of London; notwithstanding these particular words in the grant, it was resolved in the Exchequer, that by that grant he was not discharged from prisage, because the prisage is not specially expressed therein, although the city of London were, by a special charter, free of prisage. The lord mayor of London cannot make strangers-citizens to be discharged from payment of prisage. Davis's Rep. Hil. 43 Eliz. B. R.

Prisage is not due and demandable 'till the bulk is broken: but if a foreigner brings a ship, laden with wines, to a port with intent to unlade, and before the goods are entered, or bulk broke, he sells them to a citizen, prisage shall be paid; for the king's grant shall not discharge any citizen in such a manner. If the king, by grant, discharges a certain ship of A. being at sea, particularly naming the same, from paying prisage, and the owner dies before the ship arrives, no duty can be demanded; it is otherwise if a particular person has a grant to him to be discharged of his goods, and he dies before the arrival there, the duty shall be paid. Hil. 13. Jac. I.

An information being brought by Sir Thomas Waller, chief butler to king James I. against Frances Hanger, widow, for detaining eight tons of wine due for prisage, setting forth that two ships laden with wines, belonging to George Hanger, came to the port of London, and afterwards two more, in which four ships there were 124 tons of wine, whereof eight tons were due to the king, and that the defendant, who was the widow of the said George Hanger, refused to deliver them: the defendant confessed that the four ships did arrive in the port of London; two in the life time of her husband, and two after his death, and that he was possessed of the said wines ut de bonis propriis; and being so possessed thereof, made her his executrix, and died: that she proved her husband's will, and took upon her the executorship, and did unlade those two ships which arrived after the death of her husband; then she pleaded the grant, Old 3. unto the mayor, &c. of London, quod de vinis civium, of citizens wine, no prisage shall be taken, but that they shall for ever be discharged of the same, and denied that these wines were her goods; for that she had nothing in them, but as executrix to her husband, and that he was a freeman and citizen of London. Upon this plea, it was a question, whether prisage was due for those wines, and adjudged, that the husband was a citizen of London at the time of his death, and that the wines were bona civi, and so within the grant; and by consequence discharged from the payment of prisage in the hands of the executrix, who represented his person. Trin. 11. Jac. Bridgm. 1, 2. Bull. 250.

This great case was several terms, and in divers courts depending, wherein there was a diversity of opinions among the judges; some insisted, that prisage ought here to be paid unto the king, especially for the two last ships, for the widow and executrix has the wines in another's right. And as to the privilege of discharge, the difference ought to be, where the goods are attached in the life of the husband, and where after his death; when it is in his life-time, and he dies the same day, yet the discharge shall continue; but here the same was after his death: and these are not the wines of George Hanger now, for that he is dead, and he hath no goods, nor is he now a citizen; and the discharge here should go only to the person of a citizen. But the lord chief justice Coke held, that this privilege, to be exempt from prisage, is not so much tied to the person, but also to the wines of citizens, and the charter itself goeth unto them; and the discharge is of wines as of a chattel, and then a representative shall be within the compass of a grant; also an executor shall not forfeit the goods which he hath as executor; and the reason is, because they still are the goods of the dead: here George Hanger

Hanger was a complete citizen in every respect, and so continued 'till his death; and these wines, in the hands of his executrix, are bona civium, and therefore within the extent of this grant, to be freed from prisage. 3 Bulst. 2, 23, 26. By the act of tonnage and poundage, 12 Car. II. c. 4. it is declared, that the prisage of wines ought not to pay tonnage or custom, and shall not be charged with the payment of any custom, subsidy, or sum of money, imposed upon wines by this statute, or any thing therein contained. But in the 1 Jac. II. c. 3. there is a proviso, that no merchant shall be charged with any duty granted by this act for the prisage of wine, which he imports in any ship or vessel; but that it shall be received and taken from the person who hath the benefit of the said prisage wine, who is hereby appointed to pay the same. And by a late * act, which makes allowances to merchants importers, out of the several duties laid on wines for such wine as is damaged; it is enacted, That the said allowances shall be made, not only to the merchant at importation, but also to the prisage-master, or proprietor of the duties of prisage: though it is here declared, that any thing in this act contained, or to be done in execution thereof, shall not extend to diminish or lessen the duties of prisage and butlerage of wine, due upon the importation of the same; but that the said duties shall be collected and received, in the same manner as if this act had never been made.

* The statute 6 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 2 & 7.

In a late case, where an action was brought for money received to the use of the plaintiff, a special verdict was found by the jury; that king Charles I. gave to J. S. and his heirs, the duty of prisage of all wines imported, to hold the same, discharged of all aids and taxes; and the question was, Whether the grantee should pay tonnage or not? It was here observed, that the duty of tonnage was first imposed by 12 Car. II. viz. 4l. 10s. on all French wine; then comes 1 Jac. II. c. 3. and imposes 8l. per ton on French wines, with a clause, that the grantee of prisage should pay the duty: after this the 7 and 8 W. III. c. 20. imposes 25l. a ton; and then comes 9 & 10 W. III. c. 23. which grants an additional duty of 4l. 10s. per ton, to be levied as by the statute 12 Car. II. On this remarkable cause in the court of exchequer, it was there adjudged, that the said grantee of the prisage wine should not pay the duty of tonnage: but, upon this, a writ of error was brought in the Exchequer Chamber, and the judgment was there reversed. Hil. Term 8 Ann. Paul against Shaw.

It was argued, that the grantee of prisage was an antient and royal revenue, and if the crown had not granted it away, tonnage could not be due to the queen, for she could not pay that duty out of her own prisage; therefore the grantee claiming under the crown, ought to have the same privilege and exemption, and the rather, because it was granted to him with this immunity. To this it was answered, and accordingly resolved, that tonnage should be paid for prisage wines, by the grantee of prisage; because, immediately on importation, this duty attaches upon the wines, and therefore, whatever part the grantee receives for prisage, he takes it charged with the duty; otherwise it would be raised on the people to enrich a private man, which could never be the intent of the law-makers: it is true, the queen could not be charged with a duty to herself, but the duty revives when prisage comes to a subject; and as to the covenants of discharge, in this grant of Charles I. they could only extend to the tonnage then in being, and which he then had, and not to what he had not, or might afterwards be given to his successors. 2 Salk. Rep. 617. 1 Nelf. Abr. 585. See the end of every letter relative to the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

PRIVATEERS and PRIZES. A privateer is a kind of a private man of war, though the commission be not reckoned very honourable: the use of them is not very antient, and some persons account those but one remove from pirates; who, without any respect to the cause, or having any immediate injury done them, or not being so much as hired for the service, spoil men and goods, and innocent traders, making a traffic of it, amidst the calamities of a war.

That privateers in general are lawful when under right conduct, there is no room to question; for if a war be entered into on a just foundation, they cannot be unjust: all ways of bringing an enemy to reason, which are not against the laws of nations, are allowed; and it is no matter whether a person so commissioned is paid by the prince, or content to pay himself out of the spoils of the enemy; or if he acts for no pay at all, but out of love to his country, and loyalty to his prince.

It has therefore been customary, since the trade of Europe hath been so extensive, for princes and states, in case of a rupture with other princes, to issue forth commissions to private men, to equip ships of war; and the persons concerned in privateers, administer at their own costs a part of a war, by providing ships of force, and all other military utensils, to endamage the enemy; and they have, instead of pay,

leave granted to keep what they can take from an enemy, allowing the admiral his share, &c.

Besides the common private commissions, there is mention of special commissions granted to persons that take pay, who are under discipline; and if they do not obey orders, may be punished with death. And the wars in later ages, have generally given occasion for the issuing commissions to annoy the enemies in their commerce, and hinder such supplies as might strengthen them, or lengthen out the war; and likewise to prevent the separation of ships of greater force from their fleet.

By a law made in the 6th year of queen Anne, the lord high admiral, or commissioners of the admiralty, during the war, were empowered to grant commissions to commanders of British ships (on their giving security as usual, upon granting such commissions, except for payment of the tenths to the lord admiral) for the seizing and taking ships and goods belonging to enemies, in any sea or river in America, &c. and persons serving on board privateers, &c. are not to be impressed by any ship of war, under 20l. penalty.

Privateers may not attempt any thing against the law of nations; as to assault an enemy in a port or haven, under the protection of any prince or republic, be he friend, ally, or neuter; for the peace of such places must be kept inviolably. When these private commissions are granted, there is always great care to be had and taken, by caution to preserve the leagues of our allies, neutrals and friends, according to their several treaties; and therefore, by a marine treaty, between king Charles II. and the states of Holland [see the article MARINE TREATY], made at London in the year 1674, before a commission shall be granted to any privateer or caper, the commander is to give security in 1500l. and if such ships have above one hundred and fifty men, then in 3000l. &c. that they will make satisfaction for all damages, which they shall commit in their courses at sea, contrary to treaties with that State; upon pain of forfeiting their commissions, and answering such damage, for which the ship is made liable.

By other articles in the said treaty, if torture, cruelty, or any barbarous usage, after a caption, be done to the person taken in the prize, the same shall discharge such prize, although he was lawful; and the captains shall lose their commissions, also both they and the offenders be subject to punishment. This agreement between the English and Dutch, is fit to be a standard to all nations whatsoever; and by the treaty of Utrecht, there is an article with France to the same purpose.

Ships carrying powder, shot, and other warlike instruments and provisions of armature for sea or land, bound for an enemy from a neuter nation, or a state in amity with both the warring states, shall be taken as prize, and so may money, victuals, &c. But this must be in a time of necessity, when the war is so bad, that a prince cannot possibly defend himself or damage the enemy, without intercepting of such things. And, according to some treaties, those goods which may be used out of war as in war, (except ships) shall not be called prohibited, nor liable to condemnation, unless carried to places besieged: and goods made use of for pleasure and luxury only, are free, and not reckoned among such as are prizable in neutral ships. Molloy Jur. Marit. 29.

If a part of the cargo of a ship, taken by a privateer, be prohibited goods, and the other part not prohibited; but such as, according to the necessity of the war, shall be so deemed, that may draw on a consequential condemnation of the ship as well as lading.

In case part of the lading is prohibited, and the other part merely for pleasure, the goods prohibited only shall be adjudged prize, and the ship, and the rest of the cargo be discharged; which may proceed in the voyage, on delivering up the other goods, without being brought into port: but if a ship be wholly laden with contraband goods, both the ship and goods may be made prize. Ibid. 30.

If any such ships shall be attacked, in order to be examined, on their refusing to submit they may be assaulted; and if the persons on board do not surrender themselves, the ships may be entered by force, and the persons resisting be slain. But where a commander of a privateer wilfully commits any spoils on the ships or friends of neutrals, or on the ships of their fellow subjects, according as the circumstances of the crime are more or less heinous, he is liable to punishment by death or otherwise, and the ship to be forfeited. Trin. 3 Jac. in B. R.

The owners of privateers are not to convert any part of their captures to their own use, until they are condemned as prize: and whether a ship be prize or not shall be tried in the admiralty, and no prohibition shall be granted: as was resolved, where in time of war between us and Denmark, a privateer belonging to Scotland took a Danish ship, and she was condemned by the admiralty of Scotland, and sold; whereupon a person suggested in the admiralty of England, that she was not a Danish vessel, but a ship of London, which belonged to an English merchant, and being to dispute the property, it was insisted, could not be tried there: the court held that the

defendant

defendant had no property but by the sale, and the only question was, prize or no prize; therefore they would stay nothing, nor award a prohibition. 2 Keb. Rep. 158, 176. In an action of trover for a ship, tackle and furniture, whereof a Dutchman born, but a denizen of England, was the owner; it appeared, that in the war between France and Holland she was taken as a Dutch prize, and condemned in the court of admiralty in France, and there sold to the plaintiff: after which, the defendant, as servant to the owner, took her from the plaintiff to whom she was sold: it was here adjudged, that the sentence of the admiralty of France should not be examined in this action, and the plaintiff had judgment. Raym. 473.

Our laws take not much notice of privateers; but the diligence of enemies hath, times past, obliged us to be also diligent in this way, and therefore some acts of parliament have been made for the encouragement of privateers, and ordering of prizes; as particularly the statute 4 & 5 W. & M. cap. 25. which enacted, that all vessels with their loadings, and all goods and merchandizes that shall be taken and seized as prize, shall be brought into some ports of this kingdom; and, before breaking of bulk, put into the possession of the commissioners of prizes, or their agents, who, with two or more persons, as the officers and mariners of the respective ships shall intrust, and such as shall be appointed by the commissioners of the customs, are to preserve the same, 'till they shall be adjudged prize, except where it shall appear to the judge of the admiralty, that the goods are perishable; in which case bail shall be taken for them, yet so as to be subject to sale and distribution, as provided by this act.

After such goods and merchandize so taken, shall be adjudged prize, they shall, as soon as conveniently it may be done, be sold by the commissioners for prizes, &c. in the presence of persons entrusted by the commissioners of the customs, and the owners, officers, and mariners of the ships of war, publicly by inch of candle, notice being given fourteen days before, of the quantity and quality of the things to be sold, and of the time and place of sale; and the proceed of such sale, after the custom duties are paid and deducted, in case such prize were taken by a private man of war, shall be divided into five parts; four parts whereof to be answered to the persons interested in the privateer, and the fifth to their Majesties; and the ship, with it's furniture, is to be enjoyed by the persons interested in the privateer.

And if the prize be taken by any of the king's ships, the nett proceed shall be divided into three parts; one third to be answered to the commander, officers, and mariners, taking the same, according to the custom of the sea for sharing prizes, &c. (a third of which is to be distributed among the ship's crew) one third part to be paid to the treasurer of the navy, for the relief of sick and wounded mariners, and the widows, children, and impotent parents, of persons slain at sea, in their Majesties service, and the other third part to the use of their Majesties: and in case a prize be taken by a merchant's ship, employed in the service of the crown, the proceed thereof shall be divided in like manner, as ships taken by men of war.

If any persons, who shall take such prize or prizes, shall embezzle or conceal any parts of the goods or merchandize, or put the same on shore, in any other place than their Majesties warehouses, they shall forfeit their share of such goods, upon proof made of it by one or more witnesses upon oath before the commissioners of the customs in the port of London, if the offence be committed within the said port; and before the chief magistrate of the place, in the presence of the chief officer of the port, in any other ports; one moiety whereof to be to the use of the informer, and the other to their Majesties; and seamen, and others concerned in prizes, shall be permitted to see and peruse the accounts of any prize. Where any ships or goods shall be taken by any privateer, by collusion, on proof made thereof in the court of Exchequer, or court of admiralty, they shall be adjudged lawful prize, and one moiety shall be to their Majesties, and the other to him that shall discover the same; and the bond given by the captain of such privateer is declared to be forfeited; and if such ships or goods shall be taken by collusion, by any man of war, the commander shall forfeit 1000 l. also his command or employment, and be incapable of any office under their Majesties during seven years.

In all cases where such prize shall not be taken by any private men of war, one-tenth part, after deduction of their Majesties customs, and before any division is made of the proceed thereof, shall be paid to the treasurer of the navy, and by him kept apart, to be disposed of by warrant from the commissioners of the admiralty, or lord high admiral, for medals, and other rewards for officers and seamen, who shall do any extraordinary service. And if any man of war, or privateer, shall take or destroy any French man of war, or privateer, they shall receive for every piece of ordnance, in any ship so taken or destroyed, 10 l. reward, to be paid by the commissioners for the prizes, out of their Majesties share of prizes. And if the commissioners do not pay the same, or give a bill for it, payable out of the first monies that shall come to their hands, within three days after the same ought to be paid,

and demand thereof made, the said commissioners shall be incapable to hold any office in their Majesties service for the future. And, by another clause in this act, if the commissioners for prizes, or of the customs, shall detain the shares belonging to persons interested in privateers, two days after they ought to be paid, &c. free from all deductions, except for warehouse-room, and 2 l. per cent. for all other charges, they shall forfeit double the sum so detained.

When any vessel shall be taken as prize by a privateer, having no goods on board of the growth and manufacture of France, the persons interested in such privateer shall have the whole in their own use, after condemnation and payment of customs, and other duties, without deduction for tenths, or any other parts to their Majesties, or the lord high admiral. If any ship, whereupon wool is laden to be transported, contrary to law, be taken by any privateer, on proof thereof in the Exchequer, the persons concerned in the privateer shall have a moiety of the ship and goods, and their Majesties the other moiety. But where any vessel shall be taken within any of their Majesties ports, rivers, or havens, by any privateer, such prize shall belong to their Majesties, as a perquisite of the admiralty of England, and the captors to have only such a part as their Majesties shall think fit to allow, by way of encouragement.

If any ship or vessel taken as prize, or any goods therein, shall appear to belong to any of their Majesties subjects, continuing under their protection and obedience, which were before taken by their Majesties enemies, and now retaken, such vessels and goods, and every part thereof shall be restored, by decree of the court of admiralty, to the former owners, they paying in lieu of salvage, if retaken by a man of war, an eighth part of the value, which shall be answered to the captains, officers, and seamen in the said man of war, to be divided as in this act is directed, touching the share of prizes belonging to them, where such prizes are taken by any of their Majesties ships of war: and, if taken by a privateer, or other ship, after having been in possession of the enemy twenty-four hours, an eighth part of the value shall be paid; if above twenty-four hours, and under forty-eight, a fifth part; if above forty-eight hours, and under ninety-six, a third part; and, if above ninety-six hours, a moiety; all which payment to be made without any deduction. And if such retaken ship appears to have been set forth by the enemy as a man of war, the former proprietors shall pay the full moiety of the value.

The lord high admiral, or commissioners of the admiralty, shall express all things by this act directed to be observed concerning prizes, &c. in the instructions by them to be given to captains and commanders of their Majesties ships of war, and to commanders of privateers.

An order of council to release ships, and exempt them from molestation by men of war and privateers.

At the court at Windsor, August 13, 1705.

Present the Queen's most excellent Majesty in council.

Her Majesty is graciously pleased this day to order, that all ships belonging to the subjects of the States-General of the United Provinces, which have been taken by any of her Majesty's ships of war, or privateers, or which are now under arrest in any of her Majesty's ports, together with their loadings, be forthwith released; and that, for the future, no ships having passes from the said States-General to trade with France, be taken or molested in their voyage, by any of her Majesty's said ships of war, or privateers, her Majesty having already opened the trade with the dominions of Spain, for the advantage of her own subjects. And her Majesty is pleased futher to declare and order, that the instruction be now given for the future to the commanders of her Majesty's ships of war and privateers, not to bring up or molest either the ships of her own subjects, or those of the subjects of the States-General, furnished with proper passes from her Majesty or the said States respectively, so as they do not carry any goods or merchandize which are contraband. And all commanders of her Majesty's ships of war, as well as privateers or merchant-ships, having letters of marque, are to conform themselves hereunto, notwithstanding any commissions or instructions heretofore given to the contrary. And for their more particular direction for the future, his royal highness the lord high admiral is forthwith to order such instructions to be prepared, as may be proper for the commanders of ships of war and privateers in this behalf, to be delivered to them as soon as may be.

CHRISTOPHER MUSGRAVE.

By the statute 6 Ann. cap. 37. for encouragement of the trade to America, all prize-offices are suppressed and taken away, and the flag, and other officers and seamen of every ship of war, shall have the whole interest in ships and goods they shall take there (being first adjudged prize in any of the courts of admiralty) subject to the duties to her Majesty for such goods, and to be divided as her Majesty and successors shall direct.

The

The judge of the admiralty shall, in five days after request, finish the preparatory examinations, in order to enquire of prizes, and the usual monition shall, on request, be executed in three days; and, in case no claim be made and attested on oath, giving twenty days notice after execution of such monition, &c. then the judge of the admiralty, upon producing the said examination, or copies thereof, and also all papers and writings taken in or with the capture, upon oath (or oath that no such papers were found) shall immediately proceed to sentence, either to acquit or condemn the same.

If claim shall be made, and security given by the claimant, to pay double costs to the captors, in case the ship or goods be adjudged prize, and there shall appear no occasion to examine witnesses, other than such as are near the court, then the judge shall cause such witnesses to be examined, and, in ten days after such claim and security given, proceed to sentence. But if it appears doubtful whether it be lawful prize, and it is necessary to have an examination of witnesses remote, and if it be desired, the said judge shall cause the same to be forthwith appraised, by persons named on the captor's part, and shall, after the appraisement, and in fourteen days after claim, take security for the claimants to pay the captors the value of the appraisement, if the same be adjudged lawful prize; and, after such security taken, the judge shall order the releasing or delivering the same to the claimants. And in case any claimant refuse to give the said security, the said judge is to require security from the captors, to be approved by the claimant, to pay the value of the appraisement, in case such capture shall not be adjudged prize, and thereupon the said judge shall make an order to release and deliver the same to the captors, or their agents.

There shall not be paid to the judge and officers of the court of admiralty, for condemning of captures as prize, above 10*l.* if the prize be above 100 tons, nor above 15*l.* if of greater burthen. And if any judge, or officer, shall delay proceeding relating to the condemning, discharging, releasing, or delivering of prizes, as aforesaid, within the time limited, or as soon as the same ought to be done by this act, he shall forfeit 500*l.* one moiety to the queen, and the other to the informer.

The parties may appeal to her Majesty and council, so as it be made in fourteen days after sentence, and security be given to prosecute the appeal, answer the condemnation, and pay treble costs, in case the sentence be affirmed; and so as execution be not suspended by such appeal.

By statute 9 Ann. cap. 27. all prize goods and merchandizes taken by ships of war, and imported into Great-Britain, &c. shall be liable to the payment of the said customs and duties as those goods would have been had they not been prize.

P R I Z E S.

The LAWS of ENGLAND relating to PRIZES.

The officers and seamen of the king's ships, and of other British ships having letters of marque, are intitled to the sole interest and property of all ships and goods by them taken, and adjudged lawful prizes by the court of admiralty. Stat. 13 Geo. II. cap. 4. §. 1 and 2.

The prize is to be divided among the officers and seamen of the king's ships, as he shall appoint by proclamation. Among privateers, the division is according to the agreement between the owners. Ibid.

The court of admiralty are to finish the examination of the persons to be examined, to prove the lawfulness of the prize, in five days after request for that purpose made: the monition is to be executed in three days. And in case no claim of the capture be duly entered, giving twenty days notice after the execution of the monition; or if there be a claim, after the claimant does not give sufficient security to pay double costs to the captors, if the prize be adjudged lawful, then the court are to proceed to sentence in ten days. Ibid. §. 3.

In case of doubt, or of writings being remote, the court may release the prize, on the claimant's giving good security to the captor for the payment of the full appraised value, in case the prize be adjudged lawful. Ibid. §. 3. fin.

Judges and officers, on failure of their duty in respect to the condemnation of prizes, forfeit 500*l.* with full cost of suit, one moiety to the king, and the other to the informer. Ibid. §. 6.

The judges and officers of the court of admiralty in the king's plantations or dominions abroad, shall not receive above 10*l.* in case the prize be under an hundred tons burthen; not above 15*l.* if it be of greater burthen. Ibid. §. 7.

Commissioners of appeals, in causes of prizes, are to be appointed under the great seal, and appeals may be made to them within fourteen days after sentence. Ibid. §. 8.

Agents for prizes are to be chosen by the captors. Ibid. §. 10.

The treasurer of the navy is to pay to the officers and seamen on board ships of war, or privateers, in an action where any ship of war, or privateer, shall have been taken from the enemy or destroyed, 5*l.* for every man on board such prize or ship destroyed in the beginning of the engagement. Ibid. §. 15.

The captures of flota ships, or galleons, or register-ships,

bound from Buenos-Ayres, or Honduras, can be tried only in the high court of admiralty. Ibid. §. 17.

This statute enacts several penalties and forfeitures for taking prizes by collusion. Privateers forfeit the prize, half to the king, and half to the informer; and the commander of a man of war forfeits 1000*l.* to be divided between the king and the informer. Ibid. §. 19. See PRIVATEERS.

PRIZE-SHIPS. The duty of poundage is also payable (after the rate of 5 per cent. of the value upon oath) for ships taken as prize, and regularly condemned in the court of admiralty: but it is the practice not to charge them with any other duty whatsoever.

No goods to be imported into, or exported from thence, in any other but ships of the built of Great-Britain, Ireland, or the said plantations, wholly owned by the people thereof, and whereof the master, and at least three-fourths of the mariners, are of the said places (except ships taken as PRIZES, and legally condemned, navigated by the master and three fourths of the mariners British, or of the said plantations, and owned by British) upon forfeiture of the ship and goods, one-third to his Majesty, one-third to the governor, one-third to the seizer and informer.

Prize-goods not to be exempted from duties, &c. but the goods may be unladen and brought on shore, in the presence of the officers of the customs, and secured in proper warehouses, under the separate locks of the collector, comptroller, and agent of the captors. 'till they are appraised and sold; and after they are sold, before delivery to the buyer they are to pay the customs and excise. 6 Ann. cap. 13. §. 9.

Prize-goods of the growth and product of foreign plantations, condemned in, and imported from, the British plantations in America, are, upon proper certificates and oaths, to pay the same duties as if the produce of the said British plantations. 10 Ann. cap. 22. §. 2. and 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 6.

Foreign-built ships, or such not built in any of his Majesty's dominions of Asia, Africa, or America, are not to enjoy the privilege of ships belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, although owned or manned by British (except such ships as are taken at sea by letters of marque or reprisal, [see MARQUE LETTERS of MARQUE, and REPRISAL] and condemned as lawful prize in the court of admiralty) but are to be deemed aliens ships, and to be liable to aliens duties. See the article PRIVATEER.

The LAWS of FRANCE relating to PRIZES.

Art. I. No person shall fit out a ship for war without a commission from the admiralty.

II. Such as obtain commissions for equipping ships for war, shall be obliged to cause it to be recorded at the admiralty-office where the ship is fitted out, and to give security for the sum of 15,000 livres, which shall be received by the lieutenant, in presence of our attorney.

III. We forbid our subjects to take commissions from any foreign kings, princes, states, to arm ships for war, and sail under their flags, except it be by our order, under pain of being treated as pirates.

IV. All vessels belonging to our enemies, or commanded by pirates, buccaneers, and others, sailing without the commission of any sovereign prince or state, shall be good prize.

V. All vessels fighting under another flag than that of the nation whose commission they carry, or having commission from two different princes or states, shall likewise be good prize; and, if they be armed for war, the captains and officers shall be punished as pirates.

VI. All vessels, and their lading, in which there are no charter-parties, bills of lading, nor invoices, shall be likewise good-prize: and we forbid our captains, officers, and seamen of ships taking them, to divert them, under pain of corporal punishment.

VII. All ships having effects on board belonging to our enemies, and the goods of our subjects or allies on board of enemies ships, shall likewise be good prize.

VIII. If any of our subjects ships be retaken from our enemies, after having been four-and-twenty hours in their hands, they shall be good prize; and, if it is before four-and-twenty hours, they shall be restored to the owners, with all that is in them, and one-third shall be given to the ship that retakes them.

IX. If the ships, without being retaken, be abandoned by the enemy, or if by tempest, or any other accident, they return into the possession of our subjects, before they have been carried into any enemy's ports, they shall be restored to the owner, who shall reclaim them within the year and day, though they have been more than four-and-twenty hours in the enemy's possession.

X. The ships and effects of our subjects and allies, retaken from pirates, and reclaimed within a year and a day after the declaration made to the admiralty, shall be restored to the owners, they paying one-third of the value for the charges of the retaking.

XI. The

XI. The arms, powder, ball, and other munitions of war, even the horse and furniture, transported for the service of our enemies, shall be confiscated, in whatever vessels they be found, and to whosoever they belong, whether they be our subjects or our allies.

XII. All vessels refusing to strike and bring to, upon the summons of our ships, or those of our subjects armed for war, may be compelled thereto by artillery, or otherwise; and, in case they resist and fight, they shall be good prize.

XIII. We forbid all captains of vessels armed for war to detain those of our subjects or allies who have brought to, and shewed their bills of lading and charter-parties, or to take, or suffer any thing to be taken from them, under pain of death.

XIV. No vessel taken by foreigners may remain above four-and-twenty hours in our harbours, except they be detained there by tempest, or be taken from our enemies.

XV. If in the prizes brought into our ports by foreigners, here be found goods belonging to our subjects or allies, those belonging to the former shall be restored, and those of the latter shall not be put in warehouses, nor bought by any person, under any pretence whatsoever.

XVI. As soon as the captains of armed vessels shall render themselves masters of any ships, they shall seize their licences, passports, sea-letters, charter-parties, bills of lading, and all other papers concerning their lading and voyage, together with the keys of their chests, trunks, and chambers, and shall cause to be shut the hatches, and other places where there is any goods.

XVII. We enjoin all captains that take prizes, to bring or send them, with the prisoners, to the ports where they are armed, under pain of losing their rights, and of an arbitrary fine, except they be obliged, by tempest or enemies, to put into some other port, in which case, they shall forthwith acquaint the concerned.

XVIII. We forbid, under pain of death, all captains, soldiers, and seamen, to sink the ships they take, and put ashore the prisoners upon remote coasts or islands, in order to conceal the prize.

XIX. And where the takers are not in a condition to take the charge of the ship taken, and of the prisoners, and only take out the goods, or agree for a ransom, they shall be obliged to seize the papers, and bring with them at least the two principal officers of the prize, under pain of being deprived of what may belong to them therein, and of corporal punishment, &c.

XX. We forbid them to open any chests, bales, sacks, pipes, barrels, casks, or trunks, or to transport or sell any goods of the prize; and we likewise forbid all persons to buy them, before the prize be condemned, or till it be ordained by authority, under pain of restitution of four-fold, and corporal punishment.

XXI. As soon as the prize is brought into any road or port of our kingdom, the captain that has taken her, if he be there, and, in his absence, the person that is intrusted with her, shall be obliged to make his declaration to the officers of the admiralty, to surrender into their hands the papers and the prisoners, and declare to them the day and hour, place and degree of latitude, in which the vessel was taken, whether the captain refused to shew his commission or his passport; whether he attacked, or only defended himself; what flag he bore; and all the other circumstances of the taking and voyage.

XXII. After the delivery of the declaration, the officers of the admiralty shall immediately go aboard of the prize, whether she be in the road or in the port, and shall draw up a verbal process of the quantity and quality of the goods, and of the condition in which they find the cabbins, trunks, hatches, and hold; which they shall afterwards cause to be shut, and sealed with the seal of the admiralty; and they shall there establish a watch, to take care of what they have sealed, and prevent the embezzlement of the effects.

XXIII. The officers of the admiralty shall make their verbal process in presence of the captain, or master of the prize, and, in his absence, before the two principal officers and seamen belonging to him, together with the captain or other principal officers of the ship that took the prize; and likewise in presence of the reclaimers, if any be.

XXIV. They shall hear, concerning the matter of the prize, the master or commander thereof, and the principal men of his company, and likewise some of the officers and seamen of the ship that took her.

XXV. If the ship be brought in without prisoners, charter-party, or bill of lading, the officers, soldiers, and seamen of the ship that took her, shall be examined separately upon the circumstances of the prize, and how the ship came to be brought in without prisoners; and the ship and goods shall discover, if possible, to what nation they did belong.

XXVI. If by the deposition (or oath) of the company, and the search and view of the ship and goods it cannot be discovered of whom they have been taken, an inventory shall be taken of the whole, and it shall be appraised, and put into safe custody, to be restored to whomsoever it may belong, if reclaimed within a year and a day; and if otherwise, it shall

VOL. II.

be divided as a wreck between us, the admiral, and the armateur.

* Armateur is the designation given in France to merchants or others concerned as owners, in the arming of privateers &c.

XXVII. If it be necessary before the condemnation of a prize to take the goods out of a ship, to prevent their being damaged, an inventory shall be made in presence of our attorney, and of the parties concerned, who shall sign it if they can write; and afterwards the goods shall be delivered into the hands of some sufficient person, or in warehouses locked with three different keys; of which one shall be given to the armateur, another to the receiver of the admiral, and the third to the claimer, if any be; and if none, to our attorney.

XXVIII. Goods which cannot be kept, shall be sold at the desire of the parties concerned, and adjudged to the fairest offerer, in the presence of our attorney, at the shutting up of the court, after three delays of the sale, from three days to three days; the port sales, or publication being duly made beforehand, and the placards affixed in the usual places.

XXIX. The price of the sales shall be consigned in the hands of a sufficient merchant, to be delivered after the adjudication of the prize, to whom it shall belong.

XXX. We enjoin the officers of the admiralty to proceed incessantly to the execution of decrees and sentences given concerning prizes; and to cause the vessels, goods, and effects, for which a replevy shall be ordained, to be delivered immediately, and without delay, under pain of interdiction of a fine of five hundred livres, and of all costs, charges, and damages.

XXXI. Before the repartition, the charges of the unlading, and of the keeping of the ship and goods, shall be deduced, according to the account which shall be stated by the lieutenant of the admiralty, in the presence of our attorney and the parties concerned.

XXXII. After the aforesaid deduction, the tenth of the price shall be delivered to the admiral, and the charges of the court shall be taken out of the remainder; which shall be afterwards divided amongst the parties concerned, according to the conditions of their partnership.

XXXIII. If there be no contract of partnership, two-thirds shall belong to them that have furnished the vessel, with munitions, arms, and provisions; and the other to the officers, seamen, and * soldiers.

* By soldiers, in this and several other articles of the French marine, is only meant such land-men as enter themselves on board of privateers, only for fighting; and those go for the most part, no purchase no pay; for they have no regular and disciplined troops on board their privateers in France, no more than elsewhere.

XXXIV. We forbid the officers of the admiralty to become directly or indirectly the parties to whom vessels, goods, or effects, belonging to prizes are adjudged, under pain of confiscation, a fine of fifteen hundred livres, and interdiction of their offices.

PRIZES, under what regulations in SPAIN.

Of the manner of disposing of prizes taken by the armada's or flota's trading to the West-Indies.

1. The instructions given to Peter Arias Davila in the year 1513, when he was sent governor and captain-general of the province of the FIRM LAND, which was then that of DARIEN, and the country about, spoke to the matter thus: That of whatsoever he should take with the fleet he went over in, of which the ships and provisions were his Majesty's besides the fifth, two parts should come to the king, the one for his ship and the other for his provisions; but if there went with the fleet any ship belonging to private persons, and upon their own charge, and they should take any prize, his Majesty should have only his fifth, and the rest be divided among all the fleet, because it was to be supposed the prize had been taken by the assistance of it, and the distribution ought to be according to every man's pay and allowance.

2. The emperor Charles V. afterwards declared, That though when any prince was taken in war, his ransom and moveables were his Majesty's undoubted right, yet in consideration of the great fatigues his subjects endured in the conquest of the Indies, he required only the sixth part of the ransom of any cazique taken, or the treasures belonging to him, and all the rest, after deducting the king's fifth, to belong to the conquerors; but if the cazique were slain in the battle, his Majesty should have one half of his treasure, and the other half, after deducting the fifth, be equally distributed.

3. In 1558, the admiral Peter de Roelas having taken a French ship, and recovered a Spaniard's taken by that privateer, it was ordered, that the admiral should have the king's fifth of what belonged to the Frenchman, and the rest of it to be divided for that time between the said admiral and his

men; and as for the ship retaken, the one half should be for the admiral and men, and the other restored to the owners. In 1570, some doubts arising between two prizes taken, the king decided the controversy thus, That the admiral should have the fifth belonging to his Majesty, and all the rest to be divided betwixt the officers, soldiers, and sailors, belonging to the fleet: but if any ships coming from the Indies were retaken from pirates, they should be restored entire to the owners.

4. If there arise any controversy about prizes taken, the court of the India-House is to decide it; but if it be above 600,000 marvadees value, there lies an appeal from it to the committee of war for the Indies, as was practised in the year 1649, in the case of an English ship, which, though taken in time of peace, was condemned as lawful prize, because it had West-India commodities aboard. D. Francis de Sotomajor coming from Potosi by the way of Buenos-Ayres, was taken by the Dutch, and carried to Baia de Todos os Santos in Brazil, which place being recovered by D. Frederic de Toledo, D. Francis pretended, that as much of his plate and goods as could be found ought to be restored him; because the war pirates make being unjust, they could not deprive him of the just dominion over what was his own, though it had been above 24 hours in their hands, and he had judgment given for him. In the year 1584, orders were given to all the commanders in the Indies, that when prizes were taken from pirates, if there were any goods found belonging to his Majesty's subjects, they should be delivered as they were found, without diminishing, to the owners.

PROJECTOR, one who contrives, schemes, or forms any public design.

R E M A R K S.

Man is the worst of all God's creatures to shift for himself; no other animal is ever starved to death; nature without, has provided them both food and cloaths; and nature within, has placed an instinct that never fails to direct them to proper means for a supply: but man must either work or starve, slave or die; he has, indeed, reason given him to direct him, and few who follow the dictates of that reason come to such unhappy exigencies; but when by the errors of a man's youth he has reduced himself to such a degree of distress, as to be absolutely without three things, money, friends, and health, he dies in an hospital.

Ten thousand ways there are to bring a man to this, and but very few to bring him out again. Death is the universal deliverer, and therefore some who want courage to bear what they see before them, hang themselves for fear; for certainly self-destruction is the effect of cowardice in the highest extreme.

Others break the bounds of laws to satisfy that general law of nature, and turn open thieves, house-breakers, highwaymen, clippers, coiners, &c. 'till they run the length of the gallows, and get a deliverance the nearest way at St Tyburn.

Others, being masters of more cunning than their neighbours, turn their thoughts to private methods of trick and cheat, a modern way of thieving, every jot as criminal, and in some degree worse than the other, by which honest men are gulled with fair pretences to part from their money, and then left to take their course with the author, who sculks behind the curtain of a protection, or in the Mint, or Friars, and bids defiance as well to honesty as the law.

Others, yet urged by the same necessity, turn their thoughts to honest invention, founded upon the platform of ingenuity and integrity. These two last sorts are those we call Projectors; and as there were always more geese than swans, the number of the latter are very inconsiderable, in comparison of the former; and, as the greater number predominates the less, the just contempt we have of the former sort, bespatters the other, who, like cuckolds, bear the reproach of other people's crimes.

A mere projector then is a contemptible thing, driven by his own desperate fortune to such a straight, that he must be delivered by a miracle or starve; and when he has beat his brains for some such miracle in vain, he finds no remedy but to paint up some bauble or other, as players make puppets talk big, to show like a strange thing, and then cry it up for a new invention, gets a patent for it, divides it into shares, and they must be sold; ways and means are not wanting to swell the new whim to a vast magnitude; thousands, and hundreds of thousands are the least of his discourse, and sometimes millions; 'till the ambition of some honest coxcomb is wheedled to part with his money for it, and then

— — — Nascitur ridiculus mus.

The adventurer is left to carry on the project, and the projector laughs at him. The diver shall walk at the bottom of the Thames; the salt-petre-maker shall erect a dunghill into a palace; the engineers build models and windmills to draw water, 'till funds are raised to carry it on, by men who have more money than brains, and then good night Mr Patent and Invention; the projector has done his business, and is gone. But the upright and honourable projector is he, who having

by fair and plain principles of sense, honesty, and ingenuity, brought any contrivance to a suitable perfection, makes out what he pretends to; picks no body's pocket, carries his project in execution, and contents himself with the real produce of his useful invention.

Necessity has so violently agitated the wits of men within half a century past, that it seems not at all improper, by way of distinction, to call it the projecting age. For though in times of war and public confusions, the like humour of invention has seemed to stir, yet, without being particular to the present, it is, I think, no injury to say, the past ages have never come up to the degree of projecting and inventing, as it refers to matters of negociation and methods of civil polity, which we see this age arrived to.

For the improvement of the destructive art of war, there has been project after project; especially in conducting armies, and in offensive engines; witness the new ways of mines, fougades, entrenchments, attacks, elodgments, and a long et cetera of new inventions, which want names, practised in sieges and encampments: witness the new sorts of bombs and unheard-of mortars, of seven to ten and twenty tons weight, with which our fleets standing two or three miles off at sea, can, in some degree, imitate the supreme Being himself, and rain fire and brimstone out of heaven, as it were, upon towns built on the firm land: witness also our new invented child of hell, the machine which carries the thunder, lightning, and earthquakes in it's bowels, and tears up the most impregnable fortifications.

But if we should search for a cause, from whence it comes to pass that this age swarms with such a multitude of projectors more than usual, who, besides the innumerable conceptions which die in the bringing forth, and (like abortions of the brain) only come into the air and dissolve, do really every day produce new contrivances, engines, and projects to get money never before thought of: if I say, we would examine whence this comes to pass, it must be thus:

The losses and depredations which wars occasion will not only fall upon private traders, but bring incumbrances on the nation in general; and these have prompted men by necessity, to rack their wits for new contrivances, new inventions, new trades, stocks, projects, and any thing, to retrieve the desperate credit of their private fortunes, and support the credit of the nation. That this is probable to have been the cause, will appear further; thus, France has, without question, felt it's share of losses by war as well as Great-Britain; but the poverty there falling chiefly on the poorer sort of people, they have not been so fruitful in inventions and practices of this nature, 'till the Mississippi affair [see MISSISSIPPI], their genius being quite of another strain. As for the gentry and more capable sort, the first thing a Frenchman flies to in his distress is the army; and he seldom comes back from thence to get an estate by painful industry, but either has his brains knocked out, or makes his fortune there.

If industry be in any business rewarded with success, it is in the MERCHANDIZING PART OF THE WORLD, who indeed may MORE TRULY BE SAID TO LIVE BY THEIR WITS, THAN ANY PEOPLE WHATSOEVER. All foreign negociation, though to some it is a plain road by the help of custom, yet it is in it's beginning ALL PROJECT, CONTRIVANCE, AND INVENTION. Every new voyage the merchant schemes, is a project; and ships are sent from port to port, as markets and merchandize differ, by the help of strange and universal intelligence; wherein some are so exquisite, so swift, and so exact, that a merchant sitting at home in his counting-house, at once converses with all parts of the known world. This and travel, MAKE A TRUE BRED MERCHANT, THE MOST INTELLIGENT MAN IN THE WORLD, and consequently the most capable, when urged by necessity, to contrive new ways to live: and from hence we conceive, may be very properly derived the variety of projects wherewith we have abounded.

And from this sort of men, it is easy to trace the origin of BANKS, STOCKS, STOCK-JOBING, ASSURANCES, FRIENDLY SOCIETIES, LOTTERIES, AND THE LIKE.

To which may be added likewise, the long ANNUAL ENQUIRY of the house of commons FOR WAYS AND MEANS, which has been a particular movement to set all the heads of the nation at work. And I appeal, with submission, to the gentlemen of that honourable house, if the greatest part of the best ways and means to raise public money, out of the common road of land-taxes, polls, and the like, have not been handed to them from the MERCHANT.

Projects of this nature have been doubtless in general of public advantage, as they have tended to the improvement of TRADE, AND EMPLOYMENT OF THE POOR, and the CIRCULATION AND INCREASE OF THE PUBLIC STOCK OF THE KINGDOM; but this is supposed of such as are built on the honest basis of ingenuity and improvement; in which though I'll allow the author to aim primarily at his OWN ADVANTAGE, yet with the circumstances of PUBLIC BENEFIT added.

Wherefore it is necessary to distinguish among the projects of the present times, between the honest and the dishonest.

There

There are many fair pretences of fine discoveries, new inventions, engines, and I know not what, which having been advanced in notion, and talked up for great things to be performed, when such and such sums of money shall be advanced, and such and such engines are made, that have raised the fancies of credulous people to such a height, that merely on the shadow of expectation, they have formed companies, chose committees, appointed officers, shares, and books, raised great stocks, and cried up an empty notion to such degree, that people have been betrayed to part with their money for shares in a NEW NOTHING: and when the inventors have carried on the jest, 'till they have sold their own interest, they have left the cloud to vanish of itself, and the poor purchasers to quarrel with one another, and go to law about settlements, transferrings, and some bone or other thrown among them by the subtlety of the authors, to lay the blame of the miscarriage upon those, who have been their bubbles. Thus the shares at first begin to fall by degrees, and happy is he that sells in time, 'till like brass money it will go at last for nothing at all. So have I seen shares in JOINT STOCKS, PATENTS, ENGINES, AND UNDERTAKINGS, blown up by the air of great words, and the name of some man of credit concerned, to 100l. for a 500th part or share, some more, and at last dwindle away, 'till it has been stock-jobbed down to 12, 10, 9, 8l. a share, and at last there has been no buyer; that is, in short, the fine new word for nothing worth, and many families ruined by the purchase. If we should name linen manufactures, saltpetre-works, copper-mines, diving-engines, and the like, for instances, we should do no wrong to truth, or to some persons that have been too visibly guilty of forming such like deceitful projects.

We might go on upon this subject to expose the FRAUDS AND TRICKS OF STOCK-JOBBERs, PATENTEES, COMMITTEES, WITH THOSE MOUNTEBANKS WE VERY PROPERLY CALL STOCK BROKERS; but we have not gall enough for such a work: as a general rule of caution to those who would not be tricked out of their estates by such pretenders to enrich others, let them observe, that all such people who may be suspected of design, have assuredly this in their proposals, to get a ROUND SUM TO THEMSELVES, before any one else can hope to GET ANY THING.

But this is no reason why inventions upon honest foundations and to fair purposes, should not be encouraged; no, nor why the author of any such fair contrivances should not reap the harvest of his own ingenuity: our acts of parliament for granting patents to FIRST INVENTORS FOR FOURTEEN YEARS, is a sufficient acknowledgment of the due regard which ought to be had to such as find out any thing which may be of public advantage, new discoveries in trade, in arts and mysteries, of manufacturing goods, or improving of land, are, without question, of as great benefit, as any discoveries made in the works of nature, by the several academies and royal societies in the world.

There is, it is true, a great difference between new inventions and projects, for the improvement of manufactures or lands, which tend to the immediate benefit of the public, and employing of the poor, and those framed by subtle heads, with a sort of a deceptio visus and legerdemain, to bring people to run needful or unusual hazards: and we give a due preference to the first, and yet success has so sanctified some of those other sorts of projects, that it would be a kind of blasphemy against fortune to disallow them; witness Sir William Phipps's voyage to the wreck; it was a mere project, a lottery of a hundred thousand to one odds; a hazard, which if it had failed, every body would have been ashamed to have owned themselves concerned in: a voyage that would have been as much ridiculed as Don Quixote's adventure upon the windmill. Bless us! that folks should go three thousand miles to angle in the open sea for pieces of eight! why they would have made ballads of it, and the merchants would have said of every unlikely adventure, it was like Phipps's wreck voyage: but it had success, and who reflects upon the project?

However, this sort of projects comes under no reflection as to their honesty, save that there is a kind of honesty a man owes to himself and to his family, that prohibits him throwing away his estate in improbable and impracticable adventures; but still some hit even of the most unlikely, of which this was one of Sir William Phipps's, who brought home a cargo of silver of near two hundred thousand pounds sterling, in pieces of eight, fished up out of the open sea remote from any shore, from an old Spanish ship which had been sunk above forty years.

REMARKS on our Article PROJECTOR.

A short history of some remarkable projects.

The invention of arts with engines and handicraft instruments for their improvement, requires a chronology as far back as the eldest son of Adam, and has to this day afforded some new discovery in every age.

The building of the ark by Noah, so far as you will allow it a human work, was the first project we read of; and no

question seemed so ridiculous to the graver heads of that wise, though wicked age, that poor Noah was sufficiently bantered for it; and had he not been set on work by a very peculiar direction from heaven, the good old man would certainly have been laughed out of it, as a most senseless and ridiculous project.

The building of Babel was a right project; for, indeed, the true definition of a project, according to modern acceptance, is a vast undertaking, too big to be managed, and therefore likely enough to come to nothing; and yet as great as they are, it is certainly true of them all, even as to the projectors proposal; that according to the old tale, if so many eggs are hatched, there will be so many chickens, &c. Thus it was most certainly true, that if the people of the old world could have built a house up to heaven, they would never have been drowned again on earth, and they only had forgot to measure the height; that is, as in other projects, it only miscarried, or else it would have succeeded.

And yet when all is done, that very building, and the incredible height to which it was carried, is a demonstration of the vast knowledge, of that infant part of the world, which had no advantage of the experiments or invention of any before themselves.

A very diverting account might, perhaps, be given of this, but I shall not attempt it. Some are apt to say with Solomon, No new thing happens under the sun, but what is, or has been; yet I made no question, but some considerable discoveries have been made in their later ages, and inventions of human original produced, which the world was ever without before, either in whole or in part; and I refer only to two cardinal points, the use of the load-stone at sea, and the use of gun-powder and guns; both which, as to the inventing part, I believe the world owes as absolutely to those particular ages, as it does the working in brass and iron to Tubal Cain, or the inventing of music to Jubal his brother.

As to engines and instruments for handicraft men, this age, I dare say, can shew such as never were so much as thought of, much less imitated before; for that is not a real invention, which has something before done like it, it is more properly an improvement. For handicraft instruments, I know none owes more to true genuine contrivance, without borrowing from any former use, than a mechanic engine contrived in our time, called a knitting-frame, which being contrived with admirable symmetry, works really with a very happy success, and may be observed by the curious to have a more than ordinary composition, for which I refer to the engine itself, to be seen in every stocking-weaver's work-shop.

I shall trace the original of the projecting humour that has reigned more particularly in England, and some other parts of Europe, no farther back than the year 1680, dating it's birth as a monster then, though it had indeed something of life in the time of the late civil war. We allow, no age has been altogether without something of this nature: and some very happy projects are left to us as a taste of their success, such are the water-houses for supplying of the city of London with water, and since that, the New-River, both very considerable undertakings, and perfect projects, adventured on the risque of success.

In the reign of King Charles the First, infinite projects were set on foot for raising money without a parliament; oppressing by monopolies and privy seals; but these are excluded our scheme, as irregularities: for thus the French are as fruitful in projects as we, and these are rather expedients or stratagems than projects.

After the fire of London, the contrivance of an engine to quench fires, was a project the author was said to get well by, and we have found to be very useful. But about the year 1680, the art and mystery of projecting began visibly to creep into the world. Prince Rupert, uncle to king Charles II. gave great encouragement to that part of it which respects engines, and mechanical motions; and bishop Wilkins added as much of the theory to it, as writing a book could do: the prince has left us a metal called by his name, and the first project upon that was casting of guns of that metal, and boring them; done both by a peculiar method of his own, and which died with him, to the great loss of the undertaker; who, to that purpose, had, with no small charge, erected a water-mill at Hackney-marsh, known by the name of the Temple-mill, which mill very happily performed all parts of the work: and there were of these guns on board the Royal Charles, a first rate ship, being of a reddish colour, different either from brass or copper. There might be some reasons of state, for laying that project aside. After this there was a floating machine set on foot, to be wrought with horses for the towing of great ships, both against wind and tide; and another for the raising of ballast, which, as unperforming engines, had the honour of being made, exposed, tried, and laid by, before the prince died.

If thus we introduce it into the world under the conduct of that prince, when he died, it was left a hopeless brat, and had hardly any hand to own it, 'till the wreck voyage before noted, performed so happily by Capt. Phipps, afterwards Sir William; whose strange performance set a great many heads at work, to contrive something for themselves; he was immediately

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mediately followed by my lord Mordaunt, Sir John Narborough, and others from several parts, whose success made them soon weary of the work.

The project of the penny-post, so well known, and still practised, I cannot omit; nor the contriver, Mr Dockwra, who had the honour to have the injury done him in that affair repaired, in some measure, by the public justice of parliament. And the experiment proving it to be a noble and useful design, the author must be remembered, to his great reputation.

It was, no question, a great hardship for a man to be master of so fine a thought, that had both the essential ends of a project in it, public good and private advantage; and that the public should reap the benefit, and the author be left out; the injustice of which, no doubt, discouraged many a good design; but since an alteration in public circumstances recovered the lost attribute of justice, the like, we hope, is not to be feared in future. Mr Dockwra had the satisfaction to see the former injury disowned, and an honourable return made, even by them who did not the injury, in bare respect to his ingenuity.

A while after this, several people, under the patronage of some great persons, had engaged in planting of foreign colonies; as William Penn, the lord Shaftsbury, Dr Cox, and others, in Pensilvania, Carolina, East and West Jersey, and the like places; which we do not call projects, because it was only prosecuting what had been formerly begun: but here began the forming of public joint stocks, which, together with the East-India, African, and Hudson's-Bay companies, before established, begat a new trade, which we call by the new name of STOCK-JOBING; which was at first only the simple occasional transferring of interest and shares from one to another, as persons alienated their estates; but, by the industry of the STOCK BROKERS, who got the business into their hands, it became a trade; and one, perhaps, which has been managed with the greatest intrigue, artifice, and trick, that ever any thing which appeared with a face of honesty could be handled with; for, while the brokers HELD THE BOX, they made the whole exchange THE GAMESTERS, and raised and lowered the prices of stocks as they pleased; and always had both buyers and sellers, who stood ready, innocently to commit their money to the mercy of their mercenary tongues. This upstart of a trade having tasted the sweetness of success, which generally attends a naval proposal, introduced the illegitimate wandering object I speak of, as a proper engine to find work for the brokers. Thus stock jobbing nursed projecting, and projecting in return has very diligently pimped for its foster parent, till both are arrived to be public grievances; and, indeed, are now almost grown scandalous to the nation.

Ever since the superlative art of fund-projection hath been cherished in this kingdom, we have had PROJECT UPON PROJECT, AND BUBBLE UPON BUBBLE, IN ORDER TO RUN US INTO DEBT, AND MULTIPLY OUR TAXES THE FASTER; whereby the millions upon millions that we have gained by SOLID COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION, HAVE BEEN TRANSFERRED TO FOREIGNERS FOR THE PAYMENT OF INTEREST OF OUR NATIONAL INCUMBRANCES, AND OTHERWISE SQUANDERED AMONG USURERS AND MONEY-MONGERS, WHO HAVE INDOLENTLY SUBSISTED ON THEIR INCOME FROM THE EXCHEQUER, instead of employing their capital IN TRADE, for the employment of the INDIGENT, FOR THE SUBSTANTIAL RICHES OF THE STATE, and the permanent support of the PUBLIC CREDIT. To such a pitch of projecting have these measures brought the nation, that in the year 1720, the whole kingdom became PROJECTORS AND BUBBLE-MONGERS, OUR COMMERCE SUSTAINED AN UNIVERSAL TEMPORARY STAGNATION, AND THE PUBLIC CREDIT WAS SUNK TO AN EBB ALMOST PAST RECOVERY. This has already once proved the fatal effect of fund-projects: and as the harpies of those times were for a time successful, in this their most superlative scheme of iniquity, with intent to draw all the TREASURE OF THE NATION into those FEW HANDS, who were in the SECRET; so tribes of inferior projectors afterwards broached scheme after scheme, in order to plunder the public of what little the South-Sea blood-suckers had left them possessed of. See our articles ACTIONS, and BUBBLES, and SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

After the blessed æra of 1720, and the dreadful wound which the nation had received from that detestable South-Sea project, was skinned over, we had another cardinal project offered to the nation, for the payment of the NATIONAL DEBTS, and the infallible support of the PUBLIC CREDIT: this was the establishment of a SINKING FUND, in order gradually to sink or diminish the public debts: and this was to be the SOVEREIGN SPECIFIC to cure the nation of all its maladies; but what has been the end of this project? Why truly, instead, of this SACRED FUND being inviolably applied to the gradual payment of our PRINCIPAL MONEY-DEBT, it has been made subservient to the increase thereof, from 50 to 80 MILLIONS! and from 80 to 140 MILLIONS! See the articles INTEREST OF MONEY, CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS, [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS.

And although it cost the nation several millions of money in

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the public accounts, to bring the IRREDEEMABLE public debts into a state of REDEMPTION, in order to amuse the public with a notion of the gradual payment thereof; yet have we not had project after project since, to render our debts again IRREDEEMABLE? Are not these retrograde measures a certain indication and proof, that our funds have hitherto been only tampered with by SUPERFICIAL PROJECTS, which have swelled instead of lessened the NATIONAL INCUMBRANCES? Has the reduction of interest in the public funds hitherto proved any thing more than a TEMPORARY EXPEDIENT (which is no better than a time-serving PROJECT) to raise a fund to pay INTEREST-MONEY FOR MORE AND MORE PUBLIC DEBTS; and the more these national incumbrances increase, will not the whole property of the MONEYED-INTEREST become more and more PRECARIOUS? And what may one day be the inevitable consequence of such fund-bubbles, see our article MONEYED-INTEREST.

The grand project upon which the credit of our funds seems to be bottomed at present, is that only of the continued REDUCTION OF INTEREST, 'TILL THE PRINCIPAL MONEY-DEBT SHALL AT LENGTH BECOME TO BE WORTH NOTHING; and if this project is our only resource in times of exigency, must not the property of the public creditors be reduced to an interest of 2 per cent. and at length to one, and from thence may not this reducing project absolutely annihilate the whole 140 millions of money now due to the public creditors?

But if this scheme of reduction, carried to extremity, is to be the nation's whole dependance, must it not, in the end, defeat itself; for what is it that supports these funds, whose surplusses constitute the SINKING FUND, but the SPENDING-MONEY of the nation, which supports the whole public revenue? And if the SPENDING-MONEY, or the INTEREST-MONEY of the FUND PROPRIETORS is once reduced to little or nothing, what will become of the AGGREGATE FUND, THE SOUTH-SEA FUND, AND THE GENERAL FUND, the surplusses of which constitute so great a proportion of the Sinking fund? Does not this consideration alone, demonstrate the truth of what we have endeavoured to shew in many other lights, viz. that the PRESENT CONSTITUTION OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE OF THIS KINGDOM, IS NOT FOUNDED ON A NATIONAL BASIS, and that the PUBLIC CREDIT, and the COMMERCE of the kingdom, cannot be upheld, and advanced by such PROJECTING EXPEDIENTS? For really they are no better, the effects thereof having hitherto proved it beyond contradiction, however plausible and artfully some people may attempt to shew the contrary, to answer such temporary purposes only, as will tend to plunge the nation into greater and greater debts and difficulties, instead of extricating it from those under which it manifestly labours.

Does not this state to which the public revenue is now reduced, prove the rectitude of that measure, THAT THE ANNUAL EXPENCE OUGHT NEVER TO EXCEED THE ANNUAL REVENUE; and that, consequently, when an increase of the former becomes necessary for securing or vindicating the honour or rights of a nation, the latter ought to be increased in proportion, if necessary, even to the utmost the people can spare from their daily subsistence?

For such honest and honourable projects, that will solidly and permanently support and uphold the true interest, and the honour and glory of the kingdom, see our articles ARTIFICER, DUTIES, MANUFACTURER, LABOUR, LAND, MERCANTILE COLLEGE, MUSÆUM, PARLIAMENT, [MEMBER OF PARLIAMENT], PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL, POOR, ROYAL SOCIETY, REVENUE, SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, TAXES, WAR.

PROVENCE, in France, is bounded on the north by Dauphine, on the east by the Alps, and the river Var parts it from the dominions of the duke of Savoy; on the south it has the Mediterranean Sea, and on the west it incloses the state of Avignon, and is separated from Languedoc by the Rhône.

The trade of this province is very considerable, for almost all the trade of France to Italy, Spain, and especially the Levant, is carried on at Marseilles; and if we may credit an account published some time ago, they send into Italy for above three millions and fifty thousand livres of merchandize, viz. of cloth and other woollen stuffs manufactured in Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Province, to the value of two millions of livres; almonds, plums, figs, honey, capers, olives, anchovies, oil, brandy, cotton, linen, &c. all which articles amount to above a million more.—They take in return, hemp, wheat, rice, sulphur, manna, and silk. Their trade to Spain is more considerable still, since it amounts to nine millions, one hundred and seventy thousand livres. The merchandizes are all sorts of linens made in France, gold and silver lace, fine silks, manufactured at Avignon, hats, toys, cottons, all sorts of drugs, &c.

They drive also a considerable trade to the Levant, whither they send above one hundred vessels of more or less burden, viz. to Constantinople, Smyrna, Candi, Aleppo, Cairo, Alexandria, &c. [See the article LEVANT TRADE.]

The climate and soil is not the same over all Provence. In the upper part the air is temperate, and the country abounds in pastures and cattle, and produces corn, apples, pears, and very little wine, but what there is of it, is very good. In Lower Provence the air is excessive hot, and would be more so along the sea-coast, were it not for the wind that blows generally from ten in the morning 'till nine at night. The north-westerly wind also cools this part of the country, and sometimes dries the ground prodigiously. This part of the country does not produce half the quantity of corn necessary for the use of the inhabitants, and it's dry and sandy ground is covered with pomegranates, orange, lemon, and olive-trees, cypress-trees, palm-trees, fig-trees, and several others peculiar to the country. There is here a great deal of wine, but it is strong, heady, and sweet. The fish they take in the Mediterranean, is not by a great deal so good as that of the ocean.

It is believed that there are in this country, especially in an estate belonging to the marquis de Lue, mines of gold, silver, copper, and lead: and, notwithstanding the excessive heat of this country, there are here many woods, which afford a great quantity of timber for shipping and other uses. In the wood of the county of Salt, there are several glass-houses.

There are no considerable rivers in this province; those of some note are the Durance, the Sorgue, the Largens, the Lore, the Verdon, the Hubaye, the Baune or Weaume, and the Var.

Provence is usually divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower. We shall, however, enlarge only on the chief places of commerce in this country.

AIX, the metropolis of Provence. There is here a parliament, which judges, in the last resort, all the causes of the province; a court of aids and finances, a court or chamber of accounts, a generality, an office of treasurers of France, and a court of the mint. The other considerable places in this diocese, are St Maximine, Brignole, and Barjols.

RIEZ, situated on the rivulet Auvestre, about 9 leagues from Aix to the north-west, in a pleasant country, which abounds in excellent wines, and most sorts of fruit.

SENEE, situated in a cold and barren country amongst mountains.

COLMARS, in the Alps, on the river Verdun, on the borders of the county of Nice. They make here a great quantity of coarse cloth, which they sell to the inhabitants of the mountains of Provence and Piedmont.

CASTELLANE, situated in a fruitful and agreeable vale.

ARLES, situated on the eastern bank of the river Rhône, over which, it has a timber bridge. The city was formerly the capital of the kingdom of Burgundy, and is at present a fair and spacious city, dignified with a metropolitan see, and an academy of men of letters, known by the name of The Royal Academy of Sciences and Languages.

MARSEILLES, one of the richest, most populous, and most ancient cities of France; was founded, they say, 500 years before Christ, by a colony of merchants from Phocis in Ionia. They flourished in the time of Julius Cæsar, when they lived under a republican government, and had a famous academy, much frequented by the young gentlemen of France, and even of Rome. But as they followed Pompey's party, against Cæsar, they were subdued by the latter. Having thus lost their power, they applied themselves to get riches, and even gave themselves up to pleasure, to such a degree, that the manners of the Marseillians became a common proverb, to express all kind of luxury and dissoluteness, as we learn from Athenæus. However, they had acquired much reputation in former times, on account of their learning and courteousness, according to the testimony of Cicero: they now excel chiefly in the knowledge of maritime affairs, for the capital galleys of France are laid up here, and it is the usual rendezvous of all the Levantine ships, and the whole Turkey trade of France. See **LEVANT TRADE**, with regard to the regulations made thereof in France, as the same respect this city.

The city is situated on a little hill, and has a very capacious and safe harbour on the coasts of the Mediterranean Sea, at the distance of about seven leagues from Aix to the south, and fourteen from Arles to the south-east. The port, which is defended on one side by a fortress, and the abbey of St Victor, is flanked on the other with a wall above 1300 paces long, it's mouth being shut up with a chain, lying at a certain distance, on three pillars of stone, leaving a space open for the passage only of one large vessel. This harbour is very long, and runs far into the land, taking in almost the whole length of the city, but is not very broad, nor deep enough for the largest vessels. The city itself enjoys at present great privileges, and is one of the finest in France, since it has been enlarged by Lewis XIV, so that it's citadels, new streets, public places, stately edifices, magnificent churches, monasteries, colleges, seminaries, hospitals, courts of judicature, havens, arsenal, galleys, &c. are well worth a stranger's particular observation.

TOULON is extremely well situated, being open to the south,

and sheltered on the north by very high mountains, which render it's port one of the largest and safest in the world.

The city is pretty large, but very dirty almost every where; it is distant about ten leagues east from Marseilles, twenty-four from Nice to the south-west, and thirty from the borders of Dauphiné to the south, and about 125 from Paris. It is a strong city, adorned with several churches, monasteries, and other public edifices. King Henry IV. fortified it with strong walls, and built two large moles, each whereof is 700 paces long, inclosing almost the whole port; near them is also erected an arsenal, furnished with all sorts of naval stores, whence the largest ships of the royal fleet of France are usually fitted out; and for their security, the fortifications have been very much increased by Lewis XIV. On two sides of the city, viz. north-east and south-east, at a very small distance, lie very steep and inaccessible hills: that of St Anne's, on the north-east, perfectly commands the town, and sinks with a declivity on that side, but on the country side it is a perpendicular rock. On the sea-side it is extremely well defended by batteries of cannon flanking all the avenues. In the mouth of the haven lies a stockade or boom, between which and a little neck of land, there is a pass of good deep water; but that is secured by a great tower, whereon are mounted 30 guns, which carry 24 pound balls. This tower our fleet, under Sir Cloudeſly Shovel, endeavoured to gain, and had in effect done it, if an unlucky shot had not blown up the magazine of gunpowder in fort St Laurence.

The port is one of the finest in Europe: you enter first into a large and very safe road, defended by several batteries and forts. At one of the extremities of this road lies the port, the entrance of which is so narrow, that the ships cannot enter it, but one by one, and it is defended by several batteries well mounted with guns.

The diocese of Toulon is of a very small extent, comprehending in all but 25 parishes. One of the principal places in this bishopric, is the city of

HIÈRES, which was formerly a considerable place, being a seaport town; but the harbour is at present filled up, and the sea retired above 2000 paces from this place. The soil here is very good and fruitful, and produces excellent fruit. This place gives the name to the island of Hieres.

FREJUS, or **FREJULS**. There is here a small harbour, at the mouth of the river Argents, from which this city is a league distant; it is 14 leagues from Toulon to the north-east, 10 from Antibes to the north-west, and 20 from Aix to the east.

PRUSSIA. This country is divided into Prussia Royal and Ducal; extends from 52, 50, to the 56th degree of north latitude, and from 16, 50, to 23, 54 degrees of east longitude. It is bounded by the Baltic Sea on the north, by Lithuania and Samogitia on the east, by Poland Proper and Masovia on the south, and Pomerania on the west. It is about 1250 miles in length, and in breadth above 140 in the west part, and in the east part more than 170; though some extend it 30 miles more, both in length and breadth. It contains a vast number of fine trading towns, besides many populous villages equal to some cities, has the most inland navigation of any country in Europe of it's bigness, except the Netherlands, and is said to be the richest soil, and the most plentiful in produce.

It abounds with cattle, wild beasts, and fruits of all sorts, and is said to be watered with above 2030 rivers and lakes, which supply the inhabitants with all kinds of fish. It has a considerable trade by many convenient ports, towards the Baltic, as well as by the Veissel, which falls into the Baltic at Dantzic, after having divided itself into several branches, and made the three islands called the Werder: so that the inhabitants are richer, and live better than in any other province of Poland. It's woods furnish plenty of venison, and it's sea-coasts a great quantity of amber, which is transported all over Europe. It flows on the sea like oil, and after being exposed to the air, grows hard. The people take it up with hofe-nets, fastened to long poles, when the tide flows, and sometimes catch pieces as big as one's fist.

A great deal of glass is made in this country, of the ashes of wood, and largest sort of pebbles: these they boil twelve hours, before they will vitrify. When they would have their glass clearer than ordinary, they mix a certain earth with the ashes, of the colour and hardness of tartar; which renders the glass of different colours, according to the quantity of this earth which is mixed with it. See **GLASS**.

Though the eastern part of this country, which was all along called Ducal, to distinguish it from the Royal, or Polish Prussia, is now also termed Royal, since his present Prussian Majesty's grandfather first took on him the title of king of Prussia, and was recognized as such by the rest of the powers of Europe; we shall, nevertheless, treat of it according to the antient division of it, by geographers, into the Royal and Ducal.

The **ROYAL**, or **POLISH PRUSSIA**, which is the west part, and subject to the king of Poland, has Ducal Prussia on the east, Brandenburg and Pomerania on the west, Poland on the south; and the Baltic on the north, and is 130 miles from

east to west, and 110, where broadest, from south to north. It is divided into the four palatinates of Pomerellia, or Polish Pomerania, Culm, Marienburg, and Pomerania, and the castellans of Elbing and Dantzic.

The palatinate of POMERELLIA, or POLISH POMERANIA, has Brandenburg Pomerania on the west, the river Veissel on the east, the Baltic on the north, and Great Poland on the south.

DANTZIC stands on a branch of the Veissel, about four miles above where it falls into the Baltic Sea, 24 miles north-west of Marienburg, 35 west from Elbing, 84 north from Thorn, 173 east from Stetin, and north from Gnesna, 154 north-west from Warsaw, and 256 north from Cracow. It is a free imperial city, and one of the Hans-Towns. [See the article HANS-TOWNS.] In the 9th century it was reckoned the chief place in the world for fishing up amber.

This city is now the chief staple of Poland for import and export, the greatest emporium of the Baltic Sea, and perhaps one of the greatest granaries in Europe; it being such a famous mart, that vast fleets of ships come hither every year from Holland to fetch corn, there being little else used, either in the province of Holland or Zealand. In short, if we only except London and Amsterdam, it may be said to equal, if not to excel, any other city in those parts of Europe. The chief export of the place is in corn brought from Poland: it is computed that 730,000 tons, or 365,000 lasts of wheat are shipped from hence one year with another. The citizens have the sole privilege of buying up the corn, as soon as it enters the harbour. The magistrates set a price upon it, but that the country people, who are the sellers, may not be imposed upon, and delayed, the citizens are obliged to buy up the whole quantity which the boats bring in, let it be what it will.

Though this city takes off a great quantity of the woollen manufactures of Great-Britain, yet the Dutch sending so many ships for corn to Dantzic, which must return empty if they have no goods to carry, the freight thereby costing them nothing, have the chief trade of course. Also all the heavy goods of Great-Britain, such as tobacco, sugar, rice, &c. are supplied much cheaper by the Dutch; so that, in a word, the English trade to this city is much less profitable than formerly; and yet the English goods are imported to Dantzic, and sent up into Poland, as much, and perhaps, more, than ever. Dantzic is the chief market to which the Dutch, and also the Scots send their pickled herrings; which are so good a merchandize in Poland, that, it is said, the Dutch sell at Dantzic, Elbing, and Koningsberg, 14000 tons or lasts of herrings every year, besides the great quantities which Scotland also send thither.

The Dutch also send juniper spirits hither, together with salt, sulphur, whale-fins, and train-oil; and would send more of the latter, were it not for the great quantities of oil which the Dantzickers raise from the smaller sort of sturgeon, and other fish, and from linseed, rape-seed, &c. Besides corn, of which there is not such quantity exported any where as here, the Dantzickers export pot-ashes, sturgeon, Polish linen, sail cloth, and great quantities of spruce canvas, which is used for sails for small shipping in England, and even in Spain and Italy. See the article CANVAS.

The Dutch, who bring herrings hither, besides their East-India goods, fetch great quantities of Polish sheeps-wool from hence, which is the best in all the northern world, the English and Irish only excepted, and which they employ in their cloth manufacture. The French also bring some of it away, and would bring more, if they did not find means to get it upon easy terms from England and Ireland. The Polish wool is also exported to Germany and Sweden.

The Dantzickers have a wine of that sort they call tockay, but it is no other than the Polish wines of the mountains of Cracow and Podolia.

Some of the best East country plank, as we call it, or oaken plank for building ships, is brought from this city, as well as Koningsberg and Stetin, and comes down the Vistula and Oder, out of the Great Poland. The Dutch cargoes, besides those already mentioned, generally consist of English woollen manufactures, and the sugar and tobacco of the English colonies, with the French silks, wines, and brandy. The harbour is not deep, so that large ships can scarce come up to the city.

They have no men of war, but abundance of merchant-ships, of 300 tons, and 30 or 40 guns a-piece. They have 200 soldiers in pay, can easily maintain 12,000, and have sometimes had an army of 60,000 men.

There is an island sea, or bay here, called the Frischaff, which lies parallel with the Baltic coast for 60 miles in length, but is of an uneven breadth, being from 5 to 10 miles over. It begins at the territory of Dantzic, where is a very large inlet from the Dantzic branch of the Vistula, and which makes the port of Elbing, just opposite to the mouth of the river Elbing, standing on another entrance of it, a little farther east. This bay is famous for sturgeon, a vast quantity of which is taken here, cured at Koningsberg and Dantzic, and sent to all the trading ports of Europe, especially England and Holland.

CULM, the second palatinate of Royal Prussia, lies on the east side of the Veissel, betwixt that river, Great Poland, and Ducal Prussia.

The city of this name is 23 miles north of Thorn, 60 south of Dantzic, and 43 north-west of Uladislaus. It is pleasantly situated on a hill, at the foot of which runs the Veissel, and has still the name of a Hanse-Town, but has lost its trade.

THORN, 24 miles south of Culm, 72 from Marienburg, 84 from Dantzic, 20 north-east from Uladislaus, 60 north from Lencieia, and 93 north-west from Warsaw. It is a Hanse-Town, divided by the Veissel into two parts: it is the finest and best built in all Royal Prussia, the streets being much broader, and the houses statelier, than at Dantzic. Cluverius says it was a famous mart long before Dantzic.

MARIENBURGH, the third palatinate of Polish Prussia, on the east side of the Veissel, and north of Thorn. It is bounded on the north partly by the Baltic and the Frischaff, and on the west by the palatinate of Pomerellia. It is a champain level country, like Holland, as fruitful as that province is, and as populous as any part of it, Amsterdam excepted.

MARIENBURGH stands on the Nogat, a branch of the Veissel, 18 miles south-west of Elbing, 25 south-east of Dantzic, and near 72 north of Thorn. The adjacent soil is fruitful and well cultivated, as is the neighbouring island of the same name, formed by the river.

ELBING, on a river of the same name, that rises out of the lake Drausen, and falls here into the Frischaff, is four or five miles from the Veissel, 18 miles to the north-east of Marienburg, 35 east of Dantzic, 95 north of Uladislaus, and 133 north-west of Warsaw. It is the metropolis of the palatinate, the chief town of Hockerland, and the only port, except Dantzic, in all Polish Prussia. It is a fair, neat, rich, strong, well-built, and populous city, in a delightful situation, and a place of great trade, the inhabitants being wholly addicted to business and commerce. Its principal trade is in sturgeon, butter, cheese, mead, and corn.

WARMIA, the fourth palatinate of this country, which joins to that of Marienburg, and lies north-east from Elbing, being surrounded in a manner by the Ducal Prussia and the Frischaff.

The chief town of this palatinate is BRAUNSBURG, or BRAUNSLAW, on the river Passar, near the bay of Frischaff, 25 miles north-east of Elbing, and 50 east of Dantzic. It is a populous place, much frequented and esteemed, and is noted for a good trade.

The DUCAL PRUSSIA has Polish Prussia on the west; Lithuania on the east; Samogitia, and the bay of Courland, on the north; and the palatinate of Warsaw on the south. It is about 130 miles from north to south, where longest, and 120 from east to west, where broadest; so that it is much larger than Polish Prussia, but not so fruitful, nor considerable for trade and towns. It is divided into the three following circles, or provinces.

The province of SMALZAND; the capital of which, and indeed of the whole kingdom of Prussia, is

KONINGSBERG, at the mouth of the river Pregel, where it falls into the Frischaff, 55 miles north-east from Elbing, 84 from Dantzic, and 153 from Warsaw. It is a Hanse-Town, large, well built, and divided into three parts by the river; one part, called Lebenicht, is defended by a strong castle, that commands the harbour, and makes it a great emporium of trade, which is chiefly in yellow amber, found on the coast, honey and wax, corn, naval stores, sturgeon, train-oil, linen-yarn, cordage, and several other things, of such universal use, that this, like Dantzic, is always full of ships, from most parts of the trading world, even from Spain and Portugal. In short, it is a rich city, and a place of vast business, the exportation here being the same as it is upon all this coast from Stralsund on the west, to Narva on the east.

PILAW, a very safe port on the Baltic, at the mouth of the Frischaff, 30 miles west of Koningsberg, is noted for sturgeon-fishing.

Of the EXCHANGES of DANTZIC and KONINGSBERG.

Usage of Dantzic for Germany is as for Koningsberg, at 15 days sight; for Amsterdam, at 40 days after date, or a month after sight; and at Koningsberg 41 days. In both these places there are allowed 10 days of grace after the expiration of the time mentioned in the bill of exchange.

They keep their accounts in rixdollars, gros, and fenings; or in florins, gros, and fenings. The rixdollar=3 florins, or 90 gros, the florin=30 gros, the gros=18 fenings.

DANTZIC and KONINGSBERG

Gives	To receive	
72 rixdollars, more or less,	in France,	100 crowns d'or sol.
270 gros Poland,—idem	in Holland,	1 livre gros banco.
100 rixdollars	at Brellaw,	103 rixdollars, more or less.
84 gros Poland, more or less,	at Frankfort,	1 rixdollar current.
110 dittos—idem	at Hamburgh,	1 rixdollar banco. [money.]
100 rixdollars	at Leipzig,	101 rixdollars, more or less, current
56 gros Poland more or less,	at Nuremberg,	1 florin current money.

REMARKS on the article PRUSSIA before the last war.

The Prussian monarch has great forces, large revenues, a genius capable of conducting both, and a moderation that will restrain him from attempts superior to these. He knows perfectly well, that the grandeur of the sovereign must be established upon the welfare of the subject, and this has excited him to shew the same regard for the happiness of his people, as for the extension of his own power; or rather has induced him to make the latter always subservient to the former. He is known to have an inclination to become a maritime power, or which is the same thing in other words, to enable his subjects to encrease their wealth by their industry, through the channels of foreign trade.

Now though there are many, and, amongst them, some statesmen, who treat this as a chimera, yet we are told the direct contrary, and are inclined to think that this monarch, and his successors, will actually carry that point; and we think so, because there is no great improbability in supposing that they may be, some time or other, masters of a sea-coast four or five hundred miles in extent. It would require more time and room than we have at present to bestow, to endeavour the explanation of this, so as to bring it within the reach of every capacity; but whoever will consult the maps, consider the present state of things, and the vast improvements in the power of an absolute monarch to make, who knows what he is doing, and what is to be done, in carrying a favourite point, which is at the same time, his people's point, as well as his own: I say, whoever will reflect upon these things, will not consider what we have advanced as a visionary delusion.

His views might certainly have been altered; his measures changed, and his designs otherwise directed than they have been. But then this did not depend intirely upon him, there must have been a concurrence in other powers to have brought this about; for, to manage a wise prince, true to his own interests, he must be shewn, that those who desire to have him for a friend and ally, have no intention to restrain, no inclination to defeat, the measures he takes for that purpose, while they are not destructive or dangerous to themselves.

To manifest a disposition contrary to this, is sufficient to give another bias to his councils; and, when we see a prince of the king of Prussia's turn continue, as it were, always armed at an immense expence, we must conclude that he has some great enterprize in view, which whenever time shall disclose, it will also discover that he took proper measures for carrying that point, whatever it is, which those armaments have been intended to compass.

The situation of his present Majesty's territories is such, as obliges him to have a constant eye to the affairs of the North, where no power was ever predominant, but his predecessors suffered for it, and their dominions and estates. With respect to the dukes of Courland, they have been, generally speaking, closely allied to the house of Brandenburg by marriage, which, as it shews the antient connection of their interests, discovers also the reason why this prince is still so attentive to the choice which the Courlanders may make of a new duke.

The province of Samogitia in Poland, with the duchy of Courland, divide the Ducal Prussia from the territories of the Czarina; and, therefore, in the present state of things, it is but natural that the king of Prussia should desire to see the hands of the Polanders strengthened, and the inhabitants of Courland set entirely free; because he might then flatter himself, that, in case at any time hereafter the troubles of Germany should revive, his territories would be safe from any sudden invasion by the Russians, with which he was threatened but a few years ago, when his concerns were in a very critical posture.

It is also very likely, that he would be glad to annex what the Swedes still retain in Pomerania, to the rest of that country which is already in his possession, not from any jealousy of the Swedes, or from a desire of aggrandizing himself at the expence of his neighbours and allies, but on the score of

convenience, and the better connection of his estates. We may from thence infer, that he will never seek to procure this in any other than an amicable way, and with the consent of the Swedes, in consideration of some kind of equivalent or other. It may be, this acquisition is still at a great distance; and it may be, also, that the measures which this great monarch has concerted in reference to the affairs of the North, will bring this about sooner than is generally imagined. But be that as it will, there is no question that, whenever it is effected, the power of Prussia will be very much augmented thereby, and the liberties of the Empire will then stand in need of no guardian without the limits of Germany.

While these designs attract the thoughts, and employ the hands of this active prince, he will certainly maintain a good correspondence with all those powers that are neighbours to him, in respect to the rest of his dominions, which will leave the inhabitants of the United Provinces at full liberty to redress their own grievances in their own manner, and to recover the antient strength and vigour of their government, in consequence of restoring that form under which it was first constituted, and for a long series of years happily flourished. But whenever those struggles for power which have embarrassed and distracted the potentates of the North, shall be by negociation or otherwise composed, we have very little room to doubt that his Majesty of Prussia will again turn his views towards the countries of Cleves and Guelders, and the principality of EAST FRIESLAND, where he has the very important and commodious port of EMBDEN, to facilitate the schemes he may form in favour of the commerce of his subjects, to which he seems to apply himself with equal industry and spirit, as that he has no reason to suspect his neighbours may force him suddenly into a war, while his councils are wholly taken up in cultivating the arts of peace and traffic.

He will by that time have served himself to the utmost, of whatever assistance France may have found it her interest to give them, for more than that she will never give; and his sense of this will engage him not to persist any longer in the prosecution of measures acceptable to the court of Versailles, than they are conducive to the extension or establishment of his power and influence. He will then see that independency, and being at the HEAD OF THE PROTESTANT INTEREST IN GERMANY, is sufficient to gratify his utmost ambition, and to raise him to the highest point of authority, by making him courted and respected by all his neighbours, and, as occasions offer, the umpire of all their differences.

These are, indeed but suppositions, but then they are built upon solid and rational foundations; whereas those who fancy that he will, some time or other, be swallowed up by a confederacy of powerful neighbours, or despoiled of a great part of his territories, are not able to offer either facts or arguments to counsel their opinion, since hitherto we have never seen him attempt beyond his strength; nor has it appeared in all his military regulations, fresh establishments, new discipline, &c. that the power most concerned, or which thinks herself most concerned to traverse the designs of Prussia, has been able to do it with any great effect, even in conjunction with a very useful ally, who, after being once sacrificed, will most certainly take care to prevent being involved again in the like quarrel.

REMARKS on our article PRUSSIA, since the last war and peace.

Besides his Prussian majesty giving all encouragement to trade, useful arts, and sciences, we have recent accounts that his majesty proposes to render the DUCHY OF CLEVES, and the other places he possesses in it's neighbourhood, the flourishing receptacles of industrious persons of all nations; in order to which, all the fortifications, except those of WESEL, are to be entirely demolished, no troops are to be quartered in them, the TAXES REDUCED, all the high roads improved, as well as repaired, several new canals made, and every encouragement given, that may invite manufacturers to settle in those countries.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS continued, from the end of LETTER O.

With respect to the PLANTATIONS in general.

PLANTATIONS, British, in Asia, Africa, or America.

No goods to be imported into, or exported from thence, in any other but ships of the built of Great-Britain, Ireland, or the said plantations, wholly owned by the people thereof, and whereof the master, or at least three-fourths of the mariners, are of the said places (except ships taken as prize, and legally condemned, navigated by the master, and three-fourths of the mariners British, or of the said plantations, and owned by British) upon forfeiture of the ship and goods,

one-third to his majesty, one-third to the governor, one-third to the seizer and informer, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 1. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 2, 3.

Admirals and other commanders of ships of war, are to seize as prize all ships offending, and to deliver them to the court of Admiralty, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 1.

Ships not to be deemed or pass as of the built of Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, or the British plantations, so as to be qualified to trade, till registered by the owners, and proof of the built and property be made upon oath of one or more of them, before the collector and comptroller of the port of Great-Britain or Ireland, to which they then belong,

Of the B U S I N E S S of the C U S T O M S, continued.

long, or before the governor and principal officers of the revenue in the plantations, Guernsey or Jersey, if the ship belongs to those places, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 17.

———— Such oath to be registered by the persons who administered it, and attested under their hands and seals, and then delivered to the master, and a duplicate thereof immediately transmitted to the commissioners of the Customs, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 18.

———— For want of such proof, ships trading thither are liable to forfeiture, as if they were foreign ships, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 18.

———— But prize ships legally condemned must be specially registered, mentioning the capture and condemnation, instead of the time and place of building; with proof upon oath, that the entire property is British, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 19.

———— The name of a ship changed after registering, or the property transferred to another port, such ship to be registered de novo, and the former certificate thereof to be cancelled; and if the property be altered in the same port by the sale of any share, it must be acknowledged by indorsement on the certificate of the register before two witnesses, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 21.

———— British, in Asia, Africa, or America—Ships lading and unlading any goods there, and the master and their lading are subject to the same rules, visitations, searches, penalties, and forfeitures, as in Great-Britain (except under the regulations in the sequel) 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 6.

———— Sugar, tobacco, cotton, wool, indigo, ginger, fustick or other dying wood, rice (except under the subsequent regulations) melasses, hemp, copper-ore, beaver-skins or other furs, pitch, tar, turpentine, masts, yards and bowsprits of the growth, production and manufacture of any of the British plantations in America, Asia, or Africa, may not be carried from thence, unless to some other British plantations, or to the kingdom of Great-Britain only, to be there landed, upon forfeiture of the said goods, or their value, with the ship and furniture, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 18. 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 10, 11. 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 3. and 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 5. §. 12. and cap. 10. §. 7. and 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 25. and cap. 18. §. 22. and 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 4. and 2 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 6. and cap. 35. §. 17. and 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1.

———— And if upon any pretence whatsoever, any goods of the British plantations in America be landed in Ireland, without being first landed in Great-Britain, and the duties thereof there paid, they are forfeited with the ship, three fourths without composition to his majesty, and one fourth to the suer; unless stranded or driven in by leakiness, &c. in which case, the goods must be delivered into the custody of the chief officer of the port, there to remain till re-shipped for Great-Britain, for which good security must be taken, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. §. 14, 15.

———— N. B. Now to extend only to sugars, tobacco, cotton-wool, indigo, ginger, speckle-wood, or Jamaica-wood, fustick or other dying wood, rice, melasses, beaver-skins, and other furs, copper-ore, pitch, tar, turpentine, masts, yards, and bowsprits of the growth product, or manufacture of the said plantations. All other goods of the growth, product, and manufacture of any of the said plantations, may be imported from thence into Ireland (except hops, which are to continue under the regulations of 9 Ann. cap. 12. and 1 Geo. I. cap. 12.) provided it be in British shipping, whereof the master and at least three fourths of the mariners are British, 4 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 1, 2. and 5 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 1.

———— But rice may be shipped in Carolina, or Georgia in America, by British subjects, on board any ship built in Great-Britain, or belonging to British subjects residing in Great Britain, and legally navigated, that has cleared outwards, in any port of Great-Britain, for Carolina or Georgia; and may be carried directly to any part of Europe, lying southward of CAPE FINISTERRE, without being first carried to any other British plantations, or to Great-Britain, provided the master before clearing takes out a licence, under the hands of the commissioners of the customs, or any three of them, for the loading and carrying of the rice accordingly; which licence must be granted upon a certificate of the collector and comptroller of the port, that bond has been given, that none of the other enumerated goods shall be taken on board, at any British plantation, unless for the ship's use, and that the ship shall proceed directly with the rice according to the licence, and there land it, and then proceed to Great-Britain, before she returns to any British plantation, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1, 2, 6. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

———— The master, within four months after arrival, not producing a certificate of the regular discharge of such rice, under the hand and seal of the British consul, or of two known British merchants, the bond must be put in suit, 3 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 1, 2, 6. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

———— Before rice may be shipped in Carolina or Georgia, the licence and certificate of bond being given, must be produced to the collector; and before the master's departure, he must make oath in writing, whether he intends to load any rice, and to what place bound, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

———— Before rice may be shipped in Carolina or Georgia, the exporter must make entry thereof with the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, and take out a cocket, whereon he must indorse, before shipping, the true quantity intended to be shipped, mentioning the marks, numbers, and contents of each cask, and deliver the same to the searcher, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

———— If upon weighing and examining of the rice by the searcher, either before or after the shipping, the quantity be found to exceed the indorsement, or the rice be laden before entry, &c. it is forfeited, with treble the value, besides the vessel, one third whereof to the king, one third to the governor, and one third to the informer, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

———— Before the ship's departure, the master is to receive back the licence, with the marks, numbers, and contents of each cask, indorsed thereon by the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, who are to make two copies of such licence and indorsement; which are to be attested by the master, and left with the officers, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

———— The master, on his return to Great-Britain, must produce the licence so indorsed, to the officer of the port where bond was given, and likewise a certificate of the consul or of two British merchants, testifying the due landing of the rice, and that they verily believe that no other enumerated goods have been there landed 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

———— Officers in Carolina or Georgia must transmit one of the copies of the indorsement, to the commissioners of the Customs; and upon receipt thereof, or of the indorsed licence, and the half subsidy for the rice shipped in Carolina or Georgia, must be demanded of the person who gave the bond; and in case of non-payment within thirty days, the bond must be put in suit, 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 5. and 27 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

———— British, in Asia, Africa, or America.—For every ship bound to the said plantations, sailing from Great-Britain or Ireland, sufficient bond must be there given, with one surety, to the chief officer of the customs, to the value of 1000l. if under 100 tons, and to 2000l. if above that burthen, that if any of the aforesaid enumerated goods are taken on board, they shall, by the said ship, be brought to some port in Great-Britain, and there landed: and for all ships coming to the said plantations from any other place, before they begin to load any of the said enumerated goods, the like bond must be given to the governor, that such goods shall be carried to some other British plantation, or to Great-Britain: the condition of such bond to be, to produce a certificate, within eighteen months, of the legal discharge of the goods; and the surety in such bond named must be of known residence and ability, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 19. and 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 11. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 13.

———— Ships taking in goods, before a certificate of bond being given in Great-Britain, is produced, or bond be given in the plantations, or carrying the goods contrary to the tenor of the bond, are forfeited, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 19. and 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 11. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 13.

———— Governors are to return yearly, at least, a list of all ships, which have taken in any of the aforesaid goods, and also true copies of all the bonds by them taken, to the chief officers of the Customs in London, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 19. and 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 12.

———— British, in Asia, Africa, or America.—Ships belonging to the said plantations, landing any of the aforesaid enumerated goods in any place in Europe, except Great-Britain, are forfeited with their furniture, &c. 22 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 12.

———— Such ships may be prosecuted by any person in any court of admiralty in Great-Britain, 22 Car. II. cap. 26. §. 13.

———— Ships coming to the said plantations to take in any of the following enumerated goods, with intent to carry the same to some other British plantation, bond not having been first given to bring the same to Great-Britain, only there must be paid for such goods the following duties, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Sugar, white, the hundred weight	0	5	0
Sugar, brown, and muscovadoes, the hundred weight	0	1	6
Tobacco, the pound	0	0	1
Cotton-wool, the pound	0	0	0
Indigo, the pound	0	0	0
Ginger, the hundred weight	0	1	0
Logwood the hundred weight	5	0	0
Fustick and all other dying wood the hundred weight	0	0	0
Cocoanuts, the pound	0	0	0

And security must be taken to carry them to such plantations, to Great-Britain, 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 3. and 7 and 8 W and Mary, cap. 22. §. 8. and 1 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 4.

———— But if the proprietor has not money to pay said duties, the officers may take such a proportion of the goods as will amount to the value of the duties, 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 5.

Of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, continued.

----- The aforefaid duties to be under the management and direction of the commissioners of the customs, 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 4.

----- British, in Asia, Africa, or America. Prosecutions for the breach or non-performance of the conditions of bonds, to bring the enumerated goods to Great Britain, or to some other plantations, not commenced within three years after their date, or judgment not obtained within two years after the commencement of the prosecution, the said bonds are void, and must be delivered up to be cancelled, 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 23, 25.

----- Officers, upon demand, refusing or neglecting to deliver up such bonds to be cancelled, are to answer to the party grieved all his damages, with treble costs of suit, 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 23, 25.

----- Ships from Ireland may not break bulk, 'till the master has signified his arrival, and delivered a true inventory or invoice of the lading, to the governor, with a certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland, expressing the particulars of the ladings, &c. and has made oath that the goods are the same which he took on board by virtue of such certificate, and the ship be visited and searched by an officer, upon forfeiture thereof, and of all woollen manufactures found on board, not having been laden in Great Britain, and of any linen goods, not laden in Great Britain, nor of the manufacture of Ireland; one-third to his majesty, one-third to the governor (if they are seized, or sued for, otherwise that third also to his majesty) and one-third to the suer, 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 8. §. 2, 3. and 3 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 1.

----- But such ships to be subject to the same rules, searchers, penalties, forfeitures, &c. as ships coming from Great Britain to the said colonies, 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 8. §. 2, 3. and 3 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 1.

----- Ships coming to any British plantations, &c. may not lade or unlade any goods, 'till the master has declared his arrival to the governor, with his own and vessel's names, and has shewn him that his vessel is British built, or was taken as prize, and is navigated with a British master, and at least three-fourths of the mariners British men, and has delivered him a true and perfect inventory or invoice of the lading, with the places where taken in, upon forfeiture of the ship, &c. and all the European goods that were not laden in Great Britain, 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 8. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 2.

----- No goods of the product of Europe may be imported there, unless shipped in Great Britain, and carried directly from thence in British built shipping, or ships taken as prize, whereof the master, and at least three-fourths of the mariners are British, upon forfeiture of ship and goods; one-third to his majesty, one-third to the governor (if seized or sued for there, otherwise that third also to his majesty), and one-third to the seizer or informer, 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 6. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 2.

Except { Salt from Europe for the fisheries of New-England, Newfoundland, Pensilvania, and New-York, wines of and from the Madeiras and Azores, and horses and victuals of and from Ireland, by British, and in British ships, 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 1. and 13 Geo. I. cap. 5. §. 1. and 3 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 1.

Except { Irish linen cloth from Ireland, by British or Irish, so long as British linen is permitted to be imported into Ireland duty free, 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 8. §. 1. and 3 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 1.

----- British, in Asia, Africa, or America. Wool, woollens, shortlings, mortlings, woollstocks, worsted, bays, or woollen yarn, cloth, ferge, bays, kersies, sayes, frezes, druggets, cloth, ferges, shalloons, or any other drapery, stuffs or woollen manufactures of the product or manufacture of the British plantations in America, may not be there laden on board any ship, nor upon any horse, &c. with intent to be exported, upon forfeiture of the ship and goods, and 500 l. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 2, 19.

----- The treasury and the commissioners of the customs, may appoint officers of the customs in any port of the British plantations, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 11.

----- The officers of the revenue there are to have the same powers and authorities, and to be subject to the same penalties and forfeitures, and to have the like assistance, as the officers of the customs in Great Britain, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 6. and cap. 8. §. 3.

----- Naval-officers, within two months after entrance, or as soon as conveniently they can, are to give sufficient security to the commissioners of the customs, for the faithful performance of their duties, upon pain of disability to execute their employments, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 5.

----- Governors there, before entrance upon their governments, or within six months after, are to take a solemn oath to do their utmost, that every thing enjoined by these acts shall be observed, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. 15 Car. II. cap. 7. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. and 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 20. §. 69.

----- Neglecting their duty accordingly, are to be removed, rendered incapable of any other government, and to forfeit 1000 l. 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 2. and 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 8. and 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 4.

VOL. II.

----- Aliens, or persons not born within his majesty's allegiance, or naturalized, or made free denizens, may not be merchants, or factors there, upon forfeiture of all their goods and chattels; one-third to the king, one-third to the governor, and one-third to the informer, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 2.

----- British, in Asia, Africa, or America. Wharfingers, lightermen, bargemen, watermen, porters, &c. and the boats, vessels, &c. are subject to the same pains, penalties, and forfeitures, for any frauds or offences, as in Great Britain, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 6. and 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 8. §. 3.

----- Laws, by-laws, usages, or customs, in force or practice in the plantations, repugnant to the laws of Great Britain, are null and void, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 9.

----- Upon actions, suits, and informations upon laws concerning his majesty's duties, or ships or goods to be forfeited for unlawful importation, or exportation, the jury to consist only of natives of Great Britain or Ireland, or persons born in the plantations, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 11.

----- Penalties and forfeitures by this act, not particularly disposed of, are to be, one-third to the king, one-third to the governor, and one-third to the suer, 7 and 8 Will. cap. 22. §. 7.

----- Certificates of having given bond in Great Britain or Ireland, suspected to be false or counterfeit, the governor, or officers of the customs, may take sufficient security there, for the due discharge of the lading in Great Britain; and if certificates of the discharge of any such lading are suspected, the bond there given may not be cancelled, 'till they are informed of the truth of such certificate from the commissioners of the customs, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. §. 10.

----- Certificates, cockets, returns, or permits counterfeited, razed or falsified, or afterwards knowingly so used, the offender to forfeit 500 l. 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 22. §. 10.

----- Hats or felts are not to be shipped on board any vessel, or loaded on any horse, cart, or other carriage, in order to be conveyed out of any of the British plantations, to any other of the British plantations, or to any other place whatsoever, upon forfeiture of the hats or felts, and also 500 l. by every offender for every such offence, 5 Geo. II. cap. 22. §. 1, 2.

----- Any master of a vessel, mariner, porter, carrier, waggoner, boatman, or other person, knowingly aiding and assisting in such offence, forfeits 40 l. 5 Geo. II. cap. 22. §. 1, 2.

----- No commissioner, or officer of the customs, or farmer of the customs in the British plantations, is to take any entry outwards, or sign any cocket, &c. for the exporting any hats or felts, or knowingly permit, or contrive the same to be done, upon forfeiture of his office, and also 500 l. 5 Geo. II. cap. 22. §. 4.

----- Any person may seize and convey to his majesty's next warehouse all such hats and felts, which he shall find in any ship or boat, or laid on, or near the shore, or in any navigable river, or upon any horse or carriage, with intent to be exported and conveyed as above, 5 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 5.

----- Every offence committed against this act, may be tried in any place in Great Britain, or the plantations, either where the offence was committed, or the offender or goods are found, 5 Geo. II. cap. 22. §. 5.

----- British, in Asia, Africa, or America.—Rum or spirits, molasses or syrups, sugars or panneles of the product of any plantation in America, not in the possession of his majesty, imported into any British plantations in America, are to pay the following duties, in money of Great Britain, according to the value of 5 s. 6 d. per ounce in silver, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Rum or spirits, the gallon	-	-	0 : 0 : 9
Molasses or syrups, the gallon	-	-	0 : 0 : 6
Sugars and panneles, the hundred weight	-	-	0 : 5 : 0
and so in proportion for a greater or lesser quantity, to be paid down in ready money before landing, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 1, 2.			

----- Any of the said goods landed before due entry and payment of the duty, or without warrant from the proper officer, are forfeited, and may be seized by the governor, or any person authorized by him, or by warrant of a justice, or other magistrate, or by any custom, impost, or excise officer, or their assistants, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 3.

----- Any person assisting in the unlawful landing, or receiving into their custody any of the aforefaid goods so landed, are to forfeit treble the value; and for molesting the officer in the execution of his duty, 50 l. and to suffer three months imprisonment, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 5, 6.

----- Officers conniving at the said offence are to forfeit 50 l. and be rendered incapable of holding any employment under his majesty, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 5, 6.

----- Masters of ships, being his majesty's subjects, receiving on board any of the aforefaid goods, in order to land the same contrary to the true intent of this act, are to forfeit 100 l. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 7.

----- Such offences and forfeitures may be prosecuted, within two years after the offence, in any court of admiralty, or record, in his majesty's plantations where the offence was committed;

committed; and the forfeiture is to be divided, one third to his majesty, which (the expenses of prosecution being first paid thereof) is to be applied for the support of the government of the colony where it shall be recovered) one third to the governor, and one third to the informer, or prosecutor, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 3, 11, 12.

———— In all such prosecutions for illegal landing the said goods, the onus probandi is to lie on the claimer, or owner thereof, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 8.

———— British, in Asia, Africa, or America. Any of his majesty's subjects in any vessel built in Great Britain, and belonging to his majesty's subjects, of which the major part reside in Great Britain, and the residue either in Great Britain, or in some of his majesty's sugar colonies in America, or in any vessel belonging to his majesty's subjects residing in Great Britain, and navigated according to law, that shall clear outwards from Great Britain to any of the said colonies, may ship sugars of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said colonies, to carry to any foreign part of Europe, provided a licence be first taken out for that purpose, under the hands of three of the commissioners of the customs, subject to the regulations, and on the conditions following, viz. 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 2. and 14 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— The master or owner of the vessel must give notice in writing to the customer, or collector and comptroller of the port where the vessel lies, of his intention to proceed to the said colonies to lade sugars, for some other part of Europe than Great Britain, and enter into bond, with one or more sufficient securities, in the sum of 1000l. if the ship be of less burthen than 100 tons, and 2000l. if she be of that, or a greater burthen, on condition that, if a licence be granted, the ship shall proceed to the said colonies; that he shall deliver the licence to the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer there, if he intends to make use of the liberty granted by it, which he shall declare in writing to them, before he takes any goods on board; and that no tobacco, molasses, ginger, cotton, wool, indigo, fustick, or other dying wood; tar, pitch, turpentine, hemp, mast, yards, bowsprits, copper-ore, beaver-skins, or other furs of the growth, production, or manufacture of any of the British plantations in America, shall be taken on board, unless for necessary provisions in the voyage; that, before the vessel proceeds to any foreign part, she shall touch at some port in Great Britain, and that the master shall deliver to the customer, or collector, and comptroller, a true manifest, attested upon oath, of the whole lading, with the marks, numbers, package, and contents, and produce the licence, with a certificate of the marks, numbers, package, and contents, and sorts of sugar on board, that the vessel shall return to Great Britain, within eight months after delivering the lading in any foreign part, and before she returns to any of the plantations in America; and that, if she takes any goods on board before her return to Great Britain, they shall be entered and landed as other ships are obliged to do by the laws of the customs. Then a licence is to be granted for that voyage only, to load and carry sugars of the growth and production of his majesty's sugar colonies in America, to any foreign part, according to the purport and intention of this act; provided the master makes oath as prescribed 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 2, 3. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— Sugars, or other goods put on board any vessel licensed by this act, being the property of any other person than some of his majesty's subjects, and such as shall be laden on their proper risque and account, to be carried to foreign parts, are forfeited, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 4. and 12 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— Before any sugars are taken on board, the master is to deliver to the collector of the port where the vessel is to take in her lading, the licence, with a certificate of bond, having been given in Great Britain; and to declare in writing, whether he intends to load sugars pursuant to the licence, otherwise the licence is invalid, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— The exporter of the sugars, or other goods not enumerated, before they are put on board, is to make an entry of them in writing with the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, expressing the name of the ship and master, and where she lies, and the place where they are to be laden, or first water-born, must be such only, where an officer is appointed to attend; or such as is mentioned in the warrant to be taken out for that purpose from the collector and comptroller, whereon is to be indorsed by the exporter the marks, numbers, and contents, sorts, and proper denominations of the sugars, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— The warrant so indorsed is to be delivered to the officer appointed to examine and ship the same; and the sugars are to be shipped in the presence of the officer, or at the place mentioned in the warrant, that the officer may attend, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— The officer is to examine the same before shipped, and if the number of casks is greater than is indorsed on the warrant, or if there be found any other sugar than what is indorsed, or any goods before enumerated; or if any enumerated goods, except sugar, have been put on board, or brought, or put into any lighter or other vessel in order to be put on board

before entry, &c. contrary to the directions of this act, the said sugars, or other goods, are forfeited, together with the lighter or vessel, employed in shipping or attempting to ship the said enumerated goods, and the ship or vessel on which they are laden; and the owner to forfeit double the value, to be recovered in the court of vice-admiralty, or any court of record in the plantations, at the election of the informer or prosecutor; one-third to his majesty, one-third to the governor of the colony, and one-third to the informer or prosecutor, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— The master of the vessel before he departs, is to receive the said licence from the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, with a certificate under their seals of office, and signed by them, containing an account of the marks, numbers, contents, and sorts of each cask of sugar so shipped. Two copies are to be taken of the said licence and certificate, and attested under the hand of the master of the vessel before he receives back his licence, and to be left with the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, who are to transmit one of them to the commissioners of the customs in Great Britain, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— The master of the vessel must proceed directly to Great Britain, without putting into any other place, except by stress of weather (unless he is bound to the south of CAPE FINISTERRE), and upon his return, is to deliver his licence, with the certificate, to the commissioners of the customs, or the collector and comptroller of the port, where he arrives, and also a manifest, attested upon oath, of the marks, and numbers, with the tale, and sorts of casks, of all his lading, and make an entry of the quantity and sorts of all the sugars, which were laden and then remaining on board, and declare upon oath to what foreign part he is bound (the entry to be passed by the collector and comptroller without receiving any custom or duty for the sugars, mentioning in their accounts that it was passed by virtue of this act). Then the master to proceed, taking with him his licences and a certificate under the seals of office, from the collector and comptroller, that he had touched at such a port, and in all respects complied with the directions of this act, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— If any such vessel proceeds to foreign parts without touching at some port in Great Britain (except as before) and complying with the directions of this act, and having the same certified as above; or if any goods before enumerated, are found on board, or carried to foreign parts, the liberty granted by this licence is void, and the vessel, master, and all others concerned, are liable to the same penalties and forfeitures, as if this act had not been made, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— If upon information upon oath there is reason to suspect, that any enumerated goods, besides sugars, are on board, any officer of the customs, or person employed by them, may enter on board and unlade the vessel, as far as they shall judge necessary, to enable them to examine any part of her, and the goods on board, and detain her as long as is necessary, and open cabbins, lockers, and any concealment, and seize all goods found on board not mentioned in the master's manifest, which are forfeited, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 6. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— If no other goods are found on board, the officer is to be at the charge of damage done by landing, unloading, or unpacking, but not for demurrage, or on any other account. But if other goods are found on board (except necessary provisions for the voyage), the master is to be at all charge, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 6. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— If the owners are desirous to enter and pay the duty, and land any goods out of such vessel, they may do it; the master first making report of his whole lading, as required by law before this act, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 7. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— The master, upon his return to Great Britain, after landing his sugars in foreign parts, is to deliver to the commissioners, or the collector, or comptroller of the port where he arrives, the licence, with a certificate, from the consul, or two known British merchants of good credit, of the place where they are landed, of the landing thereof, with the number of casks of sugar there landed, the marks, numbers, and contents of each cask, with the name of the ship, and master, and that no tobacco, or other goods before enumerated, except sugars, have been landed out of her, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 9. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

———— British, in Asia, Africa, or America. If a master of a vessel, who has taken out a licence as above, shall, upon his arrival in the sugar colonies, deliver it to the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, with the certificate of bond having been given in Great Britain; and before he lades any goods, declare in writing upon oath, that the sugars he intends to load are to be carried to some place southward of CAPE FINISTERRE, he may, in case he has complied with the directions of this act, proceed thither directly, without touching at Great Britain, taking with him the licence, and oath indorsed thereon, together with an account of the marks, numbers, package, contents, and sorts of sugars taken on board

Of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, continued.

and may there land the same, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 8. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

----- In such case the master, within eight months after landing his sugars, and before he goes again to the plantations, is to return to Great Britain, and deliver his licence as before directed, with the oath indorsed thereon, and an account of the lading, together with a certificate from the consul, or two known British merchants of good credit, of the place where the sugars were landed, of the landing thereof, with the number of casks of sugar landed, and the mark, number, and contents of each cask, with the name of the ship, and master; and that they verily believe no tobacco, or other goods before enumerated, have been there landed out of her; and the master to make oath of the truth of the certificate, and that none of the goods before enumerated, except sugars, were taken on board at the colonies, or landed at the place mentioned in the certificate. The master also is to make an entry with the collector, and comptroller, of all the sugars taken on board, and landed as above, on forfeiture of 100 l. which entry is to be passed by them without receiving any custom, or duty for it, mentioning in there accounts that it was passed by virtue of this act, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 8, 9. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

----- British, in Asia, Africa, or America. Upon performing the requisites abovementioned, the bond is to be discharged, and delivered up, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 9. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

----- If any such ships, after unloading her sugars, takes on board other goods before her return, all remaining on board at her arrival in Great Britain, are to be entered and landed before her departure from thence, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 9. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

----- This act not to excuse ships being registered according to 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 12. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

----- The master, or owner of such vessel, may not advance to the seamen, or mariners, while in parts beyond the seas, any money or effects, on account of wages, more than one moiety of their wages due from their departure, to their return to Great Britain, on forfeiture of double the money so advanced, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 12. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

----- Granting a false certificate, or counterfeiting, erasing, or altering any licence, oath, or certificate, made pursuant to this act, the penalty is 500 l. forfeit, and the licence, oath, or certificate, rendered invalid, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 15. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

----- This act not to extend to granting a liberty to carry any sugars from the sugar colonies to Ireland, 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 16. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 57. §. 7.

----- No ship, required to be registered by 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. may be permitted to trade, or deemed qualified for that purpose, within the intent of the said act, until the master make oath, before the governor, or collector of the customs of the plantation where he arrives, as prescribed by act of parliament, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 1.

----- Any ship loading, or unloading, any goods in the plantations, before such proof, is forfeited, and may be prosecuted, recovered, and divided in like manner, as if she had not been registered, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 2.

----- British in Asia, Africa, or America. Any ship duly qualified to trade to, from, and in his majesty's plantations in America, being there, and the certificate of the register lost or mislaid, the master is to make oath before the governor, or collector of the customs where she is, as prescribed by act of parliament, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 3.

----- And to give 500 l. security if the ship be 100 tons burthen, or under, and so in proportion, if of a greater burthen, with condition, that the ship has been duly registered, and that the certificate of the register, if found, shall be delivered up to the commissioners of the customs to be cancelled, and no illegal use has been, or shall be made thereof; and that it has not, nor shall be fraudulently disposed of; and that the ship does wholly belong to his majesty's British subjects,

and that no foreigner has any share, property, or interest therein. And then the governor, and collector of the customs are to give the master a certificate under their hands and seals, of his having given such bond, and made such oath; and thereupon the ship is to have liberty to trade for that voyage only. The officer, who takes the bond and oath, is to transmit an account thereof to the commissioners of the customs, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 3.

----- British, in Asia, in Africa, or America. The certificate of the register being lost, the ship may be registered de novo, upon the master and one of the owners making proof upon oath (before the commissioners of the customs, if any of the owners reside in Great Britain, Ireland, Guernsey, or Jersey, or before the governor, and collector of the customs residing in the plantations in America, if she was registered there, and none of the owners reside as above), of the loss, and likewise of the name, burthen, built, property, and other particulars, required by 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. before the same persons, and in the same manner, as required upon original registers, and giving 500 l. security, if the vessel be of the burthen of 100 tons, and in proportion for ships of greater burthen, to the collector of the port to which she belongs, that the certificate has not been, nor shall be, fraudulently disposed of, or used contrary to law; and that when found, it shall be delivered to the commissioners of the customs to be cancelled; and a certificate of the register is to be delivered to the owner by the proper officer, as directed by the said act of 7 and 8 Will. III. mentioning the name by which she was former registered, and that this certificate is granted in pursuance of this act, instead of the former certificate, which appears, by such proof as this act requires, to be lost, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 4.

----- A duplicate of the certificate is to be transmitted, by the officer who granted it, to the commissioners of the customs, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 4.

----- All bonds, commonly called plantation bonds, taken in Great Britain (in pursuance of 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 22. or any other law), whereby the goods therein enumerated are to be brought to Great Britain, are to be with condition, that within eighteen months from the date (the danger of the seas excepted), a certificate shall be produced from the collector and comptroller of the port where the goods are delivered, that they have been there landed and discharged; otherwise the bond to be forfeited, 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 5.

----- But not to extend to bonds given to ships which lade rice at Carolina, or Georgia, pursuant to 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. or which lade sugars in any of the sugar colonies in America, pursuant to 12 Geo. II. cap. 30. 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. §. 5.

----- British, in Asia, Africa, or America. --- No mariner or person serving on board any privateer or trading vessel, employed in any of the British sugar colonies in America, or being on shore there, or at sea in any of those parts, shall be liable to be impressed by any officer belonging to a man of war (unless such mariner shall have deserted from such ship of war) under the penalty of 50 l. 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 1.

----- Every master of a trading vessel or privateer in those parts, before he receives any mariners into his service, is to make diligent enquiry, whether such mariner hath deserted from any of his majesty's ships of war; any master receiving a mariner, who hath deserted, without reasonable endeavourment to discover the same, to forfeit 50 l. 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 2.

----- Every master of such trading vessel or privateer before departure from any port in the said sugar colonies, is to deliver, to the chief officer of the customs an exact list of all his men, containing names, ages, and description of persons: on neglect thereof; the master to forfeit 10 l. for each man so omitted; the officer of the customs to return to the said master an attested copy of such list: on the death or alteration of any seaman, such list to be immediately altered accordingly, and delivered to the naval-officer or chief officer of the customs in any port where the ship may arrive. All such lists to be produced and shewn to the captains and other officers of his majesty's navy, 29 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 3, 4.

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QUACK, a bold and confident pretender to the practice of the art of medicine.

A SHORT ANTIDOTE AGAINST GENERAL QUACKERY.

Every one of common sense will allow, that he who is best acquainted with the structure and use of any machine, will be best able to repair it's disorders; and that he who ignorantly goes about to rectify any disorder therein, will make but a contemptible work, in comparison with one who has made it the business of his life to be well acquainted with all the parts, and various uses of it's motions and springs: and the more exquisite this machine is, the greater degree of skill will be required for the rectifying it's disorders. This is plain to the meanest apprehension. Who, in his right senses, would send for a bricklayer to mend a clock?

I. The human body, may be properly considered, as a most perfect and noble machine, whose parts are extremely well configured, whose symmetry is most beautiful, and whose actions resulting from these admirable compages are reciprocally carried on by solids and fluids, of which the whole is constituted. And as many of it's motions are easily demonstrated by the consequences of it's structure, so it's diseases, are only the irregular motions or disorders of this complicated machine: nor is the case the least altered, by our having a principle within us, not subject in itself to the laws of motion.

II. It is, therefore, incumbent on every one, who would attain the due knowledge of the art of healing, that he make himself very well acquainted with this admirable piece of mechanism. That knowing well the part, the natural actions, and secretions of the human body, he may be enabled to judge, when and how these natural actions are perverted: all the symptoms of diseases, being the necessary consequences of the alteration of the animal œconomy; and without the knowledge of the secretion, we cannot understand the nature of diseases, that principle being the great spring of all the animal functions.

III. It is a maxim universally received among physicians, That medicine should begin where philosophy ends. It is, undoubtedly, a necessary qualification in a physician to be knowing in philosophy; and the natural actions and secretions of the human body, is that part of philosophy, which is more especially conducive to the knowledge of the practice of physic, and therefore ought carefully to be studied by every physician. And he is a true physician, who moreover attends, as much as may be, to all possible consequences, who does not heal one disease, by procuring a worse, but restores such a life as a man can enjoy.

The human spirits and blood, are the principal seats of health as well as disease. As to those parts of the body designed for strength and motion, they indeed fall not improperly under a surgeon's skill. But the humours, spirits, and blood, which are the seats of life, these and the animal secretions are peculiarly under the consideration of physicians; but are not yet so perfectly understood, even by the most learned, as we could wish; and until they are, there will be one fundamental deficiency in physic.

IV. Experience is doubtless of great use in promoting the art of curing diseases, if directed by a knowledge in the parts of the human body and the animal secretions; forasmuch as it is only by a just reasoning on experience, that we can come at the full knowledge of any phænomenon of nature. So that experience, or the knowledge of the histories of diseases, added to that of the animal œconomy, is what can only make a physician; and, wherever the history of a disease is exactly known, if the right method of curing it cannot be deduced, it must be, because the knowledge of the parts of the human body, of their use, and of the animal secretion, are not sufficiently understood: for the skill of physicians in curing diseases, whose histories are exactly known, is, for the most part, proportional to their knowledge of the animal œconomy: for in order to find out the seat and nature of a distemper, and from thence to deduce a right method of cure, it will be absolutely necessary to reason on those histories; which we

QUA

cannot do as we ought, if we are ignorant of the structure, use, and disorders of the machine we are about to rectify.

V. Descriptions and diagnostic signs of diseases, are the proper business of observation and experience; but indications of cure, arise from reasoning upon those observations. Diagnostics are properly a collection of particular symptoms only, but indications are those conclusions, which our knowledge of the parts of the body and their use, enables us to make on these observations and descriptions. So that the histories of diseases, and the knowledge of the parts of the body and their use, must always go hand in hand, in order to the obtaining the due knowledge of the practice of physic. He therefore, who is sufficiently knowing in philosophy and the animal œconomy, and makes a proper use of this knowledge, by reasoning on **REAL FACTS**, grounded on repeated experience and observation, may justly be said to use his philosophy aright; and may then reasonably hope for success, in finding out the genuine indications of cure, in which the practice of physic chiefly consists. And without this caution, our reasonings will certainly be to very little purpose; for what is not deduced from genuine appearances, is mere hypothesis.

VI. The great Hippocrates has this assertion, That nature cures diseases. The truth of it physicians of this day may experience, if they will carefully keep up to his excellent directions and method; it being his only aim to relieve nature when oppressed, in the very way and manner he observed her endeavouring to expel diseases. And it was by a constant diligence of this kind, joined to his superlative sagacity, that he arrived to that high degree of perfection in the knowledge of physic. Hence he perceived, that nature herself judges diseases; and, indeed, does all, being properly assisted; nay, and sometimes without any assistance.

VII. Hippocrates also informs us, and experience cannot but confirm it, that those people who have fevers, and are left to themselves, and take no medicines, if they do recover, get rid of their fevers by sweating, a looseness, an hæmorrhage, diabetes, or the like. Hence Hippocrates, and the ancient practitioners in physic, took their first intimation to provoke sweat and the other evacuations. And from their repeated observations and successes, they have formed a most rational method of cure. This affords a very strong confirmation of the necessity of a careful and diligent observance of the tendencies of nature in all her disorders, and the method she takes to get rid of diseases, when left to herself; and also a very good caution, not to be over hasty, or too busy in the administration of remedies, lest we should be found to ruffle and disturb, rather than assist nature, with the untimely use or multitude of medicines. The ne quid nimis in the practice of physic, is a matter of no small consequence: he therefore is most likely to prove the best, most prudent, and rational physician, who most diligently observes, and constantly follows, the motions and dictates of nature herself.

VIII. The many accurate and charming descriptions of distempers, delivered down to us by Hippocrates, in his Histories of Diseases, wherein the phænomena of each distemper, even in it's minutest circumstances, are observed, present us with an exquisite delineation of nature: and, if duly attended, will always be found of the greatest service for advancing the progress in the art of healing. Because, from his diagnostics in particular, though not excluding others of the Ancients, nor such among the Moderns, who have closely copied after his manner, we readily discover the nature of the disease. And as, whenever we arrive at the exact history of any distemper, we may, at all times, by the right application of the method of investigating diseases, most likely discover the immediate cause; so may we likewise, on those principles, easily come at the nature of the disease; when, having that given, it will be no difficult matter to find out remedies to cure, in all curable cases, and to administer relief, even in those which are incurable.

IX. This unwearied diligence in observation on nature, in the sagacious Hippocrates, and others of the Ancients, might probably be heightened in them, from the scantiness of their

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Materia Medica, and the exceeding severity of the then known remedies, however much to our benefit; since the excellent descriptions of diseases they had given us, cannot only never be exceeded, but will always remain invariably true, while human nature continues what she is. And had those of later ages, which have been so happily provided with a more copious and salutary Materia Medica, and which, it must be allowed, have been greatly improved in the knowledge of the animal œconomy: had these constantly persevered in the use of Hippocrates's great diligence and manner of observation, they might, doubtless, long ago, have brought the practice of physic to a considerable degree of perfection, though they had not been blessed with his extraordinary skill: for that, indeed, is a peculiar happiness, and the lot of very few; in which particular, we may, perhaps, say of the physician, as is commonly done of the poet, *Nascitur, non fit*. X. Should we of this age, flushed with our superior knowledge in the animal œconomy, and the variety of our Materia Medica, neglect to make use of that prudence and diligence, which are necessary in attending the motions of nature, and instead of endeavouring to assist her on these principles, when oppressed, become too precipitate, in the administration of medicines; the consequence will inevitably be, that we shall only obscure the disease, by multiplying, rather than taking off, the symptoms; and this to the personal confusion of physicians, the manifest injury of their patients, and the great disrepute of the profession. Whereas, would we consult the true and proper use of the many happy improvements of our own age, it cannot be done more effectually, than by keeping close to that most skilful leader Hippocrates, together with the other ancient practitioners in physic, in their manner of observing, and in their method of healing; founded upon the knowledge of the conjunct cause of distempers, from whence alone, the curative indications are to be taken. And by a careful perseverance in these methods, we may reasonably hope for the greatest success; and may, perhaps, in a few ages, arrive at the highest perfection in the practice of physic, that human nature is capable of attaining.

XI. In order to cure any disease, it is necessary to have a thorough knowledge of the disease itself, and of the remedy peculiarly adapted to it; it being impossible to cure a disease according to art, if the nature of the disease be hid from the artist. And for want of this knowledge, the care and pains of many physicians have proved ineffectual. These physicians, making little other use of the diagnostic symptoms than the mere naming the distemper only, have injudiciously taken their indications of cure from secondary and casual symptoms: whereas the true nature of a disease is ever best found out, from the diagnostic signs or marks alone; and from thence also, the true indications of cure must always be drawn, in order to the best and most effectual method of treating the disease. And as these indications wholly arise from our reasoning upon the observations we make of the appearance of nature; therefore, the greater our knowledge of the parts of the body and their use is, the better we shall be enabled to find out the nature of the disease. For it is this knowledge which must enable us, by reasoning upon the causes, signs, and symptoms of diseases, to find out their nature, and to deduce true and just indications of cure.

XII. Thus far in general. But now more expressly, to come at the true method of investigating and finding out the nature of all diseases incident to the human body, and from thence proceed to the most effectual methods of treating and curing them, the following particulars are absolutely requisite, viz. that we be well acquainted with,

1. The next and ever concomitant cause of the disease.
 2. The seat and part affected.
 3. The ways and passages through which the evil takes its course.
 4. The inseparable signs of the distemper.
 5. The symptoms which commonly accompany the disease.
- And
6. That the symptoms of the disease are rightly distinguished.
- If the physician errs not in these essential points, he may be judged to be in the right way of arriving to an happy cure of the disease.

XIII. It is very necessary at all times, carefully to distinguish between the disease itself, and the symptom. An inadvertence in this article, has been the stumbling-stone of some, even learned men, in all ages. Since it is to be imputed to the want of this distinction, as a principal (if not the only) obstacle, that physicians have been so much at a loss for the true cause of the disease, and have therefore so often taken the symptom for the disease itself: not rightly distinguishing the next and immediate conjunct cause, from its symptoms or accident; which may not be occasioned by the next and always accompanying cause of the disease, but by some other symptom; and what is so far from being the mark of the disease, that it is a symptom of a symptom only.

XIV. In the common malady of the tooth-ach, for example, when it does not proceed from a caries or rottenness, the genuine essence of this disease is, the violent distention or stretching of the periosteum, by some sort of humour; by which

means this membrane, being forced out of its natural form and situation, excites a most exquisite pain; which pain is not the disease, but the true mark of the disease; and the humour occasioning this pain, the cause of the disease. The inflammation, fever, swelled face, &c. which may succeed, are none of them the true marks, but proceed from the pain, which is the true diagnostic, sign, or mark of the disease, each of the above-mentioned being the symptom of a symptom only.

XV. The true marks or signs of a disease are such, as are present from the beginning, and, as it were, born with the disorder; they grow up therewith to its height, abate also and vanish with it. These are the only sure marks or signs. Other signs or symptoms which do not immediately follow the disease, nor any proper effects of it, and which do not always appear in the disease, are therefore deceitful signs, and not to be trusted to; though such as have inadvertently misled some sagacious men.

These deceitful signs are not to be reckoned among the proper symptoms of the disease, being only such as proceed from some proper symptom of the disease; and are, indeed, symptoms of symptoms only. For the true and proper diagnostic marks or signs of the disease, must always begin, grow up, decline, and vanish with the disease itself; and from such marks only, we must ever draw our indications of cure.

XVI. As to the symptoms of any disease, the first business is to distinguish the symptoms in general from the disease itself, and then to make a distinction between the symptoms themselves: that is, the symptoms which arise and vanish with the disease, are to be distinguished from those which are bred, not from the disease itself, but from the symptoms of the disease: and the symptoms as we before observed, which immediately accompany the disease, and are born and die with it, are the only sure marks or signs of the disease.

XVII. To illustrate this by our former familiar instance of the tooth-ach: here the pain is the chief and most grievous symptom, but is neither the disease itself, nor the cause of the disease; nor yet is it a simple symptom only, forasmuch as it is the cause of other symptoms which succeed; as the fever, inflammation, swelled face, &c. especially when the pain is violent. These several accidents now mentioned, are caused only by the raging pain of the tooth-ach (the true mark of the disease) and are symptoms of a symptom only. And farther, these accidents of fever, inflammation, swelled face, &c. are neither in whole nor in part the cause of the tooth-ach; neither are they inseparable companions of the tooth-ach; for the tooth-ach may be, and often is, where these never appear: as to the swelled face in particular, that neither begins nor ends with the disease, nor does it always accompany it; nor is it of the same nature with the humour occasioning that violent pain, but is merely a symptom of the tooth-ach, being raised by the pain, and bred by consent of parts from an afflux of humours.

XVIII. Thus we see plainly the method of finding out the nature and causes of a disease, its seat and part affected, its diagnostic and casual symptoms, and the necessity of distinguishing these latter, not only from the disease itself, but also from one another: all which will make way to judge the better of a fit remedy to cure the disease, for we cannot reasonably hope for a cure, before the disease be thoroughly understood. And in this manner we must come at the nature, cause, and cure, of all diseases.

XIX. From this method also of finding out the distemper, is discovered, at the same time, the only way of making a right and true prognostic, which is no more than a declaration of a physician's expectation in curing a sick person. And this expectation can no otherwise be truly framed, than from the nature of the disease, the quantity and intenseness of it, the natural strength of the sick, and the power of medicines conjunctly. The knowledge, therefore, of prognostics is not otherwise to be acquired, than by rightly investigating the diagnostic marks of a disease, whereby its nature is discovered, with that of the quantity of the disease, and the strength of the patient, at the same time: and as by this method, we are also led into the nature and power of medicines themselves; so here again, the very medicine reflects light, and, in some measure, confirms the knowledge of the disease: as Hippocrates well observes — *Medicina indicat morbum*.

XX. This then is the method, by which the nature of all diseases, to which human bodies are or may be liable, is discovered. And should ever any altogether new and unheard-of disease, at any time appear amongst mankind, this will be found the sure way of coming at its nature, by only thus carefully recollecting, examining, and distinguishing its symptoms. This will of consequence direct to the most proper method of curing, the knowledge of a disease being the first step towards its cure.

'All the difficulty of philosophy,' says the great Sir Isaac Newton, 'seems to consist in this, from the phenomena of motions to investigate the forces of nature; and then, from these forces, to demonstrate the other phenomena.' Agreeable to which, we observe, that the symptoms of any disease being given, its nature may readily be discovered.

XXI. The method of curing diseases, by drawing indications from the evident and conjunct causes, has always met with approbation, as from the best, so from the body of the most learned physicians in general. And as to the knowledge of these causes, it is allowed, that can only be attained by a close and assiduous observation of all the appearances in the several stages of the distemper. Whoever, therefore, has obtained an exact knowledge of the histories of diseases, if he has also due regard to the diagnostics, as by the method directed, may readily investigate their nature.

Natural philosophy and the history of diseases, as we observed above, must always contribute their joint-assistance in improving the art of healing; it not being possible to make any use of the latter, without a degree of knowledge in the former: and the greater our knowledge is of the parts of the human body, of their use, and of the animal secretions, the better the nature of diseases will be known.

XXII. We said before, that the symptoms of any disease being given, it's nature may be discovered.

Now the symptoms of every disease are no other than the effects of some cause, or causes, which pervert and overturn the natural actions of one or more parts; for which reason, by explaining these symptoms, we become apprized of the perverted action, or discover the disease: for nothing can be the cause of a disease, that does not produce the symptoms, in which the nature of the disease consists.

XXIII. Wherefore, the symptoms of any disease being given, it's nature may thence be discovered; and the nature of a disease being assigned, we have also the methods of curing it. Farther, having the nature and causes of any disease, we shall be able to determine how far the disease is curable or incurable; the probabilities of curing any distemper, and the methods and medicines proper to be used in attempting it.

XXIV. The Ancients, as before observed, have most accurately described the diagnostic signs and marks of diseases, together with their most natural and simple appearances. Whoever, therefore, is thoroughly acquainted with the histories, as delivered down to us by them, and is well versed in the structure and nature of the fluids and solids of the human body, may, from their diagnostic signs, be able to discover the nature and seat of the disease, and the productive cause of it. By the same means also, he will have it in his power to shew in what manner the symptoms, attending the disease, flow from it's nature, thus found out from it's symptoms; and likewise be capable of perceiving how these symptoms are cured, by changing the distempered condition of the parts affected.

XXV. But, in this examination of the nature of the disease from it's symptoms, we must be most careful, that every casual and foreign symptom be separated from those which are constant and permanent, in the manner the method more at large directs; it being easy, by observing the rule there laid down, to distinguish the constant and inseparable symptoms from those, which are merely casual and secondary.

XXVI. The principal symptoms are, for the most part, easy to be explained. The false symptoms are most commonly found among the secondary sort, and are the symptoms of symptoms only; for which reason they ought to be rejected from the number of symptoms properly belonging to the disease.

XXVII. Indications of cure must be drawn from the nature of the disease, and not from their precarious supposed causes, nor from their adventitious and casual symptoms: and there must run an uninterrupted chain, from the diagnostic signs of the disease, through it's nature and causes, 'till it ends in a rational method of cure.

XXVIII. Thus we see, that in order to cure any disease, the natural and practical way, is first to collect the most constant symptoms and effects of the disease. But in doing this, we must always remember, that our utmost diligence will be necessary, rightly to distinguish the symptoms: that in our collecting the genuine diagnostic signs of any disease, we never suffer the secondary signs or symptoms of symptoms, to creep into the number of the genuine diagnostic signs; for if we do, we shall certainly render our enquiries into the true nature of the disease, almost fruitless and impracticable; whereas, by strictly observing this caution, we shall readily discover the disease and it's symptoms, together with the causes of both. And if we can come at the nature of the disease we are about to cure, there remains no difficulty as to the way of curing, be the appearances of the symptoms never so complicated.

XXIX. The direct method of cure being thus obvious, the probabilities of success must be, as the nature of the distemper we come to cure, and the efficacy of the medicines we administer, respectively. And if we already discover by reason and practice, the peculiar ways in which the medicines made use of will act, we shall be thereby instructed, when medicines are most properly administered, and why they must be continued or laid aside, which is the sum and substance of physic.

The application of these sentiments to the public benefit.

XXX. In consequence of what has been urged by the most

learned physicians, it must appear to every man of common sense, to be a sad mistake, that has at present seized on many people, to imagine, That, if they are but well furnished with books of recipes, or are possessed of a powerful medicine, they have every qualification fit for commencing Doctor; because in these books and these medicines, as they think agreeable to the common saying, they are sure to find a salve for every sore. But, alas! these base empirical books, recipes, and medicines, the pest of the present age, will greatly deceive them. They are by no means to be confided in, but, on the contrary, are to be looked upon as very injurious, forasmuch as they only furnish all sorts of people with great opportunities of destroying each others health.

XXXI. And should any person pretend to set up to practise physic on this deceitful foundation, he would soon find himself miserably misled, to the manifest injury of himself, as well as of his patients. For it is most certain, that every medicine, be it never so good, must always be administered in the most proper dose, and at the most proper times of the disease, to make it of any advantage to the patient. This knowledge can no otherwise be come at, than in the arduous and diligent manner of studying above-mentioned, joined with the method of investigating the nature of diseases. Nor is this the sole advantage which follows on the doctrine of investigation, since it not only leads us into the true nature of the disease, and the certain method of cure, but also, at the same time, into the very nature and power of medicines themselves, if rightly attended to and applied. For the virtue of any medicine, is no other than it's power of eradicating the immediate cause of the disease; which effect is discovered, from knowing first the nature of the disease, and the different powers of medicine, are but the degrees of the same virtue thus discovered: from whence we have consequently the direct and indirect actions of medicines, with their positive and comparative powers. And were it possible, even to find out an universal remedy for all distempers, it must still be subject to the true dosing and timing: the accurate knowledge of which can no otherwise be obtained, than by the manner and method here laid down. And this, indeed, is the only true ARCANUM in the practice of physic. All your PANACEAS, NOSTRUMS, SPECIFICS, and the like, without this perfect knowledge of administering them in the most proper dose, and at the most proper times of the disease, will, for the most part, prove very mischievous. And, indeed, these remedies can only, by the greatest hazard and chance imaginable, ever prove of good effect, in any disease of consequence. It is true, that in many cases, let the medicine given be ever so improper in itself, or ever so unseasonably administered, the strength of nature may sometimes get the better of both, and the patient by that means luckily escape: but this is by no means curing, nor can nature's successful effort be any excuse for ignorance and quackery.

XXXII. From what has been advanced, it is natural to conclude, that it is no easy matter to become a skilful physician. Much reading, much thought and pains, will really be required: many things are necessary to be learnt, much diligence in enquiry, and much assiduity in observation, are to be used, before any one can be duly qualified (either with peace of mind to himself, or relief to his patients) to undertake a trust, in which the lives of his fellow-creatures are so nearly concerned.

XXXIII. If this be a just state of the case, what shall we say of those persons, who boldly take upon them the practice of physic, without the least previous knowledge of the requisites absolutely necessary for the regular discharge of this important office! Certainly, it can be no other than the highest presumption, for those to expect success, or hope for a blessing on their endeavours, who are altogether ignorant of the province in which they engage. Would such persons but seriously consider the great consequence of physic, in the practical part of it, where life itself is so immediately at stake, if they had any compassion for their fellow-creatures, they would not thus rashly venture to administer medicines, before they had acquired the proper and necessary qualifications. But at present, by melancholy experience, it is too well known, that this nation swarms with remorseless and cruel destroyers, who daily delude and impose on weak and credulous people, with their never failing remedies, for every body, every case, and at all times, alike; to the infinite damage of the PUBLIC HEALTH. And were the same art and industry used to discover the real mischief done by this practice, as are used to publish an accidental success, the balance, on the whole, would appear formidable. But who can expect, that the crafty should bewray and ruin their own craft? These, indeed, are wise in their generation: but, that the suffering patients should zealously support these deceivers, to cover their own folly, is a strange infatuation; yet so it is. No wonder, therefore, that a few accidental cures should be so much noised abroad, when the deceivers and the deceived join in the cry to propagate the fatal delusion.

XXXIV. In order to qualify the physician to collect the symptoms of diseases from his patients, in a judicious and useful manner, it will be absolutely necessary, besides an accu-

rate acquaintance with the structure of the human body, that he be also well read in the histories of diseases, delivered down to us by the Antients: for the great difficulty of collecting signs and symptoms from the sick patients; such, we mean, as shall direct to the nature of the disease; arises not barely, either from want of personal sagacity, or ignorance in the animal œconomy; but more especially, from being but superficially acquainted with the learning of the Antients in the particulars above: and, it is greatly to be feared, whenever the physician fails in distinguishing one disease from another, and the disease itself from their symptoms in their patients; it is from their not being sufficiently acquainted with that most perfect knowledge, which results from the admirable descriptions of antient physicians.

XXXV. This method, therefore, of investigating the nature of diseases, taken from the best and most antient physicians, and leading to the most successful ways of curing all curable diseases, and relieving the incurable, being the most natural and certain rule of attaining the above-mentioned extensive knowledge; we think it may not improperly be esteemed the very master-key to the judicious, and most successful practice of the art of physic. And, if thoroughly understood, and properly applied, together with the knowledge of the great improvements made in our own times, with regard to the animal œconomy and *Materia Medica*, it will safely conduct the physician from the threshold of medicine, to it's consummation; and that with much greater expedition and success, than any other hitherto known method. As what has been suggested on this argument will be of uncommon service to the beginner, so likewise will it continue to be the most useful and necessary companion we can associate withal, through the whole course of medicinal practice, by a right application in all the diseases, and the varieties of them, which may at any time be met with in authors, or observed from experience, whereby practitioners may most likely come at the cause and cure of diseases.

XXXVI. But here it may be objected; why all this pains-taking; why all this great diligence in enquiry, and great assiduity in observation; when the generality of mankind are so weak as to prefer every bold pretender, before the regular physician? This, indeed, at first view, seems very discouraging, and somewhat astonishing too! But then, let us consider, whether the physicians be not blameable as well as the people, that QUACKERY is at present so much in fashion; for, if the physician neglects the necessary qualifications, and fails of success among his patients, for want of proper knowledge and observation, which can only be acquired by the constant and diligent pains-taking above-mentioned; is it to be wondered at, that his patients should seek elsewhere for assistance, and thereby become a prey to every pretender and nostrum-monger? Whereas, when due care is taken that the physician be properly qualified, a reasonable success will, for the most part, attend his practice; and, in that case, the patient would be much less liable to fall into the hands of impostors and quacks. But alas! at present it is our great misfortune, through want of proper regulations, to have in this nation many more Doctors than Physicians; and which is, indeed, one main reason of the great increase of quackery amongst us; for, was the practice of those who called themselves doctors, attended with any reasonable success, their patients would not so readily apply to quacks and pretenders, in preference to the accomplished physician: in all times, indeed, there has not been wanting a fatal fondness, more or less, among weak and ignorant persons, in favour of nostrums and infallibility; but that disorder in these present times is so increased, that it calls loudly for the utmost care and compassion of our legislature.

XXXVII. Many medicines given as nostrums, and advertised as infallible, we very well know, are taken from the prescriptions of EMINENT AND LEARNED PHYSICIANS; which the quacks, those destroyers of health, in some measure disguise, and then call them after their own names, in order to deceive the people into an opinion of their skill, and to intitle themselves to patents and rewards. But who sees not, that these remedies, excellent, and of great efficacy in the cure of diseases, if judiciously administered; may yet prove (by a promiscuous and unskilful use) of the very utmost hurt and damage to mankind? Thus are the instruments of health wickedly wrested out of the physician's hands: and what was contrived and designed by them for the public good, by this great abuse, becomes a public mischief, and a salutary remedy is turned into a poison, by the random use and improper application of it. Now if medicine has ever been, or can be brought to be of real use to mankind, it is most likely to become so, when in the hands of discreet and learned physicians; and a very little reflection, cannot but convince every man of common sense and humanity, that to suffer an unskilful and promiscuous use of medicines, must needs be of dangerous consequences to the public, and productive of great evil. But against this great evil, the prudent physician has no other remedy, than the duly qualifying himself and others, to the best of his power, for that important office, the practice of physic; and it is only from the wisdom of the legislature, that an effectual redress of so

pernicious a disorder, as the quackery now reigning among the weaker sort of people, must be expected; if such a one can be found out. Nor can it be doubted, that the weakest among the people have a just right to all that protection and preservation, which the guardians of their lives and properties can equitably procure them: and would the legislature, at the same time, be pleased not to suffer any person to administer medicines, until they had given proper testimonials of their qualifications for that important office, the benefit of his majesty's subjects, from such a regulation, would be unspeakable.

REMARKS.

QUACKERY having in our days become a branch of traffic in this nation, of as pernicious and dangerous a tendency to the lives of his Majesty's subjects as a general plague; we have thought proper to take notice of it, hoping that some effectual remedy may one day be taken by the parliament, to prevent a destructive trade, that strikes at the root of all others.

QUARANTINE, i. e. forty, a denying entrance into a healthful place for 40 days, to those persons that are supposed to come from any infected place.

The LAWS of ENGLAND relating thereto.

An act to oblige ships more effectually to perform their quarantine; and for the better preventing the plague being brought from foreign parts into Great Britain or Ireland, or the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man.

Whereas it is necessary that some provision be made by parliament, for obliging ships and persons coming from places infected with, or frequently subject to, the plague, to perform quarantine in such manner as hath been, or shall be, ordered by his Majesty, his heirs, or successors; and for punishing offenders therein, in a more expeditious manner, than can be done by the ordinary methods of law; be it enacted, by the king's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That all ships and vessels arriving, and all persons, goods, and merchandizes whatsoever, coming, or imported into any port or place within Great Britain or Ireland, or the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, from any place from whence his Majesty, his heirs, or successors, by and with the advice of his or their privy council, shall judge it probable that the infection may be brought, shall be obliged to make their quarantine in such place and places, for such time, and in such manner, as hath been, or shall, from time to time, be directed by his Majesty, his heirs, or successors, by his or their order or orders, made in his or their privy council, and notified by proclamation, or published in the London Gazette; and that until such ships, vessels, persons, goods, and merchandizes, shall have respectively performed, and be discharged from such quarantine, no such person, goods, or merchandizes, or any of them, shall be brought on shore, or be put on board any other ship or vessel, in any place within his Majesty's dominions, unless in such manner, and in such cases, and by such licence, as shall be directed or permitted by such order or orders made by his Majesty, &c. in council as aforesaid; and that all such ships and vessels, and the persons or goods imported in, or being put on board the same, and all ships, vessels, boats, and persons, receiving any goods or persons out of the same, shall be subject to such orders, rules, and directions, concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection, as have been, or shall be made by his Majesty, &c. in council, and notified by proclamation, or published in the London Gazette as aforesaid.

And it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That if the plague shall appear on board any ship, being to the northward of Cape Finisterre, the master, commander, or other person having charge thereof, shall immediately proceed to the harbour of New Grimsby in the islands of Scilly, where being arrived, he shall make known his case to some officer of the customs there, who shall immediately acquaint some custom-house officer of some near port of England thereof; and the said custom-house officer shall, with all possible speed, send up the intelligence thereof to one of his Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, that such measures may be taken for the comfort and support of the crew of such ship so infected, and such precautions used to prevent the spreading of the infection, as the case shall require; and the said ship shall remain at the said islands of Scilly, 'till his Majesty's pleasure be known; nor shall any of her crew go on shore; but in case the said master, commander, or other person having charge of the said ship so infected, shall not be able to make the said islands of Scilly, or shall be forced by stress of weather, or otherwise, to go up either of the channels, he shall not presume to enter with such ship into any port, but shall remain in some open road, 'till he receives orders from his Majesty, or his privy council, and shall take care to prevent any of his ship's company from going out of his ship, and to avoid all intercourse with other ships or persons;

sons; and the said master, or any other person on board such ship as aforesaid, who shall be disobedient herein, shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and shall suffer death as in cases of felony, without benefit of clergy; and every such offence so made felony, shall, and may be enquired of, heard, and determined, in the county where the offence shall be committed, or else in the county where the offender shall be apprehended.

And to the end that it may be better known whether any ship or vessel be actually infected with the plague, or whether such ship or vessel, or the mariners or cargo coming and imported in the same, are liable to any orders touching quarantine; be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That when any country or place is, or shall be, infected with the plague; or when any order or orders is, are, or shall be made by his Majesty, his heirs, or successors, concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection, as aforesaid, as often as any ship or vessel shall attempt to enter into any port or place in Great Britain or Ireland, or of the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, the principal officer of his Majesty's customs in such port or place, or such person as shall be authorized to see quarantine duly performed, shall go off, or cause some other person, to be by him appointed for that purpose, to go off to such ship or vessel; and such officer, or other person authorized to see quarantine performed, as aforesaid, or the person so by him appointed for that purpose, shall, at a convenient distance from such ship or vessel, demand of the commander, master, or other person having charge of such ship or vessel; and such commander, master, or other person having charge of such ship or vessel, shall, upon such demand, give a true account of the following particulars: that is to say, the name of such ship or vessel: the name of the commander, or person having charge thereof; at what place or places the cargo was taken on board; what place or places the ship or vessel touched at in her voyage; whether such places, or any, and which of them were infected with the plague; how long such ship or vessel had been in her passage; how many persons were on board when the said ship or vessel set sail; whether any, and what persons, during that voyage on board such ship or vessel, had been, or shall be then infected with the plague; how many died in the voyage, and of what distemper; what ships or vessels he, or any of his ship's company, with his privy, went on board, or had any of their company come on board his ship or vessel in the voyage; and to what place such ships or vessels belonged; and also the true contents of his lading, to the best of his knowledge: and in case it shall appear upon such examination, or otherwise, that any person then on board such ship or vessel shall at the time of such examination be actually infected with the plague, or that such ship is obliged to perform quarantine, in such case it shall and may be lawful to and for the officers of any of his Majesty's ships of war, or any of his Majesty's forts or garrisons, and all other his Majesty's officers whom it may concern, upon notice thereof given to them, or any of them respectively, and to and for any other person or persons whom they shall call to their aid and assistance, and they are hereby required to oblige such ship or vessel to go and repair to such places as has been, or shall be appointed for performance of quarantine, and to use all necessary means for that purpose, be it by firing of guns upon such ship or vessel, or any other kind of force or violence whatsoever; and in case any such ship or vessel shall come from any place visited with the plague, or have any person on board actually infected, and the commander, master, or other person having charge of such ship or vessel, shall conceal the same, such commander, master, or other person having charge of such ship or vessel, shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and shall suffer death as in cases of felony, without benefit of clergy; and in case such commander, master, or other person having charge of such ship or vessel, shall upon such demand made, as aforesaid, not make a true discovery in any other of the particulars aforesaid, such commander, master, or other person having charge of such ship or vessel, for every such offence shall forfeit the sum of 200 l. one moiety thereof to the king, and the other to him or them who shall sue for the same, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, Edinburgh, Dublin, or in the proper courts, of the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, respectively.

And be it further enacted, That every master, commander, or other person having charge of any ship or vessel, which shall be ordered to perform quarantine as aforesaid, shall, after his arrival at the place appointed for the performance of his quarantine, deliver on demand to the chief officer appointed to see quarantine duly performed there, such bill of health, and manifest, as he shall have received from any British consul during his voyage, together with his log-book and journal, under penalty of forfeiting 500 l. one moiety thereof to the king, the other moiety to him or them who shall sue for the same, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, Edinburgh, Dublin, or in the proper courts of the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, respectively.

And be it further enacted, That if any commander, master, or other person having charge of any ship or vessel liable to perform quarantine, having notice thereof, shall himself quit, or shall knowingly permit or suffer any seamen or passenger coming in such ship or vessel, to quit such ship or vessel, by going on shore, or by going on board any other ship, boat, or vessel, before such quarantine shall be fully performed, unless in such cases, and by such proper licence, as shall be directed or permitted by such order or orders made, or to be made, concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection, as aforesaid; or in case any commander, master, or other person having charge of such ship or vessel, shall not, within convenient time, after due notice given for that purpose by the proper officer, cause such ship or vessel, and the lading thereof, to be conveyed into the place or places appointed for such ship, vessel, and lading, to perform quarantine respectively; then, and in every such case, every such commander, master, or other person having charge of such ship or vessel, for every such offence shall forfeit 500 l. one moiety thereof to the king, his heirs, and successors, and the other moiety to him or them who will sue for the same; and also if any person shall so quit such ship or vessel, by going on shore, or by going on board any other ship or vessel, contrary to the true meaning of this act, it shall and may be lawful for all persons whatsoever, by any kind of force and violence, to compel such person to return on board such ship or vessel; and every such person so quitting such ship or vessel shall, for every such offence, suffer imprisonment for the space of six months, and shall also forfeit the sum of 200 l. one moiety to the king, his heirs, and successors, the other moiety to him or them that will sue for the same; the same respective penalties and forfeitures to be recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, Edinburgh, Dublin, or in the proper courts of the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, respectively.

And be it further enacted, That, whenever his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, by and with the advice and consent of parliament, shall direct houses or lazarets to be provided for the receiving and entertaining of persons obliged to perform quarantine, or for the depositing, opening, and airing of goods and merchandizes liable to perform quarantine as aforesaid, it shall and may be lawful to erect the same; either in any waste ground or commons, or where such waste ground or commons are not sufficient, in the several grounds of any person or persons whatsoever, not being a house, park, garden, orchard, yard, or planted walk, or avenue to a house, paying such rate, rent, or consideration for the same, to the person interested therein respectively, according to their several interests in the same, as shall be agreed on between the persons so interested, their guardians or trustees, and any two persons to be appointed for that purpose by his Majesty, his heirs, or successors, under his or their sign manual; and in case of any difference concerning such rate, rent, or consideration, between the persons so interested, their guardians, or trustees, and such persons so to be appointed by his Majesty, his heirs, or successors, as aforesaid; then, and in such cases, the said persons so to be appointed by his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, may, and are hereby authorized, thirty clear days before any general quarter sessions of the peace to be holden for the respective counties or divisions where such grounds shall respectively lie, as aforesaid, to give, or cause to be given, to the occupier or occupiers of such several grounds, or to be left at their last places of abode respectively, a notice in writing, describing the quantity of ground so directed by his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, by and with the advice and consent of parliament, for the purposes aforesaid, and purporting that the rent or consideration of such ground will be adjusted and settled by a jury of the said sessions; and the justices at their said sessions, upon proof to them made that such notices have been given, shall, and are hereby authorized and required to charge the jury which shall attend at the said sessions, or some other jury of twelve honest and substantial men (to be then and there impanelled and returned by the sheriff of the county, without fee or reward) and cause to be sworn, well and truly on their oath, to assess the value of the ground comprized in the said notices, and the rent or consideration to be given for the same to the respective owner or owners thereof, according to their respective interests therein; which oath the said justices are hereby required to administer to the said jury, and to which said jury the said persons to be appointed by his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, and the parties interested in such ground, shall have their lawful challenges; and the said jury being so sworn and charged as aforesaid, after proper evidence on oath given to them, shall by their verdict assess the rent or consideration to be given for such ground to the respective owner or owners thereof, according to their respective interests therein; which verdict of the said jury, and judgment of the said justices thereupon, shall be conclusive and finally bind all parties; and that from and after such verdict and judgment, his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, shall and may hold and enjoy such ground, for and during all such time and terms as his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, shall judge necessary for the

the purposes aforesaid, paying for the same such rate, rent, or other consideration, as shall be agreed upon, or assessed and adjudged, as aforesaid.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That the proper officers authorized to put in execution such orders made, or to be made, as aforesaid, shall, and they are hereby empowered and required to cause and compel all persons obliged to perform quarantine, as aforesaid, and all goods and merchandizes comprized within any such orders made, or to be made, as aforesaid, respectively to repair, or be conveyed to some of the said houses, or lazarets, or to such other places as shall be provided for the reception of such persons, goods, or merchandizes, or for the opening and airing of such goods and merchandizes, according to such order or orders made, or to be made, as aforesaid.

And be it further enacted, That if any person obliged to perform quarantine, as aforesaid, shall wilfully refuse or neglect to repair, within convenient time after due notice for that purpose given to him, her, or them, by the proper officer, to the house, lazaret, or other place duly appointed for him, her, or them, or, having been placed in such house or lazaret, or other place, shall escape, or attempt to escape out of the same, before quarantine be fully performed, it shall and may be lawful to and for the watchmen, and other persons appointed to see quarantine performed, by such force as the case shall require, to compel every such person so refusing or neglecting as aforesaid, and every such person so escaping, or attempting to escape, as aforesaid, to repair or return into such house, lazaret, or other place so appointed for him or her, as aforesaid; and every such person so refusing or neglecting to repair, within convenient time after such notice, as aforesaid, into such house, lazaret, or other place appointed for him or her, as aforesaid; and also every person actually escaping, as aforesaid, shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and shall suffer death as a felon, without benefit of clergy.

And whereas disobedience, or refractory behaviour in persons under quarantine, may be attended with great danger and inconvenience, be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That all persons liable to perform quarantine, whether in ships, lazarets, or elsewhere, shall be subject, during the said quarantine, to such orders as they shall receive from the proper officers authorized to see it duly performed; and the said officers are hereby empowered and required to enforce all necessary obedience to their said orders, and may, in case of necessity, call in others to their assistance, and all persons so called are hereby required to assist accordingly.

And be it further enacted, That if any person, not infected with the plague, nor liable to perform quarantine, shall enter any house, lazaret, or other place so appointed, as aforesaid, whilst any person or persons infected with the plague, or being under quarantine, shall be therein, and shall return, or attempt to return from thence, unless in such cases, and by such licence as shall be directed, or permitted by such order or orders, made or to be made, as aforesaid, it shall, and may be lawful to and for the watchmen, or other persons appointed to guard or secure such house, lazaret, or other place so appointed as aforesaid, by such force as the case shall require, to compel such person so returning, or attempting to return, to repair into such house, lazaret, or other place so appointed as aforesaid, there to continue and perform quarantine; and, in case such person shall actually escape out of such house, lazaret, or other place, where he or she shall be so placed for performance of quarantine, before he or she shall have fully performed the same, he or she shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and shall suffer death as a felon, without benefit of clergy.

And it is hereby further enacted, That if any officer or officers of his Majesty's customs, or any other officer or officers, person or persons whatsoever, to whom it doth or shall appertain to execute any order or orders made, or to be made, concerning quarantine, or the prevention of infection, and notified as aforesaid, or to see the same put in execution, shall be guilty of any wilful breach or neglect of his or their duty in that behalf, every such officer and person so offending, shall forfeit his office or employment in the customs, or any other office or employment, and shall become from thenceforth incapable to hold or enjoy the same, or to take a new grant thereof, and forfeit the sum of one hundred pounds, one moiety thereof to the king, his heirs, and successors, and the other moiety to him or them who shall or will sue for the same, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, Edinburgh, Dublin, or in the proper courts of the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, respectively, and if any such officer or person shall embezzle, or shall knowingly and willingly damage any goods performing quarantine under his direction, he shall be liable to pay treble damages, and full costs of suit.

And whereas certain species of goods and merchandizes are more especially liable to retain infection, and may be brought from places infected into other countries, and from thence imported into his Majesty's dominions in ships not obliged to perform quarantine, be it enacted by the authority aforesaid,

That all such goods and merchandizes as are or shall be particularly specified for that purpose, in any order or orders made or to be made concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection, as aforesaid, which shall be imported into any of his Majesty's dominions from any foreign country or place, in any ship or vessel whatsoever, shall be subject and liable to such order or orders made or to be made, concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection as aforesaid.

And it is hereby further enacted, That, after quarantine shall have been duly performed by any ship or vessel, person or persons, obliged to perform quarantine, according to such order or orders made as aforesaid, and the act, and upon proof to be made upon the oaths of the master, or other person having charge of such ship or vessel, and of two of the persons belonging to such ship or vessel, or upon proof to be made by the oaths of two or more credible witnesses, before the customer, comptroller, or collector of the port where such quarantine shall be performed, or the next port thereunto, or before any of their deputies, or any justice of the peace living near to such port, or where such quarantine shall have been performed, within any of the said isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, before any two jurats or magistrates of any of the said isles respectively (which persons are hereby authorized and required to administer such oath) that such ship or vessel, and all and every such person and persons respectively, have duly performed quarantine as aforesaid; and that the ship or vessel, and all and every such person and persons, are free from infection; and after producing a certificate to that purpose, signed by the chief officer who superintended the quarantine of the said ship: then, and in the said respective cases, such customer, comptroller, or collector, or any of their deputies, together with the said justice of the peace, or such jurats or magistrates as aforesaid respectively, are hereby required to give a certificate thereof; and thereupon such ship or vessel, and all and every such person and persons, so having performed quarantine, shall be liable to no further restraint or detention upon the same account for which such ship or vessel, person or persons, shall have performed quarantine as aforesaid.

And it is hereby further enacted, That the officer before whom such oath shall be made, and by whom such certificate shall be given, shall, for such respective oath and certificate, demand or take no fee or reward whatsoever.

Provided nevertheless, and it is hereby enacted, That all goods, wares, and merchandizes, liable to quarantine, as aforesaid, shall be opened and aired in such place or places, and for such time, and in such manner, as shall be directed by his Majesty, by such order or orders to be made as aforesaid; and after such orders shall have been duly complied with, and a certificate thereof given by the chief officer appointed to superintend the quarantine and airing of such goods, wares, and merchandizes, and proof shall be made thereof, by the oaths of two or more credible witnesses, before the customer, comptroller, or collector of the port lying next to such place or places where such goods, wares, or merchandizes, shall have been opened and aired as aforesaid, or any of their deputies, or any justice of the peace living near the same, or before any two jurats, or magistrates of the said isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, respectively (who are hereby authorized and required to administer such oath) upon certificate and return of such proof by such customer, comptroller, or collector, or any of their deputies, or such two jurats, or magistrates, as aforesaid (who are hereby respectively required to make such certificate and return to the commissioners appointed for the management of the customs of Great Britain or Ireland, or to the governor or commander in chief, being upon the place, in the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, respectively) such goods, wares, and merchandizes, shall be forthwith discharged from any restraint or detention upon the same account, by order of the said commissioners, or any two of them, or of the said governor or commander in chief of any of the said isles as aforesaid, respectively; for every of which oath, certificate, and order, no fee or reward whatsoever shall be demanded or taken.

Provided always, and be it enacted, That if any officer, or other person, shall demand or take any fee or reward whatsoever for any such oath, order, or certificate, to be administered or made in pursuance of this act, every person so offending shall forfeit the sum of one hundred pounds, one moiety whereof to his Majesty, and the other to him or them who shall sue for the same, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, Edinburgh, Dublin, or in the proper courts of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, respectively; in which case treble costs shall be allowed to either party, as in other cases.

And be it further enacted, &c. That if any officer, or other person appointed to see quarantine duly performed, or any person placed or appointed as a watchman upon any house, lazaret, ship, or other place for performance of quarantine, in pursuance of this act, shall desert from their duty, when employed on the same business of quarantine, or shall knowingly

ingly and willingly permit or suffer any person, ship, goods, or merchandizes, to depart or be conveyed out of such house, lazaret, ship, or other place respectively appointed for performance of quarantine, unless in such cases, and by such licence, as are or shall be directed or permitted, by some order or orders made, or to be made, as aforesaid; or if any person, directed as aforesaid to give a certificate of a ship's having duly performed her quarantine, or airing, shall knowingly give a false certificate, then, and in every of the said cases, every such officer and persons so offending, shall suffer death, as in cases of felony, without benefit of clergy.

And be it further enacted, &c. That if any person or persons shall knowingly or wilfully conceal from the officers of quarantine, or shall clandestinely convey any letters, goods, wares, or merchandize, from any ship under quarantine, or liable to perform quarantine, by any such order to be made as aforesaid, or from any lazaret, or other places where goods shall be performing quarantine, every such person so offending, shall suffer death, as in cases of felony, without benefit of clergy.

And whereas it is notorious that, notwithstanding the many good laws made to prevent the clandestine importation of customable and prohibited goods and merchandizes, a pernicious trade of that kind is still carried on, for the most part in open boats or vessels, of small burthen, which privately, and in the night, put into creeks and secret places on the coast, thereby escaping the observation of the officers of the customs, which practices may prove highly detrimental to the safety of these kingdoms during a time of infection; for prevention thereof, be it enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That, when any part of Great Britain, Ireland, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or France, Spain, Portugal, or the Low-Countries, shall be infected with the plague, it shall and may be lawful to and for his Majesty, &c. by his or their proclamation, to prohibit and restrain all small boats and vessels, under the burthen of 20 tons, from sailing or passing out of any port or place of Great Britain or Ireland, or the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or any of them, until security be first given by the master of every such boat or vessel respectively, to the satisfaction of the principal officers of the customs, or the chief magistrate of the port or place from whence such boat or vessel shall sail, by bond taken to the king, his heirs or successors, with sufficient sureties, in the penalty of 300 l. with condition, that if such boat or vessel shall not go to, or touch at, any country, port, or place, to be mentioned for that purpose in such proclamation, and if the master, or other person having charge of such boat or vessel, and all and every mariner and mariners, passenger and passengers, going in such boat or vessel, shall, during the time aforesaid, not go on board any other ship or vessel at sea; and if such master, or other person, having charge of such boat or vessel, shall not permit or suffer any person or persons to come on board such boat or vessel at sea, from any other ship or vessel, and shall not, during the time aforesaid, receive any goods and merchandizes whatsoever out of any other ship or vessel, then such bond shall be void, or to such effect; for the making of which bond, no fee or reward whatsoever shall be taken; and in case any boat or vessel for which such security shall be required by such proclamation, shall set sail, or pass out of any port or place of Great Britain or Ireland, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, or any of them respectively, before such security be given as aforesaid, every such boat or vessel, so sailing, or passing out of any port or place, contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, together with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, shall be forfeited to the king, &c. and shall and may be seized, sued for, and recovered in his Majesty's court of Exchequer at Westminster, Edinburgh, or Dublin, or in the proper courts of the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, respectively, to the use of his Majesty, &c. and the master of, and every mariner sailing in any such boat or vessel, being thereof lawfully convicted, upon his or their appearance or default, upon the oath or oaths of one or more credible witness or witnesses, by one or more justice or justices of the peace, where such offender shall be found (which oath such justice or justices of the peace are hereby empowered and required to administer) shall forfeit the sum of 20 l. one moiety thereof to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the parish where such offender shall be found, the same to be levied by distress and sale of the offender's goods, by warrant under the hand and seal, or the hands and seals of such justice or justices before whom such offender shall be convicted, as aforesaid; and, for want of sufficient distress, every such offender shall, by such justice or justices, be committed to prison, there to remain, without bail or mainprize, for the space of three months; and, in case any such offender shall be found in any of the said isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, and shall be lawfully convicted of such offence, in any action or suit to be founded on this act, in the proper court of any of the said isles where he shall be so found, such offender shall forfeit the sum of 20 l. one moiety thereof to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the parish or place where such offender shall be found; and, in default of paying such

penalty, shall suffer imprisonment, without bail or mainprize, for the space of three months.

And, to the end that all persons may know how to demean themselves in the premises, be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That when and as often as his Majesty, his heirs or successors, shall make any order or orders concerning quarantine, and the prevention of infection, and notify the same by proclamation, or cause the same to be published in the London Gazette, as aforesaid, such proclamation, or order or orders in council, as aforesaid, shall be publicly read upon the next Sunday on which divine service shall be performed after the receipt of the same, and the first Sunday in every month afterwards (during the time such orders shall continue in force) immediately after the prayers, in all parish churches, and other places set apart for divine worship, within such counties and places as shall be specified for that purpose in such proclamation or orders respectively.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any action or suit shall be commenced against any person or persons, for any thing done in pursuance of this act, the defendant or defendants in such action or suit, may plead the general issue, and give this act, and the special matter in evidence, at any trial to be had thereupon, and that the same was done in pursuance, and by the authority of the said act; and if it shall appear so to have been done, then the jury shall find for the defendant or defendants; and if the plaintiff shall be nonsuited, or discontinue his action, after the defendant or defendants shall have appeared, or if judgment shall have been given, upon any verdict or demurrer, against the plaintiff, the defendant or defendants shall and may recover treble costs, and have the like remedy for the same, as the defendant or defendants hath or have in other cases by law.

Provided always, and it is hereby enacted, That no attainder of felony, by virtue of this act, shall extend to work any corruption of blood, or forfeiture of any goods, chattels, lands, tenements, or hereditaments.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That this act, and the several clauses and provisions therein contained, shall commence and take effect from and after the 1st day of March, 1754.

QUARRY, a subterranean place, from whence are dug free-stones marble, slate, lime-stone, &c. proper for building.

In the digging of quarries of free-stone, they first open a hole in the manner of a well, but considerably bigger in diameter, and the rubbish is drawn out with a windlass, in baskets.

As the hole increases, and their common ladder becomes too short, they apply a larger for the purpose.—When they have got through the rubbish, and are arrived at the first stratum*, they apply their windlass and baskets to discharge the stones, as fast as they dig through them.

* Strata, in Natural History, are the several beds, or layers, of different matters, whereof the body of the earth is composed. It has been supposed by some, that the strata lie in the earth according to the laws of gravitation; but experience hath proved the contrary, it having been observed by Dr Leigh, in his Natural History of Lancashire, speaking of the coal-pits, that the strata there are first a bed of marle, then free stone, next iron-stone, then coal, or channel mire, then some other strata, then coal again, &c.—And Mr Hauksbee was ordered by the Royal Society, to try the strata of a coal-pit, which he did to the depth of 30 strata: the thickness and specific gravity of each whereof, he gives us in the Philosophical Transactions; and from the whole makes this inference, that it evidently appears the gravities of the several strata are in no manner of order, but purely casual, as if mixed by chance.

They usually find seven of these different strata of stones, of different heights, and serving for different purposes, though the number, as well as order wherein they follow, is various.

As to the extracting of the stone from the bed wherein it lies, they find that common stones, particularly the softer kinds, as they lie, have two grains, a cleaving grain, running parallel with the horizon, and a breaking grain, perpendicular thereto.—After clearing the earth from off it, they observe by the grain where the stone will cleave, and there drive in a number of wedges, 'till they have thus cleft it from the rest of the rock.

This done, they proceed to break it: in order to which, applying the rules at both ends, 10 or 12 inches apart, according to the uses for which the stone is intended, they strike a line, and by this cut a little channel with their stone-ax, and in the channel set five or six wedges (supposing the stone three or four feet) driving them in very carefully, with gentle blows, and still keeping them equally forward.—Having thus broke the stone in length (which they are able to do to half an inch of any size) applying a square to the straight side, they strike a-line, and proceed as before, to break it in breadths.

This method of drawing is found greatly preferable to that of breaking the stones at random; but this cleaving grain being generally wanting in the harder stones, to break up these, they have great heavy stone axes, wherewith they work down a deep channel into the stone, and into this channel, at top, lay two iron bars, driving their iron wedges between those bars.

Some in drawing of stone, especially the very hard kind, make use of gun-powder with good effect, in the nature of blasting in Minerology. In order to which, making a small perforation pretty deep into the body of the rock, so as to have that thickness of rock over it judged proper to be blown up at once; at the further end of the perforation they dispose a convenient quantity of gun-powder, filling up all the rest with rubbish, strongly rammed in, except a little space for the train.—By this means the rock is blown in several pieces, most of them not too unweildly for a workman to manage.

For free-stone, that dug in the peninsula of Portland, and thence called Portland stone, is much used in buildings, being softer and whiter than Purbec stone, and is commonly raised out of the quarries in bigger blocks than that.

Some also call Ryegate, or fire-stone, free-stone. Mr Boyle observes, that a competent knowledge of the nature of the sap, or juice, found in stones used in building, is of the last importance; the same stone, dug out of the same quarry at one season, being found to moulder away in a few winters, which dug out at another season, will brave the weather for many ages: and there are others, which, though dug at the proper season, yet make but ruinous buildings, if used at an improper season.

The same author adds, that, as there are some sort of stones which will decay in a few years, there are others will not have attained their full hardness in 30 or 40 years, or even much more.

In regard to quarries of marble, there are a great variety of sorts of this kind of stone, and these are usually denominated either from their colour, their country, their grain, their degree of hardness, their weight, or their defects: some are of one simple colour, as white or black; others streaked, or variegated with stains, clouds, waves, veins, &c. but all opaque, excepting the white, which, when cut into thin slices, becomes transparent.

Ancient marbles are those whose quarries are judged to be lost, or inaccessible, and whereof we have only some samples remaining.—Modern marbles are those whose quarries are still open, and out of which blocks continue to be dug.—African marble is either of a reddish brown, streaked with veins of white, or of a carnation, with veins of green.—English white marble is veined with red.—Derbyshire marble is diversified with colours of brown, red, yellow, &c.—Marble of Auvergne in France is of a pale red, mingled with violet, green, and yellow.—Marble of Brabant, in Hainault, is black, veined with white.—Marble of Bresse, in Italy, is yellow, with spots of white.—Brocatella marble is mingled with little shades of Isabella yellow, pale, and grey; it comes from Tortosa, in Spain, where it is dug out of an ancient quarry: there is also another kind of ancient brocatella, dug near Adrianople.—Marble of Carrara, on the coasts of Genoa, is very white, and the fittest of all others for works of sculpture.—Marble of Champagne resembles the brocatella, being mixed with blue, in round stains like partridges eyes.—Cipollino, or Cipollin marble, is of a sea-green colour, mixed with large waves, or clouds of white or pale green.—Scamozzi takes this to be the same with that which the Ancients called Augustum & Tiberium marmor, because discovered in Egypt in the times of Augustus and Tiberius.—Marble of Dinan, near Liege, is of a pure black, very beautiful, and very common.—Marble of Guachenet, near Dinan, is of a reddish brown, with white spots and veins.—Marble of Languedoc, is of a vivid red, with large white veins, or stains, and is very common; there is some, whose white borders pretty much upon the blue, but this is of less value.—Lumachello marble is so called, because mingled with spots brown, black, and white, wreathed somewhat like periwinkle-shells: this is ancient, and its quarry is lost.—Marble of Margossa, in the Milaneze, has a white ground, with brownish veins, resembling the colour of iron rust: this is very common, and extremely hard.—Marble of Lavé, in Maine, has a black ground, with little narrow veins of white; there is another kind of it red, with veins of a dirty white.—Marble of Namur is black, like that of Dinan, but less beautiful, as inclining a little to the blue, and traversed with little streaks of grey: this is very common, and is frequently used in paving.—Parian marble is antique, and much celebrated in authors; it is of a beautiful white: the greatest part of the Grecian statues were made of it: Varro calls it lychnites, because the workmen dug it out of the quarry by lamp-light.—Marble of Porta Santa, at Rome called Sama, is mingled with large clouds and veins of red, yellow, and grey.—Portor marble has a black ground, with clouds and veins of yellow: it is dug out of the foot of the Alps, towards Carrara.—Marble of Rance, in Hainault, is of a dirty red, mixed with blue and white clouds and veins: this is pretty common, but is different in degree of beauty.—Marble of Savoy is a deep red, mixed with other colours, each piece whereof seems cemented on to the rest.—Marble of Sicily is a brownish red, stained with oblong squares of white and Isabella, like striped taffety: the ancient has very vivid colours, and the modern comes pretty near it.—Marble of Signam, in the Pyrenees, is ordinarily of a greenish brown, with red stains, though this is somewhat various in its colours.—Marble of Theu,

near Namur in Liege, is a pure black, soft, and easy to work, and receives a more beautiful polish than those of Namur and Dinan.—Marble Bigio Nero, or black-grey, is antique.—White veined marble has large veins, with grey and blue stains, on a white ground: it comes from Carrara.—White marble; that dug out of the Pyrenees, on the side of Bayonne, is inferior to that of Carrara, its grain being coarser, and shining like a kind of salt; it is something like the ancient white Greek marble, whereof their statues were made, but is not so hard or beautiful.—Ancient black and white marble is now very rare, its quarries being intirely lost; it is divided between a pure white and a bright black, in laminæ.—Blue Turquin marble is mixed with a dirty kind of white, and comes from the coast of Genoa.—Marble Fior di Persica, comes from Italy, consists of red and white stains, somewhat yellowish.—Yellow marble is a kind of yellow Isabella, without veins; it is antique, and now very rare.—Black antique marble is of a pure black, without stains, and softer than the modern black: there was some of it brought from Greece, called marmor luculleum, but not so much prized as that from Ethiopia.—There are divers other sorts, needless to enumerate.—Porphyry also is a precious kind of marble, of a brownish red colour, often interspersed with stains, brought formerly from Egypt, and exceeding all other kinds of stone in hardness; yet Dr Huntingdon assures us, that there is no quarry or rock of such stone in all the lower parts of Egypt, so far as the Nile overflows being perfect soil.

R E M A R K S.

There are three different ways of petrification that we are acquainted with, which being easily observable and conceivable by us, may assist us in making a pretty exact discovery how all others are performed.

Of the first kind is the stalactites, or the cylindrical congelation which is formed in the shape of an icicle, in the perpendicular fissures of vaults and caverns, out of the sparry, sandy, and other matter that is drained out of the strata, by the water passing through them into those fissures*, and these do gradually increase, in proportion as they are covered with fresh coats of the same matter.

* See Woodward on Fossils, page 18.

Of the second sort of petrification are those crusts of stone which the water of certain springs leaves sticking to the pipes it passes through, as is observable in those which convey the water from Bongis and Arcueil to Paris. Now it is very plain that this petrified matter, of what nature soever it be, is impelled by the water towards the sides of the pipe: the reason of its incrustating in irregular lumps, or clods, one upon another, is the irregular action of the water upon this stony matter, which it casts sideways from the center of its course, to force itself a free passage.

Of the third kind of petrification that we are thoroughly acquainted with, are those pieces of wood, shells, and other substances, which are found petrified under-ground, or in certain fountains, still retaining their natural figure and lineaments. Now the manner in which these three different petrifications are performed, we will suppose to be thus: the first by thin leaves or teguments, the second by little lumps, the third by insertion.

We have no acquaintance with any other elements than those of water, salt, oily juices, sand, loam, and clay. The water itself is no ingredient in the composition of stones, but is only that which brings together and mixes the materials of which they are composed. The natural formation of stones is performed nearly in the same manner with the artificial structure of houses, in which the water serves to unite and fix the materials, after which they harden, and consolidate as the water dissipates. Our walls are composed of hard masses of matter and cement; the cement of itself would never form a durable firm wall, and the masses, whether of brick or stone, laid one upon another, without any mortar between them, would easily be shaken down, whereas the interposition of the cement produces these two effects; first, by filling up the interstices between the masses, it keeps them fixed in their places; and secondly, by insinuating itself into the pores of those masses, it incorporates with them, so as to constitute, when thoroughly dry, one intire compacted body. So likewise our three different ways of petrification are performed by little masses, and a very fine cement: the masses to be joined together are the sand, the clay, and the loam; the strongest cement are the salts, and the different sorts of bitumen: sometimes the salt and clay serve as a cement to the sand, sometimes either the clay or loam does of itself constitute the mass, and, from the different quantities and proportions of these matters, differently mixed together, results an almost infinite variety of productions; but then it is the water that performs all the several offices of collecting, conveying, and associating all the different particles of matter, which afterwards condense into aggregates of a hard durable nature.

Q U A

Under the first kind of petrification may be ranged the talcs, flates, the amianthus, and plalter.

Cryſtal is nothing elſe but an aggregate of ſand, either of a pyramidal or triangular figure, which the water incruſtates ſucceſſively upon one another, by a cement of ſalt and very fine loamy earth: and this appears the more probable, for that, when cryſtal is reſolved by fire into it's conſtituent parts, we can diſcover nothing but a calcined ſand together with a little earth and ſalt. Nor is it at all to be wondered at, that ſuch a beautiful tranſparent maſs ſhould be formed out of ſand, ſeeing the particles of the ſand itſelf, when viewed through a microſcope, appear like ſo many pellucid cryſtals: the reaſon of their not being bright and clear in their natural ſtate, like the diamond, is becauſe of the earth that is mixed with them. See the article *STONE*.

QUARTATION, a peculiar method of ſeparating gold from ſilver.

Make a mixed maſs of gold and ſilver, and melt it along with three or four times it's own weight of pure ſilver; beat the whole lump, when cold, into a thin plate; put it into a glaſs of proof aqua fortis, and ſet the ſame in warm ſand, whereby the ſilver will ſoon diſſolve, and the gold fall in a black powder to the bottom.

Pour off carefully the ſolution of ſilver, and uſe a ſomewhat ſtronger heat than before, in order to diſſolve any remains of ſilver in the gold powder. Then the aqua fortis [ſee the article *AQUA FORTIS*] being again decanted, waſh the gold well, in ſeveral parcels of fair water. And put the gold-powder into a little ſay-cup [ſee the article *ASSAY*] and place it under the muffle in the teſting-furnace, 'till it becomes yellow. You may otherwiſe melt it with borax, which will bring it to it's true colour and form. Weigh the gold, to determine the proportion it bears to the ſilver. Laſtly, Precipitate the ſilver out of the aqua fortis, by ſuſpending a copper-plate therein; then waſh the calx, and reduce it to it's metalline form, in the ſame manner.

O B S E R V A T I O N .

The reaſon for adding three or four times the quantity of ſilver, in proportion to the mixed maſs is, for fear the maſs ſhould contain too much gold to be fit for the operation; or to ſpread the gold contained in the maſs, and diſſuſe it ſo thinly, that it may not defend the ſilver, as it otherwiſe would do, from the action of the aqua fortis. And upon account of this addition it ſeems to be, that the operation is called *QUARTATION*.

This method of ſeparating gold and ſilver was unknown to the Ancients, who therefore ſeparated ſilver from gold by calcination, and ſo loſt all the ſilver that was mixed with the

Q U I

gold. And, indeed, the method by quartation is expensive and laborious, ſo as not to be very advantageouſly practiſed in the large way of buſineſs; though the whole has been divided into ſuch a number of hands, as to make the ſeveral parts come cheap: ſome operators being wholly employed in making the aqua fortis; others in purifying it, or bringing it to proof; others in laminating the ſilver, and diſſolving it; others in ſeparating and reducing the calx of the gold; others in precipitating the ſilver with copper; and others again in ſeparating the copper from the aqua fortis. And hence the whole operation has been found to anſwer the trouble, ſo long as they can recover about a drachm of gold from a pound of ſilver.

But there are certain ingenious workmen, who have the method of ſeparating gold from ſilver to much greater profit, without the uſe of aqua fortis, or aqua regia, and barely by a dextrous application or management of the *FIRE*, at leaſt without any coſtly additions. This method is kept as a ſecret, but may, perhaps, be no other, than that publiſhed by M. Homberg; which conſiſts in fluxing the mixed maſs of gold and ſilver with equal parts of rough nitre and decrepitated ſalt, placed at the bottom of the melting-pot; whereby the operation in the large way, may be finiſhed in a quarter of an hour; the gold thus falling to the bottom, and leaving the ſilver ſuſpended in the ſalts.

Another way of effecting this ſeparation may depend upon a dextrous uſe of common ſulphur, which has the power of making ſilver melt away from a metalline mixture almoſt as eaſy as lead.

But, to obtain either gold or ſilver in abſolute purity, is no eaſy taſk. For the common uſes, indeed, the methods above delivered may ſerve; but for the more curious chemical and philoſophical purpoſes, better ways than are commonly known and practiſed ſhould be diſcovered.

To refine gold by melting and teſting it with antimony, or glaſs of antimony, is generally, and even by the metallurgical chemiſts, thought a perfect way; but M. Homberg has ſhewn, that even this criterion, as alſo quartation, cupelling with lead, fluxing with borax, &c. may fail, in caſe the gold be mixed with emery, or poſſibly ſome other things.

When gold is eager, as the workmen call it, that is, brittle, they hold it as a ſecret to melt it with mercury ſublimated. But, perhaps, no gold can be proved to be perfectly pure, 'till it has gone through all the trials hitherto known; or even ſome of a more curious nature, particularly melting with crude antimony, and afterwards cupelling the regulus with lead; and, at laſt, fuſing it with borax. Which proceſs we recommend to thoſe who require gold in abſolute purity for any ſtandard, or curious operation.

QUICKSILVER, ſee *MERCURY*.

Of the B U S I N E S S of the C U S T O M S , continued.

With regard to the *QUAKERS*.

QUAKERS. Their affirmation and declaration, allowed by the 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 34. and 13 and 14 Will. III. cap. 4. to be accepted inſtead of an oath, in all caſes where by law an oath is required, 1 Geo. I. cap. 6. §. 1, and 2. The affirmation or declaration to be in theſe words,

I, A. B. do ſolemnly, ſincerely, and truly declare and affirm, That, &c. 8 Geo. I. cap. 6. §. 2. Such ſolemn affirmation or declaration is to be adjudged to be of the ſame force and effect in all caſes, as if an oath had been taken in the uſual form. Convicted of a wilful, falſe, and corrupt affirmation or declaration, are to ſuffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 34. §. 3.

QUARANTINE. See that article at large.

R.

R A I

RADNORSHIRE, in Wales, is bounded on the east with Shropshire and Herefordshire, with Brecknockshire and Cardiganshire on the south and west, and with Montgomeryshire on the north. It is, according to some, about 29 miles in length and 18 in breadth, and has an area of 385 square miles. Others make it 90 miles in circumference, containing 310,000 acres, four market-towns, six hundreds, fifty-two parishes, and about 3200 houses, with 19,000 inhabitants, thirteen rivers, five castles, and three forests; all in the dioceses of Hereford and St David's.

The air is sharp and piercing. The east and south parts are well cultivated, and pretty fruitful in corn; but the soil elsewhere, especially in the north and west parts, is so rocky and mountainous, that it is only fit to feed cattle and sheep, though it is well stored with woods, and watered with rivulets, and in some places standing lakes.

The chief commodities are cheese and horses. The river Wye, which divides it from Brecknockshire, crosses the west angle of the county, and in its rapid course through the rocks, forms several cataracts, and receives the Ithon, Weverly, and other streams. It is parted from Shropshire by the river Ternd, but the river which it has peculiar to itself, is the Ithon, into which run the Dulas, the Clowdock, and the Cameran. It rises among the hills in the north side of the shire, and forming its course southward, falls into the river Wye, a little below Dyffart, on the Llanbadem: it winds about so short, that it runs near six miles in a mile and a half distance from that town. In these rivers are plenty of salmon and other fish. It sends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the chief town, viz.

NEW RADNOR, a very ancient borough by prescription; from whence the county takes its name.

PRESTEIN, or **PRESTAIGN**; or **ST ANDREW'S**, stands on the river Lug, in a rich and pleasant valley, near its entrance into Herefordshire, and is the place where the assizes and the county gaol are kept, on which account it is pretty populous, and well frequented. Here is a very good market for grain, especially barley, of which they make good store of malt.

KNIGHTON, the only town of note in the hundred of its own name. It stands in a valley on the river Teme, over which it has a bridge. It is a well built borough, of good trade and resort, and its market is well served with cattle, corn, iron ware, hops, salt, linnen and woollen cloth, and other commodities.

RAISINS making a considerable article in traffic, we must not omit it.

They are the fruit of the vine, suffered to remain on the tree 'till perfectly ripened, and then dried, either in the sun, or by the additional heat of an oven. Grapes of every kind preserved in this manner are called raisins, and are distinguished into several kinds, according to the species of grape. What we have at present differ, as they are better or worse dried, and are all called raisins under different appellations, except the small kind, which are called currants.

The difference between raisins dried in the sun, and those dried in ovens, is considerable and obvious. The former are sweet and pleasant, the others have a whiteness and a latent acidity with the sweetness, that renders them much less agreeable. The raisins of the sun, or what we call jar raisins, from their being imported in earthen jars, are of the former kind; all dried by the sun's heat only.

The finest and best raisins, are those called in some places **Damascus** and **Jube** raisins; these are the fruit of the *vitis Damascena*, and are distinguishable from the others by their largeness and figure; they are flat and wrinkled on the surface, soft and juicy within, near an inch long, and semipellucid when held against a good light: they have a sweet, agreeable, and vinous taste, and when fresh and growing on the bunch, are of the size and shape of the large olive.

The common raisins are the fruit of several species of grape, which are better or worse, according as they have been more or less carefully cured.

VOL. II.

R A I

The common way of drying grapes for raisins at present, is to tie two or three bunches of them firmly together, while yet on the vine, and dip them into a hot lixivium of wood-ashes with a little oil olive in it. This disposes them to shrink and wrinkle, and after this they are left on the vine three or four days, separated on sticks in an horizontal situation, and then dried in the sun at leisure, after cut from the tree.

The currants are the fruit of a vine differing from the common kinds, in the smallness of its grapes, and in the largeness of its leaves, which also have fewer and slighter divisions than those of any other kind. They are gathered in when ripe, and spread thin upon a floor 'till tolerably dried; they are then put up in parcels where their own weight and remaining humidity form them into cakes, that are hardly to be broken without some instrument. They are not produced now in the place where they originally were, but in the islands of Zant and Cephalonia, where the vines that produce them are cultivated in great abundance, and to considerable advantage. They are packed up in casks and trod firmly down, and if the air be kept out, will remain good a long time in them.

All the kinds of raisins have much the same virtues, they are nutritive and balsamic, but they are very subject to fermentation with juices of any kind; and hence, when eaten immoderately, they often bring on cholics. They are allowed to be attenuant, and are given in cases where the humours are too thick and viscid, and they are said to be very good in nephritic complaints; they are, however, too familiar in our foods, to be much regarded at present as a medicine. They are an ingredient, indeed, in our pectoral decoctions, and in some other medicines of that intention; in which cases, as also in all others where astringency is not required of them, they should have the stones carefully taken out. They are used in some compositions, rather with an intent of taking off the nauseous taste of other ingredients, than of doing any extraordinary service themselves.

Of wine made with raisins.

EXPERIMENT I.

Take a quarter of a hundred of whole or unbruised Malaga raisins, and put to them seven gallons of cold spring-water, in a wooden vessel or cask, which set loosely covered in a warm place, that the contents may ferment for some weeks. The water you will find soaked through the skins of the raisins, and their internal sweet or saccharine substance dissolved, and will become impregnated therewith as a menstruum; the liquor will manifest an inward struggle and commotion of its particles, throwing up numerous small bubbles to the surface, with a considerable hissing noise: and after the fermentation is finished, the liquor will become an actual new wine; as will appear by the taste, smell, and effects, and deposit a large quantity of gross, earthy sediment, called lees, at the bottom, different from the husks, or skins, and stones of the raisins.

The application of this experiment.

This experiment is universal, and shews the general manner of making wines, and indeed all other spirituous potable liquors, by fermentation. For, with a slight change of circumstances, it is applicable to the brewing of beer from mead or metheglin, and hydromel from honey [see the article **BEERS**]; cyder and perry, from apples and pears respectively; artificial or made wines, as they are vulgarly called, from cherries, gooseberries, currants, elder-berries, black-berries, plums, oranges, or other fruit: also from the tappings of certain trees, as the birch, the maple, the fycamore, &c. and more eminently from the juice of the sugar-cane, treacle, or direct sugar and water: [see the articles **SUGAR** and **WINE**.] For any of these vegetable juices, being duly fermented and judiciously prepared, afford as real and perfect wine, according to their several natures, as the richest grapes of the best wine countries.

OBSERVATION.

To bring any of these juices into a sound wine, the rule is, to evaporate them, if they are naturally too thin, 'till they become of equal richness with the juice of the grape in wine countries, and good wine years. This may be commodiously done, by means of the common water-poise*, which shews the strength or richness of solutions to the eye. And in general, any vegetable juice or solution, is accounted sufficiently rich for making a strong wine, when it will support a new-laid egg on its surface.

* A water-poise is an instrument made of ivory, glass, &c. hollow-bellied, so as to float, higher or lower, in liquids, according as the specific gravity thereof is more or less: which instrument being graduated or divided by lines on the stem, readily shews to the eye, the difference betwixt the specific gravities of any liquids proposed, though not with the utmost accuracy.

The wines made in England, lie under a disrepute; the reason whereof seems chiefly owing, (1.) To the inartificial manner wherein they are usually prepared; and (2.) To a certain rumour spread about them, as if they were unwholesome, crude, indigestible, too luscious, too tart or griping, and apt to occasion the head-ach, &c.

Those who have never been in wine-countries, nor otherwise made themselves acquainted with the nature and common preparation of wines, proceed in their judgment of them according to report and popular notion. Thus, for instance, red-port wines, to please the common palate, must be bright, deep coloured, rough, rich, and racy, two or three years old, &c. and when this, or any other notion comes once to be established as the criterion of wine, the cooper is thence directed how to hit the general taste, and make a saleable commodity.

Upon the same foundation philosophical chemistry [see the article PHILOSOPHICAL CHEMISTRY], instructs us to imitate the wine-cooper, and from almost any sweet and tart vegetable juice, to make saleable wines; even canaries, mountains, cherries, or ports: all which, by the way, are usually mixed liquors, though the basis of them all is the juice of the grape.

This juice of the grape being chemically examined, proves to be no more than a large proportion of real sugar dissolved in water, with an addition only of a certain flavour in the juice of the grape, according to the nature of the vine. Whence we may lay it down as an axiom, and the result of a careful enquiry, that a saccharine substance is the basis of wines. For sugar is not peculiar to the sugar-cane, but obtainable, as we have observed, also from grapes; and accordingly, we often find large grains thereof in dried raisins; particularly those of Malaga, that have laid for some time, and sweat together, whereby they run into candy, a saccharine efflorescence, and actual grains of sugar. So again, it is customary in France to evaporate the juice of the grape, 'till it becomes coagulable in the cold, and in this state to use it as a moist sugar, under the name of *refiné*. The same thing is to be understood as practicable in malt or wort, and the sweet juices of all vegetables that afford a wine by fermentation. See the articles BREWING, DISTILLATION, ELÆOSACCHARUM, SUGAR, WINE.

Hence we may derive a set of rules, for boiling down, or otherwise procuring the essential matter of wines in a small bulk, and preserving it sound and serviceable for many years, in order to the making of all kinds of wines, vinegars, and brandies, even in countries where no vines grow. This discovery likewise affords great light into the true nature and uses of vinous and acetous fermentation.

And so much for the use of the preceding experiment, with regard to trade and œconomy; its philosophical uses are no less considerable [see our article PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL]. And first, it shews that the proper fermenting matter of every fermentable subject is but small, compared with the quantity of wine it affords. Thus, for example, four pounds of raisins may be diluted and fermented with eight pounds of water, into what is accounted a tolerably strong wine. Yet even raisins themselves contain a large proportion of water, besides their direct saccharine substance, which is reducible to a dry form, as we find in sugar.

And whoever would thoroughly enquire into the nature, the uses, and means of improving vinous and acetous fermentation, cannot, perhaps, do better, than to chuse sugar for his subject; a chemical analysis whereof, will shew the principles necessarily required in this operation; which appear to be an acid salt, an oil, and earth so united together, as to be capable of dissolving perfectly in water.

This experiment also shews the cause of vegetable matters running into a fermenting state, as raisins do by the addition of water. Nor do all fermentible bodies require ferments, to begin their motion of fermentation. Raisins we see require none, much less does the fresh expressed juice of the grape, or other vegetable juices, in the summer-season, or in a warm air. But all sweet vegetable juices, that have felt much of the fire, as treacle or wort high boiled, rob of malt,

rob of alder, or the like, usually require a considerable proportion of a vinous ferment, to make them work. And, in general, ferments are no more than matters already in the act of fermentation, or that soon run into this state: of the first kind are the flowers of wine, yeast, fermenting beer, or fermenting wine, &c.—Of the second kind are the new expressed vegetable juices of summer-fruits, &c.

Water, we find, is absolutely necessary to begin and procure a fermentative motion in vegetable substances: for raisins or sugar being kept dry, will never ferment. And this holds universally, of all the subjects of vinous and acetous fermentation. Whence water is an instrument that must be necessarily employed in these kinds of fermentation, whether natural or artificial.

As the water, which naturally and in large quantities perspires from the surface of vegetables, especially in hot climates, does not go off pure, but carries along with it a considerable proportion of fermentable matter into the atmosphere; there may be an actually vinous fermentation, begun and carried on in certain parts of that region, especially where the winds are still, or the air stagnant. At Schiedam in Holland, a larger quantity of inflammable spirit is said to be obtained from malt, than in any other place where there are fewer malt-distillers. This is probably owing to the air of that place being impregnated with the fermenting vapours, that continually exhale from their numerous fermenting bakes and stills. The same is found to hold proportionably of wines fermented in large vaults or cellars, where many casks of wine are at once, or somewhat successively set to work. Wherefore it should seem, that artificial wines set to work in large quantities, is the best way to produce them of a good quality, and with greater expedition.

Warmth, with the free admission of the external air, is necessary to expedite the action of fermentation; for if our raisins and water were to stand either in a very cold place, or be kept entirely from the access of the common atmospheric air, either no fermentation, or a very small and slow one would ensue, as has been experienced.

The lees remaining at the bottom of the cask in our present experiment, are, if used fresh, a true kind of ferment, and will set any less fermentable subject at work, and determine its fermentation for the vinous kind. They contain a large proportion of essential oil, and some tartar. Hence we see, that vinous fermentation consists, (1.) In an intestine struggle, or commotion of the fluid; and (2.) In a separation of a grosser part, which did not appear in that form before.

EXPERIMENT II.

Take the skins of the raisins, and the sediment left behind, after a wine is made in the manner of the preceding experiment, and pour three or four times their own quantity of boiling water upon them, so as to make a thin aqueous mixture. Then set the containing cask, loosely covered, in a warmer place than was used for the wine, and you will, in few weeks time, find the liquor become a clear and sound vinegar; which being drawn from off its sediments, and preserved in another cask, well stopped down, will long continue perfect, and fit for use.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) This experiment shews us a cheap and ready way of making vinegar from refuse materials; such as the husks of grapes, decayed raisins, the lees of wine, grounds of ale, beer, &c. which are frequently thrown away as useless. Thus in many wine countries, the marc, raps, or dry pressings of the grapes are thrown in heaps, and suffered to putrefy unregarded, though capable of affording as good vinegar as the wine itself. In some places, they bury copper-plates in these husks, in order to make verdigrease, but this practice seems chiefly confined to the southern parts of France. Our present experiment shews us how to convert them to another use, and the direction extends to all the matters that have once undergone, or are fit to undergo, a vinous fermentation, for that all such matters will afford vinegar. From the same principle, all our summer fruits in England, even blackberries, all the refuse washings of a sugar-house, cyder-pressings, or the like, will make vinegar by means of water, the open air, and warmth. See the article VINEGAR.

(2.) The whole process, whereby this change is effected, deserves to be attentively considered. And first, the liquor to be thus changed, being kept warmer than in vinous fermentation, it in a few days begins to grow turbid, and without throwing up bubbles, or making any considerable tumult, as happens in vinous fermentation, deposits a copious sediment. The effect of this separation begins to appear first on the surface of the liquor, which gathers a white skin, that daily increases in thickness, 'till at length it becomes like leather; and now, if continued longer in this state, the skin turns blue or green, and would at last grow solid and putrefy: therefore, in keeping down this skin as it grows, and thrusting it gently down to the bottom of the vessel, consists much of the art of vinegar-making, especially from malt.

(3.) It is to be particularly observed, that if the wine of our first experiment were not bunged down when arrived at its vinous state, but suffered still to remain open and exposed to a warm air, it would spontaneously become vinegar; and the sooner, if a somewhat greater degree of heat than served for the making of wine, were employed. Whence we might have used the wine of our first experiment for this purpose, as well as have added water to the husks and sediment, or lees; but we chose the latter way, to shew that even such refuse matters will afford vinegar; and again, to intimate how far the art of vinegar-making may be still improved, both in England, where they brew a wort from malt for it, and in some wine countries, where they frequently make their best wines into vinegars.

(4.) What we would chiefly remark for the present is, that acetous fermentation requires a stronger heat than the vinous; and that wines having once finished their fermentation, as wines, do not naturally stop there, but unless prevented by the care of the operator, proceed directly to vinegars; where again they make no stop, but unless prevented here also, spontaneously go on to vapidness, ropiness, mouldiness, and putrefaction. From which larger observation we would deduce this axiom, that, to speak philosophically, The intention or tendency of nature, is to proceed from the very beginning of vinous fermentation, directly, in one continued series, to putrefaction; and thence again to a new generation: which appears to be the GRAND CIRCLE, WHEREIN ALL NATURAL THINGS ARE MOVED, AND ALL THE PHYSICAL, OR RATHER CHEMICAL, PHÆNOMENA OF THE GLOBE PRODUCED.

(5.) Hence we see, by the interposition of the sagacity of man, how this general process of the uniform law of nature may be stopped at different times, with different views, so as to procure to ourselves wines, vinegars, and, as will appear hereafter in the Experiments VI. and VII. particularly salts and oils.

(6.) Another corollary, deducible from the larger observation above laid down, is, that the word Fermentation has been usually applied to signify only a small part of this grand operation of nature: thus one limits the word to the production of wines; another, to the production of wines and vinegars; and some would distinguish it from putrefaction: whereas either the term FERMENTATION, or some other, should be made general, and denote the GENUS, or UNIVERSAL FERMENTATION, whereof vinification, acetification, and putrefaction, are only SPECIES. At least, we should thus attempt to follow and express nature in the FACTS that are observed, and not proceed, in an arbitrary, narrow, or inadequate manner, to impose words, and dress out nature according to particular hypotheses and conceits. But the observation itself, whereon this doctrine is founded, being of moment to the right understanding of the whole affair of fermentation and putrefaction, upon which the advancement of many parts of PRACTICAL COMMERCIAL PHILOSOPHY doth depend; we shall proceed to illustrate and confirm the last part of it by an experiment, as the two former parts have been already by Experiments I. and II.

EXPERIMENT III.

That wines and vinegars, or all fermented vegetable juices, have a natural tendency to putrefaction.

(1.) Take a gallon of thick muddy vinegar, produced after the manner of the second experiment; letting it stand open, in a hotter place than was required to make it vinegar, it will become, in a few days, a vapid, nauseous, and putrefied liquor, throwing up a large quantity of a dry powdery substance to the top, and depositing a less quantity of a grosser matter at the bottom; soon after which, the body of the liquor will become clear again.

(2.) We might shorten the present experiment, or save the trouble of making either a wine or a vinegar to shew it: for, if a quantity of MUST* were set in an open vessel, in a hot service-room, where the air had free access, the work would soon be performed, and the putrefied liquor be produced almost at once, without stopping at the state either of wine or vinegar, according to the larger observation delivered above.

* MUST is the unfermented juice of the grape, or any other liquid fermentable substance, before it enters the act of fermentation; and STUM is MUST clarified by standing and racking, and then put up into matched casks; that is, casks impregnated with the fume of burning brimstone, so as to be preserved sound in an intermediate state.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) This latter experiment has a considerable philosophical use; and, (1.) It gives us the physical reason why wines and vinegars, unless made exceeding strong, will not keep, but corrupt and putrefy in hot countries: for the heat being there so great, as to keep the lighter feculent parts of those liquors suspended for some time in the body of the liquor, corruption (which proceeds from a tumultuary motion of all the different parts of a compound body together) necessarily ensues*.

* See §. (1.) of the last experiment, and hereafter Experiments VI. and VII.

(2.) Hence we learn also the physical reason why wines and vinegars require to be racked from their lees, in order to preserve them sound, or keep them from running into putrefaction, to which we find they are strongly inclined, the tendency of nature being ever constant in urging them to that state; and the case appears to be much the same in animal, and even in mineral substances, as we shall see hereafter.

(3.) This experiment, therefore, furnishes us with a rule for preserving vegetable liquors from the last stage of fermentation, that is, putrefaction, or corruption; viz. by first clarifying, and afterwards securing and defending them from the open air, and too much heat. Thus, for example, we can preserve the natural juices of quinces, oranges, lemons, plants, &c. sound and uncorrupt, by first clearing them of their grosser parts by the filter, or, in some cases, by boiling and common straining, then putting them up in common glasses, pouring oil on the top, and setting them in a cool place. In the same manner we find some of the more delicate and curious wines are long preserved sound and sprightly: for, the grosser feculencies being first removed, the oil poured on the top prevents the external air from entering, and, by keeping the glasses from the sun, or day, too much heat does not come at them.

(4.) It is also remarkable, what a large quantity of solid earthy matter is naturally contained in all fermentable liquors. Thus, though a pellucid solution of the finest sugar in water were exposed to vinous fermentation, it soon grows turbid, throws an earthy skin to the top, and deposits much terrestrial matter at the bottom, in the form of lees. If the wine be now drawn off clear, and exposed to acetous fermentation, here again it throws off much terrestrial matter, both in the form of a skin at top, and lees at the bottom. Thirdly, If transparent vinegar be exposed to putrefactive fermentation, here again it separates a considerable quantity of earth, both at the bottom and top; which shews that the separation of a gross matter is essential to these several kinds of fermentation, and that a copious earth may lie concealed in fermentable juices and transparent fluids, till it finds an occasion of manifesting itself to the senses.

(5.) The change wrought upon vegetable subjects by vinous and acetous fermentation, will appear by comparing MUST, or a bare solution of raisins in water, with the wine and vinegar which the same MUST, or raisins in water, afford, in vinification and acetification; and in this light they may be compared by the direct use of the senses: but the internal and essential differences will better appear by a chemical analysis, or distillation.

(6.) MUST, or a solution of raisins and water only, which makes a kind of must, corresponding to the natural juice of the grape, is a sweet, clammy, and somewhat odorous fluid, which, when committed to distillation, affords not the least inflammable spirit; but, after having passed through the state of vinous fermentation, it acquires several properties it had not before. For example: it is more transparent and thin, loses of its sweetness, has some degree of acidity and roughness, proves more odorous, and affords a large proportion of INFLAMMABLE SPIRIT; as appears by the following

EXPERIMENT IV.

That vinous fermentation produces an inflammable spirit.

Take three gallons of new wine, procured from raisins and water, in the manner of the first experiment, and commit it to the alembic or still; which being made to work gently, till the liquor that comes over being thrown upon the hot still-head will no longer take fire, by applying the flame of a candle to the rising vapour; you will thus obtain a considerable proportion of brandy, and a weaker spirit. See the article BRANDY.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) This experiment shews the common method of making brandies in wine countries, or a spirit, from malt, melasses, cyder, &c. in others; for the finest French and Rhenish brandies, the rums and the arracs of the Indies, are obtained in the manner of this plain experiment, all of them being usually distilled a second time over, and made up, as they call it, with water, or the weak aqueous liquor of the second running, as in the present experiment, to a certain strength, or supposed standard, termed saleable-proof.

(2.) The philosophical use of the experiment is to shew, that an inflammable spirit is produced, by the action of vinous fermentation, from a vegetable subject and water, wherein no signs of any such spirit before appeared: insomuch, that this may be justly esteemed the criterion, or inseparable effect of vinous fermentation.

(3.) This spirit being redistilled, to deprive it totally of its aqueous parts, is the spirit of wine, or alcohol; and this method is the only one that is known of procuring it: for no subjects but those of the vegetable kingdom are found to afford it, and that only by means of a previous vinous fermentation.

(4.) It should likewise be observed, that this alcohol is one of the most essential parts of wine, so that, when absent, the wine loses its nature, as we see by the remains of the present experiment:

experiment: and, when properly used, it is a certain remedy for most diseases incident to wines, as keeping them sound, and free from corruption: whence we have another rule for preserving vegetable and animal substances from putrefaction; for this liquor proves a kind of balsam to them all, and is accordingly used, with success, for preserving even animal substances, as we see in anatomical preparations, &c.

EXPERIMENT V.

That acetous fermentation abolishes the inflammable spirit produced by vinous fermentation.

Put a quart of sharp vinegar into a glass retort; distil in a sand-heat, with degrees of fire [see DISTILLATION] into a glass receiver, and you will not find the least inflammable spirit come over; there will arise only an acid aqueous liquor, commonly called distilled vinegar, which, instead of burning, quenches fire.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) Hence it appears, that acetous fermentation has a very different effect from the vinous, and that the inflammable spirit produced in the former is either concealed, altered, exhaled, destroyed, or some way abolished, in the latter. A part of this spirit is unquestionably exhaled by the heat employed in acetification, yet part also remains behind, under a different modification, so as to be recovered by art, in an inflammable form, as we find by distilling the fugar of lead, which is only lead dissolved in spirit of vinegar. See the article LEAD, Vol. II. page 23.

(2.) This experiment affords a criterion of acetous fermentation, as before we had of the vinous: for if an acid uninflam- mable liquor comes first by distillation over from a vegetable subject, after fermentation, this will determine that fermentation to have been of the acetous kind.

(3.) Thus, therefore, we are plainly led to allow of two very different kinds of fermentation, in the same vegetable subject; and we conceive that some other species may be found, upon due enquiry.

EXPERIMENT VI.

Take a large quantity of fresh and green cabbage leaves, press them hard down with weights in an open tub, bored full of holes on the sides, and set in a warm place. By standing in this state for some days, the leaves will conceive a heat in the middle, which will spread to the more external parts, 'till, at length, nearly the whole will be converted into a pappy putrefied substance, whose consistence will not well suffer it to separate into a thicker and a thinner part.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) This experiment is general, and succeeds alike in all tender, juicy, vegetable substances, so that both the acid and alkaline tribe of plants, the sweet and the bitter, the astringent and emollient, &c. resolve into this same pappy putrefied substance: we observe it also in hay that is stacked wet, in horse-litter thrown in heaps, in the grape-husks, or apple-pumice, after pressing for wine or cyder; and the larger the heap, and the greater the weight the matter it sustains, the greater the heat, provided the access of the air be not prevented.

(2.) Hence we see the way employed by nature for changing all vegetable into animal substances, or of reducing the matters of both kingdoms to a similarity, so that the one may be used for several purposes, instead of the other. Thus nature annually makes large quantities of compost from the refuse weeds, leaves, trash of fields, woods, and gardens; [see the article MANURE] for this vegetable matter thus putrefying, and becoming soft and pulpy, is easily diluted by the falling rains, and thence dispersed over the face of a field, and carried into the pores of the earth. Thus the chemist, from such putrefied vegetable subjects, may, by distillation, procure volatile salts and volatile spirits, hardly to be distinguished from those of hart's-horn, &c. at least, the volatile salt and spirit so obtained, might serve for the making of sal-armo- niac, along with sea-salt: for it appears, that the matter of the fixed salt in vegetables is by this operation truly volatilized [see the article VEGETABLES]; whence not a grain of fixed salt can be procured from the largest quantity of this putrefied matter, provided the operation were compleatly performed.

(3.) This experiment has various uses, not only in trades, but in Natural Philosophy and Medicine. And first, it shews an artificial, as well as natural method of converting any, or all of the different subjects of the vegetable tribe into the same undistinguishable substance, thus totally destroying all the specific differences which before discriminated that great variety. The same observation reaches also to animal bodies, as we shall see presently.

(4.) The principle of fermentation leads to an extensive enquiry into many things of nature, from whence important hints may be derived, for the advancement of useful philosophy; wherefore since we are upon that subject, we shall here just take notice only of another experiment, as having an affinity with some things that we shall have occasion to refer to,

as being no way repugnant to the spirit of our subject, which is far more extensive than many have been wont to imagine.

EXPERIMENT VII.

If any large animal body, as that of a horse or a dog, for example, be exposed, in a dead state, to the open air and the summer's sun, it, in a few days, begins to swell, purge, and emit a nauseous stench: at length the form of the carcass is destroyed by the commotion, and resolved into a putrid, fetid, stercoraceous matter, a large part, in the mean time, flying off into the air, so as to leave but a small proportion of a mucilaginous pappy substance; which soon grows dry, or turns to a kind of earth. But if a quantity of this matter were to be collected before it grows dry, and distilled, it is said to afford the burning phosphorus, as putrefied urine, and many other things, are known to do.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) This experiment will be found universal, and holds equally in relation to all animal natures. And this putrefied animal matter appears to be in itself a kind of poison, infecting the air wherein it spreads, so as to occasion pestilential diseases near the places where great battles have been fought: whence this seems to be another particular SPECIES of fermentation, and from whence, perhaps, may be derived many more useful discoveries into the works of nature, than seem yet ever to have been duly attended to.

(2.) Whence it should seem that there is a proper species of fermentation peculiar to the animal subjects, as there is one peculiar to the vegetables; and if so, we should not lay down vegetable fermentation as the test and standard of fermentation in general, and judge of all other kinds according as they approach to, or recede from, this standard. But, perhaps, were the enquiry into fermentation prosecuted in its full latitude, and not arbitrarily confined to any single species, many natural and artificial operations would prove to be actual fermentations, and exhibit such phenomena as few imagine.

EXPERIMENT VIII.

That there may be a kind of fermentation in mineral and metallic bodies.

Take an ounce of lead, and as much bismuth, and melt them together in an iron ladle; then heating two ounces of quicksilver in another ladle, mix the three metallic matters together, as an amalgama; which, when cold, will appear perfectly uniform, or homogeneous, and totally pass through the pores of leather, in a running form. This mixture being suffered to cool, and stand quiet for some hours, a gross matter will separate from it by degrees, and float upon the rest, which will be left so thin and fluid, as to pass through leather, and leave the gross metallic matter behind.

OBSERVATIONS.

(1.) Hence it should seem, that even metallic matters may have their peculiar fermentation, as well as vegetable and animal subjects: for, when this experiment comes to be carefully considered, it appears to have all the requisites of fermentation. For here is, (1.) A fluid form. (2.) An uniform matter. (3.) An intestine motion; and, (4.) An actual separation of a grosser matter, leaving a thinner behind. All which particulars we have found to hold in the several species of fermentation above considered.

(3.) There are many more instances of an apparent fermentation in mineral bodies, one or two whereof it may be proper to mention. Thus, if an aqueous solution of the common green vitriol be, in summer-time, exposed to the air, and kept supplied with fresh water, as the former exhales, the grosser metallic part of the vitriol will subside, and the rest gradually shoot upwards all round the vessel, in form of an unctuous crusty matter, 'till the whole body of the vitriol is thus successively altered; so as that the part shot into the crusty unctuous form will never become vitriol again, nor corrode any fresh metal; and, in all other respects, it appears a different thing from vitriol. Hence seem to proceed the complaints of the makers of vitriol, that in rainy, windy, and cloudy weather, their vitriol stones, which lie open to the air, will not sometimes yield a solid crystalline vitriol, but only an unctuous matter. This may, therefore, appear to be a fermentation in all its forms, as being attended with a spontaneous intestine motion, a spontaneous separation of constituent parts, and a remarkable alteration of the subject.

It also makes to the present purpose, that solid and hard pyrites, [see PYRITES] or vitriol-stones, being exposed to the air, and moistened with water, will, like a vegetable subject*, grow hot, fume, and even take fire, and afterwards afford vitriol, a thing very different from the stones themselves [see VITRIOL]: so that, upon the whole, we may conclude, that, in a proper sense, there is an actual fermentation exercised, not only in the vegetable and animal, but also in the mineral kingdom. From what has been observed, may be deduced the following principles:

* See above, Experiment VI.

1. All the instances being duly considered, and a large view of things taken in, we may define fermentation, in general, a sensible internal motion of the constituent particles of a moist, fluid, mixed, or compound body; by the continuance of which motion, these particles are gradually removed from their former situation, or combination, and, again, after some visible separation is made, joined together, in a different arrangement. And thus the whole process of fermentation consists of two different operations, viz. an analytical one, whereby the particles are resolved, and a synthetical one, whereby they are new ranged and conjoined; and that, whenever these two different effects are found to be produced, in direct sequence, with the circumstances above described, we need not scruple to call the operation by the name of fermentation *.

* See Experiments I, and VI.

2. That all separable, mixed, or compound bodies, may be the subjects of this general operation; but that the easier they are separable by means of water, air, and heat, the more readily they ferment. Thus the sweet or saccharine part of malt, more readily dissolving in warm water, ferments easier than unmalted corn, which is more clammy, and will not dissolve so soon. And hence the flesh of animal bodies putrefies sooner than the bones; and this appears to hold in all instances *.

* See Experiments I, VI, and VII.

3. That this general fermentation is divisible into many distinct species, particularly into vegetable, animal, and mineral: the vegetable kind again into vinous, acetous, and putrefactive; the vinous again into mucilaginous, mouldy, and putrefactive; and so of the acetous, &c. Whence we may deduce a rule for adjusting all the different species of fermentation; which being once done, might put an end to infinite hypothetical disputes upon this subject, and lead to farther discoveries, both in nature and art.

4. That it is in the power of man to prevent, stop, and regulate these natural operations, at any point of time assigned. For it is thus we come by our wines and vinegars; it is thus that men have discovered the art of embalming; it is thus we preserve many vegetable and animal juices in their natural or unfermented state; it is thus we preserve yeast and wine-les, subjects extremely apt to putrefy; it is thus we can at any time stop the course of vinous fermentation, and produce a sweet or half-fermented wine; [see the articles WINE and YEAST]; it is thus we cure the frettings or other diseases of wines; and thus that we stop mortifications in the body, and caries in the bones: and most of the artifices employed for these purposes depend upon a knowledge and regulation of the physical causes and instruments that produce that change; which causes and instruments, as we have above discovered, are chiefly heat, moisture, and the external air.

5. That a saccharine matter is the basis of wines, vinegars, and inflammable spirits.

6. That a great variety of sound, perfect, and wholesome wines may be made, in countries that do not naturally afford grapes, by a prudent use of sugar, or raisins and water *.

* See Experiment I.

7. That the matters called ferments are of use in beginning, regulating, and determining the species of fermentation *. Thus fresh yeast determines the fermentation of wheat-flour, to make our common bread, which would prove of another kind, with the flowers or lees of vinegar: and thus specific or determinate ferments have their correspondent effects. If sugar, honey, manna, treacle, or new wine, be added to vinegar, themselves are soon changed into vinegar, without stopping to make wine, because the acetous ferment, or vinegar, over-rides them. And so vinegar is soonest made in a cask that has before contained the same liquor. And if the best wine were put into a cask that had held putrefied vinegar, the wine would not now make vinegar, but immediately run into corruption: so great over-ruling a power have specific ferments; the use whereof is therefore evident, and may afford considerable rules in chemistry, practical philosophy, and commercial arts.

* See Experiment I.

8. That the degrees of fermentation differ with the degrees of heat employed *. Thus we have seen that vinous fermentation requires a less degree of heat than the acetous, the acetous a less than the putrefactive, which latter may even consist with a degree of ignition †.

* See Experiments I, II, III, IV, and VI.

† See Experiment VI.

9. That a particular kind of fermentation may be carried on in the living bodies of animals and vegetables, which are largely supplied with the requisite instruments of fermentation, viz. water, air, and heat; and, in fact, both vegetables and animals appear to have an intestine motion in all their circulating fluids, which continually deposit a grosser matter in the canals and parts they move through. Whence,

by our definition of fermentation, this natural act may be accounted a species of fermentation, producing a change in the nutrimental matter of vegetables and animals, and converting it into their own substance.

10. That when vegetables or animals die, there soon begins a different kind of fermentation in all their parts, tending not now to the repair, but to the entire destruction, of their organic vessels, the confused mixture of their solid parts and juices, and a volatilization of their whole substance *.

* See Experiments V and VI.

11. That dry or solid bodies cannot, in that state, undergo a proper fermentation: for though they may, in that state, be separated into minute particles, yet they cannot range themselves together in any new order, nor deposit a grosser part, without being agitated by some fluid, or for some time suspended therein. And hence, in over-heated mines, the ore is thus analytically destroyed, and cannot range itself into a metalline, or any other regular order again, for want of the requisite moisture or fluidity; whence the matter appears like a heap of rotten earth, or what the miners call dead metal *, of which we have a remarkable instance in the over-heated or fired mixture of sulphur and iron filings.

* See Experiment VIII.

12. And that, in imitation of nature, by a thorough knowledge of the natural agents that produce these grand effects, art likewise may produce extraordinary changes in bodies. RASBERRY, a well-known fruit, of a delicate flavour.

Of RASBERRY WINE.

For the method of making, see the article RAISINS.

Of the usefulness of this wine.

Of all our made wines, those of strawberries and raspberries are most delicious to the taste; they lightly and pleasantly stimulate the nerves of the mouth and nose with a most agreeable smell and taste, which proceeds from a mixture of their essential salt and fine oil, for the principles of both those berries are very near the same, only raspberries contain more fine oil, and the other more phlegm; therefore we shall briefly consider their qualities promiscuously.

These wines are very proper and reviving in syncope, faintings, or swoonings, because they gently and pleasantly tickle the nerves; their mature and attenuated oil, and essential salt, being by fermentation reduced to a subtil spirit, pierce the interstices of the vessels, raise the spirits, afford speedy supply of some nervous juice, which invigorates their springs. In scorbutic disorders, the use of these purify and sweeten the blood, dilute or obtund its salts, give the fibres a better tension to promote a due mixture of the juices.

In nephritic pains, they sweetly stimulate the secretory ducts of the renal glands, lightly prick the membranes of the small renal basons, whereby they being excited and invigorated, shake off their stagnating, attracting, and cohering load, and free the parts from pain; the phlegm of the wine, at the same time, has no small share in diluting and attenuating the slime or sand in the kidneys.

In rawness, weakness, and indigestion of the stomach, the agreeable titillation of these wines gives its coats a better tension, elevates their spring, and fortifies it. Their slight astringency, together with their sweetly warming spirit, make them proper in loosenesses, and too great discharge of the menses. They are more cooling and moistening than other wine, therefore are they preferable in thirst. As they are cordial and cooling, they and water mixed make a good reviving draught in ardent fevers; as they cool and moisten, they are very proper for warm weather, young people, bilious constitutions, in too sharp a state of the blood, or where the animal juices are too much agitated. They have no bad effects, except they be drank to excess, which is rarely the case in drinking of made wines; but here we would be understood as speaking only of small wines of this sort.

RATEEN, or RATTEN, in commerce, a thick woollen stuff, quilled, wove on a loom with four treddles like serges and other stuffs that have the whale or quilling.—There are some prepared like cloths, others left simply in the hair, and others where the hair or nap is frized.

REFINING, the art of purifying a thing, or of rendering it finer and purer.

Refining is chiefly applied in speaking to the art of rendering the more precious metals so pure, as to answer the purposes of traffic and gain made by the refiner.—In relation to the refining metals, we shall speak first to that of gold.—See the articles GOLD and ASSAY, METALS and METALLURGY, MINERALOGY and ORES.

The refining of gold is chiefly performed three ways; either with antimony [see the article ANTIMONY, Vol. I.] with sublimate [see the article MERCURY] or with aqua fortis [see the article AQUA FORTIS].

Refining of gold with antimony.—To this intent they use a wind-furnace, and crucibles of sizes suitable to the quantity

of gold to be refined, observing that the gold and antimony together do not above half fill it, when in fusion.

The gold being melted, the antimony in powder is then gradually thrown in. The proportion of the antimony to gold, is about a pound to eight ounces, if the gold be between 22 and 16 carats fine: if it be under 16 carats fine [see CARAT], they use about a pound and a quarter to eight ounces of gold of such a degree of fineness: the coarser the gold, the greater the quantity of antimony is requisite. See ANTIMONY.

So soon as the antimony and gold are in the crucible, the crucible is covered with an earthen cover that will stand the fire without cracking.—Then the furnace is properly charged with charcoal, and the matter continues in fusion 'till the crucible is left quite bare: then the cover being taken off, and the crucible left to cool in the furnace, it is taken out and broke to get out the calot, which is a mass of fine gold remaining at the bottom, with the fæces of the antimony, the silver and copper alloy, and sometimes small particles of gold over it.

Though the gold thus prepared, by a due degree and continuance of fusion be very fine, yet it is brittle or eager, as workmen term it; and its perfect toughness and malleability must be restored by fusion, with saltpetre and borax. See SALTPETRE and BORAX.

For this operation, the refiner prepares coppels or tests, made of the earth of crucibles that have long sustained the fire, ground to a powder, and made up for the purpose; for these will not imbibe so much as those made of fern and bone-ashes mixed, which are used by some.

Such tests being sufficiently nealed, as the workmen call it, in the refining-furnace, they put the brittle gold therein, and cover it with charcoal.—As soon as the gold is in fusion, as it will soon be by means of the adhesive antimony, they blow it with bellows to evaporate the antimony, in the manner they do for the refinement of lead for its silver. [See the article LEAD.] After which they add a competent quantity of saltpetre and borax in powder, which imbibe the remaining impurities, and fix the gold on the test: and, to render it quite pure, it is melted afresh in a crucible, with an addition of saltpetre and borax; and as soon as it ceases to fume, the mass is cast into ingots, which upon trial is found to be above 23 carats fine gold. See GOLD.

As to the particles of gold, which may have been left behind with the alloy in the fæces of the antimony, they disentangle and purify them, with the same meltings and ingredients as have been used in the former operations.—And when they are assured by the assay [see ASSAY] of the share of gold that matter contains, they refine it to separate the copper, and afterwards make the depart.

With regard to the gold that may adhere to the coppels, tests, or crucibles, wherein it has been melted, it is got out by pulverizing them and washing them in the manner as they manage their sweeps, which is as follows.

To make one of these washes, the refiners not only pound at proper times their coppels, tests, and pots, but also collect together the ashes of their furnaces, the sweepings of their workhouses, and the very bricks whereof their furnaces are built, little particles of gold, &c. being found to stick to them, by the crackling natural to those metals, when in their last degree of fusion and purification.

These matters being well ground and mixed together, are put in large wooden bowls, wherein they are several times washed, and in several waters, which run off by inclination into troughs underneath, carrying with them the earths, and the insensible particles of the metals, leaving only behind the larger and more considerable ones, which are visible to the eye, and taken out with the hand without much trouble.

To get out the finer particles gone off with the earth, they use quicksilver and a washing-mill. The mill consists of a large wooden trough, at bottom of which are two metalline parts, serving as grind-stones; the lower being convex, and the upper, which is in form of a cross, concave.

At top is a winch, placed horizontally, which turns the upper piece round; and at bottom a bung, to let out the water and earth, when sufficiently ground. To have a general wash, the tub is filled with common water; into which they cast 30 or 40 pounds of quicksilver, and two or three gallons of the matter remaining from the lotion.—Then turning the winch, they give motion to the upper grind-stone; which grinding the matter and the quicksilver violently together, the particles of gold and silver become the more easily amalgamated therewith: this work they continue some hours, when opening the bung, the water and earth run out, and a fresh quantity is put in. See the article AMALGAMATION.

The earths are usually thus passed through the mill three times, and the same quantity of mercury usually serves all the three times.—When there is nothing left in the mill but the mercury, united with the gold or silver which it has amalgamated, they take it out, and washing it in divers waters, they put it in a ticken-bag, and lay it in a press to squeeze out the water and the loose quicksilver: the remaining quicksilver they evaporate by fire, in a retort or an alem-

bic. The metal which remains is refined with lead, or parted with aqua fortis.

Of the REFINING of GOLD by aqua regia. [See the article AQUA REGIA.]

Ercher, from considering that aqua regia does not dissolve silver, is of opinion that gold may be refined to the greatest perfection, by being dissolved in that menstruum. What led him to be of this opinion, was doubtless the common persuasion, that all the kinds of aqua fortis, howsoever prepared, did still leave some silver along with the gold; as antimony on the other hand, when used in the refining of gold, commonly steals away, as is supposed, a small quantity thereof. And as something of moment seems to be concealed in this affair, it deserves to be carefully examined.

The leading or fundamental questions of the enquiry are these. (1.) Does the aqua fortis in reality leave any silver yet mixed with the gold? (2.) Would it not prove too expensive, thus to refine gold with aqua regia? (3.) In what sense can antimony be said to steal away gold?

The first question is resolved in the affirmative, by Faschius*, in treating of the sediment of depart waters; where he says, that if gold by quartation be mixed with silver [see the article QUARTATION]; and again separated from it by aqua fortis, it will constantly be found to have increased its weight. Which increase he attributes to the silver adhering to the gold: but it still remains for experiment to decide, whether this additional weight be truly owing to the silver, or whether it be an increase of real gold†.

* See Prober Buchlein, page 64. Ed. 1678.

† It is an old tradition, that the red colour which spirit of nitre manifests in its distillation, proceeds from the sulphur of nitre; and Becher endeavours to exhibit this sulphureous substance to the eye (a), where he treats of the soul of nitre. And this substance Becher still further attempts to render profitable, and to demonstrate its metallic increment; where he recommends the digestion of a solution of silver, made with spirit of nitre, from whence a small portion of the contained silver will daily be deposited, in form of a black calx, or almost golden substance (b). But as a particularly prepared spirit of nitre is required for this purpose, and also a particular purification thereof, it is proper to consult the several places of the author, where these things are mentioned (c), and what Faschius says in his Treatise of Assaying.

(a) Physic. Subterr. lib. V. cap. 2. §. 118, 119, &c.

(b) See Miner. Arenar. page 877.

(c) See Concord. Chem. page 418, 723, 726, 736, 737, 739, 742.

With regard to the second question, it is to be observed, that such a method of refining gold by aqua regia, is scarce practicable in the larger work, on account of the great charge that would attend it. Nor is so rigorous a proof of gold at any time required, as not to admit of the least particle of silver. But in the small work, or the business of assaying, it cannot be admitted for two reasons, viz. (1.) Because so much of the gold is easily dissipated by the aqua regia, or so much of the substance of this menstruum remains fixed to the calx, even after ignition, as may cause errors in both cases. (2.) Because aqua regia, on account of the great sharpness and violence wherewith it grossly dissolves the gold, at the same time tears away more particles of the silver, than the aqua fortis leaves among the gold. A proper experiment or proof, might, however, after this manner, be made with great care, in order to determine whether the above-mentioned increase of weight proceeds from the aqua fortis, or not.

The solution of the third question is principally to be derived from an examination of the fused antimony upon its cooling, because it is easy for antimony, in its frothy ebullition, to tear away a few grains of the substance of the gold, whilst detained in thin fusion, and lodge them in the form of bubbles.

REFINING of GOLD by means of sublimate.

The process is begun like that with antimony, i. e. in the same furnace, with the same coal, the same fire, and the same crucibles.—The gold being melted, they cast in the sublimate unpulverized, and only broken in pieces.—To 8 ounces of gold to be refined, they put from an ounce to two ounces if the gold be 22 carats, 3 ounces if 20 carats, and 4 or 6 ounces if it be only 18 or 20 carats fine. In which latter case, they part the sublimate into two, putting half at a time with the gold into a new crucible, which, when the operation is over, leaves the gold from 18 to 23 carats, according to its fineness before.—After this, they raise it farther by the fire, as follows:

The broken sublimate being put into the crucible with the melted gold, the crucible is immediately covered up, to smother the mineral: which done, the furnace is filled with charcoal, and the head put on.—A quarter of an hour afterwards they take off the head, lay the crucible bare, and blow off all the ashes, and other impurities that may be floating on the liquid gold, with a pair of bellows, whose nozzle is crooked.

REF

This they repeat again and again, 'till all the impurities of the gold being carried off, by virtue of the sublimate, it be found of a bright glittering colour: after which, the gold is cast from the crucible into an ingot.

The method of refining by sublimate, is both more complete, and indeed cheaper than that by antimony or aqua regia; but they are all dangerous, by reason of their sulphureous and arsenical exhalations.

REFINING of SILVER.

There are two ways of refining silver, the one with lead, the other with saltpetre. The best and cheapest is that with lead; but both the one and the other of these methods are tedious and troublesome, when performed on large quantities. This occasioned M. Homberg to endeavour to shorten the operation, which he effected with good success.—His method is, to calcine the silver with half its weight of common sulphur, and after melting the whole together, to cast a quantity of steel filings upon it at several times: upon this the sulphur quits the silver, and joins itself to the iron, and both are converted into scoria, which swim on the silver, and the metal itself is found pure at the bottom of the crucible.

The assay of silver is also made by the coppel or small test, in the same manner as in the refining by lead. See LEAD. When gold and silver are mixed together, see the article QUARTATION for their separation and refining.

Aqua fortis, or the spirit of nitre, is the menstruum for silver. See AQUA FORTIS and SILVER.

EXAMPLE.

Take two drachms, we'll suppose of the finest silver reduced into filings, and pour upon it twice its weight of proof aqua fortis, then set the containing glass in a soft heat under a chimney, 'till the solution is perfectly made.

Note, the aqua fortis for the solution of silver should be made proof, that is, it should be capable of dissolving half a grain, or a grain of silver immediately, without growing in the least turbid; as it would do, if it contained any sea-salt, in which case it is a kind of aqua regia. See those articles.

Refining with saltpetre is performed in a wind furnace.—The silver to be refined being granulated into the size of pease, by pouring it, when melted, in a circular motion, pretty briskly, into a tub of common water, and it is heated over again in a boiler.—After this they put it in a crucible, and along with it, to every eight ounces of metal, two of saltpetre.—The crucible being now covered with a lid of earth that will stand the fire, in the form of a dome, well luted, which lid must have an aperture in the middle.—The crucible being securely placed in the furnace, and covered with charcoal, the operator gradually gives the matter the full force of fire, in order to put the metal into a state of fusion. This is successively repeated, at the interval of about a quarter of an hour.—After the third fire, the furnace is uncovered, and the crucible cools; at length it is broke to get out the silver, which is found collected to the bottom, and proves with skilful management to be fine silver; and the top is mixed with the fæces of the saltpetre and the alloy of the silver, and generally with particles of fine silver.

The bottom being separated from the impurities, is melted in a crucible, and into the dissolution is thrown charcoal-dust, and the whole briskly worked together. Then the crucible being covered again, and the furnace charged with coal, a second fire is given it.—This done, the impurities are blown from the top of the metal, 'till it appear as clear as a looking-glass, and then about an ounce of borax in pieces is gradually thrown upon it.—Lastly, the crucible being covered up again, they give it the last fire; after which it is cast into ingots, which are found with dexterous management, 11 penny-weights and about 16 grains fine.—To recover the silver that may be left in the scoria, they give the same repeated lotion in fresh water, as we have described before, in relation to the refining of gold.

OBSERVATION.

If the silver, employed in the solution with aqua fortis, as before described, were absolutely pure, the liquor will be pellucid: but if any alloy or copper remain mixed therewith, the solution will have a bluish or greenish cast. If a solution of perfectly pure silver be diluted with fair water, it will still remain pellucid, without letting any thing precipitate. But if any saline matter be contained in the water, the whole will now turn thick or milky.

The solution of fine silver has an intolerable bitter taste, though by the eye it be not distinguishable from fair water. Whence we have an eminent instance how metals may lie concealed from the sight, or remain lodged in unsuspected liquors, and thence be introduced invisibly into other substances. Whence the greater caution is to be used, with all pretenders to the melioration and transmutation of metals.

This solution of silver is the foundation of several medicinal and chemical preparations, as the vitriol of silver, the lunar caustic, the silver pill, &c.

REG

The silver is recoverable from this solution, barely by suspending copper-plates therein: for copper being more easily dissolved by aqua fortis than silver, the silver is therefore precipitated to the bottom, in the form of a powder; and being washed and melted, comes into a metalline lump again. And this also is to be understood of the solution of gold.

The methods of obtaining silver in purity are various, and differ according to the metal wherewith the silver is mixed or alloyed. If copper be the alloy, the best and cheapest way to purify the silver is, to calcine it with half its weight of common sulphur, according to the method before prescribed by M. Homberg.

Thus much for the refining of the superior metals, which is the business of him who is called the REFINER.

REFINING of copper is performed by repeated fusions, with well-adapted fluxes. See the articles COPPER and FLUX.

REFINING of tin is managed much after the same manner as that of copper. See TIN.

REFINING of iron begins likewise with the fusion of it into cast iron from the ore. See IRON.

Steel is only iron refined to a greater degree by heating it, with some other ingredients, which close up the pores and soften its grain.

REFINING of lead. See LEAD.

REFINING of sugar. See SUGAR.

REFINING of saltpetre. See SALTPETRE.

REGISTER SHIPS of Spain.

Of the register or entries, loading and delivery of the flota's, and ships trading to the West-Indies, and of goods run and seizures, in relation to the commerce of Spain.

(1.) As it was requisite for the support of navigation, according to the Spanish polity, that there should be builders of ships, and others to take the dimensions, and gauge them to know their content, either to man them for war, or load them for merchants; and as it was convenient to prescribe rules for the freight, and to know the bulk of the commodities, so it is necessary, that the loading may be according to the laws and ordinances, that there be registers or entries, with respect to these particulars. The law of Spain gives this definition of the register, that it is a written memorandum of what passes every year; but as to what concerns this book, it is so to be understood, that the register or entry is a memorial of what is put aboard every fleet, as shall be made out. These registers, or entries, are carefully preserved in the office of the contador or comptroller of the India-House [see INDIA-HOUSE of Spain]; and it is to be observed, that every particular man's entry goes under the same name, as well as the total that is made of all the goods aboard a ship.

(2.) There are two sorts of registers or entries used in the trade to the Spanish Indies; the one is of all that is carried out of Spain to those provinces and islands; the other of all the silver, gold, pearls, emeralds, and other commodities, brought from thence. The difference between them is, that those brought from the Indies are authentic copies, of the original instruments made there by the masters of plate, or of ships, before the proper notaries, specifying the commodity, quantity, quality, and freight it is to pay, and person or persons to whom to be delivered. But those made at Seville and at Cadiz, when part of the fleet is loaded there, are plain notes, though upon sealed paper, the content of them being to this effect, That N. made entry that he has put aboard such a ship, which is one of such a fleet, commanded by admiral O. whereof P. is master, the commodities hereafter specified, naming to whom they are consigned, where they are to be delivered, upon whose account and hazard they go. After this preamble, he underwrites the number of bales, chests, or any other sort of parcel, and places also their marks in the margin, and having paid the duty for convoys, custom, and other taxes, payable at the custom-house, he delivers in this paper to the proper officer of the contador or comptroller of the India-House, without being signed by him that delivers it, or the master or owner of the ship, or any other person whatsoever, but only the officers that received the duty; so that it appears, this instrument was rather contrived to secure the payment of the duties, than for any advantage of the parties concerned; for besides these the masters sign bills of lading, upon sight whereof they are to deliver the goods to the ports they are consigned for; but, though there were none of these bills of lading, the registers or entries ought to be a sufficient authority to demand of the masters the goods therein contained; for it being requisite for the getting of cockets in the India-House, that the master gives a note under his hand, to answer that those commodities he gives the same for, shall be duly entered, the entries being compared, when made, with those notes, and then tacked to the rest that belong to the ship; this certifies that the master had signed bills of lading [see BILLS of LADING]; and all the entries together have the authority of the president and commissioners, to the end that there should be no doubt but they are legal instruments, to oblige the masters to deliver what they carry, and the factors to pay the freight. See the article FACTOR.

Of these two sorts of registers, one only is in being at present, which are those of all that is sent from Spain to the Indies, but what is brought from thence is free from this incumbrance ever since the year 1660: it is necessary, however, to shew what the practice was, in order to compare it with the other.

The Spanish law directs, that all goods shipped for the Indies be entered in the India-House, upon forfeiture of the goods, the third part to the informer, and the rest to the king: the same was in practice as to all commodities brought from the Indies.

It being so difficult a matter to prove the frauds committed in bringing gold or silver that is not entered, or carrying it out of the kingdom, it was therefore ordered, that witnesses of 14 years of age should be allowed of in this case, and the transgressors to enjoy no privilege they might be entitled to. Afterwards it was added, that the informations of persons in public employments, that deserve to be credited, should be sufficient evidence for the judges upon such trial to convict the persons accused, and subject them to the ordinary or extraordinary penalties, according to the evidence and circumstances relating thereto.

The captain or other officer that brought over any commodity not entered, was to lose his employment for four years, and if it were any mean person that brought goods concealed, to be condemned to the galleys for four years. The owner of commodities not entered forfeited them, and his own goods; if a mean person, he was condemned to the galleys for ten years, and if of any quality, banished the Indies, and excluded that trade for ever. Officers and commanders that are concerned therein forfeit their employments; but he that informs, if he be the owner, to be free; if any other, besides impunity, to be intitled to one third part of the value. The master, mate, boatswain, or purser, that brings any thing unregistered, to be sent to the galleys for ten years, forfeit all goods, and be excluded for ever sailing to the Indies; but this is not to be understood of such commodities as may serve for ballast, and lie in the bottom of the hold, which may be put on board with leave from the admiral, vice-admiral, chief pilot, and master, all together.

As for the form of making the entries, it is ordered, that the bulk be specified, whether it be bale, chest, or any other parcel; as also the custom it paid proportionably to the said bulk. Nor may the entry be made at St Lucar, or any other place but at Seville, upon forfeiture of the goods. Gold and silver, and all other commodities, are forbid to be entered under any name but the right owners, upon penalty of forfeiting the whole, and four times its value, and being looked upon as a robber of the public. It was also ordained, that the merchants, before the general register or entry was made, should give in particulars of their loading to the comptroller, time enough for them to go aboard the fleets, upon forfeiture of the goods; these particulars to be signed, specifying the ship, and to whom the goods are consigned, and that the comptroller receive and place them to the general entry. That registers or entries be perfect and correct, the comptroller of the India-House [see INDIA-HOUSE OF SPAIN], or such person as shall have the care of the books of licences for loading at Seville or Cadiz, shall cast up with every merchant what that entry makes, and deliver a copy to the commissioners, to be sent to the Indies, for the officers there to see whether the cargo and entry agree. It was enacted also, that the admirals should have copies given them of the registers, or entries, to the end they might seize all goods they found not mentioned in them, which they were to deliver as forfeited, without disposing thereof, to the king's officers at the port they went to, and to charge them with it, and bring certificates that they had so done. But this has been out of use, it not being practicable for the admiral to search into the hold, and examine what goods were entered, what not. So that now the entries are sent sealed, and there is only a copy of the last visit, or search open, for the admiral to compare when he makes his at sea. Several laws direct, that only the king's officers break open the registers or entries, with a prohibition to the governors, admirals, veedores [i. e. overseer, inspector, or comptroller] masters of ships, or the court of Panama.

The registers or entries of gold, silver, or other commodities, were to be made in the ports they came from, and if any were taken not entered, though going but to Callao, to Panama, or from Nombre de Dios to New Spain, it was all forfeited; but afterwards, all that was declared forfeited which was not entered before it came to the Havannah. All the entries of ships coming from the Indies, are to be made before the king's officers, and the escrivano or notary, whose business it is; and they are charged to be very particular in mentioning the several commodities and their species, particularly in cocheneal [see COCHENEAL], the value set upon that of Mesteca being 41,250 marvadees [see the article SPAIN], that of Flascala 37,500, and the wild at 8000; and if any that was fine came as wild, it should be forfeited. Every ship was ordered to bring two registers or entries, that is, its own, and that of another ship, to prevent the confusion that happened when any ship was cast away, or taken

by pirates, that the owners might upon these registers, either come upon the insurers [see the article ASSURANCE], or if any part was saved, know whose it was, yet this ordinance has not been executed. The registers or entries of masters of plate, are brought into a chest with three locks, the admiral to keep one key, the veedor another, and the master the third, to prevent falsification.

The kings of Spain have at all times been pretty favourable to their subjects in dispensing with the rigour of the laws in these cases, forgiving the forfeiture of goods, which for want of being duly entered, were already his Majesty's right, upon the owners making the discovery themselves; and several times seizures already made have been restored, only laying a small mulct on the owners. In 1560, there was a general pardon for all that was brought that year in the fleet not entered, provided the owners came in and declared it, and for all that came before, though it had been sent to foreign nations, provided it were brought back within the term of four months; but for the future, it was made death and forfeiture of goods, to carry gold, plate, pearls, or precious stones, out of the kingdom, or bring them unregistered. Yet for several years after, there were still fresh orders to suspend the rigour of the law, upon the owners discovering their goods, till in 1618, this repeated goodness not availing, it was ordained, that the laws should be severely put in execution; notwithstanding which, mercy was still exercised towards delinquents, either receiving the owner's declarations, or taking off all by indulto's. See the article INDULTO.

To instance in the case of goods run and seizures made, king Philip II. ordered a considerable parcel of cocheneal and hides to be restored to the owners, upon paying a fourth part over and above the usual duties, and the same in another seizure of plate, he being used to say, That those persons who had goods seized, must be treated like robbers of their own. King Philip III. ordered 176 bars of silver seized, to be restored, the owner paying 16,000 pieces of eight penalty above the duty; but for 2578 marks brought over, which had not paid his fifth in the Indies, that he directed to be confiscated. Another time a seizure of 400,000 ducats of plate being made, he ordered the one half to be restored, and the other to be forfeited. In 1563, the solicitor of the India-House searched a boat, in which was the admiral Peter Menendez his equipage, and took out three bars he brought not entered, for which the said admiral was brought prisoner from Madrid to the India-House. In 1585, 519 pipes of wine, besides a great number of jars of wine, oil, and olives, were taken from aboard the admiral and vice-admiral of the New-Spain fleet. The same has been done upon other occasions. Whosoever makes the seizure of India goods, it belongs to the commissioners of the India-House to take cognizance of the matter, and condemn them. In 1648, it was ordered, That when the officers of the India-House made a seizure, they should not be obliged to carry it to the India-House, but to such storehouse as they think fit, paying the custom; and that those made by the officers of the custom-house pay the duty for convoys. Hereupon there was an officer created to take care that nothing be exported without paying the said duty, and to take bond of merchants that they will make entry, and pay the said duty.

9. There are several laws concerning the disposal of seizures, one, that they be sold by public outcry for their full value, which is to be paid in to the king: that the owners be not entrusted with the custody of such goods: that the king's officers be obliged to prosecute in case the informers should not: that two-thirds of the forfeiture go to the king, the other between the judge and the informer: that the king's duties be first deducted out of seizures, before the informer's part: that the king's officers in the Indies acquaint the governors with what suits there are depending about seizures: that all the ports of the Indies follow the same rule that is observed at Carthagena: that the seizure be not put into the owners hands, though it be upon security: that the produce of seizures in the Indies be put into the hands of the king's officers, and not of treasurers or trustees: that when information is made of things of great value, and only notice of them given, the informer's share be retrenched, and what is cut off added to the revenue: that the courts of the Indies do not assume to themselves the decision of causes depending before the king's officers: that in trials of seizures of slaves, or other goods made in the ports of the Indies, the governor and king's officers, act jointly, and not apart, though it be upon pretence of having been first in the seizure; and that the part of the fine the law allows the judges, be equally divided among them all, upon penalty of forfeiting their employments, and being subject to other fines, besides the profit of what they have defrauded.

10. Besides, in the common ordinances of the India-House, it is expressed, That any gold or silver wrought, or in bars or ingots, brought from the Indies, that has not the king's mark, be forfeited, and the bringer fined four times the value to the king, the third part to be given to the informer, and that the offender be banished the kingdom for ever. But as for jewels, pearls, or precious stones, which cannot be marked,

marked, that he be obliged to bring a certificate from the officers in the Indies, that he entered and paid the fifth, specifying what they were valued at, their shape, weight, and marks. Another ordinance directs, That no slaves, men or women, be carried over to the Indies, without the king's licence exhibited before the commissioners, upon pain of forfeiting such slave to the king; and if the slave be of the coast of Barbary, or of the race of Moors, Jews, or Mulattoes, that he be brought back into Spain, at his expence who carried him over; and he that carries a slave of Moorish race, be fined 1000 pieces of eight of gold, to be equally divided between the king, the judge, and the informer; or if he be a mean person, to receive 100 lashes. If the commissioners of the India House, in the execution of their office, discover what is not entered, the fifth part of the forfeiture shall be their own. Of what is put aboard after the register, or general entry is sealed, three fourth parts are for the king, the other for the informer, or if there be none, for the visitor; or if the commissioner of the India-House find it, there is no doubt but the fourth part belongs to him.

11. The last order concerning the disposal of seizures directs, that the third part be laid aside for the informer, and the third part of that deducted for the judge, before whom the information is given, so he be no commissioner or judge of the India-House; the same to be done as to the private informers, giving them their due without exposing their names, or making any further delay than securing the effects. But this does not cut off the commissioners of the India-House from their fourth or fifth parts, in the cases before-mentioned.

12. Passengers are also to be registered, and their ages and marks set down, but they may be admitted after the register or entry of the merchandize is sealed. If the admiral take up any money of the master of plate, his bill shall stand good to make up the sum entered upon the register. The commissioners of the India-House are directed to discharge the king's plate that is upon the registers, as private persons do theirs. The registers in the Indies for ships that go from the Canaries, or carry slaves, are to mention how many they carried, and to certify their being visited: and if the ship be sold there, he that buys it is obliged to bring back the same register the ship carried, and the king's officers to send a memorandum apart of the men, and an account who it was sold to. The gold and silver sent to Spain from the South Sea, is to be twice registered, once in that sea, and the other time at Porto bello, or else it is forfeited; and all that is sent from port to port in the Indies, either in the North or South Sea, is to be registered under the same penalty. Among the laws concerning registers, there is one that declares ships or merchandize, coming to the Indies by the way of Guinea, forfeited. Any goods entered upon the register, though they cannot be found, are to pay the duties, unless it be made appear they were thrown overboard in stress of weather, and of things broken or damaged, only the custom is to be received proportionably to their value, when they come to the ports in the Indies; and of such goods as are carried from St Domingo to other ports, the remaining part of the custom is to be received, which is due in the place they go to, more than is paid at St Domingo.

13. All that remains concerning this subject, is of the loading and unloading of ships, that nothing be landed without leave, and that all be carried to the custom, or India-House; but this, as has been said, is taken off all things brought from the Indies by the indulto. That no goods be landed in the river Chagre but only at Panama. One of the king's officers at Panama is to receive the Firmland fleet at Portobello. If the New Spain fleet happens to touch at Ocoa, a port in the island of Hispaniola, one of the king's officers is immediately to repair thither. The ships that put into the river of Tabasco, are forbid landing their goods on its banks, but they are all to be carried from the vessel directly to the warehouses. It is a general rule, that the ships which are to return to Spain, be unloaded before those that are to remain in the Indies, and the king's officers are commanded to assist in lading the gold and silver aboard the armada's and flota's. To conclude, All that comes from the Indies, consigned to private persons, is to be delivered immediately to the owner, he putting his hand to the register; or else one of the commissioners of the India-House, in the presence of one of the escrivano's or notaries of the said India-House; and if it were requisite for delivery of any parcel, that the

party concerned should give security, he being a stranger in Seville, such as he should give in his own country, with the approbation of the magistrates should be admitted, because giving it at Seville, they used to leave that money in the sureties hands, or spend a considerable part of it to find any.

REMITTANCE, the traffic or return of money from one place to another, by bills of exchange, orders, or the like. See the articles BILLS of EXCHANGE, and EXCHANGE.

A remittance is properly a bill of exchange, sent to a correspondent, and the contents thereof to be received by him of some other person, on whom such bill is drawn.

We say that such a merchant has remitted, or made a remittance of so many thousand pounds in bank notes to his correspondent at London. — I will remit you, or make you a remittance of, 1200 crowns, in three bills of exchange, of 400 crowns each, drawn on A. B. banker in your city, payable at sight, at 20 days after sight, or at usance, &c. By means of remittances by the circulation of bills of exchange, prodigious sums of money are returned, not only from one city to another in a trading nation, without danger, and without carriage, but immense sums are thereby perpetually circulating throughout all the European states.

R E M A R K S.

Remittances of money to distant parts, by the means of bills of exchange, necessarily imply a correspondence at those parts, and the authority of drawing upon some person, by whom such remittance must be discharged, to the person to whom the bill is made payable.

The nature of draughts and remittances, and the manner whereby such kind of negotiations are carried on, cannot be better explained and illustrated, than by exhibiting the outlines of the accountantship requisite to be observed on such occasions, by the parties therein concerned. And as money-remittances are either of a domestic or of a foreign kind, we shall state the case familiarly in both lights, with relation to real practical business.

I. With regard to domestic remittances, or such as are carried on through the several trading towns and cities in the same state or empire.

Suppose C. D. of London; for example, is a trader, and has dealings with other traders of Bristol, Liverpool, and Exeter, and that he hath occasion to remit 200l. to his correspondent, E. F. of Bristol. — For this purpose he is presumed to have some correspondent, suppose G. H. of Bristol, who is indebted to C. D. of London 500l. in the way of traffickable, or any other concerns; — and that, by virtue thereof, he, the said C. D. hath the liberty to draw upon G. H. to the amount of 500l. for the discharge of the said debts. — Now, if G. H. is indebted to C. D. 500l. G. H. stands in his book indebted for the said sum, to some proper account, suitable to the occasion on which the said debt was contracted. — Upon which he (C. D.) draws, in the following manner and form, upon G. H. 200l. payable to C. D.

London, September 1, 1754.

One month after date pay to E. F. or order, the sum of 200l. and place it per advice to the account of

To Mr G. H. merchant of Bristol.

Sir, Your humble servant,
C. D.

This draught of 200l. thus made by C. D. of London, on his correspondent G. H. of Bristol, payable to E. F. of Bristol, one month after date, is sent inclosed in a letter to E. F. who sends it, on receipt thereof, to G. H. of Bristol, for acceptance; which if he does not refuse, and duly pays, this draught thus made upon G. H. is a remittance made, at the same time, to E. F. in discharge of the 200l. due by C. D. of London, to E. F. of Bristol.

As G. H. stood a debtor in the books of C. D. for what he owed him, so E. F. was a creditor in the accounts of C. D. for what the latter owed him. Quere, In what manner ought the several parties herein concerned state this transaction in their respective books, according to the true principles of accountantship, by the Italian method of double entry? We will state the accounts of C. D. of London, which are supposed to stand thus in his ledger (in regard to this affair) previously to the commencement thereof.

L E D G E R.

(1)	G. H. of Bristol	-	-	Dr	1.	s.	d.	(3)	By E. F. for draught on E. F. remitted	Cr	1.	s.	d.
	To cash, if money lent, &c.	-	-		500	—	—		G. H.	-	200	—	—
	CASH	-	-	Dr						Cr			
(2)	To E. F. money borrowed	-	-		200	—	—	(1)	By G. H. for money lent	-	500	—	—
	E. F. of Bristol	-	-	Dr						Cr			
(3)	To G. H. for draught remitted him	-	-		200	—	—	(2)	By cash, money borrowed, or otherwise, &c.	-	200	—	—
		-	-							Cr			

EXPLANATION.

The foregoing is the practical state of the case in the ledger of C. D.

I. The reader will observe, that G. H. stands debtor for the 500 l. to CASH, on supposition it was money lent, and CASH a creditor for the same, which exhibits these two accounts in their right state: if the money had been due on a legacy, G. H. must have been made debtor to CAPITAL STOCK, and CAPITAL STOCK creditor by G. H. in which case, also, those accounts would appear in their just light; but, if the money had been due upon any other occasion, the credit must have been adapted accordingly. See the ar-

L E D G E R.

(2)	C. D. of London - - - Dr	l.	s.	d.	(1)	By cash, money borrowed of him	Cr	l.	s.	d.
	To E. F. for the draught accepted	1200	—	—				500	—	—
(1)	CASH - - - - - Dr				(3)	By E. F. paid C. D. draught of — day	Cr			
	To C. D. money borrowed -	500	—	—				200	—	—
(3)	E. F. - - - - - Dr				(2)	By C. D. for draught accepted	Cr			
	To cash, paid him C. D's draught of	200	—	—				200	—	—

EXPLANATION.

I. CASH is debtor, and C. D. creditor by CASH, for what G. H. owes him.—When C. D. draws on him, in order to make a remittance to E. F. then he makes C. D. debtor to E. F. and credits E. F. 'till paid.—When he pays E. F. then E. F. is made debtor to CASH, and CASH creditor by E. F. By which method of charge and discharge, according to the way of double-entry accountantship, every distinct account is preserved in its true state.

Many who deal any thing considerably in draughts and remittances, keep distinct INTERMEDIATE ACCOUNTS

L E D G E R.

(1)	CASH - - - - - Dr	l.	s.	d.	(3)	By G. H. paid C. D's draught of	Cr	l.	s.	d.
	To C. D. of London, borrowed of him	200	—	—				200	—	—
(2)	C. D. of London - - - Dr				(1)	By cash borrowed of him - - -	Cr			
	To G. H. a draught payable to G. H. of	200	—	—				200	—	—
(3)	G. H. - - - - - Dr				(2)	By C. D's draught, payable to G. H.	Cr			
	To cash, paid C. D's draught, when due, of	200	—	—				200	—	—

But if C. D. of London had no one at Bristol that owed him money, in order to conveniently discharge his creditor E. F. at that city, E. F. must either have drawn upon C. D. of London, or C. D. of London must have paid the money in London, and procured a bill, payable to E. F. in Bristol, and sent him the same, which would have answered the end equally as well.—Or, if it had been convenient for E. F. to have the said sum paid to his order in Exeter, or elsewhere, and it had suited C. D. so to have returned the same, by a draught upon any correspondent, in this way likewise the money may be paid to the order of E. F. Hence we find, that the transaction of money-concerns, by the means of draughts and remittances, is infinitely more facilitated than can be by the perpetual sending of specie backwards and forwards, at a great hazard and expence: and, with regard to bills of Exchange that are not payable at sight, the robbing of the mail does not, in this respect, affect them in the manner that it does bank-bills. There is, indeed, frequently hazard run by taking bills that may be protested, and this proves a great disappointment to the principal parties: this induces many rather to transact their inland affairs by the means of bank bills, than by that of bills of exchange.

Nor is the trading interest only thus accommodated in their draughts and remittances, by the means of paper circulation, but the landed men also; and the public revenue itself is commodiously remitted to the exchequer, by virtue thereof: whereby this method of drawing and remitting money, proves of no less ease and advantage to the government, than to the subjects in general.

There are many bankers, and others who are not professedly so, that make a very handsome income, at $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, &c. by accommodating people with bills for their returns of monies.

EXPLANATION.

Whoever discerns the reason of what has been already said, will need no farther explication in relation to the accounts of E. F. which he will observe are in conformity with the preceding. The whole of the matter, in a word, lies here: if a merchant of London has owing to him 500 l. by one in Bristol, and he owes 200 l. also to one in Bristol, he orders his debtor there to pay the same to his creditor; which order being executed in the manner before represented, is called a DRAUGHT made upon his debtor, and a REMITTANCE to his creditor; and the method of stating the accounts by the persons concerned, shews the essential points

articles ACCOUNTANTSHIP, BANKING, BOOK-KEEPING, LEDGER, MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP.

2. Upon making the draught on G. H. payable to E. F. E. F. is made debtor to G. H. and G. H. creditor by E. F. which debiting the one, and crediting the other, keeps the accounts of C. D. in an equitable state, and shews how draughts and remittances are adjusted, in conformity to the nature of the transaction.

II. Let us now take a view of the accounts of G. H.

As G. H. stands a debtor in the books of C. D. for what he owes him, so must C. D. stand a creditor for the same in the books of G. H. Thus:

of DRAUGHTS and REMITTANCES, or a BILL-BOOK, wherein are entered all bills payable and receivable; by the means of which intermediate accounts of BILLS RECEIVABLE, and BILLS PAYABLE, the personal accounts of all with whom you have transactions by way of draught or remittances, are adjusted.

III. We shall now see how the accounts of E. F. will stand in regard to this transaction.

As E. F. in the books of C. D. stands creditor, by CASH, for money C. D. borrowed of him; so CASH must stand debtor, and C. D. creditor, in the books of E. F. for the same. Thus:

of the accountantship necessary to be performed by the several parties therein concerned.

These plain principles being well understood, in relation to the nature of domestic draughts and remittances, the same will be easily applied to those in foreign countries, and in foreign monies.

EXAMPLE I.

Suppose Mess. Cliffords and sons, merchants of Amsterdam, are indebted to Mess. Henry and Peter Muilman, of London, merchants, 5000 guelders, bank money of Amsterdam, and that said Cliffords and sons remit the same to said Muilmans, by a bill of exchange, drawn at usance, on John Gore, merchant of London, who is indebted to them, exchange at 34 : 6. Quere, how must this transaction be stated in the books of the several persons therein concerned, according to the principles of accountantship, as practised by those eminent traders?

I. With regard to the accounts of CLIFFORD and SONS of AMSTERDAM.

If they are indebted to Mess. Muilman a balance of 5000 florins, banco of Amsterdam, Mess. Muilman will of course have credit in their books for that sum; and, when they remit the same to said Muilmans of London, the transaction is managed in the following manner: as Clifford and sons owe money in London to some persons, so we may presume, in the course of their transactions, they may have monies due to them from Mr Gore, in the same trading city: in which case, they make a draught upon their debtor, payable to their creditors, and thereby make the remittance required, and state their accounts by way of debtor and creditor, according to the principles before given in the domestic transaction: taking care to distinguish the different monies of the two countries, and what they may gain or lose by the exchange. These great remitters always have an open account in their ledger of DRAUGHTS and of REMITTANCES, and are extremely accurate in distinguishing MY ACCOUNT from HIS ACCOUNT, as well as their COMPANY ACCOUNTS from their PROPER ACCOUNTS. See our article LEDGER. But if it so fall out that Clifford and sons of Amsterdam have no MONIES due to them in London, and yet are obliged to pay the said sum to Muilman and Co. within a certain time, the affair may be managed in one or the other of the following ways: either Muilman and Co. may draw upon Clifford and Co. or Clifford and Co. must purchase a bill, or bills of exchange,

exchange, on the Bourse of Amsterdam, of those who may have monies due to them in London, or any other trading city in England; and this bill, or these bills of exchange, are sent over by the packet to the said Muilman and Co.

Suppose such bill of exchange be furnished to Clifford and Co. by the house of PELTZ and SONS of Amsterdam, drawn upon SIR JOSHUA VANECK, BART. and Co. merchants of London, payable at usance, or two usance, to Mess. Cliffords: in this case, Cliffords indorse the said bill of exchange, and send it over to Mess. Muilman, who present the bill for acceptance, and receive the contents of Sir Joshua Vaneck and Co. according to the tenor thereof. If the transaction be thus conducted, and if Mess. Clifford immediately pay for the bill furnished them by Mess. Peltz, they may make **BILLS OF EXCHANGE**, or **REMITTANCES**, debtor to **CASH** for the money so paid; and when they hear of Mess. Muilman's receipt of the bill in England, and that it is accepted, they then debit **MESS. MUILMAN** to **REMITTANCES**, for the amount thereof. This method of stating the accounts in the books of Clifford of Amsterdam, will keep their account of cash right, as well as their account with Mess. Muilman.

What is a remittance to Mess. Muilman, is a draught upon Sir Joshua Vaneck and Co. by Mess. Peltz; and, upon the receipt of money by Peltz and Co. of Cliffords, for the said draught of Sir Joshua Vaneck and Co. the said Peltz debits their account of cash, and credit Sir Joshua Vaneck and Co. for the said draught.

And Sir Joshua Vaneck and Co. in order to keep his accounts in conformity with those of Peltz and Co. do, upon the acceptance of the draught aforesaid, debit Peltz and Co. in their proper account, which gave birth to the occasion, and credit Mess. Muilman for their said remittance; for, upon Sir Joshua and Co's acceptance of the bill, they, from that time, become debtor to Mess. Muilman for the same: but if Sir Joshua chuses so to have his books kept, that his intermediate account of **DRAUGHTS** may manifest all draughts that have been made upon him, then he debits Peltz and son to the account of **DRAUGHTS**, and, when he pays such draught, according to the tenor of the bill, he then debits draught, and credits his account of cash; which is the method that most great remitters practise.

In the like manner, with regard to the remittance made to Mess. Muilman, he debits the account of **REMITTANCES** to Mess. Clifford, and credits Mess. Clifford for the same, in conformity: and, when Mess. Muilman receive in money the amount of the said bill, of Sir Joshua Vaneck, he debits his account of cash, and credits that of remittances; whereby the accounts of Muilman are kept in conformity with those of Cliffords of Amsterdam.

But as our remitters, or merchants of consideration, keep their cash either with the bank of England, or with bankers of eminence, the business of receiving or paying bills is made mighty easy to them; for the bills receivable being deposited either in the bank, or the bankers hands, their runners receive them when due, the merchant having the receipt thereof acknowledged in his bank-book: and, when such merchants have bills to pay, they draw upon the Bank or bankers for the same, which sums are wrote off in their bank-book accordingly.

Upon the whole, the reader will easily observe, that any bill of exchange whatsoever is properly a **DRAUGHT**, with regard to the drawer, and to the person upon whom the same is drawn, and who is to pay the contents; and, at the same time, it is properly a **REMITTANCE**, with regard to the person who buys the bill, and pays the value, as well as to the person to whom the bill is sent, or remitted, and who consequently receives the contents.

In relation to the general laws, customs, and usages, which concern bills of exchange, see the article **BILLS OF EXCHANGE**; and, with respect to the method of stating accounts of this nature, see the articles **BANKING**, **BOOK-KEEPING**, **DEBTOR AND CREDITOR**, **LEDGER**, and **MERCANTILE ACCOUNTSHIP**; under which several heads will be found very ample instructions whereby to capacitate him for the stating of any kind of accounts whatsoever, be they either of a foreign or domestic concernment.

Further REMARKS upon this article of **REMITTANCES** and **DRAUGHTS**.

As in inland trafficable affairs it may, as we have observed, frequently suit the convenience of the parties to remit money in one city, payable to the order of a correspondent who resides in another at a considerable distance in the same country; so it often happens, especially among the general and more skilful merchants, that they order a correspondent of London to draw upon their correspondent of Paris, who may be debtor to him in Amsterdam, for their account, instead of drawing upon him of Amsterdam: and so in divers other places. For if A of Amsterdam be indebted to B of London, and C of Paris be also indebted to A of Amsterdam; and if A of Amsterdam orders B of London to draw upon C of Paris, instead of himself of Amsterdam, it may, and often does, not only prove mutually agreeable and convenient, but sometimes an additional advantage is the mo-

tive, either to the one, if not both, so to do; and what these advantages may be at such conjuncture, is judged of by the course of exchange between Amsterdam and London, Amsterdam and Paris, and London and Paris; and the method whereby such business is transacted, by the means of draughts and remittances, with a view to profit to be made by the exchange, is called the arbitration of the foreign exchange: See the article **ARBITRATION** in matters of the foreign exchange; see also the articles **ENGLAND**, **HAMBURGH**, **HOLLAND**, and the chief trading cities of Europe, under their respective provinces.

REPRIZALS, a right, according to the civil law and that of nations, which princes have to retake from their enemies such things as they unjustly detain from them, or other things equivalent thereto. — It is used also for a permission given by a prince sometimes to a subject, upon a full cognizance of the cause, authorizing him to retake, from the first person he meets with of the adverse party, as many effects as make an equivalent to what have been violently forced from him, and for which the opposite prince has refused to do him justice.

These permissions are also called letters of mark, mart, or marque. — Thus we say, This merchant has seized the effects of the Spaniard Don ———, by way of reprizal, because the Spaniard has seized his, and no redress could be had at the court of Madrid.

Under the articles **MARQUE**, [**LETTERS of MARQUE**], **PRIVATEERS**, **PRIZES**, we have given the principal laws relating thereto: as they have some affinity with the present subject, we shall here give what may be further necessary; according to the laws of England, in particular, to the understanding what else may have a connection with the preceding subjects.

A copy of letters patent for especial reprizals, from the king of Great-Britain (under the great seal of England) against the States of Holland, and their subjects; introlled in the high court of Chancery, 19 May, 15 Car. II.

Charles the Second, &c. Whereas our loving subjects, Sir William Courteen, Knt. deceased; and his partners, anno 1643, by the depredation and hostile act of one Gailard, commander in chief of two ships belonging to the East-India company of the Netherlands, was, between Goa and Macao, in the streights of Malacca, deprived and most injuriously spoiled of a certain ship called the *Bona Esperanza*, and of her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and all the goods and lading in her; upon a very hopeful trading voyage to China; which were carried to Batavia, and there all de facto, without due process of law, confiscated. And also in the same year, another laden ship of our said subject, called the *Henry Bonadventure*, being come on ground near the island of Mauritius, was there, both ship and goods, seized upon by some of the officers and ministers, and others under the command of the said East-India company, and utterly detained from the right owners. And whereas the said Sir William Courteen, and his assigns, in his life-time, used all possible endeavours to recover the said ships and goods, and to procure further justice against the malefactors, and yet could obtain no restitution or satisfaction; whereby they came to be much distressed, and utterly undone in their estate and credit: and thereupon, and upon the most humble supplication and addresses of Francis earl of Shrewsbury, and William Courteen, Esq; grandson and heir of the said Sir William, deceased, Sir John Ayton, and Sir William Turner, Knts. and George Carew, and Charles Whitaker, Esqrs. (on the behalf of themselves, and divers others interested in the said two ships, *Bona Esperanza*, and *Henry Bonadventure*, and in the estates of the said Sir William Courteen, deceased) Sir Edward Littleton, Bart. and Sir Paul Pindar, Knt. that we would take their case into our princely consideration: we, out of a just sense we then had, and still have, of their unjust sufferings in that business, both by our own letters, under our sign manual, to the States General of the United Provinces, and by Sir George Downing, Knt. and Bart. our envoy extraordinary, to whom we gave special command so to do, required satisfaction to be made, according to the rules of justice, and the amity and good correspondence which we then desired to conserve with them firm and inviolable. And whereas, after several addresses made to the States General by our said envoy, and nothing granted effectual for the relief of our said subjects (whom we take ourselves, in honour and justice, concerned to see satisfied and repaid) we lately commanded the said Sir George Downing to intimate, and signify to the said States, that we expected their final answer, concerning satisfaction to be made for the said ships and goods, by a time then prefixed, and since elapsed, that we might so govern ourselves thereupon, that our aforesaid subjects might be relieved according to right and justice; and yet no satisfactory answer hath been given; so that we cannot but apprehend it to be, not only a fruitless endeavour, but a prostituting of our honour and dignity, to make farther application, after so many denials and slights. And whereas John Exton, doctor of laws, judge of our high admiralty court of England, upon our command to certify to us

the value of the losses and damages sustained by the said Sir William Courteen, and partners, whose interest is now vested in our loving subjects Sir Edmund Turner, Knt. and George Carew, Esq; and partners, hath, upon full examination and proof thereof, made by witnesses in our high court of admiralty, reported and certified under his hand, that the same do amount to the sum of One hundred fifty-one thousand, six hundred, and twelve pounds.

Now KNOW YE, That for a full restitution to be made to them for their ships, goods, and merchandizes, of which the said Sir William Courteen, Knt. and partners, were so despoiled as aforesaid, with all such costs and charges as they shall be at for the recovery of the same: we, by the advice of our privy council, have thought fit, and by these presents do grant licence and authority, under our great seal of England, unto our said subjects, Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, administrators and assigns, for and on the behalf of themselves and other persons interested, as aforesaid, to equip, victual, furnish, and to set to sea, from time to time, such and so many ships and pinnaces as they shall think fit; provided always, that there be an entry made and recorded in the admiralty courts, of the names of all ships and vessels, and of their burthen and ammunition, and for how long time they are victualled, and also the names of the commanders thereof, before the same or any of them be set forth to sea; and with the said ships and pinnaces by force of arms to set upon, take, and apprehend any of the ships, goods, money, and merchandizes belonging to the States-General, or any of the subjects inhabiting within any of their dominions or territories, wheresoever the same shall be found, and not in any port or harbour in England or Ireland, unless it be the ships and goods of the parties that did the wrong. And the said ships, goods, money and merchandizes, being so taken, and brought into some port of our realms and dominions, an inventory thereof shall be taken, by authority of our court of admiralty, by the judge or judges thereof for the time being, upon proofs made before him or them that the said ships, goods, wares, merchandizes, or money, did belong to the States General, or any of their subjects, as aforesaid: that they shall be lawful prize to the said Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, administrators, and assigns, as aforesaid, to retain and keep in their or any of their possessions, and to make sale and dispose thereof in open market, or howsoever else, to their and every of their best advantage and benefit, in as ample manner as at any time heretofore hath been accustomed by way of reprisal, and to have and enjoy the same as lawful prize, and as their own proper goods: so that neither any captain, master, nor any of their company, that shall serve in person, or shall promote and advance the said enterprize, in manner and form aforesaid, shall in any manner or wise be reputed or challenged as an offender against any of our laws. And that it shall be lawful for all manner of persons, as well our subjects as any others, to buy the said ships, goods, and merchandizes, so taken and apprehended by the said captains, masters, and others, and adjudged as aforesaid, without any damage, loss, hindrance, trouble, molestation, or incumbrance to besal the said buyers, or any of them, in as ample and lawful manner as if the ships, goods, wares, and merchandizes, had been come and gotten by lawful traffic of merchants, or of just prizes in time of war. Provided always, that all ships, goods, and merchandize, taken by virtue of this our commission, shall be kept in safety; and no part of them wasted, spoiled, or diminished, or the bulk thereof broken, until judgment hath first passed as aforesaid, that they are the ships and merchandize of the States General, or some of their subjects, as aforesaid. And if, by colour of this our commission, there shall be taken any ships, goods, or merchandizes, of any of our loving subjects, or the subjects of any prince or state in good league or amity with (except the States General, or their subjects, as aforesaid) and the goods therein laden, sold and embezzled, or diminished, or the bulk thereof broken in any place, before they shall be adjudged to belong to the States General, or some of their subjects, as aforesaid, that then this commission shall not be of sufficient authority to take the said ships, goods, and merchandizes, or to warrant or save harmless such as shall receive, buy, or intermeddle therein; but that both the prizes so taken, and the said ships of war, shall be confiscated to our use.

And further we do hereby declare, That it is our will and pleasure that this our commission shall remain in full force and power to all intents and purposes, until the said Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, administrators, and assigns, as aforesaid, shall, by virtue thereof, have by force of arms apprehended, taken, seized, recovered, and received from the said States General, or their subjects, One hundred fifty-one thousand, six hundred and twelve pounds, according to the appraisement to be made, by appraisers upon oath, nominated and authorized in our said court of admiralty, of such ships, goods, wares, or merchandizes, as shall be taken from the said States General, or any of their subjects, by virtue of this commission, or shall otherwise receive satisfaction of the debt aforesaid, by composition to be

made between those of the East-India company of the Netherlands, and the said Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, administrators, and assigns, as aforesaid: notwithstanding the present difference between us and the said States General, depending upon general reprisals, may be agreed and composed, and that, in the interim, a good correspondence may be renewed between us and the said States General: in which case, nevertheless, it is our will and pleasure, that, in the execution of this our commission, no violence shall be done to the persons of the said subjects of the said States General, but only in case of resistance; and that after in cold blood, the subjects of the States General, if hurt or wounded, shall be used with all convenient offices of humanity and kindness, &c.

A proclamation for revoking the foregoing letters of marque and reprisals, published August 30, 1680.

Whereas George Carew, Esq; had formerly granted to him letters of marque against the States General of the United Provinces, for satisfaction of a certain demand which Sir William Courteen and others had against the said States, and to which the said George Carew was intitled, which said demand has since, by treaty of peace between his Majesty and the said States, been totally abolished and extinguished, and all letters of marque and reprisals by the same treaty discharged accordingly: and whereas his majesty has since recalled and suspended the said letters of marque, to the end that no person may be misled, under pretence of any letters of marque and reprisal heretofore granted to the said George Carew, and thereby incur the danger of the law as pirates, his Majesty is pleased, by this his proclamation to declare, that the said George Carew has now no authority and commission, by virtue of any such letters of marque, to equip or set out any vessel whatsoever; and that all persons that shall presume to be aiding to him in setting forth any such ship, or serve under him, by colour of any such pretended authority, shall be proceeded against as pirates, according to the utmost severity of the law.

REVENUE, [PUBLIC REVENUE]. REVENUE, in its ordinary acceptation, is the yearly rent, or profits, arising to a man from his lands, possessions, &c. The public revenue of this kingdom is the yearly income, or sums raised, at present, by the authority of king, lords, and commons, for the support of the state.

The success of a kingdom, says a judicious writer, depends upon a wise regulation of its REVENUES. When taxes are not levied in the manner they ought to be, they are the ruin of the subject, a moth in the treasury, the universal lamentation of a kingdom, and the interest and joy of foreigners. But a prudent disposition of them is the soul of a state, the life of the people, glory to a prince, grief and distress to foreigners, and a perpetual fountain of the richest blessings to human life.

As not only the interest of trade, but the maintenance of the liberties of these kingdoms, will ever consist in keeping princes dependent on the parliament for the money that shall be exacted from the people; it may be useful to give a short history how the public money has been levied, from the Conquest to the Revolution in 1688, and from that æra to the present time.

KING WILLIAM I.

Having conquered England, his WILL became a law, and he looked upon all the land and treasure of the nation as his own. He distributed the greatest part of the English lands among his NORMANS, and others, who helped him in the conquest; whereby he secured their attachment, and effectually depressed the natives.—He also divides the lands into baronies and knights fees.—He causes an exact survey to be taken of all the lands; by which he knew distinctly every acre of arable, meadow, pasture, common, wood, marsh, and every other sort, and taxed them all to their value.—He rated, in like manner, all towns, cities, boroughs, and villages.—This survey is preserved in the Exchequer, in the Doomsday-Book.—He established the duty of Danegeld, on account of pirates, but exempted the church from the payment of it, yet he caused all the monasteries to be plundered of their money.—He brings under military servitude all the bishoprics and abbeys that held baronies.—Makes inquiry in every county how many acres were sufficient yearly for one plough, &c.—Causes inquisition to be made what assessment each city, castle, &c. paid yearly.—Takes 6s. of each plough-land, or hide, throughout the kingdom, and extorts immense sums from all people promiscuously.

R E M A R K S.

What all these incomes of the Conqueror might amount to is not possible to be known, there being no estimates extant even of those sums which he raised by way of tax; nor can there be any account of all the other profits he made by the several ways above mentioned.—He stood not in need of parliaments to supply his wants, who had it in his power to take all that his subjects possessed.—However arbitrary and lawless this absolute monarch and conqueror was, yet, it has been said, that he did not absolutely abolish the rights, laws, and customs

customs of the English people, but submitted himself, in some measure, to those contained in the Doomsday-Book.

After the Saxons were settled in England, their silver coins were generally all of a size, and ill-minted, which they called pennies, worth about three-pence of our money, and also half-pennies and farthings, and half-farthings, called stica's. After the Norman conquest, a pound of gold being divided into 24 carats, and every carat into 4 grains, the old sterling, as it was afterwards called; or right standard of gold, consisted of 23 carats and 3 grains and a half of fine gold, and half a grain of alloy of copper or silver. Also, a pound of silver being divided into 12 ounces; and every ounce into 20 pennyweights, and every pennyweight into 24 grains, a pound weight of old sterling consisted then, as it does at present, of 11 ounces 2 pennyweights of fine silver; and 18 pennyweights of alloy.

KING WILLIAM RUFUS;

Son and successor to the Conqueror, spared no manner of rapine or simony.—Holds most of the church-lands in his own hands, and farms them out to the laity.—Extorts 5000 marks from the cathedral of Lincoln.—Exacts 10s. a man from 20,000 foot.—Seizes all the effects of the archbishop and church of Canterbury.—Demands Danegeld of all the barons.—Draws the wealth of the church into his own treasury.—In short, he flayed the people with taxes and exactions in every shape; and having oppressed and ruined his subjects, he was snatched away with a violent death.

R E M A R K S.

This prince not only governed as his father had done, in a despotic manner, as inheriting all that he did, and, consequently, had the same property in all the lands and all his revenues; but he oppressed both clergy and laity without mercy, laying the most unreasonable impositions on their lands, houses, and effects of every kind; insomuch that no man could call any thing his own; and in this manner he reigned, or raged, for the space of near 13 years.—At the time of his death, this king held in his own hands the archbishopric of Canterbury, the bishoprics of Winchester and Salisbury, and 12 abbies, which he was wont to sell, or let out to farm, or keep them to himself: he had all the vices of his father without his virtues.—Ranulph Flambert, a man of oppressive principles and mean birth, was his treasurer, and the projector of most of the unjustifiable ways practised by the king to extort money from his subjects.

The two first kings after the Conquest coined only pennies: they agree, as near as can be judged, in weight and goodness, with the pennies of the Saxon kings, their immediate predecessors. It is therefore reasonable to think that king William introduced no new weight into his mints; but that the same weight used there for some ages after, and called the pound of the Tower of London, was the old pound of the Saxon monies before the Conquest. This pound was lighter than the Troy pound by three quarters of an ounce Troy, and did not very sensibly differ from 12 ounces of the weight still used in the money affairs of Germany, and there known by the name of the Colonia weight. And whereas the present standard of England, of 11 ounces 2 pennyweights fine, to 18 pennyweights of alloy, is called, in the oldest accounts of the Mint extant, the old standard, or the standard of the old sterlings, it is most probable that these pennies were of that standard, and that the pound of the Tower of such standard silver was then cut into 240 of these pennies: whence the weight of the penny will be found 22 Troy grains and a half; and the intrinsic value of 20 shillings, or of 240 such pennies of full weight, was the same as the value 58 SHILLINGS and one-penny half-penny of our present coined money.

Of the payment of the king's revenue in those ancient times.

At first, the tenants of knights fees answered to their lords by military services; and the tenants of socage lands and demesnes, in great measure, by work and provisions: afterwards, the revenue of the crown was answered in gold and silver, and sometimes in horses, dogs, and birds of game, and the like, and sometimes in both together. When a man paid money into the Exchequer, it was said, in Thesauo liberavit so much; and the same phrase continueth to this day. These payments were made Ad scalam & ad pensum, and in blank silver and numero, by tale. Ad scalam was by paying six-pence over and above each pound, or 20 shillings, which at first was thought sufficient to make good the weight; ad pensum was the person's making good the deficiencies of weight, though it was more than six-pence per 20 shillings. But as the money might be deficient in fineness, as well as weight, a third way of payment was by melting down part of the money paid in, and reducing it to plate of a due fineness; when the ferm was melted down, it was said to be dealbated, or blanched. As suppose a ferm of a hundred pounds was paid into the Exchequer, after the melting, as before observed, it was said to be a hundred pounds blank: frequently the twentieth part of one shilling was accepted in lieu of melting, to save trouble and charges. The payment

by numero, or tale, needs no explanation. Payments, or at least computations, were made by marks and half marks, ounces and half ounces of gold; and in pounds, marks, half marks, shillings, pence, &c. of silver. The mark of gold was equal to 120 shillings of silver; the ounce of gold was equivalent to 15 shillings of silver; the pound of silver by tale was 20 shillings; the mark 13 shillings and four-pence; and the shilling consisted of 12 pence; and a penny was the twentieth part of an ounce, equal to our three-pence.

KING HENRY I.

Succeeds his brother William in the fulness of the sovereign prerogative. The first imposition he laid was three shillings on every hide of land, to marry his daughters.—Anno Dom. 1104; he exacted a prodigious sum of money of this kingdom, and the land lay under grievous and exorbitant oppressions, the discord being revived between him and his brother Robert, earl of Normandy.—He also seizes the archbishopric of Canterbury into his own hands, and left 100,000l. at his death; besides plate and jewels.—The charter this prince granted the nation upon his accession to the crown, is one of the most remarkable particulars of his reign, during which England enjoyed a prodigious plenty of all things: for a shilling; at this time, might be bought as much corn as would serve 100 men a day; and for a groat, which was also the price of a sheep, as much hay and oats as 20 horses could eat in the same time. This was owing to the scarcity of money.

The coined pennies of this prince, the first Henry, were like those of his father and brother, to which, as the historians very particularly tell us, he added half-pennies also.

The manner of paying in and computing the king's money being shewn at the end of William Rufus's reign, it may not be amiss briefly to shew here how the royal revenue was levied; and the manner of issuing it. (1.) As to the levying, the person principally intrusted was the sheriff of each county, who, in those days, was an officer of great authority; however, there were several other stated collectors and accountants, namely, the escheators, the farmers, (or custodes of such towns and burghs as were not within the sheriff's receipt) the custodes cambii, or customers, the keepers of the wardrobe, and, in general, all persons who held bailiwicks from the king, or received any of his treasure or revenue by imprest, or otherwise, were obliged to render an account thereof, and, in succeeding times, the collectors of tallages, dismes, quinzimes, &c. But, in case these officers could not enforce the king's debtors to make payment, the sheriff was armed with sufficient power to do it. The most ancient process made use of was the summon of the Exchequer, which issued twice a year into all the counties of England, and was returnable against the times of holding the Duo scaccaria, namely, the Scaccarium Paschæ, or Exchequer of Easter, and the Scaccarium St Michaelis, or Exchequer of Michaelmas, which were the general terms for the sheriffs and other accountants, to pay in their farms or rents, and other issues of their bailiwicks. This was the ordinary process; but, upon urgent occasions, the king sometimes issued special writs to the sheriff, and others concerned in collecting the revenue, commanding them to levy debts, &c. with all speed.

(2.) As to the manner of issuing the king's money: this was done several ways. Whilst the money remained in the hands of the sheriffs, farmers, or others, it was usual for the king, his chief justices, great officers of his court, treasurer, or barons of the Exchequer, to order them by writ to make provisions and payments out of the money in their hands. This writ was sometimes called the sheriff's warrant; for, upon producing it, he had allowance made to him de tanto upon his account. Sometimes the king's money was issued by way of prest, or imprest, either out of the receipt of Exchequer, the wardrobe, or other the king's treasuries. Imprest seems to have been of the nature of a concreditum, or accommodatum, and when a man had money impressed to him, he became accountable to the crown for the same. In the 5th year of king Stephen, an account was rendered at the Exchequer of certain monies impressed to the accountant, when the empress came into England. Mag. Rot. 5 Steph.

According to ancient usage, the king's treasure was to be issued, by virtue of a writ or mandate, under the great and privy seal, and directed sometimes to the justices and barons of the Exchequer, but commonly to the treasurers and chamberlain of the receipt; and the writ was founded upon a bill or certificate from the Exchequer, or Wardrobe, or other matter of record. But the usual writ for issuing of the king's money out of the Exchequer was the Liberate (so called from that word used in it) directed to the treasurer and chamberlain. This writ was of two sorts: a liberate for paying a sum hac vice only, and a liberate current, or dormant, for paying in continuance, or more than once. The reader may see instances of these things in Madox's History of the Exchequer, ch. 6, 10.

KING STEPHEN

Imposes no regular taxes, but raises all monies by plundering and robbing.—Seizes on all his predecessor's, king Henry's, treasure.

treasure.—Raifes Danegeld, contrary to his solemn promise, and seizes on the treasures left by the bishop of Salisbury.

R E M A R K S.

The whole time that Stephen held the crown was one continued scene of blood and devastation; the government being quite unhinged, and all brought into confusion, the sword decided all controversies, and taxes in general were raised by lawless oppression.

I. Having shewn, in the former reigns, how the money was paid in, and issued out of the Exchequer, it may not be amiss now to represent the particular branches of the royal revenue, namely, 1. The demesns of the crown. 2. Escheats. 3. Feudal and other profits, arising out of the demesns and escheats. 4. The yearly farms of counties and towns. 5. Fines and amerciaments. 6. Aids, scutages, tallages and customs. 7. Casual profits of divers kinds.

These particulars give great light to several parts of the English history. First, of the ancient demesns of the crown, it appears, at the time of the Conquest, and afterwards, the demesns lands were considerable for extent and income. Doomsday-Book shews what they were in the reign of Edward the Confessor, and serves to distinguish the king's demesns from his escheats, and other lands, and from the lands of other men.

II. The second branch of the revenue arose by escheats, under which term are comprehended not only those lands most properly so called, but those also which at sundry times after the Conquest became vested in the crown, either by devolution, forfeiture, seizure, or, perhaps, by some other title.

By the revenue-rolls of the Pipe of the reigns of Stephen and Henry II. (which, next to Doomsday, are the most ancient rolls of records now extant) and likewise by those of the next succeeding kings, we find the crown then in possession of several great honours, baronies, and lands, of that sort which are usually stiled honor, baronia, or terra of such a one, with the addition sometimes of *Quæ est in manu regis*, without expressing by what title they became vested in the crown. These great escheats were anciently committed usually by the king to certain persons in ferm, or custody, who answered at the Exchequer yearly for the issues, or ferm thereof. Besides the greater fees, the lands of lower persons, and sometimes of hereditary offices and serjeantries, with the lands appertaining thereto, became forfeited to the crown.

As the king had the full dominion in all these escheats, after they had been long vested in the crown, they were hardly to be distinguished from the king's ancient demesns. About the latter end of king Henry the Second's reign, they began to form an escheatry, which, in subsequent times, was managed by officers called at first custodes escheatriæ, and afterwards escators: however some of the smaller escheats were usually holden by the sheriffs. When escheats came to the crown, the justices itinerant took care, within their several circuits, to have them seized to the crown, and put in charge to the sheriffs, and other officers, to the king's profit.

III. Some revenues likewise accrued to the crown from vacant bishoprics, and abbies of royal foundation and patronage: for in ancient times, when such bishop or abbot happened to die, the king used to seize the temporalities into his hands, and receive the profits till the vacancy was filled.

KING HENRY II.

Lays a tax called escuage, or scutage.—Imposes scutage again, in the 5th year of his reign; and again in the 7th instant.—Obliges the Jews to pay a tallage or donum.—Lays two-pence in the pound upon all arable lands and wines; as also upon goods, houses, and employments, one year.—Lays a penny in the pound for four years after.—Raifes an aid for marrying his daughter, of one mark for each knight's fee throughout England.—Lays another scutage in his 18th year, and another in the 33d year.—Takes of the Jews a fourth part of their chattels, by way of tallage.—Levies a tenth throughout all his dominions.—Levies a tenth of all moveables in his 35th year.—Keeps the bishopric of Lincoln vacant 17 years, and six others for a long time, as well as 12 abbies.—Keeps also the archbishopric of York vacant 10 years, and leaves behind him 900,000l.

R E M A R K S.

I. The two first branches of the royal revenue being spoken of already, namely the demesns of the crown and escheats, the third branch is the feudal, and other profits arising from thence, as reliefs; upon the death of his ancestor, every heir that held his lands by barony, or knights service, was obliged to pay a sum of money to the king, on his taking possession of the inheritance. These reliefs were at first uncertain, till Magna Charta, when an earl paid an hundred pounds, a baron one hundred marks, a knight, for one fee, five pounds.

Here it must be observed, that some baronies were much larger than others, and so of the knights fees. This difference

arose from the respective charters of the feoffment; for, if the king enfeoffed a man of forty knights fees, to hold by barony, or ten knights fees, to hold by barony, the tenure was barony in each case. So, also, if the king enfeoffed a man of twenty carues of land, to hold by the service of one knight, or forty carues, to hold by the service of one knight, the feoffee had, in each case, one knight's fee. For this reason, at certain times, a distinction was made between the baronies and fees of the old, and those of the new feoffment, the old being commonly larger than those of the new; notwithstanding this difference, the relief of the barony, or fee, whether it was greater or lesser, was the same. But when two baronies came to be vested in one man, he was charged with a relief for each.

IV. Another feudal profit was wardship and marriage. During the nonage of the heirs of the king's tenants in capite, the king could dispose of the custody and marriage of them to whom he pleased, which raised him a great revenue.

A fourth branch of the revenue, was the yearly farms of the counties. From the reign of king William I. the king used to let out the several counties, upon a yearly ferm or rent, or commit them to custody. The fermor, or committee, was usually stiled sheriff. Most, if not all the counties, as appears by the revenue-rolls, were thus lett at ferm in king Stephen's reign. When a county was lett for more than formerly, the improvement was called crenementum, the increment; which was sometimes answered in palfreys, hawks, &c. 2. The yearly farms of the towns, burghs, and gilds. It is to be remembered, that from the time of the Conquest, the cities and towns were invested either in the crown, or the clergy, or the baronage. Some of these towns the king was possessed of, as part of the original inheritance of the crown, others by ancient escheat, just as his other lands. When the king was seized of a city or town in demesns, he was lord of the soil, viz. of all the land within the site and precinct thereof, of all the burgage-houses, sheds, stalls, and buildings, herbage, profits of fairs and markets, pleas and perquisites of courts; in a word, of all issues, profits, and appurtenances, of the city or town, of any kind, that was not alienated by himself or ancestors. For sometimes the crown thought fit to grant some part, or profit, to a private person or monastery.

Such a city or town was commonly stiled civitas regis, villa regis, burgus regis; and the men homines or burgenses regis. The yearly profit made by the king of his cities and towns, was paid him several ways. The issues of some were included in the general farms of the county where they lay, and were answered by the sheriff. Sometimes the king committed them to fermers, or custodes, distinct from the sheriffs. In a word, sometimes the king lett his town to the townsmen, at ferm for years, or in fee-ferm, that is, perpetual ferm for ever: since feodum, fee, was used in England, to signify a perpetual estate, it has been used to denote perpetuity in office and in rent. Thus inheritable offices have been rendered offices in fee.

When a town was put to fee-ferm, the tenure was burgage, particular burgage, tenements lying in the town, as well as the town itself, were said to be so holden. In process of time, most of the towns and burghs came to be lett to the respective townsmen or burgesses, at fee-ferm.

To the farms of the towns, may be referred the farms or yearly payments to the crown, by the gilds and mesteres. The word gild signifies a company, society, brotherhood, by which last name the religious gilds were called, that were founded for devotion and almsdeeds, as the secular gilds were chiefly for trade and almsdeeds. These gilds could not be set up without the king's warrant. The gilds of goldsmiths, bochers, and others, were amerced in London to the crown as adulterine, in the reign of Henry II.

There was also in former times a secular gild, called gilda mercatoria, a merchant gild. From these gilds, perhaps, sprung the practice of gildating or embodying whole towns. In time, the several gilds of goldsmiths, salters, &c. were stiled corporations, or companies. All these gilds paid a yearly ferm to the king. As for the mesteres, it is to be observed that this word has no relation to the word mystery, as if there was, it is vulgarly said, some mystery in every trade. For though mystery has been used for many years past for a craft, or occupation, the true derivation is from the Gallic mistera, mester, or mestier, signifying a trade. Thus we find in Edward III. the mistere of taylors, armourers, and others. The other three remaining branches of the revenue, will be given in the succeeding reign.

The pennies of the second Henry were the same in value as the foregoing, and they were also of different forms; such a regularity in this particular, as afterwards took place, not being yet established in the mints.

KING RICHARD I.

Levies a land-tax, in order for his expedition to the Holy Land.—Raifes money by fining severely those who were convicted of corruption.—Sells the whole county of Durham to the bishop for an immense sum.—Takes 1000 marks of the same bishop, to make him chief justice.—He raises a large sum

sum of the citizens of London, which was the price of their liberties, which he granted them at that time.—He makes a new GREAT SEAL; and raises money by renewing of old grants.—Imposes a tax of a fourth part of the revenues of all persons, both ecclesiastical and secular, for one year; and likewise a fourth part of all their moveables, and 20s. of every knight's fee, besides all the wools of the Cistercians, &c. and abundance of church plate.—He re-assumes all his grants, and levies a tax of 2l. on every hide of land.—Raises 5s. on every hide of land.—Takes 2s. on every carucate of land, and raises 1,100,000 marks by his chief-justice the archbishop of Canterbury, in two years.

REMARKS.

This sum of 1,100,000 marks is the only positive sum we hear of raised in this king's reign, all the others being nowhere expressed. The 1,100,000 marks, amount to 753,332l. for the two years, that is, 376,666l. per ann. a sum then thought very grievous.

The next great branch of the revenue was, V. Fines, oblatas, and amerciaments of many kinds, in civil and criminal cases, and for the forests. It is surprising to see, how numerous the fines and amerciaments, appearing upon the revenue-rolls of the antient times, were. As to fines for the profit, it suffices to observe, that by the revenue-rolls of Henry II. and Richard I. and king John, an ancient revenue was raised, by trespasses, defaults, purprestures, &c.

As to the fines in civil and criminal cases, they may be reduced to these three general heads; fines for liberties, fines in law proceedings, and fines of a mixed nature. But first, it may be observed, after a fine was preferred and accepted, if the party could not have the thing for which he was fined, he was then acquitted of the fine, in such like words, Sed non debet inde summoneri quia non habuit rectum nec habere potuit. However, a small fine was sometimes paid for such acquittal. When the party obtained the thing for which he was fined, he was wont to have the king's charter made to him. If the party fining failed in payment of his fine, he could not have his charter for the thing desired.

When a fine was preferred and refused, if the party offered an addition, it was called *crementum finis*. 1. As for fines of the first sort, for grants and confirmations of liberties, franchises, and exemptions, there are numberless instances on the revenue-rolls. 2. The fines in law proceedings were likewise very numerous, and brought in a very considerable revenue. The several instances may be reduced to these heads: fines to have justice and right, fines for writs, pleas, trials, and judgments; fines for expedition, or speeding their right; fines for stopping, or delay of pleas, trials and judgments.

Sometimes the parties litigant preferred the crown a certain portion out of the debts which they recovered. Moderate fines for having justice were constantly paid, as well after the great charter as before. 3. Fines of a mixed nature. Many were made to hold or quit certain offices or bailiwicks, for divers licences, especially to marry, &c. Many fines were laid relating to trade or merchandize. Hither refer the fines and dismes, paid by merchants upon several occasions, of which hereafter. Besides fines for licences, there were others of divers kinds: as for the concord of a duel, for opening a mine, &c.—There were also fines for the king's favour, and to remit his displeasure.—For his protection and aid.—To obtain his mediation in his subjects affairs.—To have seizure or restitution of their lands or chattels, and that they might not be disseized.—That men might be discharged out of prison, or bailed to the custody of lawful men.—For acquittals in divers cases.—Concurrent fines were when the parties fined to obtain the same thing: counter fines, when they fined, the one for a thing, the other against it.—For respite of knighthood.

And, as it was usual to set amerciaments for not taking knighthood after summons, so the king often seized the lands of military tenants for the same reason.—The revenue arising from misericordias or amerciaments, which in ancient times are scarce to be distinguished from fines. It is likely, however, there was some difference between them. For instance, it was called an amerciament, after it was reduced to a certain sum, and a misericordia, both before and afterwards. When a misericordia was reduced to a certain sum, it was said to be admeasured or affected, e. g. *Warnius de quedic debet C. Marcas de misericordia, sed postea ammensuratus fuit per justiciarium et barones ad LX marcas. Mag. Rot. 9 Joh.*

By Magna Charta, earls and barons are not to be amerced, unless by their peers, and according to their trespass. It was frequent for some persons to be amerced for the defaults of others.—When general amerciaments were set upon hundreds, towns, &c. for murders, or the like, so much thereof as was charged upon lands, within the said hundred, &c. which the king held in demesne, was charged of course. Lands holden by the queen, and by several barons and lords of seigneuries, were free from common amerciament. Barons of the Exchequer were exempt here from fees for their lands and tenants. Ecclesiastical fees were likewise exempt from the

same, and other persons by virtue of charters. Divers lords of seigneuries were, by charter, entitled to have to their own use the amerciaments arising within their seignory. However, the lords were to claim the same at the Exchequer, which is frequently done to this day. See Madox's History of the Exchequer, &c.

The next great branch of the revenue was, VI. Aid; scutages tallages, and customs. In former times the payments to the king were called by the names of danegelt, aid, donum, scutage, tallage, &c. and in succeeding times, subsidy, quinzime, vintisme, &c. several of the former then continuing in use.—There were three sorts of aids due to the crown of common right, or by reason of seignory.—Aid to make the king's eldest son a knight, to marry his eldest daughter, and to ransom his person when taken in war. These aids were rendered by all persons, who held of the king in capite.—All the king's tenants were to pay aid, whether they held of the king immediately, by barony, or knight's service, or by serjeantry, with knight's service annexed; and by persons who held of the king immediately, either by rent service, socage, or other service, that was not military, whether they lived on the lands that were ancient demesne, or on honours and lands escheated to the king, and on lands of his wardships and purchases. King William I. took 6s. of each hide through England, king Henry I. 3s. as aid *pur fille marier*. But, for want of requisite notices concerning these aids, nothing distinctly can be learnt of their produce.

The first that gives any insight into these matters, is an aid levied by Henry II. for marriage of his daughter Maud, to the duke of Saxony, namely one mark per fee. It was paid by the several barons and knights, holding in capite, according to the number of their respective fees. For the due levying this aid, the barons and tenants in capite were commanded to certify to the king what fees they had, how many of the old, and how many of the new feoffment, and of whom the same were holden.—The fees of the new feoffment were small, and paid by 12s. per fee, when those of the old paid 20s. Several ecclesiastical persons, besides the aid for their fees rendered a farther sum, under the terms *de promissione sua*. Madox observes the same was paid also by laics, and therefore thinks, when paid by them it was a *donum*; and when by ecclesiastics, *donum prelatorum*. The vacant bishoprics and abbeys of royal foundation rendered aid, being reckoned among the escheats. It was also paid by the towns and manors, or lands, which the king held in demesne, and was assessed by the justices itinerant, or with their approbation.

King Richard I. levied an aid for the ransom of his person. It was paid by the tenants in capite, under the name of scutage, at the rate of 20s. per fee. Another part of this aid was answered at the Exchequer, by the name of hidage, or an aid charged on lands holden by other service, than that of the shield. The carucage paid for the same ransom, is also called an aid. Henry III. had an aid to make his son a knight, 40s. of every knight's fee. This aid was paid by tenants in capite, and to the king's tenants in capite, by such as so held of them, by knight's service. When tenants in capite paid aid to the king, he granted that they might receive aid pro rata of their tenants in capite.—The aid to make a son a knight, or for marrying a daughter, was not demandable from lands held either in frankalmoinage or socage. Besides these three noted aids, there were others. In the 5th of Stephen an aid was paid to the crown by the burghs and towns. This seems to have been a yearly payment. An aid of the like kind was rendered at this time also, as it seems, by the counties, assessed by the justices itinerant. Richard I. took 5s. out of every caruc, or hide of land, through all England. In process of time the word aid came to be used in a large indefinite sense, and there came into use a new word, *subsidium*, which was rarely used in the more ancient times. A subsidy was granted to Edward II. for his war with Scotland. It is called a *donum*. The city of London paid 2000 marks. Besides the general aids, or those extending through the whole kingdom, there were certain ones imposed upon the demesnes, escheats, &c. of particular counties and places, for certain purposes relating thereto. An aid by way of hidage, was laid on Devon and Cornwall, for the siege of the isle of William de Marisco. Inferior lords of seigneuries had their tenants, the three notable aids, to make his son a knight, marry his eldest daughter, and to ransom his person. They had also of their tenants other occasional aids, as to enable them to pay their relief for seizure, or other fine, and also to pay their debts. This was done by the king's letters patent, directed to the tenants. But these were only letters of request. For it is provided by king John's charter, that the king should not, for the future, grant leave to take an aid of his freemen, save in the three cases above-mentioned.

As king Richard I. reigned almost ten years, it can hardly be doubted but he must have coined some money in that time, and that it was of the same sort and value as that of his predecessors, and of his immediate successor. It is reasonable also to think, that the king's long absence out of England, his expedition to the Holy Land, his captivity, and the large

sums paid abroad for his ransom *, together with his wars in France after his release, must have occasioned great scarcity of money at home, and small coinages during all the time of his reign.

* King Richard's ransom to the emperor, was settled at 150,000 marks of silver, after the Colonia weight; and of these 100,000, being all he could then get raised, were carried over by the queen-mother in person, and at once paid down before he could obtain his liberty. An immense sum for that age, amounting to no less than 194,000*l.* sterling of our present silver money.

KING JOHN

Takes a seventh part of the moveables of all his subjects.—Raises two marks and a half on every knight's fee.—Seizes on all the temporalities of the clergy.—Tortures the Jews in order to extort money from them.—Takes an escuage of two marks per fee.—Has an aid from the prelates.—Fines the city of London in 1000*l.*—Lays a tallage upon the Jews of Bristol.—And lays new exactions upon the people every year of his reign, but three.

R E M A R K S.

Having spoken under the preceding reign, of the revenue arising from AID's, we proceed to scutages and tallages. Escuage, or scutage, was a service arising out of baronies and knights fees. It denoted the service of the shield, and was rendered for every knight's fee, the service of one knight; for every half fee, the service of half a knight; and so in proportion. Baronies were charged after the like manner, according to the number of knights fees whereby the barony, by its original enfeoffment, did consist. This service of scutage was performed either personally in the king's army, or by pecuniary commutation.—These escuages, pro exercitu, were wont to be paid by the king's tenants in capite, by knights service.—A man might hold of the king in capite, either by barony or by knights service, or by serjeantry, socage, or fee-farm; consequently, it is a mistake made by some great men, that a baron and a tenant in capite was all one: for though every baron, properly so called, was a tenant in capite, yet every tenant in capite (there being some of half, or quarter, or a tenth part of a knight's fee) was not a baron. The first scutage, says Alexander de Swereford, was assessed 2 Henry II, for the army of Wales, 20 shillings for each knight's fee, and only upon those prelates who were bound to military service.—The second scutage, says he, was for the same, 5 Henry II, but assessed not only upon the prelates, but others, according to the number of their fees: this scutage is intitled *de dono*. He observes, that the donum of the prelates makes a sum answerable to the number of fees held of the king in capite, and therefore a real scutage: this was two marks per fee.—In the 18th of Henry II, the escuage of Ireland came to be put in charge. To this several are charged under this title, as the escuage of knights who did not go into Ireland, nor send any knights or money.

As escuage was rendered for fees holden of the king in capite by knights service, *ut de corona*, so it was rendered for fees holden of honours, and escheats, which were in the king's hands, and for fees holden of the lands purchased by the king, and for fees holden of the king's wards: for the tenants holding of the king's wardships and escheats, were immediate tenants of the king, whilst they rested in him. It is to be understood, that in general, escuage was paid according to the sum that was assessed; suppose at the rate of one, two, or three marks for each fee. Yet it was something doubtful of how many knights fees a man or his ancestors were enfeoffed, consequently, what sum he was to pay for escuage.—This frequently happened in the case of ecclesiastical persons, by reason of the antiquity of their endowments, so that the form of their enfeoffment could not be easily known in succeeding times, and because it was many times doubtful whether they held some of their lands by barony and military service, or in frank-almoigne.—In the case of other persons, some honours or baronies consisted of more knights fees than others did, and some fees were larger than others; insomuch that it was doubtful, whether a man held by barony, or knight's service, whether by the service of one knight's fee, or of more, or of how many knights fees.—On the other hand, some knights fees were remarkably small; such were the fees of the honour of Moreton. As escuage was paid out of knights fees, so there were also some serjeantries paid the same. Escuage-money was in lieu of personal service: but personal service was required more strictly, if not solely of the tenants holding by knights service in capite *ut de corona*.

If the barons and knights holding in capite did not go in person with the king in his army, they sometimes sent knights in their stead, and sometimes made fine with the king. As the lord who held of the king in capite by knights service, paid escuage for his knight's fee, so the servants of such lord who held the same fees by knights service, paid escuage to their lord, according to the quantity of their tenure. The tenant paid escuage to their lord, to enable him to pay escuage to the king, or reimburse him when he paid it.

Having thus given a general idea of escuage, we shall briefly speak of Danegeld, which was different from either aid, escuage, or tallage. It was first set on foot in the Anglo-Saxon times: however, it continued many years after the Conquest. In the reign of Henry I, in the year 1114, it was paid throughout the kingdom. In Stephen's reign it was accounted for in every county, as if it were a settled yearly revenue, which, however, is matter of doubt.—The famous author of the Dialogue concerning the Exchequer, seems to have thought it a yearly revenue before; but not after the Conquest. It may be traced by the rolls to the reign of Henry II, though it does not appear to be paid in the latter part of his reign, nor in those of Richard I. and John.

Tallage and custom we shall describe in the succeeding reign.

Pennies, half-pennies, and farthings, were coined by king John in Ireland, where it should seem his principal mint was.

KING HENRY III.

Levies 15 scutages, and innumerable other taxes.—Takes a fifteenth of all moveables.—Levies a scutage of three marks per fee on all baronies, and a fourth of all moveables.—Seizes the treasure of his late chief-justice Hubert.—Levies a thirtieth of all moveables.—Raises 20,000 marks of the Jews at one time, and another heavy ransom soon afterwards; insomuch that, to omit others, Aaron of York alone paid 4 marks of gold, and 4000 marks of silver. The king received the gold of every Jew, whether man or woman, with his own hand; the silver was received by others.—He also extorted gifts from the abbots and priors, in such manner, that, if what they offered did not please him, he rejected it, and they were obliged to enhance their offering, rather than incur his displeasure.—Anno Dom. 1244, the lords spiritual and temporal (for no mention is yet found of any commons) granted to the king, for marrying of his eldest daughter, 20 shillings scutage of all that hold of the king in capite.—Extorts by his own authority, from the Londoners, 15,000 marks.—Fines all that had incroached upon his forests.—Again compels the Londoners to pay 1000 marks tallage, and demands further new years gifts of all the wealthy citizens.—He fines Walter Clifford 1000 marks.—He compels the Londoners again to pay 1000 marks.—The clergy grant the king a tenth of all the church revenues for 13 years, for his journey to the Holy Land.—They again grant him 42,000 marks.—He arbitrarily fines the citizens of London.—Imposes tallages on the Jews, the one of 20,000, another of 60,000 marks, raises an aid for maintaining his eldest daughter.—Receives divers sums for their knights fees, of several bishops.—Has a vintisme granted him.—Has an aid to marry his sister.—Likewise another to make his son a knight.—Levies a scutage of two marks upon each knight's fee.—Has two shillings on every carucate in England.—Levies a tax of the fifteenth of all moveables and chattels.—Levies the same again the ensuing year.—Again extorts from the Jews a third of all they have.—Compels the Jews again to ransom themselves at 20,000 marks.—Takes a tenth of all the church revenues for three years.—Takes away forcibly the money deposited at Durham.—The Londoners again compelled to purchase their peace, at the price of 20,000 marks.—A thirtieth penny levied through all England, for the prince's expedition to the Holy Land.

R E M A R K S.

There were two sorts of tallage, one paid to the king, the other to a subordinate lord. That raised to the king was on his demesns, escheats, and wardships, and on the burghs and towns of the realm. When it was paid out of knights fees, it was scutage; when by towns and burghs, tallage; when out of lands not of military tenure, it signified hidage. So that the general word donum signified, according as it was applied, either aid, scutage, or tallage.

Tallage was called *assissa*, as well as donum, the former signifying, among other things, an assessment. Those manors were properly talliable to the king which he had of his own hands. Hence tallages are stiled, commonly, *Tallagies maneriorum & terrarum regis quæ tunc erant in manu ejus*, *Tallagi à dominicorum*, and the like. Under the terms *Quæ erant in manu ejus*, were comprehended the king's escheats and wardships, the king holding them *tanquam in dominico*. In fact, the king's escheats and wardships were wont to be tallaged, when tallage was assessed upon his demesns. Some serjeantries, also, of an inferior kind, and such as had no military service annexed to them, were wont to be tallaged with the king's demesns; but the king's serjeantries were not to be tallaged without a special precept. Those who were not the king's immediate tenants were tallageable, not to the king, but to their immediate lord. When a town was tallaged, the same was raised upon the men of the town who belonged to the gild, and made merchandize in the town. If the king granted away a demesn manor or town (that was wont to be tallaged) *una cum tallagiis hominum*, then such manor or town became tallageable to the grantee.

To the head of tallage (or to that of aid) may be referred the none, disme, quinzime, vintisme, trentisme; which were so called

called from the quantity or proportion of the payment, as their names import. The form of taxes, and levying the nones, &c. with the oaths taken by the taxers, and the commissions of the collectors, are to be seen upon the revenue-rolls. In these cases, the goods of the chief taxers were to be taxed by the treasurer and barons of the Exchequer, and the robes and sociates of the citizens and burgeses were not usually taxed with their other goods and moveables. Tallage was wont to be assessed upon the men of the demesns and towns, sometimes in gross, in communi; sometimes by poll, per capita, or per singulos; at other times partly one of those ways, and partly the other. If the assessors of tallage overrated any man, he used to obtain a writ formed upon his case, directed to the barons of the Exchequer, who, by virtue thereof, would relieve him, according to equity. Sometimes men were admitted to compound for the tallage imposed on them, by a fine to the king. As the king had tallage of his demesn-men, so some subordinate lords had tallage of theirs. These latter tallages were most seigneurial. — As the king had divers ways of raising money upon his demesn-men, so inferior lords dealt with their demesn-men after the like manner.

We proceed to the revenue arising by customs.—It was anciently called *consuetudo & custuma*: the former signified regal, episcopal, and other ecclesiastical dues, or payments, and exactions of many kinds. There was a custom or duty paid to the king for wines, called *prisa*, and *recta prisæ*: the proportion was one dolium before the mast, and another behind it. *Prise*, indeed, sometimes signified captures taken in war, sometimes for purveyance, impost, or capture of other kinds. In ancient times, the duty for wines called *prisæ*, was received for the king's use by divers officers. Besides the custom paid the king for wines, there were other duties payable to him by merchants, or traders, for their merchandizes imported or exported, and for commodities conveyed along the river Thames. The duties paid by merchants were anciently called *disme*, *quinzime*, &c. the duty paid for trafficking along the Thames, at least one sort of that duty, was called *avalagium* *Thamisie*. In the 6th of king John, William de Wrotham, and others, accounted for the *quinzime* of merchants at the several ports of England, except *Len*. The *quinzime* of London was 836 l. &c. of Boston, 780 l. &c. of *Len*, 651 l. &c. of Southampton, 712 l. &c. *Avalage* was a sort of toll. To these may be added, the duties paid to the king's chamberlain of London, for his use, the duties arising at Billingsgate, and by tonnage, &c. The 9th of Henry III, Andrew Buckeral and John Travers had *Ripa Regine*, or *Queen-Hithe*, in ferm, at 40 l. per annum. In process of time, the king's customs came to be generally called *custuma*. The 26th of Edward I, there was payable to the king for customs, for every sack of wool exported from *Len*, half a mark, for every 300 *pelles lanutæ* half a mark, and for every last of leather one mark. Customers were appointed for *Len*, and other parts, as Newcastle, Kingston upon Hull, Bristol, London, &c. If merchants defrauded the king of his customs, they forfeited their goods uncustomed.—The VIIth branch of the royal revenue was the casual revenue, which accrued to the king several ways: of this sort were treasure-trove, waif, wreck, chattels of fugitives and felons, of outlaws, usurers, recreants, persons executed, &c. The king had, in some cases, the lands of persons condemned, for a year and a day after condemnation. If felons died after the fact, and before conviction, his chattels were not, by the common law, forfeited to the king. By the ancient revenue-rolls it appears, that, in those times, many branches of the king's revenue were charged with alms for pious uses; to which may be added the *decimæ constitutæ*. These the accountant constantly paid out of the revenue. Divers orders of monks had these yearly alms, or *decimæ*. Several pensions also were wont to be paid to certain of the king's servants, when disabled by age or sickness, viz. a penny, three halfpence, two pence a day.

When persons made fine to the king, they paid to the queen, besides, a duty called *aurum regine*, which her majesty sometimes respited, or discharged the debt, at pleasure: for every 100 marks paid the king, the queen had one more of gold.

Having thus touched upon the several branches of the royal revenue, we shall conclude this reign with a succinct account of the exchequer of the Jews. The king of England was wont to draw a considerable revenue from these people residing in this realm, by tallage, and fines relating to law-proceedings, by amerciaments for misdemeanors, and by fines, ransoms, compositions, which they were forced to pay for the king's protection, for licence to trade, for discharges, for imprisonment, and the like. He would tallage the whole body at pleasure, and compel them to answer the tallage for one another. The king seemed to be absolute lord of their estates and effects, of their persons, their wives and children. They were a numerous body (being settled chiefly in the great towns of the realm) and by traffic, usury, and mortgages, they became very wealthy, both in money and land; but, as they fleeced the subjects, so the king fleeced them. The

place appointed for the management of the revenue of Judaism, was a part of the great Exchequer, where they had their records, wherein the writs and proceedings of the Judaism were entered; and summonses were issued out of the exchequer of the Jews for the king's debts, like as out of the great Exchequer. There was also a wardrobe of the Judaism, near the exchequer of the Jews. Certain persons were assigned to be curators of this revenue, who were usually stiled *custodes & iusticiarii Judæorum*. The Jewish charters, as those of other men, were called *chartæ* and *chirographa*; some of which were a kind of releases, others obligations to the Jews by others. The chirographers were, in ancient times, commonly Christians and Jews, acting together, though afterwards Christians only, and were planted in towns where there was a considerable number of Jews, as at London, Oxford, &c. If a charter made to a Jew was lost, or could not be found in the chest at the Exchequer, it was usual for the Jew to whom it was made, when he was satisfied the money was due upon it, to make an acknowledgement in the Exchequer, by way of release to the party. The having one part of the Jewish chirographs deposited in the king's treasury, was chiefly to prevent the falsity of the Jews, and to enable the king to recover the estates and credits of the Jews, and to get them into his coffers, whenever they should become, as they often did, forfeited, or devolute to the crown.

By the assize of the Judaism, the Jews might have a moiety of the lands, rents, and chattels of their Christian creditors in execution, till they were satisfied for the debt due to them. The Jews paid relief for their lands and for their chattels. A Jew's wife might have dower, or thirds, out of her husband's credits and chattels. In the 37th of Henry III. it was provided, that no Jews should remain in England without doing the king some service: that there should be no school for Jews in England; except in places where such schools were wont to be in king John's reign: that every Jew should be answerable to the rector of his parish for all parochial dues chargeable on his house: that no Christian should suckle the child of a Jew, nor any Christian man or woman serve any Jew or Jewess, nor eat with them, or abide in their house: that no Jew should have secret familiarity with a Christian woman, nor any Christian man with a Jewess: that no Jew or Jewess should eat or buy fish in Lent: that every Jew should wear a badge upon his breast: that no Jew should enter into any church or chapel, unless in passing to and fro: that no Jew should hinder another, who was willing to turn Christian: and that no Jew should be suffered to abide in any town without the king's licence, except in such where Jews were formerly wont to reside.—These articles were to be observed by the Jews, under pain of forfeiting their goods. Clause 77 Hen. III. m. 18.

Though the exchequer of the Jews was, to some purposes, distinct from the great Exchequer, yet both the exchequer of the Jews, and the acts and proceedings of the justices and chirographers of the Jews, were subject to the controul of the chief justiciary, and treasurer and baron of the Exchequer. The debts due from Christians to Jews were subject to such orders as the king thought fit to make. Sometimes the king would grant respite for the payment of such debts, and sometimes would discharge the debts thereof. In general, the king was wont to use the Jews with great severity when refractory, and shewed them favour when obedient. King John, in the second year of his reign, granted a charter of liberties to the Jews of England and Normandy, which the curious reader may see in Madox's History of the Exchequer, page 74. Henry III, for the support of such Jews as embraced the Christian religion, and were destitute of livelihood, founded a house at London, called *Domus Conventorum*, and endowed it with a competent revenue.

Although the Jews were permitted to settle in several populous towns, they were not welcome to the inhabitants. In the year 1290 (18 Edward I.) the growing or renewing revenue of Judaism, and the exchequer of the Jews, ceased, the Jews being, about that time, expelled out of England; but, by their expulsion, many escheats, both of lands and chattels, came into the king's hands.

KING EDWARD I.

Edward, Henry III's son, succeeding to the crown, imposed the first year a tallage per capita, appointing commissioners to see it levied.—The next he took a tenth from the clergy, exiling all usurers, under confiscation of goods, and corporal imprisonment.—Of the Jews he levied for tallage 5000 marks, the year succeeding.—In the fourth year he taxed his subjects at one fifteenth, and the Jews at 5 d. per head a tallage.—A tallage through Wales he assessed the sixth year, and 40s. scutage the next. Communia 7 Edward I, 40s. he took of every knight's fee.—On the Jews he again imposed 12,000 marks for redemption of their usury.—The next year he searched all the religious houses, and took to his use the money and plate.—The lords by themselves, without the commons, assessed for the king, the 18th year, such a levy as king Henry III. raised for marriage of his daughter.—In the 12th the king charges the clergy with a tenth, for six

ucceeding years.—The abbies are again searched in the 22d, and the lands of the priors aliens seized into the king's hands.—The nobility grant him the fifteenth penny.—The Jews are obliged to pay yearly 3 d. poll-money.—A tenth is granted throughout England, for the relief of the Holy Land.—He forces Lewellyn, prince of Wales, to buy his peace at 50,000l. in silver, and 1000 marks a year.—Takes 40s. upon each fee scutage.—Quits all claim to Normandy for 30 Parisian livres a year, &c.—A fifteenth of spiritual goods are granted to him by the clergy.—He takes up money by way of loan, for his war against the Welch.—He takes 50 marks for each knight's service.—Has the thirtieth penny granted by the people, upon all moveables, horses, armour, treasure, and apparel excepted.—Seizes on the treasure granted for relief of the Holy Land.—Takes 40s. scutage upon every knight's fee.—Imprisons all the Jews till they pay him 12,000l. Seizes on all the money deposited in monasteries.—Has an aid granted him for his wars in Gascony.—Has a tenth of all spiritual profits granted for one year.—The fifteenth penny granted for expelling the Jews.—A fifteenth of all goods granted for the relief of the Holy Land.—The tenth of all the temporals of religious persons granted by the pope.—The fifteenth of all temporals and spirituals granted.—Causes all the money in monasteries to be brought to London, &c.—Seizes into his hands all religious houses that were subordinate to foreign chapters.—Compels all the English prelates to pay him half of their spiritualities and temporalities.—The laity grant him a tenth of all their goods.—The bishop of Bath and Wells obliged to buy his peace, by paying 2000l.—Receives the seventh penny of his boroughs and demesns, for carrying on his wars.—The common sort of the laity grant him the twelfth penny of their estates, and the burgesses the seventh penny.—The clergy refuse him any aid, on pretence of an order from the pope to the contrary.—He seizes the temporalities of the clergy.—They grant him a tenth of their spiritualities and temporalities the next year. Has the fifteenth penny granted by the laity, for sealing Magna Charta.—Has the thirtieth penny granted by the clergy and laity.—Has a subsidy of a twentieth granted to him.—Has a thirtieth granted by the laity, and a twentieth by the clergy.—Banishes the Jews, and seizes their effects.—Receives the ninth penny of the people, the tenth of the clergy of the province of Canterbury, and the fifth of those of York, for confirming MAGNA CHARTA and CHARTA FORESTA.—Receives divers advantages from certain silver mines found in Devonshire.

R E M A R K S.

The reader is to observe, that the history of the royal revenue under the foregoing reigns is all matter of fact, taken from the revenue-rolls, and other records, and confirmed by Mr Madox, in his History of the Exchequer, and other good authorities.

The Exchequer was a court greatly concerned in the conservation of the prerogatives, as well as of the revenue of the crown. The authority and dignity of this court was esteemed so great, that the acts thereof were not to be examined or controuled in any other of the king's ordinary courts of justice. The Exchequer was a great repository of the king's records. Edward I. is supposed to be the first of our kings that perfectly fixed the standard of our coin. In the third year of his reign, the matter was thus ordered by Gregory Rockley, then mayor of London, and mint-master, That in a pound of money there should be 11 two-pence farthings, pure leaf-silver, and only seventeen pence half-penny farthing alloy; and this pound was to weigh 20 shillings and three-pence in account, each ounce two-pence, and every penny 24 grains and a half.

In 28 Edward I. an indented trial-piece, of the goodness of old sterling, was lodged in the Exchequer; and every pound weight Troy of such silver was to be shorn at 20 shillings and three-pence; according to which, the value of the silver in the coin was one shilling and eight-pence farthing an ounce. The king sent for foreign mint-masters, in the 18th year of his reign, to inform him of the manner of making and forging money. For the coining this money, the mint-masters had 30 furnaces in London, eight at Canterbury (besides three the archbishop had there) 12 at Bristol, 12 at York, and more in other great towns; in all which places the same hammered money of silver, supplied by the king's changers, who, according to certain rites prescribed them, took in the clipped, rounded, and counterfeited monies, to be recoined, and bought gold and silver of the merchants, to be fabricated into new monies; at the same time it was ordained, 'Quod proclametur per totum regnum quod nulla fiat confusa de nova moneta sub periculo vite & membrorum, & amissionis omnium terrarum & tenementorum, &c.'

This hammered money continued through all the reigns of succeeding kings and queens, till about the year 1663. There are no indentures with the mint-masters, by which one can certainly judge of the proportion of the fineness and alloy, to be observed in the fabrication of the monies till the reign of Edward III, as will be seen hereafter.

The pennies, half-pennies, and farthings of Edward the 1st are pretty common.—In his 7th year he made a great reformation in the money, and several new regulations, as we have seen, for the better trying and preserving of his coin. It was now made more uniform than it had been, the names of the several monies were omitted, and only the name of the town or city where coined, preserved on the reverse.—In his 28th year, as observed, an indented trial-piece, of the goodness of the old standard, was lodged in the Exchequer; and every pound weight of the Tower of such silver was then to be shorn at 20 shillings and three-pence; whereby the weight of the penny was to be somewhat less than 22 Troy grains and a quarter, and 240 such pennies of full weight, making 20 shillings, or a pound sterling in tale, were to contain as much silver as, in our present coin, is of the value of 57 s. 5 d. nearly. See a table of English silver coins, by Martin Folkes, Esq; 1745.

KING EDWARD II.

Has two subsidies granted him.—Imposes two shillings over and above the ancient custom.—Has a tenth granted him by the pope of church revenues for one year.—Has a great subsidy granted him by the temporality, and 5 d. in the mark of the clergy of the province of Canterbury, and 4d. of those of York.

R E M A R K S.

The further account of the business of the Exchequer may be disposed under three general heads: 1. Affairs of the revenue. 2. Causes. 3. Business of various kinds. Under the first of these may be included fines imposed of divers kinds, and amerciaments. It was the business of the treasurer and barons to speed the levying and getting in the king's debts, and manage the crown revenue to the best advantage.—Under the second head we take in pleas and causes. After the separation of the Common Pleas from the king's court, it was forbidden, by the great charter, and a subsequent ordinance, to hold common pleas in the Exchequer: yet some were, and the king gave leave sometimes for particular persons to bring their suits there; in which the king granted preference to one person, that he should be paid, in the adjudication, before other creditors. Under the third head, of business of various kinds, may be placed conventions and recognitions made in the Exchequer, and the admission of officers. See Madox for these particulars.

We come now to the accounts of the Exchequer. As the sheriffs were the most considerable accountants to the crown, the method of accounts at the Exchequer may be best learned from them. The sheriffs generally accounted from Michaelmas to Michaelmas. Edward I. ordered, that the sheriffs should be escheators in their respective counties; the stated accounts were rendered regularly in course every year. In general, accountants were obliged to come in person, to render their accounts; if by attorney, it was by the king's leave, and afterwards by warrant from the treasurer, chancellor, or barons, or one of them. Accounts were rendered upon oath, or by their faith or allegiance. Where one was indebted to the king, and also to another person, the former was to be preferred in payment. No debtor to the crown could make a will, to dispose of his chattels to the king's prejudice.—If doubtful whether the deceased's effects would satisfy the crown debt, the king seized the chattels.—If the debtor was unable to satisfy the debt, the king betook himself to those who were indebted to his debtor. The heir of the king's debtor was not to be distrained for the debt, in case the chattels of the debtor were sufficient to answer it.—The widow of the king's debtor was not to be distrained by her dower, to answer the debt, in case the heir could answer it: neither were sureties to be distrained, so long as the principal debtor had wherewithal to answer the debt.—By ancient usage the king's debtors, or accountants, were wont to have writs of aid to recover debts of such as were indebted to them, to enable them to answer the king's debts.

If an accountant did not render his accounts, or in due manner, he was punished by seizure of land, and amerciament, or committed to the Marshal or Fleet Prison, or the Tower of London.—When the Chancery was separated from the Exchequer, and the charters, writs, and precepts of the great seal came to be entered by themselves in the charter-rolls, patent-rolls, &c. about the beginning of king John's reign, then commenced the method of sending estreats from the Chancery to the Exchequer. If these estreats were not brought in due time, writs were issued to the persons or justices before whom they lay, to bring them in.

Tallies were of a great and constant use in the Exchequer: the word is French, and signifies cutting. These tallies were pieces of wood, cut in correspondency. A stick, or rod of hazel, or other wood, well seasoned, was cut square and uniform at each end; and in the shaft, the sum of money which it bore was cut in notches in the wood, by the tally-cutter, and likewise written upon two sides of it. The tally was cleft in the middle by the deputy chamberlains, thro' the shaft and the notches: a notch of such a largeness signified

fied Ml. of another largeness Cl. &c. It being thus divided, one part of it was called a tally; the other a counter-tally, or a tally and a foil: however, these were in effect one tally, or two parts of one thing: and, if they were genuine, they fitted exactly: their use was to prevent fraud: they had a superscription for what purpose given.

Counters were sometimes used at the Exchequer, in the way of computation: in which case they were laid in rows upon the several distinctures of the chequered cloth, viz. one row for pounds, another for shillings, &c.

The principal officers of the superior Exchequer were, the two remembrancers, the engrossers of the great roll, the usher, the constable, the marshal, the auditors, the clerks of the estreats. See Madox for a description of their respective duties.—We shall conclude with a few instances only of the allowance made to several ministers of the receipt of Exchequer for their liveries and corrodies, and other necessaries. In 9 Hen. III. the liveries of the ministers of the Exchequer for fourscore days, from the feast of St Michael, 'till Monday next after the feast of St Lucius, were: to three scribes, c s. to the two knights of the chamberlains, viii marks; to John de Windesore, iiii l. to John the fusor, or melter, ii marks and a half; to Simon Druel, ii marks and a half; to the four tellers, iiii l. to the vigil, and for light, x s. for a hutch to lay up the memoranda, vii d. for rods for the tallies, v s. for parchment for the use of the chamberlains, and the chief-justice's clerk, iiii s. for ink, during the whole year, iiii s. for litter for the chamber of the barons, and house of receipt, xii d. for necessaries for the said chambers, xx d. for ten dozen of hutches, xx s. for wax, ii s. for leather for the tallies, ix d. for a hutch to put the inquisitions in, ii d. for the marshal's hutch, xii d. for a sack to put the allowed tallies in, xiii d. for carrying and recarrying the hutches, v s. for a tonel to put in the d marks, sent to the king at Oxford by R. bishop of Chichester, xii d. for locks, bolts, and other small expences, iiii s. Total, xxiv l. xiii s. viii d. Ex pelle receptæ de anno 9 Hen. III. Rot. ult. indorso pen. Thes. & Camer.

King Edward the 1st's pennies, halfpennies, and farthings, were the same with those of the king his father, and are not with certainty to be distinguished from them. The common opinion, which gives those pieces with EDW. to the first Edward, and all those with EDWA. or EDWAR. to the second, is at most but a probable conjecture; and should it be allowed that all those of the first sort, which are by far the most plentiful, were really struck by the first king of the name, who certainly coined a great deal more money than his son, we should still be at a loss for arguments to prove, that he did not coin some of the others also: to which I shall only add, that I have seen some of these pennies of the last sort, upon which the letters were braced into one another, much like those on the pennies of king Henry III. and which therefore seem to have been minted but little after his time.

KING EDWARD III.

Imposes tallage through all his domains.—The people grant him the fifteenth penny, and the cities, boroughs, and clergy, one tenth.—Has 40 s. of English merchants for every sack of wool, and 60 s. of strangers.—Seizes on all the effects of the merchants of Lombardy, then in London.—The laity grant him one half of their wool.—The lords in parliament grant him the tenth sheaf of corn of their demesns, the tenth fleece of wool, and the tenth lamb for two years.—The commons give him 30,000 sacks of wool.—The parliament grant him the ninth of all grain, of wool, and of lambs.—They again confirm the said grant.—The clergy grant him a disme for three years.—Two fifteenths given him, and 40 s. of every knight's fee.—The parliament grants three fifteenths, to be paid in three years.—Has the subsidy of wool granted for three years.—The same granted for six years, at 50 s. the sack.—They grant 26 s. 8 d. for three years on every sack of wool.—They grant 36 s. 8 d. for two years on every wool-pack.—They grant 43 s. 4 d. for three years, &c.—The king seizes the lands of religious aliens.—The clergy grant him 50,000 l. and the laity as much.—Has two fifteenths granted him.—The parliament again grant the subsidy of wool for three years.—The lords and commons grant him a poll-tax, of 4 d. per head for every one above 15, beggars excepted.—The king borrows great sums of the clergy, and of every county in England.

R E M A R K S.

By a charter-mint to the abbot of Reading, it seems that there was not any greater piece of money coined, 'till after the 12th year of Edward III. than a penny. The first pennies, half-pennies, and farthings, of king Edward III. were the same as those coined by his grandfather and his father; and we know of no alteration that he made in the coin, 'till his 18th year, when 22 s. 2 d. and his 20th year, when 22 s. 6 d. were ordered to be coined out of the pound Tower of old sterling silver; by which last regulation the weight of the penny was brought down to 20 Troy grains, and the pound

sterling or 240 such pence of full weight, contained as much silver as is now coined into 51 s. and 8 d.

In the 27th year of this king, were first coined groffes or groats, running for four pence each, with half groffes, and sterlings or pennies, 75 of those groffes being coined out of the pound Tower: from whence the weight of the grosse appears to have been 72 Troy grains; and the silver contained in 20 s. or in 60 such groffes of full weight, was the same in quantity, as what is now contained in 46 s. and 6 d. of our present money.

KING RICHARD II.

Has two tenths granted him for one year.—Has a mark granted him on every sack of wool for one year.—Has a subsidy granted him to be laid on the great men of the land, that the commons might be spared.—Has another subsidy granted him,—and another, which occasions Wat Tyler's rebellion.—Has 2 s. granted him upon every ton of wine.—Has a subsidy granted him by the merchants.—Has a moiety of one fifteenth granted him by the temporality, and soon after a moiety of a tenth by the clergy.—Has another half of one fifteenth of the laity, and a half of one tenth of the clergy.—Has one tenth of the clergy, and one fifteenth of the laity.—The parliament gives him 40 s. on every sack of wool.—One half of one tenth, and half of one fifteenth, given to defray the charges of an embassy.—The king would borrow 1000 l. of the Londoners, but was refused.—Again half of one tenth and half of one fifteenth given to defray the charges of an embassy.—The clergy give the king one tenth conditionally.—The clergy again give a tenth, and the laity one fifteenth.—The king obtains half of one tenth of the clergy.—Borrows great sums of the chief of the clergy, and the laity.—Two fifteenths and two tenths granted him.—A subsidy of wools and staple were granted him.—Another subsidy granted him.—One fifteenth and a half granted out of cities, &c. and a disme and a half within.—The subsidy of wools and staple wares again granted conditionally.—One fifteenth and one tenth granted by the lords and commons.—The same granted by the laity.—Two fifteenths granted conditionally.—Half of one tenth, and half of one fifteenth granted.—A subsidy of wool-skins, wool-fells, &c. granted.—Subsidies granted for three years conditionally.—A disme, and half, and one fifteenth and a half, granted conditionally.—A subsidy granted for three years, with half a disme, and half a fifteenth.—The lords and commons grant the king a subsidy of all staple ware during life, with one disme and a half, and one fifteenth and a half.

R E M A R K S.

In the 18th of Richard II. a pound weight of gold of the old standard was to make by tale 45 nobles, amounting to 15 l. or a proportionable number of half or quarter nobles: and a pound weight of silver of the old sterling, to make by tale 75 groffes or groats, amounting to 25 s. or 150 half groffes, or two pence a-piece, or 300 sterlings at a penny a-piece, or 600 half sterlings: he coined groffes, half groffes, sterlings, and half sterlings, together with farthings also.

KING HENRY IV.

Receives an aid of the moiety of all fees, &c.—Receives subsidies for kerfies.—The lords and commons grant one disme, and one fifteenth, &c.—A subsidy of wools, &c. granted for three years.—Two dismes, and two fifteenths, &c. granted conditionally.—One disme and one fifteenth, &c. granted conditionally.—One disme and half, with one fifteenth, &c. granted conditionally.—The same subsidies granted again conditionally.—The king receives a tenth of the clergy.—He receives a subsidy of 20 s. on every knight's fee.—Exacts half a mark of every stipendiary priest and friar mendicant.—Imposes tonnage and poundage every year of his reign but two.

R E M A R K S.

Henry the IVth coined groffes, half groffes, sterlings, and half sterlings, or mailles; the same as those of his predecessor, as also farthings. By an act of parliament in his third year, it was ordered, 'That one third part of the money of silver that should be brought to the bullion should be made into halfpennies and farthings:' and by another act in his 13th year, it was directed, 'That by reason of the great scarcity of money at that time in the realm of England, the pound Tower might from the feast of Easter then next following be coined into 30 s. by tale.' By which regulation the weight of the groat was brought down to 60 Troy grains, and the pound sterling, consisting of 60 such groats, was to contain so much silver only, as in our present coined money is of the value of 38 s. and 9 d.

This new money being of the same weight as that of the two following reigns, is probably so blended amongst it, as not to be now distinguished: nor are we indeed certain, that we rightly know the coins of Henry V. and Henry VI. from each other.

Henry IV. by the indenture of his third year, contracted, That

That a pound weight of gold of the old standard was to make by tale 45 nobles, amounting to 15 l. or a proportionable number of half or quarter nobles: and a pound weight of silver of the old sterling, to make by tale 75 groates, or groats, amounting to 25 s. or 150 half groates, going for two pence a-piece; or 300 sterlings, going for pence a-piece; or 600 half sterlings, or halfpence, called here mailles.

KING HENRY V.

Receives tonnage and poundage all his life.—Has a subsidy granted him.—Has two tenths granted by the clergy.—Has another tenth granted by the clergy, and a fifteenth by the laity.—Has six times whole tenths and fifteenths.—Has two tenths from the clergy, and one from the laity.—Pawns his jewels, even those of the crown.

R E M A R K S.

King Henry V. and VI. coined groates, half groates, sterlings, mailles, and farthings; the same as the last of king Henry IV. the groates weighing, as has been before said, 60 Troy grains each.

In the 9th of Henry V. a pound weight of gold of the old standard, was to make by tale 50 nobles, or 100 half nobles, or 200 quarter nobles, amounting to 16 l. 13 s. and 14 d. in tale. And a pound weight of the same old standard, was to make by tale, 90 groates or groats, or 180 half groats, or 360 sterlings, or 720 mailles, or 1440 farthings, amounting to 30 s.

KING HENRY VI.

Receives a subsidy of staple ware, with tonnage and poundage, &c.—He again receives tonnage and poundage.—Has one tenth and one fifteenth.—Again, he has one tenth and one fifteenth, and one third part of both.—Has half one tenth, and half of one fifteenth granted.—A subsidy of 6 d. in the pound on all lands and offices.—Also one tenth and one fifteenth and a half.—One tenth and a half of one fifteenth, excepting 2000 l. to certain poor towns; and the same excepting 6000 l. to relieve certain wasted towns.—A subsidy of wools granted, 33 s. 4 d. the sack of denizens, and 53 s. 4 d. of aliens.—Half of one tenth, and half of one fifteenth of the laity, &c.—A subsidy of 12 d. in the pound on all freeholds, copyholds, and offices, under 2000 l. and 2 s. for all above the sum.—One tenth and one fifteenth, with tonnage and poundage, and a subsidy of wools, &c. during the king's life.

R E M A R K S.

In the first year of Henry VI. a pound weight of gold of the old standard, was coined into 45 rials of 10 s. or a proportionable number of half rials, and quarters, or farthing rials, at 5 s. and 2 s. 6 d. By the same indenture, instead of nobles and half nobles, were coined $6\frac{1}{2}$ to the pound, angels, at 6 s. 8 d. or a proportionable number of angelets, at 3 s. 4 d. Consequently, the pound Troy was coined into 22 l. 10 s. by tale.—By the indenture of the same first year of Henry VI. the silver money was of the old standard, 112 groats to the pound, making in tale 37 s. 6 d. as a proportionable number of half groats, sterlings, halfpence, and farthings.—They were most coined at London, but there were other mints at York, Bristol, and Dunwich, Dublin, Canterbury, and at York, with the keys.—By indenture, the 4th of this reign, the value of gold was brought down again to 16 l. 13 s. 4 d. and the silver to 30 s.—By another indenture of the last year of this reign, it was raised again to 37 s. 6 d. and so continued for near 50 years.

KING EDWARD IV.

Resumes the grants of former kings.—Gains an immense sum by attainders.—Has an aid of 3700 l. granted out of counties, cities, &c.—Has two tenths and two fifteenths from the laity, except 12,000 l.—Has another tenth and fifteenth, except 6000 l.—Has a tenth and one fifteenth, and 51,117 l. for the pay of archers, &c.—Has a tenth and one fifteenth of the laity, except 6000 l.—Has a yearly subsidy upon all strangers, granted by parliament.—Has a benevolence of the clergy, and another of his people.

R E M A R K S.

By an indenture of the 4th of Edward IV. a pound weight of gold of the old standard, was to make by tale 20 l. 16 s. 8 d. and a pound weight of silver old sterling, was to make 37 s. 6 d. By other indentures of the 5th, 8th, 11th, 16th, and 22d of the same king, a pound weight of gold of the old standard, was to make 45 nobles, going for 10 s. a piece, or 90 half nobles, or 180 quarter nobles, or $6\frac{1}{2}$ of the pieces impressed with angels, going for 6 s. 8 d. each, and consequently was coined into 22 l. 10 s. by tale; and the silver monies were shorn at 37 s. 6 d. the pound weight Troy.

KING EDWARD V.

Has no taxes raised in his name.

KING RICHARD III.

Levies but one tax, which was a tenth, granted by the clergy of both provinces.

R E M A R K S.

That Richard III. coined money, appears by an indenture, whereby he contracts for the coinage both of gold and silver, of the same value and denomination with the money of the 5th of Edward IV.

KING HENRY VII.

Resumes the grants of most offices made by Richard III.—Assesses one aid upon land.—Has the one tenth penny out of goods and lands.—Has three tenths and five fifteenths, besides one tenth and one fifteenth, arising to 120,000 l.—Takes three subsidies, whereof the last was not above 36,000 l. and one benevolence, the proportion of every alderman being 300 l. and the entire sum of the city of London 9688 l. 17 s. 4 d.—Has twice the tenth of the clergy, and 25,000 l. by way of subsidy, and of them and the commons two loans, the city of London rated at 6000 l. the other not definite in proportion, but so assessed as the commissioners and the lenders could agree.—Has two tenths and one fifteenth, and a subsidy.—Advances the tonnage to 3 s. and the poundage to 12 d.—Has a voluntary gift* of all his subjects in his 7th year, and imposes an aid at the pope's request.—Raises an immense sum, by putting the penal † laws in execution.

* The way of free gift, or benevolence, we have seen practised before, and particularly by king Edward IV; and though it appears, as it were, voluntary, yet it always carried with it some sort of compulsion, either through fear of being ill looked upon, and the more severely treated upon any occasion that should offer, or in hopes of finding favour in pretension; for fear and hope are the two prevailing inducements to do those things, which otherwise we are not inclined to. Many at this time were very generous in supplying the crown at the expence of others, not out of any affection, or because they thought it necessary, but because they were, in some shape, well paid for oppressing their neighbours.

† Henry VII. being excessively avaritious, his advisers, Empson and Dudley, practised every art of oppression of this kind to satiate his thirst after money. It appeared that many penal laws and pecuniary statutes, had long lain unregarded and disused, and thought obsolete, though not repealed, and still in the same force as they had ever been. When enquiry came to be made into the observation of such laws, it appeared that there were very few considerable persons but what had some way transgressed against them, and consequently were liable to the fines and mulcts imposed by them. When first this course was taken, it went on smooth enough, small penalties being imposed; which being legal and not too heavy, made little noise. Soon after the sweets hereof appearing, those offences were more narrowly looked into, and more grievously fined; by which means, together with the sale of offices, and dispensing with the laws, he raised an immense sum to the unspeakable detriment of his subjects.

R E M A R K S.

King Henry VII. coined the same pieces, and of the same weight, as those of Edward IV. and Richard III. He first placed upon his money the arched or imperial crown, with a globe and cross on the arch, like that used by our princes at this day. This king did also, about the 18th and 19th year of his reign, make a great alteration in the form of his coin, upon which his head was now represented crowned, but in profile, and with a good resemblance of his other pictures: whereas the heads of all our former kings had constantly been drawn in front upon their money, ever since the time of king John.

It appears, by an indenture of the 9th of Henry VII, that a pound weight of gold of the old standard, was coined into as many, and the same pieces, as in the 5th of Edward IV. The gold coins of Henry VII. were a sovereign, half sovereign, rial, half rial, and quarter rial, angel, and half angel. His silver money was groats, half-groates, or two-penny pieces, pennies, halfpennies, and farthings.

KING HENRY VIII.

Takes, within the compass of 34 years, three tenths, four fifteenths, and six subsidies of the commons, whereof that anno 4 amounted to 160,000 l. and that in anno 7, to 110,000 l.—Tonnage he had, and poundage once for a year, and afterwards for term of life.—Of the clergy he takes seven tenths, four tenths by one grant, and three by several, every of them not less than 25,084 l.—Of subsidies, he had one of the province of Canterbury, another of both; the stipendiary ministers thereto being taxed according to the rates of their wages.—Anno 22, they granted a moiety of all their goods and lands, payable by equal portions in five years, every part arising to 95,000 l.—Adds 150,000 l. a year to the revenues of the crown by the ruin of popish monasteries and charities, &c.—Has divers benevolences and loans from the clergy and commons.—Demands a contribution from his

people, which he calls an annual grant.—He obtains a large revenue by the dissolution of popish monasteries, abbeys, and the alienation of the church-lands, belonging to that system of ecclesiastical tyranny and oppression; which, 'till this period, made the princes as well as the people too subservient to their dominion. This laid the foundation of Protestantism, and that liberty, which we at present enjoy in this kingdom, and which is the most invaluable of all terrestrial blessings, if Britons are but wise enough not to abuse so glorious a privilege, which myriads of the human species are deprived of, by the wiles and artifices of designing priests, who act in concert with the civil tyrants of the earth to enslave mankind, and keep them in ignorance of their true spiritual as well as their temporal interests. The favourers of ecclesiastical dominion have thought this cost the church too dear: but can any price be too great, for what is inestimable?

R E M A R K S.

The first silver coins of king Henry VIII. were groats and half groats, of the same weight and form as the last pieces of those denominations coined by the king his father. By indenture of the 1st and 23d of Henry VIII. a pound weight of gold of the old standard, was to be coined into 27l. by tale; viz. into 24 sovereigns, at 22s. 6d. a-piece, or 48 rials at 11s. 3d. a-piece, or 72 angels at 7s. 6d. a-piece, or 81 George nobles at 6s. 8d. a-piece, or 162 forty-penny pieces at 3s. 4d. a-piece; and a pound weight of gold, of the finest of 22 carats only, was to be coined into 100 crowns and a half of the double rose, or 201 half-crowns, making by tale 25l. 2s. 6d.; and a pound weight of silver of the old sterling, was coined into 135 groats, or 270 half-groats, or 540 sterlings (or pence), or 1080 halfpence, or 2160 farthings; so that every pound weight of sterling silver was coined into 45s. by tale.—In the 34th of this reign, a pound weight of gold, of 23 carats fine, and one carat allay, was coined into 28l. 16s. by tale; by which indenture there were coined sovereigns at 20s. a-piece, half sovereigns, at 10s. angels at 8s. and quarter angels at 2s. a-piece; and a pound weight of silver of 10 ounces fine, and 2 ounces allay, was coined into 48s. by tale, viz. into testoons, which were 12d. a-piece, groats, half groats, pence, halfpence, and farthings.—In the 36th of this reign, a pound weight of gold, of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats allay, was coined into 30l. by tale, viz. into 30 sovereigns at 20s. a-piece, or 60 half-sovereigns at 10s. a-piece, or 120 crowns at 5s. or 240 half-crowns: and the king had 2 carats of fine gold for coinage, which yielded him 50s. Silver was coined by the same indenture 6 ounces fine and 6 ounces allay, into 48s. by tale. It was coined into testoons, groats, half groats, pence, halfpence, and farthings.—In the 37th of this reign, a pound weight of gold of 20 carats fine and 4 carats allay, was coined into 30l. by tale, as in the last; and the king had 4 carats, which yielded him 5l. 2s. And a pound weight of silver, of 4 ounces fine and eight ounces allay, was coined into 48s. by tale; which raised the pound weight of fine gold to 36l. and the pound weight of fine silver to 7l. 4s. The gold coins of Henry VIII. are sovereigns, rials, half sovereigns, angels, George nobles, half and quarter angels, 40-penny pieces, crowns, and half-crowns: and the silver coins, testoons, groats, half groats, sterlings, halfpence, farthings; to which may be added crown pieces of silver, which were coined by this king.

KING EDWARD VI.

Has an aid granted by parliament of 12d. in the pound for three years, on the goods of his natural born subjects, and 2s. in the pound of strangers.—Has 3d. granted on every ewe, and 2d. on every wether kept in pastures, also 1d. on every sheep on the common.—Has 8d. in the pound on all woollen cloth for three years.—Has a subsidy and two fifteenths.—Has tonnage and poundage for life.—Has six fifteenths of his lay subjects, and three subsidies of both clergy and laity.

R E M A R K S.

The tonnage and poundage said above to have been given to this king for life, was thus: of every ton of wine 3s. Of every ton of sweet wine 3s. over and above the aforesaid 3s. that is in all 6s. Of every aulne of Rhenish wine 12d. The poundage was 12d. in the pound of the value of all goods imported or exported; and 12d. in the pound over and above the aforesaid 12d. to be paid by merchants aliens, for all tin and pewter by them exported: excepting out of this subsidy all manner of woollen cloth of English make to be exported, and all manner of wool, wool fells, and hides, and backs of leather exported, and all manner of wines, fresh fish, and cattle imported. The subsidy from wool was 33s. 4d. of every sack of wool, and for every 240 of wool-fells, 33s. 4d. and for every last of hides and backs 3l. 6s. 8d. For every sack of wool exported by strangers, 3l. 6s. 8d. and for every 240 of wool-fells, 3l. 6s. 8d. and for every last of hides and backs, 3l. 13s. 4d. The subsidy granted by the clergy in the second year of this

king's reign, was of 6s. in the pound, according to the value of every spiritual promotion.

The relief granted by the laity in his third year, to continue for the space of three years, was, of every person worth ten pounds or upwards, in money, goods, cattle, &c. 12d. in the pound. And of every alien worth 20s. and under 10l. 12d. for every pound.

Thus it appears, that this king, though he took as much as he could from churches of what his father had left, yet the kingdom saved nothing by it, the taxes being laid every year of his reign, and for his life.

By indentures of the 1st and 2d of Edward VI. a pound weight of gold of 20 carats fine and 4 carats allay, was coined into 30l. by tale, out of which the king had a great profit; and a pound of silver, of four ounces fine and eight ounces allay, was coined into 48s. after which rate, every pound of fine silver made in current money 7l. 4s. and the king's profit on every pound weight was 4l. 4s.—In the 3d year of this king, a pound weight of gold 22 carats fine, and two carats allay, was to be coined into 34l. by tale, into sovereigns 20s. a-piece, half sovereigns at 10s. a-piece, crowns at 5s. and half-crowns at 2s. 6d. a-piece: and a pound weight of silver, six ounces fine and six ounces allay, was to be coined into 72s. which were to go for 12d. a-piece by tale; of which the merchant, for every pound weight of fine silver, received 3l. 4s. and the king above 4l. gain.—In the 4th year of this reign a pound weight of gold of the old standard, of 32 carats and 3 grains and a half fine, was coined into 28l. 16s. by tale, viz. into sovereigns at 24s. a-piece, half sovereigns at 12s. angels at 8s. and half angels at 4s. a-piece.—In the 5th of this reign, a pound weight of silver of 3 ounces fine, and 9 ounces allay, was coined into 72s. at 12 a-piece; and the merchant received, for every ounce of fine silver which he should bring to the mint, 10s. of such money; by which means, 12 ounces of fine silver was exorbitantly raised to 14l. 18s.—In the 6th of this reign, a pound weight of gold, of the old standard aforesaid, was coined into 36l. by tale, viz. 24 sovereigns at 30s. a-piece, 72 angels at 10s. a-piece, or 144 half angels: and a pound weight of crown gold of 22 carats fine and 2 carats allay, was coined into 33l. by tale, viz. 33 sovereigns at 20s. a-piece, or 66 half sovereigns at 10s. a-piece, or 132 crowns, or 264 half crowns: and a pound weight of silver, consisting of 11 ounces one pennyweight fine, and 19 pennyweights allay, was coined into 3l. by tale, viz. 12 crowns, or 24 half-crowns, or 60 shillings, or 120 sixpences, or 240 three-pences, or 720 pence, or 1440 halfpence, or 2880 farthings.

In king Edward the VIth's journal, still preserved in the Cotton library, written with the king's own hand, and printed at large by bishop Burnet in his History of the Reformation, is the following passage. '1551, 6 Sept. Deliberation concerning the coin. Memorandum, that there were diverse standards, nine ounces fine, a few, eight ounces fine, as ill as four, because, although that was fine, yet a shilling was reckoned for 2 shillings, 6 ounces, very many 4 ounces, many also 3 ounces, 130,000l. now of late.' From which words I collect, that in this reign, besides the monies of four ounces fine, 6 ounces fine, and 3 ounces fine, which are all that are mentioned in the indentures and commissions that we know of; there were also some others of 8 ounces and 9 ounces fine; and that in the monies of 8 ounces fine in particular, one shilling was of no more value than another only of four ounces fine, as being of only half the weight, though it was as fine again. Now as the shillings of four ounces fine were, by the table of the weight of 120 grains each, the others of 9 ounces fine and 8 ounces fine, and which were of the same value, must have weighed 53 grains and one third, and 60 grains respectively. If therefore, among the shillings we have of the first five years of this reign, there are really such found as agree sufficiently with these weights, we may reasonably conclude, that such shillings are of the standards above mentioned, and that they are some of the above pieces to which the king alludes in the above-cited passage of his journal.

It was found by experience in this reign, that gold and silver had, by the common consent of all people throughout the civilized parts of the world, acquired certain real and proper values: and that in such a nation as this, not destitute even then of all commerce with strangers, it was impossible that the arbitrary value set upon pieces of base metal could, for any considerable time, supply the want of the silver that used to be contained in the pieces of the same denominations.

Whatever names were given to these pieces of base metal, or by whatever authority their imaginary value was supported, the people would either not bring their provisions at all to the markets to exchange them for such money, or would there sell them at much higher rates than before; as the nominal sums they received for their goods would not now purchase them the same conveniences elsewhere, as the same nominal sums of better money had formerly done. It was therefore judged absolutely necessary, to reform and amend the coin; the affair was very seriously considered, and the work was undertaken and carried on with so much diligence

and vigour, that within a few months a reformation of the money was brought about, truly memorable, and no less remarkable than the former abuses of it had been: for the new pieces that were coined before the end of this year, 1551, were of more than four times the value of those of the same denominations, that had been coined in the former months of the same.

It is observable from the king's journal, that on the 6th of May this year, 'the testoon was cried down from 12d. to 9d. &c.' And this seems to have been the first step that was taken towards the amendment of the evil: by which I should only understand, that it was that day resolved to make such a reduction in the value of present money, without either then carrying it into immediate effect, or even fixing the day when that intended reduction should first take place. For we find that it was not 'till the 2d of July following, that 'there was a proclamation signed for shortening of the fall of the money to that day; in which it should be proclaimed and devised, that it should be in all places of the realm within one day proclaimed:' and accordingly we read, that there was, on the 9th of the same month, 'proclamation made, that a testoon should go at 9d. and a groat at 3d. in all places of the realm at once.' The same particular is also recorded by Mr Stowe in his Chronicle, who tells us, 'That on the 9th of July, the base monies coined in the time of king Henry VIII. and king Edward VI. were proclaimed, the shilling to go for 9d. the groat for 3d. which took effect immediately after the proclamation made:' which cannot, however, be properly understood of all the base monies of king Henry VIII. but of those only of his 37th year, and which were of the same value as those of the first four years of king Edward VI.

Although this reduction of the coin was necessary, and that it proved in the end beneficial, yet were very many great sufferers by it at the time. The people naturally looked upon it as the real loss of a full fourth part of whatever cash they had by them*; and, indeed, the price of things to be bought, could not immediately follow the new rate of the money. They were also greatly apprehensive of the further changes that might still be intended, and of the manner in which they might yet further be affected by such changes: in-much that upon their discontents it was thought necessary to have, on the 19th of the same month of July, 'another proclamation made for punishment of them, that would blow rumours of abasing and enhancing of the coin, to make things dear withal.'

* Bishop Fleetwood, in his *Chronicon Preciosum*, p. 57. observes, that he had then by him, 'an account of that time, wherein, by the first proclamation, dated July 9, a college lost out of 118l. 6s. 11d. 29l. 11s. 8d. ob. q. And by the second proclamation, dated August 17, immediately following, out of 45l. 3s. the college lost 15l. 1s. which was a 4th and a 3d part of every one's cash, in the space of two months.'

There was, however, a further reduction of it within a month; for on the 17th of the following August, 'the testoon was cried down from 9d. to 6d. the groat from 3d. to 2d. the 2d. to 1d. the 1d. to an halfpenny, the halfpenny to a farthing:' and this second reduction is also taken notice of by Mr Stowe in his Chronicle, where he says, that on the same 17th of August, 'the shilling which of late was called down to 9d. was called down to 6d. the groat to 2d. the half groat to one penny, the penny to one halfpenny.'

About this time also proposals were made to the king and council concerning the new money to be from henceforward coined: and it seems to have been agreed on the 6th of September, that the new pieces should be minted of silver ten ounces in the pound weight fine, which it was thought might then be done without any further great loss, as the testoons were already reduced to the value of only six pennies each. For it was judged that a pound weight of testoons, 6 ounces in the pound fine, added to another pound weight of those four ounces fine, would together furnish a pound of bullion ten ounces fine: and again, that a pound weight of the testoons of 8 ounces fine, together with two ninth parts of a pound weight of those of 9 ounces fine, and which were fewer in number than the others, would, in like manner, without further loss, furnish a pound of bullion also ten ounces fine. But it was further intended that the new pennies, halfpennies, and farthings, should still be coined of silver, only four ounces in the pound fine: and that, as it was apprehended, there would arise a considerable profit to the king; that profit would serve to pay the extraordinary charges of this recoinage, and to make good the loss that might arise from the want of a sufficient number of the testoons of nine ounces fine, as also the loss upon such of the coins, particularly upon many of those of six ounces fine, as were supposed to have been really made baser than their appointed standards.

We learn also from the king's journal, that the lords of the council having had all the several sorts of the base money assayed before them at London, on the 20th of the same Sep-

tember, the king himself being then at Windsor, they had found that the several sorts of testoons, which were apprehended to have been coined baser than even the several indentures and commissions allowed, were really better than was expected, and that they had severally answered to their respective valuations: and that further, upon taking of the several pieces mixed together as they run, they had found that 400 pounds in tale, reckoning the testoon at six pennies, did truly contain as much silver as was sufficient to coin 400l. in tale of new money, as heavy, or heavier, than the last, and of the goodness of 11 ounces fine in the pound weight*. Whereupon they reported the same to the king, on the 22d, and then it was concluded that the testoon should be 11 ounces fine, the proportion of the pieces according to the gold; so that 5s. of silver should be worth five of gold.

* 'The lords at London having tried all sorts of stamping, both of the fineness of 9, 8, 6, 4, and 3, proved that, without any loss but sufferable, the coin might be brought to 11 ounces fine: for whereas it was thought before that the testoon was, through ill officers and ministers, corrupted, it was tried that it had the valuation, just by eight sundry kinds of melting; and 400l. of sterling money, a testoon being but 6d. made 400l. 11 ounces fine, of money sterling.' King's Journal of the 20th of September, 1551.

On the 24th of the same month it was 'agreed, that the stamp of the shilling and the six-pence should be, on one side, a king painted to the shoulder, in parliament robes, with the chain of the order. Five shillings of silver, and half five shillings, should be a king on horseback, armed with a naked sword, held to his breast. As also, that the fine monies should be coined at the mints in the Tower, and in Southwark; and the small pieces of a baser standard, at Canterbury and York.'

On the 1st of the next month of October, 'The commission for the making of five shillings, half five shillings, groats, and six-pences, 11 ounces fine; and pence, with half-pence and farthings, four ounces fine, was followed and signed.' So far the king: and we further learn from Mr Stowe, that the pieces themselves were accordingly published and proclaimed on the 30th of the same month. But by the indentures made immediately after with the masters and workers of the several mints, it appears that these finer coins were really 11 oz. 1 dwt. fine, or only 1 dwt. worse than the old standard; and that the pound weight Troy of such silver was then agreed to be cut into three pounds by tale, in crowns, or pieces of 5s. half-crowns, shillings, half-shillings, quarter-shillings, pennies, half-pennies, and farthings: according to which regulation, the crown-piece was to weigh an ounce Troy, and the shilling 96 grains: and the pound sterling, consisting of four of these crowns, or 20 of these shillings, was to be intrinsically worth about 6d. $\frac{3}{4}$ more than 20s. of our present coin.

In this indenture, fine silver is valued at 5s. 5d. the ounce nearly; and whereas, in the gold coin directed by the same, fine gold is valued at 3l. the ounce, it follows that what was then thought the true proportion of the value of gold to that of silver, was the proportion of 11 to 1. See GOLD.

QUEEN MARY

Has tonnage and poundage for life.—[The subsidy of tonnage was thus: of every ton of wine coming, or that shall or is come into this your realm by way of merchandize, the sum of 3s. and so after that rate. And of every ton of sweet wine, as well Malmsey as other, 3s. over and above the 3s. afore-granted; and of every aulne of Rhenish wine, 12d. The other subsidy, called poundage, was of all manner of goods and merchandizes of every merchant, denizen, and alien carried out of the realm, or brought into the same, by way of merchandize, of the value of every 20s. of the same goods and merchandizes, 12d. and of every 20s. in value of tin, and pewter vessels, carried out of the realm by any and every merchant alien, 12d. over and above the 12d. afore-said.] Out of this act of subsidy is excepted all woollen cloth made in England, and all wool, wool-fells, and hides and backs of leather, carried out, and all wines, and fresh fish and bestial, coming into the realm.—At the same time was granted another subsidy, of all manner of wool, wool-fells, and leather, carried out of the realm; that is, of every merchant denizen, for every sack of wool, 33s. 4d. and for every 240 wool-fells, 33s. 4d. and for every last of hides and backs, of every merchant denizen, 3l. 4s. 8d. and also of every merchant stranger, as well as those already made denizens, or that shall be made denizens, for every sack of wool, 3l. 6s. 8d. and for every 240 wool-fells 3l. 6s. 8d. and also for every last of hides and backs, 3l. 13s. 4d.—She has also a subsidy of 6s. in the pound granted by the clergy, in consideration of what she had given up to the church before. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge were exempted from this subsidy.—Has 8d. in the pound granted by the temporalities, with certain exceptions.—Has a subsidy of 8s. in the pound, granted by the clergy

clergy of the province of Canterbury, to be levied in four years, that is, at 2s. in the pound every year.—Has 1-fifteenth granted by the temporalities.—Has a subsidy granted of 2 s. 8 d. in the pound, on every person spiritual and temporal, worth 5 l. and 5 s. 4 d. of every alien.—She has likewise 4s. in the pound on the lands and real effects of natives, and 8s. of aliens.—This bigoted, cruel, and vindictive queen, attempted to undo all that had been done towards the Reformation.

REMARKS.

By an indenture of the first of Queen Mary, a pound weight of gold, of the old standard, was coined into 36 l. and a pound weight of silver, 11 ounces fine, was coined into 3 l. by tale. The gold coins of this queen are, sovereigns, at 30s. half-sovereigns, at 15s. angels, at 10s. and half-angels, at 5s. a piece.

QUEEN ELIZABETH

Has likewise the first-fruits and tenths invested in the crown.—Has 2s. 8 d. in the pound granted by parliament on moveable goods, and 4 s. on land.—Seizes on several religious houses.—Has tonnage and poundage granted for life.—Has a subsidy and two-fifteenths from the temporality.—Has 6s. in the pound granted by the clergy.—Has a subsidy and two-fifteenths from the temporality.—Has a subsidy of 4 s. in the pound from the clergy.—Has 1 subsidy, 1 fifteenth, and 1 tenth, from the temporality.—Has a subsidy of 6 s. in the pound from the clergy.—Has two-fifteenths, and 1 tenth, and a subsidy, from the temporality.—Has 6s. in the pound from the spirituality.—Has three-fifteenths and tenths, and one subsidy, from the temporality.—Has 6s. 8 d. in the pound granted by the clergy.—Has another subsidy and two-fifteenths from the temporality.—Another subsidy of 6 s. in the pound from the temporality.—Two subsidies of 6 s. in the pound from the clergy.—Two subsidies and four-fifteenths from the temporality.—A tax laid on every parish, for the relief of sick, wounded, and maimed soldiers.—Has two subsidies of 4 s. in the pound granted by the clergy.—Has three subsidies, six-fifteenths and tenths from the temporality.—Another tax for the relief of soldiers and mariners.—Three subsidies granted by the clergy. Three subsidies, and six-fifteenths and tenths, granted by the temporality.—Another tax for the relief of the poor.—Four subsidies of 4 s. in the pound granted by the clergy.—Four intire subsidies, eight-fifteenths and tenths, by the temporality.

REMARKS.

By an indenture of the 2d of Elizabeth, a pound weight of gold, of the old standard of 23 carats 3 grains and a half fine, was coined into 36 l. by tale: namely, into 24 sovereigns, at 30s. a piece, or 48 rials, at 15s. or 72 angels, at 10s. a piece, or 144 half-angels, at 5s. a piece. And a pound weight of crown gold, of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats allay, was coined into 33 l. by tale: namely, 33 sovereigns, at 20s. a piece, or 60 half-sovereigns, at 10s. a piece, or 132 crowns, at 5s. a piece, or 264 half-crowns. And a pound weight of the old sterling silver, viz. 11 oz. 2 dwts. fine, and 18 dwts. allay, was coined into 3 l. by tale, of half-shillings, groats, quarter-shillings, half-groats, three-half-penny pieces, pence, and farthings.—In the 19th of her reign, a pound weight of gold of the old standard was coined into 72 angels, at 10s. a piece, 144 half-angels at 5s. a piece, or 288 quarter-angels, amounting in tale to 36 l. And a pound of old sterling silver into half-shillings, three-pences, three-half-penny, or three-farthing pieces, to make 3 l. by tale.—And in the 25th, into 60 s. or into 3 l. by tale.—In the 26th, a pound Troy of old standard gold was coined into 48 nobles, at 15s. a piece, or 24 double-nobles, at 30s. a piece, making 36 l.—In the 35th year of this reign, a pound weight of gold, of 22 carats fine and 2 carats allay, was coined into 33 sovereigns, at 20s. a piece, or 66 half-sovereigns, or 132 crowns, or 264 half-crowns, making 33 l. by tale.—In the 43d, the pound weight of old standard gold was coined into 73 angels, at 10s. a piece, or 146 half-angels, or 292 quarter-angels, making 36 l. 10 s. in tale; and the pound weight of gold, of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats allay, into 33 sovereigns and an half, at 20 s. a piece, or 67 half-sovereigns, or 134 crowns, or 268 half-crowns, making 33 l. 10 s. in tale; and the pound weight of old standard silver into 3 l. 2 s. by tale; viz. into crowns, half-crowns, shillings, six-pences, two-pences, pence, and half-pence.

The corruptions which the last year of Henry VIII. had brought into the English money, were not quite rooted out till queen Elizabeth's reign; but her first business was to mark all the best pieces either with a greyhound, portcullis, lion, harp, rose, or fleur-de-lis. Her gold coins, as appears from the foregoing indentures, were sovereigns, half-sovereigns, or rials, nobles, double-nobles, angels, half-angels, pieces of an angel and a half, and three angels, crowns, and half-crowns.

An account of all the monies of gold and silver coined in the time of queen Elizabeth, with the true value thereof in current money.

Coined in sterling silver money in the mint in the tower of London, from the year 1558 to the year 1572, in the time of Tho. Stanley and T. Fleetwood, undertreasurers, in weight 549,644 lb. 18 dwts. making, at 3 l. the pound weight	1,648,932 2 6
More from 1572 to 1581, in the time of John Lonisor, master and worker, in weight 255,338 lb. 2 oz. 8 dwts. 7 grs. making, at the same rate	766,014 12 0 $\frac{3}{4}$
More from 1581 to 1601, in the time of Sir Richard Martyn, master and worker, in weight 670,331 lb. 2 oz. 10 dwts. making, at the same rate	2,010,993 12 6
More from Septem. 1601, to 31 March, 1603, in the time of the same masters, in weight 63,890 lb. 7 oz. making, at 3 l. 2s. the pound weight	198,060 16 2
Coined in March 3 Eliz. in Irish monies, of 11 oz. fine, in weight 2977 lb. making, at 3 l. the pound weight	8,931 0 0

The whole sum of sterling silver coined in the queen's time, was in weight 1,542,181 lb. 8 dwts. 7 grs. making, in money	4,632,932 3 2 $\frac{3}{4}$
Coined in base Irish money, in March 1 Eliz. of 3 oz. fine silver, and 9 oz. of allay, in weight 19,828 lb. worth, in sterling money	15,541 10 3 $\frac{1}{4}$
More of the like base money, in the time of Sir Richard Martyn, in weight 89,844 lb. 10 oz. 15 dwts. worth, in sterling money	70,105 9 2 $\frac{1}{2}$

So that the whole value of the silver money coined in the queen's time, amounted to	4,718,579 2 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
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Coined in fine gold money, in the mint in the Tower of London, from 1558 to 1601, in weight 12,201 lb. 8 oz. 22 gr. which made in current money, at the rate of 36 l. the pound weight	439,260 2 9
More from 1601 to 1603, in weight 35 lb. 4 oz. 17 dwts. 8 grs. which made in current money, at 36 l. 10 s. the pound weight	1,292 6 0 $\frac{3}{4}$

The sum total of all the fine gold coined in the queen's time, was in weight 12,237 lb. 18 dwts. 6 grs. and made in current money	440,552 8 9 $\frac{3}{4}$
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Coined in crown-gold money in the mint in the Tower of London, from 1558 to 1601, in weight 10,086 lb. 3 oz. 18 dwts. 17 grs. which made in current money, at 33 l. the pound weight	332,848 16 5 $\frac{1}{2}$
More from 1601 to 1603, in weight 643 lb. 10 oz. 8 dwts. 21 grs. which made in current money, at 33 l. 10 s. the pound weight	21,737 3 1 $\frac{1}{2}$

The sum total of all the crown-gold coined in the queen's time, was in weight 10,730 lb. 2 oz. 7 dwts. 14 grs. and made in current money	354,585 19 7
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And the true value of all the gold and silver money coined in the time of queen Elizabeth, amounted to	5,513,717 11 1 $\frac{1}{4}$
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REMARKS.

Queen Elizabeth is celebrated by our historians for the restoring of the old standard of the coin in her silver monies, and no less for the abolishing and recoinage of the base monies minted in the times of her father and brother; in which, however, she can only be said, with truth, to have given the last finishing to a work already brought near its perfection: for king Edward, as we have observed, had reduced the base money nearly to the intrinsic value, and coined down the greatest part of it, into money very little inferior in goodness, and not at all inferior in weight, to any that has been minted since.

We shall here give an account of this matter in the words of the old chronicle of Raphael Hollinshed, with whom Stowe and Camden perfectly agree.

‘The queen’s majesty, by advice of her most honourable council, meaning to abolish all corrupt, base, and copper monies then current in the realm of England, coined in the times and reigns of king Henry VIII. and king Edward VI. to the great hindrance and decay of the commonwealth of this realm, and therewith to restore to all her subjects fine and pure sterling monies, both of gold and silver, to the great

great honour and benefit of the whole realm, published a proclamation on Michaelmas even before noon, that the testoon, coined for twelve-pence, should now forthwith, that of the best sort marked with a port-cullis, be current for four-pence half-penny; the second, marked with the grey-hound, for two-pence farthing; the third and worst sort, not marked as afore, not to be current at all, nor received for any value: the groat to be current for two-pence, the former piece of two-pence for a penny, &c. It was not long after this, but that her grace restoring to her subjects fine sterling money, called all the said base and corrupt coins into her majesty's mint, allowing to them therefore, after the rate before mentioned, so much of the said fine monies as they brought in of the said base monies.

The following proclamation also shews what care was taken of the coin in this reign.

A proclamation issued at Richmond, the 12th of October, 29 Eliz. intitled, A proclamation for reforming the deceits in diminishing the value of the coins of gold current within the queen's Majesty's dominions, and for remedying the losses that might grow by receiving thereof, being diminished. The former part of which ran as followeth:

Forasmuch as great part of our monies of gold of our realm of England, and such gold of foreign countries which now are current within our said realm, are, by the sinister and unlawful doings of wicked persons, not only carried out of our realm to foreign parts, and there, by divers means, diminished of their value, and from thence returned hither, and paid, in lieu of lawful coin, for the commodities of our countries, and some other of them embased, by clipping, southering, or other unlawful practices, of their due fineness, so that both the one sort and the other, by the means aforesaid, are brought much inferior to their first and true value and goodness: but besides that, many false pieces lie counterfeited in foreign parts, of the said coins, whereby great and intolerable loss and diminution of the riches of our realm doth daily grow and increase: wherefore we minding, as necessity requireth, the speedy remedy of the premises, do straightly forbid, charge, and command, that no manner of person or persons within this our realm of England, from and after the proclamation hereof in any county of our realm, do take or receive, or deliver in payment, any false counterfeit pieces of any coin of gold current within our said realm, or any piece of the same coin being southered, or otherwise unlawfully embased, or lacking of the just weight thereof, over the remedies and abatements severally expressed, and to be allowed in that behalf. And if any such piece of coin, lacking of its true weight above the remedies and abatements hereafter expressed: and if any such counterfeit piece as is aforesaid, or any piece of coin of gold southered, or unlawfully embased, shall be offered in payment: we will that it shall be lawful to every person and persons to whom such offer in payment shall be made, not only to refuse to take the same in payment, but also to strike a hole, at his pleasure, in every of the said pieces so offered in payment, which shall be southered or unlawfully embased, or which shall lack of their just weight above the remedies hereafter following, and to cut every of the said counterfeits into pieces; rendering those so stricken through, and the pieces of the others so cut in sunder, then presently afterwards to the owners thereof again. And if any controversy shall happen to arise betwixt the parties, or any of their friends or favourers then present, in or about such striking through, or in cutting in pieces any of the premises, that then forthwith he that shall offer any of the said unlawful and forbidden monies in payment, and he that shall receive the same, shall peaceably repair together to our next justice of the peace, mayor, bailiff, or other chief officer of that place, who then without delay, taking one other assistant of knowledge unto him, shall judge of the monies in controversy, and shall allow of those that are allowable, and, on the contrary, shall presently execute that which is here above appointed.

The remaining part of the proclamation contains directions for ballances and weights, to be provided by the warden of the Mint, for the use of such as should have occasion to examine the coins before spoken of.

KING JAMES I.

The parliament grants him tonnage and poundage for life.—The tonnage is 3s. for every ton of wine imported, and 3s. more for every ton of sweet wines, as well Malmsey as other, imported by aliens; and 12d. in the pound of the value of all goods imported or exported, excepting woollen cloths, &c. as in the former reigns.—Has four subsidies granted by the clergy of 4s. in the pound each.—The temporality grant three intire subsidies, and six fifteenths and tenths.—Also another subsidy of 6s. in the pound, granted by the clergy.—One intire subsidy, and one fifteenth and tenth, by the temporality.—Three intire subsidies granted by the spirituality, and two by the temporality.—Four intire subsidies again granted by the spirituality.—Three intire subsidies, and three fifteenths and tenths, by the temporality.—The king borrows

money of some of the wealthiest citizens of London, and the customs of all goods imported and exported were raised and let out to farm.—Raises large sums of money by fining several in the Star-Chamber.—Levies an aid for making his eldest son a knight.—Has a benevolence throughout the realm, which occasioned a general discontent.—Raises further sums, by instituting the order of baronets.

R E M A R K S.

By an indenture of the 1st of James I. a pound weight of gold, 22 carats fine and 2 carrats allay, were coined into 44 l. 10s. by tale; namely, into 10 s. 20s. 40s. and 5 l. pieces. And a pound weight of silver, of the old standard, into 62 s. by tale; namely, into crowns, half crowns, shillings, sixpences, groats, two-pences, and pence: which standard, both for gold and silver, hath continued ever since.

The scarcity of silver, during that reign, was the subject of much consideration and enquiry at the time: several proclamations were issued against the exportation of it, and several schemes were proposed for drawing it into the mint. It was particularly advised, that the weight of the money should be lessened: and this proceeded so far, that directions were actually given to the attorney-general, the 21st of February 1619, to prepare new indentures of the mint, whereby the pound weight Troy of standard silver should be coined into 66 s. But these directions were soon after recalled, and the designed alteration of the silver coin was ordered to be suspended for twelve months, upon a report made to the council, the 25th of the following April, by several eminent merchants, whose advice had been desired in a consultation with the ministers on that occasion. This intended alteration does not appear after this, to have been thought of any more: and, indeed, silver about the same time began to come again to the mint, in greater plenty than it had done for some years * before.

* It does not appear what was the occasion of this change, but the fact was this; that in the four years from the 1st of April, 1617, to the 4th of February, 1620, there was only coined at the Tower in silver money to the sum of 1070 l. 15 s. 4 d. and that in the four following years to the 31st of March, 1625, there was coined the sum of 205,500 l. 16 s. 2 d. This last sum is, however, little more than was coined in the last year and a half of queen Elizabeth: during whose whole reign, there was coined in silver above 100,000 l. a year, one year with another.

There was a good quantity of money coined in this reign, of the silver refined from the lead of the mines in the principality of Wales: and all the pieces of this money, of which I have seen the crown, the half-crown, and the shilling, were severally distinguished by the representation of the Welsh feathers, placed over the royal arms on their respective reverses; as those were also that were coined of this silver, during the first twelve years of the following reign before the mint was purposely set up for the coinage of the same †.

† The whole quantity of the money coined in the reign of king James the 1st, cannot, as Mr. Lowndes has observed in his Essay, be known directly from the books of the mint; by reason that many of the records and papers of that office having been destroyed or embezzled during the time of the great rebellion, the memorials of all transactions there, older than the restoration of king Charles the 1st, are now either lost, or remain in a very imperfect condition. Yet may a tolerable account be collected of this matter, by the assistance of other materials: and I have accordingly drawn out a memorandum, which will, I hope, be found sufficiently exact; partly from a paper of archbishop Williams, wherein an account is given of the coinage during the first 13 years of the king; partly from a certificate delivered to the council the 27th of November, 1618, in which is contained an account of the weight of the gold and silver coined in the several years from his 9th to his 15th; and partly from some extracts of the comptroller's accounts of his later years, communicated to me formerly by the late John Conduit, Esq; then master and worker of his Majesty's mint. By which several particulars it appears, that there was coined from the 31st of May, 1603, to the 31st of March, 1625,

In angel gold, at the several rates of 36 l. 10 s. 40 l. 10 s. 44 l. 11 s. and 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, to the value of	1. s. d. 32,093 17 9
In crown gold, at the several rates of 33 l. 10 s. 37 l. 4 s. 40 l. 18 s. 4 d. $\frac{2}{3}$ and 41 l. the pound weight, to the value of	3,634,296 1 2 3,666,389 13 11
In sterling silver, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight	1,641,004 13 2
In like silver for Ireland, to the sterling value	124,957 1
	1,765,961 14 1

REV

And the total value of all the gold and silver monies coined in the reign of king James, exclusive of some base monies coined for Ireland, and of which I have seen no account, amounted to the value of

Martin Folkes, Esq;

KING CHARLES I.

Has three entire subsidies granted him by the spirituality, and two by the temporality, and double from the Roman catholics.—In his third year, five subsidies from the spirituality, and as many from the temporality.—Has tonnage and poundage granted him, as also money for disbanding the armies.—Borrows money by way of loan.—Obliges all who were possessed of a knight's fee, to take upon them the order of knighthood, or to fine for avoiding.—Raises ship-money without the consent of parliament.—Demands aid of the clergy, and of the Roman catholics.—Obliges the several counties to raise an army against the Scots.—Makes void all grants of monopolies.—Again raises ship-money.—Obliges the northern counties to raise a considerable number of forces.—The parliament grant him a poll-tax, and 300,000 l. to pay the Scots.

REMARKS.

By an indenture, in the 2d year of king Charles I. a pound weight of gold of the old standard, of 23 carats, 23 grains and a half fine, and half a grain allay, was coined into 44 l. 10 s. by tale; namely, into rose-rials at 30 s. a-piece, spur-rials at 15 s. a-piece, and angels at 10 s. a-piece. And a pound weight of crown gold, of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats allay, into 41 l. by tale; namely, into unites at 20 s. double crowns at 10 s. or British crowns at 5 s. a-piece. And a pound of silver of the old standard, of 11 ounces 2 dwts. fine, and 18 dwts. allay, into 62 s. by tale; namely, into crowns, half-crowns, shillings, half-shillings, two-pences, pence, and half-pence.

The gold coins of this king (as appears by the indenture above) are, rose-rials, angels, unites, double and British crowns.

By an account which Mr Lowndes has published in his Essay, the silver money coined in the reign of king Charles the 1st, and by which we must only underitand the silver money regularly coined in the Tower of London, amounted to the sum of 8,776,544 l. 10 s. 3 d. But of the gold there also coined during the said time, I am not able to give so exact an account. All I can say is, that, by a paper I saw in the hands of the late Mr Conduit, the weight of the angel gold coined from the beginning of the king's reign to the 25th of November 1642, and which was coined into angels only, was that of 284 lb. 5 oz. 9 dwts. 9 gr. which made in money then current, at the rate of 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the sum of 12,658 l. 5 s. 9 d. ob. And it appears by the accounts of the pix, that there has been no angel gold coined in England since that time. It also further appeared by the same paper, that there was coined in crown gold from the king's accession to the 31st of March 1641, in weight, 68,832 lb. 11 oz. 11 dwts. 4 gr. and by two other papers purporting to be the accounts of Sir Ralph Freeman and Sir Thomas Aylesbury, from the 1st of August 1641, to the 5th of May 1643, and of Sir Robert Harley, from the 6th of May 1643, to the 31st of March 1646, that there was coined during that time in crown gold, the weight of 7052 lb. 2 oz. 11 dwts. 1 gr. To which last weight, if we add proportionably for the four months elapsed between the 31st of March and the 1st of August 1641, and for the 34 months between the end of these accounts and the 30th of January 1648, we cannot very greatly mistake in supposing the weight of the crown gold, coined from the 1st of April 1641, to the time of the king's death, to have been of about 11,826 lb. Which added to the former quantity, will make, for the whole weight of the crown gold coined in this reign, about 80,659 lb. and which, reduced into money, at the rate of 41 l. to the pound weight, produces of the same 3,307,019 l. To which if we add the value before given of the angel gold, and of the silver coined in the same time, we shall find that the whole sum in gold and silver coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king Charles the 1st, did not in current money amount to less than about 12,096,220 l. sterling. Folkes.

The Commonwealth of England, OLIVER CROMWELL, Protector.

The city of London give their money and plate, even to the servant-maids bodkins and thimbles, towards carrying on the good old cause, as some called it.—An account of the several sums of money raised by the long parliament, is as follows, viz.

VOL. II.

REV

A general abstract of money raised in England by the Long Parliament, from Nov. 3, 1640, to Nov. 1659.

	l.	s.	d.
Subsidies	600,000	0	0
The armies	32,780,721	13	0
Tonnage and poundage	5,700,000	0	0
Captives	102,000	0	0
Sale of Irish lands	1,322,500	0	0
Contributions for Irish Protestants	180,000	0	0
Forces for defence of particular counties	4,141,088	8	0
Excises	10,200,000	0	0
Duty on coals	850,000	0	0
Ditto on currants	51,000	0	0
Sequestrations of estates	6,044,924	17	0
Postage of letters	301,000	0	0
Wine licences	312,200	0	0
Composition for court of wards	1,000,000	0	0
Offices to public service	850,000	0	0
Vintners delinquency	4000	0	0
Compositions for estates	1,277,226	0	0
Sale of English lands	25,380,687	3	11½
Settled out of gentlemens estates, to pay P. Palatine	85,000	0	0
Compound with Irish delinquents	1,000,000	0	0
Charge of justice, 6 years	1,200,000	0	0
To the house of commons 14 years, comes to	754,472	0	0
Free gifts to the saints, viz. in money	679,800	0	0
In offices	306,110	0	0
In estates per annum	189,365	0	0
Total	95,312,095	1	11½

Mr. Walker, no less concerned in the usurpation than those he rails at in his History of Independency, having run through all the rebellion with them, 'till they turned him off, and therefore well acquainted with their methods of raising money, and the amount thereof, sums up the same after this manner:

Nor is it a small artifice to raise money by so many several and confused taxes, whereas one or two ways would have done the work: 1. Royal subsidy of 300,000 l. 2. Poll-money. 3. The free loans and contributions upon the public faith, amounted to a vast incredible sum of money, plate, horses, arms, &c. 4. Irish adventure for the sale of lands, the first and second time. 5. The weekly meal. 6. The city loan after the rate of fifty subsidies. 7. The assessment for bringing in the Scots. 8. The five and twentieth part. 9. The weekly assessment for my lord general's army. 10. The weekly or monthly assessment for Sir Thomas Fairfax's army. 11. The weekly assessment for the Scots army. 12. The weekly assessment for the British army in Ireland. 13. The weekly assessment for my lord of Manchester's army. 14. Free quarter (at least) connived at by the state; because the soldiers having for a time subsistence that way, are the less craving for their pay, whereby their arrears growing stale, will at last either be frustrated by a tedious committee of accounts, or forgotten; in the mean time the grand committee of accounts discount it out of the commander's arrears, whereby the state saves it. 15. The king's revenue. 16. Sequestrations and plunder by committees, which, if well answered to the state, would have carried on the work, which thus I demonstrate: one half of all the goods and chattels, and (at least) one half of all the lands, rents, and revenues of the kingdom have been sequestered; and who can imagine, that one half of the profits and goods of the land will not maintain any forces, that can be kept and fed in England for the defence thereof? 17. Excise upon all things. This alone, if well managed, would maintain the war: the Low-Countries make it almost the only support. 18. Fortification money, &c. By these several ways and taxes, about 40 millions in money and money-worth, have been milked from the people. A vast treasure, and so excessive, as nothing but a long peace could import, and nothing but much fraud and many follies could dissipate; and we ought not to wonder if it be accounted inter arcana novissimi imperii, to be always making, yet never finishing an account thereof.

It is here to be observed, that the 40 millions he here speaks of, were only to the year 1647, so that they had not been above five years raising and expending them. Nor is it less remarkable, that Walker had gone hand in hand in the parliament with the extorters and consumers of all this treasure, being himself as deep concerned as any other in the villainy, and yet never saw into it, 'till the Independents thrust him and his party from having any share in the cheat.

REMARKS.

The parliament, on April 25, 1649, agreed upon a new sort of coin, whereof there were coined, crowns, half-crowns, shillings, six-pences, pence and half-pence.

In the year 1656, Oliver Cromwell, who had on the 16th day of December 1653, been invested with the title of Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland,

Ireland, and who was every day acquiring new powers, adventured to coin money with his own head and style. But whether the monies of this sort were, either then or afterwards, ever published, as true, lawful, and current monies of England, I have not been able to learn. All his 20 s. pieces of gold that I have seen are of this date, and so are a very few of his silver half-crowns, one of which is in the valuable collection of the worthy Robert Bootle, Esq; one of the directors of the East-India company: but in general the silver coins which we have with the head and style of the protector, do not bear an earlier date than that of the year 1658. I have also been informed, by my very ingenious friend Mr George Vertue, who has examined all the works of Simon, chief engraver to the mint, with the exactness of an artist, and from whom we may expect an accurate account of the same, when he shall have leisure to publish the curious collections he has made upon that subject, that he has observed half-crowns of this sort, where the last figure of the date had been altered from a 6 to an 8 upon the die: which would lead one to conjecture, that those dies, though prepared in 1656, were not really used before the year 1658, and after the second solemn inauguration of the protector, which was on the 26th of May 1657*. When it is even probable that the pieces coined, were rather looked upon as proofs, and given away as medals or counters among his friends, than publicly dispersed as common money throughout the kingdom.

* There was, I find, a trial of the pix, on the 3d of December 1657, which is said, in the books of the mint, to have been of the monies coined in the Tower, from the 9th day of November 1649, to that time: and that the money then tried consisted of unites, double crowns and crowns, of new standard gold; and of crowns, half-crowns, shillings, half-shillings, two-penny pieces, pennies, and half-pennies, of old sterling silver; all marked with the sun, and agreeable to the indenture made with Aaron Guerdien, M. D. master and worker, the 27th of July 1649, whereby it appears, that this trial was of monies of the Commonwealth only. The trial was made before the commissioners of the great seal, and the commissioners of the treasury, by virtue of a warrant from the lord protector: which warrant I shall here transcribe a copy of, as the same is inserted in the book from whence I took these particulars, and as it was in all probability the only one of the sort.

OLIVER P.

Whereas amongst other weighty affairs of the Commonwealth, the care of the assaying and trying of the monies thereof by the standard of England, according to the ancient custom of the realm, is not the least: we judging it necessary, that the trial and assay of the said money and coin be forthwith made, do therefore hereby signify such our will and pleasure to be; commanding you forthwith to cause a trial and assay to be made of the pix now being in the mint within the Tower of London, by a jury of goldsmiths of our said city of London, of integrity and experience, to be impanelled and sworn on a day certain, to be by you in that behalf appointed, in the place accustomed within our palace of Westminster: and that the lords commissioners of our treasury, the justices of the several benches, and barons of the Exchequer, or some of them, be then there present, and counselling and assisting you in the due execution of this our service.

Given at Whitehall this 9th day of November, 1657.

To our trusty and well beloved Nathaniel Fiennes and John Lisle, lords commissioners of our great seal of England.

The trial of the pix last preceding this, was made on the 9th of November 1649, before the lord president of the council of state, the commissioners of the great seal, and others of the council of state, and committee of revenues; by virtue of an act of the 7th of the said month of November 1649, to try the monies coined from the 15th day of February 1646. These monies are said to have been marked with a scepter, and were therefore all coined before the king's death. This was consequently that same trial of the pix that is mentioned from Whitlocke, in the 95th page of these papers, and that was ordered to be made at the charge of Sir Robert Harley, when he was put out of his place: and Dr Guerdien's pix was therefore not opened, before the above mentioned 3d of December 1657.

What quantity was coined in all of this money of the Commonwealth, I have never been able to learn. All the papers I have seen relating to that subject, were only some extracts Mr Conduit had of Dr Guerdien's accounts, for about four years and a half elapsed between the 16th day of May 1649, when he entered upon his office, and the 30th day of November 1653. By which it appeared, that there was coined at the Tower during that time, in crown gold, the weight of 1768 lb. 7 oz. 17 dwts. 16 gr. making in tale, at 11 l. the pound weight, the sum of 72,514 l. 18 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; and in sterling silver, the weight of 123,644 lb. 1 oz. 8 dwts. 12 gr. making in tale, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of 383,294 l. 15 s. 4 d. $\frac{1}{2}$: so that the whole coinage, both in gold and silver, during the said time, amounted to the value of 455,809 l. 14 s. 6 d. $\frac{1}{2}$. Folkes.

Has a subsidy granted him of tonnage and poundage, &c.—Has poll-money granted to pay off the armies and navy.—Has 140,000 l. more granted for the compleat disbanding the army.—Has the grant of an excise upon beer, ale, &c. during life.—Passes an act for erecting and establishing a post-office.—Has a grant of 1,260,000 l.—Has a grant of chimney-money.—Has four entire subsidies granted by the temporality, and as many by the clergy, for carrying on the war against the Dutch.—Has 2,477,500 l. granted for the same.—Has a supply of 1,250,000 l. granted him at Oxford.—Raises 1,256,347 l. 13 s. by a poll-tax.—Raises 316,000 l. by an excise upon wine and other liquors.—Has another imposition granted upon all wines and vinegar imported for a certain term of years.—Sells his fee-farm rent.—Has a land-tax granted him.—Has a grant of an additional excise upon beer, ale, &c.—Passes an act for laying impositions on proceedings at law.—Passes an act for raising the sum of 1,238,750 l.—Passes an act for raising 584,978 l. 2 s. 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, and an act for an additional excise on beer, &c. for three years.—Passes an act for raising money by a poll, &c.—Passes an act for a supply of 619,380 l. 11 s. 9 d. for disbanding the army.—Has a grant of a farther supply of 260,462 l. 17 s. 3 d. for the same use.

REMARKS.

By an indenture in the 12th of Charles II. gold and silver monies were coined into the same pieces, and at the same rates, as in the 2d of Charles I. By another indenture in the 22d of king Charles II. crown gold, 22 carats fine and 2 carats allay, was coined into 44 l. 10 s. by tale; namely, into pieces to go for 10 s. 20 s. 40 s. or 5 l. a-piece; and a pound of silver of the old standard, into 3 l. 2 s. by tale; namely, into crowns, half-crowns, shillings, six-pences, groats, three-pences, two-pences, and pence.

The money of king Charles II. was of three sorts: the hammered, which was the only current coin 'till 1665; the milled upon the side; and that with the graining or letters upon the edge.—The first money that bore the name of this king, was coined at Pontefract-Castle.

By the duplicates and attested copies of the controllment-rolls and other books remaining in his majesty's mint, it appears, that there were coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king Charles the II. d, and after his restoration, the several sums mentioned in the following account: that is to say,

	l.	s.	d.
In crown gold, of 22 carats fine and 2 carats of allay, from the 20th day of July 1660, to the 31st day of December 1662, the weight of 918 lb. 8 oz. 3 dwts. the which, being coined into unites, commonly called broad-pieces, double crowns, and British crowns, and into milled unites of the same weight as the others, made in money then current, at the rate of 41 l. the pound weight, the value of	37,665	16	11
In like gold from the 1st of January 1662, to the 6th day of February 1684, the weight of 93,024 lb. 8 dwts. 13 gr. the which, being coined into 20 s. pieces, commonly called guineas, pieces of 10 s. 40 s. and 5 l. made in money then and still current, at 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the value of	4,139,588	2	6
Tot. of gold in weight, 93,943 lb. 10 oz. 11 dwts. 13 gr. making in money	4,177,253	12	5

Note, That although the warrant for the cutting the pound weight of gold into 44 guineas and a half, was not signed until the 24th of December 1663, yet the weight of 27 lb. 8 oz. coined some time before, and which was the only gold minted since the last day of the preceding December, was really coined into guineas; and as such delivered, on the 31st of the following December 1663.

	l.	s.	d.
In sterling silver, of 11 oz. 2 dwts. fine, and 18 dwts. of allay, from the 20th day of July 1660, to the 5th day of February 1662, the weight of 175,691 lb. 2 oz. 10 dwts. the which being coined into hammered money, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, made, in the coin then current, the sum of	544,642	14	11

In

In like silver, from the 6th of Feb. 1662, to the 6th of Feb. 1684, the weight of 1,025,012 lb. 0 oz. 14 dwts. 14 gr. the which being coined into milled money, at the same rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, made in the coins, then and still current, the sum of	l.	s.	d.
	3,177,537	7	9 $\frac{1}{4}$
Total of the silver in weight 1,200,703 lb. 3 oz. 4 dwts. 14 gr. making in money	3,722,180	2	8 $\frac{1}{4}$
And the total value of all the monies both of gold and silver coined in this reign, according to the foregoing rates, amounted to the sum of	7,899,434	2	1 $\frac{1}{4}$

It may here be noted, that part of the silver above mentioned was the produce of 1,500,000 French crowns, or 4,500,000 livres Tournois, received for the sale of Dunkirk; which produced in standard silver the weight of 108,636 lb. 9 oz. 3 dwts. 2 gr. and made in coined English money by tale 336,773 l. 3 s. 9 d. $\frac{1}{2}$. As also, that other part of the same silver was the produce of what were called the crown and harp money, which Sir Thomas Vyner, Knt. and Bart. Francis Meynell, Esq; then sheriff of London, and Edward Backwell, Esq; contracted with his Majesty on the 6th of December 1661, to take in by tale, and to coin with all convenient expedition, at their own charge, into English current monies: receiving for the same a consideration of 1 l. 10 s. for every 100 l. in tale, in lieu of want of weight and expence of coinage. Upon which there was accordingly re-coined of the said cross and harp monies, the sum of about 500,000 l. in tale.

KING JAMES II.

Passes an act for settling the same revenue on himself for life, which was settled on his brother for his life.—Has an imposition granted upon all wines and vinegar imported for a certain term of years.—Has an imposition granted upon all tobacco and sugar imported for a certain term of years.—Has the grant of an imposition on all French and East-India linens, &c.

REMARKS.

By an indenture in the first of James II. a pound weight of gold, 22 carats fine and 2 carats allay, was coined into 44 l. 10 s. by tale, namely, into 10 s. 20 s. 40 s. and 5 l. pieces; and a pound weight of silver of the old standard into 62 s. by tale, namely, into crowns; half-crowns, shillings, sixpences, groats, three-pences, two-pences, and pence; which standard, both for gold and silver, hath continued ever since. There was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king James II. that is to say, from the 7th day of February 1684, to the 13th day of February 1688;

In crown gold; the weight of 47,497 lb. 6 oz. 1 dwt. which being coined into 20 s. pieces called guineas, &c. made at the rate of 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the value of	l.	s.	d.
	2,113,638	18	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
In sterl. silver, the weight of 167,198 lb. 10 oz. 6 dwts. 20 gr. making in money at the rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of	518,316	9	5 $\frac{1}{4}$
Total value of both the gold and the silver	2,631,955	8	13 $\frac{3}{4}$

The king landing with French forces at Kinsale in Ireland on the 12th of the following March, the greatest part of that kingdom submitted to him, and he made his entry into Dublin on the 24th of the same month. He there by proclamation raised, for his present occasions, the value of all the coins both of gold and silver, that were then current in Ireland: but his wants a few months after greatly encreasing, he was reduced to such distress, that he was forced to coin old brass guns and other utensils of base metal into pieces of money, made also current for half-crowns, shillings, and half-shillings, by proclamation of the 18th of June 1689.

General REMARKS on this article of the PUBLIC REVENUE, from the Conquest to the end of the Reign of king JAMES II. in relation as well to the state of the CIVIL and RELIGIOUS LIBERTIES of the nation, as to its TRADE and COMMERCE.

I. Of liberty, both civil and religious.

Let men make ever so slight reflections on the manner in which this kingdom has been governed from the Conquest to this day, let them but run through the dynasties of the English kings, and sum up the account of the annals of each reign, and then let any candid and judicious commentator say whether liberty was ever at any former period of time more amply exercised and enjoyed, than at the present hour.

'Till the Restoration there was no such thing as liberty: that after the Restoration was nothing, compared to the strength it gained at the Revolution; and the strength it then acquired; is so far, in my opinion of things, from being now impaired; that it never flourished in such full vigour as in the reign of his present most gracious Majesty, king George II.

From the Restoration let any one cast their eye backward to the Conquest, and they will find whatever changes happened in the government, those changes were nothing more than from one tyrant, or one kind of tyranny, to another. With regard to the persons of tyrants, there were glorious and inglorious, slothful and active, successful and unsuccessful tyrants, but there never was a cessation from one sort or other. With regard to the form of tyranny, there was only the same melancholy vicissitude in the manner of oppressing the people; without any suspension of the thing itself; sometimes it was the regal tyranny of the prince, sometimes the aristocratic tyranny of the barons; sometimes (as in the reigns of Harry the II^d and queen Mary the Ist) the ecclesiastical tyranny of the clergy; and sometimes all together, in their different jurisdictions. By which means, between monarchical, oligarchical, or hierarchical oppression, there was no change but from this tyrant to that, or from one to many; and so little appearance of liberty of any kind among the people; that to recur to what I have already said, I never hear any body harangue with enthusiastic encomiums on the liberty of Old England, that I am not either ashamed of my ancestors for deserving those encomiums so little, or of my contemporaries for bestowing them so ignorantly.

As to the liberty of this country during the domination of the Norman line, every body knows it was none; the right of conquest, the apprehensions of the conqueror, and the depression of the conquered, made him eager to secure and fix his title, and the other too much weakened with intestine disputes, not to submit to any thing rather than re-expose themselves to the recent mischiefs of struggling: this disposition of both made tyranny easy to be exercised by the masters, and hard to be resisted by the slaves; their purses, we have seen, were drained, as also their numbers thinned, and their spirits broken: foreign families were called in to lord it over the natives: and whatever was imposed or required, the people were unable to dispute, or afraid to refuse.

From William the Ist to Harry the II^d, the crown was worn by three successive kings, who had no other pretence to the crown, than the having a mind to wear it, and finding means to obtain it: during these reigns, it was force only prevailed, and the people enjoyed their right, no more than the lawful prince did his.

It is true, that every one of these three princes did successively promise the people, in order to make them acquiesce under this usurpation, that they would re-establish the Saxon form of government, and restore all those privileges and immunities to the people, which were enjoyed before the Conquest; but as they all three made this promise to facilitate and plan their way to the throne; so they all three broke it when they were seated and fixed there.

During the reign of Henry the II^d (the first king of the Plantagenet line) it is true, the crown was less powerful, but the people were not more free; their condition was not better for their king's being worse; ecclesiastical disputes and family quarrels broke and bounded his power, without enlarging his subjects privileges; and whilst he mourned the loss of the one, they still groaned under the privation of the other.

To him that royal Don Quixote, and warlike enthusiast, Richard the Ist succeeded, who exhausted the treasure of his kingdom, to raise his fame upon earth, and spilt the blood of his subjects, to purchase glory in heaven.

In the next reign, a struggle for liberty was again made, but not for the liberty of the people; the struggle lay between a king who had a mind to be sole tyrant, and the barons who had long tyrannized in their particular districts over their inferiors, and now wanted to tyrannize over their superior too. During the long subsequent reign of Harry the III^d (that is, after the king was of age, and the regency of the earl of Pembroke determined) the contest was the same as in the preceding reign; and though by the conduct of the earl of Leicester, the people afterward seemed to have got some ground, by chusing representatives who were instituted with a pretence of taking care of their rights, yet this was but a seeming acquisition, and no real advantage in present gained; for whilst the pretence of this institution was only the security of the rights, liberties, and privileges of the people, the true reason of their institution was only like the popular affectation of patriotism, that prevailed a few years ago in this kingdom: the great abuse of which, has proved so detrimental to the state, that the attempts of others since, to shew the real spirit of patriotism, have been stifled, misrepresented, or ridiculed; for the people having been so often made the dupes of a party instead of a patriot spirit, it is no wonder they distrust all pretensions of that kind, 'till they have incontestible conviction of uprightness and public spirit. Of this weak and corrupt ministers may make no little advantage to support their power; for if all attempts to manifest a real concern for the public weal are to be laughed at,

at, no one will have resolution to oppose the worst designs; and therefore the abuse of the spirit of liberty will render it of no use when we stand most in need of it. Thus false patriots pave the way to slavery, under pretext of contending for liberty.

The long reign of Harry the III^d was a shifting scene of various turns, some in favour of an oppressive king, others of a turbulent nobility, or one ambitious man; but for the people, whatever spoke of this wheel was uppermost, their liberties, like the earth, were always beneath its revolutions, and crushed by its weight.

To Henry III. succeeded Edward I. a great man, and a great king; but though his people grew more considerable under him, they became not more free: the conquest of Wales, and the progress the English arms made in Scotland, increased the consideration of the English nation, but it restored no privileges to the people; and, though the national boundaries of the English dominions were stretched, the limits of English freedom were still unenlarged, the gates of liberty were as closely shut, and as strongly barred as ever; and the only comfort of the people in this reign was, not that the power of the crown was bounded, but that it was not abused.

As no body will say the reign of his weak and unfortunate son, Edward II. was a reign of liberty, and as I mention no reign but with regard to that single point, I shall pass it over without any farther comment.

King Edward III. and his son, who never was king, were both of them great and able men, great in action, and able in council; England too was great under them, but not free; and even its grandeur under these princes, as well as under Harry the Fourth and Fifth, was a dangerous grandeur, which, though it raised the reputation of this country in present, would, if it had gone on a little longer, ended in its ruin: for the only difference ultimately between France being conquered by England, or England conquered by France, must be, whether an English or a French king should rule both; since, in either case, the seat of empire would have been in France, and England, consequently, in either, would have become a province to France, as in two possessions under the same prince, the lesser must always be a province to the greater. In the beginning of Richard the Second's tyrannical and simple reign, one tumultuous mob, indeed, under a rash intoxicated leader, made a shew of struggling for liberty; but the subsequent part of his reign was confusion and oppression, which ended in his deposition, and the establishment of as able a tyrant as ever sat on this throne.

The gentler disposition of this sagacious usurper's great and wise son, Harry the Fifth, the success of his arms abroad, and the calmer situation of his subjects at home, less irritated by domestic oppression, and less torn by intestine divisions, made the people more happy, but made them in no one particular more free: for, though the expences of his rapid and extensive conquests were defrayed with less charge than such achievements usually are, yet this was entirely owing to the wise frugality of his own œconomy, to the bounds he himself set to his demands, and not the limits the people prescribed to his disbursements, or to their donations.

In the subsequent reign began the fatal disputes between the houses of York and Lancaster, which terminated, after four reigns, and about 60 years, in the establishment of Harry VII. During all this contest, the people were so far from enjoying any freedom, that they never so much as grasped at it; they fought not for liberty, but for a master, and never aimed at striking off one chain, but in order to put on another; as if it were material, in chains of equal weight and strength, whose name was engraved on the rivets by which they were fastened.

Harry VII. a prince not wanting understanding, but wanting many good qualities, biased by the utmost oppressions, and meanest cruelties, found a disposition in his people to bear them patiently; he knew they would submit to almost any thing he would impose upon them, rather than venture, by new resistance, to open those wounds again which were yet hardly skinned: and having sense enough to discern this to be their case, without benevolence or justice, he chose, instead of making himself safe in their affections, to try how far they would suffer, and, by a series of rapacious and cruel acts of injustice, violence, and treachery, made his reign as uneasy to himself as it was oppressive to his subjects.

This man, however, by a little dirty cunning shewn in squeezing the rich, and deceiving every body that trusted him, got the title of the English Solomon; to have called him the English David would have been more apposite, as he died much more like the one, than he lived like the other, by ordering his son, on his death-bed, to do by the unfortunate earl of Suffolk as David ordered his son to do by Shimei, when after having promised to spare his life, he commanded it, by an unjust and cruel equivocation, to be taken from him by another.

In Harry VIII. centered the two different claims of York and Lancaster to the crown; and as he had of course an indisputable right, by this union of the two claims, to ascend the throne; so he seemed to think he had an equal privilege to do whatever he thought fit, when he was placed there,

and that the people in general had no more right to object to any violence his caprice and cruelty put him upon acting as king, than any particular person had to object to his being so.

As his father and mother conveyed to him the titles both of the York and Lancaster families, so he seemed likewise to inherit, through them, all the vices of both those houses; he had all the dissoluteness and luxury of his mother's family, in the early days of his reign, and, in the more advanced part of it, all the rapaciousness and cruelty of his father.

During the reign of this butcher of his wives, this terror of the nobility, this dupe abroad, and tyrant at home, there was in England neither civil nor religious liberty, neither liberty of acting, speaking, or thinking; intimidated servile parliaments were often the proxies of his tyranny, but never checks to it; they made and unmade, enacted and abrogated laws backward and forward, just as his fluctuating disposition and lawless will (under the appearance of law) dictated and ordained.

In religious matters his conduct was not less desultory and tyrannical than in regard to the succession; resentment to the power of Rome produced such madly work in his councils, that notwithstanding a disposition in the people, through fear, to embrace any opinion which he had a mind to recommend, and profess any belief he wished to impose upon them; yet his ordinances were often so contradictory and unintelligible, that many miserable wretches were put to death for saying they believed, and many for saying they disbelieved the same thing, whilst others were burnt for professing, contrary to his will, what they had only professed because they thought those professions conformable to it.

During the short reign of his son Edward VI. the pride and weakness of the protector Somerset, and the ambition and wickedness of Dudley duke of Northumberland, successively harassed the kingdom with all the calamities attending a people squeezed by oppressive taxes, and forced into civil wars: and though the bad conduct of these two aspiring men ended in their own mutual ruin, yet the cessation of their sway gave not to the people any relief from those miseries caused by their authority whilst it lasted.

It is true, we owe, in a great measure, the benefits we at this day enjoy from the Reformation, to the duke of Somerset: but that this country should owe such a benefit originally to one of the worst kings, and, secondly, to one of the weakest ministers that ever governed it, is a reflection that makes one wonder at the very beneficial effects sometimes collaterally produced from very unrespectable causes, but gives us very little reverence for such casual benefactors.

To Edward VI. succeeded his sister Mary, a devout but execrable sovereign; for the cruel piety of that holy tyrant exposed this kingdom to as many misfortunes, under a bigoted woman, as it ever felt under the worst man; her whole authority was consigned to the hands of ecclesiastical governors, who embued them every day in the blood of her unhappy subjects: the usurpation of the lady Jane Grey, and the subsequent rebellion of Wyatt, made, perhaps, some executions necessary to secure queen Mary on the throne; but to these many more, very unnecessary, were added, by the inexorable spirit of persecuting Churchmen, who sacrificed, like the most barbarous idolators, whole hetacombs of Protestant victims to their edible god, and his infallible ambassador.

Christians, professing charity, inflicted on Christians all those cruelties which the early followers of Christ complained of receiving at the afflictive hand of the most hardened infidels.

In a reign then where absolute power both in Church and State, urged by revenge and enthusiasm, under the mask of loyalty and devotion, persecuted and condemned the offenders against an injured queen, and what they called an injured God; in such a reign, what privileges and freedom were allowed to the people, even those who are most unacquainted with the history of these times may easily imagine; from the nature of such circumstances.

At the conclusion of this bloody melancholy scene (which closed not till the death of the weak bigot that opened it) came queen Elizabeth, a woman as different from her sister and predecessor in understanding as in religion; and one whose great and glorious reign can never be unjustly extolled, but when it is called a reign where the people enjoyed the least shadow of liberty. Every step she took tended to the public welfare, the honour of the nation, and the interest of the collective body of her people; but was taken as absolutely without their consent, as the most prejudicial measures of any of her most arbitrary predecessors or successors.

She often sent for the speaker of the House of Commons, and told him not only what she would and would not suffer to be done, but also what she would or would not allow to be said; told him she wanted money, and would have it, and that Year or Nay should only be uttered when it was proposed to be given; that the Commons understood not state affairs; that state affairs were not their business; and that it behoved them only to meddle with what was properly within their province. She, by her lord chancellor, told the speaker, and by the speaker told the Commons, that they had no right to judge

of returns in elections, but that her lord chancellor should be the sole judge, and determine in those cases.

She imprisoned members of parliament merely by her own authority, forbid some bills to be read in the House; others to be debated there, and refused the royal assent twice to above 30 bills each time, that had passed both Houses.

Never were the reins of prerogative held with a stricter hand, or the yoke of slavery faster bound upon the people's necks, than at this period of time; and though the people were driven where they ought to have chosen to go, yet they were still driven; and the same power that forced them into foreign glory and domestic prosperity, might, in the hands of a less skilful, or worse-disposed driver, have forced them into the paths of contempt abroad, and destruction at home; the same method of government pursued in the subsequent reign, and the effects of that method, on different maxims and policy, verify this assertion.

All, therefore, that can be said with regard to the liberty enjoyed in the reign of queen Elizabeth, is, that she who allowed her subjects none, knew their interest so well, and pursued it so steadily, that under her they possessed every good, but that of being able to make the good they possessed, the effects of their own election.

To queen Elizabeth succeeded the original of that unhappy race of Stuarts, king James I. His reign and his son's were one continued series of folly and injustice; for these princes imagining they had a right to keep up the prerogative at the mark they found it, thought of nothing but their prerogative, and vainly imagined the nation would submit to the same stretch of the prerogative, when exercised to their infamy and ruin, under which it had acquiesced when employed for their glory and prosperity.

In like manner did these proud, vain, ambitious, weak kings, endeavour to tread the paths of queen Elizabeth, without either her head to conduct them in such paths, or such ministers as she made use of to assist them.

I shall enter into no particular detail of the oppression and despotism of these two reigns, the notoriety of the facts makes it needless; and with regard to the struggle made for liberty, when the people could bear no longer the lawless oppressive conduct of king Charles I, though that struggle freed them from his tyranny, it was far from procuring them that freedom for which it commenced: their deliverer became their undoer, and an absolute stratocracy was the only exchange they made for an absolute monarchy. I cannot help here observing, that when the patriot reformers of those days, called Levellers, posted up their declaration at Banbury, three of the four articles of which, according to Whitlocke, that declaration consisted, were these:

First, Against the present parliament, and their proceedings.

Secondly, Against the council of state.

Thirdly, Against the council of the army.

I must add too, that this declaration was made just after these Levellers, in modelling the government, had agreed that no excise should subsist above four months after the commencement of the next parliament.

No public officers of salary should be capable of being chosen at the next election.

No members of one representative to be chosen of the next.

The next and future parliament to be annual.

Not to depend longer on the uncertain inclination of parliament.

Tythes not to continue longer than the next representative.

Every parish to chuse their own minister, and no parish to be forced to pay him.

And no one to be exempted from offices on account of religion.

How little liberty such contenders for liberty procured for this country, is too well known to need animadversion; we shall therefore conclude our remarks on the well-known events of these times, by saying, that those who pretended at first only to reduce and bound the power of the Crown, and to curb him who had abused it, became themselves, after they had destroyed the King, such intolerable oppressors of the people, that they straightened every chain they pretended to loose, and doubled every evil they pretended to cure; and thus (according to Rapin) one may with great truth affirm that England was never less free than during the long parliament, and the administration of Cromwell; and how profusely the public money was exacted at that time, we have seen.

Such excesses brought the affairs of this country into the utmost confusion, and that confusion ended in recalling from long banishment the Son of that oppressor whom these patriots had deposed.

Upon this restoration of king Charles II, all the grievances complained of in his father's reign (or at least the source of them, which was arbitrary power) were by miracle only prevented from being again established in this country, and even by law.

For had it not been for that great and upright minister, lord Clarendon, that faithful servant to an ungrateful Master, that true patriot and real benefactor to an unthankful people, the form of this government had been entirely altered, the English had been, for some time at least, as absolute slaves as the Turks or the Persians; for the King had two millions a year settled upon him, to defray all the expences necessary

for the support of his government; parliaments had been made useless, and consequently laid aside, whilst the regal authority had been the sole legislative, as well as principal executive power in this country.

That this opposition of lord Clarendon to the servile schemes of the Tory restoration men of this æta; was no proof of his love to his Master, though it was a great one of his zeal for the public, was the way of reasoning which the enemies of this great man made use of to destroy him, and which prevailed at last with his unfeeling, blinded, and cruel Master, to give him up and discard him. But, in truth, this conduct of lord Clarendon was as much for the real interest of the King, as the people: he thought, and thought rightly, that it was the interest of the King to have his government established on that foot which the bent of the nation would quickly submit to, and not such as they would be tempted afterwards to resist, from the same motives that had before provoked resistance; he imagined, from the examples of Charles I, Richard II, Edward II, and Harry III, who had been ruined by grasping at absolute power in this country, that it was much more prudent for a king here to content himself with a bounded authority, which he might make permanent and secure, than to make his whole authority precarious, by trying to extend it beyond its proper limits. which had in all times made the people so uneasy whenever it was attempted, that rebellion and civil wars had generally been the consequence of such weak and impolitic measures.

When the Ephori were established in Sparta, by the consent of Theopompus, who then reigned there, his wife asked him; If he should not be ashamed to leave the regal authority to his sons in a worse condition than he found it! To which he answered, He should leave it in a better, as it would be more secure, in being more tolerable, and more permanent, from being liable to fewer abuses. Had lord Clarendon been reproached for suffering any boundary to be put to the power of his master, I dare say he would have returned just such an answer.

And that this way of arguing in lord Clarendon was salutary for the king, as well as becoming a lover of his country, the effect of different reasonings and measures in the next reign plainly shewed.

But to return to the account proposed to be given of the state of liberty, we acknowledge there was, by the upright conduct of lord Clarendon on the Restoration, for some time, the dawning appearance of liberty, in some wise and beneficial laws that were then made; but this dawning was soon overcast, other measures were pursued; this witty man and silly king was governed by his still more silly brother; and not only the liberty, but the religion of the people, were struck at and invaded.

To these domestic grievances was added the infamous management of our foreign affairs; the parliament grew refractory on account of both; and though, for some time, the duke of York and the parliament got the better alternately, yet, at last, the duke's scale prevailed, and the king, for the three last years of his reign, governed without calling any parliament at all.

Had king Charles lived much longer, it is hardly to be doubted, from the circumstances in which we then were, but that the government, by degrees, had sunk into the most abject state, and, in all probability, into absolute slavery. A vicious court, a corrupt king, a profligate nobility, no House of Commons, the growth of Popery, and the decay of spirit among the people, were symptoms that seemed to presage the end of all sort of freedom being near at hand. But his weak, bigotted, impetuous brother, not contented to let our liberties die gradually of that chronical malady under which he found them languishing, and by which they must at last have expired, grew in haste for their dissolution, and by endeavouring to precipitate their ruin drew on his own. Nay, had he been satisfied with the total subversion of our civil liberties, even that, perhaps, he might have obtained; to that also, possibly, he might subsequently have added the subversion of our religious rights: but nothing would content this hot injudicious man, but doing both at once; and, by aiming at both, he was prevented from accomplishing either.

And as simple people will always do simple things, and in a simple manner, so the recent example of king Charles I. before his eyes proved no warning to deter king James from the like practices: he proceeded to the same violences, without dreading the same fate, and the incautious son split on that very rock by which the father had been shipwrecked.

For as king Charles I. had certainly carried all the contested points of his prerogative, had it not been for the injudicious step he took with regard to the liturgy in Scotland, which commenced a rebellion there, that soon spread its contagious nature here: so king James, had he suffered the change he had a mind to make in our religion to be postponed 'till what he contended for in prerogative had been settled, I fear, by degrees, he had been able to compleat his whole scheme; but, by endeavouring to execute it all at once, he ruined himself, and involuntarily saved the constitution, which he had otherwise destroyed.

From king James the II'd's banishment, abdication, deposition, or whatever people please to call it, we may date the

birth of real liberty in this kingdom, or at least the establishment, if not the commencement, of every valuable privilege we now enjoy. The bill of rights ascertained all those disputable points of prerogative and liberty that had hitherto been insisted on, either by the crown or the people, just as the power of the one or the other, at different æra's, had prevailed.

For notwithstanding the Great Charter, 'till this explanatory renewal of it, or rather 'till this supplemental engraftment on the Great Charter, the bounds of liberty and prerogative were so indistinctly marked out, and so indeterminately known, that the names of liberty and prerogative were made use of both by prince and people, just as opportunity favoured the arbitrary views of the one, or the licentious disposition of the other.

No body knew the just degrees of either; tyranny often wore the plausible title of the one, and rebellion as often took the specious form of the other, according as occasion offered, and as the temper and circumstances of the times gave handle and colour to favour the schemes and pretensions of one or the other of these excesses.

On the one hand, the prince had called every thing his prerogative that his ambition induced him to wish was so; every thing that his resolution made him attempt, or his strength enabled him to acquire; every thing that either the weakness of his people was obliged to submit to, or their servility was ready to allow.

On the other hand, whatever encroachments were made by the people on the prerogative, went under the denomination of maintaining their liberties; every point they gained on the crown, stimulated by their own spirit and vigour, or encouraged by the indolence and supineness of their prince, was only called reviving former rights, and asserting ancient privileges; and thus both king and people were ever acting like those two parties described by Davila, who, jealous of each other, and mutually fearing encroachments might be made upon them, if they continued quiet, were always guilty of injustice themselves, to avoid suffering it from others; *Come false sempre necessario o offendere o essere offeso*; as if it was always necessary to injure, or be injured.

The prince and people in this country were, by these means, formerly just in the same situation in which Livy describes the patricians and plebeians of Rome, who, says he, instead of being joint supports to the commonwealth, thought of nothing but how to impair the strength of one another, 'till their mutual jealousies of each other, and their immoderate desire of preserving their rights, was the cause that, when either party was prevalent, it employed its whole power to oppress the other.

The greatest misfortune, therefore, that can happen to a country that is under a mixed government, like ours, is to have the districts of the chief parts of that government so indistinctly known, that those who should be joint-administrators of the good of the whole, are more concerned about having the power to administer it, than about the good itself, and are striving for the one, when they should be promoting the other.

To such sort of contention, says Machiavel, is owing the ruin of most states; *Perche fra gli huomine, parie desidenando havere di piu, parte temendo di perdere Pacquistato, si viene alle inimicitie, alle contenzione, & alle guerra, della qual nasce la rouina di quella provincia*; because one party desiring to gain, and another fearing to lose what it has gained, enmities are bred, contention ensues, and then civil war, by which the country is undone.

Upon the whole, it is apparent that, as this nation enjoyed neither civil nor religious liberty 'till the Revolution, to the whole property of the people was either at the mercy of princes or priests, or both; the public revenue was raised in an arbitrary and oppressive manner, and what the civil power could not wrest from the nation, the ecclesiastical did, as we shall see by the following state of the REVENUES OF THE CHURCH before the Reformation was settled.

As far as we can collect, says Burnet, the religious houses in England and Wales are, in all, to the number of 1041; of these, only 653 are of known values, while there remain 388 of which we have no estimate. The only fair method of computing the value of the latter, will be by considering the proportion they bear to the former in number. Common arithmetic will inform us, that, if 653 houses were estimated at 171,314 l. 18 s. 1 d. then 388 houses may reasonably amount to the sum of 101,792 l. 0 s. 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, which added together, make 273,106 l. 18 s. 3 d. $\frac{1}{2}$. Now one penny, in those days, was equivalent to a shilling at present, as doth undoubtedly appear from the observations that may be made upon the proportion that labourers wages *, the price of wheat †, and the sub-

* The wages of an hay-maker, in the reign of Henry the VIIth, was settled at one penny, and, in the reign of Henry the VIIIth, never exceeded three half-pence: whereas twelve-pence now is their lowest daily hire. Vid. stat. 11 Hen. VII. and stat. 6 Hen. VIII. concerning artificers.

† We have no direct account of the price of corn in Henry

the VIIIth's time, but we may suppose it the same as it was in that of his predecessor and successor. In the 2d year of Henry the VIIth, wheat was sold for three shillings the quarter; in his seventh year, when a terrible dearth happened, it did not rise to above twenty-pence the bushel; and in his tenth and fifteenth years, was sold for four shillings the quarter. In the reign of queen Mary, 'till in time of famine, wheat was commonly sold for five shillings the quarter in London, and for four shillings the quarter in the country. So that we may fairly compute the price of wheat, in Henry the VIIIth's time, to have been four shillings the quarter; which, multiplied by twelve, amounts to two pounds eight shillings, which is but a reasonable price for wheat at this day. Vid. Baker's Chron. Vit. Hen. VII. and queen Mary I.

subsidies * granted in parliament then, bear to those of our time. For this reason, you ought to multiply the above-mentioned sum of 273,106 l. 18 s. 3 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, by 12, which will give you the real value at this day, and amounts to the sum of 3,277,282 l. 19 s. 6 d. Now although this may appear to be almost an incredible sum, yet we are not to imagine that it was the only income of these religious houses: for it was only the reserved rent of their manors, and the yearly produce of their demesns, without computing fines, herriotts, renewals, deodands, &c. which would have, perhaps, amounted to twice as much. But, to be more exact in our calculations, let us, from this yearly income of the monastic houses, deduct a sixth part for demesns, and then the remainder will be merely their reserved rents: if, therefore, from 3,277,282 l. 19 s. 6 d. you will subtract 546,213 l. 6 s. 7 d. there will exactly remain, for their rents, 2,731,069 l. 12 s. 11 d. Now the reserved rent being, in all church tenures, at least a fifth part of the estate, it will follow, that the lands which the monks had out upon lives, in all amounted to the sum of 13,655,345 l. 4 s. 7 d. and if to this you add their demesns, we may fairly affirm that the whole land which the monks were lords of, came to 14,101,558 l. 11 s. 2 d. How great a part of our land this must be, you may learn from the following calculation. The land-tax is paid so unequally, that when it is nominally four shillings in the pound, though in the midland counties they are kept up to the rigour, yet in the north and in the west, in many districts, only one and a half, in others two, but in almost no place above two and a half is paid. We may therefore fairly affirm, that, when the land-tax is assessed for four, it brings in but full two shillings in the pound, or a tenth part of the income of our estates, reckoning one place with another. The land-tax is supposed, one year with another, to bring in two millions, and this may be accounted, when multiplied by 10, to be the value of all the lands in England, which is 20 millions per annum †; of which only 14,101,558 l. 11 s. 2 d. was dependent on our poor and humble clergy; which is, in other words, that the monks were masters of above fourteen parts out of twenty of the whole kingdom; and out of the six parts which were thus kindly left dependent on king, lords, and commons, were the four numerous orders of Mendicants to be maintained, against whom no gate could be shut, to whom no provision could be denied, and from whom no secret could be concealed.

* In the 10th year of king Henry the VIIth, 120,000 l. was granted by parliament for the Scotch wars, which was looked upon to be so exorbitant a tax, that 16,000 men rose in rebellion to oppose its being levied. This aid (which was granted but 38 years before the dissolution of the abbies) were we to multiply it by 12, would make but a trifling sum, compared with the subsidies that have been yearly raised for the late wars. Vid. lord Verulam's History of Hen. VII. page 163, 164.

† Gregory King's calculations, published by Dr. D'Avenant, compute the whole rents of lands in England to be but 14 millions; and Sir William Petty's calculations, which were much older, do only compute them at eight millions a year. The latter of these wrote in the middle of the reign of king Charles the II. and the former in the reign of king William; and the vast difference between them as to the annual value of all the lands and houses in England, we may chiefly attribute to our trade, the increase of which has, in half a century, much more than doubled the rents of our estates in this nation.

If this calculation should appear greater than what our reader can easily give credit to, we must advise him to look into Popish countries, where he will discover that their clergy are to the full as rich in proportion as ever ours were here. A flagrant instance of which we have from a calculation taken by the Great Duke of Tuscany himself, in his own dominions, wherein the priesthood were found to enjoy seventeen parts in twenty of the whole land; which, had it not been for that feasonable statute of mortmain, they would soon have possessed here. See A Summary of all the Religious Houses in England and Wales, &c. printed in 1717.

OF the STATE of the TRADE of ENGLAND, from the CONQUEST, to the time of the REVOLUTION in the reign of king WILLIAM III.

The English nation remained much in the same state respecting trade and navigation, from the time of William the Conqueror to the accession of queen Elizabeth to the crown of England, which then consisted chiefly in transporting tin, lead, wool, some leather, iron, and other productions sufficient to purchase what foreign commodities they wanted.

King Edward the IIIrd was the first prince from the Conquest to his time, that we find took any notice of trade; for in the parliament held at Westminster, in 1338, the transportation of wool out of the kingdom was prohibited; and, for the encouragement of foreign clothworkers and other manufacturers to come and settle here, a great many privileges were granted, and an allowance from the king 'till they were fixed in a competent way of living: and it was enacted, That no subject should wear any foreign cloth for the future. From his reign to the accession of queen Elizabeth, we do not find any one prince, during that space of time, had much regard for trade, except what was done by Henry the VIIth, which looks rather like policy of state for crushing Perkin Warbeck; for though he removed the mart from Antwerp to Calais, yet two years after the prohibition was taken off, and the trade was again opened to Antwerp, as formerly. About ten years after a law was made, prohibiting the importation of manufactures of silk wrought by itself, or mixed with any other thread. 'This, says the lord Bacon, points at a true principle, viz. where foreign materials are but superfluities, foreign manufactures should be prohibited, for that will either banish the superfluity, or gain the manufacture.'

In queen Elizabeth's time, many and great advantages were added to trade. In the year 1579, a Turkey * company was established: the same year Sir Francis Drake returned to England, after three years voyage round the world, and many wonderful adventures and discoveries, he arrived at Plymouth, bringing with him a vast quantity of gold and silver taken from the Spaniards. In her reign, also, a treaty was settled with the duke of Muscovy, for a trade to Archangel, in which several advantages were granted to the English nation.

* However unnecessary, and even detrimental to the state, many may judge some of our trading companies at present; yet we should be wanting in candour and impartiality if we should suggest that their primary establishment was useless and prejudicial to our general trade; for certainly joint stock trading companies were the first means of cutting out many of the most considerable branches of the commerce we at present enjoy: notwithstanding which, it may one day prove as good policy to lay them aside, as it was first to incorporate them. But, methinks, before companies are absolutely laid aside and dissolved, they should be rendered as beneficial to ourselves as they will admit of; for, if they are regulated upon national principles, some may, perhaps, be still made no less instrumental to advance our present trade, than they were, at their first institution, to promote and extend it. Therefore we should be certain, before we annihilate companies, to reap all the advantage that we promise ourselves thereby, lest our policy should irrecoverably turn the channel of some trades into the hands of our competitors, instead of cutting them deeper in our own favour in general. See our articles COMPANIES, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, and all the principal trading companies of Europe, by the Index, and our other references.

Sir Walter Raleigh, and others in her reign, discovered the plantations; and though the first planters met with almost insuperable difficulties, and were often forced to quit what they had already settled; yet the greatness of their souls surmounted all difficulties, and, though often baffled in their attempts, they renewed them again with indefatigable zeal and industry, 'till at last tobacco and sugar came to be planted, a great many ships built, and, in a short time, not only supplied ourselves with sugar and tobacco from America, but with very large quantities to send abroad, and supplied the Baltic, Germany, Holland, Flanders, and France, with those commodities, which brought in very great riches to us, and, by degrees, beat the Portuguese out of the trade of those parts of Europe.

We do not find that her successor, king James the Ist, concerned himself much in trade; yet in imitation of Henry the IVth of France (who was wonderful assiduous in promoting all sorts of manufactures, and, amongst the rest, that of planting mulberry-trees, and raising silk) made some essays towards such a design here; and he and his courtiers seemed to be very fond of the undertaking, and letters were writ to Virginia, to promote that manufacture. Some small progress was made there, and letters passed between the planters and gentlemen here; but, as soon as they thought they had engaged the planters to begin upon it, instead of promoting it heartily, and sending some able and skilful persons to direct the undertaking, they threw all upon the planters, and that noble design came to nothing: whereas that in France succeeded, to the immense profit of that kingdom.

King Charles the Ist had too many things upon his hands, to concern himself with trade: as he was unacquainted there-

with, he was easily imposed on; the consequences of which make us labour under many inconveniences at this day; one of which was, his giving leave to the French to fish upon the banks of Newfoundland, to supply an English convent in France in time of Lent. See our article BRITISH AMERICA.

Cromwell and the Rump had some excellent notions of trade; they settled the act of navigation, beat the Dutch, forced them to a treaty, in which they were to deliver up the island of Pellarone, and to pay large sums for the violences exercised upon the English at Amboyna; but, upon the restoration of King Charles the II^d, the Dutch thought themselves secure enough, and since have never made any satisfaction. They took Jamaica with vast expence, which has been repaid since with interest. The favour granted by king Charles the Ist to the French, to fish upon the banks of Newfoundland, by length of time, and afterwards by the easier temper of king Charles the II^d, gave them an opportunity of claiming a right to that part they had seized. It is said king James II. shewed great uneasiness upon that occasion, but nothing was done, in order to obtain satisfaction. The short time he reigned, and his other views for establishing the Popish religion, did not give him time to do any thing for trade.

In a word, from the time of the Conquest to the Revolution under king William III, the public revenue was, in the general, raised in an arbitrary and lawless manner; and scarce any other trade went on, 'till the reign of queen Elizabeth, than that between the church and the civil power, to the end that the one might the more effectually fleece and plunder the people, and get all the lands of the kingdom into their hands, as we have seen, and the remaining share of property so settled upon the crown, that there might be no occasion for parliaments. Thus was there, in the general, a combination between the regal and ecclesiastical power, to become not only absolute masters of all the property in the nation, but masters over the understandings and consciences of the people, that they might be ruled with a rod of iron, forged by the united tyranny of princes and priests.

REMARKS in another light:

We have not room, under this head, to trace the state of the public revenue down from the Revolution to the present time; we shall, therefore, refer the remainder 'till we come to the article TAXES.

Our reason for taking notice in every reign of the state and the intrinsic value of the coin, is because this matter has so close a connection with the sums of money levied upon the people, that we can make no right judgment either of the state of trade, or of the public revenue, without them; for the proper application of these facts will occasionally tend to elucidate many difficulties in our reasoning upon things of this nature. At present, I shall make a few observations relative to this point, the application of which may be made, by the judicious reader, as well prior, as subsequent to the PROTESTANT REVOLUTION.

As to the necessities of life, it will be admitted that many of them are greatly advanced in their price since former times, even since the days of king Charles the II^d, but every body knows, who is not wilfully blind, that such additional price is, in a great measure, to be attributed to the modern duties of EXCISE AND CUSTOMS [see our articles DUTIES, LABOUR]; but such of those things which are the direct and immediate produce of land, and which are exempt from those duties, it is not true that their price is generally enhanced; and if it were true, the necessary consequence of such advance would be, that the lands which produce them would yield a better annual rent; and yet this certainly is not generally the case, unless the lands have received some improvements.

But if by former times we mean those of two hundred or three hundred years ago, every one, who has at all looked into things of this nature, knows, that in the times of Henry the IVth, or about three hundred years ago, a pound of silver money in tale was an actual and effective pound of silver, wanting a few shillings, and allowing a small matter for alloy; a solid, or shilling, or what was so denominated in accounts, was a twentieth part of a pound, and a penny a twelfth part of a shilling. From hence, without doubt, was introduced the method of reckoning by pounds, shillings, and pence; meaning thereby, such quantities of silver: and we continue still to make our accounts by pounds, shillings, and pence; though it is now merely a fiction, and subsists no where but in imagination; for a pound in money, as now called, does certainly contain no more than a third part of the ancient pound, which was a pound in weight as well as in tale. It is known too, equally well, that 15 pounds in silver, whether in coin or in bullion, they being both the same or near it, were equal to one pound weight in gold: and a pound of silver in weight being now cut into 3 l. 2 s. or 62 s. fifteen such pounds make now 46 l. 10 s. in silver money in tale; and a pound of gold is now cut into 44 guineas and an half, which makes in gold money in tale 46 l. 14 s. 6 d. each guinea reckoned at 1 l. 1 s. So that gold and silver in our days bears

the same, or very near the same proportion to one another, as they did in former days.

How the state of the silver coin stood about 200 years ago, or in the times of Henry the VIIIth, is not so easy to fix without distinguishing the times; however, it may be sufficient here to say in general, that in the beginning of his reign a pound of silver made 2 l. 5 s. in tale, and at the latter end 7 l. 4 s. so great was the debasement of the coin then by the mixture of alloy: and yet once, in the time of his son and successor Edward VI. this coin was made much worse, a pound of silver fine making 14 l. 8 s. in tale.

I cannot forbear observing here, that many authors, amongst others bishop Fleetwood, in his *Chronicon Preciosum*, takes notice of this debasement of the coin, and complains of it as a great grievance to the nation, as undoubtedly it was; but asserts, that an advancement of money in the denomination [see the article COIN], where the standard of which it is made remains the same, is no prejudice to the public: nay, some carry it so far, as to contend it would be of advantage; whereas an advancement and a debasement, most certainly are an equal mischief, where made in an equal degree.

If the silver species now in being was all called in and re-coined, half of silver and half of alloy, the grievance of this is readily seen and admitted; but if a crown-piece were called an angel, and made to go for ten shillings, and the rest of the silver pieces in proportion, in this, say they, there is no harm, the change is merely nominal.

As to sales and bargains to be made in future, such change in general is merely nominal; because the parties selling or contracting will have regard, not to the denomination solely, but to the real quantity of silver or gold which is known, or supposed to be contained in the money in which such contracts are presumed to be paid and performed; and therefore the owners of goods would then expect to have double the quantity of money in pounds, shillings, and pence, for the same commodities which they would now sell for the single quantity: so that, in these instances, there would be neither prejudice nor benefit accruing to either party. But would not the case be the same, and the change be merely nominal, if the money were debased in an equal proportion? Exactly the very same, and for the same reason: for there would be the like right, the like opportunity, and the like method, of persons helping themselves, viz. by taking then a double quantity of money, in monies numbered, instead of a single one which they now take.

But besides those transactions of buying and selling, and contracts in future, there are other money-matters which are to be regarded, and where this exchange will produce an effect which shall be more than names and mere words. There are such things as old and unalterable rents, annuities perpetual and certain, debts subsisting, and contracts in being, both of a public and private nature, where the sums are fixed and determinate, to the value of many millions, perhaps not much short of a moiety of the value of the estate of the whole kingdom; the proprietors of all which necessarily must lose just as much as the money is nominally advanced, for that they will receive just so much in silver less, and in gold proportionably, as is equal to the supposed increase in the denomination of the money. With regard therefore to these persons, an increase in the nominal value of money, and a decrease in the intrinsic value, supposing them to be in one and the same proportion, will have one and the same mischievous effect; that is, the one or the other will sink a moiety of their substance. Whether such a project as this might not pass in a neighbouring kingdom for a reasonably good way of discharging PUBLIC DEBTS, I cannot tell; but I believe he who should advise it, and put it in practice in England, in most people's opinion, would deserve an AX or a HALTER.

And for the advantages which are surmised would arise from hence to the public, viz. that such a scheme would make the species of silver more plentiful, and prevent its being melted down and exported, they are both of them vain and groundless expectations. If the silver coin, supposing there are now SIX MILLIONS of that species in the kingdom, were advanced to double the present nominal value, we might, indeed, say then, that we had TWELVE MILLIONS of that species: but this same silver species, when called twelve millions, will operate in trade, or any business of the nation, just so far and no farther, than the same species now does; which is called only six millions: for that, after such alteration, there can be no money-transactions in which silver is made use of, let the transaction be in a greater or a less sum, but we must necessarily then make use of double the quantity of that money in tale, or the same quantity in weight, which we now make use of, in any case whatever, excepting that of paying OLD DEBTS, and making good PREVIOUS CONTRACTS. To say otherwise, or that the same quantity of silver in coin, when called twelve millions, would be of more use than when called six millions, has no more sense or truth in it, than there would be in saying, if a piece of cloth of 5 yards long were cut into ten pieces, and those pieces were called yards, that then it would go farther in making a suit of cloaths, than it would do if those pieces

were called, as they really are, half yards only. Just in the same manner, if a pound of silver, which is cut into 62 pieces, and which are now called shillings, should hereafter be called solids, or by any other new name, and made to pass for two shillings; yet a pound of silver, whether the 62 pieces of which it is made, are called shillings, or solids, is one and the same thing; and of one and the same value; and an old shilling will go as far at the market as a new solid. On this account, and for the same reason, any such scheme as this, whether it be by increasing the nominal value of money by giving it a new name, or by decreasing its real value by debasing it, will have no sort of effect tending to the interests of trade, or preventing the exportation of our coin; either of gold or silver. Traders and merchants, especially those who deal in foreign commodities, will not have regard to the pounds, shillings, and pence in tale, to which so many pieces of silver or gold coin may amount, but to the pounds, ounces, and grains, which those pieces will make in weight at the scale; and therefore, for a parcel of goods, the same in quantity and quality, they will then expect, and in fact will receive, silver or gold in exchange, the same in quantity and quality which they now do: and consequently, may export silver or gold, with the same ease and equal profit; whatever the state of the coin shall be: and if they can do it to advantage, I suppose they will do it; and, perhaps, there is no unanswerable reason why they should be prohibited.

What was the interest of money, or of silver and gold of which it consisted, or the price given for it on loan, two or three hundred years ago, I confess I have not been able to discover, so as to fix it with any certainty. Thus far, however, we may safely go, and perhaps that may be sufficient for our purpose, as to affirm, that about two hundred years ago, it was at least as high as 10 per cent. per annum, there being an act of parliament made at the latter end of the reign of Henry the VIIIth, that it should not exceed that rate; so that it is a very fair conjecture, that it had been before that time higher: and in the time of Henry IV. possibly as high as 15 per cent. And every body knows, that the interest or price of it now is no more than 5 per cent. setting it at the highest rate it can be legally left at.

From these premises, I mean from the different states of the silver coin, which generally govern that of the gold coin, and from the different rates of interest in any periods, and in the present periods of time, these deductions may be made: that when a pound of money in tale was an effective pound of silver in weight, and the interest or price of money was at 10 per cent. if we compare the price of commodities in England now, with the price of them at those times, the price now should be in the proportion of 6 to 1; and if the price or interest of money was at 15 per cent. and the like comparison were made, the proportion now should be as 9 to 1. Our notion in this matter is, that the price of things at one time will bear that proportion to the price of them at another time, which the effective silver in the nominal pound at one time, bears to the effective silver in the nominal pound at another time, and the interest or price of such pounds on loan at the different given times, computation being made upon both those heads.

From hence we infer, if in the times of Henry the VIIIth, a pound of silver was cut into 40 or 45 s. and now into 60 or 62, that the price of any commodity which then was two, must now be three pounds, on the account of that difference only; and if the interest or price of money was then 10 per cent. which is now only 5, the price on that account must be farther doubled, and in all be 6 l. that is, the present price must be three times as much as in that reign. In like manner, if in the times of Henry the VIth, a pound of silver was cut into 30 and now into 62 shillings, from thence only the price of things now must be double the price of them then; and if the interest of money then was at 15 per cent. as very probably it might, that difference from the interest now will make an addition of a treble price, and the whole be as 6 to one. So in the time of Henry the IVth, when a pound of money in tale was a pound of silver in weight, and the interest was 15 per cent, which is treble the value and treble the price of each now, we must treble the price on each account, and the price now will be as 9 to 1.

To show this I will make use of a familiar instance. A farmer or merchant, in the times when a pound of money in tale was an effective pound of silver in weight, and the price of it on loan was 10 per cent. is possessed of a parcel of sheep, oxen, wool, corn, or other necessaries of life, to the value of 100 l. at the market-price, when he sells them at that rate, will receive 100 l. in silver in weight as well as in tale, or in gold proportionably. A farmer or merchant in these times, therefore, must have 300 l. in money for a like parcel of goods, or else he will not have the same quantity of silver or gold in weight, though the goods sold are in quantity and quality the same; that is, the present owner must have three times the price, in money as now told, as the ancient owner had, for the same things: that this is the fact in the instance of gold, as a commodity, is evident; for that a pound of gold in Henry the IVth's time was sold for 15 l. or thereabouts, in money in tale, and now it sells for

45 l. and something over, in the like money in tale, that is, at three times the price.

To pass on to the difference in the rate of interest now and formerly. If these merchants have not present occasion for these several sums in their way of trade and business, or are desirous to let them out at interest; the merchant of old times, on the loan of his 100 l. at the end of the year will receive 10 l. in silver, in weight as well as in tale, supposing interest to have been at 10 l. per cent; but the merchant of these times for the interest of his 300 l. will have no more than 15 l. in tale, which is equal only to 5 l. in weight: therefore, that the one and the other may have equal advantage from the same parcel of goods, the modern merchant must sell his goods at 600 l. for no less sum than that will yield him 10 l. of silver in weight for interest by the end of the year; that is, he must sell them at six times the price: or otherwise these two persons, at the end of such year, will not be in equal circumstances, though they were so at the beginning, when they were possessed of their goods.

If these merchants should invest their money in lands of inheritance, instead of putting it out at interest, the case will still come out the same. When money is at 10 per cent, the price of estates in fee-simple is 10 years value: so that 100 l. in old times, would have purchased an estate of 10 l. per ann. and a rent of 10 l. per ann. was a rent of so many pounds weight in silver, or near it, and of gold in proportion.

If a man were now to purchase an estate of equal goodness, he must pay for it 300 l. even though interest were supposed to be the same now as formerly, and there were no advance in the years purchase; for no rent less than 30 l. per ann. will produce 10 pounds in silver in weight, or proportionably in gold. And when we take into the account the difference of interest, it is plain, that the fall of interest to one half, makes a rise of land in the purchase to a double price: and therefore, now legal interest is no more than 5 l. per cent, he must and does pay 600 l. for an estate of 30 l. per ann. that is, for an estate of equal goodness, and which shall yield an equal quantity of real silver or gold, which might have been bought 300 years ago for 100 l. he must now pay just six times as much.

Or take the matter in this light. The sum of 100 l. in former ages, if laid out in lands, or lett out at interest, would, in a year's time, produce to the owner ten pounds weight of silver, or a proportionable quantity of gold; the sum of 200 l. now, if laid out in lands, or lett out at interest, would in a year's time produce to the owner 10 pounds in money, as now counted: but 10 pounds in money, as formerly counted, had three times as much silver or gold in it, as ten pounds in money, as now counted: therefore, to produce as much silver or gold, within the year as formerly, three times 200 l. or 600 l. as money is now counted, must be laid out in land, or put out at interest; that is, six times the money must now be employed to produce the same quantity of silver or gold as was produced formerly by 100 l. only. The consequence of this is, that the necessities and conveniences of life, which are the things out of which money is to arise, when they come to a market, must now be sold at six times the price, or six times the pounds, shillings, and pence, which they were formerly sold at; or the very same things will not answer the same purposes of life now, which they would have done three hundred years ago.

It will be needless to repeat here this reasoning, and show that it is applicable to the case, which I have supposed possible, that the interest of money has been in some times at 15 per cent. and that the price of goods between those times and these should be in the proportion of 9 to 1. It may suffice to say in general, that it will hold good in that instance, and in any other which may be supposed; so that wherever the quantity or real silver in a nominal pound, and the current interest of money can be known and determined, there the price of things may be known and determined likewise. My notion is here, that the real and intrinsic value of the absolute necessities of life, such as food and raiment, were always, and always will be, much one and the same, except where an accidental plenty or scarcity makes a temporary variation; but if we compute the value of these necessities by a third thing as a common measure between them, the price, or nominal value so measured, must vary as such measure itself varies. If silver be made that medium, as for many ages it has been in these parts of the world; and if in former times a real pound of silver was called a pound, a twentieth part of a pound was called a shilling, and the twelfth part of a shilling a penny; if in times subsequent the measure itself be varied, and a third part of a pound of silver be denominated a pound, and shillings and pence in the like proportion, the price or nominal value of the necessities of life will and must vary with it. A quarter of wheat or malt, a pound of beef, or a yard of cloth, are now of the same real value as heretofore; for they will go as far towards the support of human life now as they did 500 or 1000 years ago, and no farther; but their price or nominal value, as measured by the current coin of the kingdom, must vary as the coin itself varies; and this we must admit to be the case in silver itself, or we must be forced to say, that one third part

VOL. II.

of a pound of silver, supposing no more than a third part of a pound of silver to be in a present nominal pound, is of equal value with a whole pound. For if we consider silver, not as a measure of traffic only, but as a necessary or convenience of life, and as a merchandizable commodity, as we certainly may and do; one pound of silver is of the same value as another, and of the same value at one time as at another, greater or less plenty excepted; but the price or nominal value was formerly one pound only, but now we see it is three pounds and above in silver, as a measure: and we may rightly say, that it ceases to be one and the same measure, when it ceases to be one and the same thing in its weight and value.

From hence we plainly discern one reason, why money now is not at the same value as it was two or three hundred years ago, viz. because the silver of which it consists in any given sum in tale is now only a moiety, or a third part of the quantity, which was formerly in the like sum in tale; and it being a convenience of life and a saleable commodity, the real quantity of silver in the money is the true measure of its value. But, besides this decrease in the value of money arising from the variation in the species, we find another in the interest, or annual premium for it. This, to be sure, has proceeded from another cause; and has arisen, as I apprehend, from the great increase of the moveable and easily transferable estate in the kingdom, which for some time has been growing upon us, and of late has been so vastly enlarged by the PUBLIC FUNDS, and not from the INCREASE of gold and silver in the kingdom, either in coin or bullion, any otherwise than as they constitute a part of such moveable estates.

For the further application of these principles, see the article TAXES, and such other heads as we shall from thence refer to.

RHODIAN LAWS, OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

Of the naval laws and statutes of the RHODIANS.

Rhodes is the capital city of a renowned island of that name, of about 120 miles in circumference, situate in that part of the Mediterranean called the Carpathian Sea, overagainst Caria, and near the south-west point of the Lesser Asia, having Cyprus to the east, Egypt to the south, and Candia to the west; its longitude being 58 degrees, and latitude 37 degrees and 50 minutes. It was besieged and taken by the Turkish emperor Solyman in the year 1522, and has ever since been subject to the Ottoman empire. Rhodes, amongst other things, is famous for the huge statue or image of the sun, which is said to shine there at least once every day in the year; the weather it seems never being so cloudy as to deprive the inhabitants of that place, for a whole day together, of the glorious appearance of that luminous body: this statue was seventy cubits high, and one of the wonders of the world.

Though the maritime dominion of the Rhodians was once very mighty, yet they did not render themselves so famous by their naval strength as by their naval laws; to which even the wise and victorious Romans themselves paid so great a deference and respect, that, to the immortal glory of their authors, they were honoured with the singular approbation of the Roman emperors, as well as of their senate, and they being delivered to us by Peckius, in his commentaries *De Re Nautica* (of maritime affairs) in two different fragments, the first of which, he says, had obtained the sanction of the emperors Tiberius, Adrian, Antoninus, and several others; and the last is to be found in the 11th book of the *Digests* of the Roman Laws, where it was inserted by the emperor Justinian, of which the following is a translation.

But, as the customs of the Rhodian and Roman navigators were different from ours, we have judged it convenient to illustrate, with notes and explanations, what might otherwise seem obscure to those that are not pretty well acquainted with the naval polity of the Ancients.

SECT. I.

Containing the first fragment of the NAVAL LAWS of the Rhodians, as they were ratified by several of the Roman emperors.

ARTICLE I.

Of the owners of ships.

The wages of the owners shall be a double portion.

ILLUSTRATION.

Though now the masters are not frequently the owners of their ships, it is probable that they generally were amongst the Rhodians as well as Romans. For the Latin word *exercitor* corresponds with *Ναύκληρ*, which is the original term in the Greek, implies the owner of a hired ship, being a term synonymous with those of *navicularius* and *navicator*; so that probably the owner, being likewise the master or commander of the ship, was to have besides the hire or freight

for the ship itself, a double portion for his own wages; that is to say, twice as much as was allowed the other mariners: but how much that portion was, is not determined, nor is it of any great importance to us to know it, since the wages we now give our sea-officers and mariners, depend upon events that render that precedent useless to us.

ARTICLE II.

Of the pilots.

The wages of the pilot shall be a portion and a half.

ILLUSTRATION.

The Greek term κυβερνήτης, which is most properly answered in Latin by the word gubernator (signifying governor) is nevertheless explained by a circumlocution, viz. Ille qui clavum tenet (he that steers the helm, or governs the stern of the ship) by which it appears, That then it was usual for the pilot not only to direct the ship's course, but steer her too themselves, as indeed they are still obliged to do amongst us, when the ship has any dangerous place to pass through, or is so near any shore that a more than ordinary skill is requisite to bring her safe off; but otherwise, such of the other mariners as are most capable of that function, are appointed to do it by turns.

ARTICLE III.

Of the boatswain.

The wages of the boatswain shall be a portion and a half.

ILLUSTRATION.

The words both in the Greek and Latin, implying that officer which rules the prow or fore part of the ship, we thought they could not be more naturally rendered, than by the term of the boatswain, whose office is much the same amongst the English mariners.

ARTICLE IV.

Of the carpenter.

The carpenter's wages shall be a portion and a half.

ILLUSTRATION.

The word naupegus, which the Latins have derived from the Grecians, being in effect the same with fabricator navium, or navis artifex, does properly signify a ship-builder, and is the same with what the Venetians call, in imitation of the modern Greeks, califatte, which is rendered by the French charpentier, and by us properly called shipwright, or ship-carpenter.

ARTICLE V.

Of the coxswain's wages.

The wages of the coxswain shall be one portion.

ILLUSTRATION.

Carabus, by several of the Ancients, is taken for a sort of a storeship, attending men of war and other great vessels, such as these to which we now give the name of tenders. But the officer here termed carabita, being spoken of as one that remains on board of the principal ship, it is very probable, that thereby is meant the mariner that has the charge and management of the ship's boat, which is all the tender that small merchant-ships are provided with; whence we judge, that inferior officer must be the same, who by the French is called patron de la chaloupe, and by us coxswain.

ARTICLE VI.

Of the mariners.

The wages of each mariner shall be one portion.
This article needs no illustration.

ARTICLE VII.

Of the drudge or kitchen boy.

The wages of the kitchen-boy shall be half a portion.

ILLUSTRATION.

The word here used in the original, implying one that takes care of the fire, or lights it, &c. wanting a proper term in English to correspond exactly with Παροχάριτος, I thought it could not be more aptly rendered, than by the term of a drudge or kitchen-boy, &c. which is usual enough in England.

ARTICLE VIII.

Of the merchant.

The merchant may have two boys in the ship, paying for their passage.

ILLUSTRATION.

By this article it is provided, that a merchant freighting any ship, and embarking himself with his goods, as a supercargo,

may likewise carry along with him two boys or servants, he paying a reasonable allowance for their passage.

The six following articles treating only of passengers and their privileges, and duty aboard of ships, after inserting them in order, we shall explain what may seem obscure in any of them together.

ARTICLE IX.

A passenger's place shall be three cubits in length and one in breadth.

ARTICLE X.

A passenger shall not himself fry fish in the ship, nor shall the master allow him to do it.

ARTICLE XI.

No passenger shall cleave wood on shipboard, and the master shall hinder such as attempt it.

ARTICLE XII.

Passengers shall receive water on shipboard by measure.

ARTICLE XIII.

A woman passenger shall have a place of one cubit assigned her, and a boy only one half of a cubit.

ARTICLE XIV.

If any passenger carries money aboard of a ship, let him deposit it into the hands of the master; which if he fails to do, and afterwards pretends to have lost either gold or silver, his oath shall not be valid against the master, because it was not deposited in his hands.

ILLUSTRATION of the six preceding ARTICLES.

Though the word vector (which we here render passenger) be by some taken for those that transport, as well as for the persons that are transported; and though Porphyrius, in questionibus Homericis, makes that term signify marine soldiers, it is plain by the sense and connection, that by it is here meant passengers, or persons embarking in a ship to be transported from the port where they embark to some other, upon a certain valuable consideration to be paid by them for such transportation, upon their arrival at the aforesaid port.

And as to the place three cubits long and one cubit broad, mentioned in the ninth article, it is probable to be that in which they were to lie; though it must be confessed, that the length of three cubits and a half (which is here expressly specified, and amounts to no more than four feet and a half of our measure) does not seem to be sufficient for a man of good size to lie in, or at least, he must not pretend to stretch out in his bed. But since we cannot conceive for what other use this room should be assigned a passenger, we are of opinion that it is for a bed; nor will the shortness thereof surprize such, as consider the general small burthen of the ancient ships, in comparison with that of those we now use; nor are the conveniencies for lodging at this time very great in little doggers, or other such ships of 40, 50, or 60 tons; and yet I believe they are a great deal better than they were in ships of the like or of greater burthen amongst the Ancients.

With respect to the injunction contained in the 10th article, by which passengers are prohibited to fry fish on shipboard, and the master forbid to allow any that liberty, we conceive what might give occasion to that law, was the consideration that passengers, not being supposed to be very well acquainted with sea affairs, should not be allowed to use the fire upon any account, which is a good preservative against unlucky accidents.

By the 11th article, passengers are in the same manner forbid to cleave wood on shipboard, and the master also commanded to deny that privilege (as the former) to such as would attempt it; which law has probably been intended for the preventing of any damage that might otherwise occur to the ship or goods, by the practice of that violent exercise by passengers, who possibly might do mischief without knowing it.

The 12th article contains a very seasonable regulation for obliging passengers to content themselves with a moderate quantity of fresh water, which they must receive by measure whilst on shipboard; for otherwise the fresh water, which at sea is very precious, might be squandered away to the great detriment of the passengers themselves, as well as of all the ship's company, in cases of pressing necessity.

By the 13th article it is ordained, That a woman passenger shall have a place to lie in, of a cubit in breadth; and though the length be not mentioned, we are reasonably to suppose it not to have been intended any less than allowed to a man. But as for a boy (by which must certainly be meant any child, whether male or female) there is only allowed one half of that breadth, a convenient length being naturally supposed.

The

The 14th article contains a very just and reasonable statute, by which passengers are enjoined to deposit their money in the hands of the master of the ship; and withal acquaints them, that if they fail in that, they are not to expect any reparation at his hands, in case it be stolen or otherwise lost.

ARTICLE XV.

Of a mutual oath to be taken by masters, mariners, and passengers.

The masters, mariners, and passengers, that fail together, shall take an evangelical oath.

ILLUSTRATION.

The word evangelical has been added by the Christians to this law; for the ancient Rhodians at the time that their sea-laws were compiled, were heathens and idolaters. What the nature and intent of this oath was, is not here expressed. The word in the Greek is, *Ἀναμάρτυρον*, which Peckius renders in Latin, *jusjurandum irrecusabile*; which words imply an oath that is undeniable, or that cannot be refused, and may likewise signify, that cannot be gainsaid, retracted, or recalled, so that it is probable, it was a sort of mutual engagement, or oath of fidelity, which persons navigating together were obliged to take. But of whatever nature that oath was, it is of no very great importance for us to trouble ourselves about it.

ARTICLE XVI.

Of the estimation of the Rhodian ships.

The estimation of a ship (containing a thousand measures) with all its tackle, shall be fifty nobles, and so it shall come into contribution; and the estimation of an old ship shall be thirty nobles, out of which deducting one third, it shall likewise come into contribution.

ILLUSTRATION.

This article seems difficult to be understood, nor shall we depend on our own judgment thereon.

As to the measure spoken of, some take it to have been that which is called both in the Greek and Latin amphora, and was a square vessel containing about nine gallons; so that a ship carrying a thousand of them, must not have been of a very great burden. And as for the piece of money, which we have rendered in the English a noble, it is called in the Latin translation *solidus*, and in the annotations upon that aureus, both which I find to come to much the same thing in English; for though by *solidus* be now ordinarily meant a shilling, it was formerly taken, as aureus, for an ancient piece of gold of the value of 6s. 8d. or thereabouts, and known to us by the name of a noble.

So that upon the whole, it seems probable, That the Rhodian legislators did by this article intend to fix the estimation of their merchant-ships in proportion to their burthen, to the end that according to that estimation they might be taxed, in cases of contribution for damages at sea, or perhaps in other things, in which ships might be liable to pay, in foreign and domestic ports, according to their burthen, such as pilotage, anchorage, &c.

ARTICLES XVII, and XVIII.

Of loans and interests by sea and land.

ARTICLE XVII.

The law thus commands that things which are intrusted to seafaring persons upon surety, and without risque of the lender, shall not be put into writing; or if a writing be made, according to the Rhodian law, it shall not be valid: but such things as are given upon credit to persons that travel by land, though with a surety and without any risque, shall be reduced into writing.

ARTICLE XVIII.

If any person taking up money upon use, and paying for several years the lawful interest, there befalls him, after eight years, any loss or damage by fire, or by the irruption of the Barbarians, or otherwise, the transaction concerning the interest shall be made according to the laws of the Rhodians: but if the former interests were not paid, the contents of the first agreement shall be observed according to the instrument.

ILLUSTRATION.

For the better understanding of what is above, it is fit to know, That amongst the Romans there was a great difference, not only in the value of the interest paid for money lent at sea, and for money lent at land, but likewise in the manner of conditioning and taking security for such sums.

There was, it seems, no interest due for money lent on land, except an instrument was produced in due form by the lender, in which all things agreed upon between him and the borrower were plainly and expressly stipulated; which seems to infer, that the interest at land was various; perhaps accord-

ing to the security given, or the time which the money was to remain in the hands of the borrower, or some such circumstance.

And as to the interest of money lent to mariners and other sea-faring persons, it is evident that that was of two sorts: the ordinary interest for money lent to mariners upon security, and without any risque on the part of the lender, they called simply *foenus* or *usura*; but the extraordinary interest agreed to be paid by mariners, together with the principal, upon condition that the lender should run the hazard of the sea, and that the mariner should make restitution only in case he performed happily his voyage, and not otherwise; that was called by the Ancients *foenus nauticum*, or *NAVAL INTEREST*, importing that the lender took upon himself the hazards of the sea; and that was deservedly allowed to be much more considerable than the ordinary interest, for that it was not only lent without security, but likewise in a manner so insured by the lender, that the borrower was in no danger of sustaining any loss. See *BOTTOMRY*.

The 18th article is a favourable statute for such as having borrowed money, after punctually paying the interest during the space of eight years, should suffer any loss; in which case the laws of Rhodes (to which this statute appeals) allow a certain mitigation of the interest for the time to come, which is not obscure enough to want any further illustration.

ARTICLES XIX, and XX.

Of masters and mariners.

ARTICLE XIX.

Masters shall not be answerable for the contracts of their mariners, but they may be detained for their crimes.

ARTICLE XX.

Masters shall be obliged to deliver and restore whatever they receive, but none can compel them to receive any thing, which they have from the beginning refused to receive.

ILLUSTRATION.

As to the 19th article, in which it is said, that masters may be detained for the faults or crimes of their mariners, but not for their debts; we presume that the meaning is this, viz. That in case a mariner commits a crime, the ship may be stopped from pursuing her voyage, having the criminal aboard; and, in a word, that the master cannot protect such a mariner from justice: for it is not to be imagined, that a master of a ship could be bound to answer personally for the offence of his mariners, that being against all reason and law whatsoever. And as to the matter of debts, it is not reasonable, if people imprudently trust seamen with money or things, that the master should be obliged, either to pay the money or surrender the debtors; for then his voyage might be obstructed for want of hands to man his ships, and so he and the merchants would innocently suffer for other people's folly; and therefore by this law it is wisely provided, that if money or goods are given to seamen, the givers must look to their own security themselves; by which, innumerable inconveniencies that otherwise might occur, are prevented. The 20th article concerns only goods received by, or offered to masters of ships upon freight.

ARTICLE XXI.

Of money taken up by masters for the use of the ships, &c.

When masters of ships, that are proprietors of one third of the lading, have taken up money for the voyage, whether for the outward or homeward bound, or both, all transactions shall pass according to the writings drawn up between the master and the lender, and the latter shall put a man on board the ship to take care of his loan.

Note. This last article is gnawed out in the copy of the Rhodian sea-laws in the Vatican, and in several others it is entirely left out.

The second fragment of the *NAVAL LAWS* of the Rhodians, as extracted out of the 11th book of the Digests of the Roman Laws.

ARTICLES I, II, III, and IV.

Of stealing anchors and other things.

ARTICLE I.

If a ship touching at any port or shore, be robbed of her anchors, the thief being taken and convicted, the law condemns him to the torture, and to pay double damages.

ARTICLE II.

If with the consent of the master, the seamen of any ship rob another ship in the port of her anchors, and thence the loss of the ship so robbed ensue, that being duly proved, the master who permitted the robbery, shall make good to a farthing, the damage happened to the lost ship, and to them that.

that were in it. And if any thing else of the ship's tackle, such as the cables, ship's boat, sails, canvas, or any other thing of that nature be stolen, the thief being taken and convicted, shall restore double.

ARTICLE III.

If any mariner, by the command of the master, steal any thing of a merchant, or other passenger, and be surprized in the fact, the master shall make good the double to the owners, and the mariner that committed the fact shall receive a hundred blows of a cudgel. But if the mariner alone be accessory to the theft, he shall be grievously tortured (especially if it was gold that he stole) and shall make restitution to the owner.

ARTICLE IV.

If a master steer his course through any place obnoxious to pirates, after being informed of the danger thereof by the passengers, and thereupon they happen to be spoiled, the master shall make good the loss. And if the passengers carry the ship through a dangerous place, after being acquainted with the danger by the master, and any mischief happen, then they shall sustain the damage.

The four preceding articles are in themselves so plain, that they need no illustration.

ARTICLES V, VI, VII.

Of quarrelling, fighting, and striking.

ARTICLE V.

If the mariners quarrel, let it only be in words, and let them not strike one another. And if any giving another a blow on the head, wound him, or hurt him, in any other manner, he that gave the blow shall pay the doctor's fees and all other charges, and shall likewise pay his hire for the last time, and tend the hurt person during the cure.

ARTICLE VI.

If the mariners quarrel, and one of them strike another with a stone or cudgel, and he returns the blow to him from whom he received it, that shall be deemed to have been se defendendo [in his own defence]: and though the person last struck does thereupon die, it being proved by witnesses that the deceased did first strike the survivor, either with a stone, with a stick, or with any iron, he that struck and killed the other, shall be free from all danger, for that the deceased suffered himself, only what he would have made another suffer.

ARTICLE VII.

If any master, merchant, or mariner, strike a man with his fist and blind him, or if by kicking him, he bursts his belly, besides the doctor's fees, he shall pay twelve nobles to the person for the loss of the eye, and ten nobles for the causing of a rupture; and if the person so struck die, the aggressor shall be punished with death.

The three preceding articles are in themselves so clear, that they don't want any further explication.

ARTICLE VIII.

Of masters and mariners running away with ships.

If a master to whom a ship is intrusted, with the consent of the mariners, run away with her into a foreign country, all their goods, moveable and immoveable, and whatsoever they possess in any manner, shall be seized; and being sold, if their price does not equal the value of the ship, trouble and time, the aforesaid master and mariners shall be hired out, 'till they have made ample satisfaction for the damage by them caused.

ILLUSTRATION.

For the better understanding of this article, it is proper to observe, that in some cases it was customary among the Ancients, to adjudge the persons of offenders to be disposed of, or hired out by masters, 'till by their labour they should make satisfaction for damages by them caused, which they were not otherwise able to repair; and such it seems was, amongst the Rhodians, the condition of those who, running away with ships into foreign countries, had not effects sufficient to refund the value of the ships, with damages and charges; it being by this law provided, That such offenders (returning into their dominions, or being apprehended, and brought within the limits of their jurisdiction) should be hired to work as servants or bondsmen, 'till they had made ample satisfaction for such offences.

ARTICLE IX.

Of lightening of ships in a tempest, &c.

If a master consult about lightening of a ship, let him enquire of the passengers what money they have in the ship, and a just calculation being made, the money shall pay proportionably towards the contribution: and the beds and wearing clothes and instruments, shall likewise be taxed. And if an ejection be made, the master shall not be rated at more

than one pound, the pilot and boatswain half a pound, and the mariners three scruples. And if there be servants or any other persons that are not to part from the ship, they shall be taxed at three mina's; but if they be to leave the ship, at two mina's. And in the same manner shall they contribute, if they are robbed of money or other things belonging to the mariners in general, by pirates. And if there intervene some private articles of partnership concerning profits, a just computation being made of the ship and every thing in it, the partners shall bear their proportion of the contribution to be paid for damages.

ILLUSTRATION.

This article is the most important of the whole fragments, and treats of lightening of ships in time of a storm, &c. and of the manner in which that is to be done. One may easily imagine, that when a ship is in distress and in danger of sinking, the law of nature will oblige the persons that are in her to use all possible means for their own preservation: and ships being frequently laden so full, in hopes of fair weather, that in case of a storm, they are not well able to live at sea, without being disburthened of a part of their lading; it is in that case allowable for the master and company to throw overboard as much of the lading as is requisite for enabling the ship to bear out against the tempest. Nor does that only happen when ships are overburthened: for frequently they may by stormy weather be reduced to such a pass, that though their lading be not extravagant, it may be necessary to part with some of it, in order to preserve the rest; and in that case, if the owner of the goods be in the ship, it is positively required, first to consult him; and in his absence, the consent of the company is a sufficient warrant for the master to disburthen the ship: but the merchant or his supercargo, or any other person being present for him, it is requisite that such an ejection should not be undertaken without his consent. And thence it became customary, not only amongst the Rhodians and Romans, but generally amongst all other navigators, that the owner of the goods being present, should, with his own hand, begin to disburthen a distressed ship, by throwing something overboard himself; after which the seamen and others were to follow his example, and throw over as much of the lading as might put the ship into a condition to resist the storm.

And because it seldom happens that the whole lading of a ship belongs to one merchant, it is very justly provided, that the person whose goods are cast overboard shall not be the only loser, but that the owners of such goods as have been saved, shall contribute towards the loss of those that were thrown overboard. So that even silver, gold, and precious stones (though these cannot be well supposed to endanger a ship by their burthen) must pay proportionably with other goods; and that not according to their bulk, but their value: nor is the owner of the ship at all exempted from paying his proportion, according to the value of the ship, because the throwing over of the goods contributes to the common security of the ship, and all that is in it: and as every one is obliged to bear his proportion of the loss, all endeavour to be as careful as possible to throw over the goods that are least valuable; for otherwise it might happen, that the master and mariners, out of spite and revenge, might occasion considerable damage to merchants, against whom they might have some private pique and resentment.

Nor are in some cases the clothes, beds, and personal necessities, nor even the persons of the masters, merchants, passengers, and mariners themselves, free from contributing towards the damage sustained by such ejections.

When it happens that goods have been thus thrown overboard to lighten a ship, the contribution is made in this manner. In the first place an account is given only of the prime cost of the goods that are lost, and then estimation being made of them that are preserved, not according to what they cost, but according to the price they'll probably yield at the port whither the ship is bound; they are all charged in proportion to their value, and must pay accordingly.

And in the same manner it is ordained, to make an equal contribution for damages sustained by rovers and pirates; the good design of which law is to excite every individual mariner, and other person in the ship to his duty, to which the consideration and apprehension of his own particular risk, will not a little contribute.

This article concludes with a very reasonable clause, obliging all persons, though not on shipboard themselves, concerned by partnership in any part of the contribution to be paid out of the ship's cargo, to allow their share of the contribution to be paid out of the goods that are preserved, towards the price of those that are lost; which certainly is very just, since it is not those who are entitled to any share of the profit, should decline to bear the proportion of the loss, except by some separate agreement the contrary be provided.

ARTICLE X.

Of shipwreck and other damages.

If by the negligence of master and mariners, any damage or shipwreck happen, they shall be answerable for it. And likewise

wife, if by the fault of the merchant the ship and cargo perish, he shall sustain the loss. But if a shipwreck happen merely by misfortune, without any failure on either side, what can be saved of the ship and lading, shall be prized and brought to a contribution.

This article is too plain to need any explication.

ARTICLE XI.

Of old and unsound ships.

Let not merchants nor passengers put heavy and precious goods in an old ship: if they do, and the ship setting sail, the goods be spoiled or damaged, they must blame themselves. But when merchants hire ships, let them diligently enquire of others who have formerly sailed in them, whether they be well provided with all necessary instruments, tackle, good sails, yards, canvas, anchors, ropes, convenient rudders, good boats, and able, skilful, and sufficient mariners, and whether the ship's sides be sound: and, in fine, to comprehend all in one word, let them enquire about the ship's sufficiency in every thing, and accordingly venture their goods. This article requires no illustration.

ARTICLE XII.

Of a depositum or trust by sea and land.

If a person deposit any thing either in a ship or house, though in the hands of a known and reputable man, let it be done in the presence of three witnesses. But if the matter be of consequence, let a writing be drawn up upon it. And if the person in whose custody it is left, pretend that it is lost, he must show the place where the house has been broke, or make it appear how the theft was committed, and make oath, that he is no way accessory to it. Which if he cannot do, he must make good the thing deposited as he received it.

ILLUSTRATION.

By this good law, the Rhodians endeavoured to obviate the abuses, which the avarice and dishonesty of men had, by reason of the deficiency of former statutes, found means to introduce into trade. And as here a sufficient remedy is appointed against the unjust denials and pretences, which in such cases were ordinarily made use of, so by the subsequent article, for avoiding all occasions of confusion and loss by the mariners, &c. persons carrying money aboard of ships are enjoined to deposit the same in the hands of the masters, who in that case are to be responsible for it, and not otherwise.

ARTICLE XIII.

Of money, &c. stolen at sea.

If a passenger embarking in a ship carry money, or any other thing along with him, let him deposit it in the hands of the master. And if (that not being done) he alleges, that he has lost either gold or silver, no notice shall be taken of what he says, further than this, that the master, mariners, and other passengers in the ship, shall be interrogated upon oath about it.

ILLUSTRATION.

This is much the same with the 13th article of the preceding section, only with this difference, that whereas in the former, no injunction is laid to put the master or mariners, &c. of any ship upon their oath in cases of this nature, that deficiency is here supplied, and all persons navigating in a ship, where any money or other valuable effects are missing, are obliged to declare upon oath, whether they know any thing concerning them.

ARTICLE XIV.

Of depositaries denying the receipt of what was left in their hands, and their punishment.

If a depositary denying upon oath, or by writing, the receipt of what was entrusted to him, be afterwards convicted by witnesses, or if the thing deposited be found in his custody, he shall restore twofold, and, besides that, shall be punished as one guilty of wilful perjury.

This needs no explication.

ARTICLE XV.

If merchants or passengers having other men's servants aboard a ship under their charge, or if the master, being entrusted with captives, touch at any city, port, or coast, and there, any person or persons going ashore, the ship happening, whilst they are at land, to be pursued by robbers or pirates, and making the ordinary signal puts to sea, so that both the ship and the merchants and passengers goods are preserved, all the goods and effects of those that were left ashore shall be restored to them. And if any of them afterwards commence a suit against the master, for having left them ashore in a place infested with robbers, they shall recover nothing, because the master and mariners were obliged to fly from the pirates. But if a merchant or master leave another man's servant, who was under his charge in any place, he shall make restitution to his master.

ILLUSTRATION.

For the better understanding of the sense of this article, it seems necessary to observe, that as in most other things, so in war, the customs of the Ancients did very much differ from these of the present age; and that especially with regard to prisoners taken in war, who for the most part were made slaves; that is to say, remained in perpetual captivity. And though amongst the more civilized nations, some regard was had to their quality and station, those of the common sort were sold and disposed of, as are now the negroes, which we purchase in Guinea, and carry to the plantations in America. And in this sense is to be understood the captives and servants here spoken of, and supposed to be committed to the care of masters, merchants, or passengers, who by this law lie under an obligation of looking so narrowly after them, that if by any accident they should happen to be left ashore, the persons under whose conduct they were left, should be answerable for them, and liable to make restitution either of the persons or value to the owners.

ARTICLE XVI.

Of money lent for naval interest, &c.

If masters or merchants borrow money for their voyages, the goods, freight, ships, and money being free, they shall not make use of suretyship, except there be some apparent danger, either of the sea, or of pirates. And for money so lent, the borrowers shall pay NAVAL INTEREST.

ILLUSTRATION.

By this law, merchants and mariners borrowing money to be laid out in their traffic by sea, seem to be enjoined to pay naval interest for it, which (as already observed) was much more considerable than that which was paid for money borrowed upon security at land, because the hazard was much greater: for, amongst the Rhodians, when money was lent upon naval interest, the risk was to the lender, who, in consideration of that, had a very considerable share of the profits arising from it: so that, upon the main, it was the lenders that traded with their own money, by the intermission of such seafaring persons as thought fit to follow that way of living, and who undoubtedly made a great profit for themselves with the money so borrowed, besides the share they were obliged to give the lenders for the use of their money, and for the dangers to which it was exposed.

ARTICLE XVII.

Of money lent in partnership.

If money is lent to a seafaring person by one in partnership with him, for the use of the partnership, and articles be drawn, either for one voyage, or for any longer time that the partnership is to last, if the person receiving the money doth not return it in the time agreed upon to the owner, and it afterwards happens to be lost, either by fire, robbery, or shipwreck, the lender shall bear no share in the loss, but shall receive his own in safety. But if before the expiration of the time appointed for the partnership, there happens any loss or damage at sea, the loss (as well as the gain) shall be divided between them both, according to the agreement made. This needs no illustration.

ARTICLE XVIII.

Of persons borrowing money upon security, and afterwards going abroad.

If any person borrowing money for a certain term, does afterwards go into a foreign country, the time agreed upon being expired, the loan shall be paid according to the law of suretyships. But if there be no way of getting satisfaction, and the money still remains in the hands of the borrower, he shall pay NAVAL INTEREST for all the time that he was absent.

ILLUSTRATION.

Some account has already been given of the difference that there was amongst the Rhodians, between the interest paid for money borrowed at land, and to be employed there, and that which was borrowed by sea-faring people, to be laid out in goods, and transported to foreign countries in the way of trade. We have likewise taken notice that, in the latter case, the lenders were allowed to receive much greater profits than in the former, because their risk was greater. Now the intent of this article is, only to command the like interest to be paid for money borrowed by a person, who afterwards retires to a foreign country, during the time that he remains there; because the legislators thought it just to give the lenders some extraordinary allowance for the disappointment they met with, and the risk they might run upon such occasions.

ARTICLE XIX.

Of freighting of ships, and giving earnest.

If any person hiring a ship, and giving earnest, says afterwards that he has no occasion for her, he shall lose his earnest;

ness; but if the master recede from the agreement, he shall give the merchant double the earnest.
This article needs no explication.

ARTICLE XX.

Of charter-parties.

In hiring of ships, the charter-parties [see CHARTER-PARTY] shall not be valid, except they be sealed; and the penalties may be inserted, with the consent of the parties. But if there be no charter-party, and either the master or freighter go from their word, as suppose the merchant should not give the money agreed to, he must pay half the freight to the master; or, if the latter break his word, he shall pay to the merchant the half of the freight; but if the master pretend intirely to recede from the bargain, he shall pay to the master the whole freight; which penalty shall be exacted as a punishment for breach of promise.
This does not want any illustration.

ARTICLE XXI.

Of masters or owners of ships in partnership together.

If two masters of ships verbally enter into partnership, acknowledging that they have done so in former times, and have mutually observed the conditions thereof, and always paid the duty of each lading; in case any accident happens to either of the two ships, whether being in ballast or laden, that which is safe shall sustain one fourth-part of the damage, though their partnership be commenced without any written instrument. But where there are articles in writing, they shall be firm and valid, and the things which are saved shall be liable to a contribution with those that are lost.

ARTICLE XXII.

Of merchants freighting a whole ship.

If a merchant freighting a ship agrees to lade it intirely himself, the master shall carry nothing in it but water, provisions, ropes, &c. and other the ship's necessary tackle; however, if the master will put in other goods in the ship, he may, if she can carry them. But if the merchant, in presence of three witnesses, protest against it, and thereupon there happens at sea to be an ejection, the master shall suffer the damage; but, if the merchant do not forbid it, they shall contribute towards the aforesaid damage.

ARTICLE XXIII.

Of the validity of charter-parties.

If there is a charter party in being between the merchant and the master, it shall be valid; and, though the merchant does not compleatly lade the ship, he shall pay the freight, according to the contents of that instrument.
This wants no illustration.

ARTICLE XXIV.

Of lets and impediments in voyages.

If the master having received half of the freight, and setting sail, the merchant will return, notwithstanding the charter-party, he forfeits the sum he has paid for that impediment. But if the master breaks the articles, he shall forfeit the value of the whole freight to the use of the merchant.

ILLUSTRATION.

That the reader may not confound this article with the 20th of this fragment, which likewise treats of the penalties imposed upon such as having freighted ships, do afterward recede from their contracts, which are different from those mentioned in this article; we shall put him in mind, that there the breach of verbal bargains and agreements about freighting of ships, is spoken of; whereas the penalties here mentioned are for the breach of charter-parties, which are written instruments, solemnly signed and sealed; and, besides that, it is more properly the impediments that may happen during the voyage that are here treated of. [See the article CHARTER-PARTY.]

ARTICLE XXV.

Of demurrage, &c.

If a ship be detained by the merchant ten days longer than the time appointed by the charter-party to remain in any port, he shall find the company in victuals and drink; and, if ten days more pass, the merchant shall pay the freight, and quit the ship, except he be willing to add a reasonable sum to that before agreed to; upon payment of which he may sail, as he fees convenient.

ARTICLE XXVI.

Of masters or mariners lying ashore, or being negligent.

If the master or any of the mariners lying ashore, the ship happens, during their absence, to perish, whether by night or by day, the master or mariners so lying ashore shall

sustain the damage, and those who remain in the ship shall be free; and whatever damage befalls a ship by any one's negligence, shall be refunded to the owner by the persons by whose fault it happened.
This needs no illustration.

ARTICLE XXVII.

Of shipwrecks happening by the fault of the master or mariners.

If a ship puts to sea with merchants or partners goods, and there happens to be disabled, or to perish by the fault of the master or mariners, the goods that are saved shall be secured in a certain place, free from any danger. But if it is proved by witnesses that the shipwreck was occasioned by the tempest, as well what remains of the ship, as of the goods, shall be brought to a contribution; and the master shall retain half the value of the freight. And if any person denying, in such a case, his partnership in a voyage, be convicted thereof by three witnesses, he shall pay his proportion of the loss, and likewise undergo the punishment of that denial.

ILLUSTRATION.

By this law we see, that further provision is made for determining such differences as might probably arise between the parties concerned, in case of ship-wreck: it being positively ordained, that, in case such a disaster should in any manner happen by the fault of the mariners, then the lading (if saved) should be preserved for the merchant, free from all contribution towards the damage of the ship; leaving the other matters, concerning that which the goods may have sustained, to be decided according to the other preceding statutes relating to such affairs. This article concludes with a very just and equitable regulation, concerning persons who having only verbally taken an interest in any ship, or in its lading, in case of such a disaster, should pretend to deny themselves to be concerned therein, in order to avoid the paying of a share of the loss proportionable to what they would have claimed in the profit; of which being duly convicted, they were to pay a double share of the loss, and be further punished for their fraudulent denial, as the law required.

ARTICLES XXVIII, and XXIX.

Of the staying of ships in ports, and shipwreck, or other damage happening thereupon.

ARTICLE XXVIII.

If a ship be detained by a merchant or partner, so that she cannot sail from her port upon the day appointed, and that ship happens afterwards to be taken by pirates, or to perish by fire or shipwreck, he that was the cause of her being detained shall pay the damage.

ARTICLE XXIX.

If a merchant in the port where the charter-party is made, does not, at the day appointed, lade the ship, and she afterwards suffers any damage by pirates, fire, or shipwreck, the merchant shall pay all the damage; but if before the day appointed any such accident happens, they shall both contribute.

These two articles need no illustration.

ARTICLES XXX, and XXXI.

Of ships that are lost, and the merchant's money saved.

ARTICLE XXX.

If a merchant lade a ship, and, carrying money with him, any accident happens to the ship, so that she being broken to pieces, the goods are lost, what can be saved of the ship or goods shall be liable to a contribution; but the merchant paying the tenths, shall keep his money: and, if he escaped alone, without laying hold of any implement of the ship, he shall only pay half freight, according to the charty-party; but if he made use of any tool belonging to the ship, in saving of himself, he shall pay a fifth of the money preserved.

ARTICLE XXXI.

If a merchant lades a ship, and any accident happens, whatever is preserved on either side shall be liable to a contribution. If there be money saved, it shall pay a fifth; and the master and mariners shall use their utmost endeavours to save it.

This needs no illustration.

ARTICLE XXXII.

Of a ship going to sea for a freight, or in partnership, and there suffering shipwreck.

If a ship, being laden by a merchant, puts to sea, either for a freight, or in partnership, and some misfortunes befall her, the merchant shall not dispute the paying of half freight; and what is saved of the goods shall, together with the ship,

be liable to a contribution. But if the merchant, or partner, has advanced any money beforehand, all things shall pass according to the form of the written agreement made between them.

This article needs no explication.

ARTICLE XXXIII.

Of accidents befalling a ship after she is unladed.

If a master unlade the goods at the appointed port, and afterwards any accident befalls the ship, the merchant shall pay him the whole freight; and the goods unladed, together with the ship, shall be secure from the passengers. But if any thing remains in the ship, it shall be liable to a contribution with the ship.

ILLUSTRATION.

What is here meant by the unladed goods and ship's being safe from the passengers, seems a little obscure: perhaps, in such cases, the passengers were not allowed any reparation of the damage they might sustain in the clothes and personal necessities they might have on ship-board; because they being only there accidentally, and having no interest in the voyage, it was not, probably, thought just, that the goods of a merchant who hired the ship, and paid the freight, should bear any proportion of the loss sustained by a passenger, by whom he was to expect no profit. Without this interpretation, we do not see how the last sentence of this article can be made consistent with the words immediately preceding.

ARTICLE XXXIV.

Of goods spoiled in the hold, by leakage or water, &c.

If a ship has linen or cloths aboard, the master shall provide good canvas, lest the goods should be damaged by the flowing in of the water in the time of a storm. If the pump or sink too much fills the ship, the master shall forthwith acquaint such as have goods on board, that they may be viewed; and if the seamen not informing the master thereof, the goods be spoiled, the master, together with the mariners, shall refund the damage: but if it appear that the master and mariners declared that the sink was too full, and that the goods should be laid abroad, and those that laded them neglected it, the master and mariners shall be no ways liable to the damage.

ILLUSTRATION.

This article contains a very commendable regulation for obliging the masters and mariners of ships to be careful of the lading, and to have continually an eye upon the hold, to see that it be clear of water, and that every thing remain in a secure situation. Nor is there any thing more just, than that the damage occasioned by the negligence and carelessness of masters and mariners, should be repaired by them, since otherwise some of them would be so indifferent in regard to merchants goods, that they would scarce be at the pains to flow them in places of the hold convenient for them: and, on the other hand, it is no less reasonable that, if the masters and mariners acquit themselves of their duty, in acquainting the owners of the goods of the danger that they are in, and they notwithstanding refuse to let them be removed, the owners themselves should sit down with the loss, which they would not prevent. However these are cases which very seldom happen among us.

ARTICLE XXXV.

Of a ship lightening her burthen in distress.

If a ship either having lost her mast by accident, or, it being cut, throws over any of her lading in that distress, all the mariners, merchants, and goods, and what is preserved of the ship, shall be liable to a contribution. This needs no illustration.

ARTICLE XXXVI.

Of ships running aboard of one another.

If any ship under sail, in the day-time, run aboard of another lying at anchor in an harbour, or that has slackened her sails, all the loss and damage shall fall upon the master and passengers, and goods of the ship under sail, which shall be liable to a contribution. If it be in the night-time, the ship that slackens her sails shall put out a light, or, wanting that, shall endeavour to avoid the danger, by shouting and crying; both which being neglected, and the ship perishes, it is her own fault; and that being duly proved, no reparation shall be made by the other. But if those that have the management of the sails be negligent, and the commander of the watch be asleep, the ship which has its sails spread shall be deemed to be the author of that misfortune, and shall refund the damage done to the ship she runs aboard of.

ILLUSTRATION.

That some particulars of this article seem to be a little severe, must indeed be acknowledged: for though it be highly reason-

able, that if a ship under sail runs aboard of another, which not being in that disposition, cannot avoid the danger with which she is threatened, it is very hard that the goods of the merchant should pay for the fault of the seamen, in which he can have no hand; and yet more unaccountable, that an innocent passenger (who perhaps is an utter stranger to all those matters) should suffer for the malice, ignorance, or neglect of an obstinate crew. However it seems that hereby the Rhodian legislators intended to stir up all persons whatsoever, by the powerful motives of their own private interest, to do their utmost endeavour to prevent all sorts of unhappy accidents; and, indeed, it should be the principal care of all seafaring persons to avoid such dangerous rencounters: but, as it is not possible for a ship that is either lying at anchor, or has her sails in such a posture that she cannot of a sudden change her course, to prevent such meetings, the ship that has her sails in a good disposition, and may steer another way, is obnoxious to the law for all the damage that may befall another of whom she runs aboard, than which, nothing is more reasonable. If the damage is occasioned by the omission of those that receive it, they must even take it for their pains; for if, in a dark night, a ship lying at anchor in any road, puts out no light and keeps no watch, another sailing that way may very innocently run aboard of her, without being aware of the danger; and therefore due care should be taken to keep a regular watch there, as well as at sea, and likewise to put out lights, by which it may be discovered from afar, and thereby freed from such unhappy accidents.

ARTICLE XXXVII.

Of a ship being lost, and the lading saved.

If any accident befall a ship, by which she perishes, the goods of the merchants and passengers are notwithstanding preserved, the goods preserved shall pay their fifteenths, but the merchants and passengers shall not pay the master for the ship.

ARTICLE XXXVIII.

Of ships laden with corn, and surprized with a storm.

If a ship laden with corn be surprized with a tempest, the master shall take care to give good canvas, and the seamen to keep the pump clear; which if they neglect, and the corn is thereby wet, the mariners alone shall bear the damage: but if the corn be damaged by the storm, without any fault on their part, the damage shall be borne by the master and mariners, together with the merchant; and the masters and mariners shall have a hundredth part of what is preserved. And when the ship is to be lightened at sea, the merchant shall first throw something overboard, and then the mariners must follow his example: but, if any of them afterwards steal any thing, they shall restore it double, and lose all manner of benefit.

ARTICLE XXXIX.

Of laded ships being carried out of their course and lost.

If a ship setting sail, laden with corn, wine, or oil, be carried by the master (without the merchant's consent) to any shore or place out of her course, and there happens to be shipwrecked, the goods and lading being saved, the merchant shall suffer nothing by the ship's misfortune, because he was not for touching at that place. But if (the ship being under sail) the merchant tells the master that he must of necessity touch at any place that is not mentioned in the charter party, and there the ship happens to perish, the lading being saved, the merchant shall make good that ship to the owner: but, if the thing was undertaken by their mutual consent, they shall contribute for the damage.

These articles need no illustration.

ARTICLE XL.

Of the shipwreck of ships, out of which precious goods are saved.

If any ship suffers shipwreck, and, nevertheless, a part both of the ship and goods be saved, if the passengers have gold, silver, velvet, pearls, or precious stones about them, the gold that is saved shall pay the tenths, and the silver the fifths: and, if the velvets be not damaged, they shall pay the tenths, as gold; but if they be, the damage shall be deducted, and the remainder shall contribute; and the pearls, as they shall be rated, equalling the weight of gold, shall compensate the value of the ship.

ILLUSTRATION.

What the reason may be that silver, which certainly is more burthensome in a ship than gold, should pay one half less towards the damage in case of shipwreck, cannot easily be conceived, no more than what should make velvets, which are yet more burthensome and bulky than silver, be taxed twice as much as silver. It is certain, that that commodity was much esteemed among the Ancients, when it was not so commonly wore as it is now; but we can hardly believe that it was more precious than silver. As to the pearls, of which

which mention is here made, the term in the Greek is *μαργαρίτα*, which, in the Latin translation, is rendered uno, from unus, ONE, because (several being found in one shell) not one of them is like another; but that term not being usual in England, we thought it convenient to render it by the common name of pearl.

ARTICLE XLI.

Of ships being lost, and the goods of passengers saved.

If any ship be disabled or lost, and there being passengers on board, their goods and baggage be saved, they shall contribute towards the loss of the ship: and if two or three of the passengers lose their money, all the others (according to their ability) together with the ship, shall contribute towards the loss of their money.

ARTICLE XLII.

Of a ship's being laden with goods, and turning leaky.

If a merchant-ship turn leaky, the lading being taking out, it shall be in the master's choice to put it aboard another ship, or aboard the same, if once repaired; and that not being repaired, if the master offers to carry them in another to the port agreed upon, the merchant shall pay the whole freight.

ARTICLE XLIII.

Of ejection and damage in a tempest.

If a ship be surprized with a storm, and an ejection be made, or if the yard-arms, masts, rudder, anchors, or ship-boats be broken, all that is preserved of the ship and goods shall contribute towards the damage.

ARTICLE XLIV.

Of other damage happening in tempests.

If a ship has goods on board, and in a tempest lose her masts, rudder, boats, &c. and, by the violence of the storm, the goods happen to be wet, there shall be a contribution; but, if the lading be more damaged by the sink than by the tempest, the master shall, notwithstanding, receive his whole freight, but shall deliver the goods by the same measure, and in the same condition that he received them.

ILLUSTRATION.

This article contains a special proviso for preventing of damage to merchants goods, by the negligence of the mariners, in not taking due care of the hold and the pump, which sometimes occasions considerable loss to the owners of the lading; for which, the master of a ship is very justly, by this law, obliged to restore the goods (the danger of the sea only excepted) by the same measure, and in the same condition, in which he received them; and, on the other hand, the merchant is enjoined to pay his full freight. Now, as to this law obliging the master to return the same measure of goods, in the same condition he received them, that is, in some cases, impossible; for there being goods which, if once wet, can never be restored to their primitive goodness and lustre, they cannot, consequently, be returned in the same condition; by which it is plain, that as no law commands impossibilities, here must only be meant, that if, by the neglect of the master and mariners, the goods be damaged in the ship, he must sustain the damage.

ARTICLE XLV.

Of saving any part of a shipwreck.

If a ship be surprized at sea with whirlwinds, or be shipwrecked, any person saving any thing of the wreck, shall have one fifth of what he saves.

ARTICLE XLVI.

Of seamen perishing in a storm, and of the ship's boat.

If the ropes break, and the boat goes adrift from the ship, with mariners in it, and they perish at sea, the master shall pay their heirs one full year's wages; and if any person finds the boat, and preserves it safe, he shall restore every thing as he found it, and receive one fifth part as a reward.

ARTICLE XLVII.

Of shipwrecked goods fished up in the sea.

If gold or silver, or any other thing, be taken up out of the sea eight cubits deep, he that so takes the same up shall have one third; and, if 15 cubits, he shall have one half, because of the depth: and if any thing is cast on shore by the tide, and taken up only one cubit deep, the finder shall have a tenth part.

ILLUSTRATION.

The three precedent articles determine the rewards due to persons that find and save shipwrecked goods, as three of the

four subsequent do the punishments of such as steal or embezzle any part of a wreck, or do in any manner aggrieve, or cause any detriment to persons under that misfortune; and as the circumstances of place, &c. are different, the rewards are always to be proportionable to the danger from which the person delivers the goods; it being very reasonable that a person fishing up goods in the main sea have a more considerable reward allowed him, than one that finds them cast ashore upon the sea-sands.

ARTICLE XLVIII.

Of persons taking shipwrecked goods by violence.

Whoever takes any thing from a wreck by violence, shall restore four-fold.

The above article is taken out of the second title of the eleventh book, and is of itself so express and rational, that it needs no illustration.

ARTICLE XLIX.

Of such as force masters of ships to fail.

Whoever imposes a private burthen upon the public, and forces a master of a ship to fail, shall not only bear the loss and damage of the shipwreck, but be severely punished.

ILLUSTRATION.

This article is taken out of the fifth title of the aforesaid book, and does not seem so very plain but that it may admit of a short explication.

We should, indeed, have been at a loss to guess at the meaning of it, if the summary prefixed to it had not been plainer than the article itself, in which these words [to fail] are only understood, but are expressed in the summary preceding the article; so that, comparing both together, we find the meaning of it to be this: that if any merchant, or other person, should, upon any occasion, force a master of a ship to fail against his own will and inclination, and there should afterwards happen any misfortune or disaster to the ship, the person that forced the master to fail should be answerable for all the damages: which, indeed, is highly reasonable.

We own that it is very oddly expressed in the article, which verbatim runs thus: Whosoever imposes a private burthen upon the public, and forces a master to it, shall not only, &c. But considering that the word imponere, which we here render impose, may likewise signify to lade, and that onus, which we render burthen, may likewise very properly signify the burthen or lading of a ship, and considering also the following words of the article which concern shipwreck, or damage happening in such a case, it is plain enough, that the natural sense of that law can be no other than what we have interpreted it.

As to the words private and public, they seem to be properly enough made use of on this occasion, because, when a man pretends to force another person, against his will, to take an interest in his private and particular concerns, it is certainly an imposition on the public; for though injuries done to particular persons regard immediately only them to whom they are done, yet they mediate affect the commonwealth in general, which is undoubtedly attacked in every assault that is made upon the person or privileges of any of its members; which plainly appears from the universal practice and consent of all the kingdoms, states, and civil societies in the world, who agree that the public has a right to punish crimes, though committed against private persons, and that without the consent of the persons to whom the injuries were done, it not being necessary that that should intervene in order to the criminal's punishment: and so we may observe, that in such cases, besides the counsel appearing for the plaintiff at the prosecution of the criminal, the solicitor, or attorney-general, ordinarily appears for the king, as they likewise do in other countries.

ARTICLES L, and LI.

Of persons violently robbing and preying upon shipwrecks.

ARTICLE L.

Whoever violently takes away any of the miserable remainders of shipwrecks, or takes any advantage of that grievous misfortune, shall restore fourfold to the owners.

ARTICLE LI.

If any man more grievously oppresses shipwrecked persons, and forcibly carries off any shipwrecked goods, after restitution made, if he is a freeman, he shall be condemned to three years banishment; if a man of low degree, he shall be employed in the public works during that time; and if a slave, he shall be put to the most severe and hardest labour.

ILLUSTRATION.

These two last articles are extracted out of the 5th title of the LXIId book of the Digests, and determine the punishments to be inflicted upon persons robbing, or in any manner oppressing such as have had the misfortune to suffer shipwreck; which punishments are proportioned to the circumstances by which those crimes may either be aggravated or extenuated. Most happy would our mariners think themselves, if such wholesome constitutions could take place throughout all his Britannic Majesty's dominions, in some parts whereof they are extremely wanted, and particularly upon the coast of Cornwall and Wales, where, if an unfortunate ship does happen to run ashore upon the sands or rocks, the inhuman, brutish, and uncivilized inhabitants, far from tendering any friendly succour or assistance to the persons in distress, most barbarously deprive them of the miserable remains of their shipwrecked fortunes, stripping them even of their wearing cloaths, and sometimes cruelly murdering those unhappy people, who would have met with a milder fate amidst the waves of the ocean, than in the unmerciful hands of those barbarous coasters. See the article SHIPWRECKS.

REMARKS.

The laws of the Rhodians were so much esteemed amongst the ancient Romans, that they were unanimously received as the rule of all maritime affairs, except in cases where they were directly opposite to the native laws of their country. And as the fraud and dishonesty of men had found means to elude the true design and intent of the first Rhodian legislators, the Romans took care to reform such abuses, by some explanatory additions to the aforesaid laws, which, as long as that monarchy lasted, they always held in great veneration. The ancient Romans were not ashamed to take all the helps and assistances they could have from other nations, to render their own body of laws the more perfect and complete. It was with this view that they sent persons into Greece, there to collect the best and most useful laws which they could pick up among the commonwealths of that country, which were afterwards digested into twelve tables, and were made the ground-work of the body of the Civil Law. It was likewise for the same purpose that they borrowed of the Rhodians their laws relating to maritime affairs, as being the best collection of laws of that kind that were then extant, and inserted them in the body of their own laws. And at this day the Rhodian laws, the laws of Oleron [see OLERON'S LAWS], and other maritime laws of other nations [see WISBURY LAWS], are received as the general law for deciding all causes civil and maritime, in aid of the municipal laws of each country, and without any apprehension that the said foreign laws will be an infringement of their own municipal laws, because they are received by virtue of their own authority, and only to supply the defects and omissions of their own laws, for deciding cases for which their own laws have made no provision.

These laws, as well as the other maritime laws which are interspersed throughout this work, having a close affinity with, and indeed being incorporated with the civil law, a due knowledge of the latter should seem to be indispensably requisite to enable us to make a right judgment in the decision of maritime controversies. I shall not presume to take upon me to ascertain the limits, power, and jurisdiction of the courts of common law, when compared with that of the high court of admiralty: I shall only observe, that they have for some ages been jealous of the power and authority of each, and the courts of common law seem to have gained the ascendancy, and to have drawn all the business they could from the civil law courts. Whether this has proved more for the ease, benefit, and advantage of the subjects of this kingdom, I cannot presume to judge. I hope, however, that I may be permitted to say, without offence, that, in whatever court maritime and commercial disputes and litigations are brought for adjudication, those who are to plead, or to adjudge in such courts, cannot be too well acquainted with the maritime laws of weight and authority that have been promulgated in all wise and civilized nations. Now as it is certain, that it is in the body of the civil law we have the most complete, if not the only collection, of the rules of natural reason and equity, which are to govern the actions of mankind; and therefore it is, that it has been called *RATIO SCRIPTA*, written reason, as containing the most perfect rules of reason for deciding all differences that may arise among men in their intercourse with one another: and as all maritime and commercial laws ought to be founded on, and consistent with the principles of the civil law, which is the same in all countries, it follows that the study of the civil law should by no means be neglected in a trading empire.

In all other countries where the study of the civil law is cultivated, they have peculiar laws and customs of their own, of which they are as tenacious as we can possibly be of ours. Yet they are so far from banishing or discouraging the study of the civil law, under an apprehension of its encroaching upon their own municipal laws, that, on the contrary, they give the professors thereof all encouragement; they study it

as a qualification for the better understanding of their own laws, and make it subservient to them; by applying the general rules of natural reason and equity, which are contained therein, to clear up any difficulties and obscurities, and to supply any defects or omissions that may occur in their own municipal laws.

In former times, when the civil law was more universally known and studied here in England than it is at present, the judges and professors of the common law had frequent recourse to it, in cases where the common law was either totally silent, or defective. So that the sages of the law of those days were sensible of the good use that might be made of the reason of the civil law, in aid and subserviency to the common law of the land, as other nations make use of it at this day.

And besides this general advantage that is to be reaped from the study of the civil law, we are not to look upon it altogether as a foreign commodity in this island, some of the particular laws thereof having been enacted for deciding controversies which arose here in England, and bearing date from this from the Romans. The greatest part of this island was governed wholly by the civil law for the space of about 360 years, viz. from the reign of the emperor *CLAUDIUS* to that of *HONORIUS*; during which time, some of the most eminent among the Roman lawyers, as *PAPINIAN*, *PAULUS*, and *ULPIAN*, whose opinions and decisions are collected in the body of the civil law, sat in the seat of judgment here in England, and distributed justice to the inhabitants. But after the declension of the Roman empire, the Saxon, Danish, and Norman customs took place in the island, according as the said nations became masters of us, every one being fond of introducing their own customs.

The law of nations is likewise founded on the principles of the civil law; and the law of nations is absolutely necessary to be well understood, as well with relation to treaties of commerce, and of peace and friendship, and of all kind of alliance between nation and nation, as with regard to all maritime concerns between one state and another. And the necessity of the law of nations, and consequently the civil law thereupon grounded, being well understood by the ablest lawyers in this kingdom, appeared manifestly, and beyond contradiction, upon a very recent and very important occasion: I mean the affair that happened a few years ago, between his late Majesty and the king of Prussia, with respect to a memorial, and other papers, delivered by *Monf. Michell*, the king of Prussia's secretary of the embassy, to his grace the duke of Newcastle, concerning the Silesia loan. For in the duke of Newcastle's letter, by his Majesty's order, to *Monf. Michell*, in answer to the said memorial, &c. there is the most profound knowledge in the law of nations and the civil law displayed by those able civilians and lawyers, who were ordered by his Majesty to draw up the said answer *. See the article *SILESIA*.

* These gentlemen were, the learned *Sir George Lee*, judge of the Prerogative Court; *Dr. Paul*, his Majesty's advocate-general in the courts of civil law; *Sir Dudley Rider*, then his Majesty's attorney-general, afterwards the right honourable lord chief justice of the court of King's Bench; and the honourable *William Murray, Esq.*; then his Majesty's solicitor-general, afterwards his Majesty's attorney general. The only gentleman now living of the abovementioned, is the latter, who is now the lord chief justice of the King-Bench.

There are some particular matters in which the civil law hath always been, and still is allowed to be, the only law in England, whereby they are to be decided; and the courts of justice which have cognizance of the said matters, do proceed therein according to the rules and forms of the civil law. Thus, in the high court of admiralty, causes civil and maritime are here to be decided according to the civil law and the maritime customs. Thus, in the court of honour, the judges thereof are to proceed according to the civil law. Thus also, in the universities, and all the ecclesiastic courts of this kingdom, they proceed according to the civil law, and the cannon law, which is, in a great measure, founded upon the civil law.—But these matters are beside my purpose.

Having mentioned the courts where the civil law is allowed to be not only of use, but of force and authority here in England, we beg leave to consider how far the reason and equity thereof may be of service in other courts, where it has not the force and authority of law. And we cannot but think, that in all courts of equity, where the rigour of the common law is to be mitigated by the rules of equity, the knowledge of the civil law must be of great service, and more especially in concerns of a commercial nature: for it is there, and no where else, that we have the fullest and most perfect collection of the general rules of natural reason and equity, applied to the various transactions and intercourses of business between man and man. If, therefore, one were to judge what is just and equitable in a cause depending between parties, would it not be a great help towards forming a right judgment therein, to enquire into the general rules of equity touching the said matter, which have been laid down and established by the most eminent lawyers that ever lived in any age, and to see how they have applied them in similar cases? Can it be imagined,

gined, that the reasonings of those great men upon cases of the like nature, will not give great light, and contribute very much towards forming an equitable decision in matters which are to be determined upon the principles of equity, and not according to the rigour of the law? And will not a knowledge of the ancient and modern maritime laws of other wise nations, which are esteemed of authority, as being grounded on the principles of the civil law, greatly contribute to enable lawyers to conduct their pleadings and adjudications, more consistent with the principles of right reason and equity, than can be done if they are unacquainted with these laws? How far, therefore, these rules of equity, which may be collected from the body of the civil and maritime laws, may be useful in the high court of Chancery, and the court of Exchequer, whose proceedings are according to equity, is most humbly submitted to the great wisdom and experience of the learned judges, and others who are best acquainted with the practice of those courts.

And if this knowledge of the rules of reason and equity can be of service in the inferior courts of equity, it cannot be less useful and necessary in the supreme court of equity of the kingdom, which is that of the lords assembled in parliament. It is to that high tribunal that the subjects have recourse, in order to obtain an equitable redress of the grievances which they pretend to have had done them by the inferior courts. And the lords who compose that august assembly, and who are the supreme judges of the property of the subject, cannot be supposed, by reason of their high rank and quality, and their frequent avocations upon account of the weightier matters of government, to apply themselves to that minute study of the laws which is expected from other judges: and, therefore, seeing they have frequent occasions to act in a judicial capacity, it is the more necessary that they should be acquainted at least with the general rules of reason and equity, which may help to guide them in the judgments which they give in matters of private property that come before them.

And if we consider the said body in their legislative capacity, as having under their direction the arduous matters of state, and especially such as regard the intercourse between us and other nations, the knowledge of the law of nations, which is built upon the civil law, is absolutely necessary in deliberations of this kind, that no resolutions may be taken in such matters, but what are agreeable to the principles of the law of all nations. And it was upon this account that, according to the ancient custom and usage of parliament, the masters of Chancery, who formerly were civilians, were summoned, with the judges of the realm, to give their assistance and attendance in the upper house of parliament: for as the judges of the realm were to give their counsel and advice, when required, in matters which depended on the laws of the land; so the masters of Chancery, who were skilled in the civil law, and the law of nations, were often consulted in matters which depended on those laws.

There is likewise another court, where we humbly conceive that the knowledge of the civil law may be of service, for determining matters that come before it; and that is, the king's privy-council, which is a court of justice in some respects, as it is in others a council with which his Majesty is graciously pleased to advise and consult in matters relating to the public. It is a court of justice, wherein his Majesty is pleased finally to determine some matters of private property, as particularly all matters of prizes taken from an enemy in time of war, in which the appeal lies from the high court of admiralty to the king in council: and those causes are to be judged by no other law but the civil and maritime law.

The privy council is likewise a court of justice, for the final determination of all appeals that come from the English plantations in America, from the isles of Jersey and Guernsey, and other places: in all which causes the rules of equity collected in the body of the civil law, must be of service to judge of the equity of the sentences which are complained of, but more especially in the causes which come from the isles of Jersey and Guernsey, where the proceedings in their courts of judicature have a great conformity with the civil law; and the customs of Normandy, which are the law by which those islands are governed, are not only illustrated and explained by the civil law, but many times the aid of the law is there invocated, as a rule for deciding cases which are not expressly regulated by their own customs, as appears from the commentaries of Rouille, Terrier, and others, on the said customs.

Having seen in what cases the civil law may be useful, if not necessary, for determining some matters that come before the privy-council as a court of justice, we must beg leave to consider how far it may be useful in the other matters that come under the deliberation of that august assembly, as a council to his Majesty for the affairs of state. It is by their council and advice that his Majesty steers the helm of government: it is there that all TREATIES OF PEACE AND COMMERCE with foreign states and potentates are examined and considered. See TREATIES.

As to what regards the internal policy of the state, for maintaining peace and quiet in the society, for procuring plenty

of all things necessary to human life, for encouraging manufactures within ourselves, and promoting a beneficial trade with our neighbours: although all these things depend, in a great measure, on the frame and constitution of our own government, on the soil and climate of the country, on its situation for trade, and on the natural temper and disposition of the inhabitants: yet, in order to improve these to the best advantage, we cannot but think that it may be of service to know what laws the Romans, the greatest and most flourishing commonwealth that ever was, thought fit to enact for promoting trade and manufactures within themselves, and for the government of their colonies in foreign parts, to preserve them in a due subjection, and to make them useful and subservient to the seat of the empire from which they derived their origin, and to which they owed their protection: all which laws are collected in the body of the civil law, and may be usefully applied by us on many occasions.

But as to what concerns the outward policy of the state, that is, the intercourse which it must have with other states and princes, we humbly conceive that the knowledge of the civil law must be of singular use in all transactions of that kind: for the civil law being in so great esteem and veneration among all other nations, that they make it the rule and standard of equity in all cases which are not expressly provided for by their own particular laws and customs, what more effectual arguments can be used to obtain justice from them in an amicable way, than those which are founded on the principles and maxims of the civil law? It is arguing with them upon their own principles, from maxims of their own law, and the law of all nations, which is the most effectual way to convince them by reason. And it was in consideration of this that our ancestors, in their great wisdom, thought proper to employ generally, in all negotiations with foreign courts, and in treaties of peace and commerce, persons who were well skilled in the civil law, and law of nations: and although it was necessary on some occasions, and more particularly at solemn congresses for treating of peace, for the greater lustre and splendor of the embassy, to employ persons of the first rank and quality; yet, to ease them of the great weight of affairs, they were always accompanied by some person of an inferior rank, who being versed in the study of the civil law, and law of nations, might be aiding and assisting in the conferences which were to be held for settling and adjusting the respective interests of the several princes and states concerned. And this we see is the constant practice of all other nations at this day, who, in their embassies for treaties of peace, employ always at least one person who has been bred to the law; although this is the less necessary in foreign countries, where all the nobility, in their studies at the university, go through a regular course of the study of the civil law, and law of nations: by which means they lay such a foundation, as to be able afterwards, from the principles thereof, to assert and defend the interests of their country, whenever their prince is pleased to employ them in affairs of that kind.

In matters of intercourse between one nation and another, we have no other law to go by but the law of nations; and this law of nations is chiefly grounded on the rules and maxims of equity which are laid down in the civil law, and which have been received by most nations, as the rules of justice between one nation and another. So that, to understand the law of nations thoroughly, and to be able to comprehend the reasoning of the authors who treat thereof, it is absolutely necessary to have some knowledge of the civil law, as one may easily perceive by looking into Grotius, Puffendorf, and other authors who have wrote on that subject.

And I must observe here, in relation to the English colonies upon the continent of America, that there is a very great affinity between them and the colonies of the Spaniards, and other nations, who have made settlements among the Indians in those parts: for the grants made by our kings, of tracts of land in that country, for the planting of colonies, and making settlements therein, appear to have been made in imitation of the grants made by the kings of Spain to the proprietors of lands in the Spanish colonies, upon the very same conditions, and in consideration of the same services to be performed by the grantees. So that the government of the Spanish colonies, and the rights of the proprietors of lands therein, depending chiefly on the rules of the civil and feudal law, as may be seen by the learned treatise of Solorganus, *De Indiarum Jure*, the knowledge of the said laws must be of service likewise for determining any controversies that may arise touching the duties or forfeitures of the proprietors of lands in our English colonies.

We have made these few remarks only to shew in what particulars the civil law is, and may be, of use here in England, and how we may reap the same advantages from it which other nations do, without any danger to our own municipal laws. Our ancestors were so sensible of the great importance thereof, both in private and public affairs, that, besides the public professors established in the universities for teaching this science, and who have salaries allotted them by the beneficence of our princes, many of the private founders of colleges have,

in their endowments, set apart particular fellowships, as an encouragement to persons to study it. And from the principles of the civil law, and the laws of nations bottomed thereupon, we apprehend that not only the commercial and maritime laws of all trading nations may be the better understood, but such other laws may be formed and ordained in this kingdom for the universal propagation of its trading interests.

R H U B A R B, is a thick root, of an oblong figure, large at the head, and tapering pretty suddenly as it extends in length. It is sometimes single, but more usually divided into two or three parts at the lower end. We frequently meet with it in pieces of four, five, or six inches long, and three or four in diameter at the top; it is of a tolerably smooth and even surface, and externally of a faint yellow colour, with a large admixture of brown; it is moderately heavy, but not hard; it cuts through very freely and easily with a knife, especially if the blade of it has been rendered a little unctuous, first by drawing it over an almond, or any other fatty substance. When fresh cut, it is found to be of a marbled or variegated appearance; its colours are a pale but bright yellow, and a faint reddish; the yellow is the ground colour, and the red is disposed in short irregular veins, much in the manner of the darker colour in the common nutmeg. It is of a somewhat lax and spongy texture; it has an agreeable and somewhat aromatic smell, and a bitterish, astringent, and subacid taste, upon the whole not disagreeable: it tinges the spittle to a fine bright yellow, on being held some time in the mouth.

Rhubarb is to be chosen fresh, tolerably hard, and moderately heavy, and such as does not dust the fingers in handling; such as, infused a few minutes in water, gives it a fine yellow, and, when bruised in a mortar, has a reddish colour with the yellow. Rhubarb is not so often adulterated as damaged; care is to be taken that it be not wet or rotten; much of it is subject, after keeping too long, to be worm-eaten and full of holes on the surface. There are certain traders in this drug who have a way of filling up these holes with powder of some of the worst and most decayed pieces, but this is easily discovered, and such rhubarb always to be rejected.

The Ancients were not acquainted with rhubarb; it is an error to suppose they mean our rhubarb by their *rah* and *rheum*; Dioscorides and Galen evidently describe, under that name, the *rhapontic*, a root of a different plant, and very different in its virtues from our rhubarb.

Rhubarb is brought to us from Russia and the East-Indies. It is produced in great plenty on the confines of China and Tartary, and in many parts of Tartary itself; the mountains of Tibet abound with it, and a very considerable part of what is sent into Europe grows there.

We are not certain that it grows in any part of Russia, though we receive considerable quantities of it from thence; it is possible it may be first brought thither from China and Tartary, and then sent to us. The Chinese are very careful in their manner of drying it: they take up the root only in winter, or early in spring, before the leaves begin to appear; they cut it into such pieces as they think proper, and lay it on a table in a shady place, turning it once or twice a day, for two or three days; after this they string the pieces on a cord, at a distance from one another, and then hang them up in a shady place, where they may dry leisurely. It is by this management that the rhubarb is rendered so firm and solid as we find it; for if it were hung up to dry at once in a warm airy place, it would become light and spongy: they say, also, that if the root be taken up in the summer, it is not only light and of little virtue, but that it has nothing of the reddish marbling, that is one of the great characters of its goodness with us.

The plant which produces the true rhubarb is of the number of the *ennandria-trigynia* of Linnæus. It was long before it was known in Europe; but of late it has been sent from Russia to the gardens at Paris and Chelsea, in both which it thrives extremely well, and stands the severest colds unhurt.

The root of this plant shews it to be the genuine rhubarb, and it agrees perfectly with a specimen of the plant which some years since Dr Amman of Petersburg had gathered himself on the mountains of Tibet.

We have proof sufficient now that we have the true rhubarb plant among us; and it will be easy to propagate a quantity of it, in order to try whether its virtues, when produced with us, will be the same with those it possesses as brought from its native climate.

The root of the rhubarb plant is long, thick, and perennial; its bark, while growing, is of a brownish red colour, but under this the substance of the root is of the true colour of the dried rhubarb, only deeper, of the right nutmeg grain, marbled with red and yellow, and has the true smell and taste of rhubarb, especially about the upper part of the root. It has a viscosity indeed in the mouth, that rhubarb, as we meet with it in the shops, has not; but this may only be the difference of the same root fresh and dried. A number of large leaves are produced first from this root; they are of a fine green, elegantly undulated at the edges, of an oblong figure, broadest at the base, and somewhat auriculated; they stand

on very thick and fleshy pedicles, moderately long, convex in their under part, and flat on the upper; these divide each into five large and prominent ribs, running with many divisions through the whole leaf: in the midst of these leaves rises a stalk, of an angular compressed figure, striated, and rising to about three feet high, which, from the middle to the top, is furnished with clusters of little flowers, surrounding it at certain distances; they are very small and white, and are succeeded each by a single seed, of a triangular figure: it flowers in June, and ripens the seed in July and August.

Rhubarb, on a chemical analysis, is found to be composed of a large quantity of sulphur and fixed salt, a small portion of acid salt, and a large share of earth. On these principles, the whole root must be of the gummous kind, and its earthy and gummous parts are very easily separated, and that in large quantity: from an ounce of rhubarb there may be prepared, by means of common water alone, somewhat more than an ounce of the gummous extract. There is but a very small quantity of resinous matter in rhubarb, and what there is is blended with a large share of alkaline salt: two ounces of rhubarb, ever so carefully managed, will not yield more than about three drachms of a resinous, and that a saline extract; the salt in this is in so large a portion, that it will readily dissolve in common water: and this shews us the reason why tincture of rhubarb, made even in rectified spirit of wine, does not become milky on being mixed with water, as many of the other tinctures of this kind do.

Rhubarb possesses the double virtue of a cathartic and astringent; it readily evacuates particularly the bilious humours, and afterwards gently astringes and strengthens the stomach and intestines. It is given with great success in all obstructions of the liver, in the jaundice, in diarrhoeas, and in the fluor albus and gonorrhoeas: it is also an excellent remedy against worms. It is sometimes given as a purgative, sometimes as only an alterant; and which ever way it is taken, it is an excellent medicine, agreeing with almost all ages and constitutions. The only cases in which its use is to be avoided, are those in which the blood and viscera are too hot. Fallopius says it is never to be given to people who have disorders of the kidneys or bladder, as it is apt to occasion an extraordinary heat in those parts; and Simon Pauli tells us of vertiges brought on by a too free and continued use of it.

Rhubarb is given in powder in infusion, and in its own crude solid state, the chewing it being, perhaps, the best way of giving it of all others, when it is intended to strengthen the stomach and assist digestion; the quantity of 25 grains, or thereabout, should be chewed daily on these occasions, an hour before eating; this is also by much the best way of taking it against the obstructions of the viscera. Its dose in powder is from half a scruple to two scruples; in infusion, about a drachm of it will purge gently, but the dose may be increased up to two drachms: it is observable, that neither the infusion nor the decoction, nor even the extract of rhubarb, purge nearly so briskly as the root itself in powder.

The preparations of rhubarb in use in the shops are, 1. The tincture in spirit. 2. The tincture in wine. And, 3. The extract; though the last is but little used.

Tincture of rhubarb in wine.

Take fine rhubarb two ounces; of the seeds of the lesser cardamum, cleared from their husks, half an ounce; of saffron two drachms; bruise the rhubarb to a gross powder, with the cardamums among it; then cut the saffron small with a pair of scissars, and put the whole into a matras with a quart of white wine; let them stand three days together without heat, often shaking them; then strain off the tincture, and filtre it for use.

Tincture of rhubarb in spirit.

Take of fine rhubarb two ounces, of the lesser cardamum-seeds, freed from their husks, half an ounce, of saffron two drachms, proof-spirit a quart; make the tincture without heat, in the same manner as the former.

Both these tinctures are purgative, and strengthen the stomach and intestines afterwards: they are given in most of the cases in which the root itself is proper. Their dose is from one ounce to two ounces and a half; the latter purges somewhat more strongly than the former.

Extract of rhubarb.

Take of fine rhubarb a pound, cut it into thin slices, and afterwards bruise these to a gross powder in a mortar; put it into a matras, and pour on it two quarts of water; set the matras in a sand-heat, so as to keep the liquor moderately warm, for 10 or 12 hours; then strain off the infusion, return the remaining mass into the matras, and pour on it rectified spirit of wine a quart; set it again in the sand-heat for 24 hours, then strain off the tincture: mix this liquor with the former, and gently evaporate the whole to the consistence of an extract. This is gently purgative; its dose is from 10 grains to a drachm: but, in truth, the plain powder of the root seems to be a much better medicine for all the purposes in which this could be given.

The tai-haam, or the rhubarb, grows in several parts of China: the best is that of Tsetchanen; but that which grows in the province of Xensi, and the kingdom of Thibet, is far inferior to it: what grows elsewhere in this part of the world is of so little value, that it is not used. The stalk of the rhubarb is like the small bamboos, or Chinese canes: it is hollow, and very brittle, three or four feet high, and of a dark violet colour. In the second moon, that is, in the month of March, it sends forth long and thick leaves, which grow four and four on the same stalk, looking towards each other, and forming a chalice. The flowers are of a yellow, and sometimes of a violet colour. In the fifth moon it produces a small black seed, as large as millet; in the eighth moon they pull it up, and find the root large and long; that which is heaviest and most marbled in the heart is the best and most esteemed. This root is of such a nature as renders it very difficult to be dried.

The Chinese, after having pulled up and cleaned the roots, cut them in pieces about two inches large, and dry them on plates of stone, under which they kindle fires: they turn these pieces 'till they are thoroughly dry. If they had ovens like those in Europe, they would not make use of these plates. As this operation is not sufficient to draw out all the humidity, they make a hole in each piece, and suspend them in the greatest heat of the sun, 'till they are in a condition to be kept without being corrupted.

As to the use of rhubarb, the Chinese are nearly of the same opinion with the Europeans: however, they rarely use rhubarb crude and in substance, for they say it tears the bowels, and produces gripes; and as the Chinese generally love better not to be cured, than to be relieved by great pain, they more cheerfully take rhubarb by way of decoction, with a great many other simples, which they combine according to the rules of their art: but if it is necessary to take it in substance, they prepare it in the following manner:

They take as many pieces of rhubarb as they have occasion for, and steep them 24 hours in rice wine (that of grapes would be better if they had any) 'till they are very soft, and can be cut into thin slices. Then they put upon a furnace a kind of kettle, whose mouth is two feet in diameter, and which diminishes gradually to the bottom in form of a cap. They fill this kettle with water, and cover it with an inverted sieve, made of small slips of bark. Upon the bottom of the sieve they lay the pieces of rhubarb, covering the whole with a piece of wood, over which they throw a felt, that the steam of the water may not come out; then they heat the furnace, and make the water boil, so that the steam raised through the sieve penetrates the slices of rhubarb, and destroys their acrimony. At last this steam resolving, as in an alembic, falls down into the boiling kettle, and renders the water yellow, which the Chinese keep for cutaneous disorders. These slices must remain at least eight hours in this circulation of the steam, after which they take them out, and dry them in the sun. They repeat this operation twice, and then the rhubarb is prepared, and is of a blackish colour. It may be pounded and formed into purgative pills. Five or six drachms at least make a dose, which purges gently and without gripes. The urine is that day more copious and red than usual, which, according to the Chinese, denotes that an unnatural heat is dissipated in that way. They who have an aversion to so many pills, take the same quantity of the dried slices, and in an earthen or silver vessel boil them in nine ounces of water to three, which they drink warm, but sometimes they mix simples with it.

This manner of preparing rhubarb produces the most salutary effects. An obstinate constipation had reduced a mandarin to the greatest extremity, and no remedies could procure him a stool; he vomited them up as soon as they were swallowed, as he also did rhubarb, whether taken in pills or decoction: a Chinese physician made him take a decoction of a double dose of this prepared rhubarb, with which he had mixed some virgin honey, by which means the patient had no nausea, and was freed from this disorder without any pains or gripes.

Some European physicians say, that a drachm of that part of the rhubarb where they string it, given in the morning fasting, in a glass of rose or plantain-water, is an infallible remedy for fluxes. The Chinese physicians think quite otherwise, and say, that the rhubarb always begins to corrupt at that hole; that the powder found there is of no use; that it ought to be thrown away; and that only the internal part of the root, which is weighty and well marbled, ought to be used. It may happen, that in China they undervalue this part of the rhubarb, because it is there worth no more than four-pence a pound, or because, being much dearer in Europe, the natives are unwilling to lose any of it.

RICE, according to Pomet, is the product of a plant which grows very common in many places of Europe: it commonly grows in the water, and, as some observe, though the water increases during the time of its growth, it still keeps its ear above the surface of it. That which is commonly sold in Paris, is brought from Spain and Piedmont. This is a seed of so great use and profit, that it may be called the manna of the poor, and throughout several entire countries, they have scarce any thing else to subsist on.

Choose the newest rice, well cleansed, large, that is to say, plump or well fed, white, not dusty, nor smelling rancid: those who take notice of the rice of Piedmont, esteem it much more than that of Spain, which is commonly reddish, and of a saltish taste. The use of rice, chiefly at Paris, is for the Lent season, when they boil it in water, then in milk, and sometimes reduce it to powder, that is to say flour, which they use instead of wheat flour to thicken their milk with.

To reduce rice into powder, pour boiling water upon it, and then wash it with cold water, so often 'till the water remains clear; after this put it into a mortar to pound, and when it is powdered set it to dry, and then to searce it fine; for it will often appear very fine when it is wet, and yet as it dries shews that it is coarse and requires sifting.

It is restorative, nourishing, and sweetening; it conglutinates the humours, and is useful in fluxes of the belly; it purifies the mass of blood, and stops hæmorrhages. It is used either in ptisans or food.

Besides this, pearl or French barley is used, which ought to be chosen new, dry, plump, and well fed, white, but not blanched: it is prepared at Charenton, near Paris; but the best is that of Vitry. We likewise have rice that is brought from several parts of the country, but chiefly to make a sort of coffee of, which it tastes very like when burnt. The poor buy what we call in England groats, which is made from oats, and when ground at the mill is called oatmeal.

There is a millet also shelled and picked, which they prepare in the forest of Orleans: besides other pulse, as the green and yellow peas, which come from Normandy, and the beans of Picardy and other places; there are other things also sold in the shops, which are made of wheat flour, as vermicelli, both the white and yellow sort, and starch.

The vermicelli, which the Italians invented, and call vermicelli, is a paste made out of the finest part of the wheat flour and water, which is afterwards drove through small pipes like syringes, to what length or thickness they please; so that from the resemblance of its figure to small worms, it is called vermicelli. Some of this kind of paste they make in the shape of ribbands, of two fingers breadth, and this they call kagne; other parcels of it are formed like a quill, and those they call macaron; and some in small grains like mustard-seeds, which they call semoule, the name by which they call the finer flour they compose it of: and finally, some in the shape of beads, which they call patrer. They colour this paste as they fancy, with saffron or other things, and sometimes make it up with the yolk of an egg, sugar, and cheese. Of late years this is made at Paris, and used in soups and broth, as in Italy, Provence, and Languedoc. The white vermicelli ought to be new made and as white as possible, and the yellow of a fine golden colour, the driest and the newest made which can be got.

Starch is made of the *fecula* of wheat flour, which the starch-makers form into cakes and dry in an oven, or by the heat of the sun. This used to be brought into France from Flanders and other countries, but at present that (if we can believe the French) which is made at Paris surpasses that of all other places, and they transport from thence great quantities into other parts of France, and several neighbouring countries.

We ought to choose starch for being white, soft, and most subject to crumble, likewise such as has been dried in the sun, and not in an oven, which makes it of a greyish white: its use is so generally known that it needs no description.

Monf. Lemery says, this plant bears its stalk about three or four feet high, much thicker and stronger than that of wheat or other corn: the leaves are long, like the reed, and fleshy; the flowers blow on the top like barley, but the seed which follows is disposed in clusters, each of which is enclosed in a yellow husk, ending in a spiral thread. This seed is oblong, or rather oval, and white: the plant is cultivated in moist or low grounds in Italy, and the seed brought dry from Piedmont, Spain, and several other places: its chief use is for food, but is sometimes made use of in physic: it nourishes well and stops fluxes, therefore is good in armies, camps, and sieges, because it is of light carriage and excellent sustenance, and easily prepared; it increases blood, and restores in consumptions: it is made into frumenty by boiling in milk, or, for want thereof, in water; or into cakes with water or milk, and so baked dry; and is excellent good in broth, with any kind of flesh.

Beside the other uses of rice, there is an excellent spirituous liquor made from it, which the people of Peru call *acua*, and we, from a wrong pronunciation of the word, *arrac*.

REMARKS.

The first origin, says a late French writer, of rice plantations in Carolina, was purely fortuitous; a ship on its return from the East-Indies happened to be cast away on the coast of this colony, some bags of rice being taken out of the ship, a trial was made of sowing them, which succeeded beyond expectation; and this cultivation has been so improved, that for some time past, one year with another, fifty thousand barrels of rice are sent from thence to Europe, each weighing about four

four hundred pounds, and at least worth from 50 to 60 s. per barrel, and often more; consequently, at only 50 s. the barrel, here is a sum of 125,000 l. sterling, and the greatest part of this rice is re-exported to foreigners, which is an additional advantage to the English; besides that, like tobacco, it employs a great number of ships.

For the first encouragement of this commerce, the government of England laid a heavy duty on foreign rice, exempting that of its own colonies; but the cultivation of rice coming to be thoroughly established, it was made subject to a duty. See the BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, at the end, of P. [PLANTATIONS.] And this duty includes only the rice for home consumption, the transportation of it from the colonies all over the Mediterranean, and Spain and Portugal, being permitted, on condition that the ships shall directly return to England.

Thus the English traders are enabled to sell their rice cheaper than that brought from the Levant, formerly a great market for it; but now, by the wisdom of the English, this trade is at a very low ebb.

If these laws stood in need of any addition, it is a dispensing clause in the return of ships to England, when the owners intended to sell them, the sale of ships in England being such a considerable branch of commerce, that it is highly the interest of that nation to facilitate the means of selling them, for the greater encouragement of building more.

From north to south the English are in possession of a chain of colonies, reaching to Spanish Florida, and very advantageously situated for trade and navigation. Our possessions, indeed, are of larger extent, stretching themselves without bounds*, up the country, where they inclose all the English settlements, and the Spanish in Florida; our colonies may be said to form a kind of a bow, of which those of the other two nations are the string.

* Observe the Frenchman! Their colonies in North America are boundless, so many of their map-makers say; and if their ministers should be of the same opinion, what will it avail England to treat about limits, if none shall be acknowledged? See the article MAP, and our article BRITISH AMERICA. See also the articles CANADA, COLONIES, LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, NORTH CAROLINA, and PLANTATIONS.

The English colonies, continues this writer, in these parts, are Nova Scotia, New England, New York, Pennsylvania, the two Jerseys, Maryland, Virginia, Carolina, and Georgia: these different colonies have their respective government both civil and military; they are independent and separated one from the other, but the subjection of the military government, in regard of the civil, will be an eternal bar to any COALITION of their forces for acting harmoniously under one chief*.

* Under the several heads before referred to, we have endeavoured to shew the absolute necessity of a coalition of forces, and a union of power among our British colonies in North America, before the last war, as an effectual barrier against the shameful incroachments which the French had been many years making in that part of the world; ALL WHICH CAME TO PASS: and I had the unspeakable satisfaction to observe, that such union of forces and power which I had done myself the honour to point out and zealously recommend, was adopted by his late Majesty's councils.

Every country being governed by its own inhabitants there, mind only themselves, with little or no concern about their neighbours; it is not the authority of the governors, or even of the king himself, which, without the consent of the assembly of a colony, can march its troops and militia to the assistance of any other which may be attacked; particularly the New England people have carried matters so far, as to make their governor dependent on them for his revenue; and on some differences between them and the king's council concerning their governor, they had the confidence to say, it was little considered that this colony afforded an hundred thousand men capable of carrying arms*.

* Certainly this French scribbler could have such intelligence only from some of his Popish emissaries, who are restless in sowing the seeds of confusion, as well in British America as in the mother country.

The military power of a country, where there is such a slender subordination, is little to be feared; yet is it the only one which might be formidable from the great number of the inhabitants, did not their inclination tend rather to be pirates* than soldiers; besides, in every point of the military government, it is certain, that we are vastly SUPERIOR TO THE ENGLISH†.

* What an impudent and groundless reflection does this Frenchman make upon our North Americans!

† If this be true, as we have now reason to believe, we doubt not, but from the wisdom of his Majesty's councils at present, that the scene will soon be changed, and that our brave

brave NORTH AMERICANS will be as successful against the French on the main, as they were at Cape Breton, and that the consequences of their success may prove more satisfactory to them in the present, than in the former case. The reader is desired to observe here as well as elsewhere, that the author wrote this before the last war, and the last TREATY OF PEACE, and judges it more satisfactory to remain as it does; it giving an insight into the history of the times, and shews better the nature of the last peace.

In an act of parliament passed anno regni Geo. II. tricesimo tertio, intituled, An act for granting liberty to carry RICE from his Majesty's province of Carolina in America, directly to any part of Europe southward of Cape Finisterre, in ships built in, and belonging to, Great Britain, and navigated according to law; which was to be in force for five years from the 29th day of September 1730, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament; and also an act made in the eighth year of the said reign, to continue the said act from the expiration thereof, till the 29th of September 1742, and from thence to the end of the then next session, and so extend that liberty to the province of Georgia in America; which said acts, by several subsequent acts made in the 15th and 16th, the 20th and 27th years of the said reign, were further continued from the expiration thereof, till the 29th of September 1760, and from thence to the end of the then next session, shall be and the same is hereby further continued from the expiration thereof to the said 29th of September 1767, and from thence to the end of the then session of parliament.

RIVERS. Navigable rivers are of such important use in a trading nation, that it is quite needless to say any thing in general upon that head: we shall, however, take notice of something particular in regard to this matter, that seems to merit the public attention.

The ingenious Dr Congreve, late of Wolverhampton in the county of Stafford, after many years observation on the country between the Severn and the Trent, formed a design of uniting those rivers, and was at the labour and expence of measuring and calculating every part of the levels in that distance; and hath published this proof of his ingenuity, without fearing the reproachful name of projector, usually bestowed by the ignorant, on all those who attempt any thing new for the service of mankind. He hath shewn, by comparing it with other works of the same kind effected in other countries, that this design may be executed without any very great difficulty or expence; and the mill and forges on the canal and the navigable rivers and sluices will be mutually useful to each other, according to the modern way of conducting improvements of this nature.

The expence will appear less considerable than may be generally supposed, by comparing it with works of this kind already executed; and might be less so, by employing the army on this undertaking, giving them a reasonable addition of pay.

By the account kept of the expence of cutting the new canal at Chester, in the year 1735, it appears that a canal dug 100 feet wide at top, 6 feet deep, and 60 wide at bottom, cost 28 s. every ten feet, which amounts to 739 l. 4 s. per mile; that the expence of that canal 20 miles, did not exceed 17,000 l. But here a canal of half these dimensions will answer all purposes, and will not be half the expence.

A barge 120 feet long, 15 feet broad, containing 1800 superficial feet, and drawing 2 feet water, is equal in weight to 3600 cubic feet; each foot cubic weighing 70 pounds, amounts to 252,000 pound weight; this barge, if drawn with six horses, will carry 126 tons, with two feet water, or very little more. If this scheme be completed, it will make a passage by water from York to Bristol, across the middle of the kingdom, where most of the heavy goods are made or produced. Timber, coals, lead, iron, millstones, lime, alabaster, marble, Birmingham, and all other wares made in the kingdom, would be carried to all parts at a cheap rate. What advantage this will be to the land-owners, as well as to trade, I need not mention. But so beneficial a scheme, so clearly stated, merits the regard of the public.

The distance and fall of the water from Aldersley to Burton upon Trent, is as follows:

	Miles.	Fur.	Perch.	Feet.	Inch.
From Aldersley to Newmill is	2	1	25	Fall	20 0
Thence to Penkridge	8	3	36		68 9
From Penkridge to Burton	33	2	0		100 9
Total	43	7	21		189 6

In which space are, 17 mills and forges.

	Miles.	Fur.	Perch.	Feet.	Inch.
From Aldersley to Newbridge	0	4	0	Fall	6 0
Thence to Prestwood	12	5	0		175 0
From Prestwood to Severn	13	0	8		104 6
Total	26	1	8		285 6

In which space are 25 mills and forges.

Length of the whole, 70 miles, 29 perches; fall both ways, 475 feet.

There are upon the whole length of the said water 42 mills and forges, which, by late improvements, will be a great help to make the rivers navigable, without any damage to the mills.

The fall of the water in the canal betwixt Petersburg and the Wolga, in Russia, both ways (that is, east and west) is 555 feet, which is more than the fall of the water of this canal by 80 feet. Vid. Capt. Perry's Account of Russia.

In 475 feet (the fall of the Penk and Smethfall) are 158 yards, 1 foot, which will require 32 locks, wears, and turnpikes, each lock, &c. being 5 yards high; which is not equal in number to the locks upon the river betwixt Letchlade and London, which, in 138 miles, hath 36 locks, wears, and turnpikes.

A canal from Severn to Trent, may be made, viz.

Sixteen thousand acres are in a square whose side is five measured miles: such a square seems to be betwixt Eslington windmill, the head of Chillington mill-pool, and the tops of Wrotteslye-park, Tettenhall-wood, Wolverhampton, and Bishbury-hills.

Seven brooks arise from the springs and rain-waters that fall on these 16,000 acres, and may all be drawn into a magazine in the moors betwixt Tunstall and Penford.

Five or six hundred acres will be in this magazine, if a dam of 24 feet high be made betwixt the new mills at Penford and the hill, in which the stone-quarry, and another at the new bridge of Tettenhall, 10 feet high.

Twelve miles or less will be the length of the canal from Tettenhall to Prestwood, where the Smethfall meets the water from Stourbridge, and so goes to Severn.

Eight miles or less will be the length of the canal from Penford to Penkridge, from whence the river will easily be made navigable to Burton: the land-floods of these 16,000 acres, that now are hurtful to mills and forges, by this magazine will be made serviceable.

Seventy-one market-towns and cities may trade by this canal. More may be added.

Two brooks run into the pool at Gosebrook-mill, from whence the water will run both into Severn and Trent, whenever the miller pleases.

Five brooks only feed the magazine of St. Feriol in Languedoc, which hath 595 acres in it, and supplies a canal 64 French leagues long. See Philos. Transact. No. 56.

Two millions and fifty thousand acres in the three counties of Stafford, Derby, and Leicester.

Twenty-four miles inland navigation only to these three counties.

One market-town only out of forty hath navigation in the three counties.

Two hundred and fifty thousand pounds per ann. got by water-carriage in the same quantity of land in the seven Dutch provinces.

Two thousand six hundred and twenty-five miles is the length of the fifteen Roman roads in England and Wales, many parts of which are spoiled for want of inland navigation.

One thousand pounds per week lost out of the iron trade within six miles of Dudley-castle.

One thousand tons of coals might, perhaps, be sold every week more than now are in the three counties, and as many of lead, lime, iron, stone, timber, marble, fullers-earth, wool, &c. if a canal were made betwixt Severn and Trent by Penk and Stour; then clothiers might trade from Burton to Kinfare, and so to Bridgwater, &c.

One tenth of the waste land of the three counties inclosed, will be worth 10,000 l. per ann. at 4 s. per acre, which will make a canal, and keep poor vicars; this canal will make an easy and cheap carriage betwixt the western and northern clothiers, and bring fish living, in well-boats, to supply these three inland counties.

300,000 l. per ann. is, says Sir William Petty, the charge of the land-carriage in England, one third of which might probably be saved, if this canal were made betwixt Severn and Trent, and another betwixt Severn and Thames by the Bath river, and market-towns have corn, cheese, &c. carried cheaper than by horses, and 2000 l. per week might be added to the wages of the labourers in husbandry and manufactory, the money saved by water-carriage.

Nine parts in ten of the product of all tilled lands are owing to the labour of men and horses, says Mr. Locke, so that to take off many men and horses from husbandry, to land-carriage, must be a vast damage to husbandry, and no small damage to the roads.

Two miles and a half or more is the length of the magazine in the moors betwixt Newbridge and Penford on the west side of it, three miles the length of it on the east side: it may contain 456 acres.

Fifty acres more might be added to it, by placing one sluice on the Dam-mill brook out of the boggy lands betwixt Barnhurst and Cronkwall, and one other sluice on the Mosely brook, out of the boggy lands betwixt Penford wood and

Manfell-Newhouse, upon the road betwixt Wolverhampton and Stafford.

More magazines may be made on the brooks that come out of the forest of Cannock, &c. which would fall into the canal, though not into this magazine.

Seven mills upon the brooks that would come into these moors, to join the Barnhurst brook, viz. Chillington mill, Dam-mill, New-mill, Seawall-mill, Gosebrook-mill, Tunstall-mill, and Fordhouse-mill, all which depend upon springs, and have but small pools, except one.

If the rains on these 16,000 acres that come into these moors betwixt Newbridge and Penford are 36 inches, which is less by six inches than the rains of Lancashire and Cheshire, which join to part of Staffordshire, they are more than the rains of Lisle by one third, for the rains are but 24 inches, which help their canal and that of Mardyke; and almost double to the rains of Paris, which are 19 inches, and perhaps to those of Briare, which help to fill the canal betwixt the two rivers of Paris and Orleans.

The rains on these 16,000 acres will probably fill this magazine 12 times per ann. 2 yards deep.

The depth of rain-water, if it were to stagnate on the earth, would amount, one year with another, at Townley in Lancashire, to 42 inches and a half, at Upminster in Essex 19 inches and a quarter, at Zurich in Switzerland 32 inches and a half, at Pisa in Italy 43 inches and a quarter, at Paris in France 19 inches, and at Lisle in Flanders 24 inches.

Forty acres allowed to each canal and its locks, so that the magazine of 500 acres will fill both the canals, and their locks, being 80 acres, five or six times before it is empty once.

N. B. That the rains on the west side of England are double to those on the east side, and that this magazine will not be 40 miles from West-Chester.

If this canal were made, and two or three more, it is very probable that the same number of working horses and their drivers now employed in England, working the same number of hours every day, may improve the product of the lands of England to be worth 1,000,000 l. of money per ann. more than they are now. For the horses that might be spared from carriage on the roads, as also those that carry corn, &c. to markets, might carry marle, lime, &c. which now lie useless in the earth, for improvement of land, to make them produce much more corn and grass, than they now do.

OBSERVATIONS concerning the RIVERS betwixt Oxford and Bath.

Sir James Long's objections were made new in 1683-4, which are said to be answered in 1664 by Mr. Aylyffe, Mr. Smith, &c. who were for an inland navigation betwixt Avon and Isis, by a cut to be made from Malmesbury to Summerford upon Isis near Cricklade.

Sixty thousand pounds computed by Matthews and Baskerville to be the charge of the canal from Bristol to Oxford, though there may be rocks to be cut through.

Three pounds per ton the price of carriage by land, and twenty shillings per ton by water, from Oxford to London.

Mr. Hill and Mr. Rowland Vaughan were said to design this in queen Elizabeth's time.

Judge Vaughan proposes projectors to be hanged that did not finish any navigation undertaken by subscription, if they misapplied the money.

From Cricklade to Purtonstake one mile and a half, thence to the foot of Purtonhill one mile and an half, thence to Brinkworth betwixt Summerford and Malmesbury to fall into the Avon seven miles. Here may a canal be cut.

A boat might pass from London to Bristol in ten days.

The bill said to pass the commons, but stopt when twice read, with the lords.

Cromwell said to offer 20,000 l. at the Navy-Office to join the city of London in this designed cut.

Matthews dedicates a book about it to king Charles II. ann. 1670.

Vid. Mr. Fridour's book, 1672, of the Languedoc canal; and Philos. Transf. No. 56. where is a map of it.

Mr. Collins says, that from canals to water grounds sprinkled with salt is vast profit.

Capt. Matthews had a private seal for the cut granted to him, as he says, by king Charles II.

Thirty-six locks, wears, and turnpikes, are upon the river Thames betwixt London and Letchlade, by which navigation London receives the provisions of seven counties, and send its merchants goods to them.

It is humbly supposed, that the same number of locks, or fewer, may make good this navigation betwixt Severn and Trent, and carry the provisions and manufactures of seven counties, or more, to above 70 market-towns and cities.

Ninety-three miles English is the length of the canal begun betwixt the Don and the Wolga, to make a communication betwixt the Caspian and the Euxine Seas.

The Ladoga canal designed for the use of Petersburg 460 English miles long, the fall of the rivers that fall into the Wolga 110 feet, of those that fall into the Neva (upon which another dock is to be made) 445 feet fall. Total 555.

Vid.

Vid. Capt. Perry's Account of Russia.

Four hundred seventy-one thousand one hundred and fifty-four men were employed to cut a canal to draw down the lake of Mexico. Vid. Collection of Travels, Vol. IV. page 531.

R E M A R K S.

Under our article FRANCE, we have shewn what advantages the trade of that nation derives from the great plenty of river-navigation that runs through most parts of their provinces. The convenience of communication, the facility of carriage for the natural productions and manufactures to the sea, are two objects of great importance for a kingdom of so vast an extent as that of France. Its principal rivers, the Seine, the Loire, the Garrone, the Rhone, with the others, that run into them, are an advantage it owes to nature. Its industry has added to it NAVIGABLE CANALS, admirable for the immensity of the work, and for the profits the commerce draws from them. Such is the canal of Languedoc, by means of which Riquet established a commodious communication between Bourdeaux and Marseilles, that is to say, between the ocean and the Mediterranean: such the canals of Orleans and Briare, between the countries watered by the Seine and Loire; not to mention other canals, and projects for rendering rivers navigable, the carrying of which into execution will have respectively their use and advantage.

The Dutch too have an infinite number of rivers and canals, running through the whole seventeen provinces [see the article UNITED PROVINCES], some in every part; and as all these rivers and canals are navigable, so this river-navigation is so considerable, particularly in those provinces, that it is said, above 50,000 men are constantly employed upon them in the dominions of the States-General; who being all used to the water, make good seamen on occasion. By mean of this river-navigation, the Dutch carry on a great and beneficial commerce with Germany and France, and even as high as Switzerland.

In this they may be said to have no rival: the trade up the Maese and the Rhine is, as it were, their own, and through them they trade into all the navigable rivers, which flow into them; by the means of which, the Dutch enjoy a full commerce on both those great streams, and possess the trade of all the countries through which they flow; and by the Danube, which begins to be navigable near the Neckar, they have likewise a trade down that river into Bavaria, and even to Vienna itself.

The Spaniards are endeavouring to improve their river navigation.—The great importance of making the river Ebro navigable, has been recommended to the court of Madrid by an able minister. It is intended, it seems, to make that river more navigable from Navarre, or even higher up, down to the very alfaques of Tortosa, where it runs into the Mediterranean. By this means, the superfluous commodities and fruits of the several countries which this river traverses, may be conveyed at an easier charge, and their traffic on that account facilitated; and many other benefits procured, without any real expence, as the principal difficulties are at present surmounted, inasmuch that flat-bottomed vessels frequently pass from the neighbourhood of Tudela to Tortosa, and even to the sea, laden with gunpowder, bombs, grenades, artillery, and other military stores, manufactured in Navarre, as also any other commodities, that want carriage thither; though the navigation has its difficulties, especially at the water-fall of Flix, where they are at the charge and trouble of landing the goods, and putting them aboard again. But this, and the other inconveniencies, they say, may be easily removed, as we have seen, in Flanders, France, and Holland, much greater surmounted by means of flood-gates, sluices, and other contrivances. If the navigation of this river should be made more easy, the Spaniards may go up and down the river with common vessels, which will not only promote the mutual commerce of the several provinces of Spain, and that which might be carried on abroad, but also serve for the transport of all the materials necessary for the navy; and the above stores of war, together with wheat, barley, and other supplies for the army, and his Majesty's garrisons, to the saving of millions of dollars, which have been expended in that kingdom, by carrying them, as they have done on several occasions, either upon horses or in waggon. And,

By erecting of new ship-yards in the alfaques, they propose to themselves other advantages. For as they will be situated at the mouth of the river Ebro, they happen to lie in the very passage of the masts, planking, and other timber, which being cut down in several parts of the Pyrenees, and conveyed by different roads, and small rivers into the Ebro, they may be brought down to the ports of the Mediterranean and the ocean. And if such quantities of naval stores in general be detained in the alfaques, as shall be worked up in the proposed new ship-yards, there will be saved the expence and risk of transporting them to Calabria, and the four towns, as has been done, making a coasting voyage of above 500 leagues; so that the way will be so much shorter than when they carry them to these parts, subject to the expence and hazard above-

mentioned. By this measure the Spaniards propose to procure many able hands from the neighbouring provinces for their new ship-yards, and thereby have such kinds of works established in several places: they will, by this means, also be enabled to improve and secure the building and fitting out of men of war and merchant-men, while at the same time it will be easier to man the ships upon these coasts, that as soon as they are finished, they might sail to the ports of Andalusia, or other parts, that should be thought proper; since, even for the few that have been lately built in the yards of Calabria and the four towns, it is well known, that after great delays and expence, the Spaniards could procure but a scanty number of hands in those provinces to man them for so short a trip as to Cadiz.—This is a specimen of what the Spaniards are about, in regard to the increase of their river-navigation.—And we might mention more instances of several powers in Europe, who, for the benefit of their trade, are pursuing the like measures. No one need be informed of the unspeakable benefit arising to trade from the river-navigation on the continent of America. The Louisiana, as the French have christened Florida, a vast country watered by the river Mississippi, and by a multitude of other rivers, yield the French at present more than bare promises, as we are likely soon to experience to our cost, unless they shall be effectually checked in their career: nor is the same of less utility and importance in Asia. It cannot be supposed, but that in a country of such an exceeding extent as China, and so very populous, there must be a communication of the product of one province with another, and that this must occasion a very great trade among them; and, indeed, it is so to a wonderful degree, as well by land-carriage as by river-navigation; and especially by their canals, of which the royal canal in China from Canton to Pekin is the wonder of the world.

Their river-navigation is exceeding great; the two rivers of Kiang and Hoang are known to be navigable, the first above 1200 miles, the latter 700 miles. The great lake Phujang is said to be 300 miles in circumference, and has great ships sailing in it. Some exaggerating authors raise these things up to impossibilities, and tell us they have 300,000 ships and barks, and that it is ordinary to see 30,000 vessels on the river at Nanquin at once, besides such as are continually going and coming upon business.

Certain it is, there is a vast inland commerce among them, the product of the respective provinces requiring it: for as the several productions are extremely different, so the distant provinces call for those things in trade which they have not of their own, and which are the product of the provinces most remote. Thus the carrying and recarrying those productions, whether for subsistence or for merchandize, necessarily requires all possible assistance of boats, horses, and men; and this occasions the extraordinary circulation of their trade. For example.

The best and finest silk is found in the province of Chekiam, or Chekaing, lying south of Nanquin, the country being spread over with forests of mulberry-trees. The chief city of this province is Hamcheu, a place full of the people employed in drawing or spinning the silk from the worms, and doubling it again, so as to make it fit for the throwster's mill: also they tell us there are 10,000 throwsters, or twisters of silk, here. To this city there is a navigation by 17 canals or rivers, some reaching to one river, some to another: so that the silk is, or may be, transported by water-carriage to all the great cities and sea-ports in China; some of which otherwise would not be able to carry on the manufacture of silk, without fetching the materials, at great charge, a long way by land.

It is from this city the raw silk is brought above 100 miles, to the sea port of Limpo, from whence the English factory receive it, and bring away great quantities of it to Europe.

From this city it is likewise carried north to Pekin, and south to Canton, places distant and remote, one above 700 miles one way, the other 600 miles another way; in both which cities, as well as in Nanquin (the greatest of them all) the manufactures work it up into the most curious broad silks, and other manufactures, of which this country is so full.

Kiamfi is an inland province, full 300 miles from the sea, at the nearest distance, and almost 500 at the remotest, yet it has the royal canal running through the center of it; in its passage from Canton to Pekin: so that, by this canal, there is a navigation quite through the province, and a communication of inland trade from sea to sea, as it may be called: that is, from Lamton Bay, or Langchang, as the Chinese call it, to the bay of Nanquin, and the sea of Cang below Pekin, which is above 1000 miles.

In the north part of this province also is the great inland sea, or lake, of Phangu, or Fujang, which has 1000 very large ships, or jonks, employed on it, and all the rivers in the province fall into it: they say it is 300 miles in circumference, and empties all its waters into the great river Kouang, or the Blue River.

In this province, lies the great manufacture of china-ware; that is to say, the finest and best is made here.

From hence, after great multitudes of people are employed in the labouring part, the goods are conveyed by water to all parts of the empire, and to all the several ports of Tonquin, Canton,

Canton, Amoy, Nanquin, Pekin, Chusan, Limpo, and from those ports to all the rest of the world.

This trade must of necessity employ not only a great many hands, but a great many vessels, boats, and barks, upon those canals, lakes, rivers, and seas: and it will not be wondered, were we to go over all the provinces in this manner, and view the inland commerce, by which 59 millions of people are said to be fed, clothed, and employed (for so many they tell us the country contains): it will not, I say, be wondered at, that the numbers of ships, barks, and boats, are so many, which are seen upon those rivers and canals.

The next province west of this, and yet farther from the sea, is Huquam. The great river Koiang runs through the heart of this province; and the channel being very broad, and withal exceeding deep, the stream is mild and gentle, and is therefore not only navigable for great ships, but the navigation is very safe and easy.

Here is also another lake, or inland sea, larger than the former, being, as some write, 400 miles in circuit, and in some places 50 to 100 fathoms deep, on which there are very large ships employed. All this is taken notice of, to shew that the inland trade of this country is exceeding great, by the means of river-navigation: for as this river is made use of to supply the two populous cities of Chiccheu and Nanquin, in which are so many millions of people, as well with provisions as with manufactures and merchandizes of several kinds, so the trade must be very great, and the number of vessels employed also very great; and it is certainly so, for they tell us there are above a million of people taken up in the navigation of this one river only, and in the canals made from it to the neighbouring provinces, for the convenience of trade, including the two great lakes.

The product of this province is chiefly corn and rice, cotton and fish; the latter is found in the great lake mentioned above in most incredible quantities, which are carried down the great river to Chiccheu and Nanquin in boats, with wells to keep them alive.

The great quantity of corn and rice carried down to Nanquin, &c. is enough to keep a very great number of vessels constantly employed, and no question it does employ some thousands.

But the navigation does not end here, the Koiang being navigable still further west: for this river, which takes its rise in the mountains of Thibet, in the Great Mogul's country, runs above 500 miles, and is a very large river before it enters the dominions of China: so that it is navigable to the farthest western bounds of the Chinese empire.

It is also very remarkable, how the navigation of this river reaching thus far, is particularly useful, and indeed necessary to trade, because in these western provinces of China, the heavy and bulky goods are chiefly produced, which could not be carried so far as to the sea-side or sea-ports, but by water. For example,

The province of Suchuen, or Suchen, lies west, extended to the eastern boundary of the kingdom of Thibet; and this great river runs through the heart of the province, and is distant there from the sea near 700 miles.

In this province are found mines of several metals and minerals, which being heavy goods require water-carriage, or else could not be removed, except at an immense charge, to so great a distance as Canton or Nanquin, or any of the sea-port towns which lie so far due east from them.

We have run over these provinces to shew the inland navigation of the country, and the prodigious course of trade carried on by that navigation, which is the great occasion their produce and manufactures come so cheap to the European markets. Which ought to be a prevailing argument with Great-Britain, to cultivate river-navigation to what extent they are able, in order to answer the same wise and salutary purposes. See the article ROADS.

R O A D S. The repairs, amendment, and preservation of the roads of this kingdom, is certainly a public good work, well worth the constant attention of the legislature; and, by virtue of acts of parliament, the public hath found great advantage from the improvements of the roads, and by the application of tolls collected at the turnpikes.

The first is, that travelling might be rendered safer, easier, and pleasanter to gentlemen and others, upon their ordinary occasions; that this end is greatly answered, every one's experience will tell him, who can remember the condition of the roads about 30 or 40 years ago.

The second is, the benefit accruing to our trade and commerce, by rendering the carriage less expensive upon all sorts of goods and merchandize: whether they are provisions of any kind, the immediate growth and produce of our lands, or whether any other sorts of wares, which must have conveyance by land.

That this good end hath also been greatly answered, will clearly appear, by comparing the former rates of carriage with what is now paid. Of this we shall produce some few instances to the city of London only, that being the great mart, not only for provisions, but also for the various manufactures carried on in the several parts of the kingdom. Hither they are chiefly brought, and from hence the same car-

rier loads back with such goods, as the several counties have a demand for, whether they be foreign or otherwise. Those who have made it their business to be rightly informed of this matter, have, upon enquiry, found that carriage in general is now 30 per cent. cheaper than before the roads were amended by turnpikes: of which it may be proper to produce some proofs.

1st, From Birmingham to London it is said there are not less than 25 or 30 waggons sent weekly; 7 s. per hundred was formerly paid, the price now paid is from 3 to 4 s. per hundred.

2dly, From Portsmouth to London the common price was 7 s. per hundred, the government paid so in queen Anne's war; and now only 4 to 5 s. per hundred is paid: and, in the late war, arms and warlike stores for his Majesty's service were carried at the rate of 4 or 5 s. per hundred.

3dly, From Exeter to London, and from other towns in the west of like distance, the carriage of wool and other goods is very great, especially in times of war.—12 s. per hundred was formerly paid, now only 8 s. per hundred: the same may be affirmed with respect to Bristol, Gloucester, and the adjacent counties; the land-carriage particularly, in time of war, is very large, and the price of it is proportionably reduced.

4thly, Let us proceed now to another part of the kingdom, of less distance from the metropolis, and see what is the difference between the present rates of carriage, and those which were used to be given: from the woollen manufacturing towns in Essex to London, 2 s. 6 d. was formerly paid for a double bay, but now only 1 s. 6 d.; a single bay paid formerly 1 s. 6 d. is now reduced to 6 d. and 8 d. a pack of wool, weight 200, paid formerly 6 s. now only 4 s.

5thly, Butter from Cambridge to London, the produce of the isle of Ely and county of Norfolk, from whence about 90,000 firkins are brought yearly, was formerly from 18 d. to 2 s. per firkin, and is now but 14 d. More instances might be produced, but these may be sufficient; and from these it may be inferred, that the reduction in the price of carriage is general from all places. To set this matter in a still more striking light, it may not be improper to descend to an exacter scrutiny into this matter. Wherefore to begin in the order wherein we first set out.

From Birmingham to London, viz.

15 Tons of goods formerly sold at 7 s. per hundred cost	l. 105
15 Tons now at 4 s. per hundred cost only	60
Saved 3 l. per ton	45

From Exeter to London.

8 Tons of goods at 12 s. per hundred cost	l. 96
8 Tons now at 8 s. per hundred cost	64
Saved in the carriage of 8 tons	32

From Essex formerly.

800 Double bays at 2 s. 6 d. per bay, cost	l. 100
800 Ditto, now at 1 s. 6 d. per hundred, cost only	60
Saved 40 per cent.	40
300 Packs of wool, formerly at 6 s. each, cost	l. 90
300 Ditto now at 4 s. cost	60
Saved	30

And now let us enquire from whence the saving in land-carriage, so great a benefit to trade, ariseth; no other cause, we conceive, can be reasonably assigned, than that, since the amendment of the roads by turnpikes, our carriers are enabled to draw greater weights, with the same number of horses in one carriage, than they formerly could do. To demonstrate this, we shall bring an example or two: the roads in general were formerly so deep and bad, so full of holes and sloughs, that a team of six horses could scarce draw from any place of 60 miles distance, or upwards, above 30 hundred weight of goods; whereas the same team can now draw with more ease 50 or 60 hundred.

Suppose from Birmingham, or any other place of equal distance,

Formerly 30 hundred at 7 s. per hundred cost	l. 10 10
Now 50 hundred at 4 s. per hundred costs only	10 0

Or, to shew the savings, you may be pleased to compute thus:

50 Hundred formerly at 7 s. per hundred cost	l. 17 10
50 Hundred now at 4 s. per hundred cost	10 0
Saved	7 10

Again, suppose from Exeter, &c.

That formerly six horses could draw 40 hundred of woollen goods, at 12 s. per hundred, is	l. 24
Now 6 horses can draw 60 hundred at 8 s. per hundred	24
From	

From these instances it is extremely evident, that a team with six horses can now draw 20 hundred more than they could do formerly; that the price of carriage is, for this reason, proportionably reduced, and the public, or trade and commerce, have the immediate benefit of it.—In provisions, as wheat, meal, malt, butter, and cheese, &c. the farmer and landed interest generally have the benefit of these savings. In all our manufactured goods, the public have the benefit of them, whether they are used at home or exported. The cheaper the maker can get his wares to market, the cheaper he must and doth sell them: of this every merchant and trader is fully sensible.—It is a known maxim in commerce, that the less it is burthened, or the easier the conveyance both at home and abroad, the more extensive and beneficial it will certainly prove. I have shewn above, the general benefit that the nation reapeth from the improvement of our roads by turnpikes. I shall not proceed to point out whence it is, that the farmers and traders apprehend so great a burthen upon trade, from the late act of limitation; whereby no waggon, &c. shall be drawn with more than five horses, unless up steep hills, after the 1st of July 1752: and the trustees or commissioners of the turnpike roads, in their respective districts, are required, on or before the 25th of March 1752, to erect weighing engines at the toll-gates, or elsewhere, upon their respective roads; and that no waggon, &c. be suffered to pass through with above 60 hundred, the weight of the waggon, &c. included.

We shall not enter into the merits of this act; there has been scarce time to shew with what consequences it may be attended, and therefore we must leave it to experience. If the article of carriage receives as great additional benefit by the last principal acts, as it has done by the establishment of tolls and turnpike roads in general, the public will have no reason to complain.

However, be this as it may, the public will be no way relieved from the great expence attending the constant amendment on the highways; and what traders may save, in respect to the point of carriage, the public pays very amply for, I am afraid, for the repairs of the highways: and that expence falling upon the public in general, instead of traders in particular, is only a seeming alleviation of the burthen; it remains still a prodigious expence to the nation, from which, in as great a measure as is possible, they ought to be disincumbered, and that saving, if it can be effectuated, will answer other public exigencies. All contentions about expedients to save and preserve the roads by changing the manner of carriage, and laying peculiar restraints thereon, do not appear to be striking at the root of the evil; for supposing that the roads by such expedients do wear out or decay one twelfth less than they did before such expedients are carried into execution, yet, if the price of carriage is raised one twelfth more from inconveniencies that the carriers may experience, we do not see any great gain that will thereby accrue to the public in general.

The essential point, we humbly apprehend, to be considered, is, whether there is any probability so to repair and amend the highways in general, that the weight of any carriages that have heretofore contributed to, or may hereafter contribute to, lessen the price of land-carriage in general, will do little injury to the roads in general, and consequently, after such work is gradually completed, will put the nation to very little expence in their constant reparation, in comparison to what now is expended by the public for that purpose. This, we conceive, is the principal matter that deserves to be weighed and considered: and although we do not presume to offer any thing to the public consideration, that will effectually answer these desirable purposes; yet we shall give a summary of what has occurred to us upon this occasion, with a view to spirit up and excite others more capable, to put a matter of this general concern in such a light, as may appear more rational, eligible, and practicable than any thing that we can presume to suggest.

Whether any thing of the nature of that which we shall take the liberty to offer, may ever be practicable, might be tried by a fair experiment of five miles, or even of one single mile only, at the public expence; and if it should be found to answer in one mile, then it might be seriously thought of to be made general, or laid aside. Nay, one hundred yards only, experienced in one of the most public roads, through which the heaviest carriages pass, would, perhaps, be sufficient to give this matter a fair trial. But this is not an experiment that has never been tried, it was long experienced by the ancient Romans; and as we seldom err in the imitation of their wise example, in many important particulars, the imitating them, perhaps, in regard to the management of their highways, so far as it may be experienced to be practicable in this nation, may not be attended with less emolument and glory than in many other things, wherein we are fond, and even value ourselves upon following their great and glorious example.

Nor do I pretend to have any merit in the proposal; it was, I understand, many years since drawn up by a public-spirited gentleman. I shall endeavour only to put the matter in something of a different light, as being more accommodated to

the present times, by adding what may seem requisite, and curtailing what may be superfluous.

The Romans, while they governed this island, made it one of their principal cares to make and repair the highways of the kingdom, and the chief roads we now use, are of their marking out; the consequence of maintaining them was such, or at least so esteemed, that they thought it not below them to employ their legionary troops* in this work; and it was sometimes the business of whole armies; either when in winter-quarters, or in the intervals of truce or peace with the natives.

* We know by experience in Scotland, what the soldiery can do in this respect.

If we lay aside the barbarity and custom of the Romans as heathens, and take them as a civil government, we must allow they were the pattern of the whole world for improvement and increase of arts and learning, civilizing and methodizing nations and countries conquered by their valour; and if this was one of their great cares, that consideration ought to move something with us. But to the great example of that generous people, we will add three arguments.

(1) It is useful. And that as it is convenient for carriages, which in a trading country is a great help to negocié, and promotes universal correspondence, without which our inland trade could not be managed.

(2) It is easy. We question not to make it appear it is easy, to put all the high roads, especially in England, in a noble figure, large, dry, and clean, well drained and free from floods, unpassable sloughs, deep cart-ruts, high ridges, and all the inconveniencies to which they are liable; if not constantly kept in repair in the common way, at a prodigious expence to the public; and when this is once done, much easier still to be maintained so, at a very moderate and trifling public expence, in comparison to the present annual one, raised by toll, and other rates.

(3) It may be cheaper; and the whole assessment for the repairs of highways for ever be dropped, or applied to other uses for the public benefit.

The proposal is as follows:

First, That an act of parliament be made, with liberty for the undertakers, where it is wanted, to dig and trench, to cut down hedges and trees, or whatever is needful for ditching, draining, and carrying off water, cleaning, enlarging, and levelling the roads, with power to lay open or inclose lands; to incroach into lands, dig, raise, and level fences, plant and pull up hedges or trees, for the enlarging, widening, and draining the highways, with power to turn either the roads or water-courses, rivers and brooks, as by the directors of the works shall be found needful, always allowing satisfaction to be first made to the owners of such lands, either by assigning to them equivalent lands, or payments in money, the value to be adjusted by judicious and indifferent persons, to be named by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper, &c. for the time being; and no water-course to be turned from any water-mill, without satisfaction first made both to the landlord and tenant.

But before we proceed, it may be necessary to say a word or two upon this article.

The chief, and almost the only cause of the deepness and foulness of the roads, is occasioned by the standing water, which for want of due care to draw it off by scouring and opening ditches and drains, and other water-courses, and clearing of passages, soaks into the earth, and softens it to such a degree, that it cannot bear the weight of horses and carriages; to prevent which, the power to dig, trench, and cut down, &c. mentioned above, will be of absolute necessity: but because the liberty seems very large, and some may think it is too great a power to be granted to any body of men over their neighbours, it is answered,

(1.) It is absolutely necessary, or the work cannot be effectually done, and the doing of the work is of much greater benefit than the damage can amount to. But,

(2.) Satisfaction is proposed to be made to the owner, and that first too, before the damage be done, as an unquestionable equivalent; and both together, I think, are a full answer to any objection in that case.

Besides this act of parliament, a commission must be granted to fifteen, at least, in the name of the undertakers, to whom every county shall have power to join ten, who ~~are to sit~~ sit with the said fifteen, so often and so long as the said fifteen do sit for affairs relating to that county; which fifteen, or any seven of them, shall be directors of the works, to be advised by the said ten, or any five of them, in matters of right and claim; and the said ten to adjust differences in the counties, and to have right by process to appeal in the name either of lords of manors, or privileges of towns or corporations, who shall be either damaged or encroached upon by the said work: all appeals to be heard and determined immediately by the said lord chancellor, or commission from him, that the work may receive no interruption.

This commission shall give power to the said fifteen to press waggons, carts, and horses, oxen, and men, and detain them to work a certain limited time, and within a certain limited

limited space of miles from their own habitations, and at a certain rate of payment: no men, horses, or carts, to be pressed against their consent, during the times of hay-time, or harvest; or upon market-days, if the person aggrieved will make affidavit he is obliged to be with his horses or carts at the said markets.

It is well known to all who have any knowledge of the condition the highways in England in general would be in, without the constant great expence we are at to repair them, that in most places there is a convenient **DISTANCE OF LAND** * left open for travelling, either for driving of cattle, or marching of troops of horse, with perhaps as few lanes or defiles, as in any counties: the cross roads, which are generally narrow, are yet broad enough in most places for two carriages to pass; but, on the other hand, we have on most of the high roads a great deal of waste land thrown in as it were for an overplus to the highway; which, though it be used of course by cattle and travellers on occasion, is indeed no benefit at all either to the traveller as a road, or to the poor as a common, or to the lord of the manor as a waste; upon it grows neither timber nor grass, in any quantity answerable to the land; but, though to no purpose, is trodden down, poached, and over-run by drifts of cattle in the winter, or spoiled with the dust eternally flying from the roads in the summer. And this may be observed in many parts of England to be as good land as any of the neighbouring inclosures, as capable of improvement, and to as good purpose.

* A great quantity of this land has been unwarrantably incroached on, and inclosed within these 30 or 40 years; and if enquiry was made into the titles, I doubt not but they will be found very deficient.

These lands only being inclosed and manured, leaving the roads to dimensions with measure sufficient, are the fund upon which the proposer would build the stock of money that must carry this design into execution, without any expence to the public whatever.

These lands, which we shall afterwards make an essay to value, being inclosed, will be either saleable to raise money, or fit to exchange with those gentlemen, who must part with some land where the ways are narrow: always reserving a quantity of the lands to be let out to tenants, the rent to be paid into the public stock or bank of the undertakers, and to be reserved for keeping the ways in the same repair; and the said bank to forfeit the lands, if they are not so maintained.

Another branch of the stock must be hands, for a stock of men is a stock of money; to which purpose every county, city, town, and parish, shall be rated at a set price, equivalent to eight years payment for the repair of highways; which each county, &c. shall raise, not by assessment in money, but by pressing of men, horses, and carriages, for the work; the men, horses, &c. to be employed by the directors: in which case all corporal punishments inflicted for misdemeanors, as of whippings, stocks, pillories, houses of corrections, &c. might be easily transmitted to a certain number of days work on the highways; and in consideration of this provision of men, the county should for **EVER AFTER** be acquitted of any contribution, either in money or work, for repair of the highways, building of bridges excepted.

There will, perhaps, lie some popular objection against this undertaking; the first is, the great controverted point in England of the **INCLOSURE OF THE COMMON** †, which tends to depopulation, and injures the poor. 2. Who shall be judges or surveyors of the work, to oblige the undertakers to perform to a certain limited degree.

† If as much of common land had been inclosed, and the profits thereof applied to the repairs of the highways, as has been unjustifiably stolen therefrom, the amount would have greatly, if not effectually, contributed to this good work.

For the first, the inclosure of the common: a clause that runs as far as to an incroachment upon Magna Charta, and a most considerable branch of the property of the poor: I answer it thus:

(1.) The lands proposed to be inclosed, are not such as from which the poor do indeed reap any benefit, or at least any that is considerable.

(2.) The bank and public stock, which are to manage this great undertaking, will have so many little labours to perform, and offices to bestow, that are fit only for labouring poor persons to do, as will put them in a condition to provide for the poor who are so injured, that can work; and to those who cannot, may allow pensions for overseeing, supervising, and the like, which will be more than equivalent.

(3.) For depopulations, the contrary should be secured, by obliging the undertakers, at such and such certain distances, to erect cottages, two at least in a place, which would be useful to the work and safety of the traveller, to which should be an allotment of land, always sufficient to invite the poor inhabitant, in which the poor should be tenant for life gratis, doing duty upon the highway as should be appointed; by which, and many other methods, the poor should be great gainers by the proposal, instead of being injured.

(4.) By this erecting of cottages at proper distances, a man might travel all over England as through a street; which

might contribute, in some measure, to prevent robberies, and prove directors to travellers in their way.

(5.) This undertaking once duly settled, might in a few years be so ordered, that there should be no poor for the common; and if so, what need of a common for the poor? Of which in its proper place.

As to the second objection, Who should oblige the undertakers to the performance?

(1.) It is answered, Their commission and charter should become void, and all their stock forfeited, and the lands inclosed and unfold, remain as a pledge; which would be security sufficient.

(2.) The ten persons chosen out of every county, should have power to inspect and complain, and the lord chancellor upon such complaint to make a survey; and to determine by a jury, in which case, on default, they shall be obliged to proceed.

(3.) The lands settled on the bank shall be liable to be extended for the uses mentioned, if the same at any time be not maintained in the condition at first provided, and the bank to be amerced upon complaint of the county.

These and other conditions, which on a legal settlement to be made by the wisdom of the legislature, might be thought on, that I do believe would form a constitution so firm, so fair, and so equally advantageous to the country, to the poor, and to the public, as has not been put in practice in these latter ages of the world.

By means of a grant of waste, and almost useless lands lying open to the highway, we may presume to say, those lands to be improved, as they might easily be, together with the eight years assessment to be provided in workmen, a noble magnificent **CAUSEWAY** might be erected, with ditches on either side deep enough to receive the water, and drains sufficient to carry it off; which **CAUSEWAY** should be four feet high at least; and from thirty to forty feet broad, paved in the middle, to keep it well cemented and cooped in, and so supplied with gravel, and other proper binding materials, as should secure it from decay, with small occasional reparation.

We hope no man would be so weak now, as to imagine that by lands lying open to the road, to be assigned to the undertakers, we should mean that all Finchley-common, &c. should be inclosed and sold for this work: but lest somebody should start such preposterous objections, we think it is not improper to mention, That wherever a highway is to be carried over a large common, forest, or waste, without a hedge on either hand for certain distance, there the several parishes shall allot the directors a certain quantity of the common to lie parallel with the road, at a proportioned number of feet to the length and breadth of the said road; consideration also to be had to the nature of the ground, or else giving them only room for the road directly, shall suffer them to inclose in any one spot so much of the said common, as shall be equivalent to the like quantity of land contiguous to the road: thus, where the land is good, and the materials for erecting a causeway near, the less land may serve, and on the contrary the more; but in general, allowing them the quantity of land proportioned to the length of the causeway, and forty rod in breadth; though where the land is poor, as on downs and plains, the proportion must be considered to be adjusted by the country.

Another point, in relation to the dimensions of roads, should be adjusted, and the breadth of them, I think, cannot be less than thus:

From London every way 10 miles, the high post-road, to be built full 40 feet in breadth, and four feet high, the ditches eight feet broad, and six feet deep, and from thence onward 30 feet, and so in proportion.

Cross-roads to be 20 feet broad, and ditches proportioned; no lanes and passes less than nine feet without ditches.

The middle of the **HIGH CAUSEWAYS** to be paved with stone, chalk, or gravel, and the best-cemented matter that can be procured the nearest thereunto, and kept always two feet higher than the sides, that the water might have a free course into the ditches, and persons kept in constant employ to fill up holes, let out water, open drains, and the like, as there should be occasion. A proper work for highwaymen, and such malefactors as might, on those services, be exempted from the gallows.

It may here be objected, That eight years assessment to be demanded down, is too much in reason to expect any of the poorer sort can pay; as for instance, if a farmer who keeps a team of horses be, at the common assessment, to work a week, it must not be put so hard upon any man as to work eight weeks together. It is easy to answer this objection.

So many as are wanted must be had; if a farmer's team cannot be spared, without prejudice to him, so long together, he may spare it at sundry times, or agree to be assessed, and pay the assessment at sundry payments; and the bank may make it as easy to them as they please.

Another method, however, might be found to fix this work at once. Suppose a bank be settled for the highways of the county of Middlesex, which as they are, without doubt, the most used of any in the kingdom, so also they require the more charge, and, in some parts, lie in the worst condition

of any in the kingdom, 'till the present great expence for their repair took place.

If the parliament fix the charge of the survey of the highways upon a bank to be appointed for that purpose, for a certain term of years, the bank undertaking to do the work, or to forfeit the said settlement. As thus:

Suppose the tax on land and tenements for the whole county of Middlesex does, or should be so ordered, as it might amount to 20,000 l. per annum, more or less, which it now does, and much more, including the work of the farmers teams, which must be accounted as money, and is equivalent to it, with some allowance to be rated for the city of London, &c. who do enjoy the benefit, and make the most use of the said roads, both for carrying of goods and bringing provisions to the city; and therefore in reason ought to contribute towards the highways; for it is a most unequal thing, if a design of this kind should ever take place, that the road from Highgate to Smithfield-market, by which the whole city, is, in a manner, supplied with live cattle, and the road by those cattle horribly spoiled, should lie all upon that one parish of Islington to repair: wherefore we will suppose a rate for the highways to be gathered through the city of London, of 10,000 l. per annum more, which may be appointed to be paid by carriers, drovers, and all such as keep teams, horses, or coaches, and the like, or many ways, as is most equal and reasonable; the waste lands in the said county, which, by the consent of the parishes, lords of the manors, and proprietors, shall be allowed to the undertakers, when enclosed and let out, may (the land in Middlesex generally letting high) amount to 5000 l. per annum more. If then an act of parliament be procured to settle the tax of 30,000 l. per annum, for eight years, most of which will be levied in workmen, and not in money, and the waste lands for ever: we may presume to affirm, that the highways for the whole county of Middlesex should be put into the following form, and the 5000 l. per annum land be bound to remain as a security to maintain them so, and the county be never after burthened with any further tax for the repair of the highways.

And that we may not propose a matter in random generals, like begging the question, without demonstration, we shall enter into the particulars how it may be executed, and that under these following heads of articles:

- (1.) What is proposed to be done to the highways.
- (2.) What the charge will be.
- (3.) How to be raised.
- (4.) What security for the performance.
- (5.) What profit to the undertakers.

(1.) In regard to what is proposed to be done to the highways. We answer first, to repair them, and yet, secondly, not alter them, that is, not alter the course they at present run. But perfectly build them as a fabric; and, to descend to the particulars, it is first necessary to note which are the roads we mean, and their dimensions.

First, The high post-roads; and they are, for the county of Middlesex, as follows:

	Miles.
From London to Stains, which is	15
Colnbrook is from Hounslow	5
Uxbridge	15
Bushy, the Old-Street way	10
Barnet, or near it	9
Waltham-Cross, in Ware road	10
Bow	2
	<hr/> 66

Besides these, there are cross-roads, by-roads, and lanes, which must also be looked after; and that some of them may be put into condition, others may be wholly slighted and shut up, or made drift-ways, bridle-ways, or foot-ways, as may be judged convenient by the countries.

The cross-roads of most repute are as follow:

From	to	Miles.
London	Hackney, Old Ford, and Bow	5
Hackney	Dalston and Islington	2
Ditto	Hornsey, Mousewell-Hill, to Whetstone	8
Tottenham	The Chace, Southgate, &c. called Green lanes	6
Enfield-Wash	Enfield town, Whetstone, Totteridge to Edgware	10
London	Hampstead, Hendon, and Edgware	8
Edgware	Stanmore, to Pinner, to Uxbridge	8
London	Harrow and Pinner-Green	11
Ditto	Chelsea, Fulham	4
Brentford	Isleworth, Twickenham, and Kingston	6
Kingston	Staines, Colnbrook, and Uxbridge	17
Ditto	Chertsey Bridge	5
		<hr/> 90
	Overplus miles	50
		<hr/> 140

And because there may be many parts of the cross-roads which cannot be accounted in the number above mentioned, or may escape our knowledge or remembrance, we allow an overplus of 50 miles, to be added to the 90 miles above, which together make the cross-roads of Middlesex to be 140 miles.

For the by-lanes, such as may be slighted need nothing but to be ditched up; such as are for private use of lands for carrying corn and driving cattle, are to be looked after by private hands.

But of the last sort, not to be accounted by particulars, in the small county of Middlesex, we cannot allow less in cross by-lanes, from village to village, and from dwelling-houses which stand out of the way to the roads, than 1000 miles. So in the whole county we reckon up,

	Miles.
Of the high post-roads	67
Of cross-roads less public	140
Of by-lanes and passes	1000
	<hr/> 1207

These are the roads we mean, and thus divided under their several denominations.

To the question, What we would do to them? it is answered, (1.) For the 67 miles of high post-road, it is proposed to throw up a FIRM STRONG CAUSEWAY, well bottomed, well cemented, and well built, six feet high in the middle, and four feet on the sides; faced with brick or stone, and crowned with gravel, chalk, or stone, as the several countries they are made through will afford, being 44 feet in breadth, with ditches on either side eight feet broad, and four feet deep; so that the whole breadth will be 60 feet, if the ground will permit.

At the end of every two miles, or such like convenient distances, shall be a cottage erected, with half an acre of ground allowed, which shall be given gratis, with 1s. per week wages to such poor man of the parish as shall be approved, who shall once, at least, every day, view his walk, to open passages for the water to run into the ditches, to fill up holes or soft places.

Two riders shall be allowed to be always moving the rounds, to view every thing out of repair, and make report to the directors, and to see that the said cottagers do their duty.

(2.) For the 140 miles of cross-road, a like CAUSEWAY to be made, but of different dimensions, the breadth 20 feet, the ditches four feet broad, three feet deep, the height in the middle three feet, and on the sides one foot or two, where it may be needful, to be also crowned with gravel, and well cemented and built, as before; and 1 s. per week to be allowed to the poor of every parish; the constables to be bound to find a man to walk on the highway in every division, for the same purpose as the cottagers do on the greater roads.

Posts to be set up at every turning, to note whither it goes, for the direction of strangers, and how many miles distant.

(3.) For 1000 miles by-lanes, only good and sufficient care to keep them in repair as they are, and to carry the water off, by clearing and cutting the ditches, and laying materials where it is wanted.

This is what is proposed to be done to the roads; and what, if once performed, we suppose all people would own to be an undertaking both useful and honourable to the kingdom.

(2.) The second question proposed to be answered is, What the charge of all this will be?

Which is reckoned thus:

The work of the GREAT CAUSEWAY is proposed not to cost less than 10s. per foot, supposing materials to be bought, carriage and mens labour to be all hired; which, for 67 miles in length, is no less than the sum of 176,880 l. as thus:

Every mile, accounted at 1,760 yards, and three feet to the yard, is 5,280 feet, which, at 10s. per foot, is 2640 l. per mile, and that again multiplied by 67, makes the sum of 176,880 l. wherein is included the charge of water-courses, mills to throw off water where needful, drains, &c.

To this charge must be added ditching to inclose land for 30 cottages, and building 30 cottages, at 40 l. each, which is 1,200 l.

The work of the smaller causeway is proposed to be finished at the rate of 12 d. per foot, which being for 140 miles in length, at 5,280 feet per mile, amounts to 36,960 l.

Ditching, draining, and repairing 1000 miles, supposed at 3s. per rod, for 320,000 rods, is 48,000 l. which added to the two former accounts, stand thus:

	l.
The high post roads, or great causeway	178,080
The small causeway	36,960
By-lanes, &c.	48,000
	<hr/> 1. 263,040

If I were to propose some measures, continues the proposer, for the easing this charge, I could, perhaps, lay down a scheme how it may be performed for less than one half of this charge.

As first, By a grant of the court at the Old Baily, whereby all such criminals as are condemned to die for smaller crimes, may, instead of transportation, be ordered a year's work on the highways; others, instead of whipping, a proportioned time,

time, and the like; which would, by a moderate computation, provide us generally a supply of 200 workmen, and those coming in as fast as they go off; and the overseers should make them work.

Secondly, By an agreement with the African company, to furnish 200 negroes, who are generally persons that do a great deal of work; and all these are furnished very reasonably out of a public storehouse.

Thirdly, Large carts and horses to be bought, not hired, with a few able carters; and to the other a few workmen that have judgment to direct the rest: and thus, perhaps, the great causeway might be done for 4s. or 5s. per foot charge; but of this by the by.

Fourthly, A liberty to ask charities and benevolence for the execution of this work.

(3.) To the question, How this money shall be raised? I think if the parliament settle the tax on the county for eight years, at 30,000 l. per annum, no man need ask how it shall be raised; it will be easy enough to raise the money; and no parish can grudge to pay a little larger rate for such a term, on condition never to be taxed for the highways any more. Eight years assessment, at 30,000 l. per annum, is enough to afford to borrow the money by way of anticipation, if need be, the fund being secured by parliament, and appropriated to that use and no other.

As to what security for performances.

The lands which are inclosed may be appropriated, by the same act of parliament, to the bank and undertakers, upon condition of performance, and to be forfeited to the use of the several parishes to which they belong, in case, upon presentation by the grand juries, and reasonable time given, any part of the roads in such and such parishes be not kept and maintained in that posture they are proposed to be. Now the lands thus settled are an eternal security to the country, for the keeping the roads in repair, because they will always be of so much value over the needful charge, as will make it worth while to the undertakers to preserve their title to them; and the tenure of them being so precarious as to be liable to forfeiture on default, they will always be careful to uphold the causeways.

Lastly, What profit to the undertakers? for we must allow them to gain, and that considerably, or none would undertake such a work.

To this it is proposed, first,

During the execution of this work, let them be allowed out of the stock 3000 l. per annum, for management.

Also, after the work is finished, so much of the 5000 l. per annum as can be saved, and the roads kept in good repair, let be their own; and if the lands secured be not of the value of 5000 l. a year, let so much of the eight years tax be set apart as may purchase land to make them up; if they came to more, let the benefit be to the adventurers.

It may be objected here, That a tax of 30,000 l. for eight years will come in as fast as it well can be laid out, and so no anticipations will be requisite; for the whole work proposed cannot probably be finished in less time; and if so,

	1.
The charge of the county amounts to	- 240,000
The lands saved eight years revenue	- 40,000
	<hr/> 1. 280,000

Which is 13,000 l. more than the charge; and if the work be done so much cheaper, as is mentioned, the profit to the undertakers will be unreasonable.

To this I say, I would have the undertakers bound to accept the salary of 3000 l. per annum for management; and, if a whole year's tax can be spared, either leave it unraised upon the county, or put it in bank, to be improved against any occasion of building, perhaps, a bridge; or some very wet season, or frost, may so damnify the works, as to make them require more than ordinary repair. But the undertakers should make no private advantage of such an overplus; there might be ways enough found for it.

Another objection lies against the possibility of enclosing the lands upon the waste, which generally belongs to some manor, whose different tenures may be so cross, and so otherwise encumbered, that even the lords of those manors, though they were willing, could not convey them.

This may be answered, in general, That an act of parliament is omnipotent with respect to titles and tenures of land, and can empower lords and tenants to consent to what else they could not. As to particulars, they cannot be answered, 'till they are proposed; but there is no doubt but an act of parliament may adjust it all in one head.

What a kingdom would England be, if this design were effectually executed in all the counties of it! And yet I believe it is possible, even in the worst. I have narrowly observed, says the proposer, all the considerable ways in that impassable county of Suffex, which, especially in some parts of the Wild, as they very properly call it, of the county, hardly admits the country people to travel to markets in winter, and makes corn dear at market, because it cannot be brought, and cheap at the farmer's house, because he cannot sometimes carry it to

market; yet even in that county would I undertake, says he, to carry on this design, and that to great advantage, if backed with the authority of an act of parliament.

I have seen, in that horrible country, the road 60 to 100 yards broad, lie from side to side all poached with cattle, the land of no manner of benefit, and yet no going with a horse, but at every step up to the shoulders, full of sloughs and holes, and covered with standing water. It costs them incredible sums of money to repair them, and the very places that are mended would fright a young traveller to go over them. The Romans mastered this work, and, by a firm causeway, made a highway quite through this deep country, through Dorking in Surrey, to Stansted, and thence to Okeley, and so on to Arundel; its name tells us what it was made of, for it was called Stone Street, and many visible parts of it remain to this day.

Now should any lord of a manor refuse to allow 40 yards in breadth out of that road I mentioned, to have the other 20 made into a fair, firm, and pleasant causeway over that wilderness of a country?

Or would not any man acknowledge, that putting this country into a condition for carriages and travellers to pass would be a great work? The gentlemen would find the benefit of it in the rent of their land, and price of their timber; the country people would find the difference in the sale of their goods, which now they cannot carry beyond the first market town, and hardly thither, and the whole county would reap an advantage an hundred to one greater than the charge of it. And since the want we feel of any convenience is generally the first motive to contrivance for a remedy, I wonder no man ever thought of some expedient for so considerable a defect.—Thus far Mr Projector.

R E M A R K S.

Ancient Rome* was the center of a great number of magnificent highways, which run through all Italy: several of them crossed the Alps, the country of the Gauls, the Pyrenees, and the whole kingdom of Spain. One of them reached from Rome to Lyons, from Lyons to Rheims, and from Rheims to the Channel; it was carried on again in Great-Britain, and continued as far as Scotland. That which extended as far as Byzantium [Constantinople] was continued on the other side of the Hellespont, from Chalcedonia through Asia Minor, Syria, and Palestine, then winding through the Isthmus of Suez, which joins Asia and Africa, passed through Egypt, as far as Syene, and thence into Ethiopia. There were others that ran along the coasts of Africa, from one end of it to the other; and hence possibly the Romans borrowed the model of their paved ways.

* See the History of the Highways of the Roman Empire, by Nicholas Bergier, counsellor at the court of Rheims; a very curious and learned work, and too little read.

If we compare the remains of the Roman roads with the best of our modern ones at present, we shall find many of the former that have stood firm and intire for above 1500 years, without any repairs, while ours want reparation two or three times, and oftener, a year.

If the Roman highways, through any neglect to mend them in time, are decayed and broken down in some places, at this time of day, yet there are several countries where they still remain whole and intire. The Appian Way, which was first carried from Rome to Capua, and afterwards continued from Capua to Brundisium, is still in good condition, though it has been a high road above 1900 years; and we have some ways in several parts of France, which have subsisted upwards of 15 or 1600 years. Now it is to their particular structure that we are to ascribe their long duration; which structure was as follows:

They first of all laid open with a plough two parallel furrows; then the soldiers (for they were generally employed in the works of this kind in time of peace) carried away the light loose earth that they found betwixt the furrows, and dug 'till they came to a hard firm bottom: they then filled up the fosse, or bed which they had hollowed, with a more dense and weighty matter; as for instance, with a sort of hard sand, or gravel, taken out of the rivers, or dug out of the quarries: this done, they rammed the whole hard down, and smoothed it with heavy rollers; nor did they always end their work here, but oftentimes (to facilitate the draining off the water, and to prevent any mud or dirt from soaking in, which would infallibly undermine and loosen the whole) raised a terras, or causeway, several feet above the level of the plain, consisting of four layers, or stories, of strong masonry.

On the foundation of earth, which, as said before, was firmly compacted and levelled, they spread a covering of cement, made of lime and sand, or hassock, about an inch thick. The first layer, which they placed upon the cement, was of large flat stones, laid one upon another, ten inches high, and cemented together with well-tempered mortar: the largest stones of all were ranged along the sides of the causeway: this layer was called statumen.

The second layer consisted of stones of a cubical, round, or oval figure, and of many rough irregular stones, sometimes mixed

mixed with potsherds and pieces of broken tiles and bricks; all these were spread with a shovel over the first coat of stones, and rammed down into the mortar, which cemented them together: this second layer was about eight inches thick: this layer was called rudas.

The third layer consisted of a foot of mortar, not made of beaten tile, for that would have been too expensive, but of chalk, sand, or hassock, mixed with lime, as any of these materials were near at hand. This layer, which was sometimes called the pudding, or pap, though more commonly the nucleus, or kernel, filled up all the cavities or interstices in the inferior layers, and settled into a hard level coat. The great difficulty we find in breaking it now, sufficiently proves how firm a support this was to the upper covering, especially when we consider the extreme hardness of the inferior strata, with which it is so firmly incorporated, as to form one compact impenetrable body, capable of sustaining the greatest weight imaginable: this layer was called nucleus.

The fourth and last layer, which they called the crust, sometimes consisted of great hard stones, cemented together, as we find in the Appian Way; sometimes of gravel, or small flints mixed with gravel, as we find in most of the Roman military ways*.

* Misson's Travels into Italy.

The hardest stones of all the free-stone, and the largest sort of flints, they reserved for their towns. This layer was called summa crusta.

The small stones, flints, and gravel, were often brought hither from other parts, the country people || being ordered to gather them in their vineyards, their heaths, and plowed lands, on the banks of rivers, and the sea-shores, and to bring and lay them by the highway-side, where the soldiers † had occasion to use them in their work. Of these materials the Romans made a covering six inches thick, upon the third layer, and secured it on the sides with two borders of earth, which they consolidated with heavy stones, which they laid sloping, for the water to run off the causeway on the plain beneath, to prevent its soaking into, and thereby loosening the gravel. By means of this precaution, the traveller and carrier, in all seasons, enjoyed the benefit of a dry hard road. It sometimes happened that the flint pavement was loosened, by the falling down of the banks and borders which should support the road on the sides; but the internal layers being so closely bound and cemented, they did not suffer much by it, and the damage was easily repaired.

|| There would be no great hardship upon the country people who come for ten miles round to the London markets, and to all other markets throughout the kingdom, and go home with their carts empty, if they were obliged, by act of parliament, to carry a load of proper road materials gratis, to contribute to put the roads into this desirable condition.

† Our own soldiers, in times of peace, might also greatly contribute towards forwarding this good work, provided, during the time of their working at the roads, they had an addition of six-pence or eight-pence a day made to their pay, out of the stock appropriated to carry this design into execution. We have experienced the benefit of their labour in this shape, in the Highlands of Scotland; besides, by labour of this kind, they will be preserved more healthy, stout, and vigorous, kept from the vices and debaucheries which the idle profession of a soldier, in times of peace, is too apt to lead them into, and be better fitted to act in their military capacity, when public affairs required them; they will also be less odious, and esteemed less burthensome to the people in times of peace, when they experience they receive so great a benefit from their labour at so small an expence. And what barges are obliged to return empty from London, or any other considerable market-towns to which, by water-carriage, they may bring any commodity, should also be compelled, by the said act of parliament, to carry back gratis a load, or such a quantity as shall make up their load, of the best road materials that are to be met with the nearest to their river navigation; but they shall not be obliged to land them any where beyond, or out of the course of their necessary navigation; nor shall they land them but at the most convenient place nearest to the river-side where the road corporation shall order them: but neither the bargemen nor the land-market people shall be obliged to load or unload the said road materials, without some reasonable gratuity made them by the corporation. Likewise all coasting vessels, which now return empty into the country, shall be obliged to take a certain quantity of such road materials, when and where it may prove of benefit to the corporation, and no injury whatever to the employment of such vessels: nor shall the vessels be ever at any trouble in the lading or unlading such materials, without a reasonable gratuity from the said corporation. But lest any thing of this kind, though only of a temporary nature, should look too much with the aspect of arbitrary power, and be taken for a hardship, the road corporation might allow them the half price of their ordinary freight; and something of the like kind might be done in regard to the land carriage; which they may chuse to accept, rather than go empty.

Every one will readily apprehend the lasting strength and support that the roads must receive from the side walls and abut-

VOL. II.

ments, raised to a due height, with proper drains to carry off the water, towards the sloping extremity of such side walls and abutments; for if they are made competently strong, they will so cement the road materials, as to render them as hard as a rock, and quite impenetrable; at least so durable and permanent, that, after the roads are effectually completed, they will require very little constant annual expence to keep them in repairs; and which expence, after the first, must be borne intirely by the road corporation, and the public, if I understand the projector rightly, to be for ever after free from all future tax or incumbrance whatsoever, all turnpikes be laid aside, and no toll or highway tax be ever more heard of in this kingdom.

ROMAGNA, or ROMANIA, a province in Italy, in the Pope's dominions, bounded on the east by the Marcha d'Ancona, along the river Foglia; on the south by the Apennine Hills, which part it from Tuscany; on the west by Lombardy, along the Panero; and on the north by the fens of Verona and the Po, and by part of the Venetian gulph.

This whole country is naturally very rich and delightful, and the plains and vallies productive of corn, wine, oil, fruits, and pastures for cattle. There are some large woods, which abound with all kind of game; and those parts which are contiguous to the Adriatic Sea furnish the country with a sufficiency of salt, both for itself and all the neighbouring inland territories. The sea, as well as their many rivers, supply it with plenty and variety of fish; and some of these being navigable, help to carry on an advantageous commerce. The people here are strong and laborious, and equally fit for arms, traffic, or learning; and the mountains yield mines of several metals, and the country hath various hot mineral springs, of excellent virtue for the preservation of health.

RAVENNA city hath the Adriatic on the east; the air is very healthy, and the vines in its neighbourhood furnish it with plenty of delicious wines; but as they have no fresh water but that of rain, the town often labours under a great scarcity of it.

CERVIA, situate in an unhealthy air, near the coast of the Adriatic gulph, 12 miles south-east from Ravenna, and 15 from Rimini. The air is so bad, and the place so thinly inhabited, that it doth not contain above 400 inhabitants: it has some salt-works, which bring in a considerable profit.

RIMINI is pleasantly situated, on a spacious plain on the coast of the Adriatic gulph, at the mouth of the river Mareckhia; it being seated between a fertile plain on one side, and hilly grounds on the other, covered with gardens, vines, olives, and fruit-trees.

FORLI, a city, situate 15 miles south-west of Ravenna; its territory is extremely rich and fertile, and produces not only plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, beans, and other pulse, but likewise great quantities of cummin, annise, and cardamum seeds; of fenugreek and saffron, both wild and cultivated; besides salt and mineral waters, marble, mill-stones, sulphur, &c. It is 46 miles round, and has four considerable dependencies on it. Here is an academy of wits, which has produced many learned men and works, in various arts and sciences.

FAENZA, an ancient city, famed, in regard to its trade, for a fine earthen ware, called by its name, and not inferior to the Dutch Delft, and for its fine linen manufacture.

ROMANIA, RUMELIA, or RUMELI, in Turkey, formerly a part of Thrace, a province of European Turkey, is bounded by Mount Argentum, or Rhodope, anciently called Hæmus, which separates it from Bulgaria, on the north; by the Euxine Sea and Bosphorus, or straight of Constantinople, on the east; by the Propontis, or sea of Marmora, and the Archipelago, on the south; and by another branch of Mount Rhodope, which separates it from Macedon, on the west; being near 300 miles long, and 130 broad. It is a fruitful country, abounding in good arable and pasture ground, but produces scarce any wine; and the mountains which divide it from Bulgaria and Macedon are exceeding cold and barren; but then they are of such difficult access, that no country is better defended naturally than this, being encompassed by the sea on the south-east, as it is by these mountains on the north-west: so that should the Turks be driven out of Servia and Bulgaria by the Christians, it would be difficult to penetrate further into the Turkish-empire.

In the mountains beforementioned are mines of silver, lead, and allum; but, through the laziness of the Turks, the riches that might be gathered from thence are lost. Its chief river is the Mariza, which rises at the foot of Mount Rhodope, and falls into the Archipelago at Eno, against the isle of Samdrachi. In this river it is said that gold sand is sometimes found, supposed to be washed down from the mountains.

The chief cities and towns are these, viz.

CONSTANTINOPLE, the capital of the whole Turkish empire, is seated at the most eastern point of Romania, on a neck of land, which projects towards Natolia, from which it is separated by a canal, or straight, about a mile broad; the sea of Marmora washes its walls on the south side, and a gulph of the canal of Constantinople waters it on the north.

This city with its suburbs, according to Tournefort, is the largest in Europe. Its situation, by general consent, is the

most agreeable, and the most advantageous of any in the whole world. It seems as if the canal of the Dardanelles, and that of the Black Sea, were designed on purpose to bring it the riches of the four quarters of the world: those of the Mogul, the Indies, the remotest north, China, and Japan, come by the way of the Black Sea; and by the canal of the White Sea, or sea of Marmora, come the merchandizes of Arabia, Egypt, Ethiopia, the coast of Africa, the West-Indies, and whatever Europe produces. These two canals are as the door of Constantinople; the north and south, which are the ordinary winds there, are, as it were, the two folds of the door: when the north wind blows, the door is shut, that is, nothing can come in from the southern coast; this door opens when the south wind prevails.

The port of Constantinople is commodious and magnificent; it is a basin seven or eight miles in circuit towards the city, and as much on the suburbs side. Its entrance, which is about 600 paces broad, begins at the point of the Seraglio, or Cape of St Demetrius situated in the south; this point opens to the east, and faces Scutari; Galata and Gassum-Pacha are to the north; lastly, it terminates to the north-north-west, where the river Lycus empties itself. This river is made up of two streams; the biggest, on which there is a paper-mill, comes from the west, and the other flows from the north-west. The Lycus is not every where navigable; and, therefore, there are stakes to point out the surest places. The stream that comes from the north-west is not practicable for boats farther than the village of Hali-bei-cui; the other is deep enough for about four miles. These streams are of wonderful use to cleanse the haven; for, descending from the north-west, they wash all the coast of Passim-Pacha and Galata, while part of the waters of the canal of the Black Sea, which descend from the north like a torrent, dash violently against the Cape of Bosphorus, and recoil to the right towards the west: by which motion they sweep away the mud that might gather about Constantinople, and, by a piece of natural mechanism, drive it on by degrees as far as the fresh waters. These fresh waters help to preserve the shipping; for experience shews, that they are less subject to be worm-eaten in such ports where there is fresh water, than where there is salt: some fish too take greater delight in such water, and are better tasted.

The port of Constantinople abounds with tunny-fish; dolphins also sometimes appear in this port, in such numbers that it swarms with them: their teeth are made like a saw. Procopius, in commendation of the port of Constantinople, says it is a thorough port, that is, you may anchor in any part of it; and it is justly observed by him, that the ships there have their prow on land, while the poop is in the water. In shallower places you go over a plank into the biggest ships; so that there is no occasion for a boat to load or unload them. If the Turks would bend their thoughts to navigation, they might make themselves formidable that way, for they have the best harbours of any in the Mediterranean; they would be masters of all the trade to the East, by favour of their ports in the Red Sea, which would open them a door in the East-Indies, China, Japan, places which the Christians cannot reach without doubling the Cape of Good Hope; but the Turks hug themselves at home, pleased to see all the nations in the world come to them. Nothing but the east wind can disturb the port of Constantinople, it being intirely exposed to it; whenever it blows hard from that quarter, especially if it be in the night, it occasions a frightful hurley-burley, for the seamen make such a bawling, and dogs such a barking, that one would think the town was going to be swallowed up, if one were not apprized of the cause of it.

The bazars, or bezestins, are places like our changes, for selling fine wares of all sorts. The old and new bazars stand pretty near each other; there are large square buildings, covered with domes, supported by arches and pilasters. In the old one there is but little fine merchandize! it was built in 1461. Here they sell all sorts of weapons, especially sabres, and likewise horse-harnesses, some of which are enriched with gold, silver, and precious stones. The new bazar is replenished with all manner of merchandizes; and though there be none but goldsmiths-shops, yet they sell furs, vests, carpets, stuffs of gold and silver, silk, goats-hair, &c. nor is it without jewels and China wares. They were repairing it when Mr Tournefort was at Constantinople, in the year 1700; and he tells us that it would be much more lightsome than it was before, and there would be apartments for officers to have the guard of it, and go their rounds night and day. The goods are well secured in these places, the gates being shut betimes. The Turks retire to their own homes in the city, but the Christian and Jewish merchants cross the water, and return the next morning. See the article BAZAR.

The market for slaves of both sexes is not far off. Here the poor wretches sit in a melancholy posture: before the buyers cheapen them, they turn them about from this side to that, survey them from top to bottom, put them to exercise whatever they have learned, and this several times a day, before ever they come to an agreement. Such of them, both men and women, to whom nature has been niggardly of her charms, are set apart for the vilest services; but such girls as have youth and beauty pass their time well enough, only they are

often forced to turn Mahometans. The retailers of this human ware are the Jews, who take great care of the slave education, that they may sell the better. Their choicest they keep at home, and thither you must go if you would have better than ordinary; for it is here as it is with markets for horses, the handsomest do not always appear, but are kept within doors. These Jews teach their beautiful slave-slaves to dance, sing, play on instruments, and every thing else that may inspire love. Sometimes they marry very advantageously and feel nothing of slavery; they have the same liberty in their houses as the Turkish women themselves. One sees incessantly coming from Hungary, Greece, Candia, Russia, Menagria, and Georgia, swarms of young wenches, designed for the service of the Turks. The sultans, the bassas, and the greatest lords, often chuse their wives among them. The women whom fortune allots to the seraglio, are not always the best disposed of: it is true, a poor shepherd's daughter may come to be a sultana; but then, what numbers of them are neglected by the sultan! After the Grand Signior's death they are shut up for the rest of their days in the Old Seraglio, where they pine themselves away, unless some bassas court them. This Old Seraglio was built by Mahomet II. Here are confined these poor wretches, to bewail at leisure the death of a prince, or that of their children, whom the new sultan often causes to be strangled. It would be a crime to shed a tear in the seraglio where the emperor resides: on the contrary, every body strives to express their joy for his accession to the throne. This Old Seraglio, called by the Turks Esqui Serai, is inclosed with a wall 24 spans high, for two miles in compass, within which are lodgings and gardens for those ladies diversion. There is no going into it, the gate being guarded by janizaries and capigi's.

Instead of inns at Constantinople, and indeed all over Turkey, they have public buildings, called caravanferas, or kans, erected in convenient parts of the city, for the markets, and traffic of different commodities. These are for all men, of what quality, condition, country, or religion soever they be. See the article CARAVANSERA.

ADRIANOPLE is about 110 miles from Constantinople, towards the north-west; 85 from the confines of Bulgaria, to the south; and 175 from the straits of the Dardanelles, to the north. It is inhabited by Greeks, Jews, Armenians, Turks, and Walachians, and other nations. There is in this city a beautiful exchange, half a mile long, called Ali-Bassa, taking its name from its founder. It is a vast arched building, with six gates, and contains 365 noble shops, including those that are under the arch of the great gate; they are furnished with all sorts of rich goods, and kept by Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, who pay five piastres, or crowns, a month for each of them, to the founder's heirs, or to such as have purchased them, and half a piastre to the mosque of Vecerfeli, granted by the Grand Signior, to whom it belonged. Near this exchange is a street called Seraci, full of good shops, with all sorts of commodities, which affords a delightful sight for a mile in length.

NICOPOLI, situate on the left bank of the river Nessos, near the confines of Macedonia, is a place of pretty good trade.

GALLIPOLI, in Turkish JEBBOLE, is a place of great trade, by reason of its convenient situation, being in the way to Constantinople and Adrianople; insomuch that the bassas who governs it makes about 1000 crowns a year of it, besides the profits of the cadi, aga, and other officers.

The famous canal which separates the two fairest quarters of the earth, Europe and Asia, is called the Hellespont, the Strait of Gallipoli, the canal of the Dardanelles, the Arm of St George, or the Mouth of Constantinople. This canal is in a fine country, bounded on each side with fruitful hills, on which you see sometimes vineyards, sometimes olive-plantations, and a deal of arable land. As you go in, you have Thrace and Cape Greek on the left-hand; Phrygia and Cape Janizary on the right; the Propontis, or sea of Marmora, presents itself on the north, and the Archipelago remains behind on the south. The mouth of the canal is four miles and a half over, and is defended by the new castles built in 1659, to secure the Turkish fleets against the insults of the Venetians, who used to attack them in the sight of the old castles. The waters that pass through this canal, out of the Propontis, are as rapid as if they flowed beneath a bridge, and, when the north wind blows, no ship can enter; but, when it is south, you hardly perceive any current at all; you must only beware of the castles, and yet the passage might be forced without much danger, the castles being above four miles asunder: the Turkish artillery, however monstrous it appears, would not much annoy the ships, if they had a good wind, and went in a file. Such merchant ships as come from Constantinople, stop three days at the castle on the Asiatic shore, to search whether they have any of the Turks slaves on board: and yet there passes not a day but some or other of these poor creatures make a shift to escape. No ship of war, of whatever nation, is exempted from being thus visited, without an express order from the Porte: it is true, it is rather a ceremony than a search. See LEVANT TRADE, ORIENTAL TRADE, and TURKEY TRADE.

ROYAL EXCHANGE, a commodious and elegant building in the city of London, for the convenient public meeting, at stated hours, of the merchants, eminent tradesmen, brokers, agents, and all who have commercial business to transact, by either buying or selling commodities, making contracts, or drawing or remitting monies, either within the three kingdoms, or on or to foreign countries, by the means of bills of exchange.

An idea of the ROYAL EXCHANGE of LONDON, as given by Mr Addison, afterwards secretary of state to his Majesty George I.

‘ There is no place in the town, says he, which I so much love to frequent as the Royal Exchange. It gives me a secret satisfaction, and in some measure gratifies my vanity, as I am an Englishman, to see so rich an assembly of my countrymen and foreigners consulting together, upon the private business of mankind, and making this metropolis a kind of emporium for the whole earth. I must confess, I look upon high change to be a great council, in which all considerable nations have their representative. Factors in the trading world are what ambassadors are in the politic world: they negotiate affairs, conclude treaties, and maintain a good correspondence between those wealthy societies of men that are divided from one another by seas and oceans, or live on the different extremities of a continent. I have often been pleased to hear disputes adjusted between an inhabitant of Japan and an alderman of London, or to see a subject of the Great Mogul entering into a league with one of the Czar of Muscovy. I am infinitely delighted in mixing with these several ministers of commerce, as they are distinguished by their different walks and different leagues. Sometimes I am jostled among a body of Armenians; sometimes I am lost in a crowd of Jews; and sometimes make one in a group of Dutchmen: I am a Dane, Swede, or Frenchman, at different times; or rather fancy myself like the old philosopher, who, upon being asked what countryman he was, replied, That he was a citizen of the world.

Though I very frequently visit this busy multitude of people, I am known to nobody there but my friend Sir Andrew, who often smiles upon me as he sees me bustling in the crowd, but, at the same time, connives at my presence, without taking any further notice of me. There is, indeed, a merchant of Egypt who just knows me by sight, having formerly remitted me some money to grand Cairo; but as I am not versed in the modern Coptic, our conferences go no further than a bow and a grimace.

This grand scene of business gives me an infinite variety of solid and substantial entertainment. As I am a great lover of mankind, my heart naturally overflows with pleasure, at the sight of a prosperous and happy multitude; inasmuch that, at many public solemnities, I cannot forbear expressing my joy with tears, that have stolen down my cheeks. For this reason, I am wonderfully delighted to see such a body of men thriving in their own private fortunes, and, at the same time, promoting the public stock; or, in other words, raising estates for their own families, by bringing into their country whatever is wanting, and carrying out of it whatever is superfluous.

Nature seems to have taken a particular care to disseminate her blessings among the different regions of the world, with an eye to this mutual intercourse and traffic among mankind, that the natives of the several parts of the globe might have a kind of dependance upon one another, and be united together by their common interest. Almost every degree produces something peculiar to it. The food often grows in one country and the sauce in another. The fruits of Portugal are corrected by the product of Barbadoes; the infusion of a China plant sweetened with the pith of an Indian cane; the Philippic Islands give a flavour to our European bowls. The single dress of a woman of quality is often the product of an hundred climates: the muff and the fan come together from the different ends of the earth; the scarf is sent from the torrid zone, and the tippet from beneath the pole; the brocade petticoat rises out of the mines of Peru, and the diamond necklace out of the bowels of Indostan.

If we consider our own country in its natural prospect, without any of the benefits and advantages of commerce, what a barren uncomfortable spot of earth falls to our share? Natural historians tell us, that no fruit grows originally among us besides hips and haws, acorns and pignuts, with other delicacies of the like nature; that our climate of itself, and without the assistance of art, can make no farther advances towards a plum than to a sloe, and carries an apple to no greater perfection than a crab; that our melons, our peaches, our figs, our apricots and cherries, are strangers among us, imported in different ages, and naturalized in our English gardens; and that they would all degenerate and fall away into the trash of our own country, if they were wholly neglected by the planter, and left to the mercy of the sun and soil. Nor has traffic more enriched our vegetable world, than it has improved the whole face of nature among us. Our ships are laden with the harvest of every climate; our tables are stored with spices,

and oils and wines; our rooms are filled with pyramids of China, and adorned with the workmanship of Japan: our morning's draught comes to us from the remotest corners of the earth; we repair our bodies by the drugs of America, and repose ourselves under Indian canopies. My friend Sir Andrew calls the vineyards of France our gardens, the Spice Islands our hot-beds, the Persians our silk-weavers, and the Chinese our potters. Nature, indeed, furnishes us with the bare necessities of life, but traffic gives us a great variety of what is useful, and, at the same time, supplies us with every thing that is convenient and ornamental. Nor is it the least part of this our happiness, that, whilst we enjoy the remotest products of the north and south, we are free from those extremities of weather which give them birth; that our eyes are refreshed with the green fields of Britain, at the same time that our palates are feasted with fruits that rise between the tropics.

For these reasons, there are not more useful members in the commonwealth than merchants. They knit mankind together in a mutual intercourse of good offices, distribute the gifts of nature, find work for the poor, add wealth to the rich, and magnificence to the great. Our English merchant converts the tin of his own country into gold, and exchanges his wool for rubies. The Mahometans are clothed in our British manufacture, and the inhabitants of the frozen zone warmed with the fleeces of our sheep.

When I have been upon the change, I have often fancied one of our old kings standing in person, where he is represented in effigy, and looking down upon the wealthy concourse of people with which that place is every day filled. In this case, how would he be surprized, to hear all the languages of Europe spoken on this little spot of his former dominions, and to see so many private men, who in his time would have been the vassals of some powerful baron, negotiating, like princes, for greater sums of money than were formerly to be met with in the royal treasury? Trade, without enlarging the British territories, has given us a kind of additional empire. It has multiplied the number of the rich, made our landed estates infinitely more valuable than they were formerly, and added to them an accession of other estates, as valuable as the lands themselves.

REMARKS

ON THE ROYAL EXCHANGE, with regard to private Traders.

From this just, beautiful, and elegant description of this assembly of traders, an idea may be formed, not only of their usefulness to the state, but what their general conduct ought to be upon this public stage of action; for here the eyes of traders are like those of Argus upon each other, and the least faux pas in the management and negotiation of their private concerns, may bring instantaneous ruin upon individuals, although they may really be men of large fortunes, and even of an extensive and a boundless credit.

As a memento, therefore, to the younger and less experienced class, we shall presume, from a desire of being as useful as we can to the rising generation, to point out some of those shoals and rocks, on which numbers have split in their adventures, from their misconduct on the Royal Exchange; to the end that this commercial chart of ours, wherewith we present them, may guard them against those evils.

To which purpose, we shall consider the principal relations wherein traders are under a necessity of acting upon the exchange towards each other, and towards those, who may act in any capacity subservient to their interests.

And (1.) With regard to brokers, who are concerned as middle agents between trader and trader, in relation to drawing and remitting monies by bills of exchange.

We shall first consider the drawer, who has occasion to dispose of his credit in paper. And herein there is no little delicacy requisite on his side; for as these exchange agents [the brokers in bills of exchange] are presumed to know, in the course of their altercations, the quantity of exchange-bills that are to be disposed of on a post-day, as well as the quantity wanted to any peculiar foreign part, they can often, in an hour's time, discover how this matter stands, and thereby become masters of the plenty or scarcity of bills to be sold, as well as the quantity required to be purchased.

When this is known (bills of exchange being considered like another commodity to be bought and sold) the broker, by his private consultation between the buyer and seller, or the drawer and remitter, has it in his power to discern, and in a great measure to fix the price of exchange for such bills. But as it is his interest to execute as much business in a post-day as he can for the sake of his commission, he will not be remiss in bringing those contracts to as speedy a conclusion as he can, for the sake of gaining brokerage for his agency.

The seller and buyer also are heedful to their interest, the one to get as advantageous terms for his bills as he can, the other to get them as cheap as the plenty or scarcity will admit of. It is, however, the interest of the broker to oblige both parties, and as there are a certain number of these brokers, who are upon the wing to rival each other, it is the interest of every individual to catch at all the business he can,

left, during change time, he should be supplanted by any of his brethren, and thereby lose his commission. Thus several of these brokers applying both to drawers and remitters, they feel out the market price by these altercations; and the remitters may judge from the brokers intercourse, who seem eager to fall their bills below the market price, and a drawer may also judge from the price bid, who seem to be under the necessity to remit.

In the course of these money-negotiations between the principal parties concerned, there arises a crisis of great delicacy, in relation to the personal credit of both, and the broker will easily discern it. For if the seller offers his bills at under rate, or the buyer bids more than men of the best credit upon the exchange, here naturally arises a suspicion both on the side of the drawer and remitter; the latter may from hence distrust the goodness of the bill, and the former may doubt whether his money may be punctually paid, when he has parted with his bill, although the time of payment is short.

In these transactions, therefore, both parties will be upon their guard, lest in the conduct of these concerns, their personal credit should suffer upon the change; for the principals should not only consider, that their credits are in the power of each other on such occasions, but likewise in the power of the brokers, whom they employ, and who may possibly afterwards give out such secret innuendoes, that may in one post ruin a trader's reputation, though he may be a man of substance.

Nor is any thing attended with more unhappy consequences to a trader, than the appearance of drawing and redrawing upon the exchange; for this is construed as an indication of a man's over-trading, or of his declension in credit and fortune. Necessities of this kind generally proceed from over-trading, and it is to be feared that there are more traders undone by undertaking too much, than for want of trade. Over-trading is like over-lifting among strong men; vain of their strength, and pride prompting them to put it to the utmost stretch, they at last attempt something too heavy, and become cripples ever after.

Though the discounting of bills of exchange by the bank of England and bankers, is a common practice among traders, even of no indifferent repute, yet when too frequently practised, is a sign of want of competent capital wherewith to carry on the circle of their commerce; for who would allow 4 per cent. discount out of the profits of his trade, if he could do without it? This is another sign of over-trading, and is construed so by the exchange, notwithstanding many are weak enough to think that no one remarks it.

Too many frequently desiring the favour to over-draw on their banker with whom they may keep cash, is construed upon change as another token of declension, or over-trading; and although traders may flatter themselves that these things remain secrets and unknown, yet if often practised, even by pledges in bankers hands, I could tell them how they are generally blown; but this is not my business. If some should not be generous enough in their own breast to thank me for the hint, that shall not prevent my good offices to others, whose gratitude I have experienced.

Traders that use the exchange giving out promissory notes, is no symptom in favour of a trader, though it may not always be imprudent. A few years since, practice of this kind gave an alarm in the city of London, when it was discovered, that several traders had entered into a combination to support each others credit, which proved to be rotten at bottom, by the mutual loan of promissory notes. If a man really possesses a tolerable fortune, and he plunges in trade so far out of his depth, as to need the practice of such artifices, it will in the end ruin the little credit and fortune he may have: but such I am afraid, as well as others, are too apt to flatter them, as great sinners do, that their mal-practices are concealed from all but themselves; when, from the nature of such things being carried on in the heart of the metropolis, and, as it were, within the scent of the Royal Exchange, they will soon be smelt out from the general intercourse of transactions among men of business.

There are two principal causes that may be properly called over-trading in a young beginner, and by both which traders are overthrown. (1.) Trading beyond their stock. (2.) Giving too large credit.

A trader ought to measure well the extent of his own strength; his stock of money and credit is properly his beginning, for credit is a stock as well as money: he that takes too much credit, is not in less danger than he that gives too much: and the danger lies particularly in this, if the tradesman overbuys himself, that is, buys faster than he can sell; by his buying on credit, payments, perhaps, become due too soon for his compliance therewith: though the goods are not sold, he must answer the bills, upon the strength of his proper stock, that is, he must pay for them out of his own cash: if that should not hold out, he is obliged to put off his bills after they are due, or suffer the impertinence of being dunned by the creditor, and perhaps by servants or apprentices, and that with the usual indecencies of such kind of people.

This greatly impairs a trader's credit, and if he has any further dealings with his former creditors, he is treated like an

indifferent paymaster: if he bargains for six months, they know he will take eight or nine in the payment, and this they consider in the price, and use him accordingly, and this impairs his gain: so that loss of credit is indeed loss of money, and this weakens him both ways.

The trader that buys warily, generally pays surely, and every young beginner ought to buy cautiously. Some tradesmen pride themselves on seeing their shops well stocked, and their warehouses full of goods; this is a snare to them, and induces to the purchase of more goods than they can vend suitably to the credit they take, or the capital they possess; it is a foolish as well as a fatal error, whether it lies in their judgment or their vanity; except in some retale trades, where a great choice of goods is absolutely necessary, or a trader will want trade on that account; otherwise an experienced trader had rather see his warehouse rather sparingly filled, than overstocked: if it be too empty, he can supply its deficiency when he pleases, if his credit be good, and his cash strong; but a thronged warehouse is a sign of the want of customers, and of a bad market; whereas an empty warehouse is a sign of a quick demand. This conduct will support a man's credit on change and elsewhere, in foreign countries as well as in his own.

He then that keeps his credit unshaken has a double stock; we mean, it is an addition to his real stock, and often far superior to it. I have known several traders in the city of London, who have traded to a considerable degree very successfully, and yet have had a very trifling capital, and some not a shilling of their own; but by the strength of their reputation, being prudent and assiduous, and having preserved the character of honest men, and the credit of their business by cautious dealing and punctual payments, they have gone on 'till the gain of their trade has effectually established them, and they have raised good estates out of nothing.

He that takes credit in trade may give credit, but he must be exceeding vigilant, for it is the most dangerous state of life that a trader can live in. If the people he trusts fail, or fail but in punctual compliance with him, he can never support his own credit, unless he inviolably observes the preservative maxim not to give so much credit as he takes: that is, he must either sell for shorter time than he takes himself, or in less quantity; the latter is the safest, that he should not trust so much as he is trusted with. If indeed he has a large real capital; besides the credit he takes, that alters the case; a man that can pay his own debts, whether other people pay him or no, that man is out of the question: but if such a person trusts beyond the extent of his stock and credit, even he may be overthrown too.

Could the trader buy all upon credit, and sell all for ready money, he might turn usurer, and put his own stock out to interest, or purchase land with it; but as that is not the case, he should so restrain his liberty of buying and selling, as never to give so much credit as he takes, by one third part at least.

By giving credit, we mean that even all the goods which a trader buys at home or imports from abroad upon credit, may not be sold upon credit: perhaps there are goods which are usually sold so, and no otherwise: but the alternative lies before him thus, either he must not give so much credit in quantity of goods, or not so long credit in relation to time: to explain ourselves.

Suppose a trader buys 10,000 l. value of goods on credit, and this 10,000 l. are sold for 11,000 l. likewise on credit, if the time given be the same, the man is in a state of apparent destruction. Perhaps he owes the 10,000 l. to twenty creditors, perhaps the 11,000 l. is owing to him by 200 debtors: it is scarce possible that these 200 petty customers (if that be his way of dealing) should all so punctually comply with their payments as to enable him to comply with his; and if 2 or 3000 l. fall short, the tradesman must be inevitably undone, unless he has a fund to supply the deficiency. But, If a trader had bought 10,000 l. in goods at 6 or 8 months credit, and had sold them all again to his 200 customers, at three or four months credit, then it might be supposed that all, or the greatest part of them, would have paid time enough to enable him to make the payments on his side good; if not, all would be lost still.

On the other hand, suppose he had sold but 3000 l. worth of the 10,000 l. for ready money, and the remainder at six months credit, it might be supposed that the 3000 l. in cash, and what else the 200 debtors might pay in time, would satisfy such trader's creditors, 'till the difference might be made good: so easy a thing is it for a man to lose his credit in trade, and so hard is it upon such a blow to retrieve it again: should not therefore the trader most effectually guard as well against running too far into debt himself, as to suffer others to run too deeply in his debt? For if his debtors do not pay him, he cannot pay his creditors, and the next thing is a commission of bankruptcy: thus a trader may be undone, although he has 11,000 l. wherewith to discharge 10,000 l. Though it is not possible to carry on the extent of trade we do in this kingdom, without a reciprocal credit both taken and given; yet this is so nice and tender a point, that perhaps, as many traders fail by giving, as by taking too much credit.

There

There are divers other ways of over-trading, besides this of taking and giving too much credit; one of these is the running into projects and large undertakings, either out of the trader's ordinary road, wherein he is already engaged, or grasping at too many undertakings at once: in both which cases the trader is often wounded, and sometimes too deeply to recover. For such adventurers generally stock-starve the trader's ordinary business, which is his principal constant support; and as schemes out of the way of a trader rarely add to his credit, so if they lessen his stock, they weaken him in both his grand supports, and it is no wonder that he at length sinks.

The prudent and safe trader is he, that avoiding all such remote excursions, keeps close and steady within the verge of his own concerns, and exerts his whole attention and abilities in his shop, his warehouse, or his counting-house, to what he well understands, and confining himself to what belongs to him there, goes on in the road of his business without launching into unknown oceans; and content with the gain of his own trade, is neither, by too much ambition or avarice, tempted to be greater or richer by such uncertain and hazardous attempts. See the article PROJECTOR. See also the article CREDIT [PRIVATE CREDIT], wherein I have endeavoured to shew, both in a personal and a national light, the necessity of all traders carrying on their affairs in general less by credit, and more by ready money.

Credit on a public exchange, and among the commercial world, within the compass of a man's concerns, is so much a trader's blessing, that it is the choicest ware in which he deals; he cannot be too tender of so estimable a jewel, or purchase it too dear when he stands in need of it: it is a stock to his warehouse, it is current cash in his chest, it accepts all his bills, for it is on the fund of his credit that he has any to accept: demands otherwise would all be made upon the spot, and he must pay for his goods before he had them: in a word, it is the life and soul of his trade, and it requires the utmost attention and vigilance to maintain and preserve it.

If then a trader's own credit should be of so much value to him, and he should be so delicate in his concern about it, ought he not, in some degree, to have the same care of his neighbours? As a good name is to a man better than life, as the wife man says, so is credit to a trader; it is the life of his traffic; and he that wounds such a man's credit without cause, is as much a murderer in trade, as he that kills a man in the dark is a murderer in matters of blood. There is a peculiar nicety in regard to the credit of a trader, which does not reach in other cases: any other person who is stigmatized in his character or reputation, it is injurious to him: if it comes in the way of marriage, or a preferment in any shape, it may greatly disappoint and prejudice him only for a time: but if this happens to a trader, he is instantly and inevitably blasted and undone. A trader's credit and a maid's virtue, ought to be sacred against the tongues of defamation; and yet how many traders have been thus undone, and how many more have been put to the full trial of their strength in trade, and have stood their ground by the mere force of their good circumstances! Whereas had they been unfurnished with cash to have answered their whole debts, they must have fallen with the rest. There have been instances, not only on the London exchange, but that of other places of the like kind, where groundless rumour, invidious calumny, and even mean and artful innuendoes, have greatly hurt, and sometimes ruined, the characters of worthy and substantial traders. Have we not lately had a most notorious instance, as appeared in our courts of law, of a vile and infamous attempt to ruin the credit of two very worthy and honourable merchants of the city of London? When I mention the names of a F—t—d and C—k—t, every one acquainted with the true characters of these gentlemen, and of the circumstances of this late affair, I am persuaded, will think that I have herein done nothing more than justice to the characters of these eminent traders.

A trader's reputation is of no less nicety than a blight upon a fine flower; if it is but touched, the beauty, or flavour of it, or the seed of it is lost, though the noxious breath which touched it, might not reach to blast the leaf, or hurt the root; the credit of a trader, especially in his beginning, is too much at the mercy of every enemy he has, 'till it has taken root, and is established on a solid foundation of good conduct and prosperity. Every idle tongue can blast the character of a young trader: though we would not discourage, yet we would alarm young beginners, and apprise them of the storm and scandal which they may expect upon the least slip they make. If they but stumble, fame will throw them down; if they recover, she will, indeed, as fast set them up; but calumny generally runs before, and bears all down with it; and there are ten, perhaps, who fall under its weight, to one that is raised again by the hurry of report.

Nor have only young traders been often the sacrifice of obloquy; I could point out many instances like those of the honourable, though imprudent Woodwards, late bankers in Exchange-alley. There was a time too, when Lombard-street was the only bank, and the goldsmiths there were all called bankers; the credit of their business was such, that the like in private hands has not since been seen in England.

Some of those bankers had above a million and an half of paper-credit upon them at a time.

On a sudden, like a clap of thunder, king Charles the II^d shut up the Exchequer, which was then the common center of the overplus cash, which these bankers had in their hands: and what was the consequence? Not only the bankers who had the bulk of their cash there, but all Lombard-street stood still with astonishment; the very report of having money in the Exchequer, brought a run upon the bankers that had no money there, as well as upon those that had; and not only Sir Robert Viner, Alderman Backwell, Farrington, Forth, and others, broke and failed, but several were ruined, who had not one penny of money in the Exchequer, and only sunk by the rumour of it, which gave a check to the whole credit of Lombard-street.

But these are such days, that we have never seen since the happy Revolution; no princes that ever reigned in this kingdom, have been so tender of the public credit, as those of the royal house of Hanover; and would our British traders in general, be as solicitous to preserve their own personal credit, and that of their fellow traders, unsullied, as our present most gracious sovereign is to maintain them in their legal rights and liberties, the traders of Great-Britain would be a match in point of skill and address, in their commercial affairs, for those of any, or indeed for those of all nations in the world. And while every individual is vigilantly upon his guard, honourably and judiciously to uphold and maintain his own credit, and do no injury to that of other traders, the whole body will become, as it were, a united corps, and may, by dint of their ingenuity and their large capitals, (which in the general are superior to those of most nations) rival the traders of every other state or empire.

As the preservation of the personal credit of our British traders in general, is not only of the greatest importance to themselves and families, but likewise of unspeakable benefit to the state, I hope I shall be excused if I urge a word more upon a topic so interesting and national, more especially to the rising generation of our traders.

Among the various steps of misconduct that have a tendency to injure and ruin the trader, that of borrowing money (imprudently) upon interest is not the least. He that borrows upon interest, should inviolably apply the loan to stop the breach, which made it first necessary to him to borrow; otherwise, such loan will sink him deeper into the calamity than it found him; he ought to consider, whether he may not be as hard distressed to pay back the loan, as the debts which it was intended to discharge, and whether he may not want money as much then as before.

There is a vulgar error in trade, concerning the borrowing money upon interest: some think that no man should borrow on interest, but he whose necessity obliges him to do it, for the immediate support of his credit, and prevention of his ruin, and that as soon as he is able he should refund it, to free himself from the payment of interest: this is carrying the matter to a more rigid extreme than it ought, and there may be some exceptions to this, as there are to most general rules.

Some ready-money dealers are yet obliged to keep such vast stocks of goods by them unfold, that they are sometimes undone by that means; but he that buys for credit, and sells for ready money, or less credit than he bought for, is always safe, and he may safely borrow money upon interest, for any considerable sum: the reason is obvious; his trade must increase in proportion to the loan which he takes up; if not, he has no use for the money he borrows, and will return it of course. But if he sees that he can employ more money than he has, and that he can certainly gain more than the interest he pays will balance, and that he can make his returns in due time, he then knows, how much money soever he borrows, that he gains so much by it above the interest, besides the difference of the credit given and taken for exchange.

A. finds he has bought the value of 3000 l. in saltpetre, or pepper, at an India sale; but if he could buy 6000 l. value at the same rate, he has a customer for it, a very good paymaster, who will give him after the rate of 8 per cent. profit; whereas if he does not buy that quantity, such a man will. Upon this A. borrows 3000 l. at 5 per cent. interest of a scrivener, and he buys the goods, sells them again for 3 per cent. profit more than the interest he pays comes to, and has his money in cash again, time enough to repay the scrivener. At this way of calculating, A. is sure to gain 3 per cent. whereby he gains good profit, without any hazard, as it were: and if he has a return sooner, as may be the case, then he gains so much more, as the difference of the money comes to, at 5 per cent. per ann. for the difference of time.

On the other hand, he that gives longer credit than he takes, though he gains 10 per cent. and pays but 5 per cent. may gain nothing. Example: Suppose he is trusted but 6 months, and he trusts his customers 12 months; if he pays 5 per cent. interest for the money, and yet should sell the goods for 10 per cent. profit, it is plain he gains nothing, and acts with disadvantage into the account; because he runs the risk of the person he trusts, and makes no profit, either for his trouble or hazard.

By the trusting of customers twelve months, we would not suggest that any trader in his wits should sell his merchandize by contract for a year's credit, and for that time to tie up his hands, that he cannot demand his money before. What we mean is, according to the ordinary usage of trade: Example: A wholesale man deals with another, a shopkeeper, and trades with him upon the general credit of his dealing; the shopkeeper goes on buying and paying; he does not examine when the payment for every particular parcel of goods is due, but he buys as his occasions require goods, and he pays as he can spare money; and as he is a current man, and purchases large quantities, he is esteemed a good customer; yet if we look into his accounts, his parcels and his payments answer one another, perhaps, after the rate of 9 to 10 and 12 months credit, nor does he think himself a bad paymaster; and yet, if the wholesale dealer with whom he trades, paid interest of 5 per cent. for his money, unless he got more than 10 per cent. by this customer, he would lose money by all the goods which he sold him.—This is a reflection that every tradesman ought to make, and well to consider, who may incline to take up money at 5 per cent. interest.

Besides, if all the while any part of the money-borrower's goods remain in the warehouses unsold, and all that while he pays interest for the money that bought them, this article of interest-money, if exactly deducted from the profits, eats through the whole bargain; and if such trader would keep an accurate account of profit and loss, he would experience that such conduct would destroy the whole profits of his trade. In a word, interest of money is a canker-worm in trade, eats through and through the trader, and insensibly consumes him; and few traders, we fear, state to themselves this matter in a true light; for whatever loss the trader meets with, the money-lender must be duly paid his interest: and with whomsoever the trader compounds, the money-lender makes no composition, unless he is forced, by the ruin of the trader, to compound for principal as well as interest, when, perhaps, by the mere interest, he has received doubly his principal.

If it be thus fatal to the trader to pay but the legal interest of 5 per cent. for his money, how deplorable must his case be, when he is oppressed either by the lender, the procurer, the scrivener, or banker, under the sly and ruinous article called procuration, continuation, premio, and the like? And this extortion is made when the debtor is apparently in need of the loan, or that it appears he is not in a condition to refund the money: and although, perhaps, the creditor has good security for his money, yet those people never want pretences and artifices, somehow to hook in new and frequent considerations, by way of addition to the ordinary interest-money.

There is another unhappy practice among the more necessitous traders, and which in the end is infallibly destructive and ruinous, at least as far as it is followed: this is passing and repassing promissory notes, or bills indorsed by one another reciprocally, and drawn upon themselves; for so it may properly enough be termed, for the present supply of cash, in which they are, in the long-run, even extortioners upon themselves.

This mischievous practice began principally among merchants trading in foreign parts, when at an extraordinary pinch for money: suppose it be, that the merchant has a ship come into the river, laden with wines, and he wants a sum of money immediately wherewith to pay the custom-house duties; which being done, will presently come to market, and reimburse his money.

The importer wanting cash for the purpose, and being in full credit on the exchange, and having a friend at Amsterdam, that he knows will honour his bills, he draws upon him for 2000 l. sterling, payable at two usances: upon this draught he immediately receives the money upon the exchange, for the exchange is the merchant's bank on such occasions as these: having thus taken up the money on the credit of his bills, he lands his wines, or whatever other goods they are; sells a large quantity of them on the keys, and getting in a competent sum to answer it, he immediately takes care of his credit, and of his friend at Amsterdam: and having staid but one month, and his bills being payable at two months in Amsterdam, he punctually remits 2000 l. to his friend there in good bills, to answer his first draught upon him, and remits the like sum at usance; so that his friend, experiencing in this case, how careful he is of his honour, is ready to accept any bills for him another time: thus far this transaction is carried on with reputation; and though a merchant drawing, may have some small loss, by remitting at a shorter time than his draught was made for, yet that is not considerable, the service done him upon such an exigence requiring it, and merchants of the best figure are sometimes obliged to serve themselves with ready money in such a manner.

But supposing the merchant finds, that though his wines are landed, and perhaps sold, yet he has other pressing occasions which call for his money, and he cannot remit to Amsterdam to answer his draught: hereupon he contrives another shift to keep the money two months longer; which is by ordering his friend at Amsterdam to redraw upon him at London at two usances; which he at Amsterdam does accordingly, and

his bills being accepted here, the merchant at Amsterdam is fully satisfied, and the drawer's credit remains good at London. But, in this case, the merchant at London becomes an extortioner upon himself; for, besides the loss by the exchange, which is generally against him, because he cannot, like a man that draws or remits for the advantage of the exchange, wait, and take it this way or that way, as the course of exchange may be most to his benefit; so his necessity at first, and his credit at last, pressing him to draw when he had occasion, and be drawn upon just as bills become due, his necessities also oblige him to run the risk, and take his chance for the course of the exchange; and this is frequently to his disadvantage. Besides this, his friend at Amsterdam must have his commission, both for the payment of his bills, and again for drawing, with the charge of brokerage both upon the exchange of London and Amsterdam, with postage of letters, and other incidents: nor does the matter end here.

When the two usances are towards expiring, and that, on such an approaching day, his bills from Amsterdam will become due, and must be paid or his credit ruined, and perhaps his friend at Amsterdam too; and being not yet in cash to answer those bills, he has recourse to another expedient, and having still unspotted credit abroad, he draws for 10,000 crowns upon two merchants, the one at Genoa, the other at Leghorn, his correspondents, at 30 days after sight, having effects sufficient in their hands to answer the payment. In order to back this credit, he buys 2000 l. worth of goods of the warehousemen in London, in druggets, or duroys, &c. for which he can currently have six months credit, and takes care to have those goods shipped, and the bills of lading sent to his correspondents, before his advice of drawing the bills.

To support his credit with them also, he writes, at the same time, that, if his effects in their hands should not supply in time to answer his bills, they should draw upon such another merchant at Paris on his account, to whom he had given directions to accept his bills; all which being politically managed, the bills at Leghorn and Genoa are accepted and paid, without the drawing upon Paris: and now the merchant of London has transferred his debt from his friends abroad, to two or three warehousemen, or Blackwell-Hall factors at home, and has now got six months time for the payment of this 2000 l. more than the four months at first; so that in all he has enjoyed this credit ten months.—When these six months are expired, it would be greatly to his interest that he might be able, out of his ordinary cash, to pay the tradesmen off; but his other demands do not admit of it, and, that he may not be dunned and dishonoured, he becomes under the necessity to take the same course again, and his friends at Leghorn and Genoa having accepted his bills, on the credit of the effects already in their hands, and shipped to them as above; he now tries his good friend Monf. ———, banker at Paris, and draws 2000 l. sterling upon him; and taking up this money upon change, as before, he pays off his warehousemen and factors, and perhaps buys again, in order to lay in still a good bank at Leghorn and Genoa.

All this while the London merchant keeps up his credit, his bills are all honourably accepted and paid; but still the drawing falls all upon himself at last, till by thus frequently running the same round, if he will make an exact calculation, he shall find that he has paid at last from ten to fifteen per cent. for the use of this money; and, which is still worse, is indebted the principal sums, one where or other; and this gradually eats him up, and devours his fortune, till at length some considerable disaster happening abroad, in the course of his affairs, he receives a blast upon his reputation, so that his bills will not be taken as formerly upon the exchange, and then he is undone.

This drawing and remitting, as it is a fatal thing to a merchant, so, unless it be very warily managed, it soon comes to be smelt into by the staunch-credited remitters of money upon the exchange, and they are always jealous where they find a man thus concerned; so that it rarely can be carried on for any long time without observation, unless it be done with a vast variety of changing hands, and sometimes names, and a very punctual answering every demand to a tittle; and yet at length it proves fatal to most that embark in it.

Another thing that often proves ruinous to a trader, more especially to the merchant, is the want of requisite accomplishments to acquit himself with credit and honour in his profession; but as I have spoken very amply to this matter under the article *MERCANTILE COLLEGE* [*BRITISH MERCANTILE COLLEGE*] I refer the reader to that head.

REMARKS in a national light.

Though the constant interest of our trade and commerce does, in a great measure, depend upon the industry, prudence, skill, and ingenuity of our merchants and traders in general, yet these things alone will not answer that great end; if the government of Great-Britain does not steadily, wisely, and zealously co-operate with our traders to promote and advance the same cause, all that our traders can do will be ineffectual. But as too many catch at every occasion to misrepresent the conduct of the royal house of Hanover, in relation to the

care that has been taken of the trade of this kingdom since the happy accession of that august family to the throne; I think it my duty to refresh the memories of some, with a short state of what has been done by his late and present Majesty, with regard to this important point. And as an impartial man, I think this more incumbent upon me, because I have taken the liberty, where I have thought truth and the public interests have required it, to give my free and undisguised sentiments on some points wherein it appears to me that our ministers have not so warmly espoused this cause as could be wished.—We shall briefly trace this matter from the beginning of his late Majesty's reign.—To which end we shall take notice of the treaty, concluded at Madrid, on the 14th of December, 1715, and, by comparing it with that concluded at Utrecht on the 19th of December, 1713, shew several particulars in which the treaty made with his late Majesty is more advantageous to Great-Britain than that which was made in Queen Anne's reign: and indeed it must be equally surprizing how so bad a treaty came to be made at the end of a glorious and successful war, and how so good a one was obtained by king George I, in the beginning of a reign disturbed by such intestine commotions. But we may learn from hence, that the wisdom of a sovereign, and the integrity of his ministers, are more necessary for bringing about works of such consequence for the public good, than any juncture of time, or any other the most favourable circumstance.

We must here premise, that by the treaty concluded at Madrid in 1667, the duties of importation payable upon the manufactures and products of Great-Britain, amounted, upon the established valuation in the Spanish book of rates (after the deduction of the gratias) in Andalusia to $11\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. in Valencia to 5 per cent. and in Catalonia to about 7 per cent. or less, and consequently, upon the whole aforesaid trade, those duties could not exceed 10 per cent. on a medium.

After this short account of our trade with Spain before the treaty of Utrecht, made by the late queen, we must observe, that, by the explanatory articles of this last-mentioned treaty, the duties of importation upon the products and manufactures of Great-Britain were augmented in Andalusia to $27\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. at a medium.

But by the treaty made by king George I. at Madrid, the said duties were again reduced, according to the aforesaid treaty of 1667, and the deduction of the gratias * is established as an inviolable law; whereas before, the gratias of the farmers of the royal revenue of Spain, were particularly altogether precarious, and depended intirely upon courtesy.

* For the nature of those gratias in Spain, see our article GRATIAS, where this matter is fully explained.

That the common reader, however, may here understand something of the nature of these gratias, he must know, that when the king of Spain had laid higher duties upon our English goods than what the British merchants were able or willing to comply with, he used to abate a certain part: which indulgence or abatement went under the name of gratia, or matter of favour, and not matter of right by treaty. But when he had farmed out these his customs to several of his subjects, the farmers, in order to draw more merchandize to their respective ports, and thereby to increase their own particular profits, used to make new abatements, or gratias, to the British merchants, endeavouring sometimes to outvie one another in such indulgences, and by that means to get a greater proportion of custom into their own hands.

But to proceed. The duties on exportation may be computed to be raised by the Utrecht treaty, near as much as the aforesaid duties of importation: whereas, by the treaty made by his late Majesty, they are reduced to their ancient standard. Complaint having been made that the Spaniards, after the suspension of arms in queen Anne's reign, had taken several New England, and other British ships, gathering salt at the island of Tortuga, a very full and just report concerning that affair was laid before her late Majesty, of which we shall give the reader the following extract.

' Your Majesty's subjects have, from the first settlement of the continent of America, had free access to this island, and have without interruptions, unless in time of war, used to take what salt they pleased there; and we have proof of that usage for above 50 years, as appears by certificates of persons who have been employed in that trade. It doth not appear, upon the strictest enquiry, that the Spaniards ever inhabited or settled on the said island; nor is it probable they ever did, it being all either barren rock, or dry sand, and having no fresh water or provisions in it. We take leave to lay before your Majesty, the consequence of your Majesty's subjects being prohibited to fetch salt at Tortuga; which will in part appear from the number of ships using that trade, being, as we are informed, one year with another, about 100 sail.

The salt carried from thence to New England is used chiefly for curing of fish, which is either cod, skate-fish, or mackerel; the former of which is the principal branch of the returns made from the continent to Great-Britain, by way of Spain, Portugal, and the Streights, for the woollen and other goods sent from this kingdom thither. Besides which,

' the skate fish and macktel are of such consequence, that the sugar islands cannot subsist without them, their negroes being chiefly supported by this fish: so that, if they were not supplied therewith from New England (which they cannot be if your Majesty's subjects are prohibited from getting salt at Tortuga) they would not be able to carry on their sugar works. This hath been confirmed to us by several considerable planters concerned in those parts.

' Upon the whole, your Majesty's subjects having enjoyed an uninterrupted usage of gathering salt at Tortuga, ever since the first settlement of the continent as aforesaid, we humbly submit to your Majesty the consequence of preserving that usage and right, upon which the trade of your Majesty's plantations so much depends.'

Notwithstanding it appears, from what is above-written, that our SUGAR ISLANDS were like to suffer considerably, for want of FISH from NEW ENGLAND, no care was taken to have this matter remedied by the explanatory articles to the Utrecht treaty, which were posterior to the above mentioned report.

However, in the third article of the treaty made by king George I, this business is fully settled to our advantage.

The British merchants having had several hardships put upon them at Bilboa in Spain, which occasioned the decay of our trade at that place, the said merchants did make and execute, in the year 1700, A TREATY OF PRIVILEGES with the magistrates and inhabitants of St. Ander, very much to the advantage of this kingdom, in order to their removing and settling there: the effect of which was prevented by the death of king Charles II. of Spain, and the war which soon after ensued. This matter, it seems, was slighted or neglected by the managers of the Utrecht treaty: for by the XIVth article of that treaty, there is only A LIBERTY GIVEN TO THE BRITISH SUBJECTS TO SETTLE AND DWELL AT ST ANDER, UPON THE TERMS OF THE IXth AND XXXth ARTICLES OF THE TREATY OF 1667, which are general: but no regard was had to the forementioned treaty of privileges in 1700; whereas by the second article of the forementioned treaty made by king George I, the forementioned TREATY OF PRIVILEGES with St Ander, is confirmed and ratified.

Another considerable advantage obtained is, that the French, by the treaty made with his late Majesty, are to pay the same DUTIES at the DRY-PORTS, through which they pass by land-carriage, as we pay upon importation or exportation by sea, which was not provided for by the Utrecht treaty.

By the schedules annexed to the treaty of 1667, the valuable privileges of having JUDGE-CONSERVATORS in Spain (appointed to make a more speedy and less expensive determination of all controversies arising in trade between the British merchants and the Spaniards) was fully established. But by the XVth article of the Utrecht treaty, that privilege was in effect given up: for it is therein only stipulated, THAT IN CASE ANY OTHER NATION HAVE THAT PRIVILEGE, WE SHALL IN LIKE MANNER ENJOY IT. But by the Vth article of the treaty made by his late Majesty king George, it is stipulated, that WE SHALL ENJOY ALL THE RIGHTS, PRIVILEGES, FRANCHISES, EXEMPTIONS, AND IMMUNITIES WHATSOEVER, WHICH WE ENJOYED BY VIRTUE OF THE ROYAL SCHEDULES, OR ORDINANCES, BY THE TREATY OF 1667: so that hereby the great privilege of JUDGE-CONSERVATORS is again confirmed to us. These are some of the advantages which the royal house of Hanover hath obtained for us in our SPANISH TRADE.

We shall now give a short account of those procured for us from the AUSTRIAN LOW COUNTRIES, by virtue of the XXVth article of the BARRIER TREATY.

This branch of our trade was regulated by a tariff, or declaration of the DUTIES of IMPORT and EXPORT, in the year 1670, which was superseded by another made in 1680, and continued 'till the last tariff, settled in 1715 with king George I. As for the two former, those who will be at the pains of perusing them, will find the tariff of 1670 laid HIGHER DUTIES on several considerable branches of our trade than that of 1680, but in many particulars was more favourable to us than the latter. Now by the tariff made by king George in 1715, these DUTIES were fixed and regulated for the future by those which were most favourable in either of the former tariffs, and all our British products and manufactures (one only excepted, which shall be named presently) settled upon an easier foot than ever.

Our woollen cloths, being the most profitable branch of our trade into these countries, by this means gained a very considerable advantage: for the tariff of 1680 having laid HIGHER DUTIES upon the finer sorts, and LOWER DUTIES on ordinary cloth, than what were settled in the tariff of 1670, his late Majesty, by the forementioned BARRIER TREATY, reduced the DUTIES on the finer sorts to the tariff of 1670, and confirmed the DUTIES on ordinary cloth according to the tariff of 1680. Inasmuch that the tariff of 1715, considered with relation to this valuable part of our trade, reduced the DUTIES at least one sixth part, supposing the exportation of all sorts to be equal; but, as there is always a much greater exportation of the ordinary cloth than of the finer

finer sorts, the reduction of these duties became still much more considerable.

We must further observe, that there had been several innovations made to the detriment of the English merchant, since the tariff of 1680; all which innovations were intirely set aside by the said treaty of 1715, upon every species of goods except butter, which is mentioned because we cannot be too minute and circumstantial in accounts of this nature: this article, however, is moderated, and is rated in proportion to what has been paid by the Dutch.

As our commerce with the Netherlands [see the article NETHERLANDS] was thus settled to the advantage of our British merchants, so it was much to their satisfaction.

I cannot conclude this topic without observing, that as nothing but the great reputation of his late Majesty king George in foreign countries, and of his fixed purposes to pursue the real good and happiness of his kingdoms, could bring about treaties so beneficial to our commerce, in so few years as he did; so it is impossible to reflect with patience on the folly and ingratitude of those men, who wickedly laboured to disturb him in the midst of these his royal cares, and to misrepresent, as they did at that time, his glorious endeavours for the good of his people. And if this great prince did so much for us, even within the first two or three years of his reign, and still greater things during every year of his reign afterwards, as I shall shew in its proper place: if this wise monarch did so much for these kingdoms, altho' his whole reign was disturbed with the storms of rebellion and invasion, and domestic ferments of another kind too, what would he not have done for commerce, if his reign had been a scene of desirable quiet and tranquillity? Instead of undervaluing the important things he did in this respect, we ought rather to admire that he was able to do so much, when we could not reasonably expect he should have been able to have done any thing.

And it may be further said with great truth, that, as well during the reign of his present Majesty, as of that of his royal predecessor, they have never made the least attempt to invade the rights of trade or possessions of any state or empire whatsoever; they never discovered any glimmerings of low artifice, chicanery, or perfidy, in their treaties and negotiations with foreign powers, not the shadow of an intention to injure any in relation to their territorial or commercial interest. On the contrary, the royal house of Hanover have supported the interest and glory of this nation by measures the most just, the most equitable, and the most honourable towards all countries; and I wish I could say the like of some neighbouring nations; but their present, as well as their past conduct, would give the lie to it; for at this time, without the least cause or provocation on the side of his Britannic Majesty, his dominions are most ignominiously attacked in the face of the whole world: and what adds to the aggravation of the baseness and treachery is, that these very designs have been chiefly, and most effectually meditating, ever since the last treaty of peace and friendship, and under the disguise of the sincerest amity, and most honourable intentions to preserve the tranquillity of Europe. See our article PLANTATIONS, and divers others, to which we from thence refer.

Ought not such conduct as this to rouse all true friends to the trade and interest of Great-Britain, to unite their zealous endeavours, to make the remainder of his Majesty's reign as great and as glorious as it has hitherto been, and not suffer it to be sullied with the loss of any part of his dominions, especially those which are so inestimable to the kingdom, and which are, therefore, so shamefully invaded at present? If the wise and good have any thing of moment to offer at this critical time, either within doors or without, for the true interest and honour of the nation, let it be offered with moderation and strength of argument, not with rancour, heat, and animosity, for this destroys the power and splendor of truth and right reason. Let gentlemen communicate their sentiments like gentlemen: let Britons not widen our breaches, when it is their duty to heal them: let us not debate, but act, when the enemy is at the door: let us demonstrate to the whole world that we are an united people, that we have all imaginable reason to love and revere our most gracious monarch, and to be warmly attached to the support of his royal house, and to the trade and glory of the kingdom; that we are determined to be unanimous to enable his Majesty effectually to resent the indignity which is now offered to the nation, and to chastise and humble those who are the common disturbers of the peace and tranquillity of the whole world. And as the chief expence, during the reign of his late as well as his present Majesty, has been (as I hope to make appear at a proper time) laid out upon the royal navy of this kingdom, and our magazines are at present plentifully filled with naval and military stores: as the naval power of this nation is much greater now than it ever was before in any period of time, even compared with that of any other, or many nations: and as we are in a capacity, as I could easily prove, to increase our naval power to such a degree as will soon make our enemies tremble: as this is the real situation of our public affairs; we need not be intimidated by the bullies of the world. Every true friend to the Protestant cause, will cheerfully lend his

helping hand to scourge those whose insolence and treachery deserve it; and certain I am that those who shall do otherwise, and endeavour to distract his Majesty's councils at this crisis, or to perplex the great representative of the nation, or the public in general, with ill-timed disputes and controversies, can be as little friends to the Protestant interest, as to the trade and the liberties of these kingdoms: and such who shall attempt, in any shape, to embroil our public affairs, at so important a conjuncture, deserve ever to be stigmatized, as unworthy to live under so mild, so gracious, and so free a government; they ought to be branded on the forehead with an hot iron, that they may be for ever after shunned and avoided, as pestilential to society, and fitter to live under a Popish tyranny than under a government like this, of all desirable liberty and freedom. No man has a greater contempt for men in power, who abuse the great trust reposed in them, than myself, nor would any one sooner lend a hand to pull them down; and few have spoke their mind with more freedom upon very interesting occasions than I have done: but as I have done it with that decency and moderation that becomes every man that means good and not mischief, I do not find that I have given any offence. But whoever impartially considers the history of his late and present Majesty's reigns in these kingdoms, will find that their hands have been tied from doing the nation that good they have ever aimed at; their reigns have been disturbed with rebellions at home, and attempts of invasion from abroad; and our domestic squabbles, under the pretence of popular patriotism, have not, perhaps, done the nation less injury than the attempts of our foreign foes. It is true, great sums of money have been raised; but what with domestic strife, unnatural rebellions, and the perfidy of foreign courts upon those accounts; these sums, I am persuaded, have not had the effect that half the money would have had, if those, who have pretended to have been friends to their country, had approved themselves really such. See the articles REVENUE and TRADE; see also our article PARLIAMENT [MEMBER OF PARLIAMENT].

The Royal Exchange of London is the first place in the kingdom, that will feel the effects of the injury meditated to be done at this juncture by foreign rivals and enemies to our trade and navigation; and I am well persuaded that great and honourable body will be the first who will supply his Majesty with the sinews of war, to defeat those wicked intentions. However our enemies may flatter themselves with the weight of our debts and taxes, and that we cannot act with that spirit and vigour requisite to frustrate their unwarrantable designs, they will find themselves as shamefully mistaken as they have heretofore been. It is true, our debts are large, but their incumbrance, let them remember, is, by the reduction of interest, rendered much lighter than otherwise it would have been: and there are easy ways and means to render our debts much lighter still than they are; nor will his Majesty want either ample resources or wise measures, to reduce a certain nation to as low an ebb as ever the great Marlborough did, if they once more rouse the British lion against them.

ROYAL SOCIETY.

Of the first constitution of the ROYAL SOCIETY of London, established in the reign of king Charles II.

Charles the II^d, by the grace of God, of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. To all unto whom these presents shall come, greeting. Having long resolved within ourself to promote the welfare of arts and sciences, as well as that of our territories and dominions, out of our princely affection to all kind of learning, and more particular favour to philosophical studies; especially those which endeavour, by solid experiments, either to reform or improve philosophy. To the intent therefore that these kinds of study, which are no where yet sufficiently cultivated, may flourish in our dominions; and that the learned world may acknowledge us to be, not only the defender of the faith, but the patron and encourager of all sorts of useful knowledge, KNOW YE, that we, out of our special grace, certain knowledge, and mere motion, having given and granted, and do by these presents give and grant, for us, our heirs, and successors, that there shall be for ever a society, consisting of a president, council, and fellows, which shall be called by the name of the president, council, and fellows of the Royal Society of London, for cultivating and improving of natural knowledge, of which society we do by these presents declare ourselves to be founder and patron. And we do hereby make and constitute the said society by the name, &c. to be a body corporate, to be continued under the same name in a perpetual succession; and that they and their successors (whose studies are to be employed for the promoting of the knowledge of natural things, and useful arts by experiments, to the glory of God and the good of mankind) shall, by the aforesaid name of president, council, &c. be enabled and made capable in law, to levy, hold, possess, and enjoy, lands, tenements, &c. liberties, franchises, jurisdictions, for perpetuity, or terms of lives, or years, or any other way; as also goods, chattels, and all other things of what nature or kind soever. And also by the name aforesaid to give, grant, demise, or assign the said lands, goods, &c.

and to do all things necessary thereabout. And the said persons by the name aforesaid, are enabled to implead, be impleaded, sue, defend, &c. in any courts, and before any judges, officers, &c. whatsoever, of the king, his heirs and successors, in all and singular actions, real and personal: pleas, causes, &c. of what kind soever, as any of his subjects within his kingdom of England, or corporations, are by law capable and enabled to do.

And the said president, council, and fellows, are impowered to have a common seal for their use in their affairs; and from time to time to break, change, and make anew the same, as shall seem expedient unto them.

And his Majesty, in testimony of his royal favour towards the said president, council, and fellows, and of his especial esteem of them, doth grant a coat of arms to them and their successors, viz. on a field argent a canton of the three lions of England: for a crest, an eagle proper on a ducal coronet, supporting a shield charged with the lions aforesaid; and for supporters, two talbots with coronets on their necks. The said arms to be borne, &c. by the said society upon all occasions.

And that his Majesty's royal intention may take the better effect for the good government of the said society from time to time, it is established, that the council aforesaid shall consist of 21 persons (whereof the president for the time being always to be one). And that all persons, which, within two months next ensuing the date of the said charter, shall be chosen by the said president and council; and in all times after the said two months, by the president, council, and fellows [and noted in a register to be kept for that purpose] shall be fellows of the said society, and so accounted and called during life, except by the statutes of the said society to be made, any of them shall happen to be amerced; and by how much any persons are more excelling in all kinds of learning, by how much the more ardently they desire to promote the honour, business, and emolument of the said society, by how much the more eminent they are for integrity, honesty, piety, loyalty, and good affection toward his Majesty, his crown and dignity, by so much the more fit and worthy such persons are to be judged for reception into the society.

And for the better execution of his royal grant, his Majesty hath nominated, &c. his trusty and well-beloved, William, viscount Brouncker, chancellor to his dearest consort queen Catherine, to be the first and modern president, to continue in the said office from the date of the patent to the feast of St Andrew next ensuing, and untill another person of the said council be duly chosen into the said office. The said lord Brouncker being sworn in all things belonging thereto, well and faithfully to execute the said office, before his right well-beloved and right trusty cousin and counsellor, Edward Earl of Clarendon, lord high chancellor of England, in the words following:

I William viscount Brouncker, do promise to deal faithfully and honestly in all things belonging to that trust committed to me, as president of the Royal Society of London, for improving natural knowledge. So help me God.

And his majesty hath nominated, &c. the persons following, his trusty and well-beloved Sir Robert Murray, Knt. one of his privy council in his kingdom of Scotland, Robert Boyle, Esq; William Brereton, Esq; eldest son to the lord Brereton, Sir Kenelm Digby, Knt. chancellor to his dearest mother queen Mary, Sir Gilbert Talbot, Knt. master of his jewel-house, Sir Paul Neile, Knt. one of the ushers of his privy chamber, Henry Slingsby, Esq; one of the gentlemen of his said privy chamber, Sir William Petty, Knt. Timothy Clark, doctor of physic, and one of his physicians, John Wilkins, doctor of divinity, George Ent, doctor of physic, William Erskyne, Esq; one of his cupbearers, Jonathan Goddard, doctor of physic, William Ball, Esq; Matthew Wren, Esq; John Evelyn, Esq; Thomas Henshaw, Esq; Dudley Palmer, of Gray's Inn, Esq; Abraham Hill, of London, Esq; and Henry Oldenburg, Esq; together with the president aforesaid, to be the first and modern 21 of the council and fellows of the Royal Society aforesaid, to be continued in the offices of the council aforesaid, from the date of the patent to the feast of St Andrew next following, and from thence 'till other fit persons be chosen into the said offices. The said persons to be sworn before the president of the society for the time being, well and truly to execute the said offices, according to the form and effect of the aforesaid oath to be administered to the president, by the lord chancellor as aforesaid. For the administering which oath to the said persons; and all others hereafter from time to time to be chosen into the said council, full power and authority is granted to the president for the time being: and the said persons duly sworn, and all other from time to time duly chosen into the said council and sworn, are to aid, advise, and assist in all affairs, businesses, and things, concerning the better regulation, government, and direction of the Royal Society, and every member thereof.

Furthermore, liberty is granted to the said society, lawfully to make and hold meetings of themselves, for the searching out and discovery of natural things, and transaction of other businesses relating to the said society, when and as often as shall be requisite, in any college, hall, or other convenient place in London, or within ten miles thereof.

And power is granted to the said society, from time to time to nominate and chuse yearly, on St Andrew's day, one of the council aforesaid, for the time being, to be president of the society, until St Andrew's day next ensuing (if he shall so long live, or not be removed for some just and reasonable cause) and from thence until another be chosen and put into the said office, the said president so elected, before admission to that office, to be sworn before the council, according to the form before expressed, who are impowered to administer the said oath from time to time, as often as there shall be cause to chuse a president.

And in case that the said president, during his office, shall die, recede, or be removed, then, and so often, it shall be lawful for the council of the Royal Society to meet together to chuse one of their number for president of the said society: and the person so chosen and duly sworn, shall have and exercise the office of president for the remainder of the year, and until another be duly chosen into the said office.

And in case that any one or more of the council aforesaid shall die, recede, or be removed, (which persons or any of them, for misdemeanor, or other reasonable cause, are declared to be amerceable by the president and the rest of the council) then and so often it shall be lawful for the president, council, and fellows, to chuse one or more of the fellows of the Royal Society in the room of him or them so deceasing, receding, or removed, to complete the aforesaid number of 21 of the council; which person, or persons so chosen, are to continue in office until St Andrew's day then next ensuing, and until others be duly chosen, the said persons being sworn faithfully to execute their office, according to the true intention of the patent.

And his Majesty doth will and grant unto the said president, council, and fellows, full power and authority on St Andrew's day yearly, to elect, nominate, and change, ten of the fellows of the Royal Society, to supply the places and offices of ten of the aforesaid number of 21 of the council, declaring it to be his royal will and pleasure, that ten and no more of the council aforesaid, be annually changed and removed by the president, council, and fellows aforesaid.

And it is granted on the behalf of the said society, that if it shall happen that the president be sick, infirm, detained in his Majesty's service, or otherwise occupied, so as he cannot attend the necessary affairs of the society, then and so often it shall be lawful for him to appoint one of the council for his deputy, who shall supply his place from time to time, as often as he shall happen to be absent, during the whole time of the said president's continuance in his office, unless he shall in the mean time constitute some other of the council for his deputy: and the deputy so constituted, is impowered to do all and singular things which belong to the office of the president of the Royal Society, and in as ample manner and form as the said president may do by virtue of his Majesty's letters patent, he the said deputy being duly sworn before the council in form before specified, who are impowered to administer the oath as often as the case shall require.

It is farther granted to the society, to have one treasurer, two secretaries, two or more curators of experiments, one or more clerk, or clerks, and also two sergeants at mace, who may from time to time attend on the president; all the said officers to be chosen by the president, council, and fellows, and to be sworn in form and effect before specified, well and faithfully to execute their offices, which oath the council are impowered to administer: and his Majesty nominates and appoints his well-beloved subjects, the aforesaid Will. Ball, Esq; to be the first and modern treasurer; and the aforesaid John Wilkins and Henry Oldenburg, to be the first and modern secretaries of the Royal Society, to be continued in the said offices to the feast of St Andrew next following the date of the patent. And that from time to time and ever hereafter on the said feast of St Andrew (if it be not Lord's day, and if it be Lord's day on the next day after) the president, council, and fellows aforesaid, are impowered to nominate and chuse honest and discreet men for treasurer and secretaries, which are to be of the number of the council of the Royal Society; which persons elected and sworn, in form before specified, are to exercise and enjoy the said offices until the feast of St Andrew next then following.

And if it shall happen, that the aforesaid election of the president, council, treasurer, and secretaries, or any of them, cannot be made or perfected on the feast of St Andrew aforesaid; it is granted to the aforesaid president, council, and fellows, that they may lawfully nominate and assign another day, as near to the said feast of St Andrew as conveniently may be, for making or perfecting the said elections, and so from day to day 'till the said elections be perfected.

And in case that any of the aforesaid officers of the Royal Society shall die, recede, or be removed, from their respective offices, then and so often shall it be lawful for the said president, council, and fellows, to chuse one or more into the office or offices, vacant, to hold the same during the residue of that year, and untill others be duly chosen and sworn in their places.

Moreover, on the behalf of the society, it is granted unto the president and council, that they may assemble and meet together in any college, hall, or other convenient place in London,

London, or within ten miles thereof (due and lawful summons of all the members of the council to extraordinary meetings being always premised) and that they being so met together, have full power and authority, from time to time, to make, constitute, and establish such laws, statutes, orders, and constitutions, which shall appear to them to be good, useful, honest, and necessary, according to their judgments and discretions, for the government, regulation, and direction of the Royal Society, and every member thereof; and to do all things concerning the government, estate, goods, lands, revenues, as also the businesses and affairs of the said society: all which laws, statutes, orders, &c. so made, his Majesty will's and commands, that they be from time to time inviolably observed, according to the tenor and effect of them: provided that they be reasonable, and not repugnant or contrary to the laws, customs, &c. of his kingdom of England.

And furthermore, full power and authority is given and granted unto the said society, from time to time, to chuse one or more printers and gravers; and by writing, sealed with the common seal of the society, and signed by the president for the time being, to grant them power to print such things, matters, and businesses concerning the said society, as shall be committed to them by the council from time to time, the said printers and gravers being sworn before the president and council, in form before specified: which president and council are empowered to give the said oath.

And for the greater advantage and success of the society in their philosophical studies and endeavours, full power and authority is granted unto them to require, take, and receive, from time to time, dead bodies of persons executed, and the same to anatomize, to all intents and purposes, and in as ample manner and form, as the College of Physicians and Company of Surgeons of London (by what names soever they said two corporations are or may be called) have had and made use of, or may have and use the said bodies.

And for the improvement of such experiments, arts, and sciences, as the society may be employed in, full power and authority is granted unto them, from time to time, by letters under the hand of the president, in the presence of the council, to hold correspondence and intelligence with any strangers, whether private persons or collegiate societies, or corporations, without any interruption or molestation whatsoever: provided, that this indulgence or grant be extended to no farther use than the particular benefit and interest of the society, in matters philosophical, mathematical, and mechanical.

Full power and authority is also granted, on the behalf of the society, to the council, to erect and build one or more colleges within London, or ten miles thereof, of what form or quality soever for habitation, assembling, or meeting of the president, council, and fellows, about any affairs and businesses of the society.

And if any abuses or differences shall ever hereafter arise and happen, about the government or affairs of the society, whence the constitution, progress, and improvement, or businesses thereof may suffer, or be hindered: in such cases, his Majesty assigns and authorises his right trusty and right well-beloved cousin and counsellor, Edward earl of Clarendon, lord high chancellor of England, by himself during his life, and after his decease, the lord archbishop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great seal of England, the lord high treasurer of England, the lord-keeper of the privy seal, the lord bishop of London, and the two principal secretaries of state for the time being, or any four or more of them, to compose and redress any such differences or abuses.

And lastly, his Majesty strictly charges and commands all justices, mayors, aldermen, sheriffs, bailiffs, constables, and all other officers, ministers and subjects whatsoever, from time to time to be aiding and assisting unto the said president, council and fellows of the Royal Society, in and about all things according to the true intention of his letters patent.

This is the legal ratification, which the Royal Society received at its first establishment. According to the intention of these letters patent, their council, I believe, has ever since been annually renewed; their president, their treasurer, their secretaries chosen: the chief employments have been to preserve their privileges, to disperse correspondents, and to form the body of their statutes, which I will here insert.

An abstract of the statutes of the ROYAL SOCIETY.

Whatever statute shall be made or repealed, the making or repealing of it shall be voted twice, and at two several meetings of the council.

This obligation shall be subscribed by every fellow, or his election shall be void.

We, who have hereto subscribed, do promise each for himself, that we will endeavour to promote the good of the Royal Society of London, for the improvement of natural knowledge, and to pursue the ends, for which the same was founded; that we will be present at the meetings of the society, as often as conveniently we can; especially at the anniversary elections, and upon extraordinary occasions; and

that we will observe the statutes and orders of the said society: provided that whenever any of us shall signify to the president under his hand, that he desires to withdraw from the society, he shall be free from this obligation for the future. Every fellow shall pay his admission-money, and afterwards contribution towards the defraying of the charges of observations and experiments, &c.

The ordinary meetings of the Royal Society shall be held once a week, where none shall be present, besides the fellows, without the leave of the society, under the degree of a baron in one of his Majesty's three kingdoms, or of his Majesty's privy council; or unless he be an eminent foreigner, and these only without the leave of the president.

The business of their weekly meetings shall be, to order, take account, consider, and discourse of philosophical experiments and observations; to read, hear, and discourse, upon letters, reports, and other papers, containing philosophical matters; as also to view, and discourse upon the productions and rarities of nature and art; and to consider what to reduce from them, or how they may be improved for use or discovery.

The experiments shall be made at the charge of the society; two curators at least shall be appointed for the inspection of those which cannot be performed before the society; by them the bare report of matter of fact shall be stated and returned. The election of fellows shall be made by way of ballot, and their admission by a solemn declaration made by the president of their election.

The election of the council and officers shall be made once a year: eleven of the present council shall be continued by lot, for the next year, and ten new ones chosen in like manner. Out of this new council shall be elected a president, a treasurer, and two secretaries in the same way.

The president shall preside in all meetings, regulate all debates of the society and council, state and put questions, call for reports and accounts from committees, curators, and others; summon all extraordinary meetings upon urgent occasions, and see to the execution of the statutes. The vice-president shall have the same power in the absence of the president.

The treasurer, or his deputy, shall receive and keep accounts of all money due to the society, and discharge all money payable by the society. He shall pay small sums by order of the president under his hand, but those that exceed five pounds by order of the council. All bills of charges for experiments shall first be signed by the curators. The accounts of the treasurer shall be audited four times a year, by a committee of the council, and once a year, by a committee of the society.

The secretaries are to take notes of the orders, and material passages of the meetings; to take care of the books, papers, and writings of the society; to order and direct the clerks in making entries of all matters in the registers and journal-books of the society or council; to draw up such letters as shall be written in their name, which shall be approved at one of their meetings; to give notice of the candidates propounded, in order to election.

The curators by office shall have a sufficient allowance for their encouragement, which shall increase proportionably with the revenue of the society, provided that it exceed not 200*l.* a year. They shall be well skilled in philosophical and mathematical learning, well versed in observations, enquiries, and experiments of nature and art. They shall take care of the managing of all experiments and observations appointed by the society or council, and report the same, and perform such other tasks, as the society or council shall appoint; such as the examining of sciences, arts, and inventions, now in use, and the bringing in histories of natural and artificial things, &c. They shall be propounded at least a month before they are chosen: they shall be examined by the council before the election: to their election every member of the society shall be summoned: they shall at first be only elected for a year of probation, except they be of known merits: at the end of the year, they shall be either elected for perpetuity, or for a longer time of probation, or wholly rejected. The causes of ejecting a curator shall be the same with ejecting a fellow, or for fraudulent dealing or negligence in the affairs of the society, provided that he shall first receive three respective admonitions. If any curator shall be disabled by age, infirmity, or any casualty, in the service of the society, some provision shall be made for him during life, if his condition requires, according as the council shall think fit.

The clerk shall constantly attend at all meetings; he shall follow the directions of the secretaries, in registering and entering all matters that shall be appointed: he shall not communicate any thing contained in their books, to any that is not a fellow. He shall have a certain rate for what he copies, and a yearly stipend for his attendance.

The printer shall take care for the printing of such books, as shall be committed to him by order of the society or council; and therein he shall observe their directions, as to the correction of the edition, the number of copies, the form, or volume, &c.

The operators of the society, when they have any of their work under their hands, shall not undertake the work of any other

other persons, which may hinder the business of the society. They shall have salaries for their attendance.

The common seal of the society shall be kept in a chest with three locks and three different keys, by the president, treasurer, and one of the secretaries. The deeds of the society shall be passed in council, and sealed by them and the president.

The books that concern the affairs of the society, shall be the charter-book, statute-book, journal-book, letter-books, and register-books, for the entering of philosophical observations, histories, discourses, experiments, inventions.

The names of benefactors shall be honourably mentioned, in a book provided for that purpose.

In case of death, or recess of any fellow, the secretaries are to note it in the margin of the register, over-against their names.

The causes of ejection shall be contemptuous disobedience to the statutes and orders of the society, defaming or maliciously damaging the same. This shall be declared by the president at one of the meetings, and the ejection recorded.

REMARKS on the important general utility of the ROYAL SOCIETY, and the consequences of the decay thereof.

Having observed an affectation in some to treat the Royal Society and its members with very unbecoming contempt and indignity, by insinuating even that any blockhead, if he is but acquainted with a leading member, may be matriculated into this body, and have his name dignified with F. R. S.; I have pitied the understanding of such censurers; for though fools will dare to mingle with the wise, who but a fool will defame a whole body of men, because he may not be acquainted with any of the wise with whom it abounds? But,

Praising is harder much than finding fault. Rosc.

As I have always looked upon this society as one of the most useful, most important, and most honourable in the three kingdoms, and more especially so in relation to its trade and commerce, I judge it no way incompatible with this work, to give some faint idea of this institution, in order to disabuse those who may have been deceived by such who have detracted from its merits. For that certainly can be ascribed only to the want of due information, with respect to the nature and utility of this establishment.

That our uninformed readers may make a right judgment of this great and noble design, we shall attempt, in few words, a display of its high importance to the nation. Now the great purpose of this society is, to make faithful records of all the works of nature and art, which can come within their reach; that the present age and posterity may distinguish error strengthened by prescription, restore truths neglected, apply those known to more various uses, and make the way more easy to what remains unrevealed in all useful, and more particularly in all commercial science; which is the life and soul of these kingdoms. This is the compass of their design; and these great ends they have so far answered, as to have proved of unspeakable emolument to mankind in general, as well as Great-Britain in particular: and those nations of Europe that have followed their laudable example, have likewise been of great service to society, as well as to their native states and empires.

As for what belongs to the members themselves that constitute this society, they are of different religions, countries, and professions. For they did not propose to lay the foundation of an English, Scotch, Irish, Popish, or Protestant philosophy, but a philosophy of mankind. A most glorious and most benevolent attempt, and attended with the most glorious and benevolent consequences!

By their naturalizing, as it were, men of all countries they have settled a constant intelligence throughout all civilized nations, and made the Royal Society of England the general bank and free-port of the whole world, for sound knowledge and philosophy grounded on EXPERIMENTS, not on visionary hypothesis and conjecture, as it was before their happy institution. And by the admission of men of all professions, these two benefits have arose. (1.) Every art, and every way of life has been secured from receiving detriment by their joint councils. (2.) By the equal balance of all professions, no one in particular has by this society overweighed the other, or made the oracle speak their private sense only. All ranks of men have some one darling, upon which their care is fixed. If mechanics alone were to make a philosophy, they would bring it all into their shops, and force it to consist wholly of springs, wheels, and weights; if physicians, scarce any thing would be considered, besides the cure of diseases. So much is to be found in men of all conditions, of that which is called pedantry in scholars; which is an obstinate addiction to the forms of some private life, and too regardless of general things. But,

Though the society entertains men of particular professions, yet the far greater number are gentlemen, free and unconfin'd. This has prevented, in a great measure, two corruptions of learning complained of: the one, that knowledge still degenerates to consult present profit too soon; the other, that philosophers have been always masters and scholars; some

imposing, and all the other submitting, and not as equal observers without dependance. The first of these were, before the establishment of this corporation, the cause of much inconvenience. It weakened the strength of useful arts; it made an unhappy disproportion in their increase; while not the best, but the most gainful of them flourished. But above all, it diminished that very profit for which men strive: and so they were served like some foolish guards, who, while earnest in picking up small money dropt out of the prisoner's pocket, let the prisoner escape, for whom they might have got a great ransom. A second error that has been avoided by this society, is, that the seats of knowledge have since their time been LABORATORIES, as they ought to be; not only SCHOOLS, where some have taught, and all the rest SUBSCRIBED.

We shall next consider what course of enquiry they have taken, to make their labours unite for the service of mankind.

1. In regard to their expence. Of the stock, upon which their expence has been defrayed, that has arose only from among themselves, by small admission-money and contributions. Such a revenue as this can make no great fund, nor amount to any vast sum; they have been no incumbrance to the public, though the public have enjoyed all the benefit of their studies and their labours.

2. The perfection to which all manual arts have, by their means, been brought, deserves our attention. Men now generally understand, to employ those very tools which the Ancients left us, to infinite more works than formerly; they have likewise devised a great multitude of all sorts, which were before unknown. The ordinary shops of mechanics are now as full of rarities, as the cabinets of the former noblest mathematicians.

Till the sixteenth century, the art of mechanics was contained in a very narrow compass, there being nothing more known about it, than the six ordinary powers. At this time several of the most eminent mathematicians began to consider mechanics, and by the study and industry of the learned members of our Royal Society therein, and by their great example inciting other nations, mankind have received such extraordinary advantages, that none can be sensible of, but those who have diligently attended to their labours and transactions. To the art of mechanics is owing all sorts of instruments to work with; all engines of war, ships, bridges, mills, curious roofs and arches, columns, pendent galleries, and all other grand works in building of every kind. Also all clocks, watches, jacks, chariots, carts and carriages; all elegant and useful machines of every sort, are owing to the manual application of these principles: in a word, architecture, navigation, husbandry, and military affairs, owe their invention and use to this art; and, indeed, whatever hath artificial motion by air, water, wind, or cords; as all manner of musical instruments, water-works, &c. This is a science of such importance, that, without it, we could hardly eat bread, or lie dry in our beds.—Without mechanics, a general cannot go to war, nor besiege a town, or fortify a place; or could even invent a stocking-frame, the weaving-loom, and any thing else for the improvement of the manufactural arts.

The Royal Society have been happily instrumental to the advancement of all these arts, and to lay open the secrets of all trades, and the several machines used therein; whereby one trade has derived great aid and assistance from others, to the mutual benefit and advantage of all. See our articles ARTIFICERS, MECHANICS, MANUFACTURERS, and PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL.

The method which they have taken to pry deeply into natural knowledge, has been the most judicious, and this may be reduced to these following heads: the queries and directions they have given abroad; the proposals and recommendations they have made; the relations they have received; the experiments they have tried; the observations they have taken; the instruments they have invented; the theories that have been proposed; the discourses they have written or published: the repository and library; and the histories of nature and arts, and the works they have collected.

The manner of their gathering queries, and dispersing questions, is this. First, they have required some of their particular fellows to examine all treatises and descriptions, the natural and artificial productions of those countries, in which they would be informed; at the same time they have employed others to discourse with seamen, travellers, tradesmen, and merchants, who are likely to give them the best light. Out of this united intelligence from men and books, they have composed a body of questions, concerning the observable things of these places. These papers being produced in their assemblies, have been augmented or contracted, as they have in their joint judgment seen occasion. And then the fellows themselves are wont to undertake their distribution into all quarters, according as they have had the convenience or correspondence.

They have composed queries and directions, what things are necessary to be observed, in order to their making of a natural history in general; what are to be taken notice of towards a perfect history of the air, and atmosphere, and weather; what is to be observed in the production, growth, ad-

vancing, or transforming of vegetables; what particulars are requisite, for collecting a complete history of the agriculture which is used in several parts of this nation, and others.—Whereby they have been the instruments of improving husbandry in general, and transplanting exotics into their own country for the benefit of its commerce.

They have prescribed exact enquiries, and given punctual directions, for the trials of experiments of rarefaction and condensation; concerning the cause and manner of the petrification of wood; of the load-stone; of the parts of anatomy; of currents; of the ebbing and flowing of the sea; of the wonders and curiosities observable in mines: in all which they have made improvements, that have tended greatly to the advantage of these kingdoms, as I could easily shew in a surprising variety of particulars, would the limits to which I am circumscribed admit of it.

To their queries, in general, they have received good returns and satisfaction. Besides these there have been several great and profitable attempts, relating to the good of mankind, and that of the British nation, propounded to them by many public bodies and private persons, which they have again recommended to be examined apart by divers of their own number, and by other men of ability and integrity, who have accepted of their recommendations of this kind. In consequence of this conduct, they propounded the composing a catalogue of all trades, works, and manufactures, wherein men are employed, in order to the collecting each of their histories; by taking notice of all the physical receipts or secrets, the instruments, tools, and engines, the manual operations or flights, the cheats and ill practices, the goodness, badness, and different value of materials, and whatever else belongs to the operations of all trades.

The effects of these measures are too manifest throughout all their labours to need proof.

Their improvements in astronomy and navigation are not less than in those of other cardinal points of general use. They suggested the making a perfect survey and map of all the fixed stars in the zodiac, both visible to the naked eye, and discoverable by telescopes; towards the observing the apparent places of the planets with telescopes, both by sea and land: and, in order to perfect this great work, several of their fellows had their portions of the heavens allotted to them, wherein they have made an extraordinary proficiency, and their members, or those who have built upon their discoveries, have made very considerable improvements in astronomy and navigation.

They first recommended the advancing of the manufacture of tapestry; the improving of silk-making; the propagating of saffron; the melting of lead ore with pit-coal; the making iron with sea-coal; the using the dust of black-lead, instead of oil, in clocks; the making trials on the qualities of English earthen of various kinds, in order, if they could not discover so fine a substance as china, for the perfecting of the potters art: in most of which the desired improvements have been made, by the generous communication of their successful experiments, and the spirit which they first raised for those things in the nation.

They first started the propagation of potatoes; the planting of verjuice grapes in England; the chemical examination of French and English wines; the gradual observation of the growth of plants, from the first spot of life; the increasing of timber, and the planting of fruit-trees; which they have done, by spreading the plants into many parts of the nation, and by publishing free and unreserved accounts of the best ways of their cultivation.—The great effects that we have experienced in relation to these particulars, were first owing to this noble and generous body.

Nor is there any branch of the mathematical literature but what has received more extraordinary helps and advancement from this learned corporation, than from any other whatever; and how far that hath contributed to the promotion of our commercial arts and trade, see our article MATHEMATICS. But it would be endless to recount all the useful and important discoveries and improvements that this learned body have made for the benefit of the trade of these kingdoms: nothing less can do justice to them than an ample history of all their transactions; wherein we shall find that there is scarce any branch of trade, or any art or science practised in Great-Britain, but hath received some advantage from this institution. This was a part of the assistance and information which they at first gave to others, to provoke them to enquire, and to order and regulate their inquiries. To these may be added the relations of those effects of nature and art which have been communicated to them. These have been infinite in number: all which have furnished judicious readers and artists, from time to time, with admirable hints to direct their observations. Among the vast heap of relations which abound in their entry-books, it is no wonder that some should prove misrepresentations, and sometimes deceptions of the relations. But this has never long occasioned the propagation of mistakes: nay, sometimes the very erroneous accounts of others have been attended with some benefit; for as the minds of men are liable to mistake falsehoods for truths, though they are ever so circumspect, so they are often drawn by uncertain,

and sometimes erroneous reports, to stumble on truths and realities.

But if this way of general receiving all credible accounts of natural and artificial productions, shall seem to have been exposed to over-much hazard and uncertainty, that danger has been removed, by the Royal Society's reducing such matters of information into real and impartial trials, performed by their own hands. To which end it has been their usual course, when they themselves have appointed the trial, to propose one week some particular experiments, to be prosecuted the next, and to debate beforehand concerning all things that might conduce to the better carrying them on. In regard to which, it has been the custom for any of the society to urge freely what came into their thoughts or memories, either from the observations of others, or from books, or from their own experience. This is a most necessary preparation to any that resolve to make a deep search into nature, or any advancement in the useful arts.

It is impossible but they, who will only transcribe their own thoughts, and disdain to measure or strengthen them by the assistance of others, should be, in most of their apprehensions, too narrow and obscure, by setting down things for general, which are only peculiar to themselves: it cannot be avoided but they will commit many gross mistakes, and bestow much useless pains, by making themselves wilfully ignorant of what is already known, and what is concealed.

It was tried among the Ancients, to find out the pure and primitive language of the world, by breeding up a child so, that he might never hear any man speak. But what was the event of that trial? Instead of obtaining that end, the child was made absolutely dumb thereby. And the like success will that philosopher find, who shall expect that, by the keeping his mind free from the tincture of all others opinions, it will give him the original and uninfected truths of things. All knowledge is to be got the same way that a language is, by industry, use, and observation; it must be received, before it can be drawn forth. It is true, the mind of man is a glass, which is able to represent to it self all the works of nature; but it can only shew those figures which have been brought before it. I know it may be here suggested, that they who busy themselves much abroad about learning the judgments of others, cannot be unprejudiced in what they think; but it is not the knowing, but the peremptory addition to others tenets, that sours and perverts the understanding: nay, to go farther, that man who is thoroughly acquainted with all sorts of opinions, is much more unlikely to adhere obstinately to any one particular, than he whose head is only filled with thoughts that are all of one colour.

Nor can discoveries of this nature be better conducted than by the joint labours of the whole society. It were an intolerable burthen, if it were wholly cast on the experimenters themselves: for it is not only true, that those who have the best faculty of experimenting are commonly most averse to the reading books, and so it is fit that this defect should be supplied by others pains: but also it would too much tire and waste, or at least divert their spirits, before they came to the main work; whereas the task being shared amongst so great a number, becomes not much more than a business of delight. Well then, by this first comment and discourse upon the experiment, he that is to try it being present, and having so good an opportunity of comparing so many other men's conceptions with his own, and with the thing itself, must needs have his thoughts more enlarged, his judgment confirmed, his eyes opened to discern what most compendious helps may be provided, what part of it is more or less useful, and upon what side it may be best attempted: the truths which he learns this way will be his pattern, the errors will be his sea-marks, to teach him to avoid the same dangers; the very falsehoods themselves will serve to enlarge, though they do not inform his understanding.

Those to whom the conduct of the experiment is committed, being dismissed with these advantages, do, as it were, carry the eyes and imaginations of the whole company into the laboratory with them; and, after they have performed the trial, they bring all the history of its process back again to the rest. Then comes in the second great work of the assembly, which is to judge and resolve upon the matter of fact.

In this part of their employment, they used to take an exact view of the repetition of the whole course of the experiment; here they observed all the chances, and the regularities of the proceeding; what nature does willingly, what constrained; what with its own power, what by the succours of art; what in a constant road, and what with some kind of sport and extravagance; industriously marking all the various shapes into which it turns itself when it is pursued, and by how many secret passages it at last obtains its end; never giving it over 'till the whole company has been fully satisfied of the certainty or impossibility of the effect.

This critical and reiterated scrutiny of those things which are the plain objects of their eyes, must needs put out of all reasonable dispute the reality of those operations which the society shall positively determine to have succeeded. If any shall still think it a just philosophical liberty to be jealous of resting on their credit, they are in the right, and their dissentings are

always

always most thankfully received, if they be established on solid works, and not only on prejudices or suspicions. To the Royal Society it is as acceptable to be confuted as to discover, seeing, by this means, they will accomplish their main design: others are inflamed, many more labour, and so the truth is obtained between them; which may be as much promoted by the contentions of hands and eyes, as it is commonly injured by those of tongues.

The history of the experiments performed being thus secured by the society, the next matter is their conjecturing upon CAUSES, which is a matter of no less delicacy than of general importance in experimental researches; and herein such exquisite discernment is required, that they have been cautious to shun the overweening dogmatizing on causes on the one hand, and not to fall into a speculative scepticism on the other; and whatever causes they have, with such deliberation, found to hold good, they have still made them increase, to the advance of science, by further experimenting upon them: wherein though they have been, in many respects, very successful, yet this has been owing to their great caution; because they have not been over-hasty and precipitate in concluding upon the causes, before the effects have been sufficiently searched into: for although the experiment has been the task of few, yet the conjecturing and debating on its consequences has been the employment of their full and solemn assemblies. Experience in all ages has evinced that there never can be found, in the breast of any particular philosopher, as much weariness and coldness of thinking, and rigorous examination, as is needful to a solid assent, and to a lasting conclusion in regard to matters of experimental science: the wisest men are apt to deceive themselves into a certain confidence of the certainty of their knowledge.

On the other side, this doubtfulness of thoughts, this doubtfulness of concluding, which is so useful in this case, is so natural to a multitude of counsellors, that it is frequently urged against them as their inseparable imperfection. It is not in these cases that the most speedy determinations will answer the end aimed at: here many delays are required; here he that can make a solid objection, or ask a seasonable question, will do more service than he who shall rashly fix on an hundred ill-grounded resolutions.

Nor has the society been only fore-armed against this great inconvenience, they foresaw it, and, therefore, have not regarded the credit of names, but things, preserving to itself the liberty of refusing or liking, and so advancing its stock, by a sure and double increase, by adding new discoveries, and retaining ancient truths.

Another mischief, against which this body have guarded in the great matter of CAUSES, is an eternal instability and aversion from assigning of any. Though at their first establishment they were not daring in settling general conclusions, yet they laid no injunctions upon their successors not to do so, when they had obtained a sufficient store of well-grounded experiments, whereon they might safely depend. Nothing sound is to be expected from those who will fix blindly on whatever they can lay hold on; and nothing great from them who will always wander, who will never leave disputing; the one can produce nothing but unwholesome and rotten fruits, and the other, for fear of that, will endeavour to have no harvest nor autumn at all. It has been the conduct of the society, that the way to arrive at advancement in true science, a solid speculation should every day be more and more pursued; which is to be done by a long forbearing of speculation at first, 'till all materials be ripe for it. They have never affirmed any thing of the cause, 'till the trial was past; whereas to do it before, ever proved a venomous thing in the advancement of sciences; for whoever has fixed on his cause before he has experimented, can hardly avoid fitting his experiments and his observations to his prepossessioned cause, rather than the cause to the truth of the experiment itself. But this society have made little other benefit of the causes to which they have consented, than that thereby they might have a firm footing, whereon new operations might proceed; and for a continuation and variation of the enquiry, the tracing of a false cause hath often conducted to the knowledge of the true. Thus it frequently happens to philosophers as it did to Columbus, who first believed the clouds that hovered about the continent to be the firm land; but this mistake was happy, for, by sailing towards them, he was led to his great discovery: so, by sometimes prosecuting mistaken causes, with resolution of not giving over the pursuit, this learned society have been guided to the truth itself.

There is nothing of all the works of nature so inconsiderable, or so fully known, but, by being made to reflect on other things, it will contribute to enlighten them, and shew itself the more conspicuously. Such is the dependance amongst all the orders of creatures, the inanimate, the sensitive, the rational, the natural, the artificial, that the right apprehension of one of them is a good step towards the understanding of the rest: and this is the highest pitch of human reason, to follow all the links of this chain, 'till all their secrets are open to our minds, and their works advanced or imitated by our hands! Thus has this learned corporation judged, conjectured upon, and improved experiments, for the benefit of the useful arts.

But in those that have come under their care, there is one thing more about which the society has been solicitous; which is, the manner of discourse and communication among the fellows, of which, had they not been watchful, the whole spirit and vigour of their design had been destroyed, by impertinent verbosity. The effects of a superfluity of prating overwhelms most arts and professions; this society, therefore, have been rigorous in putting in execution the only remedy for this extravagance: they reject all amplifications, digressions, and swellings of style, to return to the primitive purity, when men delivered so many things in an almost equal number of words.

By these wise measures the society avoided the talkative jargon, and thereby have arrived at a wonderful scene of useful knowledge. They have likewise reduced its principal observations into one common stock, and laid them up in public registers to be nakedly communicated to posterity, or suppressed, as by repeated scrutiny and trial they shall deserve. By this, they have ever made a firm confederacy between their own labours, and the industry and ingenuity of future ages. If their predecessors, like these worthies, had continued to add, by little and little, to the store of experimental knowledge; if they had endeavoured to have been benefactors to, and not tyrants over our reasons; if our learned disputants and wranglers had communicated more of their WORKS, and less of their WIT and PEDANTRY, they would have advanced, rather than eclipsed, the human knowledge, and solid science would have been, ages before, propagated among mankind, to the proportionate increase of their felicity.

And as their purpose has always been to accumulate a mixed mass of experiments, without digesting them into any perfect model, so, to this end, they have confined them to no peculiar order of subjects; whatever they have recorded, they have not done it as complete schemes of science or opinion, but as substantial materials, wherewith the great structure of solid arts and true knowledge might be gradually, and not precipitately erected: for it is certain, that a too sudden striving, as their predecessors did, to reduce the sciences, in their beginnings, into method, beauty, and system, very much retarded their increase: for it happens to the invention of arts as to children in their younger years, in whose bodies the same applications that serve to make them straight and comely, are often found very mischievous to their ease, their strength, and their growth.

By their fair and equal way of registering the knowledge that has come before them, they have left room for their successors to augment, to approve, to contradict them at their discretion. How unspeakably beneficial to true science this conduct hath proved, may be judged, by comparing the state of science before their time with its present. What wonders would not such societies have by this time produced, if they had been begun in the times of the Greeks and Romans, or even of the schoolmen? If our ancestors, a thousand or two thousand years ago, had begun, in this manner, to have added gradually to the storehouse of true knowledge, what depth of nature could by this time have been hid from our view?

If in the first learned times of the Ancients, and all those that followed after them, down to this day, their philosophers had chiefly bestowed their pains in making plain histories of nature, and not in building up sciences, without substantial materials for the purpose, how unspeakably their successors would have been indebted to them, is much easier conceived than can possibly be described. Perhaps, indeed, the names of some particular men who compiled those systems and epitomes which they gave us, and which ever cramped true and general science, would have been less glorious than they were; though that may be doubted, for we have reason to believe that these ages would have honoured a Plato, Aristotle, Zeno, and Epicurus, as much, if not more, than now they do, if they had only set things in a way of propagating EXPERIENCES down to us as the only TRUTHS.

But this matter of reputation was only the private concernment of five or six: as for the interest of those times in general, we may venture to say, that, in all effects of true knowledge, they might have been as happy without those bodies of arts as they were with them, logic and the mathematics excepted. To instance in their physics; they were utterly useless in respect of the good of mankind; they almost confessed as much, by reserving their natural philosophy for the retirements of their wise men. What help did it ever bring to the bulk of the people? What visible benefit to any city or community in the world? Their mechanics and artificers, and husbandmen (for whom the true natural philosophy should be principally intended) were so far from being assisted by those abstruse doctrines, that scarce any one of those professions has understood Aristotle's principles of bodies, from his own time down to ours. If, therefore, those ages, instead of raising so many mere speculative, and, in many respects, very idle and whimsical opinions, had only minded the laying of a SOLID GROUND-WORK, as our Royal Society has done, for a vast pile of experiments, to have been continually augmenting

through all ages, we should have infinite more reason to revere and bless their memories than we have at present.

If such a course had been at first set on foot, philosophy would have been kept closer to MATERIAL THINGS, and would not have undergone so many eclipses as it did. If we reckon from its first setting forth in the East, we shall find, that, in so long a track of time, there have not been above 400 or 500 years, at intervals, wherein it has been in any request in the world. And if we look back on all the alterations of states for these 3000 years, we may still behold that the SCIENCES OF MEN'S BRAINS have been always subject to be far more injured by such vicissitudes, than the ARTS OF THEIR HANDS. What cause can be assigned for this? Why was learning the first thing that was constantly swept away, in all destructions of empires and foreign inundations? Why could not that have weathered out the storm, as well as most sorts of PRACTICAL ARTS AND MANUFACTURES, which, though they began as soon, or before the other, yet they have remained, through all such changes, unaltered, except for the better? The reason of this is evident: it is because philosophy was made too subtle for the conceptions of men of business, who are the great support of all communities. The philosophers themselves did, as it were, banish it out of the world, by confining it only within the shades of their walks. By this means, it was first looked upon as most USELESS, and so fit soonest to be NEGLECTED: wherefore if philosophy at first had been made more to converse with the senses, and to assist familiarly in all the occasions of human life, it would, no doubt, have been thought needful to have been preserved in turbulent, as well as ignorant times: it would have escaped the fury of the most barbarous people, as well as the arts of ploughing, gardening, cookery, making iron and steel, fishing, sailing, and many more such handicrafts have done.

But it is too late to lament this error of the Ancients, seeing it is not now to be repaired: it is enough that we gather from hence, that, by bringing philosophy down to men's sight and practice, and applying it to the numberless commercial arts of life, the Royal Society has put it into a condition of holding out against the invasions of TIME, or even BARBARISM itself; that by establishing it on a firmer foundation than the AIRY AND ENTHUSIASTICAL NOTIONS of men alone, upon all the WORKS OF NATURE, by turning it into one of the great and universal ARTS OF LIFE, of which men see there is daily need; this society have provided, that it cannot hereafter be extinguished, at the loss of a library, at the overthrowing of a language, or at the death of some few philosophers: but that men must lose their EYES and HANDS, and must leave off desiring to make their LIVES convenient or pleasant, before they can be willing to destroy such philosophy, or cease to revere and honour those who are the zealous promoters of it.

After this learned body had received the royal confirmation of their institution, the whole civil world entertained the highest esteem and veneration towards their enterprize. In imitation of this SEARCHING SPIRIT, this affection to SENSIBLE KNOWLEDGE, in England, other nations fell into the like kind of applications; and the most considerable effects of their endeavours throughout Europe have been generally recommended to the Royal Society of London by their authors, to be examined, approved, or corrected. This has brought great glory to our nation.

As France lies the nearest to England in its situation, so that country has also been the nearest to it in its zeal for the promotion of EXPERIMENTS. In that kingdom, the Royal Society has maintained a perpetual intercourse with the most eminent men of art of all conditions, and they have mutually and generously communicated their knowledge, for the benefit of each other; and if the politicians of the two empires could have always as happily accorded, and have acted with as much unanimity for the real happiness and welfare of both nations, as this kind of philosophers have really done, the world would never have been as it has, and is likely always to be, distracted with eternal wars and bloodshed. If the statesmen of both kingdoms were actuated as much by the principles of benevolence towards mankind, as their respective experimental philosophers have been: if these two nations had set the world as glorious an example of the love of peace, and the felicity of human nature, it is very likely that Christendom in general might have enjoyed an uninterrupted cessation of halcyon days; for had these two states acted in concert, upon such noble and generous principles towards each other, they would have so awed the rest of Europe, as ever to have prevented those eternal broils that are daily springing up among the various potentates. Such conduct among the men in power in both nations, would have proved a far more effectual preservative for securing the everlasting peace of Europe, than even the project recommended for that intent by a learned French abbot, in the year 1712*.

* See a tract, intitled, A Project for settling an Everlasting Peace in Europe; first proposed by HENRY IV. of France, and approved of by QUEEN ELIZABETH, and most of the then PRINCES OF EUROPE, and now discussed at large, and made practicable.—By the ABBOT ST PIERRE, of the French

Academy. This is a very curious and elaborate performance; and it would be very happy for mankind, if so great and glorious a design could ever be accomplished.

From the physicians, chirurgeons, and anatomists of France, our society has received many faithful relations of extraordinary cases; from their most judicious travellers, the fruits of their voyages; from their famous mathematicians, many advances in that branch of learning; from their chemists, the effects of their operations; and from others of their best observers, many rarities, and discourses of their fruits, silk, wine, bread, plants, salt, and such natural productions of their soil. And to instance once for all, our society was affectionately invited by the French academy of Paris to a mutual correspondence: in which invitation, there is one expression, that ought not to be passed over in silence, That they have acknowledged the ENGLISH NATION to have many advantages for the propagating of REAL PHILOSOPHY, which are wanting to all others. This confession is true: yet these advantages, unless they had been improved by the Royal Society, had been only as those that we have had for FISHING, objections and arguments of our sloth and supineness, 'till lately.—In return for these communications of the French, our British philosophers have been no ways behind them, they have made ample retaliation; and the French and all the world, are not only highly indebted to great numbers of this learned body, as might easily be shown; but they have gratitude enough to acknowledge, that they owe more to one president of this society, than to all the philosophers that ever lived taken together: I mean the immortal Sir Isaac Newton, the glory of the English nation, the eternal honour of the Royal Society of London.

From ITALY also, the Royal Society were at first earnestly invited to a mutual intelligence, by many of their most noble wits, but chiefly by the prince Leopoldo, brother to the then Great Duke of Tuscany, who was the patron, at that time, of all the inquisitive philosophers of Florence.

In GERMANY, and its neighbouring kingdoms, the Royal Society met with great veneration, and have had with them a constant intercourse of philosophical communication. For which kind of enterprizes, the temper of the German nation is admirably fitted, both in respect of their peculiar dexterity in all sorts of manual arts, their profound knowledge in mineralogy and metallurgy, as well as in chemistry in general; and also in regard of the plain and unaffected sincerity of their manners, wherein they so much resemble the English, that we seem to have derived from them the compositions of our minds, as well as to have descended from their race.

In the LOW-COUNTRIES, their interest and reputation have also been established, by the lasting friendship of their chief learned men, and at first principally of Huygens. This gentleman bestowed his pains on many parts of the speculative and practical mathematics, with wonderful assiduity, and particularly his applying the motion of pendulum clocks and watches, was an excellent invention. In the prosecution of such discoveries, he often required the aid of our Royal Society; and he received the lights of their TRIALS, and freely admitted their alterations or amendments. And this learned correspondence with him, and many others in these countries, has been continued down to this day. Even during the breach between Charles II. and the States-General, the traffic of sciences was uninterrupted, when all other commerce was stagnated.

In short, most civilized nations, and especially those that enjoy any tolerable share of trade, have now philosophical societies of this kind established in their respective countries, for the advancement of these arts in particular, which have any connexion with their commercial interests and useful sciences: and all those learned bodies at Berlin, Muscovy, Denmark, and Sweden, &c. preserve a constant correspondence with our Royal Society at London, pay the highest regard to their judgments in all philosophical and mathematical disquisitions, and always express great veneration for those peculiar members of that body, who have eminently distinguished themselves in knowledge of this nature.

But not to wander farther in particulars; it may with great truth be said, that no society ever received greater honours than our Royal Society from all foreigners, who have had a taste for any branch of solid science.—All foreigners, men of letters, the nobility, ambassadors, and foreign princes that have travelled here, have all visited the Royal Society, as one of the most illustrious institutions belonging to the whole kingdom. From hence they have returned home, with a free engagement of their assistance; the men of learning assuring it of a contribution of their labours, and the statesmen and princes of their authority and endeavours, in satisfying all philosophical queries, with which they have been plentifully furnished.

It would be an useless pomp to reckon up a catalogue of their names, especially seeing they are recorded in the registers of the society. It will not be amiss, however, to mention the visit of one prince to them, because it may afford us a profitable observation. When the duke of Brunswick and Lunenburgh was introduced into their weekly assembly, and

had subscribed his name to their statutes, there was, according to custom, one of the fellows appointed to interpret to him, what experiments were produced and examined at that meeting. But his highness told them, that it was not necessary they should put themselves to that trouble, for he well understood our language, having been induced to the study of it, out of a desire of reading our philosophical books. From whence, says bishop Spratt, there may this conclusion be made, that if ever our NATIVE TONGUE shall get any ground in Europe, it must be by augmenting its EXPERIMENTAL TREASURE. Nor is it impossible, but as the FEMININE ARTS of PLEASURE and GALLANTRY have spread some of our neighbouring languages to such a vast extent, so the ENGLISH TONGUE may also in time be more enlarged, by being the instrument of conveying to the world the MASCULINE ARTS of KNOWLEDGE.

We shall now relate what encouragement this institution has received at home in its native soil. As the original of this society met with a general approbation within ourselves, the most judicious of all professions and interests, their reverence to the first trials and intention; so our most wealthy merchants and citizens in particular, have assisted it with their presence; and thereby have added the industrious and active genius of men of traffic, to the reserved and sedentary temper of men of learning. They have contributed their labours, helped their correspondence, employed their factors abroad to obtain answers to their enquiries in foreign parts; they have laid out in all countries for observations, they have bestowed heretofore many gifts on their treasury and repository. There is one bounty chiefly that deserves applause and imitation. It is the establishment made by Sir John Cutler, for the reading on mechanics, in the place where the Royal Society shall meet. This was the first lecture that was founded of this kind, amidst the vast munificence of so many benefactors to learning in our country; and yet in a trading country, this was the most necessary of all others. For this chiefly caused the slow progress of manual arts; that the TRADES themselves have never served apprenticeships, as well as the TRADESMEN; that they have never had any MASTERS set over them, to direct and guide their works, or to vary and enlarge their operations.

Of our physicians, many of the most judicious have contributed their purses, their hands, their judgments, their writings. This they have most generously done, though they have also in London a college peculiar to their profession; which ever since its foundation, for the space of about 250 years, has given the world a succession of the most eminent physicians of Europe. In that they confine themselves to the advancement of medicine; in this they have also with great zeal and ability promoted an universal inspection into all NATURAL KNOWLEDGE.

Of our nobility and gentry, the most noble and illustrious have condescended to labour with their hands, to impart their discoveries, to propose their doubts, to assist and defray the charge of their trials. This they have done with such an universal agreement, that it is almost the only one thing, wherein the nobility of the three kingdoms have been united. This laid a good foundation for removing their prejudices towards each other.

Of our ministers of state at home, and our ambassadors abroad, most of them have been fellows of the Royal Society, and these latter especially have been wont to bestow pains in foreign courts, to collect relations and secrets of nature as well as of state.

Our great captains and commanders have enrolled their names amongst this illustrious number, and regarded these studies, which are not, as other parts of learning, to be called the studies of the gown; they as well becoming the soldier, as any other way of life. Nor have our most renowned GENERALS neglected the opportunities of philosophical enquiries, even in the midst of their greatest enterprizes, on which the fate of kingdoms has depended. They have been furnished with instruments and directions by the Royal Society, and amidst the tumults of war and government of fleets, they have found leisure to make some trials of experiments: which WORKS as much excel that of DECLAIMING, which some of the ROMAN GENERALS used in their camps, as it is better to do than to TALK well.

Of our churchmen the most distinguished, by the constant patronage and assistance they have afforded the Royal Society, have confuted the false opinions of those men, who believe that philosophers must needs be irreligious: on the contrary, the wisest and most learned among that reverend body have declared their opinions, that the greatness of the Divine Majesty is best to be worshipped, by the honouring and observing of nature, which is the universal minister of his almighty power. The searching into the works of nature, while it delights and enlarges the human understanding, and strikes us with the strongest assurance of the wisdom and power of the divine architect, in framing for us so beautiful and well-regulated a world, does at the same time convince us of his constant benevolence and goodness towards us.

Before the art of philosophical experimenting took place, scarce any thing prevailed but vain imaginations, whimsical

conjectures, presumptuous hypotheses, and wretched reveries of every sort; and these were ushered into the world, and gilded over with the respectable name of philosophy. Not such is the philosophy of the Royal Society, but as different therefrom as light from darkness, as reason from absurdity, or truth from error.

From the more obvious powers of nature, we are led by this philosophy, aided by the mathematical disquisitions, to penetrate into the powers of nature, and so to apply her divine principles to the acquisition of every branch of useful knowledge. By the principles of attraction and repulsion, we view the smallest particles of matter, endowed with a mighty power of action; whence ensues that variety of properties and phenomena, depending on the figure, size, motion, and action, of the constituent parts of bodies. Thus we discern, that by the particles of matter attracting each other, they cohere with various degrees of firmness, according to their tangibility, by a greater or lesser quantity of surface; which all variety of bodies does, with different degrees of consistence, from the hardest to the softest, from the most fixed to the most fluid bodies.—By these principles also we are shewn, that on the separation of the particles of matter beyond the sphere of attraction, there commences a repulsive power, by which they mutually repel each other, and acquire their elasticity. Hence the force of elastic fluids is accounted for on the principle of a centrifugal force, actuating the separated parts of matter.—On this part of philosophy, depends the solution of the phenomena attending the various processes of chemistry; why solid bodies dissolve in fluid menstrua, and fluid ones become hard; why heavy bodies are suspended in lighter fluids, and the opaque, by solution, rendered transparent. Hereby are pointed out the methods of analysing natural bodies, and discovering their component parts. Whence infinite discoveries in art and nature, are brought to light for the use of arts and trade.

This philosophy also leads to the interior recesses of the earth; suggests to us the manner how minerals and metallic ores are generated [see the articles MINERALS and METALS]; how sulphureous, saline, and mercurial principles, produce the variety of mineral waters; why some are hot or others cold. [See the articles PYRMONT and SPA WATERS] Why the phenomena of earthquakes, and the eruptions of volcanoes.

By the nature and laws of fluids, we see what is necessary to constitute matter a fluid substance, and how such act upon solids, and what relates to their specific gravities, the quantity and force of pressure, why things sink or swim, the nature and use of the hydrometer, the hydrostatic ballance, and the whole science of hydrostatics.

Before this philosophy became to be studied, with what uncertainty did we grope after the origin of springs and fountains? We knew nothing of the theory of aqueducts, or the reason why water rose in a pump; the suspension of mercury in the barometer was a mystery; nor could we account for the action of that simple instrument the syphon, or common crane: much less could we estimate the force of spouting fluids, or say what the action of the air must be to move the sails of a mill. And as to the theory of the tides, that was indeed vulgarly adjudged to be the effect of the moon, but, according to what steady laws it is effected, was a matter too incomprehensible for any to investigate, but a president of our Royal Society, a NEWTON, the ELDEST SON of wisdom, as the ingenious Mr Martin elegantly styles him.

Then as to the doctrine of winds, this philosophy accounts for their phenomena upon the plainest principles; and shews why some are constant, why others are periodical and alternate; and why in great latitudes, the winds are uncertain, both as to their immediate cause, as well as to the point of the compass from whence they blow.

The nature and theory of sounds, and in consequence the science of harmony, was a mystery till true philosophy brought it to light; and this was not till our Newton's days. From him we learn the true cause of sounds, and trace them from the tremulous body, through all the elastic aerial undulations, to the curious mechanism of the ear. From him we are taught why some are loud, others low; some obtuse, others acute; and some more agreeable than others. Hence all the grounds of melody and music are derived, the rationale of musical proportion, the harmonical division of lines, the structure of organs, harpsicords, and other musical instruments, are all the result of this philosophy.

If we look into the vegetable world, what amazing scenes does philosophy present to our view! The generation of plants was quite mysterious and incomprehensible, till philosophy shewed us each in its embryo pre-existent state, and convinced us that plants of every kind were completely included in the seed of each proceeding plant; and so the whole tribe were all contained and included in infinite miniature, in one original seed: this is a most wonderful discovery, and incredible to vulgar minds.

Philosophy next apprizes us of the curious and exquisite apparatus of parts, for the production of embryo-plants. The scene here lies in the flower, whose delicate attire is destined not only for beauty and fragrance, but principally for the purposes of generation. To this end serve the stamina, with

their

their apices and included farina, the stylus and matrix, with its included seed; which latter part makes all that agreeable variety of fruit, so desirable and delightful to the taste.

By our philosophical researches, we have been enabled to make great improvements in the knowledge of the make and structure of the bodies of plants and trees: we see the wondrous system of the attracting capillary vessels, which imbibe and draw up the sap, or nutritious juices of the earth, by means of the roots, and which is constantly perspired off by the leaves. Besides these, we find other vessels destined to supply the plant with air; and astonishing it is to consider, how each annual system of air and sap-vessels (which makes the annulus or ringlet of wood, by which the tree does each year increase its bulk) unravel and expand itself from the bark, in which all the bulk or lignous part of the tree, is originally contained. These and many other curious and engaging speculations in botany, we owe entirely to the invention of optical glasses, and consequently to our favourite science philosophy.

But in nothing is the excellence of philosophy so conspicuous, as in its sublime discoveries relating to the nature and structure of animal bodies, and the use of the several parts. By this science we are taught the divine laws of animal mechanism; not in the low nonsensical notion of the Cartesians, who consider animals as mere machines, devoid of life or sensation: on the contrary, true philosophy represents an animal fabric as one of the noblest works of God, in which dead matter is made to live, inert matter is rendered capable of action and motion; matter absolutely devoid of any sensitive faculty, endowed with various powers of sensibility, in different modes, and almost infinite degrees. But above all, to consider how this inanimate, inert, insentient substance, should be constructed with faculties rendering it capable of mind and thought, is the most mysterious and amazing speculation! This fixes the bounds to philosophical enquiries; hitherto can we go, but no further. Bold presuming man may as well pretend to make an animal, as to account for its powers and functions. These are all the works of infinite wisdom, whose judgments are unsearchable, and ways past finding out.

But however inscrutable the origin of an animal may be, the laws by which the several animal functions are governed, and the vital actions performed, are the proper subjects of philosophy; and though the cause, the manner, and intimate texture of most parts of animal bodies, are latent and incomprehensible, yet it is great satisfaction to think we are admitted to the knowledge of the offices, uses, and ends of the several parts, and the general œconomy of animal nature, which is one of the most agreeable and sublimer lessons of philosophy.

Thus we are shown the nature, make, and disposition of the bones, and how they give firmness and stability to the body. We are next taught the structure and use of the muscles, for giving motion and strength to the parts; though the *modus agendi* (or muscular motion) be among the number of nature's arcana. We have lately been instructed in the true use and design of that noble organ the heart, the *primum mobile* of animal nature; from hence we learn the origin and use of that wonderful system or compages of vessels we call arteries and veins for circulating the blood and animal fluids through every part of the body, for the grand and final purpose of nutrition.

Besides these, we find another wonderful apparatus of vessels or parts we call nerves, which have their origin from the brain and marrow, and are appointed by nature the instrumental cause of sensation to animals. Thus the optic branch is destined for vision, the auditory nerves for hearing, the olfactory pan for smelling, the nerves spread over the tongue and palate for tasting, and all the other nerves, minutely ramified through all the body, for the general sense of feeling. But the immediate cause of this nervous sensation, whether by means of a fine subtle fluid, called animal spirits, passing through the hollow fibrillæ of the nerves, or whether by means of a subtle æthereal spirit acting upon the solid capillamenta, or whether this great work of nature be any otherways effected, is as yet a matter concealed from human intelligence.

But whatever be the cause thereof, it is, without all doubt, derived from the noble viscus the brain: for the brain is manifestly of the glandulous kind, and the use of the glands is to secrete the various juices destined to serve the various purposes of animal life. Thus the liver secretes the bile, the pancreas, the pancreatic juice, the kidneys strain off the urine, the breasts collect the milk, the testes secrete and prepare the semen, and other glands the lymphatic liquor. By such wondrous contrivances are the operations of life carried on, and the animal functions perfected through the determined period of duration for each respective species.

In ASTRONOMY we owe every great improvement to philosophy; we hereby know the nature of circular and elliptic motion, and the laws which govern bodies moving in these or any other orbits; we hence learn all the anomalies of motion in a system of bodies, and can settle the theories for calculation. Hence the places, position, aspects, transits, occultations, eclipses, and other affections of the heavenly

bodies, become known for any given time, past, present, or to come.

In CHRONOLOGY, we are guided by the unerring hand of philosophy. We thence get a true idea of time, and the only just methods of measuring it, and dividing it in a natural and proper manner. By this means our periods and cycles, our years and days, become constant and certain; which would otherwise be vague and unsettled, and induce a general confusion in our accounts, and thereby embarrass the occurrences of life.

In NAVIGATION and GEOGRAPHY [see those articles NAVIGATION and GEOGRAPHY], great and manifold are the uses of philosophy. From thence we learn the size, dimensions, and figure of the earth; and by the discovered properties of the wonderful stone, are enabled to navigate the spacious seas, with much certainty and safety. Hence a communication and commerce with other nations and people, is opened unto us; we are hereby made, as it were, proprietors as well as inhabitants of the earth: and most of the wealth and commodities of life, are owing to this philosophical improvement of the natural properties of wind and water.

Yea, GEOMETRY itself is but the philosophy of the magnitude and dimensions of natural bodies, and their various proportions and relations to each other on that account: and no one who understands any thing of the modern Newtonian mathesis, can deny, that its very first principle (*viz.* the doctrine of fluxions) consists in the doctrine of motions, and velocity of the generating powers of bodies: and therefore, every mathematical science is, in its general nature, purely philosophical: and it would be very easy to shew, that some of the most perplexed propositions of geometry are demonstrated with the greatest ease by philosophy; and that some problems, impracticable by the geometrician, are solvable with the greatest facility and exactness by the philosopher.

In OPTICS, what variety of the most curious inventions and structures of instruments has of late flowed in upon us! Scarce a year or month can pass, not pregnant with optic discoveries and contrivances; and yet none of these inventions, none of these machines, owe their origin to any other source than philosophy. It is this science alone that discovers, not only why a microscope can assist the eye to discern small objects, or a telescope distant ones, but it enables the artist to give the best form to his glasses, and to dispose them in the best manner, in the structure of these and other instruments, to answer the ends proposed. And who can say to what limits this growing science may yet extend, under the conduct and direction of our philosophical society?

We need not say, that PERSPECTIVE, DIALLING, or the art of shadows in general is purely philosophical. These arts consist only in the various representations and optical views of nature: and to represent things under the same appearance, and respective relation which they have to each other, requires no small art or skill in philosophy. How little do we esteem a mere mechanic diallist, who knows nothing of the reason or philosophy of his art; who sets the style of a dial pointing to the pole, for no other reason, but because he cannot make it shew the hour in any other position?

PAINTING, as it consists in an exact imitation of nature, by a judicious mixture of colours, and a proper disposition of various tints, lights, shades, &c. must be pronounced a philosophic art, whose theory depends on the most refined principles of this science. A person by a thorough skill in this doctrine of light and colours, might almost make a picture *a priori*: how natural, genuine, and excellent must that portrait be, which is executed by a hand, whose every motion is directed by the dictates of presiding science!

GUNNERY, or the doctrine of projectiles, is, perhaps, the only art whose principles are purely philosophical throughout; and that yet has not received all the advantage it is capable of from this all-perfecting science. 'Till Sir Isaac Newton's time, all that was wrote on this subject was errant jargon: since him, we have had many pieces on the parabolic hypothesis, whose theories are founded in vacuo, and vacuous theories they are indeed: their authors not understanding true philosophy, could not instruct mankind in the principles of gunnery; and this is but too well known an instance of the fatal consequences that attend either the ignorance or neglect of philosophy, in the momentous affairs of life. However, something considerable has already been done, and more may be expected, to give the engineer all the advantages he can possibly have from the present mathesis and philosophy. See the article MATHEMATICS.

In PHYSIC and SURGERY, the whole field of philosophy, in its utmost extent, is concerned [see the article QUACK]: for, on the one hand, if we consider the human body as a system of solids and fluids in motion, this will require, at once a thorough knowledge in all the laws of motion, of action and re-action, of attraction and repulsion, of every mechanical principle and power, the hydrostatic and hydraulic laws of fluids, and every other principle of nature's agency in one, who has the care of such a noble machine to keep it in order, and to rectify it when out.

And what shall we more say? For the time would fail us to speak of anatomy, and of botany, and of agriculture, and of gardening,

gardening, and of every mechanical and manual art and trade also, even down to brewing and baking [see the articles BREWING and BAKING], whose professors and artists by the various improvements and precepts of philosophy, have been enabled to explain to us the animal œconomy, the nature of vegetation, the culture of plants, the improvement of land [see the article MANURE], the manufacture of goods [see the article MANUFACTURER]; and meliorating the methods of procuring and preserving our bread and our meat, our beer and our wine [see the article WINE]. And it may be shewn, that a man in every vocation, in every employment of life, has occasion enough for the assistance of this science; and that in every occupation no artist can execute and succeed so well as he that keeps close to nature, and best understands her operations, which is all we have to understand by philosophy.

If then all that has been said be true, (and who will say it is not?) if philosophy be of that importance to mankind, as has been shewn it is, we need not wonder to see the wise and knowing part of our species, in every age, have so great an opinion of such a science, and so desirous of being initiated into its mysteries. How ardent were the pursuits of Plato, Pythagoras, Socrates, Aristotle, Seneca, and other sages of antiquity, after philosophy, even in its infant state? But to see and enjoy it in its present glory and perfection, to which it has arose since the time of the ROYAL SOCIETY, what studies would have been too arduous, what voyages too dangerous, what climates too distant, for those champions of wisdom not to have undertaken, with the greatest alacrity and pleasure?

It is very remarkable, that whereas other arts and sciences give only a polish to mankind, and make them expert and ingenious, this of philosophy, in a peculiar manner, confers not only the highest delight, and the most transporting pleasure to the mind, but even happiness itself. The attribute of philosophy is felicity by general consent: thus the inspired penman—Happy is the man that findeth wisdom.—Thus Virgil too,

Fœlix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas.

An idea of such societies, peculiarly adapted to the general improvements of all the COMMERCIAL ARTS.

It would be endless to urge all that might be said upon a topic of such infinite extent, and of such infinite utility to mankind in general. If we have said enough to give Britons some idea, though a very glimmering and imperfect one, how highly they are obliged and indebted to all gentlemen, who have made any advancement in these the most excellent and the most useful of all sciences, and more particularly to that most learned and honourable society, that has produced a succession of the ablest philosophers that ever lived: if, from what has been said, we have removed the prejudice of some towards this noble institution, and strengthened the good opinion of others, this will be no small satisfaction; but that is not all that I would humbly intend: the principal motive with me, is not only to give a faint display of the merit of all who have successfully applied themselves to these studies, but to convince the public, that not only the constant preservation, but the constant increase and advancement of THE WHOLE COMMERCE OF THE THREE KINGDOMS, DEPEND UPON DULY ENCOURAGING AND HONOURING THOSE WHO EXCEL IN ANY BRANCH OF THESE SCIENCES THAT TENDS TO THE BENEFIT OF TRADE AND NAVIGATION, AND TO THE GLORY OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE: for if once these studies become neglected and unfashionable among us; if the students therein are disregarded, and meet with no honour or emolument suitable to the important nature of their applications, these inestimable sciences will be left only to the men of figure and fortune; and how few the number of these have been, when compared with those of another condition, is well enough known; and how few of these have met with any recompence suitable to their merit is equally notorious.

Indeed in the time of Sir Isaac Newton, and a few years after, the mathematical and philosophical studies were in high esteem; and, because it was the mode of the times to have some knowledge therein, they were pretty generally pursued: but the gentleman and man of business, in the general, have not so ardent a taste, or indeed leisure sufficient, so to apply themselves as to make any great proficiency in what has been well known for above this century past; and therefore such, in the general, cannot be expected to have greatly contributed to the advancement of philosophy; to do which, certainly requires uncommon talents, and greater severity of application than one gentleman among thousands will bestow; and although among the learned professions, more especially among the most learned clergy and physicians, there have arose many excellent mathematicians and philosophers, who have contributed to the improvement of sound philosophy; yet, even among these, there have been but very few that have excelled in comparison to the number who constitute these learned bodies; and those who have made any extraordinary proficiency, lived in the times when these studies were more in vogue, and in higher veneration than they seem to be at present. In short, had it not

VOL. II.

been for the Royal Society of London, (among whom there has always been, and I hope there always will be, a most laudable emulation to advance philosophy) it is greatly to be feared we should have few philosophers capable of making considerable improvements therein; except in our universities; and in those noble seminaries too, philosophy is not so generally and so zealously pursued as it was 50 years ago. And here few derive any great advantage from these studies, except the capital professors, and the ordinary tutors to young people of distinction, who sometimes, by virtue of their office, and friendships contracted with their pupils, obtain handsome preferment in the church; but philosophy now-a-days seems to be as little the road to extraordinary preferment in the church, as in the state, though it is the great support of both.

It is well enough known, and I hope it has been well remembered by those whose duty it is not to forget it, that, in the late war, we had no extraordinary choice of able engineers, while our enemies had numberless: we had very few then; and a gentleman that would have approved himself, perhaps, one of the ablest in all Europe, was long neglected; and although he was deservedly recommended to his late royal highness the prince of Orange, in order to save Bergen-op-Zoom, yet he came too late, and was, on his return, still disregarded, till the East-India company had occasion for his service: but his heart being almost broke before he was provided for suitably to his distinguished merit, it is no wonder that he did not long survive the generous preferment he at length met with. It would be no difficulty to give many more instances of gentlemen of real merit in philosophical studies, who have reason to complain of the difficulties and discouragements which they have met with: many a cobbler, I am afraid, lives more comfortably than some able mathematicians and philosophers, who, if duly countenanced by the great, might be made happily instrumental to improve and advance the commercial arts of this kingdom.

For my own part, I frequently lament the low condition of many of those gentlemen; nor can I but think there may be ways and means easily found out to provide for them, in a manner suitable to their talents, and that in such a manner, as to enable them to promote our commercial arts in particular, by the course of their studies being duly planned out and regulated by a committee of the ROYAL SOCIETY, appointed for that purpose: for I would humbly propose to make this illustrious corporation still more and more serviceable, if possible, to the state, than it has been; and this, we conceive, may be done with no less glory to themselves, than honour and emolument to the kingdom.

Nor would I only presume to suggest the manner how, under the direction, management, and controul of the Royal Society, such students in particular may become more useful to the nation than they are at present, but how this celebrated body may, in other respects also, become instrumental to a still further advancement of all arts that are subservient to the interest of our trade and navigation. And this is submitted to be done, by enabling the Royal Society to confer suitable rewards and honours on all working mechanics, artisans, and manufacturers, who shall make any capital improvements in their several branches, and the like on those who shall make any important advancement in the arts of agriculture, or any thing connected therewith, as farming, grazing, nurserying, mineralogy, metallurgy, &c.

That something of this nature is really wanting in England at present, and that to be under the conduct of so learned and so experienced a body, seems to be obvious from hence; that in Ireland we find they have long since instituted what they call the Dublin Society, which consists of a number of private gentlemen, and traders of eminence and fortune, who have by themselves, and their influence among their friends and persons of distinction, raised a fund by voluntary subscription, for the promotion of industry and labour among the poor, and for the advancement of manual arts, whereon commerce depends; and the remarkable success with which the endeavours of these gentlemen have been crowned, should have some weight, methinks, with us in England, to think of the establishment of a well constituted society for this, as well as the other laudable purposes of philosophical improvements, for the benefit also of the trading part of the kingdom; for whatever useful improvements are made in the latter, the former will be certain to reap all the benefit and advantage by them: every artificer and mechanic, every manufacturer and farmer, every tradesman and merchant, as well as every landed gentleman and nobleman, will thereby become gainers, and the nation in general the more and more prosperous and powerful: and the more especially so, if all proper measures be taken by the governing society, to propagate among the people all those discoveries that shall be made, either by new inventions, or by the improvement of the old, in the plainest and most intelligible manner, that these discoveries may not remain only in the hands of a few, but be diffused through the nation, for the common benefit of all. That England should seem to be ripe for the reception of, and the people well disposed to promote and encourage, a proper institution of this nature, may be reasonably enough inferred,

ferred, from the spontaneous conduct of several bodies of people among us at this time: I mean that laudable and numerous society who have distinguished themselves by the title of ANTIGALLICANS, and who have voluntarily and liberally raised a fund among themselves, in order to distribute as premiums, to those who shall excel in any of the mechanical or manufactural arts, for the benefit of our commerce.

In imitation of this public-spirited body of gentlemen and tradesmen, we find likewise, by repeated advertisements in our public news-papers, addressed 'TO THE PUBLIC, That some of the nobility, clergy, gentlemen, and merchants, having at heart the good of their country, as their advertisement expresses, have lately met together, in order to form a society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce in Great-Britain, by bestowing rewards, from time to time, for such productions, inventions, or improvements, as shall tend to the employing of the poor, to the increase of trade, and to the riches and honour of this kingdom, by promoting industry and emulation, &c.'

The advertisement further informs, that 'Though at present their plan is not completed, it has nevertheless been resolved to make a beginning, in manner following: that is to say, cobalt having been already discovered in some parts of this kingdom—for producing specimens, not less than ten pounds in weight, for the best in quality, to be produced on or before the 15th day of January next, with satisfactory certificates of the place where found, and reasonable assurances that it may be obtained in quantity, 30l. — To be determined that day fortnight.

For raising and curing the most and best madder for dying, in this kingdom, not less than twenty pounds in weight, of which samples to be shewn, with satisfactory certificates, on or before the 15th day of January, in the year 1756, 30l.—To be determined that day fortnight.

For the best drawings by boys and girls, under the age of fourteen years, and proof of their abilities, on or before the 15th day of January, 1755, 15l.

Likewise for the best drawings by boys and girls, between the age of fourteen and seventeen, with like proof of their abilities, on or before the same day, 15l.

By order of the subscribers,

WILLIAM SHIPLEY.

☞ Cobalt is a mineral found in mines of copper, lead, silver, tin, and iron, in Sweden, Germany, and other countries: it has likewise been found in Cornwall, and may probably be discovered in other places in this kingdom. It is a heavy substance, sometimes of a blackish, but more commonly of a bluish-grey, some of its parts inclining to a silver colour, and that with much variety, according to its mixture with metals, stoney, or other matters: it has also sometimes on its surface a red efflorescence, which is called the flowers of cobalt.

The test of cobalt is, the staining glass blue in fusion, and producing arsenic and zaffer, from which smalt is made.

Those who may find what answers the above description, and are ignorant of making an assay, are advised to apply to some skilful person, as uncautious trials with this mineral are dangerous.

Further REMARKS on the greater utility of the ROYAL SOCIETY, to arts, manufactures, and trade, than it ever has been.

It seems to be the temper of the public, at present, to cherish and encourage such a design, which makes it needful, at this juncture, to think of it in earnest. The above advertisement acquaints us, that the plan of those patriots is not yet completed; and that of the Antigallicans is but in its infancy; and therefore the public should not be wanting to avail itself of these happy dispositions in the people; and instead of dividing themselves into various independent and disjointed bodies, it would be more eligible, perhaps, to unite their subscriptions and donations, and put the same under the government of one body, duly qualified and experienced to point out what is necessary to be done for the constant advancement of the commercial arts of every kind, to distribute the premiums according to merit, and receive all intelligence and information from practical artists and traders, of the difficulties their respective arts and trades may labour under; to the end that this grand body may deliberate and determine, with their united knowledge and judgment, what measures shall be needful for them to take, from time to time, in order to aid and assist all artists to bring still to greater and greater perfection their respective arts and trades. Now, while the Royal Society of London subsists in its present splendor and dignity, with its present constitution, and under the royal sanction and authority; such an illustrious corporation, abounding with persons of the first-rate knowledge and experience in all philosophical researches, should seem to be the only fit body to undertake the chief controul and management of all those smaller bodies that appear disposed to advance the commercial arts, by the aid of their voluntary subscriptions and donations: for, without any disparagement to other worthy and judicious bodies, this society may be presumed to have all the knowledge requisite to point out the best

methods of improving the mechanical and manufactural, and all other arts whereon trade depends; and, therefore, they should seem the properest to be invested with the distribution of rewards for the encouragement of persons to excel therein.

If any private societies should unite, in order to raise sums of money among themselves, for the promotion of the like good ends, those societies may depute some of their more intelligent members to confer with the Royal Society, from time to time; by which means these benefactors will, in effect, have the distribution of their own donations as much in their own power as they would otherwise, with this difference, indeed, they would have the advantage of the advice of that learned body to aid and assist them in carrying their good intentions the more effectually into execution. Nor is it improbable, if the public were to request the Royal Society to take this trouble upon them, but the members thereof might not a little contribute with their purses, as well as with their studies and their experiments, to forward so laudable a spirit.

Another advantage that would attend this matter being invested in the Royal Society is, that the public could have no reason to be under any apprehension that any pseudo-artist, any pick-pocket pretenders to knowledge, should impose upon them; because nothing could come before them but some of their members would be thorough judges of, and they being wise experimenters themselves, and habituated to judge of these things with due circumspection and accuracy, it would be very difficult, if not next to impossible, to deceive them: a man may as well have the confidence to pass upon them lead for gold, or French coin for pure sterling money, as a false experiment for a true one; whereas among other private bodies of gentlemen, however public-spirited their intentions may be, yet, if they have not been conversant and familiar with philosophy, both in the theoretical as well as experimental part, they can neither give proper directions for trials to be made, in order to answer any capital purpose, nor can they be proper judges of many when laid before them.

Was it not needless to say more, I might further urge, that this renowned society consists of a numerous body of persons of the first distinction in the kingdom; many of whom, though it should be suggested, they may not themselves be competent judges of some things that may come before them, yet they will always be good judges how the public money is bestowed, and prevent its embezzlement or misapplication. Nor can there be the least fear of any thing of this kind, while a noble lord presides over this society, who is not less conspicuous for his profound knowledge in philosophical disquisitions, than for his distinguished honour in every relationship.

I have dwelt the longer upon this article, thinking the advancement of the commercial arts a matter of the last consequence to a commercial state. And although some might imagine, that a sum to be annually raised by voluntary subscription for this purpose, would amount to but a trifle, and not worthy the attention of the Royal Society; yet I am inclined to believe that a mighty easy way might be suggested, and no way disagreeable to the public, to raise, for a certainty, 20 or 30,000l. a year for so good a design, besides what might arise by voluntary subscriptions.—But if ever any thing of this nature should be thought of in earnest, the many wise in this kingdom will stand in no need of any intimation from me how to obtain a proper fund for so popular an occasion. The great Colbert of France, who was prime minister under Lewis XIV, used to declare, That he thought he spent his time well in reading over a hundred proposals for the advancing the wealth and commerce of France, though but one of them deserved to be encouraged. And while other nations are studiously cultivating the arts of commerce, we shall hardly think them undeserving our regard, while our whole dependence is upon them.

A BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE PROGRESS OF THE ABOVE SOCIETY for the encouragement of ARTS, MANUFACTURES and COMMERCE, instituted at London, anno MDCCLIV.

In the ANCIENT and USEFUL ARTS of AGRICULTURE and HUSBANDRY.

The Society have constantly offered honorary premiums of gold and silver medals, for planting of acorns, chefnuts, elms, firs, and Weymouth pines, in different quantities, and for fencing and preserving the same effectually, in order to raise timber, so essential for the service of the navy, and wood for domestic uses in building, &c.

The great utility of the cultivation of these trees is so obvious, and indeed has been so well conceived by our nobility and gentry, that it will be sufficient to remark, that the premiums have been claimed, from time to time, by persons of the highest distinction.

The cultivation of madder, which is a root of great use in dying, has been encouraged by the Society's premiums from the first year of their institution: it was formerly planted in England in great quantities, but of late years had been wholly discontinued, the Dutch having constantly supplied us with this valuable article; and it is computed that the imports of madder from Holland have amounted for some

some time past to 200,000 pounds *per annum*; but under the sanction of the Society the growth of this plant is revived, and very large quantities are now cultivated by sundry persons in different parts of this kingdom; one person in particular has planted 29 acres, and the premiums offered by the Society are regularly claimed; so that in a very short time we shall have no occasion to send to Holland for a vegetable, which will thrive as well in our own country.

The other articles in husbandry which have been encouraged by the Society are, the raising apiaries; for which both honorary and pecuniary premiums are offered: the quantity required for the first premium, being eighty pounds, is no less than four hundred stocks in hives or boxes, and before the Society threw out these premiums, no persons ever thought of possessing such a stock of bees—Several sorts of fodder, particularly lucerne, have been cultivated with great success; and lastly, hemp, the growth and preparation of which in this kingdom, for the making of sail-cloth and cordage, is of very considerable importance, has been greatly encouraged, and the premiums claimed in several counties.

POLITE ARTS.

The Society set out with giving premiums for drawings by boys and girls: these have since been extended to various ages, and to different kinds of drawing, too numerous to specify in this place; and honorary premiums of gold and silver medals have been established, and claimed, for drawings by young ladies, the daughters of peers and peeresses.

Through the encouragement given by the Society to this art, drawing is become a branch of education; and as a great many of our manufactures, which depend on correctness and elegance of design, are annually exported to foreign countries, the improvement of these, which will be the result of encouraging our youth to learn this art, must in time prove a national advantage.

In the year 1757, premiums were offered for modelling, which are still continued; and this art has been greatly improved amongst us, several excellent specimens in clay, and in wax, having been presented to the Society, in consequence of their premiums. The great benefits arising from the improvement of this art, to the statuary, sculptors, &c. is too well known to require a detail.

Etching and engraving, and casting in bronze, all of which have their various well-known uses, have been considerably improved under the sanction of this Society; and premiums for these articles are still offered.

In 1758, premiums were published for the encouragement of the medallist art, and the subjects proposed and executed have been, some of the most glorious events of the late war: as these medals are struck from steel dies, an extensive benefit is derived from improvements in this branch, which is not known in general; a variety of articles in hard ware, as eweers, seals, &c. of which vast quantities are exported, are likewise struck from steel dies, and therefore all improvements of them must prove beneficial to these manufactures by increasing the variety of designs or patterns.

History and landscape painting have likewise been encouraged, and also statues and basso relievos in marble; by which many young artists and some masters have been induced to produce such performances in each branch, as have done honour to the Society under whose sanction they have been produced.

Engraving on gems has been encouraged with success; and several other articles of inferior note, but which are all useful in their kind.

CHEMISTRY, MINERALOGY and DYING.

Premiums have been offered for sundry preparations and improvements in these very useful arts, and are still continued: those which have been particularly improved or established, and for which premiums have been paid, are, verdigris used by the dyers, the making of which from British materials has been so far established to the satisfaction of the Society, that the premium is discontinued. White enamel, in imitation of the Venetian, has been produced, and a manufactory established in England, in consequence of the premiums thrown out for this article.

Premiums have likewise been claimed for improvements in dying cloth and silk in grain, and for dying cotton scarlet, or crimson in grain, and to answer the purposes of the Turkey or India red. Specimens of improvements of varnish, to answer the ends of Martin's at Paris, have been brought in for the premium offered for this article, and are now under examination; and also a composition to prevent steel from taking rust: the making salt petre of pig and bar iron, sal ammoniac, a substitute for borax, &c. are subjects for which premiums are offered under this head; and it is not to be doubted but that considerable improvements will be made in every branch of these commercial arts:

MECHANICS.

The first articles in this class which the Society encouraged by premiums were improvements in wind and water mills,

models of which have been produced to the Society, and are kept in their repository.

Premiums were likewise offered for improvements in spinning-wheels, and this year a complete spinning-wheel has been produced, with which one person may spin six threads at a time, and it will prove very serviceable to several of our manufactures by saving a number of hands; but an article of much greater consequence lately brought to perfection is, the erecting of a saw-mill for sawing of planks, the model of which has lately been purchased by the Society for one hundred pounds, and is now lodged in their repository: this machine is worked by water, and carries sixteen saws: from this model various mills may be constructed for the same purpose.

Bounties have also been granted for several useful inventions and improvements in mechanics, which have from time to time been laid before the Society, particularly improvements in reels for winding silk, a new invention of a machine for planing cast iron, esteemed very curious and useful; and several other things of less consequence. To this cursory review of the Society's success in the pursuit of the first part of their plan, the encouragement of arts, I have only to add, that they have a repository consisting of a variety of models, machines, &c. some of which have been presented to the Society; others have been deposited in consequence of their premiums and bounties; and several have been purchased of the inventors or improvers for the benefit of the public; and as this repository is continually increasing, either by donations from gentlemen, or in consequence of premiums and bounties, they may in time form a collection equally useful and extensive. The second branch proposed to be encouraged by this Society is,

MANUFACTURES.

Several valuable manufactures have been improved, and some actually established, through the patronage of this Society. In the year 1755, premiums were offered for making buff leather for the use of the army; in consequence of which, bullocks hides were dressed in oil, and were found to be as good as the hides of buffaloes imported from abroad: lord Romney introduced the use of this leather among the Kentish militia, and it has since been approved by several regiments.

In 1756, the Society offered a premium for making carpets in England in imitation of those made in Turkey and Persia, which have been brought to very great perfection by Mr. Moore, in Chiswel-street, Moor-fields, who produced to the Society a carpet in many respects equal, and in some superior, to those imported from Persia and Turkey.

A manufactory of crucibles made of English materials, has been established by Mr. Leiberick in Westminster, in consequence of a premium published by the Society for that purpose.

Marble paper, which has hitherto been imported from Holland, chiefly for the use of bookfellers and stationers, has been brought to such perfection this present year, as in every respect to equal the Dutch; and the first premium offered for this article has been claimed by, and granted to, the manufacturer, who resides at Exeter.

Paper for rolling-press printing has likewise been considerably improved by means of the encouragement given by this Society: the French excel in this article, and their impressions from copper plates are more perfect than ours; but we have lately manufactured a quantity of this paper nearly equal in quality to the French.

Quilting in the loom, in imitation of Marseilles or India quilting, has been established in this country, and brought to great perfection, under the patronage of the Society, and the premium has been claimed and adjudged.

The making of flowers of point lace, after the manner of Brussels lace, having been encouraged, great improvements have been made therein, and the premiums have been claimed and granted.

Premiums have been published for making chip hats, which have thereby been considerably improved, and the premiums have been granted accordingly.

Also great encouragement has been given to the manufacturers of druggets, specimens of which were produced, so excellent in their kind, that the premium is discontinued.

These are the principal manufactures that have flourished under the sanction of the Society, and have rendered this part of their plan of equal utility with the encouragement of arts.

The encouraging of improvements in arts and manufactures, has so direct a tendency to the support of commerce, that little remains to be said on this head, which completes the plan of our laudable Society: however, several articles in

COMMERCE

Have been greatly improved by means of their premiums, especially in our colonies.

The planting of white mulberry trees, whose leaves are the proper food for silk worms, has been promoted by premiums;

ums; and great quantities of cocoons, being little balls or bags on which the inclosed silk worms have spun the silk, have been produced to the Society's correspondents in the colonies, who have paid the premiums that have been claimed for this article.

The importation of raw silk from the colonies has likewise been promoted by premiums, which are still continued.

A premium is also offered for producing wines in our American colonies, and some samples have been sent over of both red and white, which were greatly approved of in the Society; but as the time for granting this premium does not expire till 1765, we may expect further improvements, and that such wines will be produced as shall deserve the reward of one hundred pounds.

The cultivation of hemp, of the olive and cinnamon trees, of aloes, safflower, &c. in the colonies, is encouraged by suitable premiums, and various other articles to be imported from thence; amongst which the importation of pearl-ash has been effected this present year, though not in such large quantities as to merit the premium; but the proprietor has been honoured with the Society's gold medal, in consideration of what he has already done towards promoting their intentions with respect to this commodity.

And so large a field is opened in the colonies, for carrying on the laudable designs of this Society, that it is impossible to set bounds to the advantages that may one day arise, from affording this encouragement to our fellow subjects in America, especially if it be considered that our possessions in North America are so extensive, that they include almost all the different climates of the world; and there is the greatest reason to imagine that most of the spice trees, plants, and other valuable articles, which at present are peculiar to the east, may be cultivated in the west.

Having now given an account of the principal public advantages arising from the premiums and bounties granted by the Society for the encouragement of ARTS, MANUFACTURES and COMMERCE,

I have only to add, that this respectable body at present consists of between two and three thousand members, and that their proceedings are carried on with the utmost candour, propriety, and decorum, by means of a well-digested set of rules and orders, which are printed for the use of the members, the substance of which I shall endeavour to comprize in as few words as possible.

THE OFFICERS of this Society are, the president, the vice-presidents, of whom there are ten, the secretary, assistant secretary, register and collector: these are chosen annually by ballot. The election of a new member is likewise by ballot: he may be proposed by a member, at any meeting of the Society, and be balloted for at the next meeting, when, if two thirds of the members then present ballot in his favour, he is deemed a perpetual member on payment of twenty guineas, or a subscribing member on payment of any sum not less than two guineas, so long as such payment is annually continued.

Their meetings are held in their great room opposite Beaufort buildings in the Strand; and they meet every Wednesday at six in the evening precisely, from the second Wednesday in November to the last Wednesday in May; and in the intermediate time, on the first and third Wednesday in every month: these are called ordinary meetings, besides which, there are eight general meetings every year, and some occasional extraordinary meetings.

When the Society is sitting, the president or presiding member conducts the business of the evening agreeable to the book of rules and orders which lies on the table before him: the business begins with reading the minutes of the preceding meeting, which being once read, are on a second reading to be discussed if necessary, article by article, before any other subject is considered: all the minutes which are not objected to on the second reading, stand confirmed: after this the reports from committees are read, and agreed to or disapproved; unless a motion is made and seconded to postpone the reports, in order to introduce any new proposition, which cannot be received after ten o'clock: if such motion so seconded is carried by a majority of hands held up in support of it, then the new proposition is immediately considered, being first delivered at the chair in writing; and in this, and all other cases, the greatest freedom of debate is allowed, and carried on with the utmost decency and candor, every member being patiently and attentively heard without interruption, unless he departs from any order of the Society, or speaks more than once to the same question, which is not permitted, unless a gentleman has been misunderstood, and desires to explain himself: when any member speaks, he stands up and addresses himself to the gentleman in the chair, and the rest remain silent: no limitation of time is prescribed to the speaker, but few exceed ten minutes, except on very extraordinary occasions; and most gentlemen, for the satisfaction of so large an auditory, speak as audibly as possible.

There are nine standing committees, and two chairmen to each committee, besides which there are occasional committees for miscellaneous subjects: to these committees are referred

the several subjects properly falling under their consideration, as letters, to the committee of correspondence, polite arts, to the committee of polite arts, &c. and every member is of every committee, though particular gentlemen are nominated to each committee.

These are the principal regulations that have not been already noticed in the course of this narrative, which I cannot more aptly conclude than with a sincere and fervent prayer, "that this most free and independent Society, instituted FOR THE PUBLIC GOOD, may long continue to do honour to its patrons, and that its present most excellent plan with all possible improvements may be handed down to posterity, and by them be sacredly revered, and firmly upheld with the rest of those inestimable privileges, which have rendered us superior to all the nations of the earth."

RUM, a spirituous liquor, often used in punch: it is made in the West-Indies, of sugar-canes, and is, in the general, of a stronger body than brandy, i. e. it contains a larger quantity of oil, and less phlegm and salt: its oil is less attenuated and subtilized, whereby its volatile salts are more embarrassed and sheathed up. Neither is its oil reduced to such minute and subtle particles, either because the canes were less fermented with the water, or because the oil and salt of this cane are more viscid and gross, than those of the molasses drawn from the sugar, which has undergone the sundry necessary operations, and has been thoroughly fermented afterwards. For although all thoroughly fermented liquors afford much more spirit, in proportion to their body and kind, than the less fermented; yet it is certain, that the sundry operations sugar undergoes in the making, may, and does break, attenuate, separate, and divide the principles in the molasses (though the grossest of the sugar) more than these same principles existing in the crude cane, where the firm union of the gross oil and salt makes the unprepared sugar of almost a loathsome luscious taste. And also all liquors, thoroughly fermented, have, during the fermentation, a free access and communication with the external air; whereby the intestine motion is promoted, and the smallest and most separable parts are too much attenuated and reduced to a subtle aura, which exhales to the depauperating of the liquor of much of its finest parts; hence it yields less (though a subtle) spirit.

That rum which is of a brownish, transparent colour, of a smooth, oily, grateful taste, of a strong body and consistence, of a good age, and well kept, is the best. That of a clear, limpid colour, and hot pungent taste, is either too new, or dashed with spirits.

To such palates and stomachs as can bear it, rum is certainly preferable to brandy, either for a dram or punch, in many cases. Brandy (e. gr.) is diuretic, because it stimulates the vessels, and rarefies the blood, whereby only its finer and more serous parts are strained off by the kidneys; but rum not only stimulates by its salts, but lubricates by its more and grosser oil, and thereby expands and dilates the renal lateral vessels; whereby not only the thinner, but also the grosser and more excrementitious parts of the blood, are allowed a ready passage through the renal strainers, and get off by the ureters.

Again, when the vessels are sluggish, and the blood fizy, brandy promotes perspiration in a gouty habit, and forces off part of the salts by urine, as it at the same time carries much essential vegetable salt into the blood; but rum softens and dilates the vessels more; hence a freer perspiration both of salts and serosities, as well as a discharge by urine; and at the same time it conveys less salt into the blood, and its more and gross oil sheaths the remaining acrimony of the blood; which answers two valuable intentions. 1. It thereby dilates the corrugated capillary vessels, wherein the gouty matter was stopped and lodged, and the relaxation of the vessels gives nature an opportunity to pour in thinner fluids upon these gritty lodgments and sharp matter, whereby they are diluted, dissolved, thrust forward, and expelled by the excretory ducts of the skin. 2. It blunts the edges of the pointed pricking salts, and obtunds the reigning acrimony, makes it less uneasy to the patient, 'till the elastic vessels can attenuate, separate, and dissolve it, so as to be either perspired or thrown back into the blood, 'till it arrive at and be strained off by the kidneys.

In nephritic pains and gravelly cases, where the vessels are always much contracted, and sometimes inflamed, the use of rum is preferable to that of brandy, because it relaxes the contraction more, increases the stream of urine, and makes way for the obstructed matter to pass off, or be forced and washed out of the channels. Bilious constitutions can bear the use of rum, diluted with water, better than brandy, because their solids being elastic and contracted, and their vessels narrow, and fluids acrimonious; for whatever blunts the acrimony of their juices, and softens and dilates their fibres and vessels more, must be beneficial. On the contrary, whatever adds to the stimulation and contraction of their solids, and the sharpness and saltiness of their fluids, must unavoidably be hurtful. All such as have elastic fibres, contracted vessels, sharp and thin juices, lean and slender bodies, if they will be meddling with drams (which, if they prefer health and long life

life to taste and luxury, they should use but as medicines, i. e. from necessity, not choice or pleasure) should prefer rum. Hard drinkers, who have broken their constitutions by frequent debauches, will have a moderate dram, that will not only raise, but preserve the tone of the stomach, maintain and strengthen good digestion, and keep them from being too much damped: here rum should take place of brandy; not only because it fills and invigorates the nervous tubes with less volatile and more durable spirits, but, at the same time, its oil blunts the points of the salts, which other liquors have left too plentiful in the blood.

In chronical asthmas, coughs, and stuffing of the lungs, if any moderate dram may be allowed, rum is the best, because its spirits are less volatile, its oil more and grosser, to smooth the stiff and contracted vessels, expand their sides, make way for spitting, and, by its solid particles, clearing the tubes of some parts of their load.

In choleric disorders, from acrimony, pricking, paining and tearing the nervous threads, rum offers fairer for relief than brandy, because it is more oily, smooth, and softening. It is also more suitable to old age, because, at the same time it stimulates, it also lubricates and dilates the vessels, whereby they keep longer open and passable, the straitening, shutting up, and coalescence of which, is the only cause of old age and natural death.

In recent great colds, without a fever, rum is more serviceable than brandy, provokes both perspiration and urine more powerfully, as it sheathes the salts, makes their stimulus less sensible, and contracts the vessels less, nay, its sulphur smooths and dilates them more.

When the person is very hot and thirsty, a dram of rum is much better to drink than brandy, before water, small beer, or milk; for this keeps the vessels more pliable, dilated, and lax, maintains a freer course for the fluids to pass without lett or stoppage: for the mischief done by water, or such small liquors, in this case, is, being drank cold, they suddenly contract the vessels, so as the liquids cannot pass; their finest and thinnest parts are discharged through the interstices, or forced along the tubes, whilst the more gross are obstructed, fixed, and wedged in; hence obstructions, stagnations, inflammations, ulcerations, or mortifications, or schirrhous's, and carcinomatous tumours of some viscera of the lower belly.

But for these reasons, phlegmatic and corpulent people must still allow brandy the preference, because it stimulates more, and raises a greater contraction; for it abounds more with salts, and its oil is more subtle, exists in smaller particles in the liquor; and their vessels and fibres are so soaked in insipid humidities, and relaxed with oil, that they want no lubrication, nor the salts in their blood any absorbent. Cachectic, hydropic, lethargic, and paralytic persons, must also chuse brandy on the same account; and so must those who have furred-up vessels and foul glands (which raise scrophulous knots, œdematous swellings, whether fixed or shifting) for the spirits of brandy being more fine and subtle, they rarefy the blood, and stimulate the vessels more. In excessive hot weather, when the fibres are much relaxed, and perspiration, or sweat, profuse, brandy must have the precedency, because it stimulates and contracts more, and rarefies the thick and sily matter better, raises a brisker motion in all the juices; though it must be owned, that these its good effects are but of short standing.

In a moist, foggy, or marshy air, where the moisture hangs upon the skin, and straitens or stops the mouths of its excretory ducts, and diminishes perspiration, or where the spring of the air is weakened or broke, so that it neither expands itself sufficiently in our lungs, food, nor blood, but renders the juices both ways sily, a dram of brandy is better than rum.

But in an infected air rum is before brandy, because it leaves more oil in the mouth and throat, which entangles and imbibes the infectious effluvia, or miasmata, floating about and hanging in the atmosphere, and sucked in together with the air; and in this case, the greatest preservative is to spit out all our spittle whilst we are in that infected air.

Rum being a spirit procured from the fermented scummings, waste, and refuse matters of a primary sugar-house, that immediately works the sugar from the cane, differs from a sugar spirit, as containing more of the natural flavour, or essential oil of the sugar-cane, a deal of the raw juice, and parts of the cane itself, being often fermented in the liquor, or solution, whereof the rum is prepared.

The unctuous flavour of rum is often supposed to proceed from the large quantity of fat used in boiling the sugar; which fat indeed, if coarse, will commonly give a disagreeable, nidorous, or oily flavour to a spirit, as I have found by experience; but rum has its specific and natural flavour from the cane.

When a sufficient stock of these refuse materials is procured, they are fermented in the common method, though always slowly at the beginning of the season of making rum in the islands, for want of yeast, or other fermenting matter, to set the liquor at work; but, by degrees, they procure a sufficient quantity of the ferment, which spontaneously rises as a head in the operation: and thus they come, in a little time, to ferment and produce their rum with great expedition.

VOL. II.

When the wash is fully fermented, or to a due degree of acidity, the distillation is carried on in the common way, and the spirit made up proof, though sometimes advanced nearer to alcohol, or the state of double proof; in which case they call it double-distilled rum.

It may be otherwise rectified to advantage, as it is commonly first drawn with a full dose of high-flavoured oil in it, which requires to lie, or digest for a long time in the spirit, before the whole becomes soft and fit for use; whereas, were it to be well rectified, it would grow mellow much sooner, and have a much less potent flavour, which sometimes renders it disagreeable.

The best state to keep it in, both for exportation and otherwise, is, doubtless, that of alcohol, unless when the gross oil is required in it, for the sake of mixing and covering; and, by duly throwing out its oil, it may be brought nearly to the flavour of a fine sugar-spirit, or arrac, as a very small proportion of it, used in its natural state, to a fine tasteless spirit, will give it a flavour bordering very near upon that admired in arrac.

This spirit is usually very much adulterated in England, with one or other of the cheaper sorts; even a rectified malt-spirit, if used in moderation, much less a molasses, or sugar-spirit, being not easily distinguishable therein.

The ways of trying its goodness are the same with those mentioned under brandy [see BRANDY and DISTILLATION.] In this, and most other respects, it ought to be considered as a brandy of a particular species; so that what is delivered in regard to brandy will be also applicable to rums: for though the sugar-cane differs from the vine, yet the sweet saccharine substance whereto both the juice of grapes and the juice of the sugar-cane are, by the same art, reducible, fits them to afford wines and brandies that shall not be readily found to differ; which is a pregnant hint, that may prove of unspeakable advantage to the British sugar colonies. See the articles SUGAR, SUGAR COLONIES. See also the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE at the end of this letter R.

RUSSIA, or MUSCOVY, is bounded on the north by the Northern Ocean; on the east by Great and Chinese Tartary, and part of the Japonic Sea; on the south by the Calmuc and Cuban Tartary, Persia, Georgia, and the Caspian and Euxine Sea; and on the west by Poland and Sweden. Its extent from east to west, that is, from the confines of Sweden to those of China, is computed, by some geographers, to be 1500 leagues; and from north to south, that is, from the Frozen Sea to the Euxine, 600; though others differ in their accounts: the whole country, however, lies between the 46th and 70th degree of north latitude, and in some parts eastward reaches even beyond it, and between the 30th and 160th of east longitude.

Russia may be divided into Western and Eastern, Tartarian and Laponic, and the late conquests in Asia.

- I. In the WESTERN MUSCOVY are the following provinces:
 1. PLESKOW, or PSKOW. 2. GREAT NOVOGOROD. 3. TWERA. 4. RZEVA, or RESCHOW. 5. BIELA, or BIELSKI. 6. SOMOLENSKO. 7. SEVERIA. 8. CZERNICHOW. 9. VORSTIN. 10. REZAN. 11. BIELGOROD. 12. MORDOA, &c. 13. NISINOVGOROD, or LOWER or LESSER NOVOGOROD. 14. VOLODIMER. 15. SULDAL. 16. MOSCOW. 17. ROSTOW. 18. YERO. SLAWLA. 19. BILIJESORA, or BELOZERO. 20. VOLOGDA. 21. CARGAPOL, OWEGA, &c. 22. DWINA.

- II. In the EASTERN are the provinces of,
 1. MEZON. 2. JUGORA, or INGORSKI. 3. CANDORA and TEESCA. 4. PETZORO, or BORANDAI. 5. The country of the VOGULISI. 6. PERMIA. 7. OUSTIONG. 8. ZIRANIA; and, 9. VIATKA, or VIADSKAI.

- III. In the MUSCOVIAN TARTARY are those of,
 1. CASAN, or CAZAN. 2. BULGARA. 3. BASKIRIA. 4. ASTRACAN. 5. SIBERIA; and, 6. SAMOIEDA.

- IV. In the RUSSIAN LAPLAND.
 1. MURESMAROI, or MARITIME LEPORIA. 2. TERSKOI LEPORIA. 3. MORESKI LEPORIA; and, 4. NOVA ZEMBLA.

We shall not, in so large a territory, enter into a minute description of these distinct provinces, many of which afford little trade, but give the best general state of this trade that we can.

As the Czarina is now mistress of a vast extended dominion, there must necessarily be a great variety in the trade of so many countries; and yet, as they are all under the management of one sovereign, so they are, by an extraordinary conduct, brought at last to run, as it were, in one general channel; which was the effect of the exquisite conduct of the late Czar Peter, emperor of Russia.

The Muscovite dominions are something wonderful in their situation, and which qualifies them for commerce with almost all the world, in a manner which no empire but this can boast of.

They have a communication with four parts of the world, by seas so remote from one another, that nothing can be shewn like it in the whole globe; and, in the observing this, we shall be able with the greater ease to describe the prodigious commerce they now carry on.

1. They have the port of Archangel, in the White Sea, as it is called by some, the Frozen Sea by others; and by this they have a navigation to the northern ocean, can fit out ships to Spitzbergen (Greenland) and, by the north cape, into the German and Caledonian Oceans, and may send ships to any part of America, passing by the north of Scotland and Ireland, with as great ease as the Dutch, who go north about, do to the same countries. It is true, the Muscovites have not yet meddled with those remote branches of trade, but it may not be long ere they do.

2. They have the port of Petersburg, in the gulph of Finland; by which they have opened a door into the Baltic Sea, and, by that sea, into the British Channel, and so with all the rest of the world. They have also the intire possession of Wiborg, Narva, Revel, and Riga, four of the best ports for trade in that part of the Baltic Sea.

3. They have the port of Astracan, in the Caspian Sea, by which they have a navigation to the coast of Georgia and Persia, and where they are likely one day to open effectually the most important trade in that part of the world, notwithstanding they met with some obstruction, in relation to the Persian raw-silk trade from Geylan, on the side of Georgia: and to that purpose the late Czar fortified Terki, on the utmost western bound of Circassia; and the late Czarina built a fort and royal city there, which they boast will, in time, be equal to that of Petersburg in the gulph of Finland.

4. They have three small forts on the side of the Black Sea, which, when they took Asoph from the Turks, they slighted, as having resolved to make Asoph the seat of a naval power, equal to that of the Turks, and so have obliged the Grand Seignior to allow them a free passage out of the Palus Meotis, and the Black Sea, by Constantinople, into the Mediterranean, which would have been a door of trade worth a kingdom itself; but that great design miscarried afterwards, by the loss of Asoph*, which they were obliged to restore to the Grand Seignior, by that fatal treaty made on the banks of the river Pruth, in Moldavia; and, since that, they are glad to make use of these smaller ports in the Black Sea; but they have not yet appeared to be of much service, either in matters of trade or war, having no harbours to seaward capable of receiving any ships of burthen, nor any navigable river by which to carry on their commerce by land, the country next adjoining being mostly desert, and incapable of trade: yet it is said the late Czar, had he lived, would have settled a communication that way by caravans, and so have had a trade to Terki on the Caspian Sea.

* This town standing on the frontiers of Russia, against Turkey, has been several times taken and retaken of late years; but on the last peace, concluded in the year 1739, between those powers, it was agreed that the fortifications should be demolished, and the town remain subject to Russia.

These are the four seas into which the great extent of their dominions gives them an entrance; which yet are so exceedingly distant and remote in their situation, as to have no practicable communication by sea with one another: but the situation of Muscovy is such, that, by the great river Wolga, which runs from north to south through the heart of their dominions, they may one day form a communication for trade between all these parts, being able, with the help of two small canals, which his Czarish Majesty had begun before his death, to join the waters of the lake Onega with the stream of the Wolga, and so in effect cause the waters of the Caspian, the Baltic, and the White Sea, to meet one with another. In the like manner, by a canal at Varonitzza, he had brought the navigation of the rivers Wolga and the Don, or Tanais, together, and so joined the waters of the Caspian with those of the Euxine Sea; though by the dismantling of Asoph, as above, that communication is not rendered near so usefult to this country as it otherwise might have been.

Having these advantages for extending their commerce by such a strange kind of river-navigation, we will proceed to enquire into the funds of trade which are to be found in this vast dominion. And here we may observe, that though the industry of the people of Muscovy is really scandalous (at least it was so before their prince fired their minds with expectations of getting great things from trade) and that their manufactures were very few, yet now no single country (take it complexly) has so many, and such valuable things for exportation, as the Muscovite dominions, and those both of land produce and manufacture, and which, consequently, bring a prodigious return to the country in money; but 'till the late Czar settled his court at Petersburg, opening a trade to the Baltic Sea, and bringing his subjects to cloath and dress after the German and French manner, they had no great consumption of British or French manufactures among them, and, consequently, no great commerce this way; but now their exports and imports are exceedingly increased, and are daily increasing; and certain it is, that the ballance of trade is greatly to the advantage of the Russians, with most countries with which they have dealings.

The produce of the European part of this country is as follows.

From
Russia
and
north
parts of
Mus-
covy,

Tar in a prodigious quantity.
Honey and bees-wax.
Russia-leather, deer, bear, and elk-skins.
Pot-ashes, timber and plank, iron, and some copper, the last from Kexholm, or South Finland.
Hemp and flax.
Linen and linen-yarn.
Furrs, such as sable, black fox, ermin, rain-deer, martens.
Raw silk, by the Wolga.
Persian, Indian, and China goods, the last by land-carriage.

From Rus-
sia by the
port of Wi-
borg, con-
quered from
Sweden,

Tar,
Deals,
Fir-timber,
Masts,
Iron, and also copper.

From
Livonia,
Eastho-
nia, and
Narva,
new con-
quests,
and from
Lower
Russia,

Hemp, flax, linseed the best in Europe.
Corn, sturgeon, and caviar.
Pitch and tar.
Linen-yarn.
Linen cloth of several sorts.
Russia linen, properly so called.
Diaper, a late manufacture.
Sail-cloth, the like, } both improving.
Canvas and duck, }
Pot-ashes.

From
Siberia,

Rich furrs, as sables, ermins, black fox, white bear.
Beaver, &c. as above.

From Circassia, — Tobacco, which is very much increased.

All these are extraordinary exportations, and the more, because exported in an extraordinary quantity: but their manufactures are but small in proportion to these, except their linen, linen-yarn, and Russia leather; and these, it must be acknowledged, are articles of very great extent, and have been much increasing for many years past. Of these merchandizes, the tar is, as before observed, a prodigious article. The late Czar was, as the Czarina now is, the sole merchant, and it is principally exported at Archangel, and Wiborg.

The Czarina is likewise said to be the only merchant in the tobacco of Circassia. Tobacco, it seems, was once prohibited to the Muscovites, that is to say, to smoke; the reason was, that it affected their heads, and made them drunk: and they say of a Russian, that if he is drunk, he becomes mad, is a mere ruffian; and the quarrels and murders which frequently happened among them were such, occasioned chiefly by this tobacco, that it obliged the late Czar to prohibit the use of it: but, as the people were gradually brought under a new discipline, they became more civilized, and under government; and upon this the Czar allowed them the use of tobacco again; which, as it grows in exceeding plenty, and very good, in their own dominions, they are supplied from thence wholly, and the government makes a very great revenue from it. The country of Circassia they say yields above 60 or 70,000 hogheads of tobacco yearly, and they vend no inconsiderable quantity of it in the Baltic, and in Sweden and Poland, to the great detriment of the English and Dutch merchants, who had all that trade before.

Between the port of Astracan and the coast of Persia, there is a very large commerce carried on.

From Siberia, the Czarina's share only of the sable and rich furrs taken there, is said to amount to above 150,000l. sterling a year, and the duty paid upon the rest to as much more; by which some guess may be made of the value of these fine furrs, the whole trade of that kind being in her dominions.

The trade in their new conquests was very great before, and is not lessened since their falling into the hands of the Russians. The hemp, flax, and other naval stores shipped off every year at Riga, Revel, Narva, Wiborg, and Petersburg, are so exceeding great, that the Dutch only are said to load 300 ships a year at Petersburg, and near as many at Wiborg.

The tar being a monopoly in the Czarina's own hands, brings in about 250,000l. sterling profit to her exchequer, occasioned chiefly for the following reasons:

1. Because of the excessive tyranny of the nobility and boyars, the labour of the people is of no great value; and their masters being obliged to yield the Czarina so many barrels of tar, according to the lands and estates they hold, they again oblige their vassals to produce it to them; so that it really costs next to nothing either to the Czarina or to the nobility, but the expence and consumption of an infinite quantity of timber in the country; which, on the other hand also, is of no value, the woods being of such a boundless extent, that, if we give credit to some travellers, there is one wood, or forest, equal to the whole isle of Great-Britain.

2. Because of the great quantity produced; for though it is extremely cheap, yet the quantity supplied is so great, that it makes the revenue from it amount prodigiously: and some think it rises to as much more as we have mentioned.

The late Czar erected two or three foreign trades out of the way of all Europe besides, and in which none could disturb him, nor does any one yet pretend to it: the one is, a trade by caravans from China. This trade he long strove to accomplish; and because the distance is prodigious great, and the way most of it desolate and dangerous, he erected stages, at proper distances, on the way, so that travellers might subsist at a reasonable expence, and likewise be secure from the insults of the Tartars, who are naturally thieves, and who rove about, and surround passengers, and sometimes plunder them of all they have, and murder them also. Nay, in some places he built cities, as Janisea, on the river Janisea; Albassin, or Albaza, on the Yamour; Schelinga, on the river Schelinga; Argun, on the river Argun; and the like.

If due notice is here given of dangers to travellers on these roads, the governors of the several stages, or cities, are always ready to send convoys to escort the merchants from one stage to another; and when they hear of any caravans of merchants coming, and having notice of any hordes of Tartars on the road to attack them, they send detachments of their soldiers to meet their caravans, and conduct them safe: and this they are obliged to do, without taking or demanding any gratuities or rewards, much less obliging the merchants to pay any tolls or duties on their goods.

These caravans, or companies of merchants, sometimes consist of several hundred horses and camels, and bring a very large quantity of rich goods; and would the Chinese emperor have done his part towards opening a trade with Europe that way, as the Czar would have done, it might have been made easier to them both, and infinitely more considerable. For example:

There are several rivers capable of being made navigable, whose course running from west to east, have their beginnings in the Muscovite dominions; and, were due methods taken to clear these rivers of the obstructions which prevent their navigation, and which are rather accidental than natural, half the journey might be turned into a voyage, and be performed by water.

There are likewise other rivers, more southward, which rise on the frontiers of China; some take their course directly into China, and passing by or through some of the greatest trading cities and provinces in that country, empty themselves into the Chinese ocean.

Other rivers rising on the same frontiers, and not very remote from the first, take a quite contrary course, and empty themselves into the Caspian sea. So that were these mighty monarchs agreed to promote reciprocally the good of each other's subjects, a small expence to settle caravans, or land-carriages, between the said rivers, for the distance, perhaps, of 12 or 20 days journey, would facilitate the commerce of those nations that way, and goods might come even from Pekin in China to Petersburg itself, almost all the way by water.

We shall but just mention with what ease these two powerful monarchs, if they concurred in their endeavours, might bring the world to a certainty about the continuity of the northernmost land of Asia with that of America, and the possibility or impossibility of a passage by the north-east seas to China and Japan; whether Nova Zembla be an island or a continent; whether there be any such thing as passing from the mouth of the river Oby, and the river Janisea, into the ocean, or whether those rivers empty themselves into the straits called Waygat's, and whether that strait is a bay or a vare, and opens eastward into the ocean; whether the river Tartarus opens into the said Indian Ocean, or whether its stream is continually diving under a surface of ice; whether the north east part of Grand Tartary, and the mountains of which our geographers say they know not how far they extend, run out beyond the pole, or whether they are broken off by the ocean, and leave room to ships to steer to the south-east, and to the land of Jesso and Japan.

We do but just mention these things, however instructing they might be, because the emperor of China, not addicted to improve his people by commerce or correspondence with Europe in this shape, is no way inclined to make discoveries, or, perhaps, apprized of the advantages it might be to his country if he did.

But we must not omit, that the late Czar of Muscovy, a very enterprising and politic prince, had encouraged several of his own people to travel by land, and trace the northern coast, in order to discover what they could of these things; but either for want of constancy to endure the extremity of the weather, or for want of judgment, they have, till very lately, done nothing worthy of the design, nor afforded any accounts that have been satisfactory: not that the thing was impracticable, for as they never came to any country but what was inhabited, it is hard to conceive that it should be impossible for some people to travel through a country where others could dwell; or, which is still more, that they could not pass through a country in the summer, where others could subsist the whole winter. We make no doubt, but if the late Czar had lived, and accomplished his other great enterprises for the advancement of the commerce of his people, he would have found some methods to make a commerce with

China more practicable by sea or by land, by caravan, or by river-navigation, than it is at present.

Whether the journey to China may be shortened by the convenience of water-carriage, it may be considered, that the way which travellers from Moscow to China now take, is this: they go north to Jerslow upon the Wolga, 200 miles; then to Wolagda, on the Russian Dwina, 188 miles farther, the same river, which runs to Archangel; then north to the latitude of the arctic circle (to avoid a great desert of 800 miles, which lies in the way) then south-east to Tobolski, on the river Irtysh, which some make in 54, but Sanson places it in 66, degrees of north latitude; and this is 3000 miles from Moscow, if we may believe the journal of the Holstein ambassador, Ibrand of Gluckstadt, who travelled as minister of the Czar of Muscovy, from Moscow to Pekin.

From hence they cross the river Oby, and travel east to the river Janisea, which by the account of Ibrand held them 67 days.

All this might be traversed another way, thus: from Moscow to Casan, all the way down the Occa and Wolga, about 300 miles; at Casan they enter the river Kama, by the stream of which, large enough for vessels of 80 tons, they can go up to Perma Mielki, within three days journey of Irtysh: so that by travelling only three days by land, all the journey of 2200 miles to Jobolski may be performed by water.

Let it be supposed, that from Jobolski they go by water till they enter the Oby, which has been done, and is practicable every day: from the banks of the Oby to the Janisea, and from the Janisea to the great lake of Baikala, is the 12 or 20 days journey we speak of. Out of this lake issues the great river Angara, or Argun, by some called Yamour, according to Sanson, or Jamor, or Amour, according to others; which running with a vast channel, empties itself, after a course of 2720 miles, into the great Tartarian ocean, or sea of China.

This is the river which the Chinese ought to take care of, and which, perhaps, may be as easily opened for navigation as the Wolga, whose course is as long, and channel as large: and, as it lies in a latitude not to be incumbered with ice, it may probably be an easy passage into the Chinese sea, and answer as well, perhaps, to the Russians, as a north-east passage by sea would to the rest of the world.

Some of the modern map-makers, though their authority is much to be questioned, bring the head of the river Irtysh farther south, and make its course much longer than the Ancients; they lay the stream parallel with the Oby, and that with Janisea, and their spring-heads not far asunder; so that according to those maps, from Casan on the Wolga, it cannot be above six days journey to the Irtysh, without going north up the Cama at all, and then they may pass down the stream of Irtysh, which lies north-east by east, till they come into the Oby, and then to the land by the river or the lake Janisea; and from thence in 20 days journey, as above, they reach the lake Baikala, whence they go by the Angara. But these differences can only be adjusted by the Russian geographers, and these routes settled to China, so as to make it easy for the carriage of merchandizes. But, as the Chinese have not concurred herein, there lie difficulties, which, perhaps, may never be removed except by force.

But the late Czar, who had this trade to China much at heart, had his eye another way; and though even this, according to one method, wanted the concurrence of the Chinese government, yet if that failed, there was another method which would not want it at all, which was thus:

The navigation from Moscow to the Caspian Sea is known, and is all within themselves; the Wolga enters the Caspian Sea about the latitude of 46 degrees on the north side of the said sea. On the east, almost in the same latitude, is a great river called Khun or Sihun; others call it Oxus or Oxus, which enters itself into the same sea, and is navigable many hundred miles, or may be so: it rises out of the same mountains, and not far from the head of the great river Ganges. From the head of this river, or so far as it may be supposed to be made navigable, they travel now in 26 days to the frontiers of China, where they meet with the river Coccei, or the Yellow river, by which the Chinese do already correspond with some of the Tartars of Karakathay, and of the kingdom of Tibet, which some call the Independent Tartary.

This river Coccei is, therefore, navigable already, even on this side of the Chinese dominions; and when it enters China, it passes through the heart of the country, between Pekin and Nanquin, and receives into it the river that runs through Pekin, or the Royal Canal, which the emperor began to make for that navigation, and then falls into the sea of China in the latitude of 33.

There is yet another way to be proposed for this passage to China, and that is passing out of the Caspian Sea up the said river Gyhun, to Bokara. This is a city of great trade already, and to which great quantities of spices are brought from Surat up to Lahor upon the river Indus, of which we shall speak separately.

From Bokara they keep still the stream of the river Gyhun, about 300 miles; then overland to Cachemire, within three days

days of the great river Indus, which they cross over; and keeping under the mountains, and in the Great Mogul's country, they come to Syrmagar on the river Ganges, all which is a journey of about 18 days. Here they embark, and sail down the stream to Minapour, where they go up another river for about ten days more; then landing, they travel by land to Barantola, the capital city of Lassebontan. Here, or within a very little of this place, they meet with the great river Kiam or Kaim, which runs directly into China, and upon which they pass above 460 miles to Nanquin in the heart of China.

So that in all this passage there is not above 28 days journey by land, all the rest being upon very considerable rivers, well known to those who have been in these countries.

By any of these methods it is evident, that a much easier way of trading to China might be settled, than is now carried on by caravans, which are four or five months upon the roads; and if they perform it, it is with great fatigue as well as great hazard: whereas the methods of carriage being settled as above described, the trade should seem easy to be carried on, by giving commission to captains for buying and consigning to other factors for sale, as is the practice of other countries nearer home.

But there is yet an easier way for this commerce with China, than what has been mentioned, and which we are told the late Czar had in his eye, and resolved to attempt or not, as his expedition to Georgia might succeed: and, indeed, if there was a friendly disposition in the Persians, or in the Great Mogul, it would appear most easy to establish a commerce with India that way almost all by sea; and then the commerce from India to China by sea likewise will be a thing so easy, that it would by no means be worth while to make any attempt by land. For example:

From the mouth of the Wolga in the Caspian Sea, to the mouth of the Sihun, or to the mouth of the Oxus, is an easy voyage; the former of these rivers is navigable up to Bokara, a city already full of merchants, and which has a great trade for all the kinds of goods which we now bring from the coast of Malabar, from Bombay or Surat.

These goods are brought up the river Indus to Cachemire; also the trade of the bay of Bengal, is brought up the river Ganges to the lake of Tibber; and both being in the Great Mogul's country, they are brought within eight days journey the last, and within five days the first, to the city of Termed on the Gyun, from whence they come by water to Bokara, and after into the Caspian Sea.

So that to bring it to a short conclusion, the whole trade of the Indies from the mouth of the gulph of Persia, which is very near to Surat, and the mouth of the river Indus to Achim on the island of Sumatra, may be brought by water (eight days caravan only excepted) to Bokara on the Sihun, thence over the Caspian Sea to Astracan on the Wolga, and thence to Petersburg, the late Czar's new canal to Peterburgh being supposed to be completely finished, as he originally intended.

From China then to Bengal, every one knows is no long voyage; and the goods of China are every year brought by the Chinese junks through the straits of Singapore to Achin in the island of Sumatra, and thence to Hugeli on the Ganges, and that with much less charge and time, than they can come one twentieth part of the way over the deserts from Peking to Moscow. So that the Russians seem to have no more to do, than to induce the Great Mogul, by a proper treaty of commerce, to open the trade of the Ganges and the Indus, and settle a safe correspondence between his subjects and the Muscovites, and the trade to China would be effectually secured.

This prospect was so glorious, and the advantage of such a commerce would have been so considerable, that it accounts for all the great enterprizes and motions of the late Czar that way: his embarking an army, and building a fleet to make himself master of the Caspian Sea*: all which, at one time, the world seemed to look upon as chimerical, and of no weight, not substantial enough to answer the expence; but we are likely one day to see a trade so effectually opened, either through Persia into the Mogul's country, or by the river Oxus and the Sihun to the said country, as may render the Russian dominions immensely rich and potent, by making them the mart of all Europe for the East-India and Chinese commodities, especially the finest, and such as are not too bulky for carriage.

* Although the trade of the Caspian Sea hath not hitherto proved so successful, either to the Russian or British empire, as was expected, yet the matter is said, at present, to be upon the tapis; some proposals having been lately made to the Russian court about it, by means of an annual fleet, to be built at the expence of the crown; the ships to be commanded by Russian officers, or at least officers in the Russian service; but merchants and their goods to be transported at a reasonable rate, with a sufficient force to escorte and protect them. In case this design can be brought to bear, it is intended to make Astracan the mart where all Persian commodities are to be vended. But 'till the troubles of Persia are some way or other at an end, it is not easy to conceive how a scheme of this sort can be carried into execution with success.

As for the advantages of the north-east passage to China and India, which so many adventures have been made for, and so many lives lost, it is in the power of the Muscovites to search that to the bottom, and to bring the world to a certainty about it: but we must add also, that if it was found practicable, it would not be any great advantage to the trade of the people of Muscovy in particular, more than to the rest of the world: nay, it might, perhaps, prove the contrary, and, therefore, it may not be amiss to observe, That

In former times both the English and the Dutch made several attempts to discover the northernmost coasts of Europe, and to find out a passage that way to China and the East-Indies. The English in queen Elizabeth's time, under Sir Hugh Willoughby, made a fatal attempt; that unhappy gentleman, with his ship, beat it long at sea in vain, and being driven into a creek on the shore of the Russian Lapland, endeavoured to winter there; but they were all frozen to death, by the violence and extremity of the weather, not having discovered so much as the White Sea.

The Dutch, in the year 1596, under the famous Heemskirk and Barents, discovered the straits of the Waygats, as they are now called; and went, as it was thought, into a straight or passage between Nova Zembla and the main, but were not able to proceed far enough for the ice; no, not so much as to know, whether there was a passage through, or only a deep bay, and so were obliged to return again. After which Heemskirk sailed round the north part of the land or island of Nova Zembla, passing into the latitude of 80 degrees, and then coming back into the latitude of 76, and being driven on shore by the ice, he lost his ship, and he and his whole crew were obliged to stay all the winter in great extremity of cold: and the next year building themselves two shallops of the wreck of their ship, with great difficulty, they got to the shore near the mouth of the river Cola in Lapponia Rusfienne, but came home no wiser than they went out, as to knowing whether there was any passage or no.

We mention these things only, to intimate how industrious both the English and Dutch have been, even so long as about 160 years since, to find out a passage to the Indies that way: and no doubt it would be very advantageous to both these nations in their trade, (1.) As the voyage to China in particular, would be at least 8000 miles shorter than it is now, by the Cape of Good Hope, and the straits of Sunda or Singapore. (2.) That the danger as to health would not be so much this way, being beyond all comparison healthier, because it is not needful to pass the line at all, or go into any violent hot climates; whereas our navigators pass the Line four times in every voyage to China, as they now go; and extreme cold is found to be much healthier than extreme heat, and easier to be borne.

But to bring this to a point; suppose this passage could be found out, the question, in regard to the trade of Russia is, What advantage would such a trade be to the Muscovites? The answer is, nothing, in comparison, perhaps, to what it may otherwise prove: for if the Muscovites can, upon any tolerable terms, bring the manufactures and growth of China and the Indies home to their own country, they would thereby make themselves the merchants, and their country the general mart of this part of the world for those goods, and raise an immense profit from the trade; seeing all the northern parts of Europe must necessarily come to their markets to purchase these commodities.

But if the English and Dutch could go about by the north-east to China, and bring all those goods by sea, Russia could have no benefit thereby, except what might happen on any ship's putting in by stress of weather into their ports; which would prove of little consideration to what we have put in competition therewith. Besides, they would have the mortification of seeing the trade all carried away by their doors, without paying them any toll or profit whatsoever.

It is true, that could a passage be found beyond the land of Nova Zembla, from the mouth of any of the rivers in the Muscovite dominions, as from the river Oby, or the Janisea, which is still farther, and so the trade should first come into the Czarina's dominions, it would do very well on their side, and her country would be the great emporium for all the riches of the east: for our navigators have hitherto been no more able to find a passage through the Waygats, than they have been able to pass quite round by the north of Nova Zembla.

But the grand difficulty does not seem to lie about passing the straits of Waygats, or sailing round Nova Zembla; it should seem that there is an ocean beyond it, because the great rivers Oby, Janisea, and others, whose names our geographers do not agree about, and which rising in the southern parts of Grand Tartary, and taking their course due north, must empty themselves somewhere into the ocean, on the north side of the country.

It is pleasant to observe, that although none have ever yet been able to pass through the Waygats, or to discover to general satisfaction whether Nova Zembla be an island or a continent, or whether the northernmost parts of Asia be contiguous with America; yet our map-makers shew us at the north-

north-east part of Asia a great promontory of land, and a long ridge of mountains, and say it is not yet discovered where they end; at the same time putting these words over the sea-coast, between those two undiscovered lands,—[Here they may fish for whales, but the navigation is very difficult.] Upon the whole, though such passages have not hitherto been discovered, yet we cannot answer for what futurity may bring to light; but if such passages should be found, if they are not practicable in the ordinary way of commerce and navigation, the discovery will as little avail Russia as any other state or empire.

For though there should be such a passage discovered, yet if it be found so hazardous that ships should often be obliged to return back without being able to beat through, and others stranded and run on shore, and then inclosed among the ice and lost, this would, as to trade, be no passage at all, seeing in trade that may be said not to be practicable, which is not so to the advantage of the merchant.

What discovers itself to us in the late attempts of the Muscovites to find out a passage to China by sea is, that they do not intend it from the White Sea at Archangel, and so through the Waygats, by which all Europe would soon be as able to go as themselves, and so the discoverers be nothing the better for it; but their design seems to be to discover, whether a passage being found out by the north-east point of Tartary, it may not be navigated from some other part of the Muscovite coast, either by the river Oby or the Janisea, or some other rivers, by which means, though they would have the chief benefit of it to themselves, yet even this way, such a discovery might be of some advantage to the rest of this northern world too.

Now, if the Muscovites can first make out the main discovery, viz. That there is a passage, and that they may sail about by the north-east point of Asia, and then could still keep the straits of the Waygats undiscovered, and as it were shut up, they would by such a discovery have the whole trade of China and the Indies to themselves, being able to bring their ships into some particular port or place, not so liable to be frozen up as the Waygats, and then bring the goods, by the rivers Oby or Irtysh, into the very heart of their country.

But we have not yet done with the trade of Russia, in which we are to take notice, that on the eastern side of this great empire, and on or near the bank of the great Kama, they have great quantities of rock-salt, which they dig out of the earth, then dissolve it in its own brine, as it may be called, that is, in salt-water which rises out of the mines of salt, and then boil it up again to be very fine white and strong salt.

They drive a considerable trade in this salt, inasmuch that it is ordinary to see 20,000 people employed in making it, all at a time.

They bring this salt down the river Kama, thence carry it up by the Wolga and the Occa to Moscow, and down the Wolga to other cities, even as far as the city of Astracan.

They cure also vast quantities of fish in the great lakes at the head of the Oby, the Janisea, and other lakes in the frontiers of Kathay; which fish is brought down those rivers to Casan, and so into the Wolga, and up to Moscow.

As we have mentioned the produce of the Russian dominions for their trade on this side, and by the exportation of which so much wealth daily flows into their country, it seems necessary to add something of the increase of their trade this way, and of the city of Petersburg, as it respects the trade of the Baltic Sea.

PETERSBURGH is a great city, and the Czar, besides the houses of the inhabitants, founded many magnificent structures there; among the rest, the fortifications are said to be invincibly strong, taking in its advantageous situation by water. Also the works which he made at Cronstot are very considerable; and the shore is lined with artillery in all places, that no power in that part of the world will, perhaps, ever make any attempt on that side. But notwithstanding that, it may not be absolutely impracticable by other nations: nor are the fortifications at Cronstot, or on any other part of the entrance of the Neva, so formidable as to secure the city from all apprehension of an attempt, when it should come to be made by any nation able and experienced in such undertakings; and this appeared by the panic, which seized them in the year 1726, when a squadron of British men of war appeared before the harbour of Revel, threatening, as they thought, an attack upon this place.

The Czar also built a cathedral, several churches, and a palace for himself, with a great many fine apartments, and so many lines drawn for increasing them, that had he lived, it was believed he would have equalled, if not exceeded, the palace at Versailles, a model of which he had caused to be taken.

Here are very fine docks and yards for building large ships of war, from 70 to 90 guns; and, as it is said, the emperor resolved to keep in constant pay a full complement of seamen to man them fit for service. Nor is it impossible, perhaps, that this empire should one day obtain a competency of constant navigation, as a nursery for the maintenance of a much larger royal navy than they have at present.

Till within these twenty years, a Muscovite fleet was a thing

that was never heard of; it seemed at first to appear in the Baltic, like a comet in the waste or starry spaces; or like the new star in Cassiopeia's chair, for all the world to wonder at. Yet so it is, that the Russians are able now to figure it in the Baltic, with a naval power no way contemptible. But what is it, that is not absolutely impossible to accomplish, which a prince of the late Czar's great natural abilities and indefatigable application, was not able to do?

Though Petersburg is the capital city of Russia, yet it stands very low, and is exposed to inundations; and therefore some have thought that the Czar was ill advised, and took a very injudicious step, when he pitched upon the spot of ground on which he built this new city; for that the great quantity of waters, which sometimes come down from the Ladoga, and from the innumerable lakes of Finland and Carelia, are such, that the Neva cannot give vent to them fast enough, to prevent the city of Petersburg being subject to inundation: nor can any human art, some say, be able to prevent this, there being no way possible to be contrived on that side, whereby to carry the water off, except a canal, exceeding deep and broad, were opened from that great branch of waters, which passes near Kexhold to Wiborg. This, it is imagined, might turn the water another way, and the Czar, it is also said, had ordered such a canal to be opened.—But, however, Petersburg is so situated, as to be the center of a vastly-extended commerce; and may one day, perhaps, show the world, that to trade to that city, will be to trade to Turkey, to Persia, to India, and even to China itself all at once.

We have already spoken of the grandeur and magnificence of this metropolis, the establishing the navy there, and the building ships, as well men of war as merchantmen; of all which it must be observed, that this cannot fail to bring a vast concourse of business and of people; and trade must follow the court, as naturally as the court follows the fashions.

We are told there are in Petersburg above three quarters of a million of people; and that their numbers daily increase, by the prodigious increase of the court since the time of Czar Peter; as also in a particular manner by the increase of the naval power of Russia, of which this port is the center, in so prodigious a manner, within a few years, as to have at once from 60 to 80 sail of capital men of war, besides lesser men of war, prohes, frigates, sloops, and galleys, amounting to above 300 more. All the seamen, workmen, artificers, tradesmen, &c. depending on such a navy, must necessarily increase the inhabitants of this imperial city; and this number of inhabitants must consequently bring a new face of trade into this part of the empire, of which it is proper to take some notice.

The supply of provisions to so great a body of people, has occasioned numerous trades to be set up, which greatly tend to the increase both of shipping and of people, and particularly of that useful sort of people called seamen, who are a set of men more imminently wanted now in this part of the Russian empire.

The bringing corn to serve this city, employs now a prodigious number of vessels and boats, great and small, upon the river Neva, and upon the great lakes of Ladoga and Onega, to and from all the towns on every side of these lakes: all which part of the country is now exceedingly enriched and aggrandized, to what it was before this capital was built; the lands are improved almost beyond all imagination, by the great quantity of corn raised in the country, adjoining to these rivers and lakes; to which before the inhabitants never applied, not having a convenient port for its exportation, much less a capital city for its consumption.

Nor is the country on the shores of all those rivers and lakes, sufficient for supplying the said capital city with corn, but a great number of ships are employed, more than ever before, in fetching corn from the coast of Livonia and Esthonia, and even from Dantzic itself, for the supply of the markets at Petersburg.

As the corn-trade thus employs a number of vessels, so does the fishing as well in the Baltic, viz. in the gulph of Finland, as also on the great lakes of Ladoga and Onega, which are covered with fishing-boats, always employed in catching fish at the proper season, and carrying them to Petersburg, as well fresh fish for the daily markets, as cured and dried for keeping, and storing ships and houses for winter consumption, when the said lakes are frozen up.

Abundance of small craft are also employed on the Wolga, and men and carriages between the Wolga and Petersburg, for conveying goods and merchandizes to Petersburg, such as tobacco, honey, wax, leather, and all sorts of goods, the growth and produce of the southern parts of Muscovy; and for the return of the merchandizes imported at Petersburg, such as grocery, wine, oil, fruits, woollen manufactures, silk, and all other goods, occasioned principally by the building so great a city in that place.

And though all the importations to this city from the exterior provinces cannot be minutely enumerated, yet it may be concluded, that the trade from Petersburg to Moscow itself, the great and most ancient capital of the whole empire, is exceedingly great, that city having all its supply of manufactures, and of other goods besides, through the said river

Volga, or by land-carriage, by sleds from the city of Petersburg.

This increase of commerce is manifest by the great number of shopkeepers, manufacturers, artificers, and other tradesmen, with whom the metropolis at present swarms.

It is not probable (we might say hardly possible) but that the erecting a new capital and imperial city, in a place where there was no town of note before, and bringing together such a body of people where there were very few inhabitants before, must, as is observed of the trade by water, consequently improve the lands, employ the country, and draw together people for business of all kinds, from the inland provinces, as well to the adjacent towns, as to the banks of the rivers, the sea-coasts, lakes, &c.

Of this the famous city of Novogorod was a remarkable example: this was a city once prodigiously great, populous, and rich, so that it was called the Golden City; by which the whole correspondence between the Russian empire and the rest of Europe was carried on, and it was the mart of the whole trade.

While this city flourished, all the country round it did so too: the wealth and numbers of people collected there, enriched and employed all the adjacent provinces, the lands were cultivated to furnish provisions for their subsistence, all the richest grounds were employed to feed cattle for them, and to raise fruits and plants to supply the markets.

Thus it is now at Petersburg, which, if we may believe fame, is much greater, much richer, and far more populous, than Novogorod ever was, and consequently must in proportion increase and enrich all the adjacent country, and fill their towns with people and money, because it will fill them with business and trade.

But with this exception, the city of Petersburg is enriched by the fleets, the marine part of trade, and by the court, and by the magnificence of the equipages of their nobility, great officers, &c. and has an infinite advantage by all meeting together as in a common center.

It is true, the Czar found he had another weighty clog upon his new empire as to trade: nature had seemed to exclude the Muscovite dominions from a communication of trade with the rest of the world, 'till by a wonderful chain of victories, unexpected even to himself, that emperor opened a door for his subjects into the Baltic, by his conquest of Ingria and the mouth of the Neva, which he could no way come at before. Many of his ancestors had in vain attempted this communication by the way of Narva; but, though they had several times conquered that city, they could never keep it: but the Czar not only secured the Neva, and since that conquered Narva, and all the coast of Livonia, but also reduced Wiborg, on the other side; so that the whole gulph of Findland was intirely his own: and, which is still more, he also secured the possession of these conquests by a peace, as well with Sweden as with all his other neighbours.

But his Czarish majesty, besides this, had another great obstruction to his mighty enterprizes, which was, that the king of Denmark kept the passage of the Sound, the great key through the navigation of the Baltic, and no ships could pass in or out without paying such an unlimited toll as he should think fit.

This rendered the Muscovite commerce into Europe tributary to the Danes; and this was now the only impediment to the Czar for the trade of his people; which, but for that occasion, he would have soon extended to France and Spain, Italy and Venice; for which too, he had laid a good foundation by treaties.

This difficulty, under which his dominions laboured, gave first birth to the design of cutting a canal from Hufum to Sleswic, or some other port in Holstein (for there are several places where there was no great difficulty in the execution) and thereby to have joined the two seas, and opened a back-door into and out of the Baltic, and which the king of Denmark would have had no power or right to interrupt; nor would the rest of the trading world have been displeased therewith.

These are some of the obstacles that this great prince met with in his glorious undertakings, which if he could have surmounted, he would have bid fair to have been as powerful at sea as most of his neighbours; and this would have rendered the alliance of Russia by sea not less considerable than it now appears by land.

But he had his disappointments, as well as other princes, and particularly one of no little mortification to so enterprising a monarch. He had been compelled to restore Asoph, at the mouth of the river Don, of which once he not only had the possession, but had, at an immense expence, made it one of the most impregnable fortresses in the world; nor could the whole Turkish empire have recovered it, unless the Czar had been first beaten from it by land; and, had he kept it, he would have built such a fleet of ships of war, from 70 to 100 guns, at Voronitz upon the Don, or Tanais, which would soon have enabled him to have brought the Grand Seignior to have granted his ships a free passage and commerce through the Thracian Bosphorus and the Hellespont, into the Levant Seas, or have driven the Turks out of the Euxine Sea, and have starved Constantinople itself.

But, in this respect also, this illustrious prince was disappointed, being, by surprize, brought into such a labyrinth in Moldavia by the Turks, that he and his whole army had been swallowed up, if he had not purchased his peace and deliverance, among other things, with the yielding back Asoph to the Turks. The late Czar resolving to reform and civilize his people, who, before his time, were little better in the general than savages, he determined to make a general change in apparel, and brought the Russians, especially those about his court, to cloath themselves after the German fashion: this change put his subjects incessantly upon a new expence, viz. buying cloaths in an unusual manner, for which purpose the manufactures of England and Scotland, &c. were introduced, as well at Petersburg as at Moscow, in prodigious and unusual quantities.

But the Czar, after the example of the Swedes, the Prussians, and the Saxons, attempted to act herein greatly for the prosperity of his subjects in this particular of new cloathing them, resolving to introduce the making and manufacturing all those cloths and stuffs which his subjects were then beginning to wear, and to have them all made in his dominions, that his poor might be usefully employed.

Nor was it so unlikely an undertaking as at first it seems to be, in that he had an easy supply of wool out of Poland and Saxony, especially of the first, sufficient for those works.

His Czarish majesty had also resolved to bring manufacturers from France, to settle in Petersburg, to manage and carry on the silk trade, furnishing them with silk from Persia, by the navigation of the Caspian; by which means the silk itself is so cheap, and the labour of the people more particularly so, he resolved to have all sorts of the richest brocade silks, as also ribbons, &c. wrought in his own country, as well for their own use as for the exportation to foreign parts; but this is one of the great improvements that is not likely soon to be brought to perfection.

The Russians have had also, some years, a royal foundry: for having a sufficient quantity of iron ore in the country about Kexholm, which they bring to Petersburg by water, the late Czar resolved to supply foreign countries with cannon, bombs, shells, shot, and all sorts of military stores which are furnished from the iron; as also small arms, muskets, pistols, swords, halberts, &c. This foundry is kept continually at work, and the Czarina, his successor, gave directions for enlarging and encouraging the works, having got some very skilful workmen out of the king of Prussia's dominions. This foundry, as well as their iron manufactures in general, have proved a very great advantage to this empire, and are daily advancing.

In short, there seems to be nothing wanting to make the city of Petersburg a center of commerce to the whole Baltic, but the raising some settled employment for the poor in general, by which they may gain a comfortable subsistence to themselves and families: and this subsistence after the Russian manner being so exceeding cheap, and labour, by consequence, moderately low, it is manifest, if they have but two things provided for them, viz. proper materials to work upon, and skilful workmen to instruct them how to manage these materials, they would work as cheap as the Indians and Chinese, and in a few years, perhaps, fill Europe with their manufactures, in such a manner as none in these parts would wish to see. And the establishing manufactures seems to be an essential part of the system that they have at present adopted, which we must more and more sensibly feel and experience as they advance therein, unless we shall take less of their productions and commodities, in proportion as they shall import less of ours.

Of the MONIES, WEIGHTS, and MEASURES of RUSSIA.

In Petersburg and Archangel most merchants keep their accounts in rubbles and copecks; and some keep them in copecks, grieveners, and rubbles.

The Russian coins go under divers denominations, viz. copecks, altines, grieveners, polpoltins, poltins, and rubbles. They have likewise a small gold coin, called a Russian ducat, worth between eight and nine shillings sterling.

The said monies are reckoned as follows: 3 copecks is an altin, 10 copecks one grievener, 25 copecks is a polpoltin, 50 copecks is a poltin, 100 copecks is a rubble, and 2 rubbles is a ducat.

They count their small money in altines, adding one copeck to make the rubble.

The rubble is worth between four and five shillings sterling.

An English crown-piece goes among them according to weight, at between 120 and 130 copecks.

Their weights are zollotnicks, pounds, poods, and barquits; 96 zollotnicks make their pound, which is counted equal to 13 oz. 3 dwts. 6 grs. Troy weight; 40 pounds is one pood; 10 pound is a barquit: a pood of 40 lb. Russian weight will render in England 35 $\frac{1}{2}$ or 36 lb. avoirdupoise weight.

Their long-measure for linen and woollen is the arsheen, which is divided into 16 veshcoves, and is 28 inches London measure; and 7 English yards make 9 of their arsheens, or 100 arsheens make 56 English ells.

Their measures for corn are the chetwert and the chetwericks; 8 chet-

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8 chetwericks is one chetwert, which holds about $5\frac{3}{10}$ bushels Winchester measure.

They pay the customs in no other money than foreign rix-dollars, English crowns, ducats, and such-like good whole pieces, which they also take by weight.

They give to Hamburg in exchange an uncertain number of copecks for the rixdollar of Hamburg.

To Amsterdam, the ruble, for an uncertain number of stivers current money of Amsterdam. The exchange generally rises in November and December.

R E M A R K S.

In negotiating money by bills of exchange between England and Russia, it is commonly done by the way of Amsterdam. The computation of which is thus: (1.) The Russian rubbles are converted into florins current money of Amsterdam; this current money is reduced into bank money, according to the agio, which is generally from 3 to 5 per cent. i. e. 103 to 105 florins, or gilders, current money, are equal to 100 florins, or gilders, bank money of Amsterdam; and this bank money of Amsterdam is reduced into sterling money, according as the course of the exchange shall be between England and Amsterdam. See the article HOLLAND.

All merchandizing coming from Russia pay a duty to the king of Denmark in passing through the Sound. See the article DENMARK.

The DUTIES which the following Russia goods pay in passing through the Sound.

		rixd.	stiv.
Linen	Fine, 1000 arsheens, pay	-	1 12
	Middling, ditto	-	0 40
	Coarse, ditto	-	0 30
1 Shipon of fine flax	-	-	0 12
1 Ditto of coarse	-	-	0 8
1 Ditto of hemp	-	-	0 8
1 Piece of canvas	-	-	0 3 $\frac{3}{4}$
6 Shipon, or 1 last of iron	-	-	0 24

Note, 10 pood is 1 shipon, and 6 shipon is 1 last.

N. B. 48 stivers make 1 rixdollar.

When the captains of ships run the goods through the Sound without paying the duty to the king of Denmark, the merchant allows the captain $\frac{1}{3}$ of the duties saved, for his trouble.

RUSSIA COMPANY. The Russia company was first projected towards the end of the reign of king Edward VI, executed in the first and second years of Philip and Mary, but had not its perfection till its charter was confirmed by act of parliament under queen Elizabeth, in 1566. It had its first rise from certain adventurers, who were sent in three vessels on the discovery of new countries, and to find out a north-east passage to China: these falling into the White-Sea, and making up to the port of Archangel, were exceedingly well received by the Muscovites, and at their return, solicited letters patent to secure to themselves the commerce of Russia, for which they had formed an association.

The charter was promised them by Edward VI. but he dying, was first dispatched by queen Mary, in 1555. By this charter, the association was declared by a body politic, under the name of the Company of Merchant-Adventurers of England, for the Discovery of Lands, Territories, Islands, &c. unknown, or unfrequented. Their privileges were, to have a governor, four consuls, and twenty-four assistants for their commerce; for their policy, to make laws, inflict penalties, send out ships to make discoveries, take possession of them in the king's name, set up the banner royal of England, plant them, and, lastly, to enjoy the exclusive privilege of trading to Archangel, and other ports of Muscovy, not yet frequented by the English.

This charter, not being sufficiently guarded, was confirmed by parliament, in the eighth year of queen Elizabeth; wherein it was enacted, That, in regard the former name was too long, they should now be called the Company of English Merchants for discovering New Trades; under which name they should be capable of acquiring and holding all kinds of lands, manors, rents, &c. not exceeding 100 marks per ann. and not held of her Majesty. That no part of the continent, island, harbour, &c. not known or frequented before the first enterprize of the merchants of their company, situate to the north or north-east of London; nor any part of the continent, islands, &c. under the obedience of the emperor of Russia, or in the countries of Armenia, Media, Hircania, Persia, or the Caspian Sea, shall be visited by any subjects of England, to exercise any commerce, without the consent of the said company, on pain of confiscation.—The said company shall use no ships in her new commerce but those of the nation, nor transport any cloths, ferges, or other woollen stuffs, till they have been dyed and pressed.—That in case the company discontinue of itself to unload commodities in the rozd of the Abbey of St Nicholas in Russia, or some other port in the north coasts of Russia, for the space of three years, the other subjects of England shall be allowed to traffic to Narva, while the said company discontinues its commerce into Russia, only using English vessels.

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This company subsisted with reputation almost a whole century, till the time of the civil wars. It is said, the Czar then reigning, hearing of the murder of king Charles I, ordered all the English in his states to be expelled; which the Dutch taking the advantage of, settled in their room.—After the Restoration, the remains of the company re-established part of their commerce at Archangel, but never with the same success as before, the Russians being now well accustomed to the Dutch merchants and merchandize.

This company subsists still, nearly on the foot of that of Hamburg, and the Northern and Turkey companies, i. e. each member thereof traffics for himself, and on his own bottom, only paying an acknowledgement for admission-money, besides some other dues imposed from time to time, for the occasions of the company, and the commerce in general.

Of the **BRITISH CASPIAN TRADE**, as it was attempted to be carried on through **RUSSIA** to **PERSIA**.

Till the sixteenth century we had no Caspian commerce, and then only small trials. His present Majesty king George II, renewed a treaty of commerce with Russia in 1734, by which a liberty of this trade is granted. In 1741 the parliament of Great-Britain passed an act, granting a liberty to such persons as are free of the Russia company, to import the RAW SILK of Persia into Great-Britain, in return for British manufactures sold in Persia; in consequence whereof, were sent 170,000 l. value into Persia.—In 1743, John Elton, one of the factors in Persia, engaged himself as a ship-builder in the service of NADIR SHAH, which offended the Russians, and at length occasioned a decree of the Russian court, published in 1746, prohibiting this trade.—The cruelties of NADIR SHAH involved his people in such misery, that no sales of goods could be made by the BRITISH factors in the north of Persia, from 1744 to 1747.—In June 1747 NADIR suffered a violent death.—His nephew Ali succeeded to the throne, and trade revived.—In January following, AMUR ASLAN KHAN, a cousin of NADIR, revolting from ALI, sent a body of forces, who pillaged the BRITISH factors in RESHD, to the amount of 80,000 l.—Yet the British CASPIAN traders did not give over all hopes of the recovery of their loss.—The rebel AMUR ASLAN KHAN, the author of the plunder of the British factory, was soon seized by IBRAHIM, and put to death.—After that, SHAHROKH was chosen king, and supported by a powerful party.—This carried IBRAHIM back, but his fortune was reversed, by the desertion of his army, and his total defeat.—The British CASPIAN traders applied to SHAHROKH for redress, about the month of Jan. 1750.—Afterwards the ENGLISH factors in St Petersburg united in sending a person of reputation to act in concert with Mr Wilder in Persia, intending to reconcile certain difficulties which had arisen among the adventurers, and apprehending that a coalition of interest would be the best means of preserving that unanimity, without which, a solicitation for the recovery of their loss would prove fruitless.—With regard to their respective losses, they had now but one common interest: but here we experienced the great want of proper regulation, and what perplexities commercial affairs in ASIA are subject to, if left free and open, or with the appearance of a BODY CORPORATE, without the substance of it*. See our articles **LEVANT TRADE**, **ORIENTAL TRADE**, and **TURKEY TRADE**.

* In EUROPE every man has a right of claiming according to the laws of the country he is in, regard being had, at the same time, to private agreements, or the authority of the consul of his own nation, as has been found productive of the general good of the whole factory or community: but in ASIA there must be some regulations independent of the national government, or animosity and confusion inevitably ensue; so at least we found it in the CASPIAN trade. Hanway's Travels.

The success the merchants had at **ASTRABAD**, the remembrance of the promises of ADIL SHAH, the assurance that Persia abounded in money, likewise that SHAHROKH was established in the government, inclined the factors and merchants to attempt a recovery, at the risk of some expence; the ancient laws of Persia also favoured this design: however Mr CHAMBERLAIN, who was charged with the king's letter, found it unnecessary to proceed any farther than RUSSIA, PERSIA being still torn with intestine commotions; but nothing has been yet done, and it may be presumed that a great part of the Indian treasure is dissipated so as to leave no hope of accomplishing any recovery.

These distractions having continued for six years, the cultivation of raw silk in PERSIA has also been much neglected*. Many other reasons concurred to raise the price of silk to this nation. Under these circumstances, the BRITISH parliament was induced to try if our own plantations could produce this valuable commodity, and accordingly an act was passed, entitled, An act for encouraging the culture of raw silk in his Majesty's colonies or plantations in America. See the articles **SILK**, and **BRITISH AMERICA**, particularly **GEORGIA**.

* The ARMENIANS and RUSSIANS, have for some years past imported hardly $\frac{1}{10}$ part of the usual quantity.

Notwith-

Notwithstanding the encouragement given by the legislature to the culture of raw silk in our American colonies, an ample supply of this commodity, we fear, can be brought only from Asia, unless we shall be able to make some very extraordinary improvements. Europe, during the last war, did not produce the usual quantity, nor has the price of some particular kinds declined since that time: for the consumption of this article rather increases than diminishes. The EAST-INDIA company, therefore, we may presume, applied to parliament for an alteration of the duty of CHINA silk, the obtaining of which affords an encouragement to the importation of it*, and no doubt we shall have a sufficient quantity. The act in favour hereof is entitled, An act for repealing the DUTIES payable upon CHINA raw silk, and for granting other DUTIES in lieu thereof. See SILK.

* In 1752, we find accordingly a large supply of CHINA raw silk arrived.

The Russia company finding themselves thus excluded a branch of trade, from which they had expected many private as well as national benefits, applied their thoughts how best to repair this injury: the most natural expedient was to obtain a liberty to purchase the same commodity in RUSSIA, which they could no longer provide in the north of PERSIA, at least not to transport it through RUSSIA: they might, indeed, purchase silk in RUSSIA to transport to other countries, but an act of parliament was necessary for the importation of it into England. Accordingly the following petition was presented to the parliament.

The petition of the merchants of London trading through Russia into Persia,

Sheweth,

‘ That your petitioners did, in the year 1741, obtain an act of parliament to enable them to import Persian raw silk by the way of Russia from Persia, if purchased there with the produce of British woollens, and other manufactures. Your petitioners having, in consequence of the said act, sent into Persia about 200,000 l. value in British manufactures, and received part of their returns in Persian raw silk, are now prevented by the many revolutions and fatalities which have happened in Persia since the commencement of this trade. Other accidents also have intervened to obstruct the design as at first proposed, his Majesty not having any minister at the court of Persia, to protect our factors, his Majesty’s subjects, and our effects in that country, which gives the Russians and Armenians very great advantage over us, your petitioners.

And as the Russians and Armenians do bring large quantities of Persia raw silk yearly into Russia, which cannot be purchased by your petitioners to be sent into Great-Britain, the present act restraining all imports of Persian commodities, but such as are in return of goods actually sold in Persia; the raw silk in question is therefore carried to Holland by the Armenians, and woollen goods taken of the United Provinces in return.

Your petitioners therefore humbly pray, that in order not to lose so valuable a branch of trade, as that of importing raw silk, a commodity at this time so much wanted, that a clause may be annexed to the bill now depending, relating to the importation of China raw silk, to permit your petitioners to import Persian raw silk, from Russia, subject to the same restrictions as they have done from Persia by the way of Russia.

And your petitioners, &c.’

In consequence of this application, the following separate act* was obtained, from which some happy effects may be felt, as soon as the Persians are in any capacity to send a supply of silk into Russia: and this will probably be the case, whenever Persia shall be restored to a state of tranquillity.

* In 1750, 23d year of his Majesty’s reign.

An act for permitting raw silk of the growth of Persia, purchased in Russia, to be imported into this kingdom from any port or place belonging to Russia.

‘ Whereas by an act made in the fourteenth year of his present Majesty’s reign (entitled, An act for opening a trade to and from Persia through Russia) it is (amongst other things) enacted, that from and after the 24th day of June 1741, it shall and may be lawful to and for any person or persons, free, or to be free, of the fellowship of English merchants for discovery of new trades, commonly called the Russia company, exclusive of all others, to bring and import into this kingdom, in British-built shipping, navigated according to law, from any port or place of or belonging to the Czar or Emperor of Russia, raw silk; or any other goods or commodities of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Persia (provided such manufacture be made of the growth or produce of Persia) being purchased by barter with woollen, or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, exported from Great-

Britain to Russia, and from thence carried into Persia (gold and silver in coin or bullion excepted) or with the produce arising from the sales of such manufactures, goods or commodities, so exported to Russia, and carried into Persia as aforesaid, and not otherwise: and it is by the said act also further enacted, that no silk, or other produce, commodities, or manufactures of Persia, shall be imported into Great-Britain through Russia, by virtue of the said act, unless the importer or importers thereof do take an oath, or (being of the people called Quakers) a solemn affirmation, before the collector, customer, or comptroller of his Majesty’s customs (who are by the said act empowered to administer the same) at the port or place of importation, that, to the best of his or their knowledge and belief, the silk, and other the produce, commodities, or manufactures of Persia, contained in his or their entry or entries, was or were really and truly purchased by barter with woollen, or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, exported from Great-Britain to Russia, and from thence carried into Persia (not being gold or silver in coin or bullion) or with the produce arising from the sales of such woollen, or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, so exported as aforesaid, and not otherwise; and that in default of taking such oath or affirmation, all such silk, or other the produce, commodities, or manufactures of Persia, so imported from Russia, shall be liable to be seized and forfeited, in like manner, as if the same had been imported contrary to the act made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles II. entitled, An act for encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation: and whereas, soon after the commencement of the said act made in the fourteenth year of his present Majesty’s reign, a very beneficial trade between Great-Britain and Persia, through Russia, was opened, by means whereof great quantities of raw silk, and other the goods and commodities, of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Persia, were imported into this kingdom, in return for the woollen and other manufactures, goods, and commodities of Great-Britain, upon much easier and more advantageous terms, than such silk, and other goods and commodities of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Persia could have been otherwise procured: but whereas the said trade between Great-Britain and Persia, through Russia, hath been for some time past interrupted, the subjects of Great-Britain not having been of late permitted to transport British manufactures, goods, and commodities into Persia, through the dominions or territories of or belonging to the empire of Russia, in consequence whereof the importation of raw silk, and other commodities of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Persia from Russia, hath been discontinued: and whereas it would be of great advantage to the trade of this kingdom in general, as well as contribute to the increase and improvement of the silk manufactures in particular, if raw silk of the growth or produce of Persia, purchased in Russia, were permitted to be imported from any of the countries, dominions, or territories of the empire of Russia, in return for woollen and other manufactures exported from Great-Britain to Russia, although the same be not carried from thence into Persia; may it therefore please your Majesty that it may be enacted, and be it enacted by the king’s most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and by the commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, that from and after the 24th day of December 1750, it shall and may be lawful to and for any person or persons, free or to be made free, of the said fellowship of English merchants for discovery of new trades, commonly called the Russia company, exclusive of all others, to bring and import into this kingdom, in British-built shipping, navigated according to law, from any port or place within the countries, territories or dominions, of or belonging to the empire of Russia, raw silk of the growth or produce of Persia which shall be purchased by barter with woollen or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, exported from Great-Britain to Russia, although the same be not carried from thence into Persia (gold and silver in coin or bullion excepted) or with the produce arising from the sale of such manufactures, goods, or commodities, exported from Great-Britain to Russia as aforesaid, and not otherwise, upon paying, or securing to be paid, the customs and other duties now payable for the same, by any law now in force, according to such rules, methods, and directions, and in the same manner and form, and with such allowances, abatements, discounts, and drawbacks, and under such penalties, forfeitures, and disabilities, as are by law prescribed and practised, on the importation of raw silk of the growth or produce of Persia, imported into this kingdom from any port or place in the Levant Seas, by any person or persons free of the Levant or Turkey company; any thing in the said act made in the fourteenth year of his present Majesty’s reign, or in the said act made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles II. entitled, an Act for encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation, to the contrary notwithstanding.

Provided always, and be it further enacted, that no silk of the growth or produce of Persia, shall be imported into Great-Britain,

Britain, from any of the countries, dominions, or territories, of or belonging to the empire of Russia, by virtue of this act, unless the importer or importers thereof do make oath, before the collector, customer, or comptroller of his Majesty's customs (who are hereby impowered and required to administer such oath) at the port or place of importation, that, to the best of his or their knowledge and belief, the silk, contained in his or their entry or entries, was really and truly purchased by barter with woollen or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, exported from Great-Britain to Russia (not being gold or silver in coin or bullion) or with the produce arising from the sale of such woollen, or other manufactures, goods, or commodities, so exported as aforesaid, and not otherwise; and in default of making such oath, all such silk so imported from any of the countries, dominions, or territories, of or belonging to the empire of Russia, shall be liable to be seized and forfeited, in like manner as if the same had been imported contrary to the said act, made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles II, entitled, An act for encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation. Provided also, that nothing herein contained shall extend, or be construed to extend, to deprive the corporation of the united company of the merchants of England trading to the East-Indies, of any of the powers, privileges, franchises, and benefits, which do or shall belong to them, or which they could or might have had and enjoyed in any manner whatsoever, if this act had not been made, any thing herein contained to the contrary notwithstanding.

And be it further enacted, That this act shall be deemed a public act, and shall be judicially taken notice of as such, by all judges, justices, and other persons whatsoever, without specially pleading the same.

'I presume, says the judicious Mr Hanway, in his Travels, it is meant by this act to restrain all purchases of silk in Russia to the produce of Persia only, for the words of the act allow no more: but silk of the growth of Greece is sometimes brought through Walachia into the Ukrain, and from thence transported to St Petersburg, but the quality does not answer. It may be necessary to observe, that this act has been explained to mean silk purchased with the produce of British manufactures at large; for in barter, or with the identical money received for such goods, it is hardly possible. This act will very much favour the Armenians, for besides the encouragement they had to bring silk from Persia into Russia, either to transport into Holland for their own account, or to sell it in Russia, they may now dispose of it also in England, and by being naturalized may also import such silk into this kingdom, for their own account, as one of them has already done. The advantages this bill is calculated to produce are many, for whoever receives the profit of the first sale, the more there is brought to market, the cheaper it must be to us.

The benefits of the silk manufactory must ever appear considerable, even upon the most superficial view, when it is considered, that a pound of 16 ounces of the plainest manufactured silk is commonly worth 35 or 40s. and that rich silks increase in proportion to the greater labour which is bestowed on them. The great pound of 24 ounces, costing 21s. the small pound is 14s.: let us now see what profit arises from it, and how much it increases in value, as it passes through the hands of the several workmen; and here the charge only of throwing the small pound is 5s. dyeing, grain colours included, on a medium, is 2s. and winding, weaving, &c. is 10s. so that allowing 1s. for the dyeing materials, the nation gains 16s. at least on every pound of silk manufactured here and exported abroad, and in some articles much more. To instance only in one particular, a pair of silk gauze stockings weighs about 2½ ounces of silk, which computed as above is 2s. 2d. and 20 per cent. brokerage, and other contingencies on the silk, is less than 3s. and yet the stockings sell for 9, 10, or 12s. Thus this beneficial branch of commerce gives a subsistence to the industrious artificer, and enriches the nation.'

An abstract of Mr Hanway's view of the British trade and factory at St Petersburg.

The productions of the earth, says this gentleman, and foreign trade, are the great sources from whence the riches of every nation proceed: Russia has made great strides in the improvement of her commerce for several years past, enjoying some advantages beyond any other nation: the number and greatness of her rivers open a communication almost to every part of the globe, but particularly within her own extended dominions. As to timber, hemp, iron, which are the instrumental causes of trade, no country in the world produces a greater quantity, which is a natural consequence of the cheapness of land and labour: the former of these GREAT-BRITAIN enjoys in her AMERICAN dominions, though not the latter; but if we have occasion for the commodities of Russia, that empire has the greatest source of her revenues in the trade which this island carries on with her subjects.

Hemp, which twenty years since was hardly worth 5 rubbles the berquevitz *, of late years has been about twice that value; the increase of silver makes money every year less valuable: as they can afford this article in St Petersburg at 6 or 7 rubbles, they will certainly bring enough of it to market so long as they can obtain 8 or 9.

* Or 61. per ton first cost in St Petersburg.

Iron is also a very improveable article: they have both wood, hands, and ore in Siberia, sufficient to make a quantity, which would depreciate the value of the Swedish iron, raise their rivalry and competition with the Swedes † in this important article of the revenues of that nation, and at the same time greatly augment those of the Russian empire. But by a certain fatality which prevails in every country in some instance or other, the Russian government, for a course of years, has preferred a profit of about 15,000 l. or 5000 tons, to near twice that advantage which they might have had to all appearance, though the price should have been reduced, had the quantity been more than doubly augmented. The great difficulty was, in whose hands to lodge an increase of power in that distant country Siberia. It is not 40 years since the Russians began to open iron mines, and yet in the year 1750, they exported 20,000 tons: the ordinary annual export may now be called 12 or 15,000 tons, which is so much more in favour of the Russians, as the SWEDISH forges, for these few years past, have not produced so much by one third as formerly.

† The question is, Whether, with regard to the ballance of power in the North, the SWEDES are not poor enough in all conscience?

The ordinary computation of the Russian general export from St Petersburg is three millions ‡, of which the British subjects in Russia take off two, consisting chiefly in hemp, flax, iron, hogs-bristles, hare-skins, hempen and flaxen manufactures, Russia leather, and other articles.

‡ In 1750, the exports were four millions of rubbles, or 880,000 l. value.

The ordinary imports of the Russians were two millions, consisting in indigo, cochineal, lead, pewter, tin, wrought silks, gold and silver lace, toys, cotton and linen manufactures, woollens and wines. The Russians receive the ballance in their favour in silver and gold, of which part is a sum of about 500,000 silver rixdollars, of the coin of the United Provinces; these do not, however, pass current in Russia, but the duties on goods must be paid in them at a certain rate, according to weight. The consumption of the Russians is so far increased with their acquisitions by commerce, that they import now more than usual, but the English have still above a million ballance against them.

It seems to be a maxim established in all countries where commerce has made any progress, that the value of exports must exceed that of the imports, for otherwise the ballance must necessarily be paid in money: against this the Russians have taken the precaution of making it death to export their coin, nor is any plate or bullion exportable without express permission. I have already observed, that in countries possessed of silver and gold mines, money may be considered as a commodity; but even in these countries we do not find such great wealth, as where the only resource is in the industry of numbers of WORKING PEOPLE, and in those productions of the earth, which being essential to the support of mankind, are really intrinsically worth more than silver, gold, or precious stones.

When a people are desirous of foreign productions, and especially articles of luxury, if they do not exert themselves to pay for such commodities by their labour, and the produce of their own lands, they must be impoverished, and in danger of ruin. The augmentation of the revenues of Russia ought to be imputed, in a great measure, to the increase of her trade for some years past, and the increase of her national wealth, to the great annual ballance in her favour, of one million of rubbles §.

§ 220,000 l.

The interior trade of Russia is certainly very much augmented, and the commerce they carry on with the Tartars and other frontier nations, is a considerable object, as Russia sometimes receives a large quantity of foreign silver and gold from those nations, in exchange either for her own or foreign productions. I will not undertake, from an impulse of my good wishes, to determine what articles Russia should be cautious of importing; but those of the produce of Great-Britain are either essentially necessary to her, or such as she can never suffer by: I speak not of the major part of them, for I think not one article, even our ale, but tends to the good of the Russians; not to mention the great advantages to Russia of the Riga and Narva trade with Great-Britain and Ireland. As our Russian trade is well conducted, I shall

pafs it over, observing only, that in whatever light it is confidered, it ought to be a means of eftablifhing a PERPETUAL FRIENDSHIP between this nation and the Ruffian empire.

OBSERVATIONS on the RUSSIAN COIN.

It is remarkable, that when the Ruffian trade began to flourish, and for fome time after, their rubble, which was intrinfically worth no more than 39 current ftivers of Holland, was eftimated an exchange at 70 current ftivers, and this price of their commodities regulated accordingly in the merchants calculation of them; at length it was reduced to 50, and from 45 to 50 it has ftood for many years. The Ruffian rubble has too confiderable an alloy to encourage the exportation, but it is not fo bafe as to induce any piratical traders to bring falfe coin into the country: I fpeak of the filver money. But by an error in politics in a late reign, the want of money induced the government to make a copper coin of 5 copecks value, which was not intrinfically worth 2; the confequence of which was, that fome millions of this coin were run in upon them, particularly by the Jews of Poland; fo that at length, in the years 1744, 45, and 46, the government wifely reduced the value each year a copeck, and it now ftands at 2 copecks. They keep accounts, as before obferved, in rubbles and copecks, 100 copecks to a rubble; and their old way of reckoning, yet in the greateft ufe, as it is in fome parts of Germany, is with beads on wires, which they work without pen and ink.

Before I take my leave, fays Mr Hanway, of Ruffia, I ought, perhaps, to mention a circumftance of fome moment to my friends in that country, if not to this nation. The Englifh factory in Ruffia, as I have already had occafion to mention, was firft eftablifhed in Archangel, in virtue of a charter granted by king Philip and queen Mary, at the fame time that the Czar Ivan Waffilowitz fwayed the Ruffian fcepter.

This charter is of too extenfive a nature, either in regard to the crown, the Ruffia company, or the Britifh fubjects at large, to be fully complied with, and is confequently become in certain refpects obfolete: it referves, however, in full force, fuch neceffary authority as excludes all foreigners, except Ruffians, from a participation of the Ruffia trade to Great-Britain; and in virtue of the bye-laws to which the traders acquiefce, the good government of the company is fupported; a fmall tax is levied for extraordinary occafions, and for the charitable purpofe of relieving poor feamen and the widows of deceased mariners.

The factors employed abroad in the name of the Ruffia company, removed from Archangel to St Petersburg, foon after Peter the Great founded that city, which he made the feat of the Ruffian commerce. Among other particulars it is remarkable, that this factory has been for fome time blended with foreigners, who, in confequence of their naturalization, have enjoyed a participation of the privileges and immunities of the company. The Britifh factors faw this with impatience, and at length fent their remonftrances to their principals in London, in confequence of which an oppofition was made to a bill * then depending before the parliament in behalf of a foreigner. This is a circumftance in every refpect interefting, and about which there are a great variety of opinions: fome particulars relating to the cafe of the merchants of Great-Britain refiding at home, or in the Britifh factories in foreign countries, with refpect to perfons obtaining acts of naturalization, without any purpofe of continuing in thefe kingdoms, were printed, and of which I have preferved fuch extracts, as ferve as an introduction to the fubject, viz.

* 1752.

‘ The granting to ftrangers all the privileges and immunities which the conftitution derives to thofe born under its protection, and who have a mutual tie of duty and affection, has been ever regarded, in all civilized nations, as a point of the higheft importance to the public; as it plainly is in Great-Britain, where fuch a participation, in the birthright of its fubject, cannot be beftowed but by the legiflature; that is, in effect, by the confent of the whole kingdom.

Whenever, therefore, this high and great favour is conferred, it muft be prefumed to flow from juft and weighty reafons; fuch as eminent fervices actually performed by thofe who feek it, or which may be rationally expected from them; and in this light, acts of naturalization are highly reafonable, as they are apparently calculated for the public benefit; and arguments of this kind may be ufually fuggested, when favours of this fort have been rendered more general, with a view to invite into this country foreign proteftants of eafy fortunes, fkilful in commerce, capable of introducing or improving manufactures, or, in a word, fit to become ufeful members of the community; into which they are received in the moft folemn manner, and become entitled to all that is dear and valuable to Englifhmen.

Thefe motives, arifing from reciprocal advantages, have been efteemed fo wife and equitable, that acts of naturaliza-

tion, fo founded, have been ever confidered as tending highly to the advantage of this nation, and more efpecially to the mercantile intereft, which certainly reaped very fignal and indifputable advantages from them; as is particularly manifef from numbers of opulent families now fubfifting in thefe kingdoms, that were originally invited, fixed, or eftablifhed here, in virtue of fuch wife and falutary laws.

But this being the cafe, it is not eafy to fee how the fame benefits, or any other adequate to them, can arife from particular or general acts of naturalization, where the privileges granted to ftrangers are not in fome meafure reftained to their refidence within the BRITISH DOMINIONS; and this, from the laft bill for fuch a general naturalization, feemed to have been the fenfe of the legiflature, from a claufe evidently founded upon this reafoning.

The naturalizing foreigners, and thereby giving them a title to all the privileges of Britifh fubjects, without requiring from them the plain and natural equivalent of RESIDING HERE, puts it in their power to fettle in foreign countries, with all the advantages due to the fubjects of Great-Britain; and thereby affords them an opportunity of ferving their own countrymen, and, indeed, foreigners of all nations, at the expence of Great-Britain, without any the leaft advantage accruing to this nation.

With refpect to foreigners thus naturalized, and eftablifhed as factors abroad, we are not led, either from reafon or experience, to conceive, that they can have any particular attachment to the interefts, or any real zeal or rooted affection for the welfare of Great-Britain; but muft be chiefly governed by that principle of felf-intereft, which originally led them to feek fuch privileges, of which they might avail themfelves, in confequence of thofe treaties and alliances concluded with the kingdom of Great-Britain, and by which many valuable immunities and indulgencies are fecured to her fubjects, equivalents for which are, and will be always expected from the Britifh nation. Thefe may frequently occafion a public expence, and that expence muft be raifed by taxes on the natives of this ifland; but thefe naturalized foreigners refiding abroad, do not in the leaft contribute to them. Foreigners, under thefe circumftances, are then more favoured than the natives.

The arguments in favour of unreftained acts of naturalization to factors abroad, ought to be extremely clear and convincing; for in Ruffia, and, perhaps, in other countries, it is difficult, if not impracticable, to make the natives underftand, how the people of any other country can become Englifhmen, or Britifh fubjects, and by that means entitled to the privileges that by TREATIES are ftipulated to us. Thus fuch treaties may be rendered very precarious, the dignity of the nation weakened, and the conduct of fuch foreigners fubject us to difputes and inconveniences, which otherwife might never have arifen.

The act of navigation, that wife and falutary law, which has been the bulwark of the Britifh commerce, breathes a fpirit that would incline us to think the fame regard ought to be had to Britifh fubjects, as to Britifh bottoms; and that all imaginable precaution fhould be taken to fecure the advantages arifing by a commiffion on the fale of the commodities and manufactures of this ifland, to their natural proprietors and native fubjects; more efpecially at a juncture, when there is nothing more evident, than that all the nations in Europe have opened their eyes to the advantages of commerce.

The queftion then is, If upon this principle we ought to be very circumfpect in beftowing the privileges of fubjects on thofe who were yesterday our rivals, without any fecurity that they will not become the fame to-morrow? To this we may alfo add, that as there was a time when the whole of our traffic was engroffed by Lombards, merchants of the Steel-yard, members of the Hanfe-Towns, and other foreigners, if we ought in common prudence to avoid every thing that may bring us into the like ftate again?

The connexion which the nation hath with foreigners, and the advantages confeffedly derived from them, has made a deep impreffion on the minds of fome of the greateft men in this kingdom; but general views of things do not always give the mind that light and fatisfaction as a particular object, which it can more eafily grasp, and from thence, with the greateft facility, enlarge itfelf, and take in others of a fimilar nature. Let us then examine the particular cafe which gave occafion to thefe remarks. ‘ The amount of the reafons againft any reftriictive claufe in the acts of naturalization of foreigners, as factors in Ruffia *, was this, that the treaty of commerce between the crowns of Great-Britain and Ruffia is really a matter of no great moment, and that the figure which the Englifh make in Ruffia is owing to their afociation with foreigners in that country.’ A further argument was, ‘ That foreigners fituated in Ruffia are under peculiar difadvantages to all other foreigners, or even what they themfelves would be if fituated in any other country; not by any particular law of the legiflature, but from a partial regulation of the Ruffia company, by which each

* A paper published in 1752.

member is restrained, by virtue of the oath taken upon his admission to his freedom, from giving any commissions to any person not free of that company; and that freedom is never granted but to British-born and naturalized subjects: from whence it is deduced, that the trade is a monopoly.

Thus because the Russia company do not give up to foreigners the benefits of the Russian trade with Great-Britain, therefore their charter is hurtful to Great-Britain. Now it is evident, that there cannot be a greater trade where a greater liberty is open to the natives of a country than this in question. The Russian markets are always well supplied, each trader pursuing his own inclination to import, and his own opinion concerning the rise and fall of markets, and the opportunities of sale. I have known British houses in St Petersburg, that, for several successive years, have had from 40 to 100 bales of cloth remaining over the annual demand. The credit given the Russians is never less than twelve months, unless in small articles, and it is often extended to fifteen and eighteen months; and the prices of goods are as low as possible, for the merchant to receive a living profit.

There are no monopolies or exclusive privileges assumed by the Russia company, nor any rule of conduct established, which has the least appearance of being injurious to this nation; for any natural-born Protestant subject may, for 5 l. take his freedom of the company, go into Russia, and establish a house of business, under the protection of the British crown. The English merchant may also consign goods to any person who is a native of Russia, or a subject of Great-Britain, remembering that the advantage in favour of the British subjects in Russia, according to the 27th article of the treaty of commerce, is about one-third part in the customs of soldiers cloths *, Yorkshires †, and flannels. Nor is there any restraint with regard to the markets of these kingdoms, for any Russian, as well as freeman of the company, may send Russian goods into England; he is only to pay the aliens duty, as established by law ‡. The law of nations, the right of reciprocal protection, and the last articles of the treaty do, I apprehend, make the Russians intirely free to trade to this country. Some Russian merchants have actually been here, but finding they could not dispose of their goods in a satisfactory manner, nor live near so cheap as at home, they returned to their own country.

* Coarse cloths so called.

† A thick coarse cloth.

‡ This duty amounts to 3 s. 4 d. on a ton of hemp, or about $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the present value of hemp, at 23 l. per ton, which, in general terms, is provided for in the treaty of commerce.

Besides this favour in the customs, the British factors in St Petersburg esteem it a valuable privilege, that, in all cases where they are defendants, particularly bankruptcy, their affairs are cognizable by the college of trade, and their books sacred to the inspection of reputable merchants, appointed by that college. In many cases, also, where they are plaintiffs, they apply to the college of trade; but their common suits and demands for money of the Russian merchants, have been for some years transferred to the magistracy *.

* This was a most ignorant and corrupt tribunal, and a shame to the Russian nation in my time; but if it should continue the same, it is in the power of factors to represent this grievance.

With regard to the quartering of soldiers in Russia, the British subjects are indulged in a peculiar manner, and no doubt it ought to be deemed a favour, under a military government, to be exempt from it. This privilege, however, was more sacred and more considerable formerly than of late years: I have myself opposed attempts made by the officers of the police to oblige me, as a tenant, to find quarters. I do not know that these attempts have yet succeeded against tenant or landlord; but if the landlord is compelled to find quarters, and the rent is raised on this account, the tenant ought to complain: for we consider it not only as the spirit of the treaty, that British subjects shall enjoy an intire exemption from quarters, that is, the landlord not being chargeable with it, the tenant shall have his rent so much the cheaper. This must be the sense of the 16th article, or it means nothing; for who can imagine it should be deemed a favour to a British government, that common soldiers may not sit in the counting-house of a British merchant in Russia?

How cautious the Russians are of being lavish of any essential part of the treaty, appears by this, that, in order to ascertain the legality of property, when a British subject first appears in the custom-house of St Petersburg, the officers demand a certificate of his Majesty's consul, that the person is really what he pretends to be, and without it they will not clear his goods.

In what manner this treaty of commerce is considered by the Russians, may be deduced from the embassy of Monsieur de Dieu at the Russian court, in 1745. It is generally reported, and I believe it is true, that his chief business was to negotiate a treaty of commerce on the behalf of his masters, the States of the United Provinces, on the plan of that of Great-Britain; but certain it is, that he did not accomplish any such

treaty: and if so able and so favoured a minister could not procure this privilege for his countrymen, the Russians certainly meant not that the advantages they grant to BRITISH SUBJECTS should become general; so that naturalizations granted to foreigners in Russia tend to enervate the treaty of commerce, and may at length render it contemptible.

The Russians know very well, that the English were the first that discovered Archangel; that they had an exclusive privilege of trade to Russia in the reign of queen Elizabeth; that Peter the Great, whose maxims of government are justly near to them, always shewed a distinguished regard to the English merchants, and even at the time that the politics of the two nations did not intirely coincide *, he gave them his royal word, that, at all events, they might consider themselves as under his peculiar care and protection: this I have been assured by one who was familiar with his imperial Majesty. The Russians are also sensible of the political, as well as of the commercial interest of the two nations, and consider this country, and I hope will always consider it, as their hereditary friend †. As our extensive commerce has reached every corner of the earth, the greater our support is at home, the greater must our reputation be abroad. Reputation is certainly no imaginary thing, but must be in some degree productive of good to our commercial interest, with relation to the spirit of commerce in our factories abroad.

* Some difference with his late Majesty as elector of Hanover.

† I remember the compliment made to this nation by the governor of Astracan, a very ingenious man, whom I have mentioned in the course of these papers, speaking to his friends in my presence: 'You are to consider, says he, the English merchants in a different light from those of any other nation trading to this country; they are skilful, generous, humane, upright; they extend their commerce over the whole earth, and every country where they come is enriched by them. The commodities they deal in are necessary, substantial, of the greatest use to the community, and they take off more of the Russian commodities than all the other nations united.'

The British houses in St Petersburg have not only a trade to Great-Britain and Ireland, but to Holland, Prussia, Sweden, Holstein, and several parts of Germany; also to Portugal, Spain, and Italy; this has arisen from the connections of their extensive commerce, intirely independent of naturalized subjects in Russia. On the other hand, this is not the case with naturalized subjects *. There long has been, and I hope ever will be, an honourable distinction abroad between us and other foreigners, both as BRITONS and as MERCHANTS, not in the esteem of the Russians only, but of all other nations. Whether it is worthy of national observation or not, can be determined only from the nature of the subject; but it is apparent, that the naturalization of foreigners to reside in Russia creates ill blood in the breasts of his Majesty's natural-born subjects who are in that country: it would have created much more, but that there are but few of the naturalized factors who have not failed; had they conducted their trade with moderation and prudence, it is probable the British commerce might have been intirely in their hands, and this nation nothing the better for the commission on the sale of British commodities, or on the purchase of those of Russia. Besides, is it not highly reasonable to think that such naturalized subjects would be less tender than the British factors, in regard to the prices this nation might pay for NAVAL STORES?

* I have heard the Russian merchants occasionally treat us with ridicule, by using a droll expression, which signifies, 'Are you a white-washed Englishman?' And a naturalized factor being in some distress, pleaded his being an English subject, to Valenofsky, a minister of the empress Anne: 'You an English subject! says the minister, why you was born in Casan, in the dominion of the empress.'

I passed some years of my life at Lisbon, where I observed that the French Protestants in that place live in mutual harmony with the native subjects of this island; and from the experience we have that their riches always center here, they are considered upon the same footing with other British subjects.

The trading world is often suspected of acting upon narrow principles; yet our factors abroad are not only for the most part loyal, but, upon the comparison of the several governments under which they live with the excellent constitution of these kingdoms, they contract a patriot and disinterested spirit: but when, from the strongest evidence, they apprehend the intention of the legislature is defeated, and their own interest hurt at the same time, they are alarmed, and think it their duty to appeal to their country. The British factors in Portugal are jealous of those foreigners, who having obtained of the British crown a participation of the British birthrights, carry all their wealth to any country except this island, where, indeed, their paternal connections do not center *. Many of the Portugal traders signed the petition already mentioned, the meaning of which is intelligible beyond dispute,

* Mr Ralhleigh, a great Portugal trader, who has given estates to many Hamburgers in Lisbon, can tell if any of them ever brought a shilling of it into this country.

and

and seems to speak the general sense of the merchants of this metropolis, though some may be inclined, upon DIFFERENT PRINCIPLES, TO DIFFERENT SENTIMENTS.

The BRITISH FACTORS in HAMBURGH have not one naturalized subject among them. The convention of the British Hamburg company with the regency of that city, will not admit any naturalized subject to a participation of the valuable immunities of that company, and which, for a series of years, they have enjoyed with a most unblemished reputation: and what could this nation gain by an admission of naturalized subjects into that factory?

It would be easy to prove, that whatever we play into their hands is a losing game to this country; for I do not comprehend what they could give us in exchange. My reason for thinking it is a losing game is this; with regard to the Russia factors, I know at this time eight or ten British subjects, I suppose there are more, who laid the foundation of their fortunes as factors in that country, and some of them are yet interested in houses there; there is not one of those persons but has brought riches, more or less, and some of them, I believe, to a considerable amount, to the national stock of this country, and are, I have great reason to think, good members of the community.

On the other hand, I have seen a list of 24 foreigners, many of whom I know personally, who, within these 25 years, have been naturalized, and of all this number, in all this time, only one ever came into this kingdom, and he had particular connections with a British subject. It must be observed, that it was only 25 years since any naturalization reached Russia; the trade then was not so considerable as it is now, nor had our people established themselves there under the sanction of such a treaty as the present.

We are jealous of weakening ourselves by the want of foreign aids; but to think ourselves dependent in cases where our interest in one light is apparently wounded, is it not to weaken ourselves, for fear of being weakened? Not to confound things of a different nature under one name, it must be observed, that the circumstances of naturalized subjects at home, under this government, and intitled to enjoy all the good, and subject to share in all the evils, which befall the state, are very different from those persons who participate of the advantages which this nation enjoys abroad.

The intention of naturalization, no doubt, is the benefit of this island; and if there are cases in which naturalizations are not attended with any benefit, but, on the contrary, prostitute the honour of the nation, enervate its influence, and counteract its native subjects, it is to be presumed that such cases have not been set in a proper light.

The French Protestants have, indeed, strong connections with this island; their parentage, their interest, or the protection they receive, induce them to consider this as their proper home, and, consequently, they are intitled to all the regard which we can shew them.

If experience is the best guide of life, it is that which must teach us whom to receive into our breasts as friends, and who to reject, in the commercial light we now consider the subject, as no friends to this country. By what rule can we judge better, than by observing those people who return our kindness with gratitude, and those who forget the benefits they receive?

If our first concern ought to be for our own children, it ought then to be considered how many sons of tradesmen, merchants, gentlemen, and even noblemen, are lost to their parents, their country, and their God, for want of employment? Merchants are no where more honourably esteemed than in this country; but they often lay the foundation of that knowledge for which they are esteemed in distant climes: and shall we encourage foreigners to take their place?

There cannot be more trade carried on than a country will bear; it will usually employ so much money, so many hands, and no more. Do we want money in this nation to carry on our trade? By no means. It is true, the national interest is already very low, perhaps it will be lower still; and what will be the consequence, but we must throw more money into trade, and extend our settlements and commercial interest over the earth as much as possible? Why should we encourage FOREIGNERS to do any thing for us ABROAD, which we can do better OURSELVES? What circumstances should we be in, if all our FACTORS ABROAD were foreigners? What tie, or what security should we have of their integrity, in the SALE of OUR COMMODITIES, much less in the promotion of our NATIONAL MANUFACTURES, in opposition to those of other countries, or zeal in the purchase of the commodities of the countries where they reside, if they left us no pledge of their fidelity, nor spent any part of their lives in this island?

On the other hand, what riches do not OUR FACTORS bring home! How many considerable men have not we in this metropolis from LISBON! Who can be ignorant of the wealth that has been brought here by EAST-INDIA FACTORS? Are not these great national objects? Italy, Spain, and other countries, are ever sending us new recruits to our commercial strength, arising from FACTORAGE. But there is yet a further reason, which occurs: let the warmest advocates for

general naturalizations, without any distinctions of persons, professions, or residence, consider how destructive such naturalizations are to our GENERAL SYSTEM OF NATURALIZATION AND NATIONAL PROFIT. If we give to foreign Protestants abroad that which should invite them hither, we may even prevent their coming to us. By being lavish of our beneficence, we seem to be sufficiently paid by their acceptance of it, without any regard to the return which they are to make us. For what foreigner, seeing us so prodigal of our bounty in a case of this nature, which he knows to be injurious to the natural-born subjects of this island, can, in proportion as it is beneficial to himself, entertain any other opinion than that we do not pretend to pursue our own interest?

The original intention of naturalization being confessedly the benefit of this nation, where there is the least ground of suspicion that the party going abroad means not to add any thing to the national advantage, ought he not, in such a case, to declare on what principles he pretends to the favour in question; and if it should appear that he deceived the legislature, would not such a resentment be due as at least to refuse a compliance?

If a reciprocal regard to the interest of this nation is the sole motive of the invitation given to foreigners who reside here, and if by their residence they do in fact give us the earnest of a grateful return, is there no security to be asked of those who do not so much as pretend to live amongst us, nor give us any kind of equivalent? The very expectation of advantage from them is distant, remote, confused, and, perhaps, utterly unintelligible.

The injury is obvious to demonstration, and is actually complained of by those who feel it, whose interest is common with that of the whole nation.

The reader to whom the subject is new, must now be informed, that the merchants and Russia factors at length obtained the thing they asked, by fixing the time of absence to the naturalized foreigners already mentioned, to three years, and then to reside three years alternately in this country, or to become an alien: but this was a temporizing accommodation of the matter, and does not seem to answer the full intent of the legislature. Upon the principle that this restrictive clause will produce the end proposed, it might become a rule of conduct to the nation in similar cases of naturalized factors. As a trading nation, we might be yet more indulging to those whose connections are nearly equal with the common ties of the natural-born subjects. But let us consider dispassionately, how dangerous it is in politics to enter very deep into refinements of this sort, either immediately to advance the interest of a nation, or to prevent an injury which may be more remote.

The object most dear to an honest man is the real happiness of his country. This principle being laid down, let us consider what means are most effectual to obtain this end in a direct view. We see one of the wisest princes in Europe using his utmost endeavours to bring people into his country, as we desire to engage foreigners who can bring riches, arts, or industry, to come to this island. He gives them lands and great immunities; he has brought 20,000 into his capital in a few years; but he is far from extending those privileges to persons out of his dominions. With regard to ourselves, the same reasons that induce us to give encouragement to people to come to this island, may be a sufficient motive not to give it out of these dominions, and under foreign jurisdiction. If we carry our views so far as to give foreigners abroad a power of taking share in what our own people possess, without any security of the least return from such foreigners, nay, where all appearances make against any return, do we not counteract our own principle?

If it is urged, That a nation cannot be said to confer a favour which by restrictions is rendered less valuable; I do not apprehend, without being Quixotes in politics, what it is we mean by these words: for suppose interest is the object in pursuit: as to weakening the influence of naturalization, by which commerce is intended to be promoted, this also seems to prove nothing more, than that we should run all hazards, rather than lose any possibility of getting a subject who is a foreigner, though at the expence of a subject who is a native. It is said that naturalization without limitation has, after an indefinite absence, brought foreigners into this country, who might not otherwise have come. It would be well worth examining if this is true, and who such persons are, and what were their inducements to settle here, before this argument can be answered; for, when they do in fact come, we receive them with open arms; and we ought to countenance and encourage those who may settle here, if we do not pay too much for it. But I do not comprehend that here are any settlements of such weight as to establish a rule of conduct in opposition to our commercial interest, as it appears in a direct view. The case before us is foreign to the countenancing of strangers, who set out upon a principle of designing to settle in this island. I say FOREIGN TO SUCH PRINCIPLE; for though many French Protestants have come here, after being as long abroad under the protection of the crown of Great-Britain as they pleased, yet still the matter will rest

on this issue: are we so fond of naturalization, as to give a power to foreigners, without distinction, to supplant our own people, when experience teaches us we have no just grounds to expect any suitable returns?

It cannot be too often repeated, that we ought to be cautious of curbing in any degree the inclinations of the natural-born subjects in regard to commerce, or of damping that spirit and application to trade, on which is founded the opulence of this nation, and its strength and influence as a maritime power. And whilst interest is the great incentive to human actions, and particularly actions of this kind, I think it is apparent, that the more we interpose to countenance foreigners in commercial designs, in cases not demonstrably beneficial to this country, the more we depress the spirits of our own merchants, who confessedly do advance the interest of the nation: and this discouragement may extend not only in regard to their being deprived of those profits which immediately accrue from the share such naturalized foreigners have in their trade, but also to a jealousy of being intirely supplanted, in the course of time.

May it not be questioned what prejudices would this nation receive, if no naturalized subject, 'till he has resided here seven years, nor the children born abroad of persons already naturalized, their parents not having lived in his Majesty's dominions for the same number of years, were received abroad as factors or merchants, in common with native-born subjects? If it can be demonstrated that such prejudice will be greater than any that can be proved on the other side the question, there is no room for a debate; but if it can be made appear that it is only equal, the scale, we may expect, will turn in favour of the native subject, much more if the prejudice is against the latter, for this plain reason, that the national and mercantile interest are but two words for the same thing. The impartial reader will consider the argument, not the writer, if I am suspected of interest, where I have no other view than national benefit; yet the real truth can receive no diminution: I hope that will be done which is most for the interest of my country, be it what it will.'

RUSSIA considered with relation to other principal states and empires.

The northern parts of the empire of Russia, from the frontiers of the Swedish dominions to those of China and Japan, are guarded in such a manner, as to be secure not only from danger, but from apprehensions, having on that side a sea hitherto impenetrable, and through which, if any passage could be found, it must turn to the benefit, but can never prove of any disadvantage, to the subjects of Russia; which is a point of great consequence, and a blessing scarce known to any other country than this. The frontiers of the empire towards China are also inaccessible, as consisting of deserts impenetrable by armies, but which yield a tolerable passage for caravans; so that the Russians may always reckon on the friendship of the Chinese, and, whenever they apply themselves seriously thereto, may make this friendship turn to their advantage.

The Tartars inhabiting the countries between Russia and Persia, are no longer formidable to the first-mentioned empire; on the contrary, they all respect it, and many of them have willingly submitted, and become vassals to it.

The Caspian Sea, and the dominions which the Russians have on that side, give them a fair opening into Persia, which they have already improved so, as to gain to themselves a very advantageous trade; and this by degrees may be extended, perhaps, as far as the East-Indies.

It will always be the interest of Russia to cultivate a good understanding with the Shah; but, in case of a rupture, she would not have much to fear, since the frontiers of Persia being open, she might soon make an end of the war, by letting loose upon them the Tartars who are her tributaries. The Turks, and their associates the Crim Tartars, are more dangerous enemies; but, at present, the circumstances of the Porte are such as scarce will allow her to break with the Russians, if she had concluded a peace with Persia; and we shall hereafter see, that Russia can never want the power of defending herself on this side, or even of making the Turks sensible of the folly of breaking with her without just provocation. The two great Christian principalities depending upon that empire, will always have a bias in favour of the Russians, and, therefore, the Turks run a greater hazard by making war with this, than with any other nation.

The interests of Russia in Europe are not hard to assign. As to Sweden, it is of great consequence to live upon good terms with that crown; and, on the other hand, the superiority of Russia, when forced into a war, has of late been rendered so apparent, that there are good grounds to expect the Swedes will continue quiet on that side for a long time to come, even supposing that no stress should be laid on the natural connections between the two branches of the house of Holstein, when they come to govern these nations. As it is requisite for the court of Peterburgh to be well with the Swedes on one side, so it imports them no less to be upon good terms with the Poles on the other; for which reason, we see the late Czari-

na omitted nothing to set the present king Augustus upon the throne of Poland, well knowing that his interests were of such a nature as must, without treaties, bind him effectually to her's.

There seems to be no great cause of intercourse between Russia and Denmark, farther than what results from attention to the ballance of power in the North, which will always incline a wise administration in this empire to keep the scales as even as may be, between this crown and that of Sweden and Denmark.

The interests of Russia, with respect to the house of Austria, are its most material concern; for while these houses are united, not only by general alliances, but by a due and hearty regard for each other's prosperity, neither has much to fear from the Turks; but if they are divided, and the Ottomans should recover their ancient power, they may be formidable to both.

As to Prussia, of late years great regard has been due, and, in succeeding times, it is like to claim a greater; but certainly, if these two powers pursue their true interests, and are not misled by ambitious views, they are not like to fall out. The maritime powers are the natural allies, and hitherto have been, and are like to be fast friends to Russia.

As to the other potentates of Europe, their dominions lie at too great a distance for Russia to have very great intercourse with them of any sort; and with respect to the house of Bourbon, as the court of Peterburgh has never had any cause to like, so, in spite of all its power, there is no probability of its ever seeing much reason to fear it.

And now the imperial prince has issue, there does not appear any sign, at present, that this empire will soon be disturbed by any intestine commotions in regard to the succession; nor could any thing distress the Russians on this occasion, unless we suppose that Sweden, Denmark, Poland, and Prussia, should unite, and continue united in this league, to promote a revolution, which seems now far from probable.

It is very certain, that the great power of the Russian empire and her close connexion with the house of Austria, has excited a spirit of suspicion and jealousy in the North, to which also the particular views of several powers have not a little contributed; but notwithstanding this, what has been said remains not at all the less certain.

But if, on any future occasion, a war should actually break out between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, &c. the turn of that war must remain very uncertain, since the force of the Russian empire is really much greater than is commonly imagined, and would be found so in such a case.

We may from hence form a judgment of the abilities of those ministers who direct at present the councils of this empire, and who by shewing an unshaken steadiness in pursuing that system which they have adopted, have at least raised the credit of their government to a very high degree, and, for some time, made this empire not only the arbiter of all differences in the north, but have likewise extended its influence to the most distant parts of Europe, since it is universally confessed, that the march of the Russian auxiliaries, during the late war, was the measure that contributed most to the conclusion of the definitive treaty at Aix la Chapelle.

It deserves the reader's notice, likewise, that, in the present state of things, the true interests of this empire will certainly be the rules of the reigning Czarina's government; for remaining single, and having no particular desires or designs to gratify, the peace and prosperity of her government can depend on nothing else.

In consequence of this, a constant and firm adherence to that system, best calculated to promote the good of her subjects, and the glory of the empire, will be the standing maxims in the Czarina's councils. As such a conduct cannot fail of having a strong tendency to promote peace and satisfaction at home, and to secure the attachment of the allies of Russia, by maintaining the credit of the administration abroad, there are no grounds to apprehend, at least in our times, any great inconveniences of extraordinary alterations should ensue.

We may likewise add, that things remaining, as they are like to remain, in their present posture for a few years, the advantages of these measures will become more and more perceptible, and a proper sense of loyalty and gratitude diffuse itself through the inhabitants, even of the remotest provinces of that extended empire, which is certainly in a very thriving condition, and will by degrees, in consequence of the improvements that are daily making, come to extend its power and influence much farther than those who are unacquainted with, or unattentive to, political principles, can easily conceive.

REMARKS on our article Russia, since the last war, and treaty of peace of 1763.

As the last treaty of peace has annexed such extensive territories to the crown of Great-Britain in North-America, it is now hoped, that we shall no longer stand in need of NAVAL STORES of any kind from Russia, or elsewhere; we being able to produce them there, in what quantities we please, provided rational and vigorous means shall be taken by the government of England for that purpose. See our articles NAVAL STORES, NAVAL AFFAIRS, WAR.

That the court of England seems to be in earnest about this important matter, it is said that an **ADDITIONAL DUTY** will soon be laid on the foreign importation of **HEMP**, **HEMPSEED** and **FLAX**, particularly from **RUSSIA** and the **Baltick**; great quantities, the growth of our own American colonies, being expected over in the spring.

RUTLANDSHIRE, the smallest county in England, almost of a circular form, encompassed on the east and south with **Lincolnshire** and **Northamptonshire**, with **Leicestershire** on the south and west, and with part of **Leicestershire** and **Lincolnshire** on the north. It is about 15 miles in length, 10 in breadth, and is computed at 136 square miles.

The air is sweet and healthful, it being quite free from fogs and mists. The **Grantham-Wash** is the chief river which runs through the shire, which is from east to west, in the middle of the county. There are several brooks that run into this river, by which the inhabitants are supplied with water; and with plenty of fish; almost all the south and east parts, in

particular, have good supplies from the river **Welland**, which separates it from **Northamptonshire** and **Lincolnshire**.

The soil is very fruitful in corn and pasture, which breeds great numbers of cattle, especially sheep, whose wool is observed to be more red than in other countries, from a red quality peculiar to the soil. The vale of **Catmos** in particular, where **Oakham** stands, is not inferior in fertility to the vales of **White Horse** and **Belvoir**. It also produces abundance of wood for fuel.

OKEHAM is the capital of the county, and shire-town for the assizes, and for transacting all other public affairs.

UPPINGHAM, a modern town, the second in the county, and the only one that has a market. It is a neat, compact, well-built town, with a well-frequented market for cattle, corn, &c.

This, though a small county, is remarkable for many fine seats, and some of the first rank, particularly the earl of **Gainsborough's** at **Enton**, and the earl of **Winchelsea's**, at **Burley** on the Hill, both near **Okeham**.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the end of letter Q.

With regard to RUM.

RUM imported in casks not containing 20 gallons at the least, (except for the seamen's use) forfeited, or the value; but, if it appears, to the satisfaction of the principal officer of the customs, to be imported without fraud or concealment, may be admitted to entry. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 2. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

— or spirits, of the British sugar-plantations, imported directly into Great-Britain, may, on entry, and before payment of the duty of excise, be landed and put into warehouses, provided by the proprietor or importer, and approved of by the commissioners of excise, under the joint locks of the proprietor and warehouse-keeper; security being first given to pay the said duty, (according to the gauge at landing) as soon as such rum or spirits shall be sold, or at the end of six months, if they shall not be then sold. 15 and 16 Geo. II. c. 25. §. 1, 7. and 23 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 2.

— If the duty is not paid at the expiration of the said six months, the commissioners may cause such rum or spirits to be sold by auction, and out of the produce discharge the duty and all expences, and pay the surplus, if any, to the proprietor. 15 and 16 Geo. II. c. 25. §. 9. and 23 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 2.

— Landed without being entered at the custom-house, and without the collector of excise, or without a warrant from the proper officers, or without the presence of an excise-officer, forfeited; one moiety to his majesty, the other to such person as shall seize, inform, or sue for the same. 15 and 16 Geo. II. c. 25. §. 3. and 23 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 2.

— May from time to time be delivered out of such warehouses, (but not in less quantities than one cask, containing at least 20 gallons, unless it was for the use of the seamen in the voyage) on paying the duty, and producing to the warehouse-keeper, and officer appointed to attend, a warrant or certificate from the collector, certifying such payment. 15 and 16 Geo. II. c. 25. §. 5, 6. and 23 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 2.

— Warehouse-keepers, and officers appointed to attend warehouses, are to enter, in proper books, accounts of all rum, &c. which shall be brought into and carried out of their respective warehouses; and at the end of every six months transmit an account thereof, upon oath, to the commissioners of excise, together with what is remaining; and if it shall appear to the said commissioners, that any of the said rum, &c. has been delivered out before payment of the duty, then such warehouse-keepers and officers respectively offending, shall be disabled to hold any publick office, and also forfeit 100l. 15 and 16 Geo. II. c. 25. §. 4. and 23 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 2.

— No rum nor spirits of America, (except of the growth or manufacture of his majesty's sugar-colonies there) may be imported into Ireland, unless shipped in Great-Britain in ships legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ship and her furniture. 6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 4.

And since, there has been an act of parliament, made in the 33d year of his late majesty, for encouraging the exportation of **RUM** and **SPIRITS** of the growth, produce and manufacture, of the British sugar-plantations, from this kingdom, and of British spirits made from molasses.

The duties of custom payable upon the importation of rum and spirits from the British sugar-plantations, to be repaid upon the exportation thereof—And the duties of

excise to be remitted upon all such as shall be exported before payment is made of the said duties—The exporter to give bond for the due exportation thereof—Upon producing a certificate of such bond having been given, the rum, or spirits mentioned therein, are to be delivered out of the warehouses—And a certificate of the quantity, and size and marks of the casks, &c. to be given therewith—And produced to the officer attending the shipping—Due entry to be made of such delivery—Bonds to be given for the duties are to be delivered up, upon oath made of the intended exportation—And certificates produced, &c. of the quantity shipped, and that the same are proof spirits; and also of the delivery thereof from the warehouses, &c.—If part only of the rum or spirits, mentioned in the bond, are certified to be delivered and shipped, the quantity is to be indorsed on the bond—And the bond is to be delivered up, when the remaining part shall be certified to be delivered and shipped; provided the same be before the time stipulated for payment of the duties.—All rum and spirits intitled to the said drawback, &c. are to be exported in casks containing not less than 100 gallons, and in vessels not less than 100 tons burthen—The quantity delivered out is to be computed according to the gauge taken upon the importation thereof—If after delivery they shall be concealed, or not shipped within 12 hours, or the casks opened, or the same be reduced or altered in quantity or quality; such rum or spirits are **FORFEITED**, and the bond is to be put in suit; unless the commissioners see cause to forbear the same—Bonds given for exportation are not to be discharged 'till certificates be produced of the due exportation and landing, and proof made thereof on oath, in manner required by the act, for preventing the excessive use of spirituous liquors, &c.—The condition of all bonds taken shall be to produce such certificates, within such times respectively as are limited by the act, for producing the certificates therein required to be delivered—In case no such certificates shall be produced within the time limited, the bonds may be put in suit—If such rum or spirits shall not be exported, or shall be fraudulently relanded, the same, together with the vessels, cattle and carriages employed therein, are **FORFEITED**; and the persons concerned forfeit double the amount of the duties—And the master or commander of the vessel, if he assists or connives thereat, is to suffer also six months imprisonment; or if the package be altered before arrival at the place of discharge, he forfeits 100l.—The rum or spirits to be exported, are to be **PROOF**; and the exporter is to give five days previous notice of the shipping thereof, and allow the officers to mark the casks, and take samples, paying for the same, if demanded, upon **PENALTY** of forfeiting 100l.—If any rum or spirits shall be altered or reduced, in quantity or quality, after being shipped, the same is **FORFEITED**, and the persons concerned therein forfeit 100l.—And no drawback is to be allowed for the same—**PENALTY** for granting a false certificate, or of counterfeiting, altering, &c. any oath or certificate, 500l.; one moiety to the crown, and the other to the prosecutor.—An additional **DRAWBACK** of 3l. 3s. per tun, allowed on all British-made spirits drawn from molasses, exported; oath being made of the truth thereof, and the duties being duly paid; and certificate produced of the quantity shipped, and that the same were **PROOF SPIRITS**, &c.

The powers, regulations, forfeitures, and clauses, &c. in the recited act, relating to the **DRAWBACKS** hereby granted on the exportation of spirits, and to the preventing or punishing **FRAUDS**, &c. are extended to this act—And all **FINES**, **PENALTIES**,

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

PENALTIES, and FORFEITURES, imposed by this act, shall be sued for, levied, recovered, or mitigated, by such ways, means, and methods, as may be recovered or mitigated by any law or laws of excise (not otherwise directed by this act) or by action of **DEBT, BILL, PLAINT, or INFORMATION,** in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, or in the court of Exchequer of SCOTLAND; and that one moiety of every such **FINE, &c.** shall be to his Majesty, &c. and the other to him or them, who shall discover, inform, or sue for the same. — That any person sued, &c. in pursuance of this act, may plead the general issue, and give this act, &c. in evidence in their defence, &c. and if a verdict shall pass for defendant, such defendant shall have **TREBLE COSTS.**

With regard to the RUSSIA COMPANY.

RUSSIA COMPANY. — Any British subject may be free of it, upon payment of 5 l. for admission. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 6. §. 1, 2. — Any person free of this company may import, in British-built ships legally navigated from Russia, any goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Persia (provided such manufactures are made of the growth or

produce of Persia) purchased by barter with, or the produce of, woollen or other goods exported from Great-Britain to Russia (except gold or silver in coin or bullion) and from thence carried into Persia, to the truth whereof the importer is to make oath; paying the same customs as such goods are liable to if imported from the Levant seas by any person belonging to the Turkey company. 14 Geo. II. cap. 36. §. 1, 2. — But by 23 Geo. II. cap. 34. raw silk of the growth or produce of Persia may be imported under the same regulations, although the goods with which they are purchased are not carried from Russia into Persia.

— If any doubt shall arise, whether any of the goods so imported be of the growth, &c. of Persia, or not, or were imported contrary to this act, and for that reason shall be seized as forfeited, the proof thereof shall be incumbent on the importer or claimer. 14 Geo. II. cap. 36. §. 4.

— Wrought silks, and other manufactures of Persia, mentioned in act 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. are not to be worn in this kingdom, but are to be under the regulations in the said act. 14 Geo. II. cap. 36. §. 3.

— Nothing in this act is to deprive the East-India company from enjoying their full powers, privileges, &c. — 14 Geo. II. cap. 36. §. 6.

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SABLE. Several authors have, here and there, given descriptions of these species of precious animals. I shall therefore only add thus much, viz. (1.) That it is the nature of these creatures, at a certain time of the winter, to sleep for a while; but first they hide themselves so securely, that it is a very hard matter to find any of them. And if at any time they are discovered, they lie wrapped up, as it were, like a ball, and you may roll and throw them about, without waking them. (2.) That they live upon mice, cedar-kernels, red-berries, fish, &c. (3.) That those years, when cedar-kernels and red-berries are most plenty, these animals are the most difficult to be found, and their furr is the worse; because feeding plentifully, they rest most; on the contrary, if there be a scarcity of cedar-kernels and berries, they are easier caught; for they then run more about, and exercise makes the furr much more beautiful. (4.) That the most beautiful sable skins have generally the worst tails, and the worst skins, on the contrary, the finest tails. (5.) That there are sables as white as snow, but they are met with very rarely. (6.) Upon the islands in the north-eastern sea, beyond Khamtschatki in Russia, the sables are very indifferent, but then they have tails a quarter of a Russian ell long, streaked red and black. Near Crasnoyahr, Abakan, Kuanetfko, and some other places, you may buy a hundred of the best sable tails for about six or eight rubbles; whereas they are worth from 25 to 30 rubbles at Tobolsky, and will sell for 100 rubbles at Moscow. The skins bear the same proportion of price. A timber of sables consists of 40 skins, or 20 couple.

Note, a rubble is about 4s. 6d. sterling. See the article RUSSIA.

SADLER. Under this title is carried on a very considerable trade, but in very different degrees.

Their business is not only saddle-making, which is a curious as well as very ancient employ, but to complete some, and sell all other necessaries for the saddle-nag and horseman. Some only work privately, making up goods for town and country trade.

Some keep but small shops, and for the most part sell and repair the middling sorts of saddlery-wares, but seldom make up. Others have large shops, and make up and sell all sorts of the finest horse-furniture.

Others again keep large stocks of goods for exportation, and merchandize a great deal on their own accounts.

They were a company before the year 1190, but not incorporated 'till 1272. In the reign of king Edward I. Livery-fine 10 l. whereof his royal highness the late prince of Wales was a member.

Their hall is near Foster-lane in Cheapside, and their court-day on the first Tuesday in the month.

Before their hall-gate they have a stand, in which they sit to attend the lord mayor on the day of his installation.

SAFE-CONDUCTS, PROTECTIONS, PASSPORTS.

A safe-conduct is a security given by the king, under the great-seal, to a stranger, for his safe coming into and passing out of the realm, touching which are several statutes. A passport is a licence granted by any in authority, for the safe passage of man or ship, &c. from one place or country to another.

Protections are of two sorts; public, where a prince takes on him the defence of another prince or state; or private, of persons or ships, in effect only a passport.

By the law of protection, the protected person owes all respect to his protector, who, on his part, should defend and succour the protected; or he may withdraw himself from the protection, and seek another. The Genoese revolting from the protection of the French king, he changed their conditions into privileges, that he might deprive them of them when he should think fit. Molloy 84.

In protections of ships and persons, generally great faith is kept by the granters; for at this day, if a ship hath a Barbary protection, the pirates of that nation will restore any such ship they have taken; and if no protection, yet if taken

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within sight of their castles, the prize is not absolute, unless resistance be made.

The statute of Magna Charta, 9 Hen. III. cap. 30. ordains, That all merchant-strangers shall have safe conduct into, out of, and whilst in, England, to buy, sell, &c. if not openly prohibited; except in time of war, and in an enemy's country. And by 27 Edw. III. cap. 2. Safe-conduct is granted to merchant-strangers, to dwell and traffic in this kingdom, and return at pleasure.

By 15 Hen. VI. cap. 3. it is recited, That whereas the king had granted safe-conduct to certain persons coming in and out of England, France, and Ireland, with certain laden ships; and faith should be given both to the copy called Vidimus, and the original of those letters: and that one John de Guntier granted such copy to as many as he pleased, sealed with the seal of him that called himself king of France; by which a great navy of enemies was assembled, and took many ships, &c. to the great damage of England.

The king, at the grievous complaint of the commons in parliament, ordains, that the clause Vidimus shall not be put in any future safe-conduct granted, without great cause. And also that in all safe-conducts, the name of the ships, masters, number of mariners, and ship's burthen, shall be expressed.

By 18 Hen. VI. cap. 8. Merchants aliens may charge vessels of Spain, and other parts, enemies of the king, if the masters, owners, &c. have safe-conduct. And if any such ships be taken by the king's subjects, not having authentic safe-conducts, the possessors may enjoy the same. And proclamation is to be made of this statute on the sea-coasts, that merchants aliens may have knowledge of it.

By 20 Hen. VI. cap. 1. All letters of safe-conduct granted to the king's enemies, or others, shall be enrolled in chancery before delivery, or else be void: and if at any time hereafter, goods are taken by English subjects on the sea in enemy's ships, not having legal safe-conduct, they shall enjoy them without restitution.

And the king's subjects, taking such ships, and forcibly bringing them into any port of the realm, shall not receive damage, if ready to make restitution within reasonable time after they shall have knowledge of letters of safe-conduct, enrolled in chancery before taking them.

By 31 Hen. VI. cap. 4. Any subject offending upon the sea, or in any port of the kingdom, to the injury of any strangers in amity with us, or having safe-conduct, the chancellor of England may issue process to bring the offenders to answer to the parties grieved, and make such restitution as shall seem to the chancellor expedient.

And on this process, the chancellor shall further proceed, to make full delivery and restitution, of persons, ships, &c. with all costs and losses, disbursed and suffered by them.

A late act 4 Geo. II. cap. 18. recites, That treaties are subsisting between the king and subjects of Barbary, by which it is stipulated, that all ships belonging to his Majesty or his subjects, may pass the seas, and enter the harbours of the said governments, without seizure or molestation, on producing passes under seal of the admiralty-office, called Mediterranean passes. It is therefore enacted, That if any shall forge or counterfeit any such pass, or make any alteration or erazement, &c. such persons, on conviction in any of his Majesty's dominions, shall be guilty of felony.

And the said offences, wheresoever committed, may be tried and adjudged in any county of England, or before any judiciary in Scotland.

By the laws of France, no vessel shall put to sea from any port, without passport from the admiral, recorded at the admiralty-office of the place whence the master sails; who, in 24 hours after his arrival in any port, shall present his passport, and declare all the considerable circumstances of his voyage, &c.

And by a treaty marine, made by king Charles II. with the king of France in the year 1677, a form of passport is appointed to be given by the lord admiral of England, or by the mayor or other chief magistrate, or the principal officers of the customs, in the several ports and places of the king's dominions.

dominions, to ships and vessels. See MARQUE [LETTERS of MARQUE], REPRISALS, MARINE TREATIES.

SAFFRON.

Of its growth and cultivation in England.

As saffron grows at present most plentifully in Cambridgeshire, and has grown formerly in several other counties of England, the method of culture does not, I believe, vary much in any of them, and therefore I have judged it sufficient to take notice of the observations which several capable persons have made, in different seasons, in the years 1723, 24, 25, and 28, up and down all that large track of ground that lies between Saffron Walden and Cambridge, in a circle of about ten miles diameter. In that country, saffron has been longest cultivated, and therefore it may reasonably be expected, that the inhabitants thereof are more thoroughly acquainted with it than they are any where else.

I shall begin with the choice and preparation of the ground.

The greatest part of the track already mentioned, is an open level country with few inclosures; and the custom there is, as in most other places, to crop two years, and let the land lie fallow the third. Saffron is always planted upon fallow ground, and all other things being alike, they prefer that which has borne barley the year before.

The saffron-grounds are seldom above three acres, or less than one, and in chusing them, the principal thing they have regard to is, that they be well exposed, the soil not poor, nor a very stiff clay, but a temperate dry mould, such as commonly lies upon chalk, and is of a hazel colour; though if every thing else answers, the colour of the mould is pretty much neglected.

The ground being made choice of, about Lady-day, or the beginning of April, it must be carefully plowed, the furrows being drawn much closer together and deeper, if the soil will allow it, than is done for any kind of corn, and accordingly the charge is greater.

About five weeks after, or during any time in the month of May, they lay between twenty and thirty loads of dung upon each acre, and having spread it with great care, they plow it in as before. The shortest rotten dung is the best, and the farmers who have the conveniencies of making it, spare no pains to make it good, being sure of a proportionable price for it. About Midsummer they plow a third time, and between every sixteen feet and an half, or pole in breadth, they leave a broad furrow or trench, which serves both for a boundary to the several parcels (when there are several proprietors to one enclosure) and to throw the weeds in at the proper season.

To this head likewise belongs the fencing of the grounds, because most commonly, though not always, that is done before they plant. The fences consist of what they call dead hedges, or hurdles to keep out not only cattle of all sorts, but especially hares, which would otherwise feed on the saffron-leaves during the winter.

About the weather we need only observe, that the hottest summers are certainly the best, and if therewith there be gentle showers from time to time, they can hardly miss of a plentiful rich crop, if the extreme cold, snow, or rain of the foregoing winter, have not prejudiced the heads.

The next general part of the culture of saffron, is planting or setting the roots; the only instrument used for which, is a narrow spade, commonly termed a spit-shovel.

The time of planting is commonly in the month of July, a little sooner or later, according as the weather answers. The method is this: one man with his spit-shovel raises between three and four inches of earth, and throws it before him about six, or more inches; two persons, generally women, following him with saffron heads, place them in the farthest edge of the trench he makes at three inches distance from one another, or thereabouts. As soon as the digger or spitter has gone once the breadth of the ridge, he begins again at the other side, and digging as before, covers the roots last set, and makes the same room for the setters to place a new row, at the same distance from the first, that they are from one another. Thus they go on 'till a whole ridge, containing commonly one rod, is planted, and the only nicety in digging is to leave some part of the first stratum of earth untouched to lie under the roots; and in setting, to place the roots directly upon their bottoms. What sort of roots are to be preferred, shall be shewn under the fourth head; but it must be observed in this place, that formerly when roots were very dear, they did not plant them so thick as they now do; and that they have always some regard to the size of the roots, placing the largest at a greater distance than the small ones.

The quantity of roots planted in an acre is generally about sixteen quarters, or 128 bushels, which according to the distances left between them, as before assigned, and supposing them all to be an inch in diameter one with another, ought to amount to 392,040 in number.

From the time that the roots are planted, 'till about the beginning of September, or sometimes later, there is no more labour about them; but as they begin to spire, and are ready to shew themselves above ground, which is known by digging

a few out of the earth, the ground must be carefully parted with a sharp hough, and the weeds, &c. raked into the furrows, because otherwise they would hinder the growth of the plants.

In some time after appear the saffron-flowers, and this leads us to the third branch of our present method. The flowers are gathered as well before, as after they are full blown, and the most proper time for this is early in the morning. The owners of the saffron get together a sufficient number of hands, who place themselves in different parts of the field, pull off the whole flowers, and throw them handful by handful into a basket; and so continue 'till all the flowers are gathered, which happens commonly about ten or eleven o'clock. Having then carried home all they have got, they immediately spread them upon a large table, and placing themselves round it, they fall to picking out the filamenta, styli, or chives, and together with them, a pretty long portion of the stylus itself, or string to which they are joined. The rest of the flower they throw away as useless. The next morning they return into the field again, whether it be wet or dry weather, and so on daily, even on Sundays, 'till the whole crop be gathered.

The chives being all picked out of the flowers, the next labour about them is to dry them on the kiln. The kiln is built upon a thick plank (that it may be moveable from place to place) supported by four short legs. The outside consists of eight pieces of wood, about three inches thick, joined in form of a quadrangular frame, about twelve inches square at bottom on the inside, and twenty-two inches at the top, which is likewise equal to the perpendicular height of it. On the fore-side is left a hole about eight inches square, and four inches above the plank, through which the fire is put in. Over all the rest, laths are laid pretty close to one another, and nailed to the frame already mentioned, and then are plastered over on both sides, as is also the plank at bottom very thick, to serve for a hearth. Over the mouth, or widest part, goes a hair-cloth fixed to two sides of the kiln, and likewise to two rollers, or moveable pieces of wood, which are turned by wedges or screws, in order to stretch the cloth. Instead of the hair-cloth many people now use a net-work of iron wire, with which it is observed, that the saffron dries sooner, and with a less quantity of fuel; but the difficulty of preserving the saffron from burning, makes the hair-cloth be preferred by the nicest judges in drying.

The kiln is placed in a light part of the house, and they begin by laying five or six sheets of white paper on the hair-cloth, upon which they spread wet saffron, between two and three inches thick. This they cover with other sheets of paper, and over these lay a coarse blanket five or six times doubled, or, instead thereof, a canvas pillow filled with straw, and after the fire has been lighted for some time, the whole is covered with a board, having a large weight upon it.

At first they give it pretty strong heat, to make the chives sweat, as their expression is; and in this, if they do not use a great deal of care, they are in danger of scorching, and so of spoiling all that is on the kiln.

When it has been thus dried for about an hour, they take off the board, blanket, and upper papers, and take the saffron off from that which lies next it, raising at the same time the edges of the cake with a knife. Then laying on the papers again, they slide in another board between the hair-cloth and under papers, and turn both papers and saffron upside down, afterwards covering them as above.

The same heat is continued for an hour longer; then they look to the cake again, free it from the papers and turn it; then they cover it, and lay on the weight as before. If nothing happens amiss, during these first two hours, they reckon the danger to be over; for they have nothing more to do, but to keep a gentle fire, and turn their cake every half hour, 'till it be thoroughly dry; for doing which as it ought, there are required full twenty-four hours.

In drying the large plump chives they use nothing; but towards the latter end of the crop, when these come to be smaller, they sprinkle the cake with a little small beer to make it sweat as it ought; and they begin now to think, that using two linen cloths next the cake, instead of the two innermost papers, may be of some advantage in drying; but this practice is followed, as yet, but by few.

Their fire may be made of any kind of fuel; but that which smoaks the least is best, and charcoal, for that reason, is preferred to any other.

What quantity of saffron a first crop will produce is very uncertain. Sometimes five or six pounds of wet chives are got from one rod; sometimes not above one or two, and sometimes not enough to make it worth while to gather and dry it. But this is always to be observed, that about five pounds of wet saffron go to make one pound of dry, for the first three weeks of the crop, and six pounds during the last week; and now the heads are planted very thick, two pounds of dried saffron may, at a medium, be allowed to an acre for a first crop, and four and twenty pounds for the two remaining, the third being considerably larger than the second.

In order to obtain these, there is only a repetition to be made every year of the labour of houghing, gathering, picking, and drying, in the same manner as before set down, without the addition of any thing new; except that they let cattle into the fields, after the leaves are decayed, to feed upon the weeds, or perhaps mow them for the same use.

About the Midsummer after the third crop is gathered, the roots must all be taken up and transplanted: the management requisite for which is the fourth thing to be treated of. To take up the saffron-heads, or break up the ground, as their term is, they sometimes plow it, sometimes use a forked kind of hough called a paddock, and then the ground is harrowed once or twice over; during all which time of plowing, or digging and harrowing, fifteen or more people will find work enough to follow and gather the heads, as they are turned up. They are next to be carried to the house in sacks, and there to be cleansed or raised. This labour consists in clearing the roots thoroughly from earth, and from the remains of old roots, old involucra, and excrescences; and thus they become fit to be planted in new ground immediately, or to be kept for some time without danger of spoiling.

The quantity of roots taken up, in proportion to those that were planted, is uncertain; but at a medium it may be said, that allowing for all the accidents that happen to them in the ground, and in breaking up, from each acre may be had 24 quarters of clean roots, all fit to be replanted. The owners are sure to chuse for their own use the largest, plumpest, and fattest roots, but above all, they reject the longish-pointed ones, which they call spickets or spickards, for very small round or flat roots are sometimes observed to flower.

This is the whole culture of saffron in the country above mentioned; and we have only now to consider the charges and profits which may be supposed, one year with another, to attend this branch of agriculture; and of these we have drawn up the following computation for one acre of ground, according to the price of labour in this county:

	l.	s.	d.
Rent for three years	3	00	0
Plowing three times	0	18	0
Punging	3	12	0
Hedging	1	16	0
Spitting and setting the heads	1	12	0
Weeding or paring the ground	1	4	0
Gathering and picking the flowers	6	10	0
Drying the flowers	1	6	0
Instruments of labour for three years with the kiln, about	0	10	0
Plowing the ground once, and harrowing twice	0	12	0
Gathering the saffron-heads	1	00	0
Raising the heads	1	12	0
Total charge	23	12	0

This calculation is made upon the supposition, that an acre of ground yields 26 pounds of neat saffron in three years, which is stated only as a mean quantity between the greatest and the least; and therefore the price of saffron must be adjusted accordingly, which I think cannot be done better than by fixing it at 30 s. per pound; since in very plentiful years it is sold for 20 s. and is sometimes worth between 3 and 4 l. At this rate, 26 pounds of saffron are worth 39 l. and the neat profits of an acre of ground producing saffron, will in three years amount to 15 l. 13 s. or to about 5 l. 4 s. yearly. This, I say, may be reckoned the neat profit of an acre of saffron, supposing that all the labour were to be hired for ready money; but as the planter and his family do a considerable part of the work themselves, some of this expence is saved: that is, by planting saffron, he not only may reasonably expect to clear about 5 l. yearly per acre, but also to maintain himself and family for some part of each year; and it is upon this supposition only, that the result of other computations which have been made of the profits of saffron, can be said to have any tolerable degree of exactness; but the calculations themselves are undoubtedly very inaccurate.

We have said nothing here concerning the charge in buying, or profits in selling the saffron heads, because in any large track of ground, these must at length always ballance one another, while the quantity of ground planted yearly continues the same.

An essential extract of saffron.

Take two ounces of the choicest fresh English saffron dried, and either cut small or remaining whole; put it into a clean bolt-head with a long and slender neck; pour upon it so much of the purest alcohol, containing no foreign thing, as may float four or six inches about it: then stop the glass slightly with a wreath of paper, put it into a wooden little furnace supplied with a live coal buried under sifted ashes, that the heat may be only a hundred degrees. Leave it thus in digestion for three days, the vessel being often shook; let it afterwards rest for 24 hours, in a cold quiet place; then carefully strain off all the tinged liquor through a piece of clean linen, placed in a funnel set in a clean glass, and keep it closely stopped. It will be of a bright red colour.

The saffron remaining at the bottom of the glass, will be found paler than before. To this pour the like quantity of fresh alcohol, and proceed as before, and mix the tincture thus acquired with the former; the saffron will now remain paler. If more alcohol be added to it, and the process be repeated, a still poorer tincture will be obtained, which ought to be kept separate: the saffron will now become pale, but otherwise will have the same appearance and bulk, as before. To this if water be added, digested therewith, and poured off, it will be of a yellow colour; put on fresh, and continue thus, 'till no more tincture can be extracted; and now the chives will appear quite white, and if gently dried, will retain their former figure, though they appeared much shrunk, perfectly inodorous, and insipid, so as scarce to be distinguished from bits of clean thread; whence it is wonderful, where the seat of that surprizing matter extracted from it should be, which is found to give so rich a tincture to so large a proportion of alcohol. Let the tincture procured by the two first digestions, be distilled in a glass body, fitted with its head, and perfectly well closed, with a fire of a hundred degrees, 'till about an ounce remains behind, which, when cold, is to be poured into a glass vessel, to be kept carefully stopped. It will prove of an exceeding red colour, a highly fragrant odour, and a bitter, aromatic, penetrating taste, and have the consistence of thin oil. Let it be kept under the title of the essential extract of saffron. The spirit that comes over in the distillation will be limpid and colourless, but retain the grateful and aromatic smell and taste of saffron. This is to be reserved for the same use, and thus every time becomes the richer.

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This surprizing experiment shews us a new species of matter, which we can neither call oil, spirit, gum, rosin, resinous gum, wax, or balsam; but it is something perfectly singular, and of a spirituous oily nature. This extract mixes with water, spirit, and oil, and has such exhilarating virtues, that being used too freely, it occasions an almost perpetual and indecent laughing; but used moderately, it becomes proper: it tinges the urine red, and is particularly said to destroy the petresying power thereof in the kidneys, and therefore to be an extraordinary remedy against the stone.

R E M A R K S.

Thus we find that nature has prepared, in particular parts of certain vegetables, a determined kind of body, so different from all others as scarce to be referred to any other known kind; and has, at the same time, endowed it with virtues, otherwise inimitable. We have seen an example of this in the chives of saffron, which the principal chemists have so highly esteemed, as to call it the philosophers spice. It is incredible how rich this saffron is in colour, taste, odour, and virtue; how small the bulk is that possesses all these rich faculties, and how tender and easily corruptible the thing itself is, and therefore requires the above peculiar method of operation.

Saffron is in many places in great esteem in sauces, and on many occasions in foods, but its great use is in medicine. It is a high cordial, a powerful aperient, detergent and resolvent. It gives great relief in faintings and palpitations of the heart; it also strengthens the stomach, and assists digestion. It is certainly a noble medicine, under the direction of a skilful physician, but given by a quack may prove as hurtful as otherwise it might be salubrious.

The English saffron is allowed by all, except the French writers on these subjects, to be greatly superior to any other. It is to be chosen fresh, tough, and flexible, difficultly broken, of a strong smell and very bitter taste, and such as stains the hands in touching it. Our druggists are apt to keep it in damp places, to increase its weight, whereby it becomes mouldy, and such is to be rejected.

S A I L-C L O T H.

The chief LAWS relating to this manufacture.

Makers of sail-cloth shall fix stamps, with their names, &c. to every piece, under the penalty of 5 l. Persons cutting off stamps, or using any false names, incur certain penalties. A bounty is allowed on exportation of British-made sail-cloth.

All foreign sail-cloth imported, for which duties are granted, shall be stamped with a stamp expressing from whence imported, &c. on forfeiture of 10 l. upon conviction before one or more justices. New ships on first setting out to sea, shall have a complete set of sails, bona fide, belonging to her, manufactured here, on pain of 50 l. Flax yarn used in British sail-cloth, shall not be whitened with lime, on forfeiture of 6 d. per yard.

Every master of a ship, belonging to a subject (East India ships excepted) having any foreign sails on board, shall, at the time of making entry of his ship, also make entry, on oath, of all foreign sails used on board, for which the same duties shall be paid as by stat. 12 Ann. cap. 16. Foreign sail-cloth, unstamped, shall not be made into sails, under penalty of

of 50l. and forfeiture of the sails. Sails made of foreign fail-cloth unstamped, shall not be mended, under penalty of 20l. Every sail-maker shall impress on every new sail, a mark of eight inches diameter, containing his name and place of abode, and under the penalty of 10l. See the articles CANVAS, and HEMP; and see the BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS at the end of LETTER S. for the LAWS relative to SAIL-MAKING.

SAIL-MAKER. The sail-maker cuts out and sews the pieces together, which form the sails of a ship. It is a profitable trade.

SAILOR, see the article SEAMEN.

SALT. This being a commodity of general utility in commerce, as well with regard to our fisheries as our royal navies, and ships concerned in the merchants service, and there being several delicacies in the operation to produce a salt suitable to all the occasions of life, we shall give an abstract of the learned Dr Brownrigg's late improvements upon the making of salt, to a greater perfection than has been heretofore practised in this kingdom.

Mines of salt, says the doctor, have been long discovered and wrought in England, Spain, Italy, Germany, Hungary, Poland, and other countries in Europe. Moreover, the sea affords such vast plenty thereof, that all mankind might thence be supplied with quantities sufficient for their occasions. There are also innumerable springs, ponds, lakes, and rivers, impregnated with common salt, from which the inhabitants of many countries are plentifully supplied herewith.

In some countries which are remote from the sea, and have little commerce, and which are not blessed with mines of salt, or salt waters, the necessities of the inhabitants have forced them to invent a method of extracting their common salt from the ashes of vegetables.

In short, this salt is dispersed all over nature; it is treasured up in the bowels of the earth; it impregnates the ocean; it descends in * rain; it fertilizes the soil; it arises in vegetables; and from them is conveyed into animals; so that it may well be esteemed the universal condiment of nature.

* See Boyle on the saltiness of the sea.

Naturalists, observing the great variety of forms under which this salt appears, have thought fit to rank the several kinds of it under certain general classes, distinguishing it most usually into rock or fossil-salt, sea-salt, and brine or fountain-salt: to which may be added others of those muriatic salts, which are found in vegetable or animal substances. These several kinds of common salt often differ from each other in their outward form and appearance, or in such accidental properties as they derive from the heterogeneous substances with which they are mixed; but, when perfectly pure, they have all the same qualities; so that chemists, by the exactest inquiries, have not been able to discover any essential difference between them.

By rock-salt †, or native salt, is understood all salt dug out of the earth, which hath not undergone any artificial preparation.

† By rock-salt, *sal rupium*, the ancient chemists mean salt adhering to the rocks above the high-water mark, being there lodged by the spray of the sea, evaporated by the heat of the sun; which is the purest salt of all for chemical uses, and is to be had off the rocks of Sicily, and several islands in the West-Indies.

Under the title of bay-salt may be ranked all kinds of common salt extracted from the water, wherein it is dissolved by means of the sun's heat and the operation of the air; whether the water from which it is extracted be sea-water, or natural brine drawn from wells and springs, or salt water stagnating in ponds and lakes.

Under the title of white salt, or boiled salt, may be included all kinds of common salt extracted by coction from the water wherein it was dissolved; whether this water be sea-water, or the salt water of wells, fountains, lakes, or rivers; or water of any sort impregnated with rock-salt, or other kind of common salt.

The first of these kinds is in several countries found so pure, that it serves for most domestic uses, without any previous preparation, triture excepted. But the English fossil-salt is unfit for the uses of the kitchen, until by solution and coction it is freed from several impurities, and reduced to white salt.

The British white-salt also is not so proper as several kinds of bay-salt for curing fish, and such flesh-meats as are intended for sea-provisions, or for exportation into hot countries. So that for these purposes, we are obliged, either wholly or in part, to use bay-salt, which we purchase in France, Spain, and other foreign countries. To remedy these inconveniences, what follows may be useful, in order to shew how the subjects of Great-Britain may be supplied with salt of their own manufacture, fit and sufficient for all their occasions.

In order that the methods here proposed might be better understood, and that the reasonableness of them might more fully appear, it is necessary to premise a brief account of several ways of preparing bay-salt, as well as white-salt. From this history may be formed a judgment, how far the methods now in use are proper, in what deficient, where

erroneous, and how they may be improved for the benefit of our trade.

BAY-SALT in general may be divided into two kinds. First, bay-salt, drawn from sea-water, as is practised in France, Spain, Portugal, and many other countries. Secondly, bay-salt extracted from salt springs, ponds, and lakes; as at Cape Verde islands, Tortuga, and other places. Of these the first is imported in large quantities into Great-Britain and Ireland: our American colonies, in times of peace, are chiefly supplied with the latter; but in time of war they have large quantities of bay-salt from Lisbon, and other parts of Portugal.

Bay-salt is prepared in a manner the most simple and easy, when the water of ponds and lakes impregnated with salt, is totally exhaled by the force of the sun and air, and the salt is left concreted into a hard crust at the bottom of the lake or pond. Of salt thus prepared we have instances in many parts of the world, as in the Podolian desert near the river Borysthenes, on the Russian frontiers towards Crim Tartary, in the kingdom of Algiers, and in other parts of the world.

Bay-salt is also drawn from the brine of ponds and lakes, and it is prepared in this manner in the Cape de Verde islands. This account was collected chiefly from the relations of several persons of credit, who themselves assisted in making salt in these islands. Every kind of bay-salt is prepared without artificial heat, and by only exposing the brine under a large surface to the action of the sun and air, by which, in proportion to the strength of the brine, and to the different temperature of climate and season, the salt crystallizes into what we call bay-salt, and comes under different appearances to us from different places, which arise principally from the cleanliness and care of the artist.

WHITE-SALT, although in general, is made in warm climates, with the greatest ease, and at least expence, by the heat of the sun, after the methods already described; yet in several countries, where bay-salt might be conveniently made, they prepare all their salt by culinary fires. Thus in Austria, Bavaria, and many other parts of Germany, and also in Hungary, and even in some parts of Italy, they constantly boil the water of their salt-springs into white-salt. But in other parts of Europe, as in Britain, and in the northern parts of France and Germany, an erroneous opinion long prevailed, that the heat of the sun was not there sufficiently intense, even in the summer season, to reduce sea-water or brine into bay-salt. And all arguments would probably have been insufficient to remove this mistake in the English, had not the contrary been fully proved by experiments, which were first accidentally made in Hampshire. However, the method of making salt by coction, will probably still continue to be practised in Britain, as the salt so prepared is for several uses preferable to bay-salt; and when prepared after a particular manner, is preferable to common bay-salt, even for curing provisions, as the practice of the Hollanders sufficiently testifies: so that the due and right preparation of white-salt seems very deserving of the notice and regard of the public.

White-salt, as it is prepared from various saline liquors, may therefore be distinguished into the following kinds:

1. **MARINE BOILED SALT**, which is extracted from sea-water by coction. 2. Brine or fountain-salt, prepared by coction from natural brine, whether of ponds or fountains. 3. That prepared from sea-water, or any other kind of salt-water, first heightened into a strong brine by the heat of the sun, and the operation of the air. 4. That prepared from a strong brine or lixivium drawn from earthen, sands, or stones impregnated with common salt. 5. Refined rock-salt, which is boiled from a solution of fossil-salt in sea-water, or any other kind of salt-water, or pure water. 6. Lastly, Salt upon salt, which is bay-salt dissolved in sea-water, or any other salt-water, and with it boiled into white salt; and under these heads may be ranked the several kinds of boiled salt now in use. The learned author before mentioned has given us an exact history of the manner of preparing these different kinds of salt, as practised in different places, with miscellaneous observations and cautions relating to their respective processes, for which in general we must refer to the work itself: but the making salt upon salt deserves more particular attention, as the author, being under no tie of secrecy, has revealed to us the method of making in Holland and Zealand that strong and pure kind of salt, with which they cure herrings, and all other provisions for long-keeping, which gives the Dutch a great advantage over all other nations in the herring-fishery; since fish preserved with this salt look much cleaner and fairer than those that are cured with bay-salt, and keep much better than those preserved with any other kind of white-salt.

From the process whereby white-salt is made from sea-water by coction, it appears that sea-water, besides common salt, contains several other ingredients, some of which are separated before the common salt falls, and others remain in the bittern, after all the salt is extracted. Our author has given a full and circumstantial account of these in an express chapter under the appellation of *Memoirs for an Analysis of Sea-water*.

The salt-boilers, and particularly those who prepare brine-salt, have long been accustomed to make use of various substances, which they call additions, or seasonings, and mix them with the brine while it is boiling, either when they first observe the salt begin to form, or else afterwards, during the time of granulation. These additions they use for various purposes. First, to make the salt grain better, or more quickly form into crystals; secondly, to make it of a small fine grain; thirdly, to make it of a large, firm, and hard grain, and less apt to imbibe the moisture of the air; fourthly, to render it more pure; and, lastly, to make it stronger, and fitter for preserving provisions.

These additions most commonly used to answer the above-mentioned purposes, are wheat-flour, resin, butter, tallow, new ale, stale beer, bottoms or lees of ale or beer, wine-lees, and allum. Wheat-flour and resin are used for the property they possess of making the salt a small grain; butter, tallow, and other unctuous bodies, are commonly applied, as they are said to make the brine crystallize more readily; for which end, some salt boilers more particularly prefer the fat of dogs; but others have little to plead for their using these substances, but immemorial custom. How far they have the effects ascribed to them, can only be determined by experiments, as several boilers, who formerly used them, now find they can make as good salt without them. Wine-lees, new ale, stale ale; the lees of the ale and beer, are now generally rejected by the marine salt-boilers, except in the west of England, where the briners, who use them, affirm that they raise a large grain, and make their salt more hard and firm, and some say that they make it crystallize more readily. Hoffman prefers the strongest ale; and Plott assures us, that it makes the salt of a larger or smaller grain, according to the degree of its staleness. The only good effects that fermented liquors can have as an addition, are probably owing to their acid spirit, which may correct the alkaline salts of the brine, and so render the common salt more dry and hard, and less apt to dissolve in moist air: if, therefore, it should be thought necessary to use any of these additions, in order to correct the alkaline quality of the brine, stale ale, or Rhenish wine*, ought to be chosen, as new ale contains but little acid.

* Why not malt vinegar?

Allum is an addition long known and used in Cheshire, together with butter, to make the salt precipitate from some sorts of brine, as we are assured by Dr Leigh, in his Natural History of Lancashire, Cheshire, &c. who first taught the Cheshire salt-boilers the art of refining rock-salt. As the bad properties of their salt proceeded from hard boiling, they found every method ineffectual, until they had recourse to a more mild and gentle heat. And as allum hath been long disused amongst them, it is not likely that they found any extraordinary benefit from it, otherwise they would scarce have neglected it, and continued the use of butter. However, the late Mr Lowndes hath lately endeavoured to revive its use, asserting, that brine-salt hath evermore two main defects, flakiness and softness; and, to remedy these imperfections, he tried allum, which fully answered every thing he proposed, for it restored the salt to its natural cubical shoot, and gave it a proper hardness, nor had it any bad effect whatever. But our author is of opinion, that whoever considers the nature of allum, will scarce expect such extraordinary effects from it. Neither does it here seem wanted; for the grains of common salt will always be sufficiently hard, and of their natural figure, large size, and no ways disposed to run by the moisture of the air, if formed by a gentle heat, and perfectly free from heterogeneous mixtures: so that the goodness of Mr Lowndes's salt does not seem owing to the allum with which it is mixed, but chiefly to the gentle heat used in its preparation.

The Dutch, who have long shewn the greatest skill and dexterity in the art of boiling salt, make use of another addition, which they esteem the greatest secret of their art: this is whey, kept so long 'till it is extremely acid, now first revealed by our author to the British salt-boilers, but long held in great esteem by the Dutch, for the good effects it hath upon their salt, which it renders stronger, more durable, and fitter to preserve herrings, and other provisions.

Bay-salt, as well as white salt, is of different kinds, and possessed of different qualities: with the different kinds of these, provisions must be cured, according to the uses for which they are designed. The Dutch, indeed, use no salt for curing provisions, besides their own refined salt: with it they can preserve flesh and fish of all kinds, as well as with the strongest bay-salt, and chuse to be at the expence of refining bay-salt, rather than to defile their provisions with the dirt and other impurities with which it commonly abounds.

Salt esteemed the best for curing provisions, and for preserving them the longest time, is that which is the strongest and the purest. This may be known by the following characteristics, viz. it is usually concentered into large grains or crystals, which are firm and hard, and, in respect to those of other kinds of common salt, the most solid and ponderous; it is not disposed to grow moist in moderately dry air, to which it has been

exposed a considerable time; its colour is white and somewhat diaphanous; it hath no smell; its taste is truly muriatic, and more sharp and pungent than that of other kinds of common salt: it has, besides these, several other distinguished properties, mentioned by our author. The salts which approach nearest to this degree of perfection, are the best kinds of bay-salt, and the strong Dutch refined salt; but most of the salt now made for sale is very far from answering to these characteristics.

Having related the various methods of preparing that are now in use, as far as they are come to our author's knowledge, it appears, that this art is not brought to such perfection in the British dominions as in several other countries, the salt here prepared being unfit for preserving many kinds of provisions. It remains now to shew, that this want of a strong salt of British manufacture, proceeds not from any defect in nature, but of art, and that, if proper skill and industry be used in the British dominions, and due encouragement there given by the legislature, such improvements may be made in this art, that not only Great-Britain, but Ireland also, and the British colonies in America, may be supplied with salt of their own manufacture, proper for curing all kinds of provisions, in quantity sufficient for all their occasions, in quality equal, if not superior, to any foreign salt now made at a moderate price.

These are truths, which appear evident from the facts and reasonings contained under the following positions:

Lemma I. The quantity of water which annually falls in rain, snow, and hail, is very different in different parts of Great-Britain, there commonly falling almost double the quantity on the western coasts, that falls on the eastern coasts of that island.

Lemma II. The quantity of rain which falls in Lancashire, during the four hottest months of the year, viz. May, June, July, and August, doth not, at a medium, amount to more than a third part of the quantity of water which falls in rain, snows, and hail, during the whole year.

Lemma III. The water which ascends in vapours from the sea, very greatly exceeds that which descends thereon in rain and other aqueous meteors; but the quantity of water which usually exhales from a given part of the ocean, in a given time, cannot with any exactness be determined.

Lemma IV. The quantity of water which commonly exhales in Great-Britain from shallow ponds, during the four hottest months of the year, greatly exceeds the quantity of rain which commonly falls on the surface of those ponds during the said months.

From these lemmata, which the author has supported by the observations not only of himself, but of other learned men, are deduced the following propositions:

Proposition I. In several parts of England large quantities of bay-salt may be extracted from sea-water, during the hottest months of the year, by receiving the salt water into ponds, and suffering its aqueous parts thence to exhale by the heat of the sun, and the operation of the air and winds.

Proposition II. In several parts of England large quantities of bay-salt may very commodiously be extracted from sea-water, after the same manner that is practised in France, and in other parts of Europe.

Proposition III. Bay-salt may be extracted in England from sea-water, in larger quantities, and with more certainty, than by the foregoing method, if care be taken to preserve the brine contained in the salt-pits from being diluted with rains, and to promote the evaporation of the water by several artificial means, which may easily be put in practice.

Proposition IV. In several parts of England large quantities of excellent bay-salt may, with great ease, be made from the natural brine of salt springs, and also from the rock-salt dissolved in weak brine, or sea-water.

Proposition V. Bay-salt may be prepared in England by the foregoing methods, at a very moderate expence, equal in goodness to the best foreign bay-salt, and in quantity sufficient for the consumption of all the British dominions.

Proposition VI. In several of the British colonies in America, bay-salt might, with little expence and trouble, be prepared from sea-water, in quantities sufficient to supply the American fisheries, and all other occasions of those colonies, so as to become a considerable branch of their trade.

The author has supported all these propositions with great ingenuity; but we cannot pass over in silence the artificial means to promote the evaporation of sea-water mentioned in Proposition III, as well as to preserve the brine contained in salt-pits from being diluted with rains; we therefore shall lay before the reader a short account of these.

It will be proper, says our author, to make all the salt-pits of the marsh in one long row, extended from east to west, and for each pit to make covers of thin boards, or rather of coarse canvas, or sail-cloth, stretched on frames of wood, and painted white. These covers must all be fixed with hinges, to strong posts and beams, on the north side of the pits, so that they may be let down and drawn up with cords and pulleys, or by some other contrivance, somewhat like draw-bridges. These covers, thus fixed, may be let down
over

over the pits like a shed, or penthouse, in rainy weather, and in dry weather may be erected almost to a perpendicular, but inclining a little towards the south, so as to form a wall with a south aspect. Thus these may serve a double purpose, as coverings for the pits in wet weather, and as reflectors of the sun's heat upon them in dry weather, and thus greatly promote the evaporation of aqueous parts of the brine. The hinges on which the reflectors turn may be fixed about eight or ten inches from the ground, by which means, when the reflectors stand upright, there will be an opening left beneath them, through which the air will continually flow in a brisk current, and greatly increase the evaporation of the water.

After having gone through that part of Dr Brownrigg's work which relates to bay-salt, we proceed to the methods that gentleman proposes for preparing and improving white salt, which, if brought into use, may probably be of advantage, not only to private undertakers, but also to the public: for it appears, that two very different kinds of white salt are required, the one for the use of the table, and the other as a condiment for provisions. Its whiteness, dryness, and the smallness of its grain, are the properties which chiefly recommend the first kind; and its great strength and purity, the latter. It is this strong and pure kind of white salt which is wanted in the British dominions; and it is, therefore, our author's principal design here to consider how this defect may be supplied, although, at the same time, instructions are given how to prepare table-salt, not only better in quality, but also at less expence, than it is now prepared by the common methods.

Lemma I. In the common processes for making white salt, the salt is deprived of a considerable part of its acid spirit, by the violent boiling used in its preparation.

Lemma II. Most kinds of white salt are rendered impure by the mixture of various heterogeneous substances.

Lemma III. White salt, by the violent coction commonly used in its preparation, is rendered less fit for preserving fish, flesh, and other provisions, than it would be if prepared with a more gentle heat.

Lemma IV. The heterogeneous substances which are commonly mixed with white salt, render it less proper for preserving provisions than it would be if separated from them.

After having fully considered the foregoing lemmata, our author gives a method of preparing a kind of white salt proper for curing fish, flesh, and other provisions; likewise a method of refining salt; but for these we must refer you to the work itself, as well as for the tables, wherein the several expences attending these operations are minutely considered.

Most of the facts referred to in these disquisitions are such, as the constant practice of those who make salt sufficiently warrants us to rely upon for true and certain; or else they are the observations of judicious salt-officers, daily conversant in these matters, or of curious and inquisitive navigators, merchants, travellers, and naturalists; or, lastly, the experiments of many learned physicians, chemists, and philosophers: the truth of which several facts, though many of them have been some time published, hath never been called in question. So that these observations and experiments may probably be more relied on by the public, than if they had only been made by our author, since they have the testimony of many skilful and unprejudiced persons, who could have no notion of the uses to which they have been here applied. If, therefore, the arguments founded upon those facts should be esteemed any ways reasonable and satisfactory, the author presumes to remark, that it might not be unworthy the wisdom of the British legislature to direct a more full enquiry to be made into a matter of this importance, and to order proper works to be erected for making bay-salt, and for making and refining white salt, and to put those works under the management of able and judicious persons, to make exact and accurate trials, in order to discover the best and cheapest methods of doing them; and the methods which should be most approved of might, for the general good, be made public, and established, by law, a common standard, to which all those who make salt in the British dominions should be obliged to conform.

The making and refining salt must certainly be considered as one of those mechanic arts, the history of which, as we are taught by the noble * lord Verulam, is a necessary part of that knowledge, that true science of nature, which is not taken up in vain and fruitless speculations, but effectually labours to relieve the necessities of human life. See THE BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS AT THE END OF LETTER S, FOR THE LAWS RELATIVE TO SALT.

* Verulam de Aug. Scient. lib. ii. cap. 2.

SALTERS, or, as they are often termed, **DRY-SALTERS**, who deal in divers foreign goods of a dryish kind, as log-wood, cochineal, pot-ashes, &c. and much like merchants, mostly in a wholesale way.

They were incorporated into a company by queen Elizabeth, and are one of the twelve of the city of London.

SALT-PETRE. It is a salt, though extracted out of the earth, yet abundantly impregnated with the spirit of the air; it also cleaves to stone walls, rocks, clefts, and caverns under

VOL. II.

ground. That which is extracted out of fat earth, is made in most countries in Europe; but our greatest quantities come from the East-Indies. It is composed of near an equal quantity of fixed and volatile nitrous aerial salts, bitterish in taste: it is the product of the elements, deposited in the bosom of the earth, for the generation and nourishment of vegetables, and may not be improperly called the universal and unspecific mercury.

Purification of salt-petre.

Take what quantity you please of nitre, dissolve it in * warm water, filtre, evaporate, and crystallize, as you do other salts: Some esteem the crystalline nitre best, others the lump; but I could never observe any difference in them, the one being the top, and the lump the bottom of the pan in which the nitrous liquor was put to shoot.

* Somewhat more than six times its weight of boiling water is sufficient.

Of the gathering of salt-petre in quantities.

Although it be certain that the air and the water are all impregnated with a kind of nitre, which is frequently to be seen coagulated into fine white salt, like flour of wheat (but by the very taste may be easily known to be petre) sticking to the sides of plastered walls, and, in brick walls, to the mortar between the bricks (in dry weather, or where the wall is defended from the rain) for lime doth strongly attract it; and although dew and rain do convey much of it to the earth, and the clouds seem to be spread out before the face of the sun, either to imbibe some part of his influence, or to have a salt generated in them, for to advance the fertility of the earth, and certainly they return not without a blessing; for salt-petre may be easily extracted out of rain and dew, but from the latter more plentifully, accompanied, indeed, with a greasy purple oil, in great plenty: though likewise most standing waters, and even deep wells, have some small quantity of salt-petre in them: though the face of the earth, if it were not impregnated with this salt, could not produce vegetables, for salt (as the lord Bacon says) is the first rudiment of life, and nitre is, as it were, the life of vegetables; yet, to be more sure of it, experiment shews likewise, that some is to be found in fallows, and the earth which moles cast up in the spring: though the air and water want it not, yet it is not there to be had in any proportion answerable to the charge in getting it: and though the earth must necessarily have great quantities thereof generated or infused into it, yet, in these temperate countries of Europe, it is no sooner dilated by rain, or other waters, but it is immediately applied to the production or nutriment of some plant, insect, stone, or mineral; so that the artist will find as little of it here to serve his turn, as in the other two elements.

The chief places, therefore, where salt-petre is to be found in any quantities in these northern countries, are in stables, pigeon-houses, cellars, barns, warehouses, or, indeed, any place which is covered from the rain, which would dissolve it, and make it vegetate, as also from the sun, which doth rarify it, and cause it to be exhaled into the air. (For the same reason, husbandmen also might make double or treble the profit they usually do of their muck, if they will lay it up under a hovel, or some covered place, until they carry it out upon their land.) And I have been told by an experienced workman, that no manure yields petre so plentifully as the earth in churches, were it not an impiety to disturb the ashes of our ancestors, in that sacred depositary. See the article MANURE.

For this purpose the earth should be of good mould; and the better the mould is, the more petre is produced, for in clay or sandy earth, little or none is to be found: the freer ingress the air hath into a place, it is still of more advantage, so that the sun be excluded; and let the earth be never so good, if it be laid on a brick or boarded floor, it will not be so rich in petre as if it had free communication with the exhalations of the lower parts of the earth.

In any place thus qualified, you cannot miss of good quantities of petre, if it have not been drawn out in some years before, which a workman will quickly find, after he hath digged the first spadeful of earth, by laying a little of it on the end of his tongue; and if it tastes bitter, he is sure of good store of salt-petre; if the ground be good, it continues rich to six or eight feet deep, and sometimes, but not often, to ten.

After the salt-petre is extracted, if the earth be laid wet in the same place again, it will be twenty years ere any considerable quantity grows there of it; but if the earth be well dried, it will come in twelve or fourteen: and if they mingle with the dried earth store of pigeons-dung and mellow horse-dung, and then temper it with urine (as was usual before we were supplied with petre from India) it will be fit to dig again in five or six years. He that shall cast water upon a ground fit to dig for petre, will only sink the mineral deeper into the earth; but he that throws soap-suds on it, will quite destroy the petre (as the workmen have a tradition) and it very well deserves a further enquiry.

That salt-petre, and the way of drawing it out of the earth

now in use, was a modern invention, is generally concluded by all authors; but whether we owe it to chance, or the sagacity of some great wit, is as unknown as the time when it was first discovered.

It seems to have many years preceded the invention of gun-powder, which by the Germans is ascribed to Constantine Autlitzer, or Berthwold Scwertz, a monk of Friburgh, and was in all probability not long discovered when the inventor (Polydore Virgil tells us) taught the use of guns to the Venetians, at the battle of Fossa Claudia, where they obtained that notable victory over the Genoese, anno 1380: for there is mention made both of salt-petre and aqua fortis, in the writings of Geber, a Spanish Moor, and an alchemist; but at what time he lived is not satisfactorily known, though it be certain some hundreds of years before Raymund Lully, who, about the year 1333, published some of his books, wherein he treats of salt-petre and aqua fortis. It is no ill conjecture of Maierus, that the aforesaid monk being a skilful alchemist, had a design to draw a higher spirit from petre than the common aqua fortis, and, that he might the better open the body of petre, he ground it with sulphur and charcoal, by which composition he soon became the inventor of gun-powder. See GUN-POWDER.

The manner of collecting salt-petre in quantities.

In the first place you must be provided with eight or ten tubs, so large that they may be able to contain about ten barrows full of earth each of them: these tubs must be all open at the top, but in the bottom of every one of them you must make a hole, near to that side you intend to place outermost, which hole you must fit very well with a tap and a spiggot, on the outside downward.

On the inside of the tub, near the tap-hole, you must carefully place a large wad of straw, and upon that a short piece of board, which is all to keep the earth from stopping up the tap-hole. When you have placed your tubs on their stands, at such a distance one from the other that you may come with ease between them, then fill them up with such petre earth as you have chosen for your work, leaving only void about a span's breadth between the earth and the edge of the tub; then lay on the top of the earth in each tub, as near as you can to the middle, a bundle of wicker, like the bottom of a basket, and about a foot in diameter, and by it stick into the earth a good strong cudgel, which must be thrust pretty near the bottom; the wicker is to keep the water, when it is poured on, from hollowing and disordering the earth, and the cudgel is to be stirred about, to give the water ingress to the earth upon occasion: then pour on your earth common cold water, 'till it stands a hand's breadth over the earth; when it hath stood eight or ten hours, loosen the spiggot, and let the water rather dribble, than run, into half-tubs, which must be set under the taps. This lixivium the workmen call their raw liquor; and note, that if it come not clear at the first drawing, you must pour it on again, and, after some little time draw it off, 'till it come clear, and of the colour of urine.

If you are curious to know how rich your liquor is before boiling, you may take a glass phial, containing a quart, fill it with the common water you use, then weigh it exactly; next fill the same glass with your liquor, and find the difference of weight, which, compared with the quantity of all your liquors, will give you a very near guess how much salt-petre you are like to make by that boiling.

Then pour again, on the same earth, more common water, that it may bring away what is remaining in the earth of the former liquor. This second liquor is of no other use but to be poured on new earth, instead of common water, because it contains some quantity of salt-petre in it.

When this is done, turn the useless insipid earth out of the tubs, which you must fill with new earth, and continue this operation, 'till you have in the same manner lixiviated all the earth: then fill your copper with your liquor, which copper, for one of the profession, must be about two hundred weight, and set strongly in a furnace of brick-work; besides, on one side of your furnace you are to place a tub full of your liquor, which, at a tap below, may dribble as fast into the copper as the force of the fire doth waste your liquor; which invention is only to save charges in fuel.

When you have boiled it up to that height, that a little of it, flung off the finger on a live charcoal, will flash like gun-powder (which for the most part falls out to be about two days and a night's boiling) at that time, upon trial, a hundred weight of the liquor contains about 35 lb. weight of petre; but the workmen seldom make use of any further indication, than by finding the liquor hang like oil on the sides of the brazen scummer, when it is dipped into it, which is a sign it is fit to be passed through the ashes, which is done in this manner.

You must prepare two tubs, fitted after the manner of the first, wherein you put your earth, saving that at the bottom of these tubs you must lay reeds or straw, a foot high; over them place loose boards, pretty near one another, over them again a little more straw (which is to keep the ashes from the

top, and give the liquor room to drain the better from them:) then fill up your tubs with any sort of wood-ashes, to half a foot of the top; pour on the foresaid liquor, as it comes scalding hot out of the copper, on the ashes contained in the first tub; after a while draw it off at the top: and so continue putting on and drawing off, first at one tub of ashes, then at the other, 'till your liquor grows clear, and loses the thick turbid colour it had when it went on.

When all the liquor hath in this manner passed through the ashes of both tubs, that by this means all its greasy oil is left behind in the ashes, you must keep it for the second boiling in a vessel by itself: in the mean time, pour upon your ashes a sufficient quantity of common water, very hot, once or twice, to bring away what is remaining of the liquor in the ashes.

When you begin the second boiling, put first into the copper the water that went last through your ashes, and as that wasteth, let your strong liquor drop into the copper, out of the tub above described, standing on the side of the furnace, 'till the liquor in the copper be ready to shoot or crystallize.

Note, That toward the end of your boiling, there will arise great store of scum and froth, which must be carefully taken off with a great brass scummer, made like a ladle, full of little holes; and usually about that time it lets fall some common salt to the bottom, which you must take up with the said scummer, and lay it aside for another use.

To know when the liquor is ready to shoot into petre, you need but drop a little of it on a knife, or any other cold thing that hath a smooth superficies, and if it coagulate, like a drop of tallow, and do not fall off the knife when it is turned downwards, which also may be judged by its hanging like oil to the sides of the scummer; when the liquor is brought to this pass, every hundred weight of it contains about three score and ten pounds weight of petre.

When you find your liquor thus ready to shoot, you must with great iron ladles take it out of the copper, into a high narrow tub for that purpose, which the workmen call their settling tub; and when the liquor is grown so cold, that you can endure your finger in it, you shall find the common, or cubic salt, begin to granulate, and stick to the sides of the tub; then at the tap, placed about half a foot from the bottom, draw off your liquor into deep wooden trays, or brass pans, and the cooler the place is where you let them stand to shoot in, the better and more plentifully will the salt-petre be produced; but it will be of no good colour 'till it be refined, but will be part white, part yellow, and some part of it blackish.

The salt which sticketh to the sides and bottom of the settling-tub is of the nature of common salt, and there is scarce any petre to be found but is accompanied with it, though no doubt some of this is drawn out of the ashes by the second liquors: if it be foul, they refine it by itself, and about London sell it at good rates, to those that salt neat-tongues, bacon, and collar-beef; for, besides a savory taste, it gives a pleasing red colour to most flesh that is salted with it.

When the liquor hath stood two days and two nights in the pans, that part of the liquor which is not coagulated, but swims upon the petre, must be carefully poured off, and being mingled with new liquors, must again pass the ashes, before it be boiled, else it will grow so greasy that it will never generate any salt.

Before we take our leave of this article, it may not be amiss to observe, first, that though petre will dissipate in gun-powder, yet if you fulminate it in a crucible, and burn off the volatile part with a powder of coal, brimstone, antimony, or meal, there will remain a salt, and yet so fixed (very unlike common salt) that it will endure the force of almost the strongest fire you can give it; which being dissolved into water, and spirit of nitre dropped into it, 'till it give over hissing (which is the same with the volatile part that was separated from it in the fulmination) it will be again reduced to crystals of petre, as it was at first; which noble experiment the world hath already been taught, by an honourable member of the Royal Society of London, with a train of such important observations as never were before raised from one experiment.

That which I aim at then is, that, if the spirit of volatile salt of foot, or of the urine, blood, horns, hoofs, hair, excrements, or, indeed, any part of animals (for all abound with such a volatile salt fixed, and oil, as petre doth) could by the same way, or any like it, be reduced to petre, or some nitrous salt not much differing from it; it would excellently make out a theory that I am much delighted with, 'till I am convinced in it, which is, that the salt which is found on vegetables and animals, is but the nitre which is so universally diffused through all the elements (and must, therefore, make a chief ingredient in their nutriment, and, by consequence, of their generation) a little altered from its first complexion: and that the reason why animals that feed on vegetables are obliged by nature to longer meals than those that feed on other animals, is, because animals are fuller of that salt than vegetables: and, indeed, such animals are but caterers

caterers of it for man, and others whom nature's bounty gratifies with a more strong and delicious diet.

SALVAGE, an allowance made for the preserving goods from shipwreck.

The principal laws relating thereto.

By the naval laws of Oleron, if a ship departing with her lading to any place abroad, happens, in the course of her voyage, to be rendered unfit to proceed therein, and the seamen save as much of the lading as possibly they can; if the merchants require the goods of their master, he may deliver them if he pleases, they paying the freight in proportion to the part of the voyage that is performed, and the costs of the salvage: but if the master can readily refit his vessel, he may do it; and although he has promised the people who helped him to save the ship, the third or the half part of the goods saved, for the danger they ran therein; yet, if such a cause come before any judicature, it shall be considered the pains and trouble they have been at, and the reward be accordingly, without any regard to the promises made them by the parties concerned, in the time of their distress. See **OLERON'S LAWS**.

If a ship puts to sea with merchants goods, and there she is disabled or perishes, by the fault of the master or his men, the goods that are saved shall be secured in a certain place, free from danger: but if it be proved by witnesses that the misfortune was occasioned by tempest, what remains of the ship and goods shall be brought to a contribution, and the master shall retain half the value of the freight, by the laws of Rhodes. And the same laws have ordained, that if a ship be surprized at sea with whirlwinds, or wrecked at sea, any person saving any part of the wreck, shall have one fifth of what he saves. See **RHODIAN LAWS**.

And for the charges of salvage, very great allowances have been made; as to the divers and salvors, the half, the third, or the tenth of the things saved, according to the depth of the water out of which they were fished, whether fifteen, eight, or one fathom: also a tenth part for salvage on the coast, and the fifth to him that, saving himself, carries something with him. If the ship only perish, and the goods be saved, then the goods shall pay the tenth or the fifth, as the difficulty of the saving thereof shall require: and gold, silver, silk, and the like, being of easy transportation, shall pay less than goods of greater weight, and more burthensome for carriage, which are in greater danger. *Lex Mercat. Malines*, 119.

Where things are cast up by shipwreck, or left through casting in storms, the laws of Rhodes allow to the finder a fifth part for the saving; and in France they allow one third part for salvage; but by the common custom of countries, every person of quality, or lord of a manor, &c. claims all as his own, if it cometh upon his land; contrary to some sea laws, which give it to the finder: though, by the opinion of lawyers, the finders thereof should do therewith as with other goods found upon land; they ought to proclaim the things to be forth-coming to the true owner or loser, and, if no man claim the same, then the finder to keep them to himself. *Lex Mercat. Malines*, 119.

By statute 12 Ann. cap. 18. All persons required by constables, &c. who shall act in the saving and preserving any ship in distress on our sea-coasts, or the cargoes thereof, shall within 30 days after be paid a reasonable reward for the same, by the master of the ship or merchant; in default whereof, the ship or goods so saved shall remain in the custody of the officers of the customs, 'till payment be made: and if any difference arise about the salvage, three justices of peace shall adjust the quantum to be paid to the persons acting therein, which shall be binding to all parties, and recoverable in an action at law.

And if goods thus saved are not claimed in twelve months, they shall be sold, the justices taking an account thereof in writing, signed by the officer of the customs, into whose hands they are safely to be put; and, if they be perishable goods, they are to be forthwith sold, and, after charges deducted, the money arising by such sale shall be transmitted into the Exchequer, with a fair account of the whole, for the benefit of the owner, who giving proof of his property before one of the barons of the Exchequer, shall, upon his order, receive the same.

If any persons shall molest any one in saving the ship or goods, or, when saved, shall deface the marks of any goods, before the same be entered in a book for that purpose, such persons shall, in 20 days, make double satisfaction to the party grieved, at the discretion of the two next justices, or, in default thereof, shall be sent to the house of correction for 12 months. See the remainder of this statute under the article **WRECKS**.

SAMOGITIA lies on the north of Prussia, between Courland and Semigallia, on the north; Lithuania on the east, and south-east; and Ducal Prussia on the south-west, with a small part of it extending west, quite down to the Baltic. It is a marshy soil, and has abundance of rivers and lakes, that at some seasons overflow the land, which yields corn and

pasture. The country has inaccessible mountains, and is over-run with woods, wherein the inhabitants find great quantities of honey, every tree, almost, having a swarm of bees; and their wax is purer and whiter than that either of Lithuania or Livonia. Here is a breed of horses which are small, but sprightly, swift, and hardy.

The Samogitians, as well as Poles, plow, sow, and harrow, all at the same time; and the ground having been but once improved by burning, will bear crops seven or eight years together, without dunging. When they burn the woods on the lands, if they meet with high trees, they do not cut them down, but only prune off their side branches, to let in the rays of the sun upon the ground; which they perform with such dexterity, that one peasant will prune above a thousand trees together, without once coming down: for which end, he provides himself with a seat of rope, much like a stirrup, which he fastens to a long cord, and having cast it over an arm of a tree, a boy, who is on the ground, draws him up and down; and, when this is done, by the help of another tree he easily shifts himself, with his hook, to the next. They have also as odd a way of sowing; which is, by mixing two parts of barley with one of wheat, and putting them into the ground together, in the spring; whereby it happens, that the barley may be mowed in one harvest, and the wheat reaped the next. This wheat being trod down by those that mow the barley, the next harvest commonly comes up very thick and high. In time of war they bury their corn under ground, in a place made up with posts and bark of trees, for that purpose; and they dry their corn with smoak, before they lay it up in their granaries, by which means it keeps good for several years together.

SARDINIA, an island in the Mediterranean, situate between 8 and 10 degrees of east longitude, and between 39 and 41 degrees of north latitude; bounded by the straight which divides it from Corsica on the north; by the Tuscan Sea, which flows between this island and Italy, on the east; and by other parts of the Mediterranean Sea on the south and west; and is about 140 miles long, and 60 broad; a warm country, but not esteemed very healthful.

This island, which is the most considerable in the Mediterranean, next to Sicily, for bigness and fertility, is said to be about 700 miles in circuit, comprehending the turnings and windings of the coast, namely, the capes and the gulphs; which way of calculating is no less uncertain than laborious; hence some have it only 500 miles in compass. The soil is fruitful in all sorts of corn, and no less productive of various fruits, in great quantity and perfection. It also breeds vast herds of large and small cattle, so that it furnishes Italy with wool, hides, and a fine sort of cheese, besides its home consumption. The traffic it drives moreover from the fishery of coral, linen, silk, &c. is no less considerable. The most rocky and mountainous parts of the island are no less rich within than barren without, they yielding great quantities of metals and minerals, as gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, allum, &c.

REMARKS.

This island was under the dominion of Spain 'till the year 1708, when Sir John Leak, the English admiral, reduced it to the obedience of the late emperor Charles VI. It was afterwards allotted to the duke of Savoy, anno 1719, with the title of king of Sardinia, under whose dominion it still remains: but the duke was obliged to make a cession to the house of Austria of the island Sicily [See **SICILY**] to which throne he had been advanced by the parties to the Utrecht treaty, anno 1713.

The commerce of the dominions of his Sardinian Majesty was heretofore so very inconsiderable, as to be scarce worthy of notice; but by degrees, and under the two last reigns, more especially, things have been much changed. The staple commodity of Piedmont is a kind of silk indispensably necessary in many manufactures, and his Sardinian Majesty has put this under such regulations as to make it rise to the highest amount possible; the navigation of the Po enables the inhabitants of Turin, and the adjacent country, to carry on a considerable trade to Venice.

There is a little (and but a little) traffic stirring at Alexandria and Villafranca. Besides all these, his Sardinian Majesty has gradually and silently possessed himself of all the passages, by which the inland trade is carried on between France and Italy, and having it by this means in his power to lay what duties he thinks proper, derives from thence an additional revenue, which is not only of great consequence in itself, but the more so by keeping the neighbouring states in a kind of dependance, through fear of the injuries he might otherwise do the commerce of their subjects.

This sufficiently demonstrates the power of his Sardinian Majesty; and that it is both natural and expedient the ballance of Italy should be held by him. This his interests seem to direct, the situation of his country demands, and even without the least suspicion of flattery, we may add, the conduct of the present king deserves it. Whatever addition of territory he receives from any quarter, is not more an acquisition to him, than to the common cause; and we have reason

reason to wish his power may increase, because we see the whole of his power has been exerted for the noblest purposes, in preserving the freedom and independency of Italy; which, without question, will be always at his heart, and in his eye.

The doubts and suspicions which weak and narrow minds have been, at certain seasons, too apt to suggest, with reference to this great prince's conduct, are in reality as idle and improbable, as they are false and groundless; because it is impossible, that the house of Bourbon should ever give him any security for the performance of the promises they may be induced to make him. A little consideration will set this in the strongest point of light. The offers they made him have been almost without limits, which, at the same time that it shews his importance, must convince him, that unless they had mighty views for their own advantage, they would never make them. But what are these views? The establishing a superior power in the house of Bourbon in Italy. If we put this into other words, it means neither more nor less, than proposing to give him a master; which is such a proposition, as no offers whatever can tempt a wise and brave prince to listen to with the least attention.

It was to avoid this, that in the earliest part of his reign he entered into an alliance with those very powers, which gave him an opportunity of knowing their maxims so well, while they professed themselves his friends, that it is the greatest absurdity to suppose he can ever be brought to trust them, after having had them so long, and to such a degree, his enemies. It was to prevent his having a master, that he engaged in the late war, and run so many risks in the course of it. This was manifestly the basis of the treaty of Worms, the whole scope of which was to render him independent, and to give him the power of supporting that independency. To depart, therefore, from this plan, for the sake of any thing that could be offered by the Spaniards and French, would be such a manifest sacrifice of the substance to the shadow, that, considering the knowledge we have of his Sardinian Majesty's character, ought never to be suspected. The smallest district granted him by the queen of Hungary, under the guarantee of his other allies, is of more real consequence to him, than half the duchy of Milan given him by the house of Bourbon, admitting they should have it in their power to give it; because they can never have this power, without having at the same time the power of taking it again; which would not only render the possession of that, but of all his other dominions, precarious.

It is very apparent, that even as things stand now, the territories of this monarch are very far from being extensive; but it must be allowed that they are very populous, and the people of Savoy, and of the vallies, are naturally martial; so that under these two last reigns, a very considerable army of regular troops has been constantly kept up, and the king can never be at a loss to bring 40 or 50,000 men into the field, when occasion requires it.

This force is, indeed, nothing in comparison to that of France and Spain; but it will appear very considerable, when compared with the strength of other Italian princes. Besides this, the fortresses of Piedmont are in so good order, that his Sardinian Majesty can always make a stand, till he is supported by the Austrians, which he must be so long as they desire to preserve their dominions in Italy.

Upon these principles, therefore, we may safely lay it down, that though his revenue is not so large as that of the Great Duke, yet he is one of the greatest powers in Italy, and is justly esteemed so by his neighbours, his allies, and his enemies. His claim upon the city of Geneva, and the attempts made by some of his predecessors to become masters of it, will be hardly ever forgot by that republic; which, however, is sufficiently covered from either his ambition, or his resentment, by its strict league with the Swiss Cantons, as well as by the protection it may always expect from the French crown.

The pretensions he inherits from his ancestors to several places possessed by the republic of Genoa, will probably hinder him, at least for some years, from living in any strict degree of harmony with that commonwealth, which is naturally jealous of him, and will probably continue so; though, if they knew their own interest, they would certainly compromise their differences with this prince, which would be a thing of great consequence to both.

His taking the title of king of Cyprus, and some circumstances, has created a coldness between this monarch and the republic of Venice, though it is certainly for their mutual good to forget old injuries, and to assist each other.

There have been formerly high disputes between his Majesty's predecessors and the Pope, which have been renewed in the last, and even in the present reign; but they seem now buried in oblivion, as they ought to be, considering that the pontiff must be long ago convinced by experience, that the thunder of the Vatican has lost its efficacy; and excommunications will do very little, either with this prince or his subjects; and as to the temporal power of the Pope, it is not to be compared with that of the Sardinian monarch.

The territories of the king of the Two Sicilies, if we consider him only in the light of an Italian potentate, lie at too great a distance to create any difference between them; but considered as a prince of the house of Bourbon, the king of Sardinia cannot but be jealous of any augmentation of his power. But to say the truth, the great point which this monarch must always keep in view, is the ballancing the power of that house and the house of Austria; to the latter of which, notwithstanding his near relation in blood to the former, it is more natural for him to adhere.

As things stand at present, it is far from being probable that the court of Vienna will incline to measures that may justly provoke a prince, to whom she has so many obligations, for whose assistance she must have so often occasion, and who, in that case, would easily find resources sufficient to defend himself against all attempts.

On the other hand, while, from a due regard to their respective interests, a good correspondence is kept up between them, the light of experience plainly shews, that their enemies will find it very hard to make any impression upon either; and in process of time it is highly probable that such alterations may happen in Spain, as will render their capacity of defending themselves still greater than they are at present.

But with respect to the house of Bourbon, though it will be always decent and proper for his Sardinian Majesty to preserve for it a just measure of respect and complaisance; yet as his safety must perpetually depend upon the greatness of his own strength, and the limitation of their power, so it can never become either requisite or agreeable to him, to enter into any close alliance with that family, the aggrandizing of which must be always, if not at his expence, at the risque of his security. There are also good reasons to believe, that France will not easily be drawn to quarrel with a prince, who keeps, as it were, the gates of her dominions, and who may be justly styled a terror to her, while she is so to all the rest of her neighbours; for, without doubt, if the king of Sardinia were thoroughly provoked, and the house of Austria at full liberty to support him, he might carry his arms either into Dauphiny or Provence, or, perhaps, into both at the same time, more efficaciously than in the last, or the preceding war; in both which, however, interruptions on this side have brought the French monarchy into circumstances of very great distress.

As for the maritime powers, they are, though at a distance, the natural and constant allies of the monarch of whom we are speaking, because their interests and his are the same: and if a good port could be made in the county of Nice, capable of admitting men of war, he would be quickly able not only to maintain his own freedom, but also to protect the liberty and independency of Italy against all invaders; though he would not be even then in a capacity of giving law to others.

If once the affairs of this part of the world were put into such a situation, the benefits resulting to the people there, as well as to all the rest of Europe, would be so great and so evident, that his Sardinian Majesty would have no room to apprehend any new confederacy formed against him, since his neighbours would be then as willing to defend that system, as, for want of considering it properly, they formerly seemed averse to receive it.

We have dwelt the longer upon this article, because, with respect to the British nation, there is no power in Italy, with the strength and state of which it imports us so much to be well acquainted, as the crown of Sardinia. But there is one thing very requisite to be observed before we conclude, which is this, that nothing can be of greater importance to the trade of this nation, than the preserving the ballance in Italy; which, if lost, must necessarily throw all that valuable branch of commerce, in which we have at present so large a share, and from which we derive annually a considerable profit, into other hands, and which is worst of all, into the hands of the French; a thing against which we have as much reason to guard, as a trading nation, as the king of Sardinia himself has cause to oppose, as far as possible, the growth of the French power, out of regard to his own safety. This sufficiently shews, that our interests are really mutual, and that there is nothing of political art in what we have been told, of the expediency of supporting this monarch against all his enemies, though at a large expence to ourselves. See the article MEDITERRANEAN, especially our reasons for the constant care and possession of GIBRALTAR, the key of all our ITALIAN and LEVANT COMMERCE, and the grand preservative of the ballance of power in ITALY.

SAVOY duchy is situated between France and Italy, on the west side of the Alps, bounded by the lake and territories of Geneva on the north, by Switzerland and Piedmont on the east, by another part of Piedmont and Dauphine on the south, and by Franche Compté and Dauphine on the west. It is a barren country, generally being encumbered with the high cold mountains of the Alps; however, there are some pleasant fruitful vallies, producing corn, wine and fruit; and they have large herds of cattle, and abundance of game, venison, and wild fowl, in their mountains, and plenty of fish

fish in their lakes and rivers. Their greatest misfortune is, that they lie open to the incursions of the French; and whenever their prince is at war with that kingdom, Savoy is first made sensible of the ravages of the French troops, and used as a conquered country, though upon every treaty of peace it has hitherto been restored to the duke of Savoy, at present king of Sardinia. See the articles SARDINIA and PIEDMONT.

SAXON GREEN COLOUR.

Method of dyeing white cloth green, called Saxon green.

The ordinary greens, stained blue in a woad-vat, and afterwards yellow, in a bath of dyers woad, are seldom uniform, almost always dull, and require several days labour to finish them entirely. The green, dyed according to the new process, of which the Saxons are believed to be the inventors, is, without comparison, more fresh and lively; and, in four and twenty hours, one may dye several pieces of cloth, first blue, and then green, in the same copper.

Although this green is not so solid, when tried instantaneously, as the common green, nevertheless it resists, as much as these, both the action of the air, and the rays of the sun; and its lustre hath obtained it the preference over them in England, Germany, and the northern countries.

The first Saxon greens imported into the kingdom of France were purchased immediately, and the public, astonished at their liveliness, was desirous that they should be imitated in France. Their desire was complied with, as soon as it was possible to learn the basis of the process; and those who were charged with the execution, have succeeded so much to their wish, that the last cloths which they dyed are, at least, as pretty as the finest greens brought from Saxony.

The foundation of this green is a blue, extracted from indigo by the acid of vitriol: it is covered with a yellow, extracted from real yellow woad, from dyers weed, or from any other ingredient, which gives a yellow of a good tint: but the success of the process depends upon the choice of the acid, known in trade by the appellation of oil of vitriol; and also upon the equal distribution of the same acid, when it is incorporated with the blue of indigo in the copper, where the cloth is to be dyed first a lively shining blue, and afterwards a yellow, which is to be changed into a green.

If the oil of vitriol is weakened by a too great quantity of aqueous particles, it doth not attack the best indigo, or, at least, extracts from it an ugly grey. If the indigo blue, extracted by a concentrated, or very acid oil of vitriol, is not equally distributed in the bath of the copper, as this liquor is much heavier than water, it is precipitated to the bottom by its own gravity: in this case, the cloth dipped in the bath imbibes the blue very unequally, and appears variously shaded. It takes, indeed, the green colour in the bath of yellow; but that green is also differently shaded.

In publishing the process of a Saxon green, we thought proper to begin with informing dyers with the method of preventing these defects. The common oil of vitriol which is bought of druggists, or brought from Hamburgh or Holland, must be concentrated by distillation. But this operation is difficult for a dyer, who may not be always supposed capable of conducting distillation by a retort. Now it is required to have the oil of vitriol with the fewest aqueous particles possible; these may be expelled by a sand-fire, strong enough to make them evaporate into smoke or vapour. When the oil of vitriol ceases to smoke with the same degree of heat, it is a sure sign that it is concentrated, or acid enough to extract the blue colour from indigo, and consequently to make what is called, in the process, the composition. This evaporation is performed in a glass pot without a funnel, better than in any other vessel: where that is wanting, a well-burnt stone pot may be used, provided it is not porous; or finally, an earthen pot well varnished, which, however, is not so proper for that operation, as either those of stone or glass.

This vessel, of glass, of stone, or of varnished earth, is to be placed upon an iron pan, half, or two-thirds, full of fine sand, which ought to be well dried before. This iron pan must be put upon a stove, with a grate, and an ash-pan under it, and the bed of sand must be gradually heated with a charcoal fire, that the glass, stone, or earthen pot, may likewise be heated by degrees, and not be in danger of cracking, which would certainly be the case, if it was warmed too precipitately.

As soon as the oil of vitriol emits no more aqueous vapours, the acid begins to evaporate: it is easily judged if the vapour is acid, by holding a piece of blue paper stretched over it: if the paper becomes red almost instantaneously, the liquor is sufficiently evaporated: allow it then to cool till it be lukewarm, by taking the pot off the hot sand, and placing it upon straw at a small distance from the stone, that the contiguous air may be dry: for, was it placed in a moist air, the oil of vitriol would re-imbibe the aqueous humidity, which is lost by evaporation. This liquor, being thus cooled, so as to be hardly lukewarm, must be poured upon the quantity of indigo which shall be afterward prescribed. The indigo, however, must be beforehand reduced to a powder, and put

into a glass or stone vessel, which should be well stopped with a cork; with wax round it, lest the oil of vitriol, after dissolving the indigo, which is then called the composition of blue, should re-attract the moisture of the air.

In fine, if you would be absolutely certain that the oil of vitriol is concentrated enough not to fail in forming this composition, you have only to pour two ounces of it upon forty or fifty grains of pulverised indigo, put into a phial, and to mix them well by shaking the phial; in an hour's time, the liquor which floats above the sediment, should be of a fine dark blue: if it is only grey, the oil of vitriol is not enough concentrated.

Process for dyeing a piece of cloth twenty ells long, into a Saxon green.

Dissolve in a sufficient quantity of river water, which breaks soap perfectly well, three pounds and a half of Roman alum, and two pounds of the powder of white tartar; boil the cloth in it half an hour, or five and thirty minutes at most; take it out and expose it to the air to cool, but do not wash it.

Refresh the bath of this boiler with twenty or five and twenty buckets full of water, and throw in, at two different times, the composition of blue designed for the cloth. If the oil of vitriol has concentrated, or has stood the proof as described above, it is sufficient to take a pound and a half, and pour it lukewarm upon two ounces and an half of fine powder of indigo. You must wait till the dissolution is made, and the liquor becomes a fine dark blue; but if this composition of blue has been made some days before, so much the better; for then you may take one pound ten ounces, or a little more, and pour the half of it into a large stone pot, or into a bucket, proper for the use, into which there must be put before, ten or twelve pints of the refreshed bath from the boiler. The whole must be well jumbled, in order to diffuse the composition of blue. You must likewise have a straining-bag of cloth, steep it well in the bath of the boiler, open it, and pour into it that half of the composition which is already mixed. By this means you will preserve the straining-bag, which, without this precaution, would have been burnt by the oil of vitriol, if it had been poured in as much concentrated as at first.

Put the straining-bag over the whole extent of the bath, that it may imbibe the blue equally: palliate likewise the bath, that the distribution of the colouring particles may be more equal; when the cloth is cooled, let it down into the cauldron, and keep it there five or six minutes without boiling, turning it rapidly, and agitating the bath with a pole of white woad. Then take out the cloth, raising it only upon the turn. Put the straining-bag again into the same bath, and throw in the other half of the composition of blue, after it has been dissolved, as the former half, in ten or twelve pints of water taken from the boiler. Pass the straining-bag over the bath, as formerly, palliate it strongly, let down the cloth, and turn it three or four times very quickly, in continuing to agitate the bath with the stick: in fine, in order to make the colour even, boil the bath of blue very gently, and turn the cloth in it slowly for seven or eight minutes. Take it out stained blue, and let it cool.

Empty this boiler of three-fourths of its contents, and as many buckets full as you take out of the blue bath, pour in the like number of the yellow bath, described below.

In order to make the yellow bath, you must heat gradually another boiler, into which must be put a sufficient quantity of pure river water, with a bag of new coarse cloth, containing from ten to twelve pounds of real yellow woad (not fustic) cut into chips.—When this bath has been heated by degrees till it boil, you must let it boil two full hours. Yellow woad, cut into chips, succeeds better than when it is ground; in this case, eight pounds are sufficient for a piece of cloth of twenty ells; but there is a great risque of using it adulterated.

After you have poured into the first boiler when the blue was made, the quantity of the yellow bath, prescribed above, or even a greater number of buckets full, according to the shade of green required; the blue cloth, which ought to be sufficiently cooled, must be let down into this new bath, when very hot, and stirred about till you have the shade of green you want: then take out the cloth, cool it by exposing it to the air, wash it, lay the nap, dry it on the tenter-hooks, brush it, as scarlet is brushed, and afterwards press it, but in this operation let it be as cool as possible. If you have several pieces of blue cloth to be dyed green successively, you must take from the bath, which dyed the preceding piece blue, as many buckets full as are to be added from the yellow bath to dye the blue cloth into a green; which will amount to twenty buckets full, or thereabouts, to be taken out, and twenty to be supplied; by these means, the shades of green are rendered more equal and uniform.

The Saxon green of that cloth, which hath been first dyed blue in a bath composed of alum and white tartar, is much more solid than that which is stained blue in a new bath of plain water, without these salts, but it has not so good a lustre.

lustre. However, as it resists the rays of the sun for twelve days, it may be reputed a very good tint. Being made by means of an acid, it must not be proved by soap, which is prescribed for the ordinary greens made in the blue vats. In order to prove it, you should boil it for five minutes in a quart of water, with two drachms of Roman allum, as scarlet is tried, which is also dyed with an acid: if it preserves its colour, it may be reckoned a very good tint, although, by this operation, it loses much more than in the rays of the sun.

SAXONY, the electorate and dominions of Saxony in Germany.

These dominions, as they are included in the circle of Upper Saxony, are bounded by the duchies of Magdeburgh and Brunswic on the north, Silesia and part of Bohemia on the east, Bohemia and Franconia on the south, and the Landgraviate of Hesse on the west.

The particular divisions, as they lie from south-east to north-west, where the Upper leads to Lower Saxony, are as follow, viz.

The first, which lies betwixt the Elb and Oder, is the marquise of **LUSATIA**.

It is for the most part sandy and boggy, that they have little corn; but here is such plenty of wood, venison, and fish, as might enrich them if they had any trade.

GORLITZ is the largest town in the marquise, and by some called its capital. Their chief trade is in beer, and in dressing and dyeing woollen and linen cloth.

LAUBAN upon the river Queiss is a little town, but has a great linen manufacture.

ZITTAW is a fine city, has a good trade in beer, and a great manufacture of cloth.

CAMITZ is a populous little city, and has a manufacture both of woollen and linen cloth.

GUBEN is a large and populous town, and has a woollen manufacture.

SOMMERFIELD has also a woollen manufacture, and **CALOW** has a great market for wool.

The marquise of **MISNIA** is the second division of the electorate of Saxony. It has Lusatia on the east, Thuringia on the west, Merseburgh, Bohemia, and Franconia on the south, and the duchy of Saxony, with Anhalt on the north. Their plains abound with all sorts of corn, and their hills with rich minerals.

DRESDEN is a large city situate on the Elbe, the capital of the electorate of Saxony, 65 miles north-west of Prague, and 85 south of Berlin.

The trade of this place is very inconsiderable. The most important commodity here is silver, of which the mines near Friedburg produce every fifteen days about the value of 20,000 dollars *, which is brought into the city in ingots in a regular carriage appointed for that purpose, and immediately coined and delivered to the proprietors. The mines are under the care of directors, whose business it is to support the value of the stock; but they usually go in a beaten track, without making any efforts to increase the quantity; on the contrary, it often comes short of the ordinary computation. This silver is immediately coined into florins of 16 grosch, which, with respect to the current money of bats, driers, &c. is worth 7 per cent. advance, and is consequently so speedily conveyed into the neighbouring territories to be again melted down, that it is next to impossible to obtain in change, in this true silver money for one single louis d'or in the ordinary commerce of the people: in which instance the Saxons seem very regardless of their own interest; for though this silver may be considered as a commodity, the currency of such a coin as their bats and drivers, must be detrimental in proportion as they are worse than their genuine coin.

* 3500l.

The exchange here is regulated as in Leipzig. The par is reckoned 125 Saxon dollars for 100 rixdollars current in Amsterdam, but the exchange is generally 135 for their small monies: there is an agio of 3 per cent. when payment is made for bills in louis d'ors, and for ducats 4 per cent. is allowed.

MEISSEN has a manufacture of porcelain, which is more beautifully painted and enamelled than that of Japan, and much dearer; and the vent of it brings no inconsiderable sum annually into this country. See our article **PORCELAIN**.

COLDITZ is a little town of good trade, at the conflux of the Muldaw and Multa.

FREYBERG is a large, well-built, and populous town, but owes both its increase and rise to the neighbouring mines of all sorts of metal, but especially silver, copper, pewter, and lead, besides brimstone, vitriol, &c.

THURINGIA is bounded on the north by the duchy of Brunswic and the principality of Anhalt, on the east with Misnia, on the south by Franconia, and on the west by Hesse.

GOTHA, the capital of the duchy of **SAXE GOTHA**, is a large walled city on the river Leina. Its chief trade is in dyers woad.

EISENACH is a pretty little city on the river Nesa. It has a considerable trade in iron, of which here are mines not far from it.

ERFURT is reckoned the capital city of Thuringia: it lies in a pleasant fruitful plain on the river Gere, in a country abounding with all sorts of corn and good wines, by their trade in which, and in woad, the inhabitants get much money at their two great fairs.

WEYMAR is a neat, well-built city, on the river Ilma. It has a good trade in wine, yet the adjacent country abounds with corn-fields and hop-grounds, instead of vines.

MULHAUSEN on the river Unstrut lies in a fruitful soil, and reaps so much benefit by its river, in point of commerce, that it was admitted amongst the Hanse-Towns, and is called a large populous city.

WIPREN, on a river of the same name, is a town of good trade.

One of the chief places of trade in the circle of Upper Saxony, is

LEIPSIK, in the principality of Misnea or Meissen situate on the river Pleiss, 42 miles north-west of Dresden.

Leipsc, by its advantageous situation in the centre of Germany, is become one of the most commercial cities of Europe; none in Germany are equal to it, being but little inferior to Hamburg itself; though small, it is very populous, and as well built.

In order to a just idea of the trade of this city, it must be considered in two points of view, during the time of the fairs and out of the fairs. [See the article **FAIRS**.] Leipsc abounds in merchants, with a few or no manufactures; yet considerable fortunes are raised there. Three years ago only a retale dealer left an only son three millions of livres, and M. Stoman, who set out with little or nothing, even outstripped the former. Estates of 2 or 300 thousand rixdollars are no extraordinary matter; several of four or five may be produced.

The merchants of Leipsc may be divided into three classes, the wholesale dealers making 150, the retailers to the number of 250, and the woollen drapers, who make no small number. To these may be added the booksellers, a considerable body, Leipsc having the greatest book-trade of any city in Germany, but differently managed from any part of Europe. The German and northern booksellers furnish themselves at Leipsc; and this is done either by barter, or ready money, but the far greatest part by barter.

One of the most lucrative branches of the commerce of this city consists in exchange of monies, which is so considerable, as to be computed at four millions of livres each of the principal fairs.

The second branch of trade lies in home and foreign goods; by the home are meant the products of the soil and manufactures of the inhabitants of the country. As to the foreign, Leipsc is a staple for all French, English, and Dutch commodities, for which there is a demand in the North, and of such northern goods as turn to good account among the more southern nations. The former are Lyons stuffs, Nismes and Paris stockings, French jewellers work, and hard-ware, Dutch and English cloths, silk and woollen stuffs, and hard-ware.

This trade is carried on personally or by commission; many limit themselves to the latter and find the sweets of it. In and out of fair-time, commissions pour in upon them from merchants of all quarters to buy or sell goods, draw bills of exchange, receive or pay money, and to forward goods.

The fairs are unquestionably the main springs of its opulence, few, if any in Europe, equalling them in the amount of the sales and bargains transacted there; and they may be said chiefly to owe the incredible resort thither to the convenience of their appointed times, and the privileges of the city. The most considerable fair is that of Easter, beginning on Jubilate-day, three weeks after Easter; this is succeeded by that of Michaelmas, opening on the 1st of October; the last is New Year's fair, beginning the 2d of January, and scarce worth the name of a fair in comparison of the others.

The city privileges are also very favourable to commerce; its citizens are its garrison; no soldier of the king of Poland is so much as to lie a night in the place. During the fair, it is in the fullest sense a free port for the home goods, and the foreign pay only one duty, which is a very small excise; the Steel-yard fee is also very moderate. The magistracy omit nothing for the safety and ease of strangers. As to the total of the business done at the fairs, it cannot be well ascertained, by reason of the difference of them; that of the Jubilate is estimated at ten millions of livres, and the produce of the Steel-yard at four hundred thousand.

In Leipsc are about thirty French refugee merchants and some Italians; but the natives only are allowed to deal by retale or purchase land; however the trade for French cloths and laces is chiefly in the hands of the said refugees, several of whom go themselves every year to Lyons to buy up their fortments.

The quantities of home goods at Leipsc astonish a stranger. Among the various manufactures of Saxony, that of linen at Lusatz is not the least considerable. The prodigious quantities of Chemnitz dimities and handkerchiefs, are carried off by the English and Dutch, to send to both the Indies. The Saxon woollen stuffs, anniseed, tin-work, the celebrated porcelain, justly preferred to China, small, called the Prussian

fian blue, are all articles which deserve to come into account. Likewise gold and silver lace, velvet, camblets, damasks, and other silk stuffs, are made at Leipzig; but they are not the best in the world: what goes off much better is, thin waxen linen bedaubed with flowers and antic figures; these being sold extremely cheap, are all taken off their hands by the northern traders, who dispose of them for tapestry.

The Leipzig fairs were confirmed by the emperor Maximilian I. with a prohibition of the like within 15 German (75 English) miles. By its jus stapula, or staple privilege, the refusal of all goods coming on the king's roads from within 15 miles, is to be offered to the merchants of Leipzig.

SAY, or ASSAY, a term used in the art of refining. See the article **ASSAY**.

SAY, or SAYE, in commerce, a kind of serge, or light crossed stuff, made of wool; greatly used abroad for linings of cloaths, and by the religious in Popish countries for shirts. Those made in England are chiefly exported to Portugal and Spain, and some to Leghorn.

SCILLY, west longitude 7, latitude 50, a cluster of islands and rocks, situated in the Atlantic Ocean, 30 miles west of Cornwall, the most westerly county of England, dangerous to be approached by strangers on account of the hidden rocks, and have been very fatal to many ships of our own nation on their return home; particularly admiral Shovel, with three other men of war, were cast away here on the 22d of October 1707, in the night-time, in their return from the Mediterranean and the siege of Toulon, there being near 1000 people on board the admiral, several of them gentlemen of quality, both of Spain and England. There is, however, a safe passage to these islands, where ships are furnished with pilots from the place, and there are some secure harbours in them, large enough to receive the royal navy.

In the towns of St. Mary's, the people trade in several sorts of commodities, usually sold in shops, many of which they are furnished with from England; and ships coming in, or passing by the island, supply the rest of their occasions. With these strangers they sometimes exchange dried fish, cattle, or provision of the island, for such commodities as they want. A fleet of coasters, forced in by an easterly wind, is of advantage to the islanders, as well in their pilotage of them in to the harbours, as in the traffic and expences of the people ashore. Commanders and passengers of ships from the West-Indies, or other foreign parts, putting in, never fail of shewing their liberality, and of leaving some of their commodities and riches behind them. By this means the islanders are supplied with a stock of rum, brandy, wine, and other foreign liquors; some for consumption upon the islands, and some (by leave of the custom-house) for consumption elsewhere. For the sake of this trade, which is their principal dependance at present, the people of Scilly run very great hazards in going off with their small boats to supply themselves from shipping passing by, shewing undaunted courage and resolution, in venturing when the seas run mountains high. There being no owners of houses and lands in Scilly, the peoples hindrances in the improvements of land and trade, are the short leases, and scarcity of houses to be met with; it requiring an interest to procure a house, and another for a lease of one. On which account, it was usual here to engage houses at the decease of the present dwellers. If any houses are built by leave, at the expence of an islander, they become the property of the proprietor after a short term: so that no islander possesses house or land, but upon pleasure or lease.

The agent is the proper person to apply to for a house, or land, or a lease of either, or both; who has the direction and management of all the houses, buildings, repairs, rents, &c. upon the islands; who also has it in his power to distribute favour, or shew vengeance, in unequal measure. But the present agent is a gentleman, esteemed for his generosity, good sense, and humanity.

The inhabitants are very civilized, and are improved in trade and commerce. The lands are naturally very fruitful, and could easily be improved; but as these islands are held of the crown by proprietors, the persons in trust for the proprietors have usually made their advantage of them, injurious to the islanders, and the good intent of the reposers of that trust. But if, instead of the custom of letting short leases (of about twenty-one years) long leases were lett, as in Cornwall, and other parts, it would much encourage the improvement of lands in Scilly, and foreigners to settle there. And no doubt but those islands are as well stored with tin, as many parts of Cornwall.

SLAVONIA, including Ratzia, is bounded by the rivers Drave and Danube, which separate it from Hungary, on the north-east, by the river Save, which divides it from the Turkish provinces of Servia and Bosnia on the south-west, and by Croatia and the country of Cilley on the west, being 200 miles long and 60 broad, a fine level fruitful country where it is cultivated; but having been for many years a frontier province against Turkey, and subject to the ravages of the Christian as well as Turkish armies, it has produced but little corn or wine: the chief town is Pofega, which, with the whole country, is subject to the house of Austria: the people

are a mixture of Greek and Latin Christians. The Ratzian inhabit the eastern division of this country.

SCOTLAND. All that part of the continent, which is joined with England and Wales, and lies beyond the counties of Cumberland and Northumberland, belongs to Scotland, together with great numbers of islands on all the other sides; which are bounded by the ocean. It is in length about 250 miles, and 150 in breadth; in the most southerly part it is 54 degrees 54 minutes in latitude, and 15 degrees 40 minutes in longitude; but the most northerly it is 58 degrees, 32 or 30 minutes in latitude, and 17 degrees 50 minutes in longitude.

The soil in general is not near so fruitful as that of England, being much more fit for pasture than corn: yet in some of the inland counties they have great store of grain, wherewith they trade to Spain, Holland, and Norway. The skirts of the country abound with timber, which is of a vast bigness; especially their fir-trees.

We having already, in the alphabetical order, given a pretty minute state of the trade and fisheries carried on in the several principal shires and stewarties in Scotland, we shall here only give a summary view of the trade in general of this part of the united kingdom, and what else may contribute to give a just idea of its circumstances for traffic.

MEMOIR concerning the **BANKS** established by authority in **SCOTLAND**.

The bank of Scotland, commonly called the Old Bank, was erected by act of the Scots parliament, of date the 7th of July, 1695.

By which act the incorporation is allowed to have a capital of 1,200,000 l. Scots, or 100,000 l. sterling, and each share thereof to be 1000 l. Scots, or 83 l. 6 s. 8 d. sterling; and each subscriber to the said capital paid one tenth of a share in specie, being 100 l. Scots, or 8 l. 6 s. 8 d. sterling, making 120,000 l. Scots, or 10,000 l. sterling; on which sum then paid, this incorporation commenced their banking.

After this, they made a call of another tenth, and continued to deal on these two tenths till the year 1720, when, upon an emergency, they called for a third tenth.

They made for many years large dividends, proportionable to these calls, which at length they thought fit to reduce to 5 per cent. annually, payable in the month of April, and chose to retain the surplus profits to increase their dealings. Some years ago they were willing and capable, out of their surplus profits, to make an extraordinary dividend to their proprietors of one tenth of their respective shares: but, in place thereof, the proprietors were willing they should retain the money, and hold it as or in place of a fourth call, or tenth, and take annually 5 per cent. for it.

At two other different times they were ready also to make extraordinary dividends, each of one tenth; and the proprietors in like manner chose to have them retained, and deemed to be other two calls, to be attended with 5 per cent. yearly dividend: whereby there are now six tenths of their capital paid, being 50,000 l. sterling, upon which they issue a dividend yearly of 5 per cent. and beyond which they probably have surplus profits, to be the subject of future extraordinary dividends.

Though thus the calls made on the stock are six tenths, being 600 l. Scots, or 50 l. sterling per share, upon which the ordinary annual dividend is only 30 l. Scots, or 2 l. 10 s. sterling, yet the current price of one share is 70 l. sterling, whereby the purchaser has only $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.—The stock is very seldom in the market.

The Royal Bank was erected by charter, of date the 13th of May 1727, a copy of which I have obtained, and shall give an abridgment of at the end of this Memoir, which must be considered with the act of parliament and charter of the Equivalent company therein recited.

In consequence of the charter of the Royal Bank, the proprietors of the equivalent subscribed only to the amount of 111,347 l. 19 s. 10 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, which is now the capital stock of this bank.

The bank, immediately after their erection, made a call of 10 per cent. on the subscribing proprietors of the said capital; and soon after made a second call, of another 10 per cent. which two calls being about 22,000 l. sterling, was their first fund of banking, together with 4 per cent. which they receive yearly for their capital out of the Equivalent Fund.

About three years after their commencement, they were obliged to accept of a loan of 40,000 l. sterling, from the Society of Trustees for improvement of manufactures and Fisheries in Scotland, at 5 per cent. interest; which loan they continue to hold, whereby their fund is 62,000 l. sterling, beside their said annual dividend from the Equivalent.

This bank obtained another charter, confirming all their powers and privileges by the former, and empowering them to enlarge their said capital, and add 40,000 l. to it by subscription, on such conditions as they think equitable: but this power they have not exercised.

This bank, a few years after their commencement, raised the yearly dividend to their proprietors to 6 per cent. of their capital,

capital, payable one half at Christmas, and the other half at Midsummer; which dividend is nearly 5 per cent. of both capital and calls paid; and this dividend they continue uniformly to make, retaining any surplus profits for extraordinary dividends.

About twelve years ago, they made an extraordinary dividend of 5 per cent. on the capital, being one fourth of the calls, and are about to make another dividend of 15 per cent. which will repay to the proprietors the whole calls; or they may retain the money for a fund of banking, giving each proprietor credit for his share of it in their books, and to add one half per cent. to the dividend annually, making in all $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The Equivalent company have, by the aforesaid act of parliament, 600l. sterling yearly for expence of administration, of which they have annual savings, which sometimes they divide among their partners. Some few years ago the Equivalent company divided their savings, whereof the bank's share afforded 2 per cent. of the capital to each of their proprietors, which was issued to them.

The current price of the stock of this bank is 160l. for every 100l. capital; and yet the purchaser at that price will have nearly 4l. per cent. when the aforesaid $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is added to the annual dividend.

Both the banks lend money upon security in lands, upon personal bonds and bills.

They do not chuse to lend upon lands; and, when they do lend upon that security, they have frequently indulged the debtors to repay 10 per cent. yearly of the capital, besides the interest.

When they lend on bills, they take them payable at 60 days date, and add the legal interest for that time to the sum lent. Neither of these banks discount bills, or lend upon deposits or pledges of any sort.

The exchange between London and Edinburgh was very variable, and sometimes the private dealers in Edinburgh would have taken 2 per cent. for bills on London, which was hurtful to trade.—The Royal bank, to remedy this grievance, have, for several years, dealt in that branch of exchange, and correspond only with the Bank of England, and never take more than one per cent. for draughts on the Bank of England payable at sight, which keeps the private dealers from extortion.

Both banks allow cash accounts with them to merchants, capital manufacturers, manufacturing companies, and other men of business, and give them credit to draw on them beyond their monies lodged, to various extents, from 100l. to 5000l. sterling, suitable to their respective circumstances, trade, or business; the benefit of which is, that those who have such cash accounts chuse always to be somewhat indebted to the bank, and may pay in at any time not less than 10l. and upwards, which reduces the debt, and by which means the merchants never have any sum above 10l. lying dead, the bank charging interest only for what balance is due to them upon every payment. This is not the case with the bank and bankers in London.—In such accounts, the two banks give credit for above 300,000l. sterling, which create constant operations in paying in and taking out by these compt-holders, and is a very great encouragement to traders and great manufacturers.

For some time after the Royal Bank was erected, there was a jealousy, emulation, and bickering, between them and the Old Bank, through the peevishness of some in their directions: but, of late years, these are removed, and there is sufficient business for them both, and they at present harmonize; each of them receive the notes of the other bank in payments, which once in the week they exchange, and take surplus notes of the other.

About six years ago, four merchants in Aberdeen commenced a banking company, struck notes, and endeavoured to have all the same operations as the two established banks in Edinburgh.

Some time after, two different societies of merchants and gentlemen in and about Glasgow, commenced each of them in like manner a banking company in Glasgow.

The company in Aberdeen gave up their trade in December last, called in their notes, and publicly advertised that their partnership was dissolved. Those in Glasgow yet continue; but it is probable they may be judged illegal.

The substance of the WARRANT of the CHARTER erecting the ROYAL BANK of SCOTLAND.

Our sovereign lord considering, That, by an act of parliament made and passed in the 5th year of his Majesty's reign, intituled, An act for settling certain early funds, payable out of the revenues of Scotland, to satisfy public debts in Scotland, and other uses mentioned in the Treaty of Union; and to discharge the Equivalent claimed on behalf of Scotland, in the terms of the same treaty; and for obviating all future disputes, charges, and expences, concerning these equivalents: it is enacted, amongst other things, That every year, from the feast of the Nativity of St John the Baptist, one thousand seven hundred and nineteen, the sum of 10,000l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, shall be a yearly fund for the particular purposes in that act expressed, concerning the same, and shall continue

and be payable for ever, subject nevertheless to redemption by parliament, according to a proviso in the said act contained in that behalf; and that the said annuity of 10,000l. during the continuance thereof, shall be chargeable upon, and be payable out of, the monies arising from time to time from the customs, duties, excises, or revenues, that are or shall be under the management of the commissioners of the customs, and commissioners of excise, in Scotland, or of any commissioners, farmers, or managers of those revenues, or either of them, for the time being, with such preference as in the said act is mentioned; which said annuity is thereby enacted to be payable quarterly in manner in the said act mentioned, and to be free from all taxes and impositions whatever.—His Majesty is authorized, by such names as he shall think fit, to incorporate the proprietors of the debts, stated to amount to 1. 248,550: 0: 9 $\frac{1}{2}$, due to the creditors of the public in Scotland.—And the said 1. 248,550: 0: 9 $\frac{1}{2}$, should be the capital, or joint-stock of the corporation, and be deemed personal or moveable estates, not liable to arrestments or attachment.—600l. per annum to be paid to the corporation for charges of management.—His Majesty, by his letters patent, did give, grant, and ordain, that all persons, natives and foreigners, bodies politic and corporate, who then were proprietors of the debts and sums of money so stated to amount to 1. 248,550: 0: 9 $\frac{1}{2}$, or who by any lawful title, derived to the said proprietors at any time thereafter, should be intitled to any part, share, or interest therein, should be called one body politic and corporate of themselves, in deed and name, by the name of the Equivalent Company: and that such corporation, and their successors, should have perpetual succession, subject to such redemption as is therein mentioned, and use a common seal, and should by that name be capable to sue and be sued; and that the sum of 1. 248,550: 0: 9 $\frac{1}{2}$, be the capital, or joint-stock of the EQUIVALENT COMPANY.—And the annuity of 10,000l. payable to the company, or their cashier, to be divided among the proprietors, according to their shares in the stock.—The stock of the company to be transferable.—The 600l. is payable to the EQUIVALENT COMPANY, or any person to be appointed by them, under their seal to receive the same.—Distinct books of subscription to be left at London and Edinburgh, wherein the proprietors are to declare at which of these places they are to have credit for their stock.—Distinct books of transfer to be kept at these places likewise.—Two of the directors to be for ever chosen, residing at Edinburgh, to have the custody of these books.—Stock in the books at London may be discharged therefrom, and new credit got in the books at Edinburgh, and reciprocally for stock at Edinburgh.—His Majesty covenants to give the EQUIVALENT COMPANY further powers and privileges, upon their humble suit and request.—And the company requested, that his Majesty would be pleased, by letters patent under the great seal of Scotland, to enable such of the proprietors of the said corporation as should subscribe their stock for that purpose, to have the power of BANKING in SCOTLAND only, with liberty to borrow and lend upon security there; and that the corporation may, for that purpose, be empowered to take subscriptions at Edinburgh, for such share of the stock as they shall incline to subject to such TRADE or BANKING, under such regulations as they by by-laws shall appoint, and that such subscribed stock only shall be affected by the transactions relating to BANKING, and shall (after so subscribed) become transferable from the other stock of the company, and that at Edinburgh only, and thereafter to be transferable from the other stock of the EQUIVALENT COMPANY, at EDINBURGH only.—Accordingly a charter was ordained to pass the seals of Scotland, authorizing the directors of the EQUIVALENT COMPANY, or any three of them, in such way as the majority of them shall direct, to receive at EDINBURGH all such voluntary subscriptions as should be made on or before the 29th of September, 1727, by the proprietors of the said company, who shall, at subscribing, have credit for stock in the company's books at EDINBURGH; which subscriptions are to be entered in books to be kept for that purpose.—The stock so subscribed to be under the management of the company hereby established.—The subscribers to be called by the name of the ROYAL BANK of SCOTLAND, and by that name to have perpetual succession, and a common seal, &c. be capable in law to sue, and be sued, &c. in any of the courts within Scotland.—To purchase lands, &c. in Scotland, and to sell the same.—The Royal Bank to have a power of banking within Scotland.—To lend any sums at any interest not exceeding lawful interest, upon personal and real security, and pledges of any kind.—The Royal Bank may keep the cash of other persons, and borrow, owe and take up money on their bills or notes, payable on demand.—A prohibition to trade with the money or stock of the company, in buying or selling wares of any sort.—Allowance nevertheless to deal in bills of exchange, in buying bullion, &c. and selling wares bona fide pledged, and lands, &c. purchased, and the produce thereof.—That there shall be, from time to time, a governor, deputy-governor, nine ordinary, and nine extraordinary directors, for managing the affairs of the corporation; the governor and nine ordinary directors, or any five of them, to be

be called a court of directors.—The members of the corporation may, from time to time, meet at Edinburgh, for choosing their governor, deputy-governor, and directors, and for making by-laws, &c.—Public notice thereof to be given 30 days, at least, before the time appointed for such meeting.—The members so assembled to be called a general court of the corporation.—That there be four general courts in the year.—The governor, deputy-governor, and directors, after the 24th of December, 1728, to be chosen annually, on the first Tuesday of March.—Their qualifications of stocks, viz. the governor 2000l. deputy-governor 1500l. an ordinary director 1000l. an extraordinary director 500l.—One vote allowed for 300l. two votes for 600l. three votes for 1200l. and four votes for 2000l.—No person intitled to more than four votes.—Proxies qualified with stock, allowed to vote in elections.—Form of the oath that may be put to persons claiming to vote, as follows, viz. I, A. B. do swear, that the sum of _____ of the capital stock of the body politic, called the Royal Bank of Scotland, doth at this time belong to me in my own right, and not in trust for any person or persons whatsoever.—The oath to be administered by the governor or deputy-governor, or, in their absence, by any two directors.—No person refusing to take such oath, shall be capable to vote.—The same oath to be taken by such as appoint proxies, before a justice of peace, or chief magistrate of a burgh.—The proxy to produce his powers for voting, with such affidavit, to the general court.—Each succeeding governor, deputy-governor, and directors so chosen, to continue for one year, and 'till others are chosen and sworn into their places.—In case of the death, &c. of any of them, those remaining in their offices may call a general court, to chuse others in their room.—None to be chosen into these offices but such as are subjects of Great-Britain, or naturalized, and qualified with stock as aforesaid.—And not to continue in those offices longer than the continuance of stock in their own names and rights.—Nor shall they be capable to act 'till they have taken the oath of office, as before represented.—To be administered by any of the barons of the court of Exchequer, or any two directors, who shall have taken the said oaths before any of the barons of that court.—An oath de fidei to be administered to the cashier, and other officers.—No governor, deputy-governor, or director, nor any officer or servant under them, shall be capable to act, until such have produced certificates from the proper officers of their having taken the oaths to the government.—Any neglecting to take the said oaths, or to take upon them their office for 40 days, if in Scotland, or 40 days after their coming into Scotland, their places shall become vacant, and others may be chose in their places, by a general court.—The court of directors, or major part of them, may call a general court, upon 30 days notice, and shall upon demand of any nine or more of the members, having each 1000l. stock, call a general court.—And in their default of calling such court, the said nine or more members, having each 1000l. stock, may summon and hold a general court, upon notice as aforesaid.—Which general court, for any misdemeanor or abuse, may remove or displace the governor, deputy-governor, or any of the directors, and elect and chuse others in their room.—The governor, deputy-governor, and directors, or any five of them, may meet at any place in Edinburgh, for the management of the affairs of the corporation, and hold courts, and summon general courts, as they see cause, and act according to the by-laws to be made and given unto them by the general court; and, where such by-laws are wanting, they, or the major part of them, may direct and manage all the affairs of the corporation, and may appoint a cashier and secretary and all other officers, and may allow them salaries, and displace them, as they see cause.—No governor, deputy-governor, nor director, capable to be named, or chosen, into the office of cashier, or any other the officers of the corporation.—Five extraordinary, and four ordinary directors at least, to meet to state and audit the account, and sign and approve the same, as often as directed by the by-laws.—The extraordinary directors to have no powers but such as shall be given to them, and allowed of by the general courts.—The general courts to make and constitute by-laws, &c.—And to impose mulcts and amerciaments upon offenders, which, if not duly paid, may be retained out of their dividends.—The general court may make calls upon the proprietors, which are not in the whole to exceed 50l. upon the 100l. capital, and no call to be above 10l. per cent. at a time.—Any person neglecting or refusing to pay such calls, shall not be allowed to transfer, or part with any part of their stock.—Such calls chargeable with interest, from the time they ought to be paid, and their dividends may be detained, and applied for payment thereof.—Books for transfers to be kept for Edinburgh.—Form of transfers, when made by the party himself: I A. B. this _____ day of _____ in the year of our Lord _____ do assign and transfer _____ being all my interest, or share, or (as the case may be) part of my interest, or share, in the capital stock, or fund, of the Royal Bank of Scotland, and all benefit arising thereby, unto C. D. his executors, administrators, and assigns. Witness my hand, A. B. Or, in case the party assigning be not personally present, then, by an entry in the book or books, signed by some person thereunto

lawfully authorized by letter of attorney or factory, under hand and seal, attested by two or more witnesses, in the words, or to the effect following, viz. I A. B. this _____ day of _____ in the year of our Lord _____ by virtue of a letter of attorney, or authority, under the hand and seal of _____ dated the _____ day of _____ in the said year _____ do, in the name and on the behalf of the said _____ assign and transfer _____ being all the interest, or share, or (as the case may be) part of the interest, or share, of the said _____ in the capital stock, or fund, of the Royal Bank of Scotland; and all benefits arising thereby, unto _____ his executors, administrators, or assigns. Witness my hand. —Former acceptance is as follows.—And no other method of transfer shall be valid.—Letters of attorney to contain the names and designations of the writer and witnesses, and to be attested by a notary, justice of peace, or minister of the parish where the granter resides.—Any share of the stock may be disposed of by last will and testament.—An extract of the testament is to be delivered to the company, and a memorandum thereof entered in a book to be kept for that purpose.—All the shares or interests in the stock to be deemed personal estates, and not to be liable to any arrestment of attachment.—A court of directors to consist of the governor, deputy-governor, and ordinary directors, or any five of them at least, wherein the governor is to preside, and, in his absence, the deputy-governor; in the absence of both, any director present may be chosen to preside in that court of directors, or in any general court of the corporation; and, in default thereof, the general court may chuse a president; the president to have no vote, but in cases of equality.—The court of directors may name committees to manage their affairs.—The cashier of the corporation, or any other person authorized by them, to receive their proportion of the 10,000l. annuity.—Which is to be paid without any fee or reward whatsoever.—The general court twice every year is to declare a dividend, at such two of the quarterly courts as they think fit.—No dividend to be made, but out of their share of the 10,000l. annuity; and the profits of banking.—Calls upon the stock may be repaid.—A general court may assume such of the proprietors of the equivalent stock, as shall not have subscribed before the 29th of September 1727, within two years from the date of the charter.—Upon such terms and conditions, and at such times as the majority of the first subscribers shall appoint in a general court.—Such further subscriptions to be under the management of this corporation, from the time of subscribing.—And to enjoy the same privileges, &c. with the first subscribers.—The charter to be construed in the most favourable sense for the advantage of the corporation.—His Majesty covenants to give such further privileges as he may lawfully grant.—Which shall be devised by their own council, and approved of by the lord advocate, or solicitor-general for Scotland for the time.

Under our article ABERDEENSHIRE, we have taken notice of the board of trustees established by charter for the improvement of the manufactories and fisheries of Scotland, in consequence of an act of parliament anno 1727, granting some encouragements to them from funds arising in Scotland. These, though small, yet by œconomy have had a surprizing good effect; which will best appear from the following genuine abstract, which has been transmitted to me from Scotland:

ACCOUNT of LINEN CLOTH for sale, stamped in SCOTLAND from November 1, 1727, to November 1, 1753, distinguishing the quantities and value annually.

Years.	Yards of Linen.	Value in money.
		l. s. d.
1728	2,183,978	103,312 : 9 : 3
1729	3,225,155	114,383 : 19 : 8
1730	3,755,622	131,262 : 15 : 11
1731	3,891,573	145,656 : 14 : 3
1732	4,384,832	168,322 : 14 : 10
1733	4,720,105	182,766 : 2 : 1
1734	4,893,499	185,224 : 3 : 11
1735	4,880,633	177,466 : 3 : 9
1736	4,538,478	168,177 : 13 : —
1737	4,721,420	183,620 : 13 : 9
1738	4,666,011	185,026 : 11 : 9
1739	4,801,537	196,068 : 16 : 11
1740	4,609,672	188,777 : 16 : 5
1741	4,858,190	187,658 : 15 : 3
1742	4,431,450	191,689 : 6 : 6
1743	5,061,311	215,927 : 6 : 7
1744	5,480,727	229,364 : 12 : 3
1745	5,536,925	224,252 : 8 : —
1746	5,486,334	222,870 : 13 : 2
1747	6,661,788	262,866 : 10 : 2
1748	7,353,098	293,864 : 12 : 11
1749	7,360,286	322,045 : 8 : 9
1750	7,572,540	361,736 : 12 : 5
1751	7,886,374	367,167 : 11 : 6
1752	8,759,943	409,407 : 6 : 7
1753	9,422,593	445,321 : 18 : 1

REMARKS.

This is a very extraordinary increase in the linen manufacture of Scotland, in the space of 26 years, it being above quadruple the number of yards and value to what it was at the beginning, and amounts now to almost half a million of money per annum. But besides the quantity of linen before shewn, there has been likewise no inconsiderable quantity manufactured by private people, for bedding and table linen, for shirting also, and for home use of every sort, and great quantities of tape and incle, and thread exported, which are not taken any account of by the officers of the trustees: the country too, in the general, is remarkably well stocked with linen cloth; even the lower sort of people are now plentifully provided with body, bed, and table-linen.

Upon the north side of the city of Edinburgh, in the road to Leith, is built a neat row of houses, with a large and commodious garden, called PICARDY, for the reception of some French families brought from France, for the improvement of the cambric manufacture; which has been of great use, and is daily growing more and more profitable.

Anno 1733, the said board of trustees, amongst other premiums, appropriated 1500l. sterling per annum, after the rate of 15s. per acre, for 2000 acres of ground to be sowed with LINT-SEED and HEMP-SEED, according to the rules laid down in a peculiar plan for that purpose. This had a very agreeable and extraordinary good effect, the growth of lint increasing greatly every year. Premiums also were given for erecting lint-mills, and bleach-fields; but of late years the said premiums for sowing of lint and hemp-seed are withdrawn, on account of the funds for these good purposes not answering to the extent of what they were formerly; whereby we have the mortification to see the growth of lint much decreased; but it is greatly to be desired that ways and means will be found to supply this deficiency.

In regard to the propagation of lint, it may be worth observing, what method has been found by experience to be the best for cultivating of mosses at a small charge in Scotland, of which there are a great many, to be fit either for tillage or pasturage, which is creating so much more valuable ground in the country. This has proceeded from several years study and experiments of an ingenious gentleman, Mr Græme, of Argomercy in Stirlingshire, the truth of which is attested by several gentlemen in the commission of the peace, and by them recommended to the said board of trustees. — They say in every piece of moss he intends to labour, he makes only a few small ditches, three feet deep, for drains; he pares his field, covers it with earth, which he brings by an easy carriage from the adjacent lands; or, if these lands are too distant, he gets earth enough by digging in the moss itself: he then mixes this earth with ashes, which he obtains easily, by burning the moss, that being a soft rotten earth: then he uses a breast-plough, which a single man pushes easily before him: his harrows, his rollers, and all his instruments, are suited to the nature of his soil and labour, and are purchasable at a very easy rate. He performs all his work with men, without horses or oxen; nor is he at any expence either for dung or lime; his manure costs nothing but a very cheap and easy labour, and he makes his soil as rich as he pleases. Constant tillage impoverishes other, but greatly meliorates a mossy soil. The highest estimation of all this charge is 40s. per acre, viz. 20s. for digging and laying on the earth, 10s. for paring, 5s. for burning, and 5s. for extra-charges. — The whole may be reduced to 25s. per acre. Neither does moss cultivated in this manner immediately run out, but being refreshed with earth and ashes every third year, it will improve every year by the tillage.

From this judicious gentleman's experience, and that unquestionably attested by persons of honour and credit, moss prepared in this manner answers admirably well for the growing of lint, either coarse or fine. If he wants strong rank lint, he plows the ground very deep, lays a greater quantity of earth upon it, and a great quantity of ashes; harrows them well, then plows his fields half as deep as before: after which he sows Riga lint-seed thin. If he wants shorter, small stalked, or fine lint, he does not plow so deep, gives less ashes, and sows Dutch lint-seed thick. He has raised of both kinds, especially the coarse, which is most wanted, and is, perhaps, most profitable for this country. The gentleman has likewise had good crops of potatoes, rape, pease, beans, wheat, barley, and oats, clover, and natural grass; and after two or three years culture, they bear good turneps. — A man with his paring plough can easily pare an acre in ten or twelve days, which he then burns, and spreads the ashes and earth, plows it with his new breast plow, without cattle; and where cattle can go, two little Highland horses may do it. An acre thus dressed and sown with lint, is a living for a family the whole year; and, when the flax is manufactured, at a moderate computation may be reckoned worth 100l. sterling.

Some years ago, his present grace the duke of Argyle, ever ready to promote the public good, and other lords and gentle-

men, finding some difficulties to attend the spinners of flax into yarn, as well as the weavers of the said yarn into different sorts of linen, by reason of the want of a ready sale for their goods; and they being unable to keep them on hand for a market, were often obliged to sell them at an under value, to the great prejudice of the manufacture: on these considerations they were incorporated by a charter from his present Majesty, under the name of the British Linen Company, with a capital of 100,000l. sterling, for trading in all branches of this manufacture. They import flax from abroad, the best lint-seed, pot and weed-ashes for bleaching, and sell them on credit to proper hands, then buy the yarn and linen, all at reasonable prices; which linen, particularly the sort corresponding to Osnaburghs, &c. fit for America and the West-Indies, they keep in large ware-houses, both here and at London, where they are sold for exportation: by which means this manufacture has been greatly improved and increased; but I am heartily sorry to tell you, says my correspondent, and you with very good reason will grieve, that it has now received such a blow (as cannot easily be recovered) by taking off the BOUNTY upon EXPORTATION, whereby above 8000 weavers in this country are turned out of their bread. I am informed that, upon the act's taking place, and merchants ceasing to buy their goods, these weavers went about desiring to enlist, not only in the British, but also in the Dutch service; from whence they frequently desert to France, and thereby become a double loss to the kingdom, by assisting our rivals, &c. In the county of Angus, where many of these weavers live, also my lord Panmure, a most amiable gentleman, who being in the army and having occasion to recruit there, found most of them to be weavers.

Anno 1749, being then in London, I gave my best assistance in forwarding the act for a bounty on the whale-fishery; and, on my return hither, did associate with others to establish that trade from this place [Scotland] which has succeeded so well, though unfortunate the two first years, that last year we sent six large ships out to Greenland, and the example was followed by several other places in this country; our fleet last year were in all 17 large ships from Scotland: but again I am much concerned to tell you, that we meet with a great discouragement; and some companies at Glasgow have already given up this most national and valuable branch of trade, by reason that the BOUNTIES ARE NOT REGULARLY PAID IN THIS COUNTRY; for though the act of parliament enacts, that the said bounties should be paid out of the CUSTOMS IN GENERAL, yet, by opinion of the late attorney-general sent to our commissioners of the customs here, he restrains those CUSTOMS to five articles, viz. OLD SUBSIDY, PETTY CUSTOMS, ADDITIONAL DUTY, ONE PER CENT. INWARDS, and COMPOSITIONS ON PETTY SEIZURES; out of which customs, it seems, that the commissioners salaries and all other charges, are first paid, and there does not remain a sufficiency for the payment of BOUNTIES.

The ensuing winter I again repaired to London, having had the honour to be appointed commissioner from our CONVENTION OF ROYAL BOROUGHs, to solicit the act for encouraging the BRITISH-HERRING-FISHERY; by virtue of which act, on my return here, we constituted a FISHING CHAMBER for HERRINGS, with a capital of above 13,000l. sterling; upon which we began our operations with buffes; and some other towns followed our example, by establishing fishing chambers, with stocks of 10,000l. sterling each, besides some private traders upon the general bounty of 30s. per ton.

Though we did not succeed very well at first, as all things are attended with casualties and extra-charges at their commencement, yet we continued 'till this year, when we broke up, and sold our buffes, &c. by reason of the premium, or bounty, not being regularly paid, as above mentioned.

As you, Sir, have been already so full upon this subject of FISHERIES, I need say the less; you having, upon this occasion, mentioned the old proclamations and treaties in former times, that no foreigners should come and fish within sight or within 14 miles of our shores: if these should be revived, it would do our business at once, and save the charges of all BOUNTIES. I am, and ever was, so much inclined to forward fisheries of every kind in this kingdom, that I have been at Dronten, and last year at Bergen, in Norway, on this occasion, where I got such information as, I humbly conceive, may tend to the improvement of our herring-fishing, which shall be communicated in the sequel, when I come to mention some things farther about the Highlands and their adjacent islands. See our article FISHERIES.

Upon both sides of the Firth of Forth is plenty of great and small coal, which are exported abroad, and coast-ways: the great coal is esteemed the best firing for house use: many ships are loaded at Alloa, where the price is from 5s. to 6s. 8d. per 24 hundred the ton. The coal is brought to Leith by water, and to this city by carts, weighing about 12 hundred, and sells for 5s. per cart; and at the same rate we have them from other collieries round the town. The refuse of the great coal is used for boiling of sea-water to make salt, of which we have great quantities in this firth, and sells for 7½d.

7½d. per bushel, or 25s. per ton: the English Iceland fishers are generally served in that article here, and a large quantity is exported to Bremen, Embden, and to the Baltic. — We have some foreign trade to most parts in Europe, also to America and the West-Indies; but these two last are chiefly carried on from GLASGOW and DUMFRIES, which trade is of the utmost consequence to our manufactures: we have, in return for them, sugar, rum, and tobacco, &c. large quantities of the latter are re-exported, which bring in a balance of money, or answer for other commodities that we have occasion to import.

This brings me to GLASGOW, which is a large, handsome, regular, and well-built city, upon the river Clyde. They have a good university, a town-house, fine churches, the houses mostly built of free-stone; many of their opulent merchants have villas on both sides of the river: the tide and small ships come up to the town.

Upon the Union of the two kingdoms, this town commenced their trade to America, which became very considerable, and has imported from 20 to 23,000 hogsheds of tobacco in a year, besides sugars, and other West-India commodities, together with their large concern in the herring-fishing in the Firth of Clyde and Highlands, which are exported to the Baltic. They also send some ships to Greenland and Davis's Straights, for the whale-fishing; all which has increased their shipping very much, and encouraged every kind of manufactures, particularly linens, fine and coarse, cheques, tapes, icke, thread stockings, handkerchiefs, and plaids, or tartans. They have several sugar-houses, an iron slitting-mill, all sorts of iron manufacture, a glass-house, rope-walks, and soaperies, a Delft-work, also a very considerable tannery, having their raw hides from Ireland, &c.

Six miles from Glasgow is the town of Paisly, remarkable for the industry of its inhabitants, and the effects thereof, by increase of people, buildings, churches, and an hospital. About 60 years ago, they had not above 60 weavers, including journeymen and apprentices; now there are about 1400 weavers, and 93 thread mills. They make cambrics, lawns, minionets, linens, handkerchiefs, thread and tapes, &c.

About 14 miles down the Clyde from Glasgow, is NEW PORT and GREENOC; the former has a good harbour, fine ware-houses, and is the port of Glasgow; the latter is a town of good trade.

IRVINE and AIR are also towns of pretty good trade; the former has above 60 sail of ships in the coal-trade to Dublin, and other places; the latter has five or six ships in the tobacco-trade from America.

CAMPBELTON, a royal burgh in CANTIRE, is a pleasant-situated town, has a fine basin and good harbour. The inhabitants of this place and country are very industrious in agriculture, linen manufactures, and fisheries. They had a Greenland company for the whale-fishing, but some differences arising amongst those concerned, it broke up; however, they carry on a considerable trade with herrings, also cod and ling-fishing, with wherries at BARRA, LEWIS, and at ZETLAND, as well as in their own neighbourhood, which they carry for most part to Ireland.

DUMFRIES is a neat well-built town, much increased of late years, has imported about 3000 hogsheds of tobacco from America in a year; but in the neighbourhood of it, upon that coast, they have too much trade with the ISLE of MAN, from whence they bring great quantities of French brandy, and other liquors, to the great injury of Britain, and her revenues. See MAN, [ISLE of MAN,] and SMUGGLING.

ANNANDALE, NITHISDALE, and CLYDESDALE, are great sheep countries; some store-masters have above 30,000 sheep, and rent 1000l. a year; but being scarce of firing, they are thinly inhabited, and manufacture but little of their own wool, which is sent to other places.

At DUNCE in BERWICKSHIRE, JEDBURGH and HAWIC in ROXBURGHSHIRE, they manufacture plaids, carpets, and ferges, &c. TIVIODALE, and shire of MARS, are good corn countries; wheat, barley, and oats, are exported from BERWICK and EYMOUTH.

The shires of the three LOTHIANs are remarkable for fertility in fine corns, particularly wheat, barley, and oats. FIFE, PERTH, and ANGUS SHIRES, have the greatest share of the linen manufacture, yarn and thread, particularly in and about the towns of COUPER, PERTH, DUNDEE, ARBROATH, and MONTROSE. Ships are loaded from the four last-mentioned places to London, with quantities of goods of great value; and they have otherwise a very good trade.

ABERDEEN town and shire: the town is populous, large, and well built, has a town-house, traders and merchants hospitals, and one for old women; also Gordon's hospital, endowed with 10,000l. the interest whereof is at 5 per cent. per annum, for education of boys; they have six churches, and a very good university. The harbour is safe and capacious, and might be made to hold a great number of ships; the entry is guarded by a fort, and though there is a bar, it may be removed, and made deep water, by carrying the pier a little farther out. From this port is sometimes exported

3 or 4000 tons of oat-meal in one season. The manufactures here are chiefly fine and coarse stockings, plaidings, and ferges, to a great amount; I have heard of ships loadings of these goods to Holland, from 10 to 15,000l. in one cargo; but these trades are now somewhat fallen off, as the country people have of late run more into the linen manufactures. They have a very extraordinary salmon-fishing, both on the rivers DEE and DON; they have likewise a company for the Greenland whale-fishing, and within these ten years have had a tobacco-trade from America, with 10 to 12 sail of ships.

The exports from Aberdeen, before the Union, were salt, salmon to France, dried cod and ling, both to France and up the Mediterranean; narrow and broad fingrins and ferges, to Holland, and some stockings to Hamburg and Holland. Our imports from thence were wine and brandy from France, bay-salt, soap, starch, and barrel-staves, from Dantzic, and some flax from the last place and Holland.

Soon after the Union, a company here opened a trade to Virginia; but unfortunately two ships being lost at that time, put an end to the attempt.

The most material branch, and of longest standing here, is the manufactory of knit stockings, which was only begun for the Holland market, about the Revolution; they have here risen to such an extent, that, for some years within these twelve preceding, there have been shipped for Holland and London from 60 to 80,000l. sterling value.

The wool, little of which is the product of this country, is brought raw from Newcastle and London; this was for many years retailed by the importers to the country-people, who bought it in small parcels, as they could afford to buy: it was combed, spun, and knit into stockings by the women and children, and, when washed out, sold either in town, or in the country markets, to merchants exporters: then insufficiency, and cheating of every degree, was frequent, and they were truly not worth the money they gave here to the last wearer: this, as in the like cases, brought a damp on their sale at every market, and they have not as yet recovered credit at London, where the stockings of the like kind, from Guernsey and Jersey, outdo ours.

Some merchants about ten or twelve years ago, successively undertook a reform of that abuse; since which they have introduced the trade of wool-combing, so that now, I believe, we have more wool-combers than in all the rest of Scotland: the merchant imports the wool, combs it in his own ware-house, and gives it out to the people, who spin the yarn and knit the stockings, into any form or size they are directed. I have known sundry times stockings shipped for Campveer in one bottom, to the value of 2000l. sterling.

About ten or twelve years ago some merchants here introduced a trade to Virginia, and they have kept stores both there and in Maryland; we have four companies trading in the importation of tobacco from different parts in North America, which trade was pretty brisk until the late act of parliament has brought even the fair trader, under sundry discouragements; and at present the imports are considerably lessened, though I still hope the trade will not be wholly lost here.

Since the peace of Aix la Chapelle, our merchants have much turned their thoughts on the linen manufacture; this was occasioned by the consumption they had for both coarse and better sorts of linen in North America. We had some years ago set up a manufacture of coarse unbleached linen, known by the name of Osnaburghs, which cloth was greatly encouraged by the bounty given on exportation; and we were assured from all parts, that ours were the best made in Scotland. When the parliament last year took off the bounty, that manufacture was converted into one of sail-cloth, which remains entitled to the bounty, but they continue still to make some Osnaburgh cloths. Besides the above, there are three other manufactures of bleached linen, each of which has from thirty to forty looms, constantly employed in the manufacture of cloth, of the value of 1s. 6d. to 7s. per yard; and about two years ago, an island upon the river Don, about half a mile above the bridge, was made into a bleach-field of about five acres. The island is pleasantly situated, well watered and sheltered, and for the two last summers has produced as fine and as beautifully bleached cloth as any in Europe. But our undertakers in the linen way say the market is dead at present, and large stocks on hand unfold. One of those linen companies have got about eight or ten stocking-frames, for the weaving of cotton and linen stockings, caps, &c. and have also lately erected an icke-frame, which at once yields 40 pice.

There is besides another company, who have erected about twelve or twenty frames for weaving cotton stockings, caps, &c. besides, all our linen companies make checques, napkins of cotton and linen, and tartans. Last year two merchants only here have introduced, and very successfully carried on, the manufacture of white and coloured threads for sewing, to some considerable value.

The two rivers of Dee and Don, which abound in salmon, may afford annually at an average one hundred lasts of salt-fish, which are those caught after the 15th of May, and are

mostly sold for the French, and some for the Flanders market, where they have the reputation to be the best fish, and best cured of any in the world. From the beginning of the fishery-season, which is the middle or end of January, to the 15th of May, the salmon caught are either sent raw or pickled for the London market, and this may be yearly to the value of about 3000l. sterling.

We have here pork which is salted and cured both for London and sometimes for Holland; it is esteemed for the fat and the lean being better mixed and sweeter than the pork of England; and there is exported and shipped coast-ways about fifteen or twenty lasts yearly.

The chief product of this part of Scotland is oats and oatmeal, the staple articles that bring here the freest return of money, in the time of good crops. The two counties of Aberdeen and Barmff have, besides a competent provision for home service, often afforded from 50 to 70,000 bolls of oatmeal, which are sold in the Firth of Forth, and Tay on the east-coast of the Firth of Clyde, and in the Highlands on the west, and very often in Ireland, to which last place we have about five or six weeks ago begun to export.

For some years past there has been a demand from London, which I am told is afterwards carried down and used at Manchester, for linen yarn; it is a very coarse kind, bought here at from 18d. to 2s. per spindle; but as it is made of flax bought by the country people, they often cheat both in the tale and in the length of reel, and it has for twelve months past been on the decline. I am told, that few years ago from 12 to 20,000l. sterling value has been sent to London; but unless some method be taken like that lately with the stockings, this branch will be lost. It would be to the benefit of the country, if it could be got wove here, and a reasonable profit on the linen.

There are 35 ships belonging to this port, including our two whale-ships; and they consist of about 4500 tons, and are chiefly employed in the North American trade, and in that to London, Holland, and two annual ships to Danzig, as many to Riga, some to Norway, and one annual ship to Antigua, and to France with salmon.

The greatest part of our fuel is coals imported from Newcastle to the Firth of Forth. They are chiefly brought us by small ships of about 200 tons, belonging to the sea-ports in Fife; we take also about 30 or 40 cargoes of lime, and above 20 cargoes of Scots-made salt; so that about 30 or 40 Firth barks have their whole bread in those employs, which serve to take off our ready money, though in small parcels.

The country people live chiefly on oatmeal, greens, and milk. The knitters of stockings and spinners of linen yarn, are only the women and children: they are not able to gain above 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per diem at the first, nor exceed 3d. $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling per diem at last, when linen yarn bears any tolerable price at London.

They have here, perhaps, the most plentiful and best-served fish-market in the world; there are above 60 fishing-boats within 16 miles of this town on both sides. The whole of the fish caught by 30 boats come duly to our market; at least, the half of the fish caught by the other 30 are sold here, so that after a storm, when fish are scarce, our other provisions become sensibly dearer.

BAMFF, MURRAY, ROSS, and CAITHNESS SHIRES, are very good corn countries, and generally export barley, bigg, oats and oatmeal; all sorts of vivers in these northern counties are extraordinary cheap, and wages very low.

Although the woollen manufacture is not the staple of this country, yet it is far from being inconsiderable. There is an opulent company established at HADDINGTON, where they make all sorts of superfine and coarse broad and narrow cloths, also bays, shalloons, long ells, carpets, and worsted plushes. Before the union of the two kingdoms, there was a very considerable undertaking of this sort at New Mills near Haddington, which had large privileges by act of parliament, but upon the Union that company dissolved; yet the working people, who had been employed therein, continued to make cloths and other woollen manufactures. At this place is a weekly market, where large quantities of raw cloths are purchased from the country people, which are milled, dyed, and pressed by the cloth-dressers here.

At DALKEITH in MID Lothian, is a considerable manufacture of bed-coverlids, which supplies most of the country with that commodity. At MUSSELBURGH are also made some broad cloths, but the principal manufacture here is a sort of narrow stuffs of various colours, which are allowed to be the cheapest manufacture in Europe, being sold by the weaver at 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per yard. Of these, large quantities are exported to Holland; they also make a sort of white stuffs yard wide, that is much used in the country for bed-curtains, &c.

At EDINBURGH, shalloons and tartans, or plaids, are reckoned the best in Britain; but the largest quantities are made at and in the countries about STIRLING, where many hundred looms are employed in the manufacture of

ferges, shalloons, and tartans; the two former are exported to Holland, and the latter to England, America, and the West-Indies.

At ALLOA, four miles from Stirling, down the Firth, are made camblets, blankets, and long ells. At KILMARNOCK, and in the adjacent country, they make cloth ferges, which are exported to Holland and Hamburg; from thence they are sent into Germany, and there milled and dyed for soldiers clothing: also in this place are made carpets, coarse floor cloths, and cloths made in imitation of those at KENDAL.

This country abounds greatly in mines and minerals, though hitherto but little regarded. Some old and late works are those of LEADHILLS, alias HOPE TOWN, belonging to the right honourable the earl of Hopetoun, lying in the shire of CLYDESDALE; these are most remarkable for all kinds of lead ore; the green, yellow, grey, and black, are found here, as well as the blue and white; the two latter are got in great quantities, and in all their variety; the soft broad grained ore is got most frequently, and in greater quantities than the hard short ground steel ore. Of this broad ground blue ore, pieces are got from the mine like a mirror, as if polished by art. Of late, the white ore has been got in great plenty. There are some pieces almost transparent, shot out in the form of crystals of all figures, from every part of the cavity, adhering to the sides of it, as branches to a root; of which some are short and solid, joined by pairs to one surface, crossing one another like two perpendicular plains, and at right angles; others are long, sometimes joining both sides of the cavity, closely united one to another, and hollow like tubes. The fine soft blue ore is often crusted with these crystals, as if designed by nature to beautify the mass, which in its native state is very brilliant in the mine, attracting with admiration the eyes of the curious.

There has been and is still found, gold in these parts, of which formerly, broad pieces, Jacobuses and Caroluses, have been coined. It is sometimes found upon the surface amongst a particular kind of earth like red and yellow paint, by the gatherers called oker and brimstone; which earth does not extend to a great breadth, but it has its course in length, regular as the lead veins. They gather it generally in the hollow places near the sides of the rivulets, to which places it is washed down by the rains from its proper bed. Within these few years a piece was found on the side of Glengonner water about nine drop weight, which was brought to the earl of Hopetoun.

It was searching for gold, when they first discovered the lead mines, which were in the high grounds there about 380 years ago; but in the lower grounds only about the year 1534. Sir James Hopetoun, the present earl's great grandfather, got possession of these grounds by his lady Anne Foulles, of the family of Collingtoun, in the year 1641. Since which time they have produced great quantities of lead; some years 1500 tons of lead, and 600 tons of potters ore*.

* This is a bright flakey ore, in large lumps, used for glazing earthen ware. Great quantities are sent to Delft in Holland.

At WANLOCKHEAD, belonging to the duke of Queensberry, about a mile from lord Hopetoun's works are very good workings in lead-mines, which were discovered at the time of those at Lead-hills, but their ore is generally of the blue hard steely kind, and contains about 14 ounces of silver in a ton of lead, which is refined and extracted out of it; they have also of the soft flakey blue ore, and the works have been so rich this last year, as to produce about 30,000 bars of lead, each bar containing 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ Ct. which makes 1875 tons.

Anno 1600, at TARTRIVEN, 12 miles west of this city, was a fine silver-mine wrought, the bottoms of which were cleared out anno 1730. The York-Buildings company expected the work to continue, but were disappointed.

Anno 1715, Sir John Erskine, of Alva near Stirling, found a nest of silver at Alva, which he wrought out that same year to the amount of 15,000l. since which no more has been discovered; but in the same range of hills, called the Echals, there have been several old and late workings in copper-mines, which contain a quantity of silver, particularly at Aithry, Blair, Logy, and Tillycoultrie; the appearances are very good and encouraging in several places.

At STRONTIAN, in Argyleshire, are very considerable lead-mines, discovered by Sir Alexander Murry, anno 1727, wrought for account of the duke of Norfolk, andundry other partners; these were afterwards lett to the York-Buildings company, and since to others; I have known 1500 hands employed in these works at one time.

At TYNDRUM, upon the earl of Broadalbin's estate, anno 1740, lead-mines were discovered and wrought by Sir Robert Clifton, now leased to the Mine Adventurers company, and produce large quantities of ore. There are several other lead-works in different parts of the country, and appearances with-

out number; but in this country, few are willing or able to venture upon such precarious business; and indeed, it is most proper for societies.

There is lately a mine of wadd or black-lead discovered upon M'Donald of Glengary's estate in Invernessshire, leased and wrought by Capt. Thyne; also in the same shire, about 20 years ago, a fine copper-mine was discovered and wrought by Mr Champion of Bristol, upon the estate of M'Donald of Applecrofs, opposite to the island of Sky, but being troubled with water, it was necessary to bring up a level, which was too expensive for him to undertake.

There are several other good copper-mines in that neighbourhood and in the islands, which ought to be tried.

This country is happily intersected with many firths and lochs, or long inlets of the sea, which is a great convenience to trade; the Firth of Forth from St Abb's-head to Stirling about 60 miles, and from the Forth of Glasgow on the West Sea, is only 18 miles over land; from thence to Fairland-point in Wigtownshire, being the Firth of Clyde, is 90 miles; the Murry Firth from Kinnaird's-head to Inverness, is about 70 miles. This town has a good trade with the Highlands, and a chamber for the herring-fishery from Inverness to FORT WILLIAM, which from East to West Sea, is 48 miles, all a valley, fine-made roads, great lochs or lakes in the middle, and bounded with mountains on each side; from Inverness to the east-end of Lochness, is four miles. The loch is 20 miles long, at the upper end is FORT AUGUSTUS. They have a vessel to carry stores and provisions; the river of Ness is well stored with salmon; from FORT AUGUSTUS to LOCH OICH is 2 miles and a half, the loch 5 miles, one mile to LOCH LOCHY, which is ten miles long, from thence to Fort William five miles and a half; from Fort William is an inlet of the sea to Castle Deuart in the Island of Mull, 36 miles.

Upon the MURRAY FIRTH, opposite to the town of Fortrose, about six miles from Inverness, is a large new fort now building at AIRDESIER, well fortified; the barracks will be sufficient to hold 1500 men, and there is free access to the sea. This comes in place of FORT GEORGE at INVERNESS, now demolished, as is also an old fort on the other side of the town, built by Oliver Cromwell. FORT AUGUSTUS and FORT WILLIAM, make a chain from the East to the West Sea as above mentioned, and divide the Highlands, which might not only prevent a junction upon any insurrection or invasion, but may also be a means to assist the civilizing and introducing manufactures and industry amongst the Highlanders, which will certainly prove the best and most effectual way of maintaining peace and improving the country. To all these forts there are fine spacious roads made, fit for any wheel-carriages from the south and low countries. The wisdom of the legislature cannot be sufficiently admired for annexing the Highland forfeited estates to the crown, particularly lord Cromarty's in Ross-shire, lord Lovat's in Invernessshire, Cameron of Lochiel's in Argyleshire, and the duke of Perth's in Perthshire, and in appropriating the revenues thereof, for the improvement of the country in the manufactures, &c. and farther for the same purpose, by an act of the last parliament, 3000*l.* per ann. payable out of the customs, is granted and put under the management of the commissioners and trustees for improving fisheries and manufactures in Scotland; and they have already made a beginning, and published a plan for distributing the said sum for the first year, viz. for introducing the linen manufactures at four different stations and settlements, in certain parts of the Highlands, in the shires of INVERNESS and Ross (where it hath not hitherto been introduced) and applied a sum not exceeding 630*l.* each station, conformably to the plan; which is for building proper houses, purchasing lint-feed, giving premiums to the raisers and dressers of flax, and for wheels, reels, heckles, and all sorts of utensils, for masters and mistresses to breed up others, 2520*l.*—For supporting and encouraging the manufacture in those places where it hath been already introduced, but hath not yet arrived to any considerable degree of perfection, 300*l.*—For salaries to one or more inspectors, not to exceed 100*l.* and for defraying incidental expences attending the execution of this plan, 80*l.*—It is hoped that these wise and useful measures will have the desired effect.

The most considerable fir-woods in this country are in STRATH or the valley SPEE, chiefly belonging to Sir Lodovick Grant, Mr Grant of Rothiemurchas, and the duke of Gordon. Sir James Grant, Sir Lodovick's father, sold sixty thousand well-grown trees to the York-Buildings company, the boughs and tops of which they burnt into charcoal, having erected a furnace and forges for making of iron, and having bog and rock-ore in the country. Also they got pig-iron from Mr Rawlinson's furnaces at M'Donald's of Glengary, lying between Fort William and Fort Augustus; to which place fine ores were brought from Lancashire, mixed with Scotch ores, and there smelted.

The trees were partly cut into deals, and partly carried whole down the river Spey to London, for masts, yards, and bowsprits for ships. But the company's affairs at London going wrong, made them give up these undertakings, however promising they were. Formerly there were also iron-furnaces

VOL. II.

and forges at Achnacarry on Loch-Lochy, ten miles from Fort William, and in other places of the Highlands.

At present there are new iron works erecting at Bonawe in Argyleshire, to which place great quantities of timber are brought down from Glenorchy to Loch Awe, and then by the water or river Awe, in which are plenty of salmon. Also from Logh Etive to Bonawe.

Upon Lochiel's estate are fine woods, which may easily be brought to FORT WILLIAM—Also upon Loch Ness, particularly on lord Lovat's estate, which might be brought to Inverness. Upon Chisholm's estate are likewise very fine woods on the river Beaully, but so difficult to be brought to the river, which has several falls, that it makes the wood of little value. In like manner lord Braees has very fine woods about the head of the river Dee, forty miles from Aberdeen; but somewhat the same difficulties attend them as do the last mentioned. It is much to be regretted, that such fine timber, fit for ships masts, should be cut down into boards, or left rotting on the ground; I can't think, but by some contrivance they might be brought to water-carriage.

All round about the western islands, and opposite upon the main, are plenty enough of herrings, cod, ling, and salmon, &c. to enrich a nation. We have sometimes a hundred sail of ships there in a season, and all of them get their loadings; and many more ships might be loaded, if the fishery was upon a right establishment; but at present it is attended with so much charge, and is so precarious, that many adventurers suffer greatly by it, and it is in a great measure given up; for the chief herring-season is in the winter time. Ships come thither from the east and west country loaded with salt and barrels, and provisions for three or four months voyage, besides stores of tobacco, spirits, oatmeal, and bread for the Highland fishermen; for they carry no nets of their own, but engage the Highland boats to fish for them, giving these Highlanders provisions fish or no fish, and then giving so much more for the barrel of fresh herrings, according to their success and demands.

The proprietor of the estates where such fishings are, exacts one night's fishing, the best in the week, for himself; also a tax for the liberty of packing them upon the shore. If a vessel gets a cargo, when many of them are together, it will come pretty dear, by the quantity of provisions given to the fishermen, and the high price for the fresh herring, every one striving to have his cargo first, by reason of the bad weather at that time of year. It should not be forgot also, that it is somewhat precarious, for though the herrings come annually pretty regular, yet it is uncertain into what loch they will come, and how long they will remain.

Suppose a number of ships goes to Loch Boque on the west side of the Lewis, and after staying some time, they hear that herrings are plenty in Loch Broom upon the main; if the wind is westerly, which is often the case, they may not get about the island for a long time, and when they arrive at Loch Broom, the herrings may have shifted to Loch Seafort or Stornway, on the east side of the Lewis, and thereby the fishers be altogether disappointed. Then it comes to be a heavy loss upon the adventurers; the dead freight of the ship which from this Firth is generally 40*s.* per last, being sunk, stores exhausted, salt wasted, barrels spoiled, &c.

Wherefore, in my humble judgment, storehouses should be erected in sundry places, salt, barrels, and other necessities lodged there, and ships not to come till their loadings are ready.

I shall communicate some farther thoughts about improving of this article, amongst other remarks subjoined to this letter, and beg reference thereto.—But I must here previously observe, that the consequence of such settlements would be the making of so many towns, cultivating more ground, growing of corn, and planting of potatoes, &c. Also the fishermen would always be at hand, and prompted to follow after the succeeding fisheries of cod and ling. In many of these western islands, they have great quantities of fern, which is found to contain the best and most salts of any vegetable; they burn the fern to ashes, and either use them in place of soap, or make a pot-ash and soap of them. These shores likewise abound with sea-weeds, which are burnt into kelp, fit for bottle glass-houses, and great quantities thereof are brought to Newcastle.

Some of these islands are very fruitful in corn, barley, or bigg, and oats, particularly the island of Tyric, which is level; it belongs to the duke of Argyle, and the south end of the south-west belonging to M'Donald of Clandronald, abounds mostly with limestone and marle; also they here use the seaweed for manure.

They often delve their ground with garden-spades, and sow their corn by drilling, by which means it produces sixty fold. These islands and the Highlands in general, abound with black cattle, which are drove down to fairs and markets in the low countries, particularly to Crief and Falkirk; at the former of which places, I have seen twenty thousand head of cattle, and sold from 30 to 40*s.* per head; most of them are drove from thence to England, where they are fattened and brought to London, which is also a great trade from the shire of GALLOWAY.

ORKNEY

ORKNEY and SHETLAND islands are the most northerly parts of his Majesty's dominions in Scotland; the former of these helps to feed the latter, Orkney being plentiful in corn and all sorts of vivens; they are very populous, most of the inhabitants are fishermen, or at least they understand to handle the oar; oatmeal is from 7 to 8 s. per boll, or 1 s. 4 d. English; bigg 5 to 6 s. per boll, or six Winchester bushels; beef and mutton $\frac{3}{4}$ to 1 d. per pound; geese 4 d. to 6 d. fowls 2 d. to 3 d. eggs 1 d. per dozen, or 14; eating butter 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per pound, grease butter 30 to 40 s. per barrel. Wages for women servants, 5 s. 6 s. 8 d. to 8 s. 4 d. per ann. men servants, 12 to 15 s. per ann. wages for head servants about 4 d. per diem, and maintenance. Their fishing here is not considerable, on account of the rapidity of the tides; in Pentland Firth, the tide running nine miles an hour, yet they have plenty of fish for their own consumption, and some for exportation; however, they are so expert at the business, that they go generally to the island of Bara, the southernmost of the long western islands, to the cod and ling-fishing, and are annually employed by all the British cod-fishers to Iceland.

The Hudson's-Bay ships call there every year, and carry some of them to remain at their settlements in Hudson's-Bay for several years, and afterwards bring them home and exchange them for others. This year about 300 of them are employed on board the herring-busses belonging to the London society; I think they may also be made very subservient and useful to our Greenland whale-fishing.—They have some linen and woollen manufactures, particularly those of coarse stockings.—Capt. McKensie has made a very exact survey of the Orkney and Lewis islands, with descriptions of them, also of the soundings and tides, published in folio; he is now employed by the lords of the admiralty to go on with the survey of all the western islands and coasts, which, when published, will be of very great use.

ZETLAND, or SHETLAND, grows but little corn; yet the country is populous, and is supplied with oatmeal from the Orkneys and other parts; they are much employed in fishing for herrings, cod, ling, and tusk. This last-mentioned is a thick, fat, and delicious fish, somewhat like a small cod, not found any where else in Britain; they have a considerable trade to Hamburg with their fish and coarse stockings, from whence they bring many necessaries as well as superfluities of life.

BRASSA SOUND, famous for the rendezvous of the Dutch herring-busses; formerly eighteen hundred sail have been here from Holland in one season. The Dutch buy of them coarse stockings and mittens.—Whales come frequently ashore on some of these islands, which proves a good perquisite to the admiral. Also there are too often shipwrecks of Dutch, Danish, and Swedish Indiamen, and large Norwegian ships bound for the Irish channel.—They have fine beef and mutton in this country, and live very comfortably, but their fisheries might be much improved.

R E M A R K S.

The last parliament, continues my correspondent, were inferior to few in regard to the wise measures taken by them for the encouragement of trade and manufactures, as well as for several useful laws, tending particularly to the improvement of this part of the united kingdom. Many of the same persons being still in the administration, and the new parliament having an addition of many true patriots, gives us the pleasing hope and prospect of a continuation of such a system of policy, as will effectually preserve and promote the commerce, and the public credit of these kingdoms.

Amongst these, the fisheries are not the least. We have seen the happy effects of the bounty for the whale-fishing; though it was granted only for seven years, yet the trade has increased so much, that we have had this year eighty-nine large stout British ships in Greenland, which have been, in the general, pretty successful; the nett produce of which fishery is near all gain to the nation, besides the multiplying our fishers and sailors. But as extraordinary charges attend every new trade at its commencement, and in this case in particular, from the necessity of erecting of boiling-houses and warehouses, and bringing from the island of Foern on the coast of Jutland, commanders, speculators, and harpooners, &c. both to execute our business and instruct our people: these things are very expensive to the first undertakers. We are obliged to give those chief officers high wages and premiums, and are at the charge also of sending them home again annually.

On these considerations, it is judged absolutely necessary to have a prolongation of the BOUNTY for seven years farther, which was last winter approved of by a late able minister, but put off till this winter on account of a new parliament. As this and all bounties are given amongst ourselves, they can be of no loss to the nation; and therefore it is to be hoped, a measure so expedient will meet with no obstruction. Besides, in this case, the revenue is first increased by all the duties on the articles used by this trade, viz. on iron, hemp, flax, oak plank, pitch and tar, &c. for building of ships; also the duties and excises on spirits, liquors, and salt, &c. consumed in these voyages, make us fit out and navigate, at a greater charge than our neighbours and rivals. Wherefore

the bounty is but returning only a part of those duties, and putting us on a footing with our neighbours. And after the cessation of this bounty, it is reasonable enough to believe, that this trade may be able to stand upon its own legs, and consequently will greatly tend to increase the revenue, as well as greatly benefit the whole kingdom. It is to be hoped likewise, that by the time of expiration, we shall have no occasion for these Jutlanders, who make good advantage in serving us at present, as well as the Hollanders, Hamburgers, Bremeners, with the chief officers in the whale-fishery. But as every saving is necessary to be made upon an infant trade, wherein we are rivalled too, it is humbly proposed, That As the islands of Orcades lying in the latitude 58 and 59, and directly in the way to Iceland and Greenland, are a very plentiful country for all sorts of provisions, and well peopled, more especially with fishermen; so the fleet of 25 to 30 sail of vessels from BROAD STAIRS, RAMSGATE, or MARGATE, for the annual Iceland cod-fishing, should proceed from those parts to the Orkneys, with no more hands than are necessary to navigate the vessels thither; where they should take on board all the additional hands wanted for the fishing, and set them down again in about a month or six weeks upon their return from the fishing; by which means there will be a considerable saving in the articles of wages and provisions.—In like manner our Greenland-ships might sail from all the different ports in Britain, at first with their officers and as many hands only as are necessary to navigate the ships to the Orkneys, and there take in the additional hands for boat-steerers, &c. wanted for that fishery; these hands may be made boat-steerers the first year, and learn in a few voyages to become dexterous harpooners and speculators, &c.: these additional hands likewise may be set down again upon their return from the fishing. This would not only prove a great saving in wages and provisions in those fisheries, but also be a certain resource for these officers and hands, that are so necessary for the business; whereas, at present, we are at an extraordinary charge for our dependance upon the Jutlanders before mentioned; and though many of our people are taught to be chief officers, as harpooners, &c. yet it frequently happens, that the necessary Jutlanders are otherwise engaged in voyages abroad, or out of the way when wanted; so that the Orkneys may, in this respect, supply the place of Jutland: for which purpose, some new regulations in the law for obtaining licences, in order to give title to the bounty, would be necessary.

We before observed, that there are in Scotland 16 large ships employed in the Greenland trade, which, in proportion to the number of merchants and their stock, is more than in England: but as the articles of our customs, out of which, as we have said, these bounties are payable, viz. out of the OLD SUBSIDY, PETTY CUSTOMS, ADDITIONAL DUTY, ONE PER CENT. INWARDS, and COMPOSITION in PETTY SEIZURES, have proved insufficient to answer the intention of parliament; there are already considerable arrears due to the Greenland ships and herring-busses, contrary to the design of the legislature. Upon this account, the herring-fishing chamber of Edinburgh has already given up; and I am afraid, unless some remedy is found, the other chambers and whale-fishing adventurers in Scotland, will be obliged to follow their example; for it is not enough that the government owes them so much money, these trades cannot be carried on in Scotland without punctual payment of the bounties; and what a pity would it be, that such a national and beneficial trade should be so short lived! But we have all reason to hope, that the parliament, when applied to, will give speedy and effectual relief; and that they will not starve, but nurse and cherish, these infant undertakings.

Having mentioned the herring buss-fishing, which in Holland is called the great fishery, it requires and deserves some consideration. I am glad that so many gentlemen of worth and consideration are concerned in the fishing society at London, who may overcome any difficulties that may occur in such a delicate branch of trade, wherein we have many rivals.

In order to answer this great end the more speedily and substantially, we are humbly of opinion, that the act of parliament needs several amendments. The chief intention of the legislature, was certainly to make this branch of trade general, and to spread itself throughout the kingdom: but the 3 per cent. bounty upon the amount of money employed that way, being restrained to the society at London, and the chambers at the out-ports, prevents this trade becoming general, because no private adventurers in busses are entitled to it.

Moreover, the out-port chambers complain of trouble and expences in being obliged first to remit their money to London, which is designed to be employed in this trade, paying it into the bank and drawing it out again, without any manner of use. Another great inconveniency is, that they are obliged to send all their vouchers to the society at London, in order to receive the said 3 per cent. through their hands.

Now it is humbly submitted, that if the parliament should think fit, in lieu of the said 3 per cent. which corresponds to about 10 s. per ton, and in lieu of 30 s. per ton already stipulated to be paid, to grant 40 s. per ton for the whole bounty to every buss, that shall be fitted out with nets, and all

all necessaries for the herring-fishing, the buffes being surveyed and certified by the officers of the customs, in the same manner as the whale-ships are surveyed, &c. it would answer much better; and, indeed, when the great charge of nets is considered, the herring deserves rather a larger bounty than the whale-fishing.

It may be worth observing, that it has been found by experience the herrings are often seen about the Lewis and western islands, in the months of May and June, as well as in the autumn and winter months: wherefore, it might be permitted for buffes to fish in these places in all seasons; they will always go where they expect the best success: it may be sufficient for them to be properly fitted out, and to be employed in the fishing, at least four months in the year, to entitle them to the bounty. This article of early herring and buff-fishing comes to be very dear, on account of the great charge of nets, and the fish are chiefly consumed in the Netherlands and Germany: the Dutch themselves for that reason are much fallen off from this early fishery. The Baltic consumption is chiefly supplied from Norway, where they have large quantities of herrings cured and packed, at about 6 or 7 s. per barrel: they are afforded so cheap, by reason of their being caught within lands and inlets of the sea, by a number of small boats and nets at an easy charge, and the people being always at home. They have of late years a contrivance, which may deserve the attention of our people, by which they catch great quantities in a short time. The method is this: when the herrings come into some of their deep bays, they draw a parcel of large nets joined together like a fleet of buff-nets; across the mouth of the said bays, which is called an inclosing net, by which means the herrings are inclosed and hemmed in; then the small boats with their nets fall to work, and do great execution.

We have before observed, what advantages may be derived to Scotland from the many lochs or inlets of the sea, in the western islands and the Highlands, which run up from 10 to 30 miles within land, and often not above one mile broad; particularly the Firth of Cromarty, Lochs Rogue, Seafort, and Stornaway in the Lewis, and Lochs Afflynt, Broom, and Tórndon, opposite on the main, and sundry others; into several of which lochs, herrings do annually come in great plenty. Since this is the case, we might enclose and hem them in, by a fleet of buff-nets drawn across the loch, as is done in the Baltic; and notice being given to all the boats round about, they would come with their small nets, and fish what quantities they pleased.

If this should be found practicable, it would be requisite to have proper places, the most central for this fishing, store-houses with salt and barrels, and all sorts of necessaries, where coopers, twine-spinners, and net-breaders, &c. may have employment the whole year; and when the herring seasons are over, the fishers may be employed in the cod and ling-fishery, of which there are great plenty and very good in these parts; there are likewise many rivers stored with fine salmon much neglected; these fisheries, when improved to the extent they are capable of, would greatly contribute to increase the wealth of the united kingdom, and prove an additional nursery for seamen: but these things are more proper for some society, public or private, the adventure and trouble being too much for private people.

When herrings are caught in these parts and properly cured for exportation, either to the West-Indies or other places, the best opportunities of shipping are from London, Bristol, Liverpool, &c. yet there are difficulties in bringing them coastwise, by reason of the debenture upon exportation: this ought to be regulated, as a further inducement for private persons or societies to engage herein. See the article DEBENTURE. They are much embarrassed also in Scotland in relation to the article of foreign salt, imported for the cure of fish [see our article SALT], which requires some amendment in the law. Though a quantity of salt should, at present, lie a number of years, in which time it will waste considerably, yet no allowance is made to the trader for such waste. For when weighed out again, the custom house claims a penalty of 10 s. per bushel duty for every deficient bushel. If at importation it is entered for the cure of fish, and there is no opportunity for using it that way, which has been the case in this Firth for several years, as salt is generally brought hither by our retour ships from the straights; yet that salt is not allowed to be exported, but must lie as a dead stock, and waste away, besides being liable to the above-mentioned penalty; which is a difficulty on this trade, that seems necessary to be removed.

Also when any parcel of such salt is carried from Edinburgh to the Highlands and western islands for the cure of fish, there are some hardships that attend traders herein; for they give bond at 10 s. per bushel, and the merchants or purchasers grant also new bonds to the custom-house in these parts where it is lodged and to be used; yet the first importer is still held bound to cancel these bonds, though it should be many years after, until the said salt shall be consumed: some remedy would be necessary for this article likewise.

We come now to the consideration of the linen manufacture, which certainly is an object no way unworthy the most serious public regard and attention.

This staple manufacture was first cherished and raised in Scotland by the means of bounties; but by some unhappy mistake, thinking it could stand upon its own legs, the bounty was this year withdrawn, which has given a sudden check to its growth; nor will it be able to rise again without some powerful aid. For I am informed by good authority, that above eight thousand weavers are quite turned adrift, many of whom are sent to our plantations, many become soldiers both in the British and Dutch service, and some are gone into other employments of various kinds at home.

If this, upon due inquiry, should be found to be FACT, is not this undoing all that has been hitherto done? If this capital manufacture should ever be revived again, it must be some considerable time first; a number of hands cannot be collected and bred to this manual art of a sudden. See our articles ARTIFICERS and MANUFACTURERS.

Ireland, though more concerned in the linen manufacture than Scotland, does not suffer so much, because of their high bounties at home. It is true, the government has granted 3000 l. per ann. in aid to civilize the Highlands, by promoting the growth of lint and establishing the manufacture there; which most certainly in time will be of great use, but cannot be a present relief to this valuable and important article, and preserve it from ruin.

It is suggested by some, as a redress for this grievance, to take off the drawback on the exportation of foreign linen; but we are afraid, this measure will not effectually answer the purpose, and may be attended with consequences no less disadvantageous than those it is intended to prevent; for, if the drawback is taken off, only upon what linen is re-exported to our plantations, it is likely to prove a means of encouraging fraud and smuggling, by entering the same out for other places, and smuggling it into America. If the drawback is wholly taken off, these linens from other places may still be smuggled to America.

Moreover, a measure of this kind may discourage our trade to Germany, by not taking some of their goods in exchange for ours. And may not our commerce to Spain, &c. be greatly prejudiced, for want of an acceptable assortment of cargoes? As other nations may obtain the proper assortments from France and Holland, if this should prove the case; so the remedy least injurious, should seem to be the revival of the bounty upon British linen exported. And although the giving such bounty should be thought a present incumbrance, yet as it wholly centers and circulates among ourselves, the nation cannot be the poorer, but must necessarily so prosper in its linen manufactures and the employment of the poor, as to make ample and permanent compensation for this temporary national burthen.

Another article of great importance, which seems to be in a declining way at present, as well in Scotland as in England, is our tobacco trade, which hitherto has occasioned a great demand and consumption of our manufactures, and given employment to many ships; and the re-export thereof has brought money into the kingdom, and enabled us to pay the ballance due for other articles imported. But we are informed, that the late act of parliament, though well intended, to prevent many abuses and frauds committed in this trade, is attended with so many real difficulties and discouragements to traders, that both officers and merchants are often at a loss what to do: wherefore, several American merchants in Scotland have given up this trade, and others, it seems, are likely to follow their example. This has an evil aspect. To remedy which, it would be happy if some method could be found, that would prevent fraud, without cramping or destroying the trade. Till something better can be suggested; we would submit to consideration the example of lowering the duties on teas. This has had so happy a tendency, as to produce a far larger revenue to the crown than it did before, [see the article SMUGGLING] and to prevent smuggling in the like proportion. Let it be supposed that the duty on tobacco was, in like manner, reduced even to 2 d. per pound, is it not highly reasonable to believe, that the same desirable effect would follow therefrom, as hath done in regard to the duty on teas? and that the revenue would be thereby considerably increased, and smuggling proportionably cease, which is now encouraged as well by the high duties at home, as the great drawback on exportation? Nor is encouragement to smuggling the only disadvantageous consequence of these high duties; it also gives foreigners the benefit of manufacturing our tobacco cheaper than we can do; and that tobacco which does not cost them above 2 d. per pound, is sent us again worth from 2 s. 6 d. to 5 s. per pound, such as Strathburgh rappee, &c. whereas if the manufacturing of tobaccoes in all its shapes at home was encouraged, as well as the exportation of the same so manufactured, and either no drawback at all, or only half of the duty, allowed for the export of unmanufactured tobacco, we should then not only have a great additional benefit from the trade, but the revenue augmented in proportion to the increase of the vent and consumption.

This manufacture of tobacco in France alone, has enabled the farmers to pay for that branch, and salt, 40 millions of livres; which, in the time of Lewis the XIVth, was farmed for

for no more than 8 or 10 millions; for which reason, perhaps, they will not be very ready to promote the growth of it, either in America or at home. I have been told another reason for our tobacco being brought so low is, that we plant too great a quantity, and that it would be better to burn a part of it, as the Dutch do their spices: wherefore, would it not prove more nationally beneficial to raise a smaller quantity of tobacco, and employ our spare ground and hands in raising hemp and flax, &c.?

The article of mines in Scotland seems to be greatly neglected, though several works have turned to no inconsiderable account; which may serve as a specimen of what may reasonably be further expected. This part of the united kingdom is mountainous, and has many promising appearances of veins of copper, lead, and, in some places, tin; and some of these contain such a proportion of silver, as is worth the extraction. Yet hitherto strangers have not ventured much into the Highlands, the reason of which, we may presume, has been, that property was formerly not so secure there as could be wished. The case at present is much altered for the better, since the plan formed by the last parliament for appropriating the forfeited estates in the Highlands to the public benefit, appears to be of such national importance; and, since his Majesty, in his late most gracious speech, recommended it to the present parliament to make such further provisions as may be expedient for perpetuating the due execution of the laws in that part of the united kingdom*, we may expect that not only improvements in the Highlands will be made in the mineral kingdom, but in many other manufactures, and in the fisheries. This will certainly give a new face, not only to the Highlands, but to every part of the kingdom of Scotland; it will convert, we hope, the spirit of rebellion into that of honest industry, and useful commerce, which will render the people prosperous and happy, instead of poor and turbulent, under his Majesty's benign government.

* See his Majesty's Speech, November 14, 1754.

As an inducement to cultivate the arts of mineralogy and metallurgy in Scotland in particular, where nature seems to have given so generous an invitation, we need only consider what a beggarly country Sweden would be without their mines; nor has Russia, of late years, less profited by them. Upon the whole, Scotland, it is certain, has by nature many advantages for trade; a large territory; of easy defence; plenty of people, if employed at home; a wholesome air; mines; a proper situation for the eastern and western trades; a safe coast; rivers of easy entry; the seas and rivers stocked with fish. This country is as capable of extended trade as any in all Europe; yet, till within these few years, it was reduced to a very low state: trade was ruined; the national stock wasted; the people forsook the country; the rents of lands were unpaid; houses in towns, and farms in the country, were thrown upon the owners hands; the creditors could not have the interest of their money to live on; and the debtors persons and estates were exposed to law.—But since the Union, the aspect of things is certainly greatly changed for the better; and, if this country had not unhappily been the dupes and bubbles of a rebellious crew, this nation would have certainly been in a far more prosperous condition. And it is to be hoped, that no wise measures will be wanting effectually to eradicate this cursed spirit of rebellion among the more ignorant Scots, for that is not likely ever to prove of other consequence to them than to promote the spirit of anarchy, and, consequently, of woe and poverty.

Before I conclude this article of Scotland, I think it proper to acknowledge, that the chief matter of which it is composed was communicated to me by Francis Grant, Esq; brother to Sir Archibald Grant, Bart. and also to the right honourable the late lord high advocate of Scotland, and now lord Preston-Grange, one of the lords of session.

Of the WEIGHTS and MEASURES of SCOTLAND.

The weight in Scotland upon which not only their other weights, but likewise their liquid and dry measures are founded, is the French Troy ounce, being about one and four fifths per cent. lighter than ours; but their pound consists of 16 ounces, whereas that of our's is only of 12.

There is no doubt but this ounce was originally the same with our's, and that it is only time and neglect hath made this difference.

The Scottish pint, upon which all their wet and dry measures are founded, ought to weigh, of the running water of Leith, 55 of those ounces, and to contain about 99 square inches: consequently, their three pints being as 297 is to 282, is 5 per cent. better than our beer-gallon, near 103 of such pints going to our beer-barrel.

Their ordinary peck consists of $21\frac{1}{4}$ of such pints; but the peck used for oats, barley, and malt, contains near 31 of such pints; and thus their boll consists of four such pecks; their

ordinary peck is about one-fifteenth part less than our bushel, but the extraordinary about a fourth part more.

In this kingdom they did use to keep their accounts three different ways, viz. in Scotch pounds, shillings, and pence; in Scotch marks; and in English pounds, shillings, and pence: counting 20 Scotch shillings to a pound, and 12 Scotch pence to a Scotch shilling, and 13 Scotch shillings and four Scotch pence to a mark; a Scotch shilling being then only valued at the price of an English penny, and their mark was valued at no more than $13\frac{2}{3}$ d. English money.

But since the union of the two kingdoms, the same species of gold and silver as are coined in the king's mint in the Tower of London, pass current in this kingdom.

SEA DOMINION in general. The constant prosperity of our trade and navigation depending principally on the figure the nation is capable of making at sea, and preserving those rights and privileges upon that liquid element, to which we are not only intitled by nature, but by the laws of nations, and by treaties; it becomes necessary, in a work of this kind, to take proper notice of a topic of such high concernment.

By the word sea, according to the genuine signification, is understood the ocean and main sea, as well as gulphs and inland seas, such as the Mediterranean, Adriatic, Egean, British, and Baltic Seas, which are more immediately subject to dominion: for as to the sovereignty of the vast ocean, no man can pretend to it, unless he was lord of the universe; and the dominion of every prince and state can extend no farther on the main seas than where it is reasonable that his neighbours should begin, or where the particular dominion is lost in the boundless deep.

By dominion is meant a propriety, or right of using, enjoying, disposing of, and freely alienating the thing so enjoyed and possessed. This dominion is of two sorts; that which is common to all men, as possessors without distinction; and that which is particular to some, appointed and set apart by peculiar persons or states, so that all other persons are excluded from a liberty of use and enjoyment, without the previous consent and permission of the proprietor or enjoyer.

That the land is subject to such a dominion is not doubted; but several have objected against the dominion of the sea. They say the nature of the element will not admit of any such property, that being fluid, and, consequently, subject to a continual alteration, by the accession of new waves, which continually shift from one place to another; whereby the state of it is so absolutely uncertain, that it is hard to suppose any part of it retainable in a particular possession, which naturally consists in the distinction of limits, and they cannot conceive this possible in the sea.

To which it is answered, That as God has ordained the land should be ruled, protected, and governed by public power, so the same is appointed for the sea, which cannot be alleged to be near so fluid as rivers, the property of which has been seldom, if ever disputed. If it is said, Rivers being bounded on either side by land, can admit of particular dominion more easily than the sea, this makes for our purpose, to prove the king of Great-Britain's title to the sovereignty of the British Seas, they being in a great part bounded by land.

But to answer the above-mentioned objection more generally; no reasonable man will deny, that tho' the water is frequently shifted, the channel, or space of ground over which it flows, continually remains the same; and when a man is said to rule over a sea or river, it is understood not of the element, but of the site where they are placed. The waters of the British and Adriatic seas continually run out, yet the sea is the same; as the Tyber, Po, Rhine, Thames, or Severn, are the same rivers as they were a thousand years ago; and this is what is subject to princes by way of protection and government.

Would it not seem ridiculous if any man should allege, that the sea ought to be left without protection, so far that any one might do what he pleased there, well or ill, rob or spoil? Which alone argues, that the sea ought to be governed by those to whom it most properly appertains by divine disposition. The air is a much more fluid element than the water, and yet that space which is above any piece of land that any particular person possesses, is so absolutely the property of the owner, that he may lawfully hinder any man from extending a scone, or any thing from any contiguous building, that may reach over his ground, even though the foundation of any such building be entirely upon the ground of him who owns it. And if the possession of the ground gives the proprietor an unquestionable title to the dominion of the air, the possession of the channel of the sea must sufficiently intitle the possessors to the dominion of the waters. As to their not being capable of limits and bounds, on account of their fluidity, that is a frivolous argument: for, unless the sea is supposed to be infinite, it must necessarily be bounded; and it is certain the sea and land do so mutually embrace one another with crooked windings and turnings, this by peninsulas and promontories, and that by creeks and gulphs, that they both promiscuously set bounds to one another; and, besides, it has been bounded.

Others

Others object against the particular dominion of the sea, that freedom of passage, commerce, and traffic, is a right so inherent to mankind, that it can no where be abrogated or abolished, by any law or custom whatsoever, and that the sea is like the highway, common to all. To this we reply, It is so, as much as other highways by land, or great rivers are, which, though common and free, are not to be usurped by private persons to their own intire use, but remain to the use of every one; not that their freedom is such that they should be without the protection and government of some prince or state.

As the sea is capable of protection and government, so is the same, no less than the land, subject to be divided among men, and appropriated to cities and potentates, which long since seems to have been ordained as a thing most natural.

As to the community of the sea by freedom of passage, no body pretends an inoffensive passage ought, or can in reason be denied to travellers and strangers at sea, in as much as it has relation only to the offices of humanity, and where there is no cause of fear or jealousy; which freedom of passage does not in the least derogate from the dominion of the place where such persons are permitted to pass: because the passengers being allowed that liberty, not as having a regal right and title to it, but by permission, and the permitting of another to participate of any thing, does not in the least divest the owner of his propriety, or any ways diminish his power over his own, especially when he himself loses nothing by it. All passages through foreign countries are (as they ever have been) subject to such limitations and restrictions, as the several princes and sovereigns of the countries, through which passage is desired, think fit for the welfare and security of their own people, as well as of their allies.

The right of the flag, which is in the crown of Great-Britain, demands a mark of respect from all ships passing in the British Sea, and is the limitation and restriction on which such passage is permitted. As to that part of the objection which relates to the liberty of trade, it appears, at first view, so trivial, that it needs no other confutation but a flat denial, as the objectors give no other reason but their bare assertion: but, to silence them, let us suppose that, in time of peace, France would exchange her wines with England's wool, and the English, not finding it consistent with the interest of the nation to let the wool be exported (as certainly it is not) nor being willing to give the French money for their wines, since they can be abundantly supplied with that commodity from Spain and Portugal, in exchange for English manufactures, should refuse any such commerce with France; the question is, Whether France has any right to compel England to compliance with her demand? Who is there that will not answer in the negative? it being certain that every nation in the world may consent to or refuse all traffic with any other, as they think fit, except there has preceded some treaty or compact to the contrary. Some who oppose the dominion of the sea, instead of arguments, pretend to produce authorities against it, which we shall observe, as far as they seem to have any weight with them.

They tell us Antoninus Pius, according to Marcianus the lawyer, and Justinian in his Institutions, declared, That, by the law of nature, the air, as well as the rivers, the sea, and its shores, ought to be common to all. Accordingly he allowed the fishermen of Formia and Capena (and all others in general) to fish upon the shore; with this provision only, that they should not meddle with towns, monuments, and buildings, which were not by any law common to all. They also cite Ulpian against the dominion of the sea, as saying, That the sea, being by nature free for all, cannot be subjected by any peculiar law or private dominion; and in another place, That the sea and shores are common to all, as the air, and that it is often declared by the emperors, That none should be deprived of the liberty of fishing. We are told also, that Antoninus Pius said, That he himself was lord of the world, but the law of the sea. If the opinion of some particular persons was of sufficient authority to build the suppositions of the absolute community of the sea upon, these objections might be of some force: but, by inquiring diligently into the laws and customs of most ages and nations, we shall find the matter to be quite otherwise; and to evidence it, in the course of our argument, we shall instance several nations that were successively in possession of the sovereignty of the Eastern Seas.

As to the testimony of Ulpian, let us make use of him himself against it: for he reckons the revenues of fisheries (which are generally looked upon to be part of the regalia, or royalties of the prince) among the public customs, and places fishponds among the other possessions that are deemed liable to pay assessments. Justinian's laws, as excellent as they are, have suffered considerable infractions and alterations, and particularly in one relating to the marine: for by his laws, ships driven by tempest upon a shore, should either belong to the former owners, or as things relinquished and unpossessed become theirs who first should find them; which good law is confirmed in the German empire, but intirely altered by several other nations, and, among others, by the English. In a word, it is not to be supposed that Justinian meant, by any decree or institution of his, to forbid a particular domi-

nion of the sea, since he appropriated the Hellespont to himself, in such a manner that the liberty of that sea, and the ports there, cost the merchants and mariners that frequented them very dearly, according to Procopius, who was his contemporary, and wrote his history. The most considerable authority the objectors quote, is the answer of the emperor Antoninus Pius, That he himself was lord of the land, but the law of the sea. This matter being put in a wrong light, the reader should be informed of the fact, which is this:

Endemon Asiaticus, a native of Nicomedia, a city in Bithynia, having suffered shipwreck in the Egean Sea; and his goods having been seized by the customs of the Cyclades Islands (in the Archipelago) he represented to the emperor Antoninus how unjustly and cruelly these custom-house officers had dealt by him, and petitioned him for relief (according to Volusius Marcianus, who was one of that emperor's privy-counsellors) in these words, Oh emperor Antoninus, our lord, we having been shipwrecked, were robbed of all by the receivers of the customs that inhabit the Cyclades Islands! To which the emperor made him the following answer, I indeed am sovereign of the world, but the law of the sea: let it be determined by the Rhodian laws [see RHODIAN LAWS] which are prescribed for the regulation of sea affairs, so far as they are not opposed by any of our laws: for the emperor Augustus was also of that opinion. The only controversy that ever was about the reading of this answer, is in relation to the pointing of it, and particularly to the full point, or period, which is found after these words, But the law of the sea: there being a full point after the words beforementioned, the objectors allege, that the BUT implies the emperor indeed acknowledged himself to be lord of the land, but not of the sea, and that the law only, and no man, was lord of the latter. Whereas the true sense of this answer seems to be, That sea affairs ought properly to be determined by the Rhodian law, which was appointed to be the rule in such cases: for since the emperor ascribed to himself the sovereignty of the whole world, he undoubtedly intended in that to comprehend the sea; which, as well as the land, was subjected to his authority, though in a different manner, controversies in relation to land affairs being always determined by the Roman laws only, but those relating to marine affairs were decided according to the sea laws of the Rhodians; with this restriction, indeed, that the Rhodian laws should only take place when they did not oppose any Roman law: besides the disputes about the reading of this answer, Joannes Ignæus, and others, affirm, That the emperor Antoninus, far from declining to ascribe to himself a dominion over the sea, rather seems to intimate, by this answer, that he was lord of it; alleging, that, by these often-recited words, I indeed am sovereign of the land, but the law of the sea, he means to say, I indeed am the lord of the world; and I also am the law of the sea. With this agrees the opinion of the learned Samuel Petit, a Frenchman, who says, Antoninus does not here deny himself to be lord of the sea, so as to decline to give law, and do justice to those who frequent it; for, on the contrary, he orders the controversy between Endemon and the customs to be determined according to the Rhodian law; by which law, however, he does not think himself so tied up, as to be deprived of other means of relieving Endemon, even against it, in case he should sustain any injury by the Rhodian law, which he plainly and positively makes subject to his own laws. Monsieur Petit adds, he believes the Greek word in the petition (which was both made and answered in that language) that signifies law, has been by a mistake inserted for another, that has some affinity to it in the sound and letters, and signifies wind: so he makes the emperor say, I indeed am lord of the land, but the wind of the sea. Whether the fault is in the pointing, or in the construction, it is very unlikely that Antoninus should assert a thing contrary to the known laws and customs of all ages, and his own imperial prerogative.

The opinion of the sovereignty of the sea has been opposed by two very learned men, whom we may suppose to be set to work by their several masters, and wrote to serve a particular turn: the one is Fernando Vasquez, counsellor to Philip III. of Spain, the other the famous Hugo Grotius. Vasquez, in his Discourse of the Law of Nature and Nations, writes to this purpose: Their opinion is not much to be esteemed, who imagine the Genoese or Venetians may forbid others a passage through their respective gulphs, as if they could lay claim to those seas by prescription; which is equally contrary to the imperial laws, and to the primitive law of nature and nations, which cannot be subject to any alteration. That it is against this law is evident, because by it not only the seas, but all other immoveable things whatever, were in common: and though afterwards that law came to be partly abolished, so far as it relates to the dominion and propriety of lands, which being first enjoyed in common, according to the law of nature, were afterwards divided and separated from common use; yet it is otherwise as to the dominion of the sea, which has been from the beginning of the world, and is to this present day, common, without the least alienation, as is universally known.

And many of the Portuguese are of opinion, their king has acquired, by prescription, such an ancient right to the vast ocean of the West-Indies, that he may lawfully refuse other nations passage through it; and the vulgar sort of Spaniards seem likewise to be of opinion, that no people but themselves have a right to sail through that vast and spacious sea that leads to the Indies, which the kings of Spain have conquered, as if they also obtained a right by prescription to them; yet we look upon these mens imaginations as no less vain and foolish than the opinion of those who have dreamed the same things of the Genoese and Venetians. The law of prescription can be of no force in deciding controversies which happen between princes and people that acknowledge no superior, because the peculiar civil laws of any country are of no more weight, in relation to foreign nations, than if such laws had never had a being: so that for deciding controversies of that nature, recourse must necessarily be had to the general law of nations, originally or secondarily, which certainly can never admit of such an usurpation of a title to the dominion of the sea by prescription.

The reader, by the weakness of these arguments, will have a taste of the rest, and desire no more of them. Notwithstanding Vasquez has the character of a great man in the learned world, he begins with a plain contradiction; for although he says he holds the law of nature to be absolutely unchangeable, and cannot be subject to any alteration, yet he owns afterwards, that law came to be partly abolished, &c. He acknowledges, that, by the law of nature, the land was common at first, and being evident that it is not now so, what should hinder a private dominion of the sea, which, according to himself, was not more common in the beginning than the land? For if he alleges that such a property over the land is usurped, as he says of that of the sea; he overthrows all property, and abolishes all laws, both divine and human; and if, on the contrary, he acknowledges such a dominion over the land to be just (as certainly it is) why then should he deny a propriety of the sea?

The other parts of his discourse are of the same strength; for whereas he says the sea has been from the beginning of the world, and is to this day common, as is universally known, it is so plain a falsehood, that one would wonder a man who, in other things, is extolled for his wisdom and sufficiency, should assert a thing so contrary to the laws and customs of most ages and nations, as we shall see presently: but Don Vasquez was to please the court of Spain, who then were on no good terms with the republic of Venice, whose greatness at sea hindered the Spaniards from being masters of the Mediterranean. The senate asserted their dominion in the Adriatic about the same time, as may be seen in Julius Pancerius's tract of the Dominion of the Sea, where we find enough to confute what Vasquez says of the Venetians: it is in the second book, chap. 6. In the year 1630, Mary, sister to the king of Spain, being married to the emperor's son Ferdinand, king of Hungary, and the Spaniards designing to convey her from Naples with a squadron of their own, the Venetians suspected they intended some infringement of their privileges by this specious precedent, which they might, perhaps, afterwards pretend to make use of to their prejudice, and thought they took this occasion, when the republic was involved in a war abroad, and infected with the pestilence at home, to endeavour to undermine the sovereignty of the Adriatic Sea; which had been uninterruptedly enjoyed by the signiory of Venice by immemorial prescription.

The Spanish ambassador having acquainted the state that his master's fleet was to transport his sister, the queen of Hungary, from Naples to Trieste, the doge answered, That her Majesty should not pass but in the galleys of the republic. To which the ambassador replying, That they were infected with the plague; the senate met to consult about it, and came to the following resolution: That his Catholic majesty's sister should not be transported to Trieste in any other fleet but that of the republic, according to the usual custom of the gulph, with which her Majesty should be attended, with all the marks of respect and deference that were due to her quality; adding, that if her Majesty proceeded any other way, the republic would by force assert her rights, and attack the Spanish galleys in an hostile manner, as if they were enemies. Upon which the Spanish ambassador was obliged to desire the favour of the senate to transport that princess with their galleys to Trieste, which was accordingly performed by the Venetian general, Antonio Pisani; and both the emperor and king of Spain returned the Venetians thanks; which is a plain indication that they did not then call in question the Venetians title to the dominion of the Adriatic Sea.

The most considerable adversary we have to deal with in this controversy, is Hugo Grotius, author of the celebrated piece, intitled *Mare Liberum*, which the learned Selden fully answered in his *Mare Clausum*. After the treaty between the Spaniards and Hollanders, held at the Hague in the year 1609, concerning the freedom of trade and navigation to the East-Indies, the above-mentioned author published his book, with an intention to prove that the Hollanders had liberty to trade to the East-Indies; which he endeavoured to do by the law of

nations, allowing such a liberty of navigation to all mankind, in which none can be molested without injury.

He asserted further, That the right of navigation through the Atlantic and Southern Sea to the Indies, cannot be the propriety of the Portuguese, or of any other nation in particular; because the law of nature not only permits, but requires, that should be common. The learned author of this tract had certainly good reason to assert the Hollanders and other nations right to the liberty of the Atlantic Ocean, and to trade in the Eastern Seas as well as the Portuguese: for who can say in the midst of the vast deep, such a channel or such a space is mine? and who has a right to exclude any one a passage through the main? So that the dispute is brought within a narrower compass; and by the dominion of the sea, is only meant the sovereignty of such a part of it, as, bounding any country, may be said to belong to it, and to extend as far as certain imaginary lines or visible marks. And herein Grotius agrees in some measure with us, when he says, that such small parts of the sea as can in a manner be inclosed, if they may be at all possessed, ought to fall to them who first acquire a title to them by occupation. Now the difference between a greater and less part, cannot well take place in the determining of a private dominion, since it is not the space nor the extent of the thing possessed, but the nature and validity of the title, by which the matter should be decided. And the author in another place in express terms excepts a bay or creek; and says elsewhere, he does not speak of an inland sea, which being straitened on either side, exceeds not the breadth even of a river, but the ocean; which the Ancients called immense and infinite, the parent and original of things confining the air, &c. He adds a little after, The controversy is not about a streight or creek in the ocean, nor of so much as in the view of the shore. And in other places, he says things much to the same purpose; so that in the dispute about the sovereignty of the British Sea, we should have little to do with him; for he grants enough to warrant the crown of Great-Britain's asserting its dominion over it. He advances every thing modestly, and the main of his argument tending to set free the Atlantic and Southern Seas from the sovereignty the Portuguese claimed, he is in the main in the right; for it is impossible to possess the whole ocean, or to have a title to the dominion of it, unless a prince or people were sovereigns of the whole world. Alexander's conquests gave him but a small sea-dominion, about half the Mediterranean, and part of the Indian Sea. The Romans, indeed, had a title to the dominion of almost all the known part of the Great Ocean, as lords of the shore: but there never was, nor ever will be, a power so infinite as to subject the whole world, and to be sovereign of both sea and land, exclusive of all others. The sea bounding the land under the subjection of any prince, will be under his dominion. Grotius, in his excellent treatise de Jure Belli & Pacis, says*, The land and rivers, and any part of the sea that may fall under the private dominion of any nation, ought to be open to such as have occasion to pass upon just and necessary grounds; and even a creek, or narrow sea, may be possessed by any that possess the land on both sides, provided the space of sea be not so great as, being compared with the land, it cannot seem to be any part of it. In a word, he acknowledges the right of primary occupation of creeks and streights of the sea, at least, that it was not by virtue of any natural right that the sea was not appropriated and entered upon by occupation, attributing the community of it only to custom, and confessing that custom being changed, the reason of the community ceases. That it has been changed, is too well known to need any further proofs of it against Vasquez, and as much of Grotius as is against the dominion of the sea.

* Book ii. chap. 2. § 13.

We might bring many authorities of the same weight, but shall only take notice of two or three, as Reginus Sixtinus, in his book de Regalibus, where he says, The thing in question concerning the sea and its shore is, whether they ought, as navigable rivers, &c. to be reckoned among the regalia, or royalties, of the prince, every thing that is reputed such being as much the private and peculiar right of the prince, as the subjects estates are theirs. And so Catheranus Decis. 155. no. 81. and Ferrarius Montanus de Feud. book v. chap. 7. reckons the sovereignty and dominion of the sea among the royalties of the prince, without making any distinction between that and a public river. And Mynfingerus, Auf. 1. no. 162. decad 11. says, The property of the sea is a part of the royalties of the prince. But not to detain the reader longer on this head, we shall prove by law and history, sacred and profane, ancient and modern, that the sea is capable of a private dominion and propriety.

Holy writ, in more than one place, justifies this; for there we find it said, Replenish the earth and subdue it, and have dominion over the fish of the sea, &c. And again, The fear of you, and the dread of you (which are terms implying dominion) shall be upon every beast of the field, and every fowl of the air, upon all that moveth upon the earth, and upon all the fishes of the sea, &c. Which words, though it must be

be acknowledged they are not meant of private dominion (since, in the persons of our first parents, and of Noah and his three sons, this blessing was given to them and their posterity in general;) yet it is by no means to be forgotten, that the sea and land did so pass together at first into the common enjoyment of mankind, that from hence we may very reasonably conclude, that being both in one globe, there could be no such diversity in their nature, as might hinder the one more than the other to pass at the pleasure of men, in the future distribution of things, into private dominion and possession. Nor is there, by that donation, any community ordained; mankind are left to their own choice, to use and enjoy both sea and land, as they think fit. To these passages of Scripture, the objectors oppose other, as, The heavens, even the heavens are the Lord's, but the earth hath been given to the children of men. From which they pretend to infer, that there being no mention of the sea, the Almighty reserves that peculiarly to himself; which explication is formally contradicted in several places of the Scriptures, and particularly in that above cited. They may as well say God is not the creator of the sea, because in the same Psalm it is said, You are blessed of the Lord, that made heaven and earth. Who will deny but that the Psalmist, by the word *EARTH*, means the world in general, which comprehends both sea and land? And both are equally possessed by the children of men. Several other passages of Scripture are quoted on both sides in this controversy: but the objectors find them as little to their purpose as that before recited out of the Psalms.

We shall now give instances of the private dominion of the sea possessed by several nations: and first by the

TYRIANS.

Tyre was a town great in strength and riches, by her commerce; according to Isaiah, The harvest of the river is her revenue; than which nothing can be more expressive, nor more elegant. And again, speaking still of Tyre, The sea has spoken, even the strength of the sea. Nothing can be more apparent, and no authority so full and unexceptionable. It is said by the Psalmist, I will set his hand also in the sea, and his right-hand in the rivers; by which, according to Eben Ezra, the dominion of the waters is assigned to king David, that he might rule over such as failed therein. There is also a clear and convincing passage in Holy Writ to our purpose: And the king Ahazuerus laid a tribute upon the land, and upon the isles of the sea; by which it appears very plainly, that prince was lord of the sea and islands, upon which he imposed a tribute. There are some apocryphal texts, which confirm what we assert; as that, O ye men, do not excel in strength, that bear rule over the sea and land, and things in them: but yet the king is more mighty, for he is lord of all these things, and hath dominion over them. And that, The sea is set in a wide place, that it might be deep and great; but in case the entrance were narrow, like that of a river, who then could enter the sea, to look upon it, and have dominion over it, without passing through the strait? Whoever will give themselves the trouble to look over the comments of the Jewish rabbins in the xxxivth chapter of Numbers, where the bounds of Canaan are set out, will find they are positively of opinion that the sea is included.

The rabbi Jehuda, a celebrated interpreter of the law, from the express words of the holy law concludes, that the whole sea lying before the western coast of the Holy Land, being limited by strait lines drawn on each side, from the north-east and south borders, through that great sea into the west, having been, together with the main land, given to that people by God, those precepts should no less be observed in that immense ocean, than in the Holy Land itself, according as the author's opinion is delivered to us in the most ancient digests of the Jewish law, *de Libellis Divortii & Manumissionis*, cap. i. fol. 8. All that lies directly opposite to the land of Israel, is of the same account with that law, according as it is written, As for your west border, you shall even have the great sea for a border; this shall be your west border, the border of the sea, or of the west. Also the islands situated on either side, in the same direct line, fell under the same account with the sides themselves; so that a line being drawn through the isles, from Cephalonia to the main ocean, and also from the river of Egypt to the ocean, whatever is contained within that line is under the dominion of Israel, and what lies without that line is out of its dominion; which this author, rabbi Eben Ezra, and others, made to reach through even the Spanish Sea, notwithstanding its vast distance from the continent of the land of Israel; alleging by that passage, where it is said, The great sea shall be thy border, it was meant, the great sea, which of itself was their border, should also be their possession.

This is, perhaps, to stretch the sovereignty of the Jews too far; and other rabbins, by moderating their explication of the law, come nearer to the true meaning. They would have a straight line drawn from the promontory of Mount Hor, to the entrance of Pelusium, or from the north-east to the south, by which they would bound the western dominion of the Holy Land, reckoning whatever space of sea or island

should fall within the compass of the said line towards the East, should belong to the territories of Israel. After this manner, the said line would include very considerable spaces of the sea, lying before the shore inhabited by the tribes of Ashur, Ephraim, Dan, Zabulon, and Simeon; which sea was looked upon to be the property of that people, as well as the land, according to the digests of the Jewish laws.

Of these two opinions of the rabbins, this latter (by which only the adjacent parts of the sea are conceived to be, by God's appointment, assigned with the Promised Land to the children of Israel) is the most universally received, as is evident, not only by both volumes of the Talmud, but also by the testimony of the most learned rabbins, Moses Maimonides and Moses Cotzenfis: and this latter opinion serves directly our purpose, as well as the first; for we assert, That the sea is capable of dominion, and it is not the extent, but the nature of the thing, that is here called in question.

By the law civil and domestic, as well as by the common law, whether intervenient or imperative, and by the most known practice and custom of the most renowned nations and kingdoms that are known to us, such a sovereignty and dominion of the sea has been universally admitted. It must be allowed, either that all these mighty nations, who either by virtue of some domestic law of their own, or of some other law common to themselves and their neighbours, have admitted of such dominion, are, or have been, competent judges of the natural permissive law; or else it must be supposed, that the most famous nations of the world have erred for many years against nature, the law of which, according to Justinian, is, That which being established by natural reason amongst all men, is observed by all alike, and called the law of nations, because it is supposed to be a law which all nations use; see his *Institutiones de Jure Naturali*: with which passage that of Caius, in his book *de Acquirendo Rerum Dominio*, very well agrees, where he says, The law of nations is by natural reason observed in the same manner amongst all men. And that the dominion of the sea has been the law and practice of nations, we are now to prove from profane history first, and then that it has been continued down to our own times.

The inhabitants of the island of Crete, now called Candia, had a very large dominion in the neighbouring seas, as appears in the writings of Diodorus Siculus, and others, particularly Thucydides, who tells us, when they acquired this dominion, Minos, the son of Lycastus, son of Jupiter, king of Crete, possessed all the Cretan, and a great part of the Egean Sea, as sovereign lord of it. And according to Eutropius, the empire of the Cretans over that part of the sea, did not expire 'till Cæcilius Metellus made an intire conquest of that island. We may see, by Plato's works, that the sea laws of the Cretans were attributed to Minos. This dominion of the Cretans is supposed to be in the time of the Judges, and to have lasted 'till that of the Lydians, which began 175 years afterwards. These

LYDIANS,

According to Eusebius, held this dominion 92 years; but Isaac Casaubon was of opinion, that XCII was by a mistake inserted in the Greek for CXX. Marianus Scotus, and Florence the monk, both make mention of the dominion of the Lydians, which is generally reckoned to have begun about the time of Æneas. Their successors in it were the

PELASGI,

Of whom Eusebius says, They in the second place possessed the dominion of the sea, which is meant exclusively of the Cretans, who were not in his catalogue; and though this author makes their dominion to last 85 years, it is conjectured it did not last above 55. The time of it is placed in the days of Solomon. And after them the

THRACIANS

Held the dominion of the sea, which began in Jeroboam's reign; but authors do not agree how long it lasted. We now come to the

RHODIANS,

Who, though they are omitted by Marianus and Florentius, according to Eusebius, held the dominion of the sea 23 years, beginning about the reign of Jehosaphat. Strabo in his fourth book says, That Rhodes was sovereign mistress of the sea a considerable time. They indeed have rendered their name and sovereignty immortal, by their sea laws; which, as Constantius Harmenopolus affirms, in his *Porchir. Juris*, lib. xii. tit. ii. are the most ancient now in being, and were in force among the Romans from the time of Tiberius, as you may see in *Jus Græco-Romanum*, tom. ii. p. 265. The passage before-mentioned, in the emperor Antoninus's answer to Endemon's petition, confirms this; and it is certain, the emperor Justinian put those laws into the Digests. Next to them the

SEA

PHRYGIANS

Acquired the dominion of the sea, as it is supposed, in the time of Lycurgus. Eusebius writes they maintained it 25 years, others say 26; and then the

CYPRIANS

Possessed it. Some authors say they maintained it 23 years, and others 31 years: the time is said to be the reign of Joaz. The

PHOENICIANS

Held this dominion in the days of Uzziah, king of Judah: from them all the bottom of the Mediterranean was called the Phœnician Sea; and Pliny tells us, That people were very skilful in the art of navigation, insomuch that Atergatis, queen of Syria and Phœnicia, published an edict, importing, That it should not be lawful for any one to eat fish without her licence and permission: it afterwards became customary to consecrate to Atergatis fishes of gold and silver, when she was placed among the goddesses. After the Phœnicians the

EGYPTIANS,

As we find in Eusebius, Marianus, and Florence the monk, were sovereigns of the sea, under their kings Psammitis and Bocchoris, who flourished a little before the beginning of the Olympiads. Next to them the

MILESIANS

Held this dominion; and though Eusebius takes no notice of the time they enjoyed it, Marianus and Florence agree their dominion lasted 18 years. Stephanus also observes, That Naucratis, a city of Egypt, was built by the Milesians, who then possessed the sea: Eusebius adds, their sovereignty was about the time of Romulus. They also built Sinope, on the Euxine Sea, which, according to Strabo, in his xiith book, commanded the sea flowing within the Cyanean Islands. The

CARIANS,

As Eusebius, numb. 1281, and Diodorus Siculus, biblioth. 5. enjoyed a dominion in the sea, about the time of the good king Hezekiah; as did afterwards the

LESBIANS.

See Eusebius, numb. 1341: their dominion, according to some authors, lasted 69 years; but Marianus makes it last but 58 years. The

PHOCIANS

Succeeded them in the dominion of the sea, about the time of the Jews captivity at Babylon; and Eusebius writes, that they maintained it 44 years. The

CORINTHIANS

Were also sovereigns of the sea, though they are omitted in the catalogues of the historians; however, Thucydides, lib. i. reports, that being very potent in shipping, and mightily suppressing piracies, they acquired a very great reputation and command by sea, as well as by land. He takes notice also of their diligence and success in restoring the affairs of navigation to their former perfection: it must nevertheless be confessed, that authors have been too silent with respect to them and the

IONIANS,

Whose dominion of the sea is taken notice of by the same historian, in words to this effect: the power and strength of navigation were in the hands of the Ionians in the time of Cyrus the first king of the Persians, and his son Cambyfes. The

NAXIANS

Enjoyed this maritime sovereignty after them, during the space of 10 years, in the reign of Cambyfes and Darius; they inhabited the island of Naxos, one of the Cyclades, in the Archipelago. After them the

ERETRIANS

Possessed the dominion of the sea for about seven years. They were so called from Eretrias, a rich and famous city in the island Eubœa. The next masters of the sea were the

ÆGINETÆ:

They were the inhabitants of the island Egina; and not long before the Peloponnesian war broke out, were so strong at sea,

SEA

that they insulted the Athenians, and it was to curb them that the state of Athens increased their naval strength, by which they afterwards acquired the sovereignty of the Eastern Sea. Not only Eusebius, but Strabo and Ælian, take notice of the dominion of this people: some make it last 10, some 20 years, and some more. But the Athenians were too great a nation, to suffer so inconsiderable a people as the Æginetæ were, to enjoy this power long. After them the

ATHENIANS and LACEDÆMONIANS

Enjoyed the sovereignty, though they are not inserted in the catalogue of the lords of the sea. Demosthenes, in his III^d Phil. says, The Lacedæmonians had a dominion over the sea and over the land, and who does not know that Eurybiades the Spartan, commanded the Grecian fleet in the war between the Grecians and Xerxes? It is true, the Lacedæmonians were not so strong by their own naval strength, as by that of their allies the Peloponnesians; but their dominion at land was the occasion of their being preferred to the dominion at sea; and they always had the chief command, 'till the famous Timotheus an Athenian general, having subdued Corcyra, brought the people of Epirus, the Athamians, Chaonians, and other nations, to enter into an alliance with them. Upon which the Lacedæmonians found themselves under an indispensable necessity to resign the sovereignty of the sea to the Athenians, in a treaty of peace then concluded between the two nations.

The Lacedæmonians were not allowed to put to sea so much as one ship of force, but ships of burthen only; and the Athenians obliged Artaxerxes Longimanus king of Persia, to agree, That the king's ships should not come within the length of a horse-race of the Grecian Sea, and that it should not be lawful for him to send any ships of force within the Cyanean and Chelidonian Islands, which formerly had been infested by his navies, as may be seen in Plutarch's life of Cimon the Athenian. Indeed, the Greek history is full of instances of the power and dominion of the Athenians at sea. Isocrates speaking of it tells us, It was not lawful to sail in long ships or gallies beyond Phaselis, a town situated in a direct line with the Chelidonian Islands.

This dominion was entirely lost in the end of the Peloponnesian war, when Lysander destroyed their fleet and took Athens. And they never recovered it so far as to be said to be masters of the sea afterwards, though they grew powerful again. If any should be curious to know how these catalogues of the maritime sovereigns have been preserved, we can only inform them, that it is very probable, that Castor Rhodius, who lived about the time of Augustus Cæsar, and wrote a history of those that had ruled at Sea, as Suidas witnesses, furnished Julius Africanus and Eusebius with these lists of the nations who held dominion at sea, though Castor's history is itself lost.

To continue as far as we can trace this dominion of the sea after the Athenians lost it, there were not above 70 years between the Peloponnesian war and the reign of Alexander the Great. When the Tyrians, according to Quintus Curtius, had not only a sovereign dominion over the neighbouring sea, but was mistress over all the seas through which their ships did sail. Before this we find by the Greek histories, that the Lacedæmonians were again masters at sea, and the Bœotians aspired to it, if they did not obtain it after their successes at land. But the Tyrians were such absolute masters, that Tyria Maria, or Tyrian Sea, became a proverbial expression for all seas possessed, so as the passage through them could not be obtained without the permission of the lord.

We find a query in Aristotle's works, Whether it be for or against the interest of any well-governed nation, to maintain a sovereignty of the sea, so as to exclude all others from the benefit of navigation through the part so possessed, either upon account of passage, traffic, or fishing, &c.? But he had been too well instructed of the lawfulness of such a dominion, by the continual practice of all the neighbouring nations, to declare against it. Though the many instances that have been given of the sovereignty of the sea from ancient history, are sufficient to convince any reasonable man, that it is capable of dominion; yet we shall add some further arguments, which seem to corroborate what has been urged.

It is very well known by all who are acquainted with the histories of ancient times, that according to the custom of the East, the symbols of dominion and empire, which the kings of Persia demanded of the Greeks and other nations, were earth and water; by which was undoubtedly meant the empire of the sea as well as the land. Darius demanded earth and water of the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, who threw his ambassadors into a well. He also demanded it of Indathyrus king of Scythia, as we find in Herodotus, and in the Greek copies of the history of Judith; that Nebuchadnezzar required earth and water of the neighbouring nations, with which he threatened to make war.

Several parts of the sea belonging to the Eastern Empire were reckoned among its provinces and governments. Witness Constantius Prophyragennetus, lib. 1. Them. 17. where he says, That the Hellespont was very expressly assigned to

S E A

the commander in chief of the Egean Sea. And again, That the Egean Sea was reckoned among the provinces of the empire, and that the Cyclades Islands, and the most remarkable of the Sporades, Mytiline, and Chios, belonged to the government of the Egean Sea. The emperor Leo by a decree declared, that every man should possess the sea lying before his lands, by such a peculiar and unquestionable right, that he should have power to deprive any other person of using or enjoying the same in any manner, so as to reap any gain or benefit, without the special consent of the owner.

By which the opinion of the universal community of the sea is utterly destroyed, and a private and separate propriety and dominion introduced. This decree took immediate effect about the year of our Lord 900, without any opposition, over all the Egean Sea, as well as over the Bosphorus, Hellespont, and all the other seas subjected to the Constantinopolitan empire.

We have hitherto confined ourselves to the Levant or eastern part of the Mediterranean: let us now see how the dominion of the sea was maintained in the western; where first we find the

SPINETANS,

So called from the ancient city Spina, situated near the mouth of the river Po, in possession of the sovereignty of the Adriatic Sea; where, as we read in Strabo, lib. 5. and Dionysius Halicarnassæus, de Orig. Rom. lib. 1. they raised such considerable revenues, that they used to send very liberal tenths to the temple of Apollo at Delphos. The same author adds, that the

TUSCANS

Were absolute sovereigns of that part of the Mediterranean that washes the southern coast of Italy. And Diodorus Siculus, lib. 20. says, The Tyrrheni or Tuscans were so powerful upon the sea, which they possessed as lords of it, that at last it took their name. But the

CARTHAGINIANS

Grew so mighty at sea, that all other naval dominion ceased, and none could pretend to dispute with them the maritime empire, 'till the reign of Agathoclas, king of Sicily, who shared for some time with them the sovereignty of the sea. His subjects in Africa revolting from him about the 118th Olympiad, the dominion of the Mediterranean devolved almost entirely upon the Carthaginians, who held it near 40 years, and gave laws to all navigators, 'till the beginning of the first Punic war, when the Romans refused any longer subjection to them at sea. Before this, the people of Rome, notwithstanding they had extended their conquests very far at land, gave up the sovereignty of the sea to the Carthaginians, as we may see by the first league concluded between these two mighty states, about the 68th Olympiad. By which Polybius tells us it was stipulated, That neither the Romans nor their confederates, should sail beyond the Fair Promontory, unless they should be driven thither by tempests or enemies. And Polybius further gives an account, That in the second treaty of peace concluded between the two nations, it was provided, That no Roman should so much as touch either upon Africa or Sardinia, except it were either to take in provisions or repair their ships. But after the second Punic war, when Carthage was forced to submit to what laws the Romans, their conquerors, pleased to give them; when the Roman fleet was also victorious at sea as well as Scipio by land, the dominion the Carthaginians held at sea, was of course transferred to the people of Rome; and, indeed, they became masters of the Mediterranean, before they were masters of Carthage; so industrious had they been to increase their naval strength, without which they say, they could never subdue their rivals, the Carthaginians: for Hannibal in his speech to Scipio, in the 30th book of Livy, seems to acknowledge the Romans to be lords of all the Mediterranean, and its islands. And accordingly after the conclusion of the peace at the end of the second Punic war, the Carthaginians themselves burnt 500 galleys, that they might not be obliged to pay homage to their conquerors, of whom they had formerly exacted the same marks of submission. The

ROMANS

Having thus acquired the dominion of the sea, were very careful to maintain it, and had always a powerful fleet ready, either to suppress pirates, or assert their sovereignty.

The fleet that was given to Pompey to scour the Mediterranean Seas, is mentioned by all the Roman historians; and Pliny tells us, that by freeing the sea from pirates, he restored the dominion to the people of Rome. He also made them masters of that part of the sea, to the sovereignty of which the Cilicians pretended, as appears by an ancient league between them and Antiochus king of Syria, That the latter should surrender his warlike ships and their furniture, except ten galleys, none of which should be rowed with above thirty

S E A

oars; and Polybius says, it was not allowable for him to have so much as one with that number of oars; and that none of his ships should pass the promontory of Sarpedon, unless it were to carry money or hostages.

As to the nature of the sea dominion of the Romans, and the extent of it, Appianus Alexandrinus makes them sovereigns of all the Mediterranean, and Dionysius Halicarnassæus, lib. 1. de Orig. Rom. writes, their dominion extended over the whole ocean as far as it is navigable. However extravagant this boundless empire may appear at first, it will not at a second view seem improbable, that the Romans were sovereigns of most part of the known seas, as they were of the land. For the sovereignty of the British Seas was in their possession as long as they were masters of any considerable part of Britain; but they looked on the Mediterranean to be entirely their property, as appears by several passages of Florus, Sallust, and other authors, who being Romans, gave ordinarily to that sea the general name of our sea.

Their naval dominion may be proved by so many examples, that we should tire the reader to repeat them, and the eastern emperors pretended to the same maritime sovereignty as the people or Cæsars of Rome enjoyed. Themistius, in his 5th Oration, speaking of the emperor Theodosius the Elder, ascribes to him the dominion of almost the whole earth and sea, of which he calls him ruler. Dion Chrysostom tells us, the emperor Trajan, long before this, granted the citizens of Tharsus a dominion and jurisdiction over the river Cydnus, and the adjacent sea.

Thus much is sufficient to shew, that the Antients believed and practised the dominion of the sea. When the Barbarians over-ran the empire, the Roman power was broken as well by sea as land; and as their territories fell under the dominion of several princes, so their naval force was divided, navigation neglected, barbarism prevailed, and with that, ignorance; and commerce growing dangerous, fleets grew less, and the sovereignty of the sea was not talked of again, 'till there arose a power able to maintain, as well as assert it. The first of this kind was that of the

VENETIANS,

Who claimed the sovereignty of the Adriatic Sea, formerly so called, from the ancient city of Adria. At the bottom of this sea, bay, or gulph, stands the famous city of Venice, governed by a republic, that, from the beginning, have made it one of their chief political maxims to encourage trade, and improve their strength at sea. This bay is 600 miles long, and the land on both sides possessed by several princes, in so much, that a sixth part of it does not belong to the Venetians; yet by their promoting commerce they grew formidable at sea, asserted their dominion over the gulph, as belonging to their city, the capital of those parts, and for some time there was no nation that durst dispute the sovereignty with them.

Flavius Blondus, Decade 2. lib. 8. tells us, That in the year 1265, when Lorenzo Tepolo was doge of Venice, the republic imposed a tax upon all that traded in the Adriatic Sea, making a law (which to this day remains in force) that all who sailed between the gulph de Quevera and the Capo di Pola, or promontory of Solo and coast of Revenna, should (if thereto required) come into Venice and pay custom, and (if the officers thought fit) unlade their goods and let them be surveyed.

Several barks were ordered to cruize day and night about the harbours to enforce the execution of this law. The inhabitants of Ancona complaining to the Pope of this exaction, the case came to be considered, and Gregory X. confirmed to them the right of levying their customs in the Adriatic for the maintenance of mariners employed by them against the Saracens and pirates. The ceremony of the doge's wedding the Adriatic Sea, is much older, and shews their sovereignty is as old as Alexander III. by whom it was instituted according to Anton. Peregrino in his 8th book de Jure Fisci 185. This ceremony is performed on Ascension-day, when the doge goes in his bucentoro, a magnificent galley of state accompanied by the chief noblemen in a most pompous manner, and as a sign of the perpetuity of the republic's dominion over it, throws a ring into the water in token of wedding it, saying these words as translated from the Italian, WE ESPOUSE THEE, O SEA, AS A SIGN OF A REAL AND PERPETUAL DOMINION.

But the proofs of the republic's asserting this sovereignty are so many, that they would be almost endless, should we come to instances: we therefore refer the curious to a treatise written by way of epistle from Franciscus de Ingenius to Sibi-rius Vincentius, in vindication of it against Joannis Baptista Valenzolo, a Spaniard, and Laurentius Motiorus, a Roman, who being the duke of Ossuna's creatures, wrote against it to please that duke, then viceroy of Naples, and a great enemy to the republic.

In this epistle, the author reckons no less than thirty eminent lawyers of his opinion, in favour of the Venetian's dominion in the Adriatic. In the year 1399, when the king of Naples had married his sister to the archduke of Austria, he did not

SEA

pretend to transport her by way of the gulph, without first asking the republic's leave. There are two letters extant from the emperor Frederic III. to Giovanni Mocenigo, then doge of Venice, desiring liberty of the state to transport corn through the Adriatic from Apulia; and others from the kings of Hungary to the same purpose are produced by Francis de Ingenius above-mentioned. All the commanders of their ships treat as open enemies those of any prince or state, though in peace with them, that attempt the least infringement of this their dominion; of which a very signal instance happened in the year 1638, when the Turkish fleet having entered the gulph without the senate's permission, the Venetian general attacked them in an hostile manner, sunk several of their ships, and drove the rest into Valona, a port upon the Adriatic Sea, belonging to the Grand Seignior.

The Venetian, not satisfied with this, landed his men, and put a great number of mariners to the sword who had escaped him at sea. The Sultan not long after concluded a treaty with the senate, and thereby it was agreed, That it should be lawful for the Venetians in time to come to seize by force, if they did not otherwise submit, all Turkish vessels, which should enter the gulph without their licence, and that even within the ports and havens under the obedience of the Grand Seignior, situated on the Venetian Gulph. We have instanced before, their refusing to let the queen of Hungary pass, and the emperor and king of Spain's owning their dominion by complying with them. It is true, the emperors had from time to time endeavoured to share this dominion with them, but the republic would never admit of it; and in the year 1535, commissioners on both sides met at Friuli, to decide this important question; where two advocates, Rapicio for the emperor, and Chizzola for the state of Venice, learnedly disputed this matter. After a full hearing, and several weighty arguments too long to be inserted here, the imperial commissioners acknowledged, that by the native force and evidence of the learned Chizzola's discourse, they were persuaded in their consciences that the commonwealth of Venice was the undoubted mistress and protectress of the Adriatic Gulph, and might there impose what custom she thought convenient. Than which declaration nothing could be more glorious for the republic of Venice, as being an acknowledgement paid her by the agents of the greatest power in Europe: nor can any thing be a better proof of the dominion of the sea in them. Which makes good the argument of his Britannic Majesty's sovereignty: for there is not one reason urged by Chizzola in behalf of the Venetians sovereignty of the Adriatic, but will serve to vindicate the right of the crown of Great-Britain to the dominion of the British Seas, of which see the article SEA BRITISH.

The Venetians are not the only nation who have pretended to dominion at sea. The

TUSCANS and GENOESE

Have done the same. The Great Duke of Tuscany is generally acknowledged to be the lawful lord and sovereign of the Tuscan Sea. To maintain which sovereignty, he has built several forts and castles there, to which such foreign ships as arrive before them, are obliged to pay those marks of respect, that by the laws of the country are established.

The Genoese were formerly very considerable at sea, especially in the time of crusades, when, though rather by policy than power, they were superior in the East to the Venetians. And before the English and Dutch fell into the Persian and Turkish trade, Venice and Genoa were the only marts and staple ports of Christendom, for all the precious commodities of those countries.

The histories of Italy shew us how likely the Genoese were once to reduce the commonwealth of Venice. Their fleet besieged the city of Venice, and their admiral Doria triumphed in the Adriatic about the year 1300; but the Venetians afterwards recovered their naval power, and followed the Genoese so closely, that they broke theirs. However, the city of Genoa is still much frequented by foreign merchants; and according to Benedictus Bonius, lib. de Censibus, artic. 16. §. 40. Genoa is the lawful sovereign of the Ligustic Sea, and this state always keeps a certain number of armed gallies, and other ships for the defence of their right and title to that dominion. The

PISANS

Were also very considerable in the Mediterranean Sea, about 400 years ago, and once a match for the Genoese; but they soon lost their reputation, and since the city has been annexed to the Great Duke of Tuscany's dominions, its trade is sunk, and Leghorn is now the only flourishing port in Tuscany. The

POPE

Pretends also to the sovereignty of the sea, which bears the name of the Church's Sea, as is proved by the very words

SEA

of the bull *Cœnæ Domini*; which, among other delinquents, excommunicates and anathematizes all rovers, pirates, and robbers, haunting and infesting our sea, and especially that part of it which lies between the mountain Argentaro and Sarracius. The

SPANIARDS

Have sometimes thought fit to speak favourably of the community of the sea; yet when it was for their present purpose, they have as severely maintained the particular dominion of it as any other nation; and notwithstanding, that by the common law of Castile, the use of the sea is free, yet many of their most esteemed lawyers have declared in express terms, not only that, according to their opinion, the sea is capable of dominion, but that such a dominion was acquired by their king: and so the prince may grant any man a permission to fish in any certain part of the sea, says Gregarias Lopez ad Alphonsinas, Partid. 3. tit. 28. l. 11. Nor must we forget that several German authors in the titles of Charles V. emperor and king of Spain (and particularly in the preface to the constitution concerning public judicatures in the empire) stile him KING OF THE CANARY ISLANDS, AND OF THE ISLANDS AND CONTINENT OF THE INDIES, AND OF THE OCEAN, &c.

By which, though he was not really so, it sufficiently appears they did not question the lawfulness of a dominion in the sea. As to the

PORTUGUEZE,

They are, above all others, obstinate maintainers of this doctrine of the lawfulness of a dominion and propriety in the sea, as will sufficiently appear by the usual title of their kings. And particularly king Emanuel, in his preface to the laws of Portugal, stiles himself, DOM MANUEL, PER GRACE DE DEOS, REY, &c. SENHOR DE GUINEE, ET DA CONQUISTA, &c. NAVIGACAM ET COMMERCIO D'ETHIOPIA, ARABIA, PERSIA, ET DA INDIE, &c.

Where he pretends to be sole lord of the navigation and trade of Ethiopia, Persia, &c. But all this is nothing in comparison to what is found in the body of the laws of Portugal, concerning the pretensions of that nation to the sole dominion, even of the vast Atlantic ocean itself: for among the said laws, O quinto libro des Ordonaconnes, tit. 112. there is a most positive and absolute prohibition to any person whatsoever, whether native or stranger, in any ship or vessel, to pass to the countries, lands, and seas of Guinea and the Indies, either upon occasion of war or commerce, or for any other reason whatsoever, without the king of Portugal's special licence and authority, under pain of death and confiscation of all effects, to be inflicted upon all such persons as should presume to go thither in contempt of the prohibition.

Pursuant to this law, several persons who fell into the hands of the Portuguese, were put to death; and it extended to foreigners as well as the king's own subjects, though the former never acknowledged his pretended title to the dominion of the Atlantic and Southern Sea, which gave occasion to a very warm dispute between our queen Elizabeth and Don Sebastian king of Portugal. But the matter then in question was not, whether king Sebastian was capable of becoming lawful sovereign of those seas, but whether he had acquired such a dominion by right of occupation, or otherwise, which it was plain he had not. If we look into the histories of the northern nations, we shall also find that several of them have demanded dominion at sea; as the

DANES, NORWEGIANS, SWEDES, and POLANDERS.

Before Denmark and Norway became united under one monarch, the Norwegians had a separate sovereignty in the sea, as well as the Danes. Saxo Grammaticus, in the 7th book of his History of Denmark, writes, That in the time of Harald Hildeland, king of Denmark, none durst presume to usurp any privilege or dominion in the Danish Seas, because the empire of the land and sea was the same in Denmark. He adds, that Olo, who succeeded his father in both dominions, vanquished all such as pretended in any manner to infringe his sovereignty therein. In the year 1582, Frederic II. king of Denmark and Norway, permitted and lett out the passage and use of the Norwegian Sea to the English Muscovy company, in the same manner as if he had rented out a piece of land.

The SWEDES are of the same opinion, with regard to the dominion of the sea, as very plainly appears by the treaty concluded between Christiern IV. king of Denmark, and Gustavus Adolphus king of Sweden; in which the latter entirely renounced the sovereignty formerly claimed by him over the seas of Norway, Norland, and the jurisdiction of Warbhuyfen.

All merchants concerned in the Baltic trade, know very well what

SEA

what great revenues the king of Denmark raises out of the royalties of that and the Norwegian Sea.

As to the POLES, we find by Januszowskius Syntagma of the statutes of that republic, lib. 3. tit. 10. fol. 109. that when Henry duke of Anjou was king of Poland, the French ambassadors agreed that the said most illustrious prince then chosen, as soon as he should assume the government of his kingdom, should, at his own charge, maintain a navy sufficient for the defence of the ports, and of the sovereignty of the sea belonging to the kingdom and dominions of Poland.

The FRENCH.

Though the French have sometimes, in opposition to the ENGLISH, declared for the community of the sea, yet it is very certain they have pretended to the dominion of it, and even of part of the British Seas. Charondos Caronæus, in Not. ad Cod. Henrici III. lib. 20. tit. 7. Constit. 1 and 28. says, The king is sovereign of the seas which flow about his kingdom, because the universal right of all things common by the laws of nature and nations, is transferred into his dominion. With which assertion agree several passages of Stephanus, Paschasius, Ludovicus, Servinus, Popellenerius, and others.

They pretend to derive a title to the sea that flows about the coast of Britany, from the possession of that continent, which they allege had once a sovereignty in the sea; for the proof of which they instance one Rotlandius, mentioned by Eginhart in his life of Charlemagne. He is there spoken of as governor of that shore, where they affirm it was usual to exact a certain custom of ships that navigated there; whereas that custom was only a sort of pilotage or conduct-money, which was principally paid by the inhabitants, or at most by such only as traded upon the coast, for pilots to conduct them safe from the shore of Bretagne, which is very dangerous.

That this was the nature of that exaction is plain, by the account Bertandus Argenterus gives of its origin, in his book ad Consuet. Brit. art. 46. where he says, the ancient kings of Britany, considering the frequent shipwrecks that happened upon that rocky shore, which then was almost destitute of havens, made a law, that none should go to sea without taking guides and passes, for which they paid a certain sum, called in Bretagne, to this day, droit de salvage.

The French kings have been so far from disowning the sea is not capable of dominion, that they have usurped a sovereignty which does not belong to them, by pretending to that part of the British Seas: for Henry II. and Henry III. published two edicts, requiring all foreign ships navigating in the neighbouring seas, and meeting with any of their ships, to strike their top-sails, in acknowledgement of their pretended sovereignty; which edicts they endeavoured to get the convention of States to confirm, but never could effect it: on the contrary, the latter of them was declared void, and of no effect in law, in a notable case, in which some Hamburgh merchants were plaintiffs, against Mich. Butardus and other defendants, before an assembly of the States of that kingdom, held at Tours by Henry IV.

We shall not in this place answer the vain arguments brought by the French authors, to prove their king's title to the sovereignty of the sea flowing about their coasts: for by asserting and proving that there can be no legal dominion of any part of the British Sea, but what is vested in the crown of Great Britain, all the French pretend to the contrary will be at once destroyed, and appear to be groundless. See our article SEA BRITISH. Having taken notice of the dominion of the sea claimed by the nations of Christendom, we must now observe what naval sovereignty the

TURKS

Pretend to in the Levant. The Grand Signior, succeeding by right of conquest to the sea dominion of the emperors of Constantinople, changed the name of the Egean and Euxine, into those of the White and Black Seas, of which he in a very solemn manner styles himself lord. This is particularly remarkable in the league concluded at Paris, the 20th of March, 1604, between Henry IV. of France, and Achmet the Ottoman emperor; by which, Achmet granted the French liberty to fish, and search for coral, in certain freights and bays upon the coast of Africa, subject to the Sultan. Besides this, Coriolanus Cippicus, in his history of Pietro Mocenigo, says, The Turks had built two very strong castles, opposite to one another, on both sides the Hellefpont, at its narrowest passage, which being well provided with ordnance and ammunition, the governors had orders to sink all ships that should attempt to pass without the permission of the Grand Signior. See the article ROMANIA in Turkey.

As to the opinion of the DUTCH in relation to the sovereignty of the sea, they, as well as the Hanseatic towns,

SEA

have declared for a community of the sea; but that is because they once being the greatest traders in the world, got more by that community than any other people, and have very little to pretend to by a sea dominion. Whatever their real sentiments are, they seem to be against any such sovereignty. But what is their opposition to right, reason, and the practice of almost all countries and ages?

The HANSEATIC TOWNS, in a dispute about the Venetians asserting the sovereignty of the Adriatic Sea, urged by their advocates, that Inter res communes, uti ipse imperator numerat mare, & ideo nemo in mari piscari aut navigare prohibetur, & adversus inhibentem competit Actio Injuriarum, l. 10. si quis in mare, l. Injuriarum, sect. ult. de Injuriis. Sin littora quoque communia sunt, l. 2. re divers. Quia accessorium sunt mercis, & accessorium sequitur naturam principalis, l. 2. de Peculio Legat. c. Accessorium de Reg. Juris 6. Ad littus maris igitur accedere quivis potest, non piscandi tantum gratia, sed etiam ædificandi & occupandi causa. l. quod in Litt. de Acquir. rer. Dom. l. in Lit. ne quid in loc. pub. Jo. Angelius J. C. de Repub. Hanfiat. par. 6. fol. 85. edit. Francof. An. Dom. 1641. But these arguments were easily answered by the Venetian lawyers, Quemadmodum communi littorum restringitur ad populum æquo occupata sunt, lib. 3. sect. Littora D. de quid in loc. pub. Ita etiam communia maris, adeo ut per mare a nemine occupatum, navigatio sit omnino libera; per mare autem occupatum ab aliquo principe liberam habeant navigationem, qui sunt illi principi subjecti; alii vero eatenus, quatenus idem princeps permittit. Julius Tacitus de Dom. Maris Adriatici.

The infringements the Hollanders have made on the dominion of the British Sea, have cost them dear; but now the two nations are so nearly allied by interest, it is to be hoped they will rather help us in maintaining that just dominion, than ever think of abridging any part of it; since it will appear, under our article SEA BRITISH, that the sovereignty and dominion of the British Seas are the sole and undoubted prerogative of the king of Great-Britain.

REMARKS.

Our reason for introducing this article, which asserts and proves a right to the dominion of the SEA, is, in order not only to vindicate and maintain, in its proper place, this nation's right of sovereignty in the British Seas, on which the preservation of our fisheries, &c. depends, but to confront a late certain French writer, who has endeavoured to subvert those principles, with a view to pave the way some time or other, we may presume, to some intended encroachments and usurpations of his Grand Monarque on the British rights of navigation. The author to whom I allude is Monsieur Deslandes, in his Essay on Maritime Power, published during the late war. This gentleman was encouraged to write this essay by the count de Maurepas, who had the care of the French marine. The design in writing it is pretty evident; that minister has been long endeavouring to inspire the councils of that country with an ardent passion of retrieving the naval power of France, and setting it again on the foot upon which it stood in the reign of Lewis XIV. In order to bring this gradually to bear, the count de Maurepas, from time to time, caused several treatises to be written and published on navigation and commerce, in such a method as was most likely to stimulate the pride, and excite the jealousy, of the French nation; and in justice to the learned and judicious author, I think it in many respects a very ingenious and masterly performance of its kind, notwithstanding I am about to censure the following passage, which is as follows, viz. 'I think it proper to observe, says this excellent writer*, that most of the states of Europe have been for appropriating to themselves the sovereignty of such seas as wash their coasts, and excluding others the use of them. As for France, incapable of giving into so vain a notion, she has always supported her right of navigating ships in ALL SEAS; and the king of Denmark having dared, in 1637, to disturb some vessels that were employed in the whale-fishing on the coast of Greenland, Lewis XIII. caused him to be informed, by count d'AVAUX, his ambassador, that ALL SEAS were open to his subjects, and that he was able to maintain them in the possession, of which he would suffer no body to doubt. And it is, indeed, one of the first principles † in

* To confirm what he urges upon this head, he has the following note: 'To be persuaded, says this gentleman, beyond all possibility of doubt, that there is nothing more frivolous, or worse founded, than these sort of pretensions, one need only read two excellent works composed upon this subject, the one by the learned HUGO GROTIUS, under the title of MARE LIBERUM; the other by THEODORE GRASWINCKEL, advocate fiscal of the domains of the States of Holland, under the title of MARE LIBERI VINDICIÆ.'

† This learned author discovers here no small prejudice in favour of his country; he ought certainly, in justice, to have mentioned

mentioned the book written in answer to Grotius, by our learned SELDEN, under the title of *MARE CLAUSUM, SEU DE DOMINIO MARIS, LIBRI DUO, LONDINI, 1636, 8VO*; and his answer to the other book cited by our author: in which two works he has fully proved, that a RIGHT may be acquired over the SEA, that such a RIGHT has been acquired over OUR SEAS by our ancestors, and that it has always been submitted to by our neighbours, nay, that our kings have granted commissions to hear complaints, even against the FRENCH king for injuries done at SEA. We say, our learned SELDEN has proved all this as fully as any thing can be proved by reason, authority, or evidence; and to his treatises, therefore, we refer the English reader, for full satisfaction on this head.

‘ the law of nature, as established by our old lawyers, *MARE COMMUNE OMNIUM EST*, say they, & *LITORA, SICUT AER, & EST SÆPISSIME RESCRIPTUM, NON POSSE QUEMPISCARI PROHIBERI: i. e.* The sea is common to all, and so are its coasts; and it is often set down as law, that no body has a right to prohibit fishing in them. LEWIS XIV. pushed his authority still farther, and employed it not only in favour of his subjects, but also of his allies: for the king of England, Charles the Second, inclining to disturb the Hollanders, and even French, in fishing in the channel, or along the coast of Flanders, LEWIS XIV, in 1661, charged the count D’ESTRADES, his ambassador, to tell him, That he was in the wrong to extend his prohibition of fishing, to the prejudice of common right, which gave that liberty to all the world; that besides the interest he had in this, in respect to his own subjects, he could not help assisting, in this case, the Dutch, his allies, or refuse them his interposition, having a maritime force, sufficient to render him not afraid of being opposed in this respect by any prince in the world*.’—Such were the terms, continues Monsieur Deslandes, in which this prince expressed himself, who having had the assistance of good councils, knew how to render himself powerful in shipping, and formidable at sea.’—However, as a more satisfactory answer to what this learned Frenchman has suggested in regard to this matter, we shall refer to the article following.

* This is another very indifferent proof of the French independency at SEA. They engaged in war with us, in conjunction with the DUTCH, with no other view than they afterwards engaged in a war on our side, against the DUTCH, to make the maritime powers weaken each other, and to gain strength and experience at our cost. If there was any weight in count D’ESTRADES’s declaration, in favour of the DUTCH right to fishing on our coast without our permission, it was certainly taken away, by the FRENCH king’s joining with us in a war against HOLLAND; among the causes of which, this was one, that they had FISHED in our SEAS without leave: so that if the FRENCH king’s authority could avail any thing in this case, here it is on both sides.

SEA BRITISH. The sovereignty of the British Seas, maintained and asserted to have always been, and still continues to be, the undoubted right of the kings and queens of Great-Britain.

We shall first settle the bounds of the British Sea. The eastern and southern coasts of Britain are washed by the German Ocean, and that which Ptolemy calls particularly the British Sea, and which according to Mela, in his treatise de Situ Orbis, lib. ii. cap. 3. reaches as far as the northern coast of Spain. And the Arabian geographer, (Clim. 4. part 1.) says, Towards the North Andalusia, by which name the Arabians comprehend all Spain, is washed with the English Sea; adding, there are nine stages from Toledo to St James’s, which place he says (Clim. 5. part. 1.) is situated on a promontory of the English Sea. St James’s is a town in the province of Galicia. On the west side of Britain lies the Vergivian Sea, which, where it washes the coast of Scotland, takes from thence the name of Deucalionian Sea: of this Vergivian Sea, the Irish, or St George’s Channel, is a part. Upon the north of Britain flows the Caledonian Sea, in which are situate the Orcades. Thus the British Sea, or the channel lying between England and France, the Vergivian, the Deucalionian, and the Caledonian Seas, are properly called the British Seas, and, as such, are subject to the British empire.

Hugo Grotius, in the second book of his treatise of Peace and War, chap. 3. §. 11. speaking of the sea, has these words: ‘ The bare possession of the shore is not sufficient to intitle any people to a right to the adjoining sea: nor is it enough for a prince to imagine, or write himself lord of the sea, without proclaiming himself by some OVERT-ACT to be so.’—By which he certainly means, that it is not from a bare occupation or possession of the neighbouring land, but from an actual and peculiar use and enjoyment of the sea itself, and exerting all the functions of a sovereign upon it, such as prescribing rules of navigation to those that frequent it, punishing delinquents, protecting of others, and receiving from all that homage and advantage due to every lawful sovereign, that sufficient arguments can be derived for proving a lawful title to the dominion of it. Now, if we make it

appear, that the possession of the British Sea was at first acquired, and ever since asserted, in the very manner specified by that author, though he wrote against it, we hope there will be no room for objection, by which the argument can be invalidated.

Before we proceed further, it may be proper to observe, that the extent of the British dominions in the Eastern and Southern Seas was settled by a treaty concluded in the year 1674, between king Charles II. and the States-General; by which it was to reach from the middle point of the land Vanstaten in Norway to Cape Finisterre. The dominion of the sea intitles the lawful possessors to the six following prerogatives.

- (1.) The royalty of granting the liberty of fishing for pearl, coral, amber, and all other such precious commodities.
- (2.) To grant licences to fish for whale, sturgeon, pilchard, salmon, herring, and all other sorts of fish whatsoever, as is usual in Spain, Portugal, and several other places.
- (3.) To impose tribute and custom on all merchants ships, and fishermen fishing and trading within the limits of the sea that is subjected to any particular dominion.
- (4.) The regular execution of justice for protecting the innocent, and punishing the guilty for all crimes committed within the extent of such sea dominion.
- (5.) To grant free passage through any such sea to any number of ships of war belonging to any other prince or republic, or to deny the same, according to circumstances and occasion of such passage, in the same manner as any prince or state may grant or deny free passage to the foreign troops through their territories by land, even though the prince or state to whom such ships or land forces belong be not only in peace, but in alliance, with the prince or republic of whom passage is desired.
- (6.) To demand of all foreign ships whatsoever within those seas, to strike the flag, and lower the topsail, to any ships of war, or others, bearing the colours of the sovereign of such seas.

All which prerogatives do unquestionably belong to the kings and queens of Great-Britain. And although the duty of the flag is but an indifferent honorary ceremony, yet it is a significant acknowledgement that the absolute sovereignty of the seas in which the colours are required to be struck, is vested in the prince to whom that duty is paid. And such is the high regard that the British nation puts upon the execution of this ceremonious homage, that a contempt thereof, according to the marine laws, is punishable as open rebellion or high treason.

That this acknowledgement was always taken for a confession of the absolute sovereignty of the English Seas, appears by a memorable record among the marine laws, about the end of the reign of king John, viz. * ‘ That if a lieutenant in any voyage be ordained by common council of the kingdom, do encounter upon the sea any ships or vessels, laden or unladen, that will not STRIKE AND VEIL THEIR BONNETS, at the commandment of the lieutenant of the king, but will fight against them of the fleet, that, if they can be taken, they be reputed as enemies, and their vessels, ships and goods taken and forfeited as the goods of enemies, though the masters or possessors of the same would come afterwards, and allege that they are the ships, vessels, and goods of those that are friends to our lord the king; and that the common people in the same be chastized by the imprisonment of their bodies for their rebellion, at discretion.’

* Inter Leg. Marina, sub fine anni regni Henrici Secundi le Ordinance called Hastings.

The claim of this British sovereignty at sea has the sanction of no less than 17 or 18 centuries to countenance and uphold the like uninterrupted practice; and even so long ago as Cæsar’s time the Britons asserted and maintained the like dominion, as may be seen in his commentaries, liv. iv. where he says*, ‘ That before his descent in Britain, having summoned the merchants and other seafaring Gauls together, and made a diligent enquiry concerning the situation of the British shore and ports, he found that none dared to cross the seas to go into Britain, without permission, but merchants, and that they too were so ignorant of those shores (as being deprived of a free use of the sea) that he was obliged to send Volusenus, in a long ship, to sound the British coasts.’ Whence it may be rationally inferred, that since the ancient Britons excluded the Gauls and others, at their pleasure, from the free enjoyment of the sea, they must certainly have been the lords of it. And that this was not a bare prohibition of coming into the island of Britain, but even of navigating within the extent of their maritime dominion, is plain from hence: that the merchants themselves, who were allowed to go thither, seem to have only had the liberty of coming to an anchor, and disposing of their goods upon the coasts, without being admitted into the ports but

* — quæ omnia ferè Gallis erant incognita. Neque enim temere præter mercatores, illò adit quisquam; neque iis ipsi quidquam, præter oram maritimam, atque eas regiones quæ sunt contra Galliam, notum est, &c.

very seldom; since those that Cæsar had summoned to conduct his navy into Britain, could not undertake to do it, as being entirely ignorant of the situation of their ports. If they were permitted to come to any place, it is conceived to be Gaul's Town, near Yarmouth. They had a naval force to defend this naval dominion, which when Cæsar saw, he preferred their ships to the Romans: these ships coming to the assistance of the Gauls were the occasion of his expedition to Britain, to revenge himself for the succours the inhabitants had sent their neighbours, his enemies.

Julius Cæsar subdued only an inconsiderable part of the coast; nor did the dominion of the British sea fall into the hands of the Romans 'till the reigns of the emperors Claudius and Domitian, who having conquered the southern parts of the island, the empire of the sea, at least in proportion to that part which was conquered on the shore, did necessarily devolve upon the possessor of the land, and was actually reckoned a part of his dominion, as well by his subjects as by himself.

Though Claudius was the first of the Roman Emperors who had subjected the British Sea to his dominion, yet the Romans were not then so fully in possession of the British Seas, as they were afterwards in the days of the emperor Domitian; who sending Agricola to be his lieutenant in the province of Britain, this general extended the Roman conquests much farther toward the North, than any had done before him: he also sailed round the land, discovered the Orcades or Orkney Islands, situate on the North of Scotland, and 'till then unknown; and having conquered them, the empire of the Northern British Seas was possessed by the Romans, as well as that of the Southern.

Seneca also witnesses, That Agricola designing to make war upon the Caledonians, provided a powerful fleet to favour, by a mighty diversion by sea, the enterprizes of his army by land. The Romans having acquired the sovereignty of the British Seas, committed the management of naval affairs here to a great sea-officer called Archiguburnus, who had a numerous fleet under his command, with which he was ordered to assert and maintain the Roman dominion in the British Seas; but the Romans abandoning afterwards their conquests in the North, retired into the southern parts of Britain; and we may suppose, as they lost the dominion of the land in the North, so they were obliged to give up the sovereignty of the sea there, which naturally returned to the Britons.

We find little mention made of the affairs of the Romans in Britain, especially those relating to the sea, 'till the reign of Dioclesian, who sent C. Carausius to scour the British Seas, which were infested with Gaulish and Saxon pirates. This Carausius afterwards usurped here, and maintained the sovereignty by sea and land seven years. Caius Allectus, who killed him, coined a medal, having on one side his name and image (for he also usurped) and on the reverse a three-oared galley, with this inscription, Virtus Augusta; by which representation, he meant to express the force and greatness of the empire of the British Seas. Constantius Chlorus, who reduced him, is complimented upon it by several authors; who, among other things, highly extolled him for the restitution of the sea dominion to the Romans, and of freedom of traffic and commerce to all nations, by scouring the sea from pirates, not only upon the coasts of Gaul, but even of Spain and Africa.

About the time of Constantine the Great, an officer was established in Britain, by the name of count of the Saxon shore; who, besides his command at land, had under his government the seas flowing between France, Holland, Germany, Denmark, and this island; and that not as a bound, but as a distinct part of the British empire, as there was a præfect of the Euphrates, a count of the Danube, a count of the Rhine, &c. By the Saxon shore it is very plain, that the shores of all the above-mentioned countries are meant, because the Saxons, being then the most potent people in Germany, enlarged their conquests all along the coasts of Germany, Holland, and France; which appears by the Breviary of the imperial dignities, where speaking of that tract of land extending from the mouth of the Loire to that of the Seine, it is said, under the command of the duke of that province, there was a tribune of the first band of soldiers of Armorica and Grammona, on the Saxon shore. And again, speaking of that shore which extends from the Seine to the Maese, including Normandy, Picardy, and Flanders, it is said, there were Dalmatian horsemen lodged upon those borders on the Saxon shore: and in effect, all the shores extending from the western parts of Denmark to the western parts of France, are in the Breviary most expressly comprehended under the general term of the Saxon shore; the count of which resided in Britain, as the seat of the sovereignty of all those seas.

It is very certain the Saxons never seated themselves in Britain, 'till after the Romans had abandoned the island. Some descents they might probably have made as pirates, but never possessed themselves of any part of the country, 'till after king Vortigern called them in against the Picts; whereas they had settled on the coasts of Gaul and Belgia; and the

Saxon shore cannot, without committing a great absurdity, be supposed to mean that of Britain, where the Saxons had not seated themselves, but that of Belgia and Gaul, where they had; which coast by the Breviary is plainly proved to be the Saxon shore, under the count above named, who resided, as has been said, in Britain. And for a confirmation that Britain and the Saxon shore were two different jurisdictions, we shall here insert a list of other governors and officers, that were under the command of the magister militum * presentalis, according to the very words of the Breviary.

* In the edition of Alciatus and Pancirolus, the word militum is by a mistake inserted for limitum.

Sub dispositione viri illustris magistri peditum presentalis comites limitum infra scriptorum.

Italiæ, Africæ, Tingitanæ, tractus Argentoratensis, Britanniarum, littoris Saxonici per Britannias.

About the year 450, the Romans having entirely abandoned Britain, the Britons resumed the sovereignty of the sea as soon as they found themselves in possession of that of the land. But having been weakened by the frequent levies that the Romans made of soldiers here, to serve them in other parts of their empire, the Scots and Picts, to revenge themselves for old quarrels, fell upon them, and forced them to call in the Saxons to their assistance, declaring they were not capable of assisting them. The Saxons by treachery got possession of several parts of the island, turned their arms against those they came to assist, and new adventurers coming from Germany to Britain to make their fortunes here, the leaders of each colony founded a kingdom, and from the number of these monarchies, the famous name of Heptarchy was given to the sovereignty of this island; to which the dominion of the British Seas was always a certain appendant, where the Britons, Saxons, or Danes, were masters of the island. It is said, Arthur sailed with his victorious fleet and army as far as Ireland, forcing those northern people to pay obeisance to his standard, and acknowledge him for supreme lord, even from the British to the Russian shore. Though this, perhaps, is in the fable, yet it is plain it was the received opinion, that the Britons pretended even then to the sovereignty of the sea.

Having spoken of the maritime sovereignty of the Britons and Romans, that of the Saxons and Danes comes next to be treated of. The Saxons, even at the time of their first arrival in Britain, were very powerful at sea, and very expert in the art of navigation, as it was practised in those days, which is proved by the character given them by Bede and other authors of credit; the Saxons, say they, were so familiarly and particularly acquainted with maritime affairs, that by an almost incredible nicety in their observations they counted months and years only by the continual revolution of the tide, or ebbing and flowing of the sea; calling the former in their language ledones, or lidunas, and the latter malinas; and Ethelberd, an antient writer, seems to insinuate in his first book, that the Britons being then informed the Saxons were a people very expert in navigation, and well provided with all things necessary for war, they were the more desirous of their alliance: to whom they sent ambassadors with considerable presents, and offers of a free trade and commerce; that they came, conquered, and were themselves conquered by the Danes, is related in our English histories.

All that can be expected from us is, to report as much out of them as proves, that both Saxons and Danes, while they were masters here, were in possession of the dominion of the British Seas.

Gildas relates, that Octa and Ebissa, two leaders of the Saxons, extended their dominions on the northern coast of this island, and Allor, with his sons Cissa and Cimenus, on the southern; and that they became soon masters of the seas to the southward of Scotland. The former with forty armed vessels sailing about that kingdom, invading and spoiling the Orcades, but minding their sovereignty at land more than at sea, their naval strength fell to decay; which the Danes and Normans observing, it was a temptation to them to infest this island, and commit frequent robberies in the British Seas, in a sort of long-boats or gallies of their own invention, with which they used to be too hard for the English Saxons, 'till Alfred caused a great number of other ships to be built longer, deeper, and nimbler than the Danes; by which means he drove those invaders out of the English Seas, and recovered the absolute dominion of them; which was transmitted to the succeeding kings, of whom EDGAR became powerful at sea.

Edgar began his reign in 957, according to the Saxon Chronicle; and as to his fleet, it consisted of near 1000 sail; and he did not coast round his kingdom once a year in one of the three squadrons, as some say, but each squadron carried him to the extent of its cruize, and then he embarked on board the other squadron; and in the year 973, he caused himself to be rowed over the River DEE by eight kings, while himself steered the helm; and in his titles, he constantly used this, of LORD OF THE BRITISH SEAS. This is a fact of much greater certainty than can be produced for any naval

power within this period of time; and therefore it deserves our attention.

We may see, by an extract of an old record, how far king Edgar pretended to the sovereignty of the sea. Albitonantis Dei largiflua qui est rex regum, ego Edgarus Anglorum Basileus, omniumque rerum insularum oceani quæ Britanniam circumjacent, cunctarumque nationum quæ infra eam includuntur, imperator & dominus*: and Randolph of Chester, though he does not swell the number to above 400 ships, makes mention of his sailing round the island, Idem quoque Edgarus 400 naves congregavit, ex quibus omni anno post festum paschæ 100 naves, ad quamlibet Angliæ partem statuit; sic æstate insulam circumnavigavit: but the Danes afterwards, as they had been before, were very successful in their attempts against the Saxons here both by sea and land.

* Ex. Chart. Fundam. Eccles. Wigorn.

Insomuch, that the English or Saxon-Britons, were forced to buy them off: and a tax call Danegelt, was levied here, to be paid them that they might not assault the inhabitants of this island, either by land or sea. The Saxons, or English, maintained the Danish fleet, which was to be employed for the defence and guard of the English Seas, as well as of the kingdom. Edward the Confessor abolished this tribute, as far at least as it was to be paid to the Danes: some authors say, that this tax was levied after the English threw off their subjection to the Danes, for the maintenance of the English navy, which was afterwards strong enough to defend the sovereignty of the British Seas, 'till the Norman invasion.

Hence it appears, that the dominion of the sea went with that of the land; and that in Edgar's time, the English Saxons enjoyed it without competitors, as they did also under Canutus the Dane; of whom it is written, that designing to check the vanity of flatterers, by shewing them, that even the greatest kings were, at their highest pitch of grandeur, only men, sat down on a seat on Southampton shore, to make a trial before them of the obedience of the sea, to whom he thus addressed himself.

Thou, O sea! art under my dominion, as the ground upon which I sit is mine, and none did ever disobey me and was unpunished. I command thee not to come up upon my land, nor to presume to wet the feet or garments of thy lord. Matth. of Westminster, anno 1035.

But the tide flowing in the ordinary manner, and wetting not only his Majesty's feet, but his legs, the king leaping up resigned his crown of gold to a crucifix, declaring none was worthy of the name of a king, but him alone, who can command both sea and land, and they obey.

It can hardly be expected, that the sovereignty of the British Seas should be maintained without any intervals of invasion by foreign powers, especially in such confused times as the Heptarchy, and the contention between the English and Danes; but it will be seen, that whenever the dominion of this island was settled, that of the sea was always an appendant to it: and since the Norman invasion, the kings of England have defended their sovereignty against all foreign powers, and their dominion at sea has been asserted and acknowledged, without any remarkable interruption, from the year 1066, to the present times: we shall now, therefore, prove, that the civil and natural possession of the sovereignty of the English Seas has been invested in the kings or queens of this nation, from the Norman invasion to our times.

By a civil possession (according to the explication of Hugo Grotius, in his treatise de Jure Civili, lib. 5.) we mean, That which is requisite by law to found a right and title upon, and by a natural possession we mean an actual possession, which, according to the same author, is also necessary for proving the validity of any prince's title to the sovereignty of the sea: both of which we undertake to assert and maintain. As,

I. That the kings of England have, by many solemn overt-acts and declarations, ascribed to themselves the dominion of the adjacent seas; and that dominion has been both allowed and confirmed, not only by the laws and customs of the nation (as appears by the records of parliament, &c.) but also by the common and universal assent of all the neighbouring and other foreign nations concerned.

II. That the kings and queens of England have always exercised the dominion of the English Seas, as well as of the islands situate in them, as of a province belonging to them, in which they have levied tribute and customs of foreigners, and have also prescribed laws of navigation to such foreigners, as in time of peace have enjoyed their protection there, and that (in case of the violation of such laws) foreign princes and states, by making application to them, have thereby openly acquiesced and acknowledged them to be the sovereign lords of the sea.

III. That passage through the English Seas having been humbly desired, has been sometimes granted, and sometimes refused, by the kings and queens of England, to the foreigners that petitioned for it; and also that all ships navigating in their seas, on certain occasions, have been stopped and arrest-

ed for the service, and by the command, of the kings of England.

IV. That the liberty of fishing in the British Seas has been frequently obtained by licence of the kings and queens of Britain; and that protection has been given by them to the fishers, upon whose humble request such licence had been granted, and a tribute exacted for that protection.

To this shall be added several other corroborating evidences; but as for what happened from the Norman invasion, to the union of the two crowns under James I. we shall not be so particular, as in what has fallen out since that time; because that being of later date, will consequently be of greater weight.

The order which we propose to observe, will naturally lead us to treat of the dominion of the Western or Irish Sea, in discoursing of the estate of the maritime affairs of England, at the time that the sovereignty of that sea was added to that of the English, by the accession of Ireland to the crown of England, under king Henry II. and king John, who conquered that island.

As to the dominion of the Northern or Caledonian and Deucaledonian Seas, we shall endeavour to evince, that it is the sole and undoubted prerogative of his Britannic Majesty, as a necessary appendant of the sovereignty of the kingdom of Scotland, both which he has derived by an unquestionable right from his royal predecessors, the kings and queens of that country.

To begin with William the Norman, it appears by several passages in Doomsday-book, that he maintained the maritime affairs of England in a very flourishing state. And other histories speak largely of his powerful navies, which, by the addition of the Norman fleet, must have been sufficient to secure the dominion of the sea; and though the Danes appeared in the northern parts, and committed some piracies in the western, yet they dared not engage the royal navy of England; but what they performed was by stealth and surprize. The Normans immediate successors, William Rufus and Henry I. were as careful in maintaining their empire at sea, as their father the first William had been. Florence of Worcester and Hoveden relate, That being about to declare war against Robert duke of Normandy, who was then preparing for an exportation to England, he commanded his butsecarli, a sort of sea-officers then known by that name, to guard the seas, and take care that no person should pass over from Normandy towards the English coasts. Besides, this being a sufficient proof of his strength at sea, the very office of these butsecarli proves, that he looked upon himself as lawful sovereign of it; they being no other than Custodes ipsius maris, or guardians of the Sea, as will be shewn more fully hereafter.

The confusions that happened in Stephen's reign, hindered the growth of the English strength at sea; and, indeed, his dominion by land was rendered precarious, by the interest of Maud the empress, and her Son Henry II. in whose time, Ireland being conquered, the Western Sea was added to the maritime empire of the kings of England; and that these kings have expressly vindicated and asserted their title to the dominion of those seas, appears among other Irish statutes, by an act made in the reign of Edward IV. stat. Hibern. cap. 6. forbidding fishing there without licences, and laying a tax on all boats and vessels coming thither to fish: since which, king James I. did, by a solemn proclamation, positively forbid all fishing upon the Irish coasts to foreigners, without permission.

Many other instances might be given to prove, that the kings of England have, from time to time, asserted their right to the sovereignty of the Irish, as well as of their other seas. Which warrants us, from the reign of king John, when Ireland was annexed to the crown of England, to reckon them a part of the British Seas; the empire of which we are now endeavouring to maintain, to be part of the sovereignty of Britain.

King John, in the passage before cited, challenged the homage of the flag near 500 years ago, by that memorable ordinance at Hastings, whereby this duty was required, not barely as a mark of courtesy, but as a matter of undoubted right, cum debita reverentia, and all that refused it were to be treated as enemies. This homage of the flag is a consecutive acknowledgement, that the right and dominion of the seas are in him, to whose flag they strike and pay that homage; implying, that the prince grants a general licence for ships to pass through his seas, that are his friends, paying him that duty: like those services when lords grant out estates, reserving a pepper-corn, or some such trifle, the value of which is not regarded, but is only a significant mark of the remembrance and acknowledgement of their benefactor's right and dominion. This salutation is to be paid, not only by foreigners, but also by natural-born subjects; and such as refuse to do it, may be brought to the flag to answer the contempt.

King John asserted his title to this homage, by a fleet of no less than 500 ships, in a voyage royal of his, when he sailed to Ireland, commanding all vessels, which he met in his way, to pay that duty and acknowledgement; and our succeeding

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kings have done the same, with more or less vigour and success according to the circumstances of their affairs.

His son Henry III. was too much involved in his wars with the barons, to mind his naval dominion: but then Henry's son Edward I. coming to the crown about the year 1272, and entering into a war with Philip the Fair of France, both princes agreed upon a freedom of commerce (then called sufferance of war) and each appointed commissioners to take cognizance of all things relating to this agreement, which they were to decide, according to the laws and customs of merchants, as far as it was allowed by the aforesaid treaty of commerce.

When these two kings concluded a peace, they mutually obliged themselves to be enemies to each others enemies, except some princes expressly mentioned in the treaty of peace and alliance*. But several complaints arising concerning injuries done, and violences offered to merchantmen upon that sea, not only during the sufferance, but after the peace; and the two kings foreseeing the differences between the king of France and the earl of Flanders, might give occasion to other complaints of that nature, they appointed each four commissioners, with full power to decide all controversies of that kind that had happened, or might happen. Upon which a very remarkable remonstrance was exhibited to them, not only in the name of the whole body of the people of England, but there also joined in it the procurators of all the nations in Europe, that were then in any manner considerable for trade and navigation, who all unanimously acknowledged the kings of England to have been time out of mind (quatenus kings of England) the **LAWFUL SOVEREIGNS OF THE ENGLISH SEAS.**

* Selden de Dom. Maris, l. 2. c. 14, 27, 28—Rolls 2 Parl. 174.

This is such an authentic proof, that none can, with any colour of reason, object against it. The original writing is among the archives, kept in the Tower of London, in the old French or Norman tongue, in which it was then usual to draw up such sort of instruments. The reader, perhaps, will not be displeased with a translation of as much of it as relates to the present case.

To you our lords, auditors, deputed by the kings of England and France, to redress the injuries done to their subjects, by sea and land, in times of truce and peace; we the procurators of the prelates and nobles, and of the admiral of the English Sea, as well as of the cities and towns, and of the merchants, mariners, messengers, and foreign inhabitants, and all others belonging to the realm of England, and other dominions and territories belonging to the king of England; as also of divers other inhabitants of Genoa, Catalonia, Spain, Germany, Zealand, Friesland, Denmark, and Norway, and of sundry other maritime places of the empire, most humbly shews: That whereas the kings of England, by right of the said kingdom, have always been in peaceable possession of the **SOVEREIGN LORDSHIP OF THE ENGLISH SEAS**, and of the **ISLANDS** situate within the same, with power of constituting and appointing of laws and statutes, and of prohibiting the use of arms and passage of ships otherwise equipped than merchant-ships; and of taking security and granting protection, as occasion shall require, and of appointing all other things necessary for the maintaining of peace, justice, and equity, among all manner of people, as well foreigners as their own subjects navigating in those seas, and also of determining all causes and differences, and administering justice to high and low, according to the aforesaid laws, statutes, ordinances, constitutions, and prohibitions, and generally of doing and acting all other things incumbent and belonging to the exercise of their sovereign jurisdiction within the aforesaid seas; and whereas, &c.*

* See Coke Instit. 142.

Though the Flemmings are not mentioned in this instrument, it appears in the records, Rot. Par. 14 Edw. II. part 2. membran. 26. that the ambassadors of the earl of Flanders to that king, fully acknowledged the undeniable right of the crown of England to the sovereignty of the adjacent seas. The passage is this.

MEMORANDUM.

That whereas for the reformation of certain injuries in an amicable way, done by the subjects of the earl of Flanders to the subjects of the kingdom of England, and by the subjects of the said kingdom to those of Flanders, since the time that our said lord the king undertook the government of his kingdom, &c. And whereas the said ambassadors had been admitted by our said lord the king, to treat anew of this kind of injuries, these ambassadors or other ambassadors of the aforesaid earl, in the aforesaid treaties, did, among other particulars, that they required before all things, make supplication, that the said lord the king, would at his own suit, by virtue of his royal authority, cause enquiry to be made, and do justice, about a certain depredation lately made by the subjects of England (as it

is said) upon the English Seas, of wines and divers other merchandizes belonging to certain men of Flanders, towards the parts of Cranden, within the territory and jurisdiction of our said lord the king, alleging, that the aforesaid wines and merchandizes taken from the said Flemmings, were brought within the jurisdiction and realm of the said lord the king, and that it belonged to the king himself, so to do, for that he is **LORD OF THE SAID SEA.**

To these testimonies of the dominion of the crown of England in the neighbouring seas, we shall now add some other remarkable ones in the reign of Edward III. the originals of which are yet to be seen in the Tower of London: and the first is that king's commission to Geoffrey de Say, admiral of his Western and Southern Seas, in which is this passage: 'We calling to mind that our progenitors, the kings of England, have in former times been **LORDS OF THE ENGLISH SEAS** on every side, and defended the same against all invaders; and considering, that it would extremely grieve us if (which God forbid) our royal honour should, in any manner, be impaired, or should suffer any diminution of this nature in our time, and desiring,' &c. Nor was the commission given at the same time to John de Norwich, admiral of the Northern Seas of England, in any manner different from that to Geoffrey de Say.

There is yet another observation which may be made upon an action of the same Edward III. which is his coining of those ancient pieces of gold called rose nobles, in which he has been imitated by several of our kings of later date. Upon this piece is seen the representation of a ship floating in the sea, there being seated in the ship, as on a throne, a king armed with a shield, having a royal diadem on his head, and a sword in his hand; by which, doubtless, that great prince intended to denote, that the Sovereignty of the English Seas belonged to him, nor was it ever subject to a master that defended it better. For king Edward III. is said to have entertained 1100 ships of war, such as were usual in his time, for preserving the freedom of the **ENGLISH SEAS.**

It is objected, indeed, that upon some pieces of money anciently coined in France, there were much the same figures, and that also some coins of Zealand bear the representation of a lion rising out of the sea, &c. To which it is answered, That as to France, there was never any money coined there with these insignia of the sea, &c. except such as were stamped by the kings of England, while they were in possession of that country: and with respect to Zealand we shall allow, if she pleases, her animal rising unnaturally out of the sea, to denote the situation of that island, but believe the owners will scarce pretend, that piece of money represents any dominion in the sea. But there are innumerable other examples to prove, that the kings of England have always assumed, and ascribed to themselves, the dominion and sovereignty of the adjacent seas; but the instances we have given are so full, that there will be no need of adding any more to them. And the task would be endless, if we should attempt to cite all the passages out of our lawyers, that have supported this claim of the crown of England to the dominion of the **BRITISH SEAS.** There is one point universally known, and as universally acknowledged by all, viz. that in law these two phrases *intra regnum*, within the kingdom, and *intra quatuor maria*, within the four seas, have one and the same signification; that is, that all the actions done within the limits of the English empire, in those, are deemed to be done in England itself.

In the antient records concerning the custom of the Admiralty, we read it was usual in the time of Henry I. and of other kings of England, who reigned about the beginning of the 12th century, when any person accused of a capital crime committed at sea, after being five times summoned by the public cryer, did not, within a certain limited time, make his appearance before the court of Admiralty, such person or persons were banished out of England, and out of the **SEAS** belonging to the king of England, for a greater or less number of years, according to the pleasure of the admiral. It was also formerly customary to enter actions in express terms, concerning differences arising in those seas, in the ordinary course of our common law.

However, the sea province of the English empire does properly belong, according to the antient and received custom of the kingdom, to the lord high admiral of England, or his deputies, not only with relation to its defence and safeguard, but to its government and jurisdiction, which the said officers have always had cognizance of. As for the prerogative of the kings of England in constituting and appointing of naval laws, it is very ancient; for besides what has been said of our Saxon kings, Richard I. some years before his death, which happened in the year 1199, published the **SEA LAWS**, that to this day are famous by the name of the laws of Oleron [see the article **OLERON'S LAWS**], which island he was then possessed of, and it is said by some authors, he was then there. And since the king of England is universally acknowledged to have been the author of these laws, which have taken place ever since that time, it is to be supposed his right to give laws was universally allowed, or the making of them would have been impertinent, or of no use.

Edward

Edward I. prescribed a method to be observed for the more regular execution of those laws, as we find in the records of the Tower, de Superioritate Maris, and in the reign of his grandson Edward III. the judges of England were consulted, to the intent, 'That the form of proceeding, formerly instituted by Edward I. and his council, at the request of his subjects, might be resumed and continued for the better retaining and preserving the antient superiority of the seas of England, and the authority of the English Admiralty, in explaining and correcting the laws and statutes made by his progenitors the kings of England, for the maintenance of peace, and the administration of justice, to all nations and people navigating in the ENGLISH SEAS, and the taking cognizance of all attempts made against the liberties thereof, by punishing the guilty, and awarding satisfaction to the injured, according to the laws and ordinances made by the lord Richard, king of England, upon his return from the Holy Land, and declared and published in the aforefaid island of OLERON.' Which record proves sufficiently by whom, and where, the laws bearing the name of that island, were published.

The officers appointed by the kings of England for the management of maritime affairs, were the butficarli, who were sometimes called guardians of the navy, and sometimes guardians of the sea. In the time of Henry III. authority to guard the Eastern Sea and shore was given to Thonron de Moleton, with the title of captain and guardian of the sea. Rot. Parl. 48 Henry III. numb. 3. & Rot. Claus. 48 Henry III. mem. 3. In the same prince's reign, Hugh de Crequeur is stiled warden of the Cinque Ports, and of the sea in those parts.

After him, in the year 1292, Edward I. dividing his fleet into three squadrons, gave the three officers commanding them the name of admirals; and the like command and character was given to three other such officers, in the time of his son and successor, Edward II; which prince being likewise succeeded by his son, Edward III, in his reign a parliament was called, to provide for the peace and security of the realm, by LAND and SEA. In the time of Richard II, Hugh Calverlee was made admiral of the sea, and so others, as appears by the general list of admirals; by which it is plain, provision was no less punctually made by the kings and parliament of England for the defence of the sea, than for the support of the government by land; and of what nature the commissions granted to those admirals were, may be seen by the form thereof, yet extant, of which we have transcribed as much as is necessary to express the extent of their jurisdiction in those days.

'We give and grant to N—— the office of our great admiral of England, Ireland, and Wales, and of the dominions and islands belonging to the same; also of our town of Calais, and our marches thereof, Normandy, Gascoigne, and Aquitaine: and we made, appointed, and ordained, and by these presents we make, appoint, and ordain, him the said N—— our admiral of England, Ireland, and Wales, and our dominions and isles of the same, our town of Calais, and our marches thereof, Normandy, Gascoigne, and Aquitaine: as also general governor over all our fleets and seas of our said kingdoms of England and Ireland, our dominions and islands belonging to the same. And KNOW YE further, that of our special grace, and upon certain knowlege, &c. we give and grant unto the said N——, our great admiral of England, and governor-general over our fleets and seas aforefaid, all manner of jurisdictions, authorities, liberties, offices, fees, profits, duties, emoluments, wrecks of the sea, regards, advantages, commodities, preeminences, and privileges whatsoever, &c.

King Edward VI, in the third year of his reign, granted a commission to John earl of Warwick, his admiral, wherein he calls him 'Our admiral of England, Ireland, Wales, Calais, and Boulogne, and marches of the same, and of Normandy, Gascoigne, and Aquitaine, as also governor-general of all our fleets and seas.'

From these forms of the commissions of our English admirals, for several ages past, we shall only infer, that the coasts of the transmarine provinces mentioned in the said commissions, are only inserted to denote the extent and limits of the sea that is thereby committed to their charge and protection; for either the names of the provinces of France inserted in these commissions must signify something or nothing: it is ridiculous to suppose they signify nothing; and if they denote any thing, it must be the bounds of our admiral's jurisdiction, for the following reasons.

I. It cannot be imagined the names of these provinces are there inserted in consequence of our king's pretensions to the crown of France, for then they would have given their admirals the title of admirals of England, France, &c. besides, the English were driven out of France, except Calais, and the English pale in Picardy, before the names of any of these provinces, Aquitaine only excepted, were mentioned in the commissions of the admirals of England. By which it appears, II. That the kings of England only added the names of those provinces in their admirals commissions, for the

better distinction of their boundaries: for while they possessed the maritime provinces of France, there was no necessity of mentioning them in their commissions, because the dominion of those seas belonged to them as kings of England, and not as dukes of Normandy, Aquitaine, &c. but having been dispossessed of these, by adding them afterwards as bounds of the jurisdiction of their admirals, they intended to prevent all differences about the extent of their ancient dominion, as kings of England over the sea.

It appears by the instrument before mentioned, presented to the commissioners appointed by Edward I. and Philip the Fair of France, to determine certain maritime differences, that, by the consent of all the trading nations in Europe, the kings of England had then been in peaceable possession of the dominion of the sea by immemorial prescription; that the sovereignty of the sea belongs to them, not because they were Domini utriusque ripæ, when they had both England and Normandy, and were lords of both shores: for Edward I, at that time, had not Normandy, but that it is inseparably appendant to the kingdom of England. Our kings being superior lords of the said seas, by reason, as the very record mentions, of the said kingdom; and since the sovereignty of the sea did always belong to the king of England, not in any other right than that of the kingdom, no prince or state ought, or can doubt, the title by which our present claim is deduced. It is objected, That admirals were established many centuries ago in France, as well as in England. But this does not prove that they had the same power as the English admirals had; on the contrary, it is very evident that those officers were at first only occasional commanders of naval forces, on certain expeditions; and so far were they from pretending to any real jurisdiction in the sea itself, as belonging to the crown of France, that they were, in ancient times, for the most part foreigners and mercenaries, hired for some present service, for which we shall give a very unsuspected testimony, viz. that of Joannes Tillius, a clerk of the parliament of Paris, who in his second book de Rebus Gallicis says, 'The kingdom of France having been lessened by intestine divisions, and its kings reduced to narrow dominions by their potent vassals, (such as the kings of England, who possessed Normandy, Aquitaine, and other countries, the dukes of Bretagne, the earls of Flanders, Provence, and Languedoc) and having for a long time no command in the sea, had consequently no occasion for admirals, till they undertook the expedition for the Holy Land, in which they made use of mercenaries, whom they hired of the Genoese, Spaniards, and other maritime nations expert in the art of navigation, with whom they agreed for the transportation of their forces,' &c. — Which appears to be very true, by the list of French admirals, where Engerenæus Concæus is the first that is said to have enjoyed that dignity, which was conferred upon him, according to Joannes Feronius, by Philip the Bold, king of France, about the year 1280. And Joannes Tillius makes the institution of that office of a later date; for, according to him, 'Amaurius, viscount of Narbonne, was first made admiral of France, about the year 1300: nor do the edicts and decrees of Charles V. and VI, Lewis XII, Francis I, Henry II. and III, and other French kings, concerning marine affairs, and the admiralty, seem to relate to any thing but to the goods and persons of the subjects of the crown of France, and of the enemies taken in time of war by them: for though the admirals of France be therein stiled our lieutenant-general, throughout the sea, and the shores thereof, yet that lieutenant-general, as they call him, never had any command over any part of the sea flowing between Britain and France, as a province, or dominion, belonging to his master the king of France, but only over the ships and naval forces of the said king passing through the British Seas, much in the same manner that any sovereign prince commands and governs the persons belonging to his own retinue, though in a foreign country, but without pretending to have any jurisdiction out of his own family, in that territory.'

As to the French kings having at the beginning, been in possession of Normandy, Picardy, and Flanders; (though it must be observed, that their kingdom was for a long time dispossessed of them), the possession of the shore, as we have already remarked out of Grotius, gives no title to the dominion of the sea flowing before it. And Julius Pacius de Domin. Maris Adriatici, writes, That the right to the sea arises not from the possession of the shores, for the sea and land make distinct territories. It is no more necessary that every sea-town should command 100 miles at sea, than that each city should command 100 miles by land.

By the laws of England, the land is called the REALM, but the sea the DOMINION; and as the loss of one province does not infer that the prince must resign up the rest; so the loss of the land territory does not, by concomitancy, argue the loss of the adjacent seas.

It appears further, that the office of admiral was at first occasional in France; for that, though all the great officers of the crown, as the constable, master of the horse, great master of the household, and others, have each their particular

particular station in the parliament of Paris; yet it was positively denied, in the time of Henry II, to Gaspar de Coligni, admiral of France; and Henry of Montmerancy seemed to be convinced of the French admirals narrow jurisdiction, when, in the year 1612, causing a statue to be erected at Chantilly, in honour of his father the duke of Montmerancy, he styles himself only, in the inscription, *Navalis militiæ magister*, or general of the militia by sea, he being admiral of France. The possession of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, and some other isles on the coasts of Normandy by the kings of England, is made use of as an argument to prove the extent of their dominion over the Channel, and that those islands do not belong to them as an appendant or remainder of the duchy of Normandy; but it appears, by several treaties between the kings of England and other princes, that those isles are spoken of as belonging to the crown of England: and in the grant made of them by Henry V. to his brother John duke of Bedford, that prince was to enjoy the sovereignty of them, without any recognition to be made to that king, or his heirs, notwithstanding any prerogative of the crown for any other tenure held of him out of the said islands, which may in any manner belong to the said islands, castle, or dominions. And besides it is certain, that Henry duke of Warwick was, by Henry VI, made king of those islands, and of the Isle of Wight. Now it is not probable that prince would have erected them into a kingdom, if he had not possessed them by a title superior to that of an appendant of the duchy of Normandy.

Our kings have frequently forbidden hostilities between foreigners at war with one another, within such distances from the ports and harbours of those islands as to them seemed convenient: and we shall see, by a patent granted by Edward VI. to the inhabitants of Jersey, that he gave them the privileges contained in it, from no other principle than as he was master of the BRITISH SEAS. This patent was confirmed by queen Elizabeth and king James I. By which 'all merchants, natives or strangers, and enemies as well as friends, are allowed, in time of war, freely, lawfully, and securely, to sail into and about, and frequent the said island and the coasts thereof, with their ships and goods, as well for shelter against foul weather, as upon any other lawful occasions, and there to use free traffic and commerce, and to abide with all security and safety, and to come thence and return thither at pleasure,' &c.

This dominion of the isles on the coast of Normandy, and all the islands within the extent of the British Sea, is no inconsiderable proof of the sovereignty of the kings of England over them.

That they had always a right of imposing tributes for the protection given by them to foreigners within their seas, might be further evinced, from variety of other remarkable instances: we shall only insert the following abstract of the records of parliament, as it may be seen in the original Norman, Rot. Parl. 2 Rich. II. article 38. in schedula, of which the following articles are a translation.

The merchants of London having been consulted by the earl of Northumberland and the mayor of London, about the proper methods for the guard and defence of the NORTHERN ENGLISH SEAS, it was resolved by the commons in parliament, That that sea should be guarded by two men of war, two barks, and two bilanders, armed for war, and exact of all ships as follows:

(1.) Of all ships and barks, of what burthen soever (except ships bringing goods from Flanders to London, or carrying wool or skins from London to Calais, which were also to pay for their convoy, if they required any) passing through the said sea, for the voyage going and returning, 6 d. per ton.

(2.) Of all fisher boats fishing in that sea for herring, 6 d. a week per ton.

(3.) Of all ships or boats fishing there for other sorts of fish, 6 d. per ton every three weeks.

(4.) Of all Newcastle colliers, 6 d. per ton every three months.

(5.) Of all other ships and vessels trading with Prussia, Norway, or any other of those parts beyond sea, for the voyage going and returning, 6 d. per ton.

Nor have the kings of England been contented with exacting tribute, as an acknowledgement of their dominion in the British Seas; they always obliged all foreigners passing through their seas to pay them such other homages and tokens of submission, as are sufficient to prove they acquiesced in the lawfulness of their title to that dominion. It was ever accounted even treason for any ship, of any nation whatsoever, to refuse to acknowledge the sovereignty of the kings of England, by striking their colours, lowering their top-sails, &c. or performing such other ceremonies as have been required by the admirals, or captains, of any of the king's navies, or ships meeting with foreigners at sea; and such as refused so to do, forfeited ipso facto, by that refusal, all the privileges and rights to which they might otherwise be intitled as allies, and were punishable by the king of England, or his admirals, in the same manner as if they had committed a crime within the jurisdiction of his territories by land.

These ceremonies, as we have shewn in the preceding pages, have been for many ages exacted by the English kings, with all imaginable rigour. By an article of the OFFENSIVE

and DEFENSIVE LEAGUE, concluded between the French and Dutch, anno 1635, it was agreed, 'That if at any time the Dutch fleet (which, according to the league, was to scour the French coast in the Mediterranean from pirates) should meet with the French fleet, the Dutch admiral should, at his first approach to the French, strike his colours and lower his top-sail, and afterwards salute the French admiral with guns; which salutation the French admiral was to return with guns only *.'—But even the duty of the flag there claimed by the FRENCH in the Mediterranean, is vastly inferior to that due to the ENGLISH in their seas, the first being only a bare token of respect, the refusal of which could, at most, amount to no more than a breach of the league; whereas the homage paid to the ENGLISH being a real and fundamental prerogative of the crown, the contempt of it is, as has been said, deemed to be open rebellion, and the contemnors may lawfully be invaded in an hostile manner, according to the orders and instructions that are given to the admirals and commanders of the ENGLISH NAVIES and SHIPS.

* Leo ab Aitzmet Hist. Tract. Pacis Belg. pag. 177. edit. Lugd. Batav. 4. 1034.

Another point, in relation to the sovereignty of the kings of England to the dominion of their seas, is the practice very much used of old by them, to extend their embargoes all over the BRITISH SEAS, and seize foreign ships passing there, as well as if they had been within their own harbours, and employing them in their own service, as will appear by the following mandate, issued out by king John to this purpose.

'The king to all STUREMANNI (sea captains and officers) and MARINELLI (mariners or sea soldiers) and merchants of England using the sea, greeting: KNOW YE, that we have sent Alanus Juvo of Sorham, Walter Staltun, Vincent of Hastings, and Wilmund of Winchelsea, with others of our barons of the Cinque Ports, &c. four faithful STUREMANNI and MARINELLI of our galleys, to arrest and safely bring into England all ships that they can find, with all that shall be found in them: and therefore we command you to be aiding to them in this business, so that ye be in England with your ships and goods at such ports as they shall appoint: and if any shall attempt to resist them, contrary to our command, YE our liege men are required to assist them with all your power, as you tender yourselves and your chattels, and your quiet and residence, and that of all your kindred within our dominions.'

Much the same order was given by Edward III, to Thomas de Wenlock, vice-admiral of his western fleet, to seize and arrest all ships for his immediate service. However, a competent hire was always allowed for ships so impressed, according to their burthen, and the number of their hands.

That it was customary for the kings of England to grant passports, or safe-conducts, to such foreigners as desired liberty to pass through their seas, may also be sufficiently proved, out of the records of parliament, where will be found the conditional clause of such passports, 'That the persons who had obtained them should not convey, or cause any thing to be conveyed, nor in any manner relieve nor impart any thing to be conveyed, nor in any manner relieve nor impart any thing to the king's enemies in France.' And in Edward the First's time it was always a peculiar injunction laid upon his sea commanders, That they should take special care to vindicate and maintain the sovereignty which his predecessors, the kings of England, were wont to have in the SEA, concerning the explication and amendment of the laws, which had been by them instituted for the government of all nations and people navigating in the English Seas; than which nothing can more explicitly demonstrate that they possessed the dominion of them.

In a passport granted by Henry IV. of England, to Farrando Urtis de Sarachione, a Spaniard, that king permits him to sail freely from the port of London through his kingdoms, dominions, and jurisdictions, to the town of Rochelle. And what can be meant by DOMINIONS and JURISDICTIONS here, but those of the seas flowing between London and Rochelle? And the ambassadors of Charles VI. of France, and Robert III. of Scotland, in the passports they obtained of the same king Henry, are therein allowed free passage through all the places, territories, and dominions, under his power, by sea as well as by land: whereas the passports granted by several kings of France to the ambassadors of the kings of England, only run thus:

'P——, by the grace of God, king of France, to all our governors and subjects, greeting,' &c.

The reason of which must certainly be this, that the king of England being himself lord of the sea, there was no necessity that the kings of France should secure them within the bounds of their own jurisdiction; which John king of Sweden seems very well to understand, when in his letter to queen Elizabeth, in the year 1587, he desires leave for

Olaus Wormæus, one of his subjects, to pass through her Majesty's SEA DOMINIONS, to carry some merchandize into Spain.

The * Hamburgers and the Hanse-Towns petitioned for licence to transport corn thither about the same time, and were positively forbidden, being told plainly, 'That such as should presume to go beyond a former licence, 'should for that bold presumption suffer the loss of all their goods and effects, in case they fell into the hands of any of her Majesty's ships of war, or others.'

* June 30, anno 1598.

Wetefeldius and Bernscovius, ambassadors from Christian IV, king of Denmark, desiring the same liberty of transporting corn to Spain, by order from their master, were answered, 'That her Majesty could by no means consent to the king of Denmark's demands; neither would she grant such a liberty to her own subjects, or any else, 'till the war between her and the Spaniards was at an end.'

If queen Elizabeth was not sovereign of the ENGLISH SEAS, why did so many states humbly request her for privileges which she had no right to grant or refuse? The frequent applications that have been made by foreign potentates for obtaining liberty to fish in the ENGLISH SEAS, and the conditions upon which that privilege has been granted, are other proofs of the lawfulness of the English dominion in their seas.

Mention has already been made of the tribute imposed upon fishermen in the ENGLISH SEAS, in the time of Richard II, and in the Irish Seas in the reign of Edward IV, to which we shall now add some notable instances of the same nature.

We find in the Rolls of Parliament, in the reign of king Edward I, a protection was granted by that prince for the men of Holland, &c. to this purpose:

'The king to his trusty and well-beloved John de Buteturtu, warden of the port of Jernemouth, greeting: being informed that men of Holland, Zealand, and Friezland, who are now in amity with us, design to come and fish in our sea, near Jernemouth, we require you to cause public proclamation to be made once or twice a week, forbidding all manner of persons whatsoever employed in our service, to presume to do; or cause to be done, to these men, any injury or damage, &c.'

The records are full of such protections in the reigns of that king's successors, Edward II, Edward III, Richard II, Henry IV, Henry V, and Henry VI; the last of whom, as appears by Rot. Franciæ, 38 Henry VI. mem. 9 and 14. frequently gave licences, especially to the French, to fish in HIS SEAS, prescribing a certain time, as well as the size of the boats, they or others were to fish in. So jealous have our princes always been of this prerogative, that Edward VI. appointed custodes, conductores, and wactores, guardians, conductors, and wasters, with a special power to protect the FISHERMEN upon the coast of Suffolk; for which protection a tribute was levied on the fishers, according to their burthen. The words of their commission will shew us what their office was: they had power to 'raise and collect all costs, charges, and expences, to arrest and apprehend all persons who should pretend to protect, conduct, or waste the fishermen, and to commit them to the next gaol, there to be kept securely, 'till the king should be pleased to give order for their delivery.' And in the patents of that nature granted by Richard III. and Henry VII, these officers were empowered to exact this tribute, 'even though any one or more of the said fishermen may have obtained letters of safe-conduct [see the article of SAFE-CONDUCT] from any other king, prince, potentate, or governor whatsoever.'

Queen Mary I. being married to Philip II. of Spain, granted, for a fine and a yearly revenue of 1000 l. to be paid into the treasury of Ireland, a general licence for the NETHERLANDERS TO FISH ON THE NORTHERN PARTS OF THAT KINGDOM. Mr Camden in his Britannia, speaking of the Northern Sea, which washes the coast of Yorkshire, says, 'The Hollanders and Zealanders first obtaining leave according to the ancient custom, of the governor of Scarborough castle, made a very plentiful and advantageous HER-RING-FISHING: the English reserving only the honour and privilege to themselves, have, by a very condemnable negligence, always resigned the PROFIT TO STRANGERS.' This liberty of FISHING in the ENGLISH SEAS has been always requested by STRANGERS, and particularly by the FRENCH, though they would gladly usurp a share of the MARINE SOVEREIGNTY, if they had power to maintain it. HENRY IV. of FRANCE, his admirals usually asked of our QUEEN ELIZABETH licences for the FRENCH FISHERMEN TO FISH IN THE NEIGHBOURING SEAS FOR SOLES FOR THAT PRINCE'S OWN TABLE.

The English do not pretend that their kings were sovereigns of the Caledonian and Deucalionian Seas, 'till the kingdom of Scotland was united to that of England, under James I. Though the ancient Scots enjoyed, without any competitors, the sovereignty of the greatest part of the seas with which their shores are washed; yet they had, for many ages to-

gether, a continual controversy with their neighbours, the Danes and Norwegians, about the more northerly parts of the Caledonian Sea, to the possession of which they all pretended; and, in the main, the government of those seas did for the most part accompany the sovereignty of the Orcades, and other islands situate near them; which, after many revolutions and changes of masters, did at length devolve upon the kings and queens of Scotland, who peaceably possessed them a long time: for about the year 1468, Christiern, king of Denmark, surrendered the Orcades and Scotland to James III, king of Scotland, who had married his daughter Margaret, and resigned the right to those isles to him and his heirs forever. By which surrender and resignation, the Scots kings became possessed of the sovereignty of the Northern Seas, in which they are situate, as well as of the isles. Nor have the Scots neglected, on several occasions, to assert their dominion of the adjacent seas. Mr Welwood, an eminent lawyer of that nation, in a treatise he wrote of the dominion of the adjacent seas, takes notice of a quarrel that had happened between the DUTCH and the Scots, about the propriety of the sea, which, at last, was composed on the following conditions, 'That the DUTCH FISHER-BOATS should not come within 80 miles of the shore, and that, in case they should be driven in thither by stress of weather, they should pay a certain tribute at the port of ABERDEEN, where a castle was built and fortified chiefly on that occasion; and the DUTCH, for some time, did really and effectually pay that tribute,' &c.

In a parliament held in the sixth year of the reign of Mary queen of Scotland, that dominion was again asserted, and all foreigners were expressly forbidden to FISH within the extent of the SCOTTISH SEAS, without licence. King James VI. of Scotland, and I. of England, had that act confirmed and enlarged: 'And all fishers, or other persons whatsoever, occupying the SCOTTISH SEA, and FISHING for herrings or white fish, were enjoined to bring the same to be sold at FREE PORTS within the kingdom of Scotland, that his Majesty and his subjects might not be deprived of the advantages and emoluments which God had appointed for them.'

Since the union of the crowns of England and Scotland, the sovereignty of the SCOTTISH SEA, and the other seas with it, which we have taken notice of in speaking of the extent of the BRITISH SEAS, devolved upon the kings and queens of Great-Britain; and we shall, in the sequel, observe how they have been careful to assert and maintain it.

But we must first take notice, that the English had great privileges and immunities in the Northern Seas granted them by the kings of Denmark and Norway, who had at first excluded them from all commerce and traffic in some parts of them. At last it was agreed, by a treaty made in the year 1485, between Henry VII. and John II, kings of England and Norway, that the English should for ever enjoy the liberty of fishing, trading, and sailing safely and securely to IRELAND, called in the treaty the island of Tyle, and of buying, selling, and merchandizing in those seas, upon payment of the ordinary duties of the ports, provided that by petitioning for such liberty once in seven years, they acknowledged the sovereignty of the kings of Norway in those seas. Thus we find the dominion of the sea is not only capable of being possessed, but that other princes, besides the kings of England, have claimed and enjoyed it. 'Frederic II, king of Denmark and Norway, in a letter to queen Elizabeth, in the year 1585, says, That if the English abstained from doing any injury, they should enjoy their former liberties and privileges, without petitioning any more for licences.'

This privilege depended on the good will of the sovereign of those seas at first, but having been long enjoyed, the English pleaded a right of it by prescription. It is certain, however, that they have a better title to the dominion of the Northern Sea towards the coasts of Greenland: for their Muscovy company first acquired a right to that sea by actual occupation, their MARINERS being the discoverers of it, and their FISHERS improved the whale-fishing.

An actual and primary possession is much more sufficient than an intentional one, to vest the discoverers with a title to the propriety of the thing so discovered: of which king James I. seemed very sensible, when in his letters of credence given to Sir Henry Wotton, his ambassador to the States-General of the United Provinces, he says, 'That the FISHINGS in the Northern Seas, towards the coasts of GREENLAND, were acquired by right for him, and his only.' Notwithstanding which, it is certain that the Hollanders have been too unfriendly, by incroaching upon the BRITISH FISHERIES, not only on the NORTHERN OCEAN, but even on the coasts of GREAT-BRITAIN.

We shall now observe how the kings and queens of Great-Britain have asserted the dominion of the British Seas, since the union of the two crowns of England and Scotland.

When king James I. succeeded to the kingdom of England, the nations of Europe were almost all in profound peace, except the Dutch and Spaniards; and the quiet of the English Seas was in some measure disturbed by the frequent hostilities

ties that happened between the Spaniards and Dutch; upon which he published a proclamation, forbidding (as lord of those seas) any sort of injury or violence to be offered by either party, within certain limits which he appointed, as may be seen by the proclamation itself.

Our pleasure is, that within our ports, havens, roads, creeks, or other places of our dominion, or so near to any of our said ports and havens as may be reasonably construed to be within that title, limit, or precinct, there shall be no force, violence, or offence, suffered to be done, either from men of war to men of war, or men of war to merchantmen, or merchantmen to merchantmen, of either party, &c.

And though that proclamation did only prohibit the committing of hostilities within or near certain creeks, bays, ports, and harbours, (which were called the king's chambers, some of which took in 30 leagues of the sea) no inference can be brought thence to destroy that prince's title to the sovereignty of the more distant parts of the ENGLISH SEA; for he allows the two nations at war between themselves (but both at peace with him) to invade, attack, and make prize of one another in the open sea: nor did the SPANIARDS make any scruple to claim the king of England's protection against their enemies the DUTCH, and all others whatsoever, not only within the seas abovementioned, but all over the ENGLISH SEAS, which they looked upon to be as much a part of his dominion as the land; as appears by the discourse of their advocate here, who pleads it in express terms; adding, 'That towards the north and west the kings of Great-Britain's SEA DOMINIONS were of a vast extent; for that the northern coast of Britain having no opposite shore, their sea jurisdiction that way had no limits; and the south of Ireland lying opposite to Spain, and the west to the Indian countries belonging to that crown, were consequently bounded by them.' So far did this Spanish lawyer make the dominion of our kings extend. Whether he has extended it too far or not, we shall not undertake to determine, but make no difficulty to affirm, that the Hollanders have, of all nations, been too free with the English on this occasion, and encroached too much on our MARINE SOVEREIGNTY. This is said without any design to revive old misunderstandings, or to put any Briton out of humour with our ancient and natural allies, who have appeared so resolutely in the cause of liberty, and are now, we hope, in a strict alliance with Great-Britain*.

* However incompatible the interests of Great-Britain and the United Provinces may appear in the eyes of some, in relation to their commercial concerns, we cannot but think it possible to promote and cement a union in this great and essential point, which, if it could be happily effected, would tend more substantially to the reciprocal lasting interest of both powers, than treaties and alliances founded on any other principles only: for this commercial concert and good understanding would enable us, by means of our joint maritime strength, both mercantile and otherwise, not only to preserve that share of trade and naval power we both at present possess, but to increase them at the expence of our common enemies, and so keep them in subjection, that they may never have it in their power to injure either state. Let it be supposed, for instance, that such a strict and interesting connection subsisted at present between these two powers, would not that effectually prevent those measures that the French seem to be now taking to injure our trade in the East-Indies, and elsewhere? And if the French carry the point at which they aim in Asia, against Great-Britain, and settle the French empire there, according to the system that it is said Dupleix has formed, may not the Dutch likewise soon feel the effects of the French power in that part of the world? If the English should be extirpated from the trade of the East-Indies, and the French power and commerce is raised there, in the like proportion as that of England shall decline, what hinders but that France may soon totally destroy the Dutch power there also? For when the power that England and France now have in the East-Indies, is united in the hands of France alone, it would be scarce possible for the Dutch to support themselves in their possessions and commerce in that part of the world. On the other hand, if the English and the Dutch should heartily unite in preserving and increasing that empire and commerce which they now have in these Indies, it would be impossible for France there to withstand their united force; and would not this enable Great Britain and Holland to give law to all other European powers who should attempt any trade in this part of the world? The like consequence would follow in regard to the commerce of these two potentates in Europe, provided their interests in commerce and navigation could become one, and happily coincide, for the mutual preservation and glory of both states. Would some of the wisest and ablest men of both these Protestant maritime empires, think seriously of a matter of this high consequence to them, we should soon experience the weight and influence of so happy a commercial concert; it would prove, in its consequences, a far more effectual preservative of the ballance of power than any other expedient, not only in Christendom, but throughout the whole globe, because Great-Britain and Holland, in concert with other of their Protestant allies, would then be able to give law, whenever occasion should require. And this desirable union between these maritime powers, in regard to their trading interest, may not appear impracticable, if ever it

should be thought of in earnest by the joint wisdom of both nations. See the articles UNITED PROVINCES, HOLLAND, FLANDERS, and NETHERLANDS.

Notwithstanding king James exercised great forbearance towards the Dutch and others, yet there was no point of which he was more jealous than of the sovereignty of the sea, which may be seen by the following proclamation, which he issued in the year 1609.

Whereas we have been contented, since our coming to the crown, to tolerate an indifferent and promiscuous kind of liberty to all our friends whatsoever, to fish within our streams, and upon any of our coasts of Great-Britain, Ireland, and other adjacent islands, so far forth as the permission or use thereof might not redound to the impeachment of our prerogative royal, nor to the hurt and damage of our loving subjects, &c. finding our continuance herein hath not only given occasion of over-great encroachments upon our regalities, or rather questioning of our right, but hath been a means of daily wrongs to our own people that exercise the trade of fishing, &c. which is a matter of great consequence to our estate, considering how much the strength thereof consisteth in the power of shipping, and use of navigation; We have thought it now both just and necessary (in respect that we are now, by God's favour, lineally and lawfully possessed, as well of the isles adjacent) to bethink ourselves of good and lawful means to prevent those inconveniencies, and many others depending upon the same: in consideration whereof, &c. we have resolved first to give notice to all the world, that our express pleasure is, that, from the beginning of the month of August next coming, no person, of what nation or quality soever, being not our natural-born subject, be permitted to fish upon any of our coasts and seas of Great Britain, Ireland, and the rest of the isles adjacent, &c. until they have orderly demanded and obtained licences from us, &c. upon pain of such chastisement as shall be thought fit to be inflicted upon wilful offenders.

The Dutch got too much by their fishings on our coast, to be frightened with a proclamation: and this pacific king had no great inclination to any harsher methods than what words would effect. The Hollanders knowing his temper, presumed upon it so far, as to plead immemorial possession. Upon which king James commanded his ambassador at the Hague to give the States-General to understand, that he expected other satisfaction with reference to the fishings. And indeed the Dutch dealt with him so unfairly in that matter, that a prince of more martial temper would have been provoked to a rupture; but negotiations were king James's beloved way of concluding affairs, and a long one commenced about this, in which we shall see what was urged by the English on this subject.

We shall begin, therefore, with an abstract of a letter written by the secretary of state in England, to the English ambassador at the Hague, dated December 21, 1618, viz.

As to their [the Dutch] claiming an immemorial possession, founded by the law of nations, his Majesty will have them told, That the kings of Spain have sought leave to fish there (in the British Seas) by treaty from this crown, and that the king of France (a nearer neighbour to our coast than they) to this day requests leave for a few vessels to fish for provision for his own household, and that it appears so much the more strange to his Majesty, that they, being a state of so late date, should be the first that would presume to question his Majesty's ancient right, so many hundred years inviolably possessed by his progenitors, and acknowledged by all other ancient states and princes. That themselves, in their public letters of the last of June, seemed then to confirm their immemorial possession (as they term it) with divers treaties, as by that of the year 1550; and another between his Majesty's predecessor and Charles V, as prince of those provinces, and not by the law of nations. To which their last plea, his Majesty would have them told, That he being an islander prince, is not ignorant of the laws and rights of his own kingdom, nor doth expect to be taught the laws of nations by them nor their Grotius: for his Majesty taking this for a high point of his sovereignty, will not have it slighted in any fashion whatsoever, &c. Let them advise to seek leave from his Majesty, and to acknowledge him his right, as other princes have done, and do; or it may well come to pass that they that will needs bear all the world before them with their Mare Liberum, may soon come to have neither Terram and Solum, nor Rempubli- cam Liberam. To which letter the ambassador returning an answer, among other things says, 'I told the prince of Orange, That howsoever his Majesty, both in honour of his crown and person, and interest of his kingdom, neither could nor would any longer desist from having his right acknowledged by this state, as well as by all other princes and commonwealths; especially finding the same openly opposed both by their States men of war, and the writings of Grotius, and the taking of John Brown the last year, may testify; yet this acknowledgement of a right and due was no exclusion of grace and favour, and that the people of this country paying

‘ paying that small tribute upon every one of their buffes
 ‘ (which is not so much as disputed by any other nation
 ‘ whatsoever) such was his Majesty’s well-wishing to this
 ‘ state, that I presumed of his permission to suffer them to
 ‘ continue their course of fishing, which they might use
 ‘ thereby with more freedom, and less apprehension of mo-
 ‘ lestation and lett than before, and thereby spare the cost of
 ‘ some of their men of war, which they yearly send out, to
 ‘ maintain that by force which they might have of courtesy.
 ‘ The prince answered, He would do his best endeavour to
 ‘ procure his Majesty contentment, but he doubted the Hol-
 ‘ landers would apprehend the same effect in their payment
 ‘ for fishing, as they found in the passage of the Sound, where
 ‘ at first an easy matter was demanded by the king of Den-
 ‘ mark, but now more exacted than they can possibly bear.
 ‘ And touching their men of war he said, They must still
 ‘ be at the same charge with them, because of the pirates.
 ‘ He asked me whether this freedom of fishing might not be
 ‘ redeemed with a sum of money. To which I answered,
 ‘ It was a matter of royalty, more than of utility, though
 ‘ princes were not to neglect their profit.’ The same am-
 ‘ bassador wrote home afterwards, That the States had acknow-
 ‘ leged their commissioners in England had gone beyond their
 ‘ instructions in using of the term of immemorial possession.
 ‘ But this dispute dropped, and nothing came of it in king
 ‘ James’s reign, except a verbal acknowledgement of his do-
 ‘ minion in the British Seas, with which this king satisfied him-
 ‘ self; and his easiness encouraged our neighbours to contemn
 ‘ the authority of his son Charles I. in the beginning of whose
 ‘ reign they committed innumerable abuses, which provoked
 ‘ his Majesty to equip a fleet, and publish a proclamation, de-
 ‘ claring the reason of his making that armament, A. D. 1636.
 ‘ Wherein having shewn what outrage had been done to his
 ‘ father’s and his own prerogative, by several people fishing in
 ‘ their seas without licence, he says :

‘ We being very sensible of the premises, and well knowing
 ‘ how far we are obliged in honour to maintain the rights of
 ‘ our crown, especially of so great consequence, have thought
 ‘ it necessary, by the advice of our privy-council, to renew
 ‘ the aforesaid restraint of fishing upon our aforesaid coasts
 ‘ and seas, without licence first obtained from us; and by
 ‘ these presents to make public declaration, that our resolu-
 ‘ tion is (at times convenient) to keep such a competent
 ‘ strength of shipping upon our seas, as may (by God’s bles-
 ‘ sing) be sufficient both to hinder such further encroach-
 ‘ ments upon our regalities, and assist and protect those our
 ‘ good friends and allies who shall henceforth, by virtue of
 ‘ our licence (to be first obtained) endeavour to take the be-
 ‘ nefit of fishing upon our coasts and seas in the places ac-
 ‘ customed.’

The Dutch expressing their apprehensions of these naval pre-
 parations to Sir William Boswell, then resident at the Hague,
 he acquainted the ministers in England with it, and Sir
 John Cook, then secretary of state, sent a letter, wherein,
 after he had set forth the several encroachments made by the
 Hollanders on the fishings in the British Seas, and other ma-
 rine offences, he writes thus: ‘ Considering that peace and
 ‘ war must be maintained by the arm of power, which only
 ‘ keeps down war by keeping up dominion, his Majesty thus
 ‘ provoked, finds it necessary, even for his own defence and
 ‘ safety, to reassume and keep his ancient and undoubted
 ‘ right in the dominion of these seas, and to suffer no other
 ‘ prince or state to encroach upon him, thereby assuming to
 ‘ themselves, or their admirals, any sovereign command,
 ‘ but to force them to perform due homage to his admirals
 ‘ and ships, and to pay them acknowledgements as in former
 ‘ time they did. He will also set open and protect the free
 ‘ trade of his subjects and allies, and give them such safe-
 ‘ conduct and convoy as they shall reasonably require: he
 ‘ will suffer no other fleet, or men of war, to keep any guard
 ‘ upon these seas, &c.’ In the same letter the secretary says,
 ‘ We hold it a principle not to be denied, that the king of
 ‘ Great-Britain is a monarch at land and sea, and that it con-
 ‘ cerns him as much to maintain his sovereignty in all the
 ‘ British Seas, as within his three kingdoms, because with-
 ‘ out that these cannot be kept safe, nor he preserve his ho-
 ‘ nour and due respect with other nations.’

This fleet, however, did not finish the work it was designed
 for; and king Charles being afterwards involved in a war
 with his parliament, it was not likely he should then much
 mind his dominion at sea. But when the Rump had the go-
 vernment, they, out of jealousy of the neighbouring com-
 monwealth, fitted out a fleet, to maintain the right of so-
 vereignty of the new pretended sovereigns to the British Seas.
 This fleet was scarce arrived in the Downs, when the Dutch,
 thinking to surprize it, fell upon it, and hoped to destroy the
 naval strength of the English at once; but Blake, who com-
 manded the English fleet, making his party good with them,
 though they had two ships to his one; and Oliver, after they
 had been well beaten in several naval fights, obliging them
 to beg a peace of him, the duty of the flag was heartily agreed
 to, and the sovereignty of the English Seas very plainly ac-
 knowleged by the Dutch, in the 15th and 16th articles of the
 treaty concluded between the two nations, November 15,

1653. The substance of which two articles is as follows :

A R T I C L E X V.

‘ That the ships and vessels of the said United Provinces, as
 ‘ well men of war as others, be they in single ships or in
 ‘ fleets, meeting at sea with any of the ships of the state of
 ‘ England, or in their service, and wearing the flag, shall
 ‘ strike the flag, and lower their top-sail, until they be passed
 ‘ by, and shall likewise submit themselves to be visited, if
 ‘ thereto required, and perform all other respects due to the
 ‘ commonwealth of England, to whom the dominion and
 ‘ sovereignty of the British Seas belong.’

Leo ab Aitzma, fol. 847, says, The States would have this
 addition inserted, after passed by, ‘ In such manner as the
 ‘ same has been formerly observed in any times whatsoever.’
 This article was from hence transcribed into the tenth article
 at Whitehall*, and afterwards into the 19th article at Breda;
 from thence into the 6th article made at Westminster after †;
 and that clause of searching each other’s ships made reciproc-
 al; by the 5th article of the marine treaty at London. By
 the British Seas in this article are meant the four seas, and
 not the Channel.

* September 14, 1662.

† December 18, 1674.

A R T I C L E X V I.

‘ All Dutch ships are allowed to pass and repass in the British
 ‘ Seas, either men of war or others, without any wrong or
 ‘ injury, not exceeding such a number as shall be agreed up-
 ‘ on, &c. but, in case the said States-General shall have oc-
 ‘ casion to pass through the said seas with a greater number
 ‘ of men of war, they shall give three months notice of their
 ‘ intention to the commonwealth, and obtain their consent
 ‘ for the passing of such a fleet.’

Whatever infringements were made of these articles, we
 question whether king Charles II. would ever have broken
 the peace on that account. There is nothing more certain,
 than that the first Dutch war in this reign was owing to
 French councils: however, the effects answer our design,
 and prove that the Dutch, who have most openly oppugned
 the title of the English to the sovereignty of their seas, have
 most solemnly acknowledged it, as may be seen by the 19th
 article of the treaty of peace concluded between that king and
 the States-General, July 29, 1667, to this purpose: ‘ That
 ‘ the ships and vessels of the said United Provinces, as well
 ‘ men of war as others, meeting any of the said king of
 ‘ Great-Britain’s men of war in the BRITISH SEAS, shall
 ‘ strike the flag, and lower the top-sail, in such manner as
 ‘ the same hath been formerly observed in any times what-
 ‘ soever.’

When the Dutch applied to queen Elizabeth for succours,
 one argument for her assisting them, made use of by their a-
 gent, was, that the situation of their provinces would be a great
 security for the preservation of her empire in the ocean; as
 may be seen in Stowe. And how that wise state came to for-
 get themselves so far afterwards, as to put the realm of Eng-
 land to the charge of two or three wars to bring them to rea-
 son, we cannot comprehend: for the homage the English re-
 quire at sea is a trifle, in comparison of the advantages they
 reap by their alliance, and the security of their protection.
 It is probable the imperious methods used by the English in
 demanding the flag of the Dutch, might exasperate that state,
 and that the court of England were excited by the French,
 who under Richlieu began first to apply themselves vigorously
 to the increasing their traffic and strength at sea: but Rich-
 lieu left that undertaking to the famous Colbert, who had
 the glory to finish it, and to see the French fleets in a con-
 dition to contend with the most powerful maritime states.
 He formed companies for trading to Africa, the East and
 West-Indies, and founded a polity for the government of the
 marine. But knowing all the French naval strength would
 signify little, while the English and Dutch continued theirs,
 he may reasonably be supposed to advise his master to set them
 one against the other, in order to destroy them both; and
 how far he proceeded in that fatal design, the histories of the
 reign of king Charles II. will make appear.

England then connived at the growing greatness of France at
 sea, than which nothing could more endanger her maritime
 sovereignty. She not only suffered, but assisted the French to
 build a fleet; and had not the parliament, though almost too
 late, put a timely end to the misunderstanding which the
 French did very industriously foment between Great-Britain
 and Holland, with a design to ruin the naval power of both,
 Lewis XIV. would not have found it so difficult a task to
 acquire the dominion of all the European seas, as he did to
 defend his own coasts and harbours against the victorious fleets
 of the queen of Great-Britain, and the States-General of the
 United Provinces.

The great efforts the French court made to encourage and
 improve navigation, were seconded by the labours of inge-
 nious persons, appointed by the ministry* to write tracts, in

* Monsieur Savary’s French Dictionary of Commerce was
 undertaken in France from this motive; and we find that there

there engaged in that work, written many years since, not only two brothers of distinguished abilities, who spent a considerable part of their lives therein, but that merchants of the first class, the public offices of the kingdom, the council of commerce itself, personages of various ranks, eminent for their knowledge in trade, and even the first ministers of state, unanimously concurred to encourage the composition and publication of that performance, for the benefit of their country: and doubtless they judged wisely, that nothing could more effectually raise an emulous spirit both amongst themselves, and in opposition to foreigners, than the whole nation experiencing the greatest men in it devoted to the general improvement of trade, and earnestly labouring, by their example, to render the knowledge and practice thereof universal in the kingdom: and the event has verified their penetration and foresight.—The present author of this English Dictionary of Commerce never was so happy as to meet with any assistance in this, or any other of his labours in the public service; never met with any patronage from any man whatsoever, nor any sort of public or private encouragement; but on the contrary, he has met with a series of mal-treatment and discouragement, for his zealous and public-spirited endeavours to serve his country.

order to raise the spirit of commerce in the kingdom, and to excite people of all qualities to be more or less concerned in the trading companies that were then forming; wherein the king, and most of the princes of the blood, and the lords of the court, had very considerable shares, that, by their examples, others might be induced to venture in the same bottoms. And to one of these authors we are obliged for an acknowledgement of the English dominion in the seas lying between us and France, which we suppose fell from him accidentally. This passage is to be found in a treatise intitled *Le Parfait Negociant*, written by the *Sieur Savary*, and first published at Paris in the year 1675, with the order and approbation of *MONSIEUR COLBERT*, prime minister for the marine, to whom it was dedicated.

This author, pages 118 and 119, speaking of the discovery of the Canary Islands, says, "That the duke of Burgundy, joining with the king of England, an enemy of France, made a descent into Normandy, with 1000 ships, so that the war being broke out, and the English possessing the sea and our ports, the admiral could not get," &c. Now if the English possessed the sea in such a manner, that the admiral of France himself durst not equip a few transport-ships, to send men and provisions to the Canaries, to the discovery and right of which the French pretend, none can imagine the French at that time presumed to cope with us at sea; and if such a possession as that attributed by the French themselves, was not an authentic proof of dominion, we cannot tell what is.

It is true, the French may answer to this, When we lost their ports, we lost the dominion of the sea; but it has been shewn, that the British naval sovereignty was not founded upon so precarious a possession, but is as old as history, and as undeniable as any thing can be, which is proved by the acknowledgement of all nations and ages. We have looked into the histories of most of our kings, from the Norman invasion, to king Charles the 11th's reign, and have found they all asserted and maintained their dominion of the sea.

King James II. was busied about other things, and what navy he had was intended rather to secure his arbitrary government by land, than to defend his sovereignty at sea. King William, his successor, gloriously asserted and maintained it, in conjunction with the Dutch, by giving laws to all nations, in all the seas in the world where a royal fleet ever appeared. And queen Anne did with the same vigour and success uphold that dominion at sea which king William left her, the French managing their sea affairs like pirates, and pretending to no dominion but what they got by surprize, as corsairs do over ships they can master.

In the late queen Anne's reign we have an instance of her asserting her sovereignty at sea; for admiral Whetstone, in July 1706, meeting with a fleet of Swedish merchantmen, under convoy of a Swedish man of war, her Majesty's ship the *Worcester* fired a gun, as a signal to command the Swedes to strike; but the Swedish captain sent his lieutenant aboard, to acquaint the English commander that he had positive orders not to strike to any flag whatsoever, even in the Channel itself. The captain of the *Worcester* receiving that message, instead of the ordinary marks of homage to be expected from all foreigners in the English Seas, fired a ball, which being answered with a broad-side by the Swede, the *Worcester*, and another English man of war, engaged the Swedish man of war, killed and wounded about 150 of her men, with some loss on their side, and brought her and all the merchant ships into the river; nor were they discharged till satisfaction was given the queen for the affront put upon her admiral in her own seas. Some instances of the same nature, though not so solemn, happened in king William's reign, and will, we hope, be sufficient to induce other nations not to invade the right which the kings and queens of Great-Bri-

tain are as lawfully possessed of, to the sovereignty of the British-Seas, as to the dominion of the British empire at land.

R E M A R K S.

It is an observation worthy the serious attention of every Englishman, That empire has always followed trade, travelling (as it were) from one part of the world to another, as commerce has shifted its station; and, in all countries, still growing or declining in power, in proportion as traffic has been encouraged or disregarded. And the commerce of this nation depends on our dominion at sea.

Cicero ad Attic. says, *Qui mare teneat, eum necesse rerum potiri*: which shews this to have been the opinion of a very great man, who had been at the head of affairs in a powerful state, above seventeen hundred years ago: and the practice of all princes who have lived since that time, and have ever designed either to extend their dominion, or to render themselves considerable to their neighbours, fully proves the observation to be true.

The Romans (who aspired to nothing less than universal empire) while their conquests were confined within the narrow bounds of Italy, were so much prejudiced with the notion of a landed interest, that, as Livy relates, they thought it scandalous for a man of fashion to exercise any merchandize; and, in consequence of that prepossession, they were not in a capacity to make any figure by sea, an element little practised on by them, and less understood. But this notion lasted only 'till they had an opportunity to look more abroad into the world: then experience taught them, as they came to quarrel with the Carthaginians (who at that time were the great trading people) that commerce was necessary to establish their empire, and that not only their conquests were at an end, but the possession of the territories they had conquered was precarious, unless they could acquire and secure to themselves the dominion of the sea.

We have seen that it is not an empty title, which the kings of England have always taken to themselves, of being supreme lords and governors of the ocean surrounding the British shore, but a right which they have constantly maintained, at the expence of numerous fleets. In that famous accord, made between our great king Edward I. and Philip the Fair of France, it appears, that the French king was by him called to an account for piracies, committed by his subjects within the British Seas: and by that memorable ordinance made at Hastings, in the reign of king John of England, the honour of the flag (ever claimed by the English) is decreed to take place universally, not barely as a civility, but as a right to be paid (*cum debita reverentia*) with due deference.

This due maintenance of the sovereignty of the British Seas has animated the English nation to endeavour likewise to maintain, in concert with other allies, a superiority of maritime power in general; whereby, from time to time, the balance of power amongst the European States has been hitherto preserved, and since the Revolution, the Protestant interest, and the liberties of millions of people, may be truly said to owe their existence to the MARITIME PROWESS of these kingdoms in particular; for if this power had not been occasionally exerted, the united maritime power of all other states and empires together, could not have prevented that universal empire of slavery, that has been so steadily pursued by a neighbouring power. See our article FRANCE.

The nations recorded in history to have been at any time possessed of the empire of the sea, have always esteemed a neighbouring prince's offering to set up a naval power, by building more ships of war than were requisite to secure the trade of his subjects from piracies, &c. to be as just a foundation of political jealousy, as the raising of new forts upon his frontiers, or the levying of a formidable army in a time of profound peace: and, therefore, they have always taken measures either to prevent such attempts, or to destroy them in their birth. This was the practice of the Romans, and this has been the practice of his Majesty's royal predecessors the kings of England.

The Romans, as soon as they had acquired the sovereignty of the sea (which they thought not dearly purchased with the loss of above 700 ships) immediately entered upon measures to preserve so valuable an acquisition. They grew watchful over this new dominion, and were soon alarmed by the smallest umbrage from any power that did but seem to interfere with them in NAVAL AFFAIRS. It was from these political considerations that they would not permit the Carthaginians to fit out any fleets, and that they forbade ANTIOCHUS (at that time the greatest king in the East) to BUILD MORE THAN TWELVE SHIPS OF WAR.

Upon the like principles his late Majesty king George acted, when the Spanish fleet was destroyed by Sir George Byng in the Mediterranean. This single action rendered the king of Great-Britain, at that time, as much master of the Mediterranean, as he has been always acknowledged to be sovereign over the British-Seas. This many years prevented the growth of the naval power of Spain: and did not England and Holland act in concert, from the like motive, when they insisted

on the dissolution of the late Ostend East-India company, in the Austrian Netherlands? [see AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, and OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY]: for the chief reason given by the maritime powers was, lest A NEW NAVAL POWER should arise in Europe, in consequence of this commercial establishment.

There is no occasion for troubling my readers with a detail of examples to the present purpose, since nothing is more known in our English history, than that our kings have ever been jealous of their neighbours making use of any pretext to increase their naval strength, and have accordingly judged it of the greatest importance to frustrate such designs, though at the risk of war: for what less did our immortal queen Elizabeth risk, when she sent to the French king, to prohibit his building any more ships of war than what he then had; without her leave first obtained? This was an instance of wisdom and resolution worthy a princess who claimed the sovereignty of the sea.

Our maritime force is undoubtedly our chief bulwark against foreign invasions, and what hath given us so great a weight and influence over our neighbours. It is this only which raised us from a little, despised, inhospitable people, to a great, polite, and formidable state. To this we are obliged for our trade, our riches, the improvement of our land, the consumption of our manufactures, and the possession of all our valuable colonies and plantations abroad, as well as the dominion and sovereignty of those seas which surround us at home.

It therefore behoves us, in the strongest manner, not to suffer the royal navy of England to be insulted, trifled with, or brought under contempt, by friend or foe, under any pretence, or upon any occasion whatsoever. National honour, once lost or impaired, is, like the honour of a private person, very hard to be retrieved. Those nations which have, for several ages, stood in awe of us, will begin to act the part of bullies, if ever we give them the least reason to suspect we are afraid of them. Most people are too apt, through vanity and self-love, to construe the effects of lenity, forbearance, and a pacific disposition, as the result of pusillanimity, and a sudden dread of offending them; which may produce another bad consequence, by depressing the spirits of our sailors, and erasing that laudable partiality for the native valour of their country, which inclines them to believe that no opposition, nor inequality of numbers, is able to withstand it. I think it proper, in the first place, to lay before the reader the instructions, which (as I am informed) are given to all the captains and lieutenants of our men of war, to this effect.

Instructions to the captain.

—Upon your meeting with any ship or ships within his Majesty's seas (which, for your better guidance herein, you are to take notice extend to Cape Finisterre) belonging to any foreign prince or state, you are to expect that in their passage by you, they strike their top-sail, and take in their flag, in acknowledgement of his Majesty's sovereignty in those seas; and if any shall refuse to do it, or offer to resist, you are to use your utmost endeavours to compel them thereunto, and in no wise to suffer any dishonour to be done to his Majesty.

Instructions to the lieutenant.

You are to take upon yourself the intire charge and conduct of his Majesty's said ship, and stand accountable for the well executing the whole duty of commander thereof, during the absence, or in case of the death of your said commander, with respect as well to the printed general instructions given to commanders (a copy whereof is hereunto annexed) as any other particular orders of his Majesty, &c.

I shall now give an instance or two of the strictness with which these orders have been executed in former reigns, and begin no higher than that of king James the First, who, though perhaps the most inactive monarch that ever sat upon the British throne, protected one of the officers of his navy (who had obliged a French ship to strike to him under very particular circumstances) against the strongest representations of that court, and even refused to make them any satisfaction himself, as appears from cardinal Richlieu's Testament Politique, in that chapter treating of the necessity which France is under to be powerful at sea. The cardinal addresses himself to Lewis the XIIIth in the following terms, viz.

—England being situated as it is, if France was not strong in its fleets, might undertake whatever she thought proper to the prejudice of France, without apprehending any return to her disadvantage. She might destroy our fisheries, disturb our commerce, and, by blocking up our greatest rivers, oblige our merchants to pay her what tribute she should think fit to impose upon them. — She might undertake to make descents on our islands, and even on our continent. — In a word, the situation of the native country of that proud nation is such, [proud only, I say, of preserv-

ing her own, as well as the liberties of those whom France would enslave*] that they have no reason to fear the greatest powers of the earth; and the ancient hatred† they bear this kingdom, might probably make them undertake any thing against us, should there ever come a time that we should be so weak as not to have it in our power to act offensively against them.

* See the article FRANCE.

† If England bears any hatred to France, see the reasons why, under our article PLANTATIONS, where we have set forth the perfidy of the statesmen of that nation, for above a century past.

The insolence which the English were guilty of towards the duke de Sully, in the reign of the king your father, ought to oblige us to put ourselves in such a posture, as not to suffer such an affront another time.

That duke being appointed by Henry the Great, ambassador extraordinary to the court of England, and having embarked at Calais, on board a French ship, carrying the flag of France upon her main topmast-head, was no sooner got into the Channel, but being met by an English yacht, that was sent to receive him, the captain of the yacht commanded the French ship to strike.

The duke, thinking his quality of ambassador sufficient to protect him from such an affront, manfully refused to strike; but this refusal being answered by three cannon-shot from the English yacht, which pierced his ship, and, at the same time, pierced the hearts of all good Frenchmen, force obliged him to do that which reason ought to have defended him against; and to all the complaints he made, he could receive no other satisfaction nor answer from the English captain but this, That as his duty obliged him to honour him as an ambassador, it obliged him also to see the honour done to his master's flag, that was due to the sovereign of the seas. — And though king James expressed himself upon this affair in civil terms, his words had no other effect than to oblige the duke to find his only satisfaction in his own prudence, by feigning himself to be cured, at the same that he felt the greatest smart, and that his wound was not to be healed.

The king your father was obliged to dissemble upon this occasion; but with a resolution, upon some other opportunity, to support the honour of his crown, by the naval force which time should make him master of.

I represent to myself this great prince, upon that occasion, laying the scheme which your majesty ought now to put in execution.

The war between the parliament of England and the states of Holland, in the year 1652 (the sharpest sea-war that was ever known between any two nations) was occasioned by this punctilio of the honour of the flag, which the Dutch admiral, Van Tromp, refused to pay to our admiral, the immortal Blake.

In the reign of king Charles the Second, another bloody sea war was commenced between England and Holland, on the same account, with this very particular circumstance, that the captain of a single yacht, sent over to Holland to bring home Sir William Temple's lady, was ordered to demand this acknowledgement from the whole Dutch fleet. I confess the English ministry, at that time, did this in order to pick a quarrel with Holland; but I mention it only to shew the obligation which officers of the navy are under to perform their duty; for whatever the intention of these orders might be, the captain was undoubtedly obliged to execute them, under pain of being dismissed the service with infamy at least.

The late king William, of immortal memory, had the same regard for this right of the honour of the flag, and made it one of his reasons for declaring war against the late French king, as appears from the following article of the declaration itself: 'The right of the flag, inherent in the crown of England, hath been disputed by his; the king of France's orders, in violation of our sovereignty of the Narrow Seas, which in all ages hath been asserted by our predecessors; and we are resolved to maintain the honour of our crown, and of the English nation.'

We shall conclude these instances with a passage out of Sir John Borough's treatise upon this subject.

The sovereignty of our seas (says he) being the most precious jewel of his Majesty's crown, and next under God the principal means of our wealth and safety, all true English hearts and hands are bound, by all possible means and diligence, to preserve and maintain the same, even with the uttermost hazard of their lives, their goods, and fortunes.

SEAMEN. Their importance to this kingdom is too well known to need animadversion; the essential point to be considered is, how they may be rendered more useful to the kingdom than they are, and be kept from going into foreign service, by preferring that of their own country.

It is observable, that whenever this kingdom is engaged in a war with any of its neighbours, two great inconveniences constantly follow, one to the king, and one to trade.

I. That

I. That to the king is, That he is forced to press seamen for the manning of his navy, and force them involuntarily into the service: which way of violent dragging men into the fleet, is attended with sundry ill circumstances; as,

(1.) Our naval preparations are retarded, and our fleets always late, for want of men, which has exposed them not a little, and been the ruin of many a good and well-laid expedition.

(2.) Several irregularities follow, as the officers taking money to dismiss able seamen, and filling up their complement with raw and improper persons*.

* This has been the case ever since the days of the great Sir Walter Raleigh, and it is certainly high time to redress a grievance so injurious to the public.

As concerning the musters and presses, says Sir Walter, for sufficient mariners to serve in his Majesty's ships, either the care therein is very little, or the bribery very great; so that of all other shipping, his Majesty's are ever the worst manned: and at such times as the commissions come out for the pressing of mariners, the officers do set out the most needy and unable men, and (for considerations to themselves best known) do discharge the better sort, a matter so commonly used, that it is grown into a proverb amongst the sailors, That the muster-masters do carry the best and ablest men in THEIR POCKETS; a custom very evil and dangerous, where the service and use of men should come in trial. For many of these poor fishermen and idlers, that are commonly presented to his Majesty's ships, are so ignorant in sea-service, as that they know not the name of a rope, and, therefore, insufficient for such labour. That which might easily be redressed, if the vice-admiral of the shire where men are mustered, and two justices, had directions given to join with the muster-masters, for the pressing of the best men, whom they well know, and would not suffer the service of their prince and country to be bought and sold, as a private muster-master would do. Besides, the captains themselves of the ships, if they be bare and needy (though pity it were that men of such condition should have such charge committed unto them) will oftentimes, for commodity, chop and change away their good men; and therefore it were fitly provided to bridle such odd captains, that neither they themselves, nor any of their men, should receive his Majesty's pay but by the pole, and according as they were set down in the officers books when they were delivered, without changing of any names, except to supply such men as are wanting by death or sickness, upon good testimony, under the hands of the master, the boatswain, the master-gunner, the purser, and other officers of the ship: for it nearly concerns them to look well thereunto, having daily use of them (a).

(a) See Raleigh's Works, by Dr Birch.

(3.) Oppressions, quarrelings, and oftentimes murders, by the rashness of press-masters, and the obstinacy of some unwilling to go.

(4.) A secret aversion to the service, from a natural principle, common to the English nation, to hate compulsion.

(5.) Kidnapping people out of the kingdom, robbing houses, and picking pockets, frequently practised, under pretence of pressing for seamen.

With various abuses of the like nature, some towards the king, others towards the subject.

II. To trade; by the extravagant price set on wages for seamen, which they impose on the merchant with a sort of authority, and he is obliged to give, by reason of the scarcity of men; and that not from a real want of men, for in the height of a press, if a merchantman wanted men, and could get a protection for them, he might have any number immediately, and none without it; so shy are they of public service.

The first of these things has cost the nation more millions of money, during the three last wars, than I care to say, in these three particulars.

(1.) Charge of pressing on sea and on shore, and in small craft employed for that purpose.

(2.) Ships lying in harbour for want of men, at a vast charge of pay and victuals for those they had.

(3.) Keeping the whole navy in constant pay and provisions all the winter, for fear of losing the men against summer, was done for several years, besides bounty-money, and other expences, to court and oblige the seamen.

III. The second of these, viz. the great wages paid by the merchant, has cost trade also above 20 millions sterling. The coal-trade gave, in king William's time, a specimen of this, for the first three years of the war, 9l. a voyage was given to common seamen, who before sailed for 36s. which, computing the number of ships and men used in the coal-trade, and of voyages made, at eight hands to a vessel, does, modestly accounting, make 896,000l. difference in one year, in wages to seamen in the coal-trade only, at that time. In the succeeding wars, the like has taken place, though not quite to so great a degree.

For other voyages, the difference of sailors wages has been 50s. per month, and 55s. per month, and upwards, to foremast-men, who before went for 26s. per month, besides subjecting the merchant to the insolence of the seamen,

who are not to be pleased with any provisions, will admit no half-pay, and command of the captains even what they please; nay, the king himself can hardly please them.

For the cure of these inconveniences, various proposals have been submitted to the public attention; the substance whereof we shall lay before the reader with all brevity.

The first proposal is as follows, viz.

That by an act of parliament, an office, or court, be erected, within the jurisdiction of the court of admiralty, and subject to the lord high admiral, or otherwise independent, and subject only to a parliamentary authority, as the commission for taking and stating the public accounts.

In this court or office, or the several branches of it (which to that end shall be subdivided, and placed in every seaport in the kingdom) shall be lifted and entered into immediate pay, all the seamen in the kingdom, who shall be divided into colleges, or chambers, of sundry degrees, suitable to their several capacities, with pay in proportion to their qualities, as boys, youths, servants, men able and raw, midshipmen, officers, pilots, old men, and pensioners.

The circumstantial of this office.

(1.) No captain, or master of any ship or vessel, should dare to hire, or carry to sea with him, any seamen but such as he shall receive from the office aforesaid.

(2.) No man whatsoever, seaman or other, but applying himself to the said office to be employed as a sailor, should immediately enter into pay, and receive for every able seaman 24s. per month, and juniors in proportion, to receive half pay while unemployed, and liberty to work for themselves, only to be at the call of the office, and leave an account where to be found.

(3.) No sailor could desert, because no employment would be to be had elsewhere in the kingdom.

(4.) All ships, at their clearing at the custom-house, should receive a ticket to the office for men, where would be always choice, rather than scarcity, who should be delivered over by the office to the captain or master, without any trouble or delay; all liberty of choice to be allowed both to master and men, only so as to give up all disputes to the officers appointed to decide.

By this would be avoided the great charge captains and owners are at, to keep men on board before they are ready to go; whereas now the care of getting men will be over, and all come on board in one day; for the captain carrying the ticket to the office, he may go and chuse his men, if he will, otherwise they will be sent on board him, by tickets sent to their dwellings, to repair on board such a ship.

(5.) For all those men that the captain or master of the ship takes, he shall pay the office, not the seamen, 28s. per month (which 4s. per month overplus of wages, will be employed to pay the half-pay to the men out of employ) and so in proportion of wages for juniors.

(6.) All disputes concerning the mutinying of mariners, or other matters of debate between the captains and men, to be tried by way of appeal, in a court for that purpose to be erected, as aforesaid.

(7.) All discounting of wages and time, all damages of goods, averages, stopping of pay, and the like, to be adjusted by stated and public rules, and laws in print, established by the same act of parliament; by which means all litigious suits of this nature in the court of admiralty (which are infinite) would be prevented.

(8.) No ship that is permitted to enter at the custom-house, and take in goods, should ever be refused men, or delayed in the delivering them above five days after demand made, and a ticket from the custom-house delivered, general cases, as arrests and embargoes, excepted.

The consequences of this method.

(1.) By this means the public would have no want of seamen, and all the charges, and other inconveniences of pressing men, would be prevented.

(2.) The intolerable oppression upon trade, from the exorbitance of wages, and insolence of mariners, would be taken off.

(3.) The following sums of money should be paid to the office to lie in bank, as a public fund for the service of the nation, to be disposed of by order of parliament, and not otherwise; a committee being always substituted, in the intervals of the session, to audit the accounts, and a treasury for the money, to be composed of members of the house, and to be changed every session of parliament.

(1.) Four shillings per month wages advanced by the merchants to the office for the men, more than the office pays them.

(2.) In consideration of the reducing mens wages, and, consequently, freights, the owners of ships, or merchants, shall pay, at the importation of all goods, 40s. per ton freight, to be stated upon all goods and ports in proportion, reckoning it on wine-tonnage from the Canaries as the standard, and on special freights in proportion to the freight formerly paid; and half the said price in times of peace.

Note, This may well be done, and no burthen; for if freights are reduced, as they will be if wages are so too, then the merchant may well pay it.

The payment of the abovesaid sums being a large bank, for a fund, and it being supposed to be in fair hands, and currently managed, the merchants shall further pay upon all goods shipped out, and shipped on board from abroad, for and from any port of this kingdom, 4l. per cent. on the real value, bona fide, to be sworn to, it demanded: in consideration whereof, the said office shall be obliged to pay and make good all losses, damages, averages, and casualties whatsoever; as fully as by the custom of assurances now is done, without any discounts, rebates, or delays whatsoever; the said 4l. per cent. to be stated on the voyages to Barbadoes, and enlarged or taken off, in proportion to the voyage, by rules and laws, to be printed and publickly known.

Reserving only, that then, as reason good, the said office shall have power to direct ships of all sorts, how, and in what manner, and how long they shall sail with, or wait for, convoys; and shall have power (with limitations) to lay embargoes on ships, in order to compose fleets for the benefit of convoys.

These rules, formerly noted, to extend to all trading by sea, the coasting and home-fishing trade excepted; and for them it may be ordered,

First, for coals: the colliers being provided with men at 28s. per month, and convoys in sufficient number, and proper stations from Tinmouth bar to the river, so as they need not go in fleets, but as wind and weather present, run all the way under the protection of the men of war, who should be continually cruising from station to station; they would be able to perform their voyage in as short a time as formerly, and at as low pay, and consequently could afford to sell their coals 20s. per chaldron, as well as formerly at 15s.

Wherefore, there should be paid into the treasury appointed at Newcastle, by bond to be paid where they deliver, 10s. per chaldron, Newcastle measure; and the stated price at London to be 27s. per chaldron in the pool, which is 30s. at the buyer's house, and is far from being dear, in a time of war especially, as it is cheaper than ever was known in a war; and the officers should by proclamations confine the seller to that price.

In consideration also of the charge of convoys, the ships bringing coals shall all pay 1l. per cent. on the value of the ship, to be agreed on at the office; and all convoy-money exacted by commanders of ships, shall be relinquished, and the office make good all losses of ships, not goods, that shall be lost by enemies only.

These heads, indeed, are such as would need some explication, if the experiment were to be made, and, with submission, would reduce the seamen to better circumstances; at least it should seem to bid fair to have them in readiness for any public service, much easier than by all the methods of encouragement that have hitherto been tried.

For, by this method, all the seamen in the kingdom would become the king's hired servants, and receive their wages from him, whoever employed them; and no man could hire, or employ them, but from him: the merchant should hire them of the king, and pay the king for them; nor would there be a seaman in England out of employ, which would prevent their seeking service abroad: if they were not actually at sea, they would receive half-pay, and might be employed in works about the ship-yards, stores, and naval concerns, in order to keep all things in repair.

By this means, if a fleet or squadron was to be fitted out on any sudden emergency, they would be manned in a week's time, for all the seamen in England would be ready: nor would they be shy of the royal service, for it is not an aversion to the king's service, nor is it that the duty is harder in the men of war than the merchant-men; neither is it fear of danger which makes our seamen lurk and hide themselves in a time of war, but it is the article of wages is the matter: 24s. per month in the king's service, and from 40 to 50s. and upwards per month from the merchant, which is the true cause; and the seaman is in the right of it, for who would serve his king and country, and fight, and run the risk of being knocked on the head, at 24s. per month, that can have 50s. without the like degree of hazard? and 'till this be remedied, in vain are all the encouragements which can be given to seamen; for they tend but to make them insolent, and encourage their extravagance.

Nor would this proceeding be any damage to the seamen in general, for 24s. per month wages, and to be kept in constant service, or half-pay when idle, is really better to the seamen than 45 or 50s. per month or upwards, as they now take it, considering how long they often lie idle on shore, out of pay: for the exorbitant rate of seamen's wages, though it has been an intolerable burthen to trade, has not visibly enriched the sailors, and they may as well be content with 24s. per month now as formerly.

On the other hand, trade would be sensibly revived by it, the intolerable price of freights would be reduced, and the public would reap an immense benefit by the payments mentioned in the proposal: for,

(1.) Four shillings per month upon the wages of all the seamen employed by the merchant, which if we allow 200,000 seamen always in employ, as there cannot be less in all the ships belonging to England, is 40,000l. per month.

(2.) Forty shillings per ton freight upon all goods imported.

(3.) Four per cent. on the value of all goods exported or imported.

(4.) Ten shillings per chaldron upon all the coals shipped at Newcastle, and 1 per cent. on the ships which carry them.

What these four articles would pay to the Exchequer yearly, it would be very difficult to calculate: but, perhaps, few single taxes ever given in time of war, have exceeded it.

It is true, out of this the public would be to pay half-pay to the seamen, who shall be out of employ, and all the losses and damages on goods and ships; which, though it might be considerable, would be small, compared to the payment aforesaid; for as the premium of 4 per cent. is but small, so the safety lies upon all men, being bound to insure: for I believe any one will grant, that it is not the smallness of a premium ruins the insurer, but it is the smallness of the quantity he insures; and, perhaps, if a premium of 4 per cent. be paid into one man's hand for all goods imported and exported, and any man might be the general insurer of the kingdom, and yet that premium could never prejudice the merchant adventurer.

So that the large revenue which this should raise, would be felt no where; neither poor nor rich would pay the more for coals; foreign goods would be brought home cheaper, and our own goods carried to market cheaper; owners would get more by ships, merchants by goods, and losses by sea would be no loss at all to any body, because repaid out of the public stock.

Another unseen advantage would arise by it; we should be able to out-work all our neighbours, even the French and the Dutch themselves, by sailing as cheap, and carrying goods as cheap in time of war as in peace; an advantage, which has more in it than is easily thought of, and would have a noble influence upon all our foreign traffic. For what could the Dutch or the French do in trade, if we could carry our goods to Cadiz at 50s. per ton freight, and they give 8 or 10l. and the like in other places? Whereby we could be able to sell cheaper, or get more than our neighbours.

There are several considerable clauses might be added to this proposal, some of great advantage to the general trade of the kingdom, some to particular trades, and more to the public; but I avoid being too particular in things which are but the product of a private opinion.

If the government should ever proceed to the experiment, no question but much more than has been hinted at would appear; nor do we see any great difficulty in the attempt, or who would be aggrieved at it; and there I leave it, rather wishing than expecting to see any thing like this undertaken.

Another PROPOSAL suggested by the judicious Mr Carey, late of Bristol, merchant, in his Discourse on Trade.

That gentleman observes, 'That navigation is the medium between our inland and foreign traffic: the latter is carried on by ships and sailors; the former are the sea-waggons, whereby we transport and carry commodities from one market to another; and the latter are the waggoners, who drive and manage them: these are a sort of jolly fellows, who are generally bold in their undertakings, and go through any kind of labour in their own way, with a great deal of cheerfulness; are undaunted by storms and tempests, the sea being as it were their element, and are allowed by all to be the best navigators in the world; they are our wealth in peace, and our defence in war, and ought to be more encouraged than they are in both, but especially in the latter; which might be done, if better methods were used to engage them in the service, and better treatment when they are there: now I should think, if no man was forced into the king's ships 'till he had been three years at sea, nor to stay there above that time without his free consent, and then to be permitted to take a merchant's employment so much longer, and so totois quotois; it would encourage them to come willingly into the service, which they look upon now to be a slavery, whereto they are bound for their lives: this, and the manner of presssing them, hinders very much the making of sailors, land-men not caring to put their hands to the oar, lest the next day they should be hauled away to the fleet, though they understand nothing of the sea: by this means our men of war would be manned with able seamen, and not with such who only stand in the way, and are useless, when they are most wanted; nor do I take embargoes to be any help towards it, for many sailors do then lie hid, who would appear to serve in merchants ships, and might be easily met with at the return of their voyages: by these means, in a short time, there

there would be a double set of mariners, enough both for the service of the fleet and of trade, the last of which would every year breed more.

This would also prevent great mischiefs, which arise from pressing sailors out of merchant-ships whilst on their voyages, many of them being thereby lost at sea, and others have been detained in the West-Indies, to the discouragement of trade; and it would also prevent another mischief, too much practised abroad, where captains of men of war press sailors from one merchant-ship, only to make advantage by selling them to another.—Thus far Mr Carey.

There has lately appeared a treatise, drawn up with no less judgment than zeal towards the public interests, entitled, *An Essay towards a method of speedily MANNING a FLEET, upon any SUDDEN EMERGENCY.*—After this ingenious gentleman has shewn the necessity of the nation being always in a condition to man and equip a respectable fleet at short warning, he then modestly submits his own proposal for a voluntary REGISTER for SEAMEN to public consideration, the substance of which is as follows, viz.

I. When a king's ship returns from a voyage or cruize, &c. and is to be paid off, the captain or commanding officer should have power to declare to the ship's company, that any able-bodied man, desirous to enter his name, &c. in the register for seamen, is at liberty to do it, under the conditions therein mentioned and prescribed; which are to be then publicly and audibly read to the men, that no person may afterwards plead ignorance.

II. The men should be called over by their names, according to the ship's book; and each man asked separately, whether he chuses to enter his name in the REGISTER or not. If he does not, he should be at full liberty to refuse it, but having once refused it, should not afterwards be admitted, so long as a sufficient number of others offer themselves to complete the REGISTER.

III. A list being thus taken of the names of such as are willing to enter, and are fit for the service, proper columns are to be made for entering, at the same time, each man's age, complexion, stature, marks, if any trade, county or country, and the city, town, hundred or hamlet, he declares his intentions to go to for the present.

IV. A copy of this list, signed by all the commission and warrant officers on board, is to be forthwith sent to the admiralty or navy-board, from whence præcipes or orders will be issued to the several magistrates of the cities, towns, &c. to which these men go (according to the list) to enter the name of every man that comes into his district, with all his descriptions, and the name of the place he last came from.

V. A return is to be made to the admiralty, &c. every month, more or less, by the mayor, bailiff, or nearest justice of the peace, of the name and description of every registered man that has come into, or left his district during that month, taking particular care to mention the place he declared an intention to go to; whilst the other magistrate, of or near the place he goes to, makes in the same manner his return, specifying the place from whence any new man last came.

Let it be taken for granted, says this gentleman, that a REGISTER for SEAMEN would be a successful and proper method to engage their service: the next point to be considered, is what number of men would answer that purpose.

I shall leave that entirely to the wisdom of my superiors.—But permit me to suppose at present, that the number was to be 10 or 12,000 men; and that each man was to receive after the rate of 5*l.* per ann. or 2*s.* a week, which amounts to 5*l.* 4*s.* a year. The sum necessary to pay 10,000 men, would then be 50,000*l.* or 52,000*l.* a year, and so in proportion for any greater or smaller number.

After the rate of 500 men to a ship, this number would equip 20 or 24 line of battle ships: and if these be not sufficient, this method does by no means preclude the pressing of vagrants, idle, loose, and disorderly men, without any visible means of maintaining themselves in an honest industrious calling. On the contrary, let the magistrates exert themselves, and be every where encouraged to seize, imprison, and convey to the several sea-ports, all persons under that description; and by dividing these dissolute fellows amongst the several ships, more hands would be added, more ships equipped, and the country cleared of these noxious irreclaimable villains. This would be pressing in a legal manner, and perhaps the only method for putting a stop to the outrages daily committed in all parts of the town and country.

Fifty thousand pounds a year may, perhaps, at first view, be esteemed a very large additional expence to the nation: but when the advantages arising from it shall be considered, I flatter myself, that every well-wisher to his country would think that sum, or even a much larger, well employed. Some few of these advantages are as follow:

First, This may be a means of saving a large expence to the nation, by deterring our neighbours from any sudden and rash attempts upon the rights and privileges of the

crown and subject. For when they know us in a condition to do ourselves justice, as well as disposed to resent an injury, they may not be so forward in disturbing our tranquillity and peaceable disposition.

Secondly, A great many lives may hereby be spared. For if this scheme should prevent insults and incroachments, which are generally the first seeds of war; the consequence is, that many officers and seamen who would be engaged, and lose their lives in that war, are hereby saved to the public.

Thirdly, These men, who have been employed in the service of their country in time of war, would, in time of peace, have some gratification for their former fatigues and dangers, instead of being turned adrift to starve, rob, and murder, as they actually do; or being driven, by necessity, into foreign service.

Fourthly, Large annual sums are now raised and paid, as rewards, for apprehending highwaymen, footpads, &c. who are brought to the gallows and gibbet; a great part of which might probably be saved, as well as the lives of these miserable wretches, were this scheme to take place.

Men who have been forcibly taken from their trade and family, and have been kept four or five years abroad, who have lost almost all the skill they had in their several callings, and, perhaps, been deprived of their friends by death, removals, &c. can scarce settle immediately to any useful and industrious way of life, when turned ashore. But this scheme would, in a great measure, prevent them from taking any desperate courses; it would give them an assurance of not wanting some provision for the future, the want of which generally drives such men to extremities. And as the lords of the admiralty would have a power to discharge any man who behaved ill, this would oblige the men to a more sober and regular behaviour. The very register would be a great check to such irregularities: for, as the place of each man's residence, and his description would hereby be well known, he would certainly, sooner or later, be discovered: he would be just in the same condition as a deserter from the army, few or none of which escape punishment.

But, moreover, an encouragement of this sort might probably draw many of our men out of foreign service, to that of their country again. An advantage of inestimable value, as it not only weakens their hands, but strengthens ours.

It is true, they receive, when paid off, the wages due to them: but this only leads them into lewdness, debauchery, and bad company; which so far corrupt their morals, whilst the money lasts, that, when it is gone, they associate into bands of the most abandoned sort, and perpetrate all manner of wickedness, to enable them to continue in and support the way of life they have fallen into.

As a farther encouragement to be given to such seamen as shall voluntarily enter themselves, it is proposed,

First, No man should be allowed to ply a boat on any river, in any port or harbour, unless he be registered, if a registered man offers himself for that purpose.

Secondly, A worn-out registered man, not admitted into Greenwich-Hospital, should be allowed to ply a boat, as above, in preference to any other registered man, and consequently to any man not registered.

Thirdly, Preference should be given to a man registered before a war, to remain upon the list in time of peace (if able and fit for service) before any man registered during the war, and before the peace.

Fourthly, All warrant-officers doing duty on board any ship in ordinary, by a deputy, should be obliged to take a deputy from amongst the registered men (if any such offers, that is fit for the business) rather than any other man, under a penalty.

Fifthly, A registered man to be received into Greenwich-Hospital, in preference to a man not registered; and when struck off the list, as no longer fit to serve, to be constantly received there.

These regulations necessarily require the keeping an exact account of the date of each man's registry.

As this scheme proposes the keeping up the number of 10 or 12,000 men, exclusive of those employed on ordinary occasions in time of peace, it becomes necessary, that as soon as any registered man is taken into the king's service (except in time of war) another man be admitted to register in his stead. I have here inserted an exception, which, in my humble opinion, had better have been omitted. For, if a fund were once raised, and appropriated to that sole use, I do not perceive the least inconveniency that could arise from continuing that method in time of war likewise; that is, when any register for service, the same should be completed as soon as possible: otherwise our enemies, knowing that our stock of seamen is drained, would no longer stand in awe of any further armaments. But, in the height of a war, it can scarce be supposed we should have men enough completely to man our fleet, and to fill the register at the same time. If so many men should be found, then we

have always 10 or 12,000 men ready upon any occasion. If, as is most likely, men should be wanting, then the fund would thereby be so long increasing, and enabled, at the conclusion of the war, to provide for so many more men as should be judged proper.

The only inconvenience I can foresee that may attend this measure is, that, at the end of the war, the register may possibly be full, and, consequently, no room left for such as have served during the war. But that is not at all likely; and if not, then the increase of the fund will admit of so many additional men, for a time at least: and we presume to hope, that a scheme of this nature will be so generally approved, as in time to meet with all the encouragements at this day bestowed upon other generous and charitable institutions, no one of which can be put in any competition with this, for the importance of, and advantages arising from, it, to the nation in general, and every individual.

Perhaps it will be said, That every body is convinced of the necessity of encouraging our seamen, and having always a certain number ready to be called together at short warning: but the difficulty is, how to find a proper fund for that purpose.

How difficult soever that may be, if it is necessary, if the mercantile interest, and our general safety, suffer by that neglect, the difficulty should be no objection. Large sums are annually expended in buildings, and other, perhaps, necessary works; but surely no one of them can be compared to this for expediency, and general advantage.

When our real interest is in question, it is not to be doubted but a British house of commons will find the proper resources. See An Essay towards a Method of speedily MANNING A FLEET upon any SUDDEN EMERGENCY. Printed for Sandby in Fleet-Street.

R E M A R K S.

In the year 1740, the house of commons gave leave to bring in a bill for registering all seamen, watermen, fishermen, keelmen, bargemen, and seafaring men, capable of service at sea, throughout his Majesty's dominions; but it being judged by the house to be overloaded, and too arbitrarily to affect the liberties of the subject, it was dropped; upon which the house resolved itself into a committee of the whole house, to consider of heads of a bill for the further and better encouragement of seamen to enter voluntarily into his Majesty's service; in which committee several resolutions were agreed to, but nothing further done.—It may be useful, however, here to give the several resolutions of the house of commons upon this occasion, which are as follow, viz.

1. That a voluntary register of seamen will be of great utility to this kingdom.
2. That it shall extend to all the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain.
3. That the fraternity of Trinity-house of Deptford Strond be intrusted with the management of the said register, with power of appointing inferior officers and servants necessary for the execution of the said trust.
4. That a certain sum of money be paid to every man who is willing to register.
5. That every registered man should be obliged to give an account of the place of his abode to the register office.
6. That the registered men shall be divided into classes.
7. That a yearly pension be allowed to every registered man who shall be disabled in fight, over and above such allowances as are now given, and a yearly pension to every widow of a registered man slain in fight, over and above the present allowances made to such widow; and if the party leaves any children, that each of them have a yearly pension, until they arrive at the age of fourteen.
8. That every registered man be exempted from paying the king's or parish taxes, or serving any parish offices, or serving in, or contributing towards, the militia.
9. That none be preferred to be petty officers in any of his Majesty's ships but registered men.
10. That all petty officers in merchants ships, as boatswains, gunners, &c. be chosen out of the registered men.
11. That all men who shall register themselves do remain on the register no longer than to a certain age.
12. That all men who shall have continued on the register a certain age, do enjoy all the advantages of registered men during life.
13. That all registered men shall have the preference of being admitted into Greenwich Hospital.
14. That all captains and commanders of his Majesty's ships of war, who shall be applied to in foreign parts, shall take on board any registered men, and the men so taken on board shall, from that time, be deemed part of the ship's company, and receive wages accordingly.
15. That registered men be allowed to go into the merchants service, when the service of his Majesty shall not require them, and that the proper officers do give them certificates for the same.
16. That registered men be intitled to receive their wages in certain proportions.

17. That all seamen now absconding in foreign parts, or at home, on account of running goods, who shall enter on board any of his Majesty's ships, and claim the benefit of this register, shall be intitled to their pardon, except persons who have been concerned in actual murder.

18. That all registered men who shall be summoned to appear on board any of his Majesty's ships, and shall neglect or refuse to do the same, shall be subject to be punished as deserters.

19. That all foreign seamen who shall claim the benefit of this register, shall be intitled to all the rights and privileges of natural-born subjects.

20. That the trustees of charity schools for the education of boys, shall be obliged to put forth apprentices to the sea-service, such as shall find masters willing to take them.

21. That the registered men shall wear some honourary mark of distinction.

22. That the register-office be obliged to give an account to the lord high admiral, or the commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral, for the time being, of all the men that shall be registered.

23. That the register-office shall, on the receipt of an order from the lord high admiral, or the commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral for the time being, for any number of men contained on the register, issue out their order for the said number of men to appear, according to the order directed to them as aforesaid.

FURTHER REMARKS.

Were an act of parliament to be passed for establishing 10,000 able seamen certain for ever, for the king's service, we may presume to affirm, that it may be plainly demonstrated, that the advantages which would accrue therefrom to every part of the nation in general, would render the extraordinary expence of such establishment, if any at all, very inconsiderable. Should any one be startled at the very found of such a large number of men, without giving himself either time to consult the merits of another proposal we are about to offer, which may be drawn from what has been said, ask, in objection to it, what occasion the government would have, during the time of peace, which may sometimes hold, very probably, for ten or twenty years, to encumber itself with such numbers of a set of people, who, in their opinion, must be very unnecessary? we shall request of him a candid perusal of what follows, and doubt not but to find him much better reconciled.

By the advance money that should be given, and the certainty of not being dismissed, after any short expedition, from his Majesty's service, to make what provision they can for themselves, in that of others, the number of volunteers that would immediately offer themselves, would very quickly make up the list proposed; nor would the manner in which they should be employed, even at those times when the fleet may have a call but for a very few of them, be a less temptation for them to enter.

As his Majesty's docks and yards do continually maintain a very large number of workmen, in the several articles relating to the navy, one part of the said seamen might, with little prejudice to the hands already employed, be made use of in time of peace, in the work there: at first, in such parts only of it, as may be most easily attained in a very little time, 'till by degrees they may arrive to such a tolerable knowledge in the others, as will not only enable them, by the money they shall earn, to maintain themselves and families very comfortably, but render them, when required to their original province of sailing, more useful and expert in the intire management of every particular belonging to the ship; whilst the other part of them, or as many as there may be a call for, provided it does not exceed one half of the number, unemployed in his Majesty's fleet, shall have a permit for a year, to sail in such vessels as are coasters, or make short voyages, such as to France, Ireland, Norway, &c. by which means they will acquire such perfect knowledge of the many rocks and sands that almost intirely surround us, that they may prove, when summoned again into his Majesty's navy, of very important use, even in the quality of pilots. And to prevent any difficulty, or dispute, that may arise between the masters of such vessels and the king's sailors, that want to ship themselves on board them, the merchants or masters, bound for any such ports as abovementioned, shall be obliged to receive into their vessels one half of their complement of the KING'S MEN, at the common wages, who shall likewise have a written power, or authority, granted them, to ship themselves on board any coasters or vessels trading as before-mentioned, in any port of Great-Britain where they are, provided they do not exceed the number of other hands shipped on board of the said vessels.

A REGISTER may also be kept at every port, of the number of hands each vessel ships, that the government may be assured of the punctual and ready compliance of the merchants, or captains, in receiving one half of their complement of king's men, without any manner of evasion or objection, if such offer themselves. And if it should so chance, that many of these sailors should seek employment all at the

same port, where there were vessels lying in expectation of hands, there may be such regulations, that no one vessel should take in more than an equal proportion of the said sailors. As for instance, if three vessels lay in the same port, supposing each vessel carry ten hands, and five of his Majesty's men should offer themselves only to one of these three ships, they shall not be allowed to go all together in that one vessel, but shall distribute themselves amongst the three, and that vessel, whose lot it was to have but one, shall receive the next king's man that comes to enter himself at that port, as his fair dividend.

Noowners, or masters of the vessels beforementioned, shall prefer, in their first choice of the hands they propose to ship, any other sailors to those belonging to his Majesty; but if no application is made from any of them, the captains may be at their own discretion to receive others for the whole voyage. And for the future ease of the said established number of seamen, and to make them in every degree more useful to the government, after the expiration of the year, for which the permit was granted to one half of them to go into the merchants service, there may be an exchange of stations for the same length of time, between them and the other half that were left and employed at home. By these measures the grandeur and security of the nation will stand upon an immoveable and unperishable basis; and the inconveniencies which it may otherwise sustain, from having most of the hands in their vessels, during the time of war, impressed, perhaps, just as they are clearing out for their voyage, and laden with commodities which may be in danger of being greatly damaged by such a retardment to their sailing, will immediately vanish, and the approach or declaration of a war carry with it none of the ill effects on the apprehensions of the trading people, which it may at present.

The number of sailors which the government, upon this scheme, may have occasion to distribute amongst them, ought, very far from being judged an act of compulsion, to be received as the strongest instance of its lenity, tenderness, and regard for their interest. The king's men; it is to be presumed, will be as good, if not better, than what they may otherwise be obliged to take up with; nor, if any exigency of affairs should constrain the government to call off these men into the royal service, can they possibly think the losing a part of their complement an hardship, as their voyages will be so very short, that they may have time enough, from the first summons of his Majesty for his sailors to return, 'till the time limited for such return (which may be three weeks, or a month) to provide themselves with a supply, and even without being necessitated to pay any such exorbitant wages as the scarcity and timidity of the seamen, during the time of a press, exacts from them. If, as I am informed by some persons who pretend to have made a pretty exact computation of the number of seamen employed in the home and neighbouring trades, there may really be 30,000, then, were the whole established number of his Majesty's seamen distributed equally among the merchants, in the room of some of the others, such seamen would be but one third of each ship's complement; so that the merchants can neither scruple to receive so few, to the prejudice of the other sailors, nor think it any grievance to part with them, when his Majesty's occasions demand them.

As it is an inherent principle in every Englishman, to submit with reluctance to any thing that seems to carry a check upon his liberty and free choice; so I would not, in this engagement to his Majesty's service, have men constrained to bind themselves up either for life, or for a long term of years, but chuse to leave it to their own discretion to quit the service when they have an inclination, on this easy and reasonable condition only, that they shall be obliged to give a year's notice of their intention, on the failure of which, proper penalties may be thought of to be inflicted. Such an argument as this will be no more than what is entered into almost every day between man and man, in every branch or kind of business; but for their encouragement not only to enter, but to continue in the service voluntarily, I could wish an easy fund might be found out, whereby the government might be enabled to cloath them from head to foot, once in two years, with a badge of the flag of England, as a peculiar and honourable distinction from all other sailors: those cloaths to be worn by such as work in the yards, only at such times as they shall be absent from their work.

So many brave and skilful men, all appearing in a national livery, cannot but affect the minds of every thinking British spectator with the most sensible satisfaction, when he beholds the true protectors of the kingdom's grandeur and happiness so deservedly cherished; and every foreigner will have the strongest sentiments as well of our gratitude and policy, as of our undoubted security. The men themselves, when the necessity of affairs may have recourse to a strong navy, will think themselves under the greatest obligations to repay, with extraordinary cheerfulness and bravery, such extraordinary marks of the nation's bounty and regard for them. For the first three years, any able seamen may be admitted upon this establishment, not exceeding forty years of age, but, after the said three years, none shall exceed the age of thirty. And as a

further reward and inducement for their long continuance in the service, it is proposed, that those who have served for such a term of years, or done such services as the discretion of the board of admiralty, or the commissioners, shall judge worthy of it, shall receive a small pension for life, though they are not any way disabled in the service; and in case any of them leaves a widow, she shall enjoy for her life one moiety of what was before his allowance; but if any of them quit the service, and afterwards re-enter, they should have but half the benefit of the time they served before. And if any of them, whilst in the merchants service, should, by any accident that might happen to the vessel, in using their endeavours for its safety or otherwise, sustain any damage in their limbs, so as to render them incapable of earning their bread as sailors for the future, they should be considered, notwithstanding, as the king's men, and receive the same benefit of a pension, or the hospital, as if they had sustained such wounds or damage in the king's own ships. And at last, to all these considerable and inducing advantages, I would join that great and most necessary encouragement of all, the certainty of having their pay, whatever capacity they serve in, whether in merchant-ships, or the governor's own, on the most easy regulations both to themselves, their creditors, friends, or relations, who may be their executors, or possessed of their powers of attorney, without any unnecessary delays upon account of unjust and vexatious claims, and free from exorbitant and unwarrantable deductions, which has been but a too frequent and enormous practice.

During our wars with the French in our late reigns, complaints of this kind were so loud, so miserable, and so numerous, that they pierced the hearts of every Englishman, excepting such as were the principal authors of their oppression, and made a very guilty gain from their miseries.

In that melancholy time their hardships, I have been assured, were as great, as if some of the persons to whom a part of the inspection and management of the naval affairs was entrusted, had been in an actual league with the French to destroy them.

That they were impressed from their callings at home, or on their return, perhaps, from a tedious East-India voyage, when they were big with the hopes of refreshing themselves on shore for a few weeks, and regaining, in their own native air, their health and vigour, which might be impaired by a long continuance in a foreign climate.

This was a grievance that might easily allow of a mitigation, and be rendered in some part justifiable, from the necessities of the state at that time, provided they had not been forced into a service, where, from the corrupt management of some avaricious persons, there was not only an uncertainty of receiving the pay they should be intitled to in such service, on any reasonable terms, but danger of being defrauded of the greatest part of it, together with a probability, from too severe a confinement on board the fleet (which was sometimes for two or three years together) of forfeiting, by their deaths, the benefit of what was due to them from the merchants, from whose service they were so abruptly taken, or leaving it, at least, a disputable legacy to their widows, or other relations.

From this inability of the sailors to make such convenient returns of their pay as would have been a comfortable subsistence to their distressed families, the parishes were loaded with insupportable taxes for their relief, whilst the purfers were suspected and accused, by the miserable sufferers, of burthening the sailors with large demands for the little conveniencies they were obliged to take up of them, that some, when they had the favour of having their accounts in some manner stated, had not, perhaps, one farthing to receive. To this manifest discouragement of the sailors, when on board, was owing the absolute necessity of impressing them during all those wars, in such a violent manner, that he who could hide himself from the diligent pursuit of a press-gang, thought it as great happiness, even though he was almost starving all the while, as if he had escaped falling into the hands of an Algerine rover; and the merchants have been obliged to advance their wages from 24s. to 50s. and 3l. and upwards, a month per man, after the inconvenience of waiting a long time, before even that would be a sufficient temptation for any of them to venture. Nor were the colliers forced to give less extravagant hire in proportion, for the bringing their vessels up the river.

I mention these inconveniencies, which in the times before named affected not only the merchants and the seamen, but the whole nation, not so much as an handle for a general outcry against the custom of impressing men into his Majesty's fleet, as from a melancholy reflection, that the said economy at that time used in distributing their due encouragement to each sailor, should force the government to such rough measures as it then did, to obtain an able one: whereas, had it been otherwise, and each man knew how to come at what he had earned in a less dilatory and disadvantageous manner, I sincerely believe that above half the money that was allowed for impressing men had been saved, and that abundance of seamen would have thought the glory of serving in the navy preferable to some advanced wages they might gain from the merchants.

Should

Should any of the methods we have suggested for executing what is proposed, appear to the judgment of others, not so entirely practicable, as we have the zeal to imagine they may be, we are confident, the numerous advantages prefigured therefrom, for the good of our king and country, will render any errors of that zeal pardonable. To be so well fortified in that most valuable branch of Great-Britain's security (its maritime force) as not only to be in a constant readiness to engage in a war, but from the reputation of such an armament, in a capacity to prevent the approaches of one, appeared to me such a desirable blessing, that no difficulties ought to discourage any true and honest lover of his country, from using his utmost abilities to obtain it.

To give a cheerful and suitable encouragement to the sailors, is no more than an act of justice and gratitude due to them as our protectors, and of prudence to ourselves, as being protected and aggrandized by them. And we have engaged the more strenuously in favour of this one point, as it is but too manifest, that from a deficiency of such encouragement, and the want of means to make some certain provision for them, after they are discharged from on board the fleet, many out of the numbers that are unemployed at the same time, are obliged to go into foreign service, that only great and dangerous possibility of rendering our present imagined superiority over all other nations precarious for the future; every foreign realm, whose interest it is to turn its genius to maritime affairs, searching diligently after, and receiving greedily, ENGLISH SEAMEN, preferably to those of their own, or any other nation; whilst others of them, too frequently from a dearth of employment, are tempted to supply their necessities, by plundering, robbing in the streets, breaking open houses, &c. too notorious an evidence of which is, that at almost every sessions at the Old-Bailey, there has been, at such times, generally one or more seamen among the people convicted of capital crimes. A prevention, therefore, of these grievances, is to be wished, as much for the security of the government, as for the ease of the people. That the merchants should suffer as little as possible, either from the damage done to their goods, or the losing some part of the benefit of the foreign markets, from being detained too long in their home ports, by the seizure of their men, or by being obliged to give extravagant wages for seamen, who, perhaps, may be only foreigners, old men, or boys, as few others will venture themselves during the time of a press, should be the speediest caution of a government, whose REVENUE is so much interested in the flourishing or oppressed condition of the trading part of the nation. That the parishes should not be overburthened by an extraordinary charge of poor, which must be the case, when persons, who are, perhaps, settled in a tolerable way of business, able to support themselves and families, are involuntarily hurried on board the fleet; and, in short, that no sudden preparations for war, should be of so ill consequence to the meaner sort of people, as to diminish the benefit of what they earn by hard labour, by creating any advanced prices on the most common necessities, demands the consideration of their superiors, not less from humanity than policy.

Thus, from such regards as these being shewn for the strength of the kingdom, and the felicity of all the members of it, every thing must flourish in the most delightful manner, the sovereign fortified against all attempts of his enemies, and the people ready to make him the most grateful returns for their prosperity.

REMARKS upon the whole of the article SEAMEN.

The reader has now before him, under this article SEAMEN, the substance of what has been proposed since the Revolution, in regard to the measures requisite to be taken, in order to the speedy manning of the royal navy upon any emergency. Which of these proposals may deserve the preference, or whether any of them may be eligible, I shall not take upon me to declare; the judicious, perhaps, may find something in every one that may deserve their attention, and may, from the whole, form one better than either. It is observable, that the sense of the parliament has been to promote a voluntary register; and the scheme proposed in the essay before cited seems to be built upon the same principles; and, indeed, all compulsory methods upon this occasion ought to be avoided, because they are likely to have no better effect than the violent means of impressing men by force have hitherto had, and, therefore, can by no means answer the salutary end proposed. Moreover, whatever hath a tendency to strike at the liberties of the whole seafaring body of the people, should be studiously guarded against in a land of liberty. Nor will the violent and arbitrary example of France, or that practised in any other nation, have any weight with Great-Britain, to induce her to follow it; and, therefore, every thing that can be urged from topics of this kind, will lose its weight with a British parliament. That something effectual is indispensably necessary to be done, to answer an end so much for the safety and glory of the kingdom, is agreed on all hands.

The methods which the French and Spaniards have lately taken, have rendered them, in case of a war, much more

powerful enemies than they were some years ago. Our trade can never be said to be safe, unless our ships of war are, at least, equal, if not superior, to theirs in number. That we exceed them as yet in number, as well as in goodness of ships, is a point not to be disputed: may this superiority long continue! I think it must, and will, if we are not wanting to ourselves; but it behoves us to have a watchful eye upon their motions. These neighbours of ours are daily increasing their fleets, and sending large armaments (in time of peace) to different parts of the globe, in order to make new settlements, enlarge their commerce, and protect their subjects. It is notorious that the Spaniards, with a high hand, encourage their guarda costas in the West-Indies, even to insolence, as well as injustice. And it is allowed that the French, by secret methods, and by open and hostile attempts, are endeavouring to disturb and endanger our settlements in the East-Indies, as well as those in America. The present state of their maritime power must, undoubtedly, be the true cause and foundation of all these outrages. Such attempts would be useless and impolitic, if they apprehend any probability of our calling for an immediate reparation of damages; but they are perfectly acquainted with our situation, and bid defiance to our number of ships in harbour. They know it would be exceedingly difficult for us to equip even a small fleet, upon any sudden emergency; wherefore they presume upon our not doing it, till we are driven to it by some great and absolute necessity. They are apprized of the impediments arising from our constitution, and the time it takes to man a fleet, let the circumstances be ever so pressing, and perceive that their ships may be at sea, and possibly have struck their stroke, before a small squadron of our large ships can be manned and equipped.

At the conclusion of the last war, when the first ship was paid off, there were, if I mistake not, 65,000 seamen on board his Majesty's fleet; and yet, when a few ships were, a little while ago, to be fitted out for the East-Indies, we were obliged to have recourse to severe methods, in collecting a sufficient number of hands to man them, so as to sail in due time. Nay, further, when only four ships were ordered, the last spring, to take on board the troops for Gibraltar and Minorca, they were, if I am rightly informed, detained a considerable time, only for want of hands to man the ships for so short a service. Our seamen, as well as artificers, are said to be engaged in foreign service, where they meet with proper encouragement: whereas we take little or no care of them, any longer than whilst we want their assistance. Thus when press-warrants are issued, the poor fellows abscond, and run any hazards, rather than be forced into the service; the few that voluntarily enter, or are taken in their lurking-holes, are no better than slaves; for as new ones are no where to be found, so those no sooner return from a long and hazardous voyage, than they are turned over to other ships, and are sent upon some distant expedition.

Of our LAWS relating to SEAMEN.

Every seaman in the service of the crown, or any subject, except of hoys, smacks, &c. belonging to London, employed in bringing corn, fish, or provisions, to pay 6d. per month to Greenwich-Hospital. Masters of ships to detain the 6d. per month, out of seamen's wages.

The 6d. a month paid by seamen, shall extend to ships belonging to Great-Britain and Ireland, and the islands in America, &c. and collectors to be appointed, who may examine all masters of vessels; and they to pay the duty before ships are cleared, under the penalty of 20l.

Only the seamen in the king's service were entitled to a place in Greenwich-Hospital; whereupon the following act was made, setting forth, that

As there is no provision made for such seamen in the merchants service, as are disabled by accidental misfortunes, or for those worn out by age, or for the widows or children of such as shall be killed or drowned in the said service; and as the seamen in the said service are willing to allow 6d. per month out of their wages, to be applied for the relief of such as shall be disabled or worn out by age, and of the widows and children of those killed in the said service;

It is provided that Alexander Hume, John Bristow, John Bance, Henry Gough, &c. shall be one body corporate and politic, by the name of the president and governors for the relief and support of sick, maimed, and disabled seamen, of the widows and children of such as shall be killed, slain, or drowned in the merchants service; and that by the same name of the president and governors, they shall have perpetual succession; and that they may receive and enjoy in trust, for the purposes of this act, all such sums of money as are granted, and shall be raised by virtue of this act, or shall be contributed or bequeathed by well-disposed persons; and that they may at any time hereafter, without licence in mortmain, purchase or receive any lands, tenements, or hereditaments, or any estate or interest therein, so that the same be only for the site of, or to be converted into, an hospital, with offices and appurtenances necessary for the said purposes.

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The president and governors shall provide in the said hospital for the reception of seamen rendered incapable of service, or shall allow them certain pensions, or otherwise, as they shall think most for the advantage of the said charity; and shall also relieve the widows and children of such seamen as shall be killed or drowned in the said service, provided such children are not of the age of 14, or if, of that age or upwards, they are incapable of getting a livelihood, by reason of lameness, blindness, or other infirmities, and are proper objects of charity: and shall make reasonable allowances to those who shall lose an eye or limb, or be otherwise hurt in fighting, defending, or working the ships in which they serve, or in loading or unloading the cargoes, or otherwise howsoever in doing their duty, in proportion to the damage they shall receive, so far as the revenues will extend for the said purposes, according to such rules, orders, and regulations, as shall be established in pursuance of this act.

No seaman shall be provided for by a pension or otherwise, as decrepit or worn out, unless he shall have served five years in the merchants service, and paid 6d. per month out of his wages for that time for the purposes of this act.

If any person shall at one or more payments contribute 50l. for the purposes of this act, he shall be declared a governor of the said corporation.

Every seaman, or person employed in any vessel belonging to a subject of England, and every master or owner navigating the same (other than such apprentices, under the age of eighteen, as are exempted from payment of 6d. per month to the hospital at Greenwich, by an act of 2 Anne, and persons employed on the coasts of England, in taking of fish brought fresh on shore; and persons employed in boats or vessels that trade only from place to place within any river in England, or in open boats upon the coasts thereof), and pilots employed on board vessels, shall, after the 29th of September 1747, pay 6d. per month, and proportionally for a lesser time during their employment, for the purposes aforesaid.

The master, owner, or commander, of every vessel, is to deduct out of the wages, &c. of every such seaman, &c. (except as before excepted) the said duty of 6d. per month, and shall pay the same to such receivers as the president and governors, or the trustees of the out-ports, shall appoint, if such seamen, &c. shall have or be intitled to any wages, shares, or profits.

Those seamen who shall have been longest in the said service, and contributed most towards the said duty, shall be first provided for as worn out or decrepit.

If any seaman, or other person employed on board any vessel, shall, in the discharge of his duty, either on shore or on board, break any limb, or be otherwise hurt, so that immediate care is necessary to be taken of him, the president and governors of the port of London, and the respective trustees for the out-ports, shall provide proper relief for such person, until he be so well recovered of such hurt, as to be removed and sent with safety to the port to which such vessel belongs; and the expence thereof, not exceeding 2d. per mile, shall be paid by the president and governors at the port of London, or by the trustees for the out-port to which such person shall be sent.

If any seaman or other person shall serve five years or more in the merchants service, and shall have paid the 6d. per month for that time, and shall be adjudged by the president and assistants, or the respective trustees, a proper object of relief, he shall be provided for at the port where he shall have paid the greatest part of the said duty for the last five years of his service.

If it shall happen that seamen employed in the merchants service, within the limits of this act, shall be shipwrecked, or taken by the enemy, and on their return from their imprisonment may be travelling with passes to the place of their abode, the president and governors, and the respective trustees, may relieve them in such manner as they shall think proper.

Whereas the united company of merchants of England trading to the East-Indies, have at their own expence provided for such seamen employed by them as have been rendered incapable of service, and have established a fund for that purpose, and are therefore desirous that the persons employed in the said service, may be exempted from the payment of the said 6d. per month; it is therefore enacted, that no officer, seaman, &c. of any vessel, employed in the service of the said company, shall, during the time of such service, be liable to the payment of the said duty.

No officer or seaman, &c. during his employment in the service of the said company, nor the widows or children of such as shall be killed or drowned, shall be entitled to any benefit by this act, during the time they shall be employed in the said service.

The act for making perpetual an act for the better regulation and government of seamen in the merchants service, and for extending the provisions thereof to his majesty's colonies in America, was made in the 1st year of George III.

From and after the 1st of May, 1764, all the provisions, penalties, matters and things, in the act of 2d of Geo. II.

are extended to his majesty's colonies in America; and the forfeitures applicable to Greenwich Hospital are to be paid there, to the officer constituted by the admiralty; and masters of ships deducting any of the said forfeitures out of the seamen's wages, and not duly paying over the same, forfeit treble the value to the use of the said hospital.

SHIP-BUILDING, see ARCHITECTURE MARINE:

SHIPPING.

The dimensions, tonnage, and number of guns of some men of war built in Spain, the Indies, France, England, and Genoa; and the rules of the Spaniards, French, English, and Dutch, in regard to their sailors and mariners, according to Don Geronimo Uztariz, the celebrated Spaniard.

In the collection of the laws of the Indies, and some other books published in Spain, there are instructions and directions for building ships; and there were plans drawn up by lieutenant-general Don Antonio Gassaneta, and approved by his Majesty, in the years 1713 and 1720. Though both these schemes met with opposition from the variety of opinions usual upon such occasions, and the disagreement between kingdoms in this article, which not only differ from one another in their rules, but even from themselves in practice, we ought to prefer the plan laid down by this general for his Majesty's ships of war, both from his great experience in navigation, and his skill in naval architecture, acquired both by theory and practice; and pursue it at least, till his Majesty shall think proper to prescribe another.

In each of these plans are expressed the particular dimensions and other circumstances, that ought to be observed in building men of war and merchant ships; however, I shall give the dimensions, number of guns, and men of a ship, built after the rules practised in Cantabria, and also of some others built in France, England, Genoa, and Campeachy, within the last five and twenty years; and at the same time say something of our old method of building; that as we observed the great disagreement already mentioned, by comparing our own rules with those of foreigners, we may be most likely to discover the best and safest plan. This account is taken with great care from the papers drawn up at Cadiz in the year 1718, by some officers of his Majesty, of great experience in the sea service, who made a very particular survey of these and the rest of the ships and frigates of his Majesty's fleet that year. The extracts which I have taken from this memorial, are as follow:

The ST LEWIS, built in Cantabria in the year 1715, a third rate.

	Span.	cu.	In.
Length by the head of the keel	60	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
Length on the gun-deck	70	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
Breadth on the beam	18	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
Depth	9	$\frac{1}{4}$	0
Main-tack	19		2
Quarter-deck	17	$\frac{1}{4}$	0

	Pound.	Guns.
The lower tier	18	26
The second tier	12	26
The third tier	6	8
Total of guns		60

It is to be observed, that in manning ships of war at Cadiz, they neither observe the old customs of Spain, nor yet that of the French, English, or Dutch, and therefore I shall give each of them distinctly.

The number of hands on board the ships of the Spanish fleet in general, was after the rate of 26 sailors and 26 marines to a hundred tons. But in the capitana and admiral's ship, after the rate of 28 of each sort to a hundred tons, and upon account of the signals a hundred hands more, viz. 50 sailors and 50 marines, were added to the complement of each ship, agreeable to several royal ordinances, made between the years 1677 and 1682.

To a ship of 60 guns were allowed as many }
gunners, and a fourth more, making in all } 75 gunners.
There was added a fourth of this number }
75, viz. 18 sea-officers, which makes } 18 sea-officers
There were sailors equal in number to both }
these sums, and a fifth more, or } 111 sailors.
Boys equal to a third part of the sailors, or } 37 boys.

Total 241
To these 241 mariners were added the same }
number of marines } 241 marines.
Both sums, in which their officers are included, make } 482 hands.

S H I

The complement of a French man of war is three men, a gunner, a marine, and a sailor, to every four pounder.

To a	—	—	—	—	6 pounder,	5	} men.
To an	—	—	—	—	8	7	
To a	—	—	—	—	12	9	
To an	—	—	—	—	18	11	
To a	—	—	—	—	24	13	
To a	—	—	—	—	36	15	} 560 hands
So that a ship of sixty guns, viz. the St Lewis, which mounted 26 eighteen pounders, 26 twelve pounders, and 8 six pounders, according to this rate, has for her complement -							
The English and Dutch say, they have a man less than the French to every gun, so that their complement of sixty gun ships must be after this rate - - - -							} 500 hands
A Spanish ship's complement for sixty guns						482	
French - - - -						560	
English and Dutch - - - -						500	hands.

A distinct list of the officers, sailors, marines, &c. making up the 500 hands, which, according to the custom of Spain, were allowed to a sixty-gun ship, including fifteen swobbers, that were not reckoned in the 482; because the full complement was shipped according to the rate of the men of war, independent of these, there having been a reform made in respect to the number of marines, which before made up half the ship's crew, that they might be reinforced with troops in case of their making any invasion ashore; but as engagements at sea are now decided by great guns, sailors are fittest for this service.

Superior officers.

Captain	-	-	-	-	-	1	} 5
Lieutenants	-	-	-	-	-	2	
Ensigns	-	-	-	-	-	2	
Chaplain	-	-	-	-	-	1	} 4
Secretary	-	-	-	-	-	1	
Surgeon and mate	-	-	-	-	-	2	

Sea officers.

Master	-	-	-	-	-	1	} 21
Pilate de Altura	-	-	-	-	-	1	
Coasting pilot	-	-	-	-	-	1	
Pilotines	-	-	-	-	-	2	
Master's first and second mate	-	-	-	-	-	2	
Armourers	-	-	-	-	-	2	
Carpenters and mate	-	-	-	-	-	2	
Alguacil of water	-	-	-	-	-	1	
Diver	-	-	-	-	-	1	
Quarter-masters	-	-	-	-	-	8	

Artillery officers.

Constable and mate	-	-	-	-	-	2	} 7
Gunners	-	-	-	-	-	4	
Gunsmith	-	-	-	-	-	1	

Mariners.

Quarter-gunners	-	-	-	-	-	75	} 308
Sailors	-	-	-	-	-	193	
Boys	-	-	-	-	-	25	
Sweepers	-	-	-	-	-	15	

Marines.

Cadets, or guards marine	-	-	-	-	-	8	} 155
Serjeants	-	-	-	-	-	12	
Corporals	-	-	-	-	-	15	
Marines	-	-	-	-	-	120	

Total of the ship's crew 500

To these 500 men are appropriated 509 ratios, or allowances per day, in consideration that 6 ratios are assigned to the captain of every large ship, and to the cadets or guards marine, during any expedition, half a ratio extraordinary. So that these multiplied by 30, the number of days in a month make 15,270 ratios.

The following articles make up a thousand ratios.

Biscuit	—	11 Quintals, 25 pounds.
Wine	—	46 Arrobs, 7 azumbres.
Bacon	—	1 Quintal, 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ pounds.
Beef	—	1 Quintal, 46 pounds.
Bacallao	—	86 Pounds.
Cheese	—	54 Pounds.
Butter	—	1 Quintal, 25 pounds.
Oil	—	1 Arrobs, 2 pounds.
Vinegar	—	1 Arrobs, 4 azumbres.
Wood	—	15 Quintals.
Water	—	125 Arrobs.
Salt	—	1 Celemin.

S H I

In the 30 ratios, or day-allowances, are included the following articles for every thousand.

White biscuit	—	22 $\frac{1}{2}$ Pounds.
Mutton	—	10 Pounds.
Fowls	—	2 $\frac{4}{7}$ Fowls
Eggs	—	30 Eggs.
Raisins	—	3 Pounds 10 ounces.
Almonds	—	2 $\frac{3}{4}$ Pounds.
Sugar	—	14 $\frac{2}{3}$ Ounces.
Charcoal	—	15 Pounds.

The ship Nuestra Senora de Begona, built at Genoa, in the year 1703.

Fourth rate.		Cubits
Length by the head of the keel	- - - -	63 $\frac{1}{4}$
Length on the gun-deck	- - - -	70 $\frac{1}{4}$
Breadth on the beam	- - - -	20 $\frac{1}{4}$
Depth	- - - -	9
Main-tack	- - - -	20
Quarter-deck	- - - -	19
Tons	905	
Men	450	

Metal.		Guns.
Lower tier	24 pounders	10
Ditto	12	12
Upper tier	8	22
Forecastle	6	8
Stern-chase	8	2

Total of guns 54

The ship Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe, built at Campeachy in the year 1702.

Fourth rate.		Cubits
Length by the head of the keel	- - - -	55
Length on the gun-dock	- - - -	64
Breadth on the beam	- - - -	17 $\frac{2}{3}$
Depth	- - - -	9 $\frac{1}{3}$
Main-tack	- - - -	17 $\frac{1}{3}$
Quarter-deck	- - - -	16 $\frac{3}{4}$
Tons	725	
Men	358	

Metal.		Guns.
Lower tier	18 pounders	22
Upper tier	8	20
Forecastle	4 and 6	8

Total of guns 50

N. B. In the memorial it is mentioned, that notwithstanding this ship was seventeen years old, it might still be fit for service twelve or fourteen years more, on account of the goodness of the timbers.

The Hermione frigate, built at Brest in the year 1702.

Fourth rate.		Cubits
Length by the head of the keel	- - - -	56
Length on the gun-deck	- - - -	64
Breadth on the beam	- - - -	16
Depth	- - - -	7
Main-tack	- - - -	16
Quarter-deck	- - - -	15 $\frac{1}{2}$
Tons	500	
Men	300	

Metal.		Guns.
Lower tier	8 pounders	24
Upper tier	6	22
Forecastle	3	6

Total of guns 52

The St Joseph frigate, built in England in the year 1704.

Fifth rate.		Cubits.
Length by the head of the keel	- - - -	45 $\frac{2}{3}$
Length on the gun-deck	- - - -	52 $\frac{3}{4}$
Breadth on the beam	- - - -	14 $\frac{2}{3}$
Depth	- - - -	6 $\frac{1}{4}$
Main tack	- - - -	14
Quarter-deck	- - - -	12 $\frac{1}{3}$
Tons	338	
Men	160	

Metal.		Guns.
Tier of guns	6 pounders	22
Forecastle	3	4

Total of guns 26

S H I

The ship Conde de Tolosa, built at Toulon.

Third rate.				Cubits
Length by the head of the keel	-	-	-	65
Length on the gun-deck	-	-	-	75
Breadth on the beam	-	-	-	20 $\frac{1}{4}$
Depth	-	-	-	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Main-tack	-	-	-	19 $\frac{1}{2}$
Quarter-deck	-	-	-	11 $\frac{1}{4}$
Tons	—	752		

Metal.				Guns.
Lower tier	-	18 pounders	-	24
Upper tier	-	12	-	22
Forecastle	-	-	-	10

Total of guns 56

English packet, or advice-ship, built in England.

				Cubits.	Inch.
Length by the head of the keel	-	-	-	24	00
Length on the gun-deck	-	-	-	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	00
Breadth on the beam	-	-	-	10	00
Depth	-	-	-	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	00
Main-tack	-	-	-	00	00
Quarter-deck	-	-	-	8	18
Tons	—	102			
Men	—	82			

Metal.				Guns.
	-	3 pounders	-	10

The ship the Conquistador, built in England.

				Cubits.
Length by the head of the keel	-	-	-	63
Length on the gun-deck	-	-	-	73
Breadth on the beam	-	-	-	18 $\frac{1}{2}$
Depth	-	-	-	8 $\frac{1}{4}$
Main-tack	-	-	-	18 $\frac{1}{2}$
Quarter-deck	-	-	-	17
Tons	—	776		
Men	—	530		

Metal.				Guns.
Lower tier	-	18 pounders	-	26
Upper tier	-	12	-	28
Forecastle	-	8	-	10

Total of guns 64

Of the ROYAL SHIPPING, or MARINE of FRANCE, and other STATES, being an abstract from M. DESLANDES, drawn up by the order of, and addressed to, the Count DE MAUREPAS, secretary of state and of the marine in France.

Every body knows the several establishments of the marine in France; every one knows, at least in the gross, what pains, what labour, what vast sums of money they have cost; how many experienced arts and artisans have been drawn together, all of them, in point of curiosity, as well as utility, worthy the particular attention even of such as are used to, and well versed in, these sort of things. These establishments are likewise remarkable, by a great number of officers of all ranks, placed in such a relation to each other, as that their subordination assists, and never prejudices, their duty; and as, in the marine, there are three principal objects, that, by turns, command and employ all their care, so these officers are divided into three classes, who have, indeed, different parts assigned them, but who, by the discharge of their several duties, contribute all to one great end.

The first object of the marine in France is, as it were, a prologue to the rest; and consists in assembling the materials that are proper, in sorting and in disposing them, so as to render them applicable, with the greatest ease, to all the uses of navigation. These preliminaries relate to the viewing, purchasing large falls of timber, and appropriating them to their proper uses, on the knowledge of buying and so ting an infinite number of all kinds of commodities, on the manner of employing them, and drawing the greatest utility from them, in the construction, careening, and equipment of vessels. It is discernable at first sight, that to be master in this art, there is required a judicious mixture of theory and practice, joined to a very extensive genius, perfected by a constant experience.

Hence it is that France have never had, in the marine, but two intendants of consummate abilities, viz. Desclouseaux and Vauvre, both chosen by M. de Seignelai, both of them men of elevated genius, who had high conceptions, and who never considered difficulties in any other light, than as steps conducing to the glory of surmounting them.

The second object comprehends the management of the dif-

S H I

ferent branches of duty on ship-board, and the conduct of ships at sea, or navigation, strictly and properly taken: and this supposes two parts, viz. the art of piloting and of working: the first respects the use of the compass, maritime charts, instruments for taking the height of celestial bodies, or for measuring the ship's run, with the rules and conjectures necessary to make a good estimate [see the article NAVIGATION]. The other regards the management of the sails and of the helm, as well with regard to her course, as to the advantages that may be obtained from the winds, and from currents, and with respect to the ship's driving or altering her course through their force*. How many opportunities are there here for exercising all the faculties of the human understanding!

* Mr Pitot, one of the members of the Royal Academy of Sciences, has given us an excellent work on that subject, which far exceeds any hitherto published. The book mentioned by our author, is entitled, The Theory of working Ships applied to Practice, containing the Principles and Rules for Sailing with the greatest Advantage possible.

The last object of the marine seems only to comprehend what is accessory; and yet this, by little and little, comes to be considered as the principal part. The accessory consists in certain forms and methods, which are settled in every port, in order to bring all expences to a just account, fixing the estimate, muster-rolls, and other things of a like nature, and, in short, what is called keeping the ship's books. It is true, that, generally speaking, these things are necessary and useful, especially in providing against frauds and abuses; and yet it may be that even these frauds and abuses had better be borne with, than the tedious and troublesome parade of formalities invented to get rid of them.

To these three classes answer three sorts of officers, who keep themselves each to his province, and never pretend to carry their views farther. This is all that is expected at this time of day: so that every profession is bounded, and any one of them is thought sufficient for the exercise of one man's capacity.

This is, in gross, what concerns the royal marine. As to the marine in the hands of private persons, it is distributed through, and flourishes in, all the maritime provinces of the kingdom, where it is more or less distinguished, first, according to the degree of fortune, ability, and industry of those concerned in it; secondly, in proportion to the quantity of gold or silver that circulates; thirdly, according to the critical circumstances, which increase and diminish, quicken or retard, this circulation. Hence it is, that the same places are not always equally powerful, or possessed of an equal share of trade. Repose and inaction frequently succeed the greatest hurry; sometimes, also, that luxury, which follows riches at the heels, as they again are produced by trade; that luxury creates such a dissipation of wealth, that, before it is well seen, it vanishes away.

Upon this subject I will just mention one of those happy observations that every body makes, and no body minds. Most of our traders burn with vehement desire of growing rich: to do this, they spare neither pains nor labour, but run all hazards, and endure all toil, to attain this end; but when they are once become excessively rich, by all their assiduity and fatigues, they think of nothing but procuring pompous titles, and noble alliances, of which they find just cause to repent, every vein of their hearts: they are despised and slighted, while they foolishly consume what with such infinite labour they acquired.

There cannot be then any thing more useful for exciting and recompensing judicious and able traders, than to teach them that sensible maxim of the author of Oeconomies Royal and Politic, viz. To banish intirely luxury and superfluity, whence their ruin is drawn on, and thereby a wide gap opened in society.

Commerce by sea is carried on in three different ways: the least considerable is that from one port or creek to another, and which is called coasting: it serves principally for maintaining a constant correspondence between all the maritime provinces of the kingdom, by supplying from one what is wanting in another. This commerce is so much the more advantageous in France, because it encourages industry, and may be carried on with equal ease and safety in almost all seasons of the year; whereas, in the northern countries in England, and even in Holland, they are blocked up the best part of the winter by the ice, which hems in their vessels, and exposes them to greater inconveniencies, by unexpected shocks when at sea: France is, besides, much less exposed to sudden inundations of the sea, and there happen fewer shipwrecks on its coasts than on those of other countries, though even its coasts are not every where free from danger.

The second kind of maritime commerce is, that which is carried on throughout Europe, and comprehends those real and effectual succours which one country lends another, and by which all its several kingdoms become reciprocally useful.

These succours consist either in the products of their soil, in the works of manufacturers, or in curiosities; and it is easy to

to discern, that the better any kingdom is stocked with these, the more strangers will resort thereto, and the more trade will flourish. The two branches of which it is composed in all countries are, as I have said, the product of a fruitful soil, and the labours of an industrious people.

France, in her hemp and flax from Bretagne; in the salts of Brouage, of Marennes, and of Croisic; in the red wines of Bourdeaux; in the white wines of Anjou; in the brandies of Nantes, of Cognac, and the Isle of Rhé; in the papers of Auvergne and Angoulême; in the parchments of Normandy, and the gold and silver brocades fabricated at Lyons; in all sorts of grain, wheat, barley, oats, rye, has sufficient resources for commerce, which never can fail her. I must confess, that since the revocation of the edict of Nantes, over which we ought to draw a veil, as the most unlucky event in the reign of Lewis XIV. I must confess, I say, that many of our manufacturers are naturalized in foreign countries; but there are still enough left in the kingdom, if they were well managed, both to employ its inhabitants, and to enrich them. All that we ought to fear is remissness, bad working, and, if I may dare to speak out, a spirit of fraud and deceit; for we ought not to flatter ourselves, that through the wise rules, and from the authority of many royal ordinances, which direct the observations of those rules, our manufactures are no longer subject to these three sorts of revolutions.

From the time that Edward the Third drew over a vast number of artizans, who escaped from the excessive cruelty committed by the Spaniards in Ghent, Louvaine, and other cities of Brabant, and made use of them for establishing in England woollen manufactures, these manufacturers have never degenerated, have never lost their credit or reputation*; they are still on the same foot, and furnish fine cloths of all colours, with which the English carry on a large trade, as well in Germany, by means of the staple they have established at Dort, as in the Levant, by the way of Smyrna. Heretofore, neither they nor the Dutch could approach the coasts of the Grand Seignior's dominions, but under the banner of France [see the article *LEVANT TRADE*], but at this day they trade there in their own name, and in their own right; and one may very safely say, that, in proportion as their trade has increased, our's has suffered by many losses, bankruptcies, and other causes of declension, that many very much question whether it will ever be able to recover its ancient lustre. The voyages of which I have been hitherto speaking, even such as carry us to the very extremities of Europe, merit only a cursory attention: the true commerce by sea is that which embraces the other three parts of the globe, that which requires the whole force and skill of the nautic art. As the dangers therein are greater, and the risks run more than ordinary, so its profits are also very considerable; and it is thence that we derive so many shining fortunes, acquired by lawful means, and which ought never to be confounded with those hastily raised and odious estates drawn out of the miseries of the people, and tinctured, if I may so say, with their blood.

* We wish what Monsieur Deslandes says upon this occasion was true; but some recent instances prove the contrary, to the great scandal, as well as detriment, of the English woollen manufacture: but it is to be hoped that the legislature will take due notice of a practice so pernicious in its consequences. See the articles *ARTIFICERS*, *MANUFACTURES*, *MECHANICS*, and *ROYAL SOCIETY* of LONDON.

Almost all the nations of Europe carry on, at this day, some commerce either with Asia, Africa, or America; but we are not to conceive from thence, that this renders them all equal. Though the Portuguese are very justly considered as the restorers of the marine, and of navigation, as having heretofore great territories in Asia, insomuch, that several Arab kings were in their pay, and many pagan princes thought themselves honoured by the commands of these new masters, their authority, however, is now but the shadow, and their power but the skeleton, of what it was. [See the article *PORTUGUEZE EAST-INDIA TRADE*.] They support themselves on the remains of their old reputation, which time has almost worn out; and Goa itself is no longer known but for its terrible inquisition, that horrible tribunal*, where no forms of justice are observed, and where natural equity never finds a place in their decrees. The Hollanders, at present, are the great masters of the commerce in the East-Indies, which they manage with infinite address, mingling com-

* The history of this inquisition was written by a physician, who had proved not its salutary, but its unjust rigours. Happy France, to have looked always with horror on a tribunal which has so much discredited, and rendered so odious the Christian name! More happy still, if the priests do not, some how or other, find means to introduce it under another name!

The physician mentioned above, was one Mr Dellon, and a very good book his is; but the best that I have ever seen on the subject, and that which deserves to be read by every curious person, is the *Memoires Historiques pour servir a l'Histoire des Inquisition*. A Collogne 1716, 2 vols. 12mo.

plaisance with a spirit of dominion, and having equally recourse to artifice and force. An ancient writer wished, that arms were always subject to the gown; at Batavia, and in the rest of the Dutch colonies, they are both subject to trade.

All the world knows that the best part of America belongs to the Spaniards: I must confess I am a little in the dark as to their title; nor can I positively say, whether the ill usage they have given the natives, and the many thousands of their throats they have cut, has created them a good one: but this is certain, that their power is too extensive in itself, too ruinous, by the conduct of their bishops and governors, who purchase all their dignities and employments, and too much hurt by that fraudulent spirit of private gain, which possesses all who reside there, to subsist long. Besides this, their government grows daily worse and worse, there being little union between the principal who manage there, and a kind of insensible usurpation growing up, which the Spaniards themselves do not perceive, or, which is worse, affect not to perceive.

The principal fault in the government of these vast kingdoms appertaining to the Spanish monarchy is, that their orders never arrive in time, and, when they do arrive, it is next to an impossibility to get them executed; two things which usually cause the miscarriages of all great affairs.

Within about half a century past, the English have found the true method of managing affairs in America, and without which they will hardly ever succeed: all their steps in that country are directed with the utmost prudence; they search for, and embrace, every new branch of commerce that industry can discover, or that chance presents; they protect and perfect all their old colonies, and, at the same time, do not neglect planting new; in short, they act as if fortune had reserved for them, some time or other, the intire dominion of that mighty country*.

* The English reader should be here put in mind, not to be led away with the praises bestowed upon their nation by this writer, and of their wisdom in conducting their colonies. These are not to be considered as genuine and candid representations, flowing from the real sentiments of the author, but as artificial colourings, necessary to raise the jealousy of those to whom he writes, and making his countrymen thereby the more keen for the destruction of this kingdom.

As to the advantages, continues this writer, which regard the marine, and which France, in her situation, may find in her own proper bosom, they may be reduced to four; of which the first, without contradiction, is her situation, the most commodious, and the most advantageous that can be in the world, as well for attacking as defending, and for disturbing the commerce of others, as for cultivating her own; sending to all places, and receiving trading vessels from all parts of the earth: hence it was said to the late Czar, Peter I, whose head was always full of great projects, and to the king of Sweden, Charles XII, so unfortunately assassinated before Frederickshal, That, if any kingdom could aspire to be the mistress of all her neighbours, it must be FRANCE. In effect, she is placed in the middle of Europe: nothing can impede, nothing can prove an obstacle to her; she commands, on the one side, over the ocean, and it seems, by the extent of her coasts, by their turnings and windings, that the seas of Spain, Germany, and Flanders, struggle to pay her HOMAGE; on the other, she is bounded by the Mediterranean, looking full upon Barbary, having on her right-hand Spain, at her left Nice, Genoa, the dominions of the Grand Duke, and all the rest of Italy. What a situation is this, if we knew but how to make use of it, and if, opening our eyes to our interest, we no longer languish in soft effeminate idleness!

The English and the Dutch are forced to strike out far for whatever is necessary to them, and are constrained to put out to sea, in order to reconnoitre and attack their enemies; whereas FRANCE is able to attack them, as it were, hand to hand, to combat with advantage, and to retire with ease; which are advantages of no small consequence at sea: but, what is still more, foreign vessels that return from long voyages, worn and beaten by the wind, and by the tempests, foul in themselves, and weakly manned, pass, as it were, under our eyes, in the view and at the mercy of FRANCE, as cardinal d'Ossart observes, and, in spite of themselves, must approach our coast. One may easily judge what a facility this gives of carrying them off, or, at least, disturbing their navigation, which must turn, says the same cardinal, to the profit and commodity, to the safety, grandeur, and reputation, of the crown of FRANCE.

As to the rest, all that I have been saying here is not to cry up, or to make an elogium on war, in order to turn mens minds thereto, who have, perhaps, but too great an inclination for it already. I know, on the contrary, all the merit of a gentle and moderate government, of a government where justice and good faith preside, where all endeavours are used to drive out the seeds of hatred and jealousy, and where no pains are spared in the cultivation of tranquillity

tranquillity and peace; but to avoid being deceived, says cardinal Richlieu, we must sleep like the lion, WITHOUT SHUTTING OUR EYES, which ought to be continually open, in order to foresee the smallest inconveniencies that may happen. For hence it is that we often see in states, that such evils as were imperceptible in their origin, and which were least thought of, are the most dangerous, and those which prove of the greatest consequences in the end.

In effect, a wise prince, and one who has regard to his interest, ought to watch attentively over every thing that may contribute to the service, or to the prejudice, of his crown. He ought, with the same vigilance, to weigh duly the present situation of his own kingdom, and of the other kingdoms that surround him. While the ballance continues even, an easy and pleasant union will certainly reign; but, as soon as this fails, quarrels, animosities, and dissensions, will arise, and will encrease: FRANCE is too clear-sighted ever to be ignorant of the EXTENT OF HER POWER, and nothing can outrage her more sensibly, than to suspect her being ignorant of it. Always ready to DECLARE WAR, she ought, however, never to attempt it unjustly; ever in a condition to defend herself, she should never be in a disposition to bear injuries: *Veniendum tunc ad arma*, said Theodoric, king of Italy, *cum locum apud adversarias justitia non potest reperire*; i. e. We are then to have recourse to arms, when justice no longer finds place amongst our adversaries.

It is reported, that Henry III. imagined one night that he was in the midst of a troop of lions, tigers, and leopards, ready to devour him; and the next morning, quite out of his wits, and terrified about the consequences of a dream, which he ought to have despised, flew to the castle of Madrid, where he kept a great many foreign wild beasts, and ordered them to be all killed in his presence. This tragedy settled his mind, as idle and ridiculous as it was. Any one might have whispered in his ear, 'The animals that threatened you, were not those in your menagerie, but, on the contrary, your neighbours, always disposed to hurt you, and above all, your MARITIME neighbours.'

The second advantage in which we ought to think ourselves happy is the security of our coasts, which in a manner defend themselves, and which have hitherto defeated all the descents that ever were attempted on them. Witness those that admiral Tromp would have made in 1674, not only at the mouths of the Loire and of the Groyne, but along the coasts of Bretagne, Poitou, Saintongue, and Guienne. He found that all was so well guarded, and that every where so good orders were given, that he durst attempt nothing considerable. Witness again the descent attempted by the lord Berkley in 1694, at Camaret, in which the English lost upwards of 1200 men, with general Talmash, who commanded the troops that were debarked. The French, however, opposed him with no more than two independent companies of marines and the militia appointed for the defence of the coast. Piqued at this unfortunate expedition, lord Berkley attempted several other descents on Normandy and Flanders, none of which, however, were attended with any better success.

To this natural security of our coasts, which enables us to save a mighty expence, may be added the fertility of our MARITIME PROVINCES, as well as those that are washed by the ocean; a fertility which renders them extremely agreeable, opulent, and populous, by drawing to them a vast concourse of strangers. All the other kingdoms of Europe, on the contrary, complain of the unlucky situation of their coasts. Here they are absolutely barren and full of mountains of sand; there grows nothing that is useful, nothing that comes to maturity farther off; both country and people seem alike neglected by nature.

These kingdoms, however, have an advantage that is peculiar to them, and which I could almost envy them; it is this, that the sea washes their principal cities where the court makes their residence, and where we see united all the politeness attending a royal presence, with all the force that depends on a maritime strength. We admire there the art and intelligence that is necessary to make the several parts of so vast a machine move in regular order, and in such a manner as to assist each other; they take by the hand, if I may be allowed so to say, riches and conveniencies from all quarters; every body interests himself in the prosperity of trade*, and none are so blind as not to see, none so obstinate not to acknowledge, that upon this depends the happiness of the state.

* It is to be wished, that what this French author says, was really the case in Great-Britain.

This is what happens every day in Portugal, Muscovy, Denmark, Sweden, Great-Britain, and Holland, of which all the capital cities stand upon, or very near the sea; Paris, on the contrary, knows nothing of it, but by maimed relations, and, if I may so speak, stories at second hand. We behold there a voluntary indolence throughout, which concerns itself about nothing that does not conduce either to amusement or

to pleasure; and I am very positive, that as to half the things that are consumed, and half the rarities that are admired there, they know not by what country, or by whose industry they are so obliged.

This ignorance, which is almost general, of what is produced in our own country, and what comes from abroad of the necessaries of life, or that serve to nourish laziness and increase luxury, affords room for that slight regard, or rather absolute contempt, that is had for navigation and commerce*. But this unjust contempt would be quickly extinguished, if instead of a sedentary education, always within the shadow of the house in which they were born, we took care to make such young people travel, as seem destined, either by their birth or fortune, to the first places in the government. If we explain to them exactly all that relates to our colonies, all that is indispensably necessary to supply the wants of this kingdom, which daily grows more and more: if we instructed them in the principal manufactures that employ and enrich our several provinces, and pointed out to them such as are beginning to decay, and such as, though they are absolutely decayed, might yet be restored, and brought to be of infinite benefit to the kingdom, by preventing going out of great sums into foreign parts: if, in fine, they were made perfectly to comprehend the three branches that constitute the riches of the kingdom, viz. estates in land, trade, and manufactures: if we shewed them the connection of these three branches, and how they ought mutually to prop and support each other, how the real effects of any country augment in value in proportion as commerce and manufactures are themselves augmented, and thereby the circulation of gold and silver, which is become the standard, the common measure of the confidence of the public, and the authority of the sovereign: if all this should be laid down in a clear and familiar method, and in just and evident calculations, in order to avoid loading the memory too much; would not such an education be infinitely more valuable, than those of which we are at present so fond? Would there not arise from thence both greater respect for, and greater profit to, the common-weal†?

* This is apparently calculated to animate the French nation to the studious regard of its trade and navigation.

† We are willing to flatter ourselves that the work wherein we are engaged, will not a little contribute to the cultivation of such kind of knowledge among the nobility, gentry, and merchants of this kingdom. See our article MERCANTILE COLLEGE.

The third advantage which France enjoys is, that the most considerable armaments may be there made with the greatest readiness and facility. She not only draws out of her own stores almost all the materials requisite to a maritime force, but she nourishes also, within the compass of her dominions, an infinite number of able artificers, capable of employing these materials in the best manner.

There are likewise amongst these workmen, some ingenious discoveries, very little known abroad, and which having been made at different times, have passed as a kind of legacies from parents to their children. These discoveries do not consist in perplexed reasonings, but in EXPERIMENTS and FACTS, which suffice for the current service of the MARINE, where, generally speaking, it is of far greater consequence to execute quickly, than to think how a thing may be done nicely, and where whatever is performed by mens labour, is preferable to what is done by machines. The conclusion of all this matter is, that we cannot be too careful in preserving this race of workmen, [see our articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, MECHANICS], whose industry is perpetual, and increases as it continues; a race of mean people it is true, but who surpass, in my humble opinion, the lazy nobility, who make the pursuit of pleasure their sole occupation; a nobility, as M. de Sully says, among whom we find more mongrel gentlemen, who are fit to make buffoons, gamesters, or porters, than to apply themselves in a generous way, in carrying arms for the service of their king, or the defence of their country.

What I have been saying recalls to my mind an excellent remark inserted by M. Colbert, with his own hand, in the instruction which he caused to be drawn up in 1681, for the dyeing of wool of all colours, and for improving drugs, and other materials employed therein: 'One cannot look, says he, on the fertility of France, or see so great a number of lazy fellows, who sit useless, and with their arms folded, while they might be so advantageously employed, either in the cultivation of the earth, or in many other ways, which nature has pointed out for their benefit, in order to live at the expence of the blood and substance of others, without blaming the form of government, and negligence of our ancestors, and their attachment to useless employments; which served only to fill their heads with wind and smoke, and thereby very often produce such storms and tempests, as went very near destroying the state by the fury of civil wars.' Before the time of M. Colbert, we were obliged to bring from Holland almost every kind of sea-stores, down to the iron-work for our anchors, match, cordage, cables

cables ready made, saltpetre, and even cannon powder, as if there had not been in this kingdom forges, hemp, iron, saltpetre, sulphur, or men capable of going through hard labour. M. Colbert was determined to banish foreign manufactures, and to establish things of this sort at home, upon so much better footing, as that they should quickly excel those which we formerly employed. He farther resolved, that we should extract from the natural riches of the kingdom, whatever it was possible it should produce. He created in France, ARTS, TASTE, GENIUS, of which, 'till then, France was utterly ignorant, and which she has since carried to so great a perfection; and with regard to particular manufactories, he brought from countries where such manufactures were in the highest perfection, persons who thoroughly understood them, settled them in this kingdom, and whose posterity, enriched by his favours, do, even at this day, honour to his choice. How much does such an example deserve to be followed! and how many illustrious strangers would an obliging reception bring amongst us!

I must confess, that there are some sorts of commodities and merchandize necessary to the marine, which only the northern countries produce. But it will be always easy for us to provide ourselves with these, by adhering constantly to the two following precautions; the first, maintaining a close alliance with one of the three great powers in the Baltic: the second, carrying on all this trade on our own bottoms, without ever receiving them at the second or third hand, without paying commissions, which are always heavy and ruinous.

I shall here take notice of a very sensible regulation that is observed in England, that ought to be regarded as the basis of all her commerce: the English themselves are alone permitted to export the commodities of their own country, or to import those of foreign nations. This practice puts that great island in continual motion, and is the reason that money never circulates there at a price considerably above its real value. It likewise hinders a spirit of indolence from communicating itself, and spreading from one to another; that dangerous spirit, more dejecting, through a too quick sense of evils, than thoughtful how to repair them, and which proves thereby, in the end, the ruin of the state. The connection there is between all the different parts of the society is so close, that it is simply impossible that a single person should be hurt, without the rest feeling the blow.

Though the times were then very perilous and difficult, yet we were not altogether ignorant of the value of such a custom, even in the days of Charles IX. In effect, that prince, supported by an ordinance of Henry II, his father, prohibited, about the middle of the year 1567, all his subjects to freight any foreign ships, and all foreigners exporting French commodities in any other than French bottoms, under pain of confiscation: salt only was excepted on account of the prodigious sale, which is much sunk since the Hollanders, and other people of the North, have thought fit to purchase it in Portugal, and to be content with the sort that country yields. Will it be believed, that the cutting off so ancient and so valuable a branch of commerce, which cardinal Richlieu esteemed more than the Spanish Indies, is owing to nothing but certain ILL-CALCULATED DUTIES, to which we have endeavoured to subject it? What happiness! could this kingdom be brought once to understand, that every operation in FAVOUR of the REVENUE which hurts commerce is mischievous in itself, and that, with regard to commodities that are indispensably necessary to life, the consumption is always proportionable to the duties imposed upon them.

The only remark as can be made, in support of this, regards the wants we begin to feel in FRANCE, of all sorts of wood fit to be employed in building. Neither ought this observation to be confined only to that sort of wood, but to all others, that serve either for carpenters, makers of carriages, or even which is destined for the fire: these last are particularly grown, almost every where, excessively scarce, and prodigiously dear: forges, glass-houses, the luxury of great cities, the too great curiosity exercised about dressing good cheer, have consumed prodigious quantities, and we have taken no care to replace them: we feel every where the want of wood, and still we let it every where decay.

These are certainly considerations important enough to stir up the zeal of such as are intrusted with the management of our WATERS and FORESTS, considerations which ought to induce them to say, with one of the ablest men of the Roman empire, That we ought never to felicitate ourselves on having done any thing, while there is yet any thing that remains to be done; and how many remain to be done which we know not! How many things are they ignorant of, who are intrusted with these offices, and of which they will always remain ignorant, while they retain so great a concern for their own base interest *!

* That the royal shipping of the kingdom of Great-Britain has been subject to much greater expences than has been necessary, is a matter which, in the opinion of some of the wisest, greatest, and honestest men in the kingdom, requires severest scrutiny into. This was the sentiment of a late able minister, who, I am persuaded, would have probed this matter to the bottom, had he lived.

No body can possibly doubt that wood, properly stiled forest-wood, was heretofore much more common than it is at present: most towns, most boroughs, a great part of the abbeys, that are at such a distance from them at this day, were not only near, but even in the midst of, these woods. I have travelled across a long chain of mountains, which extend from west to east, and, in a manner, thwart the whole country of Bretagne: the ancient tradition of the place reports, that all these mountains, which in a manner touch one another, were formerly a continued forest; and, in effect, having caused an infinite number of places to be bored, to the depth of 35 or 40 feet, and have there found, amongst prodigious spoils of the vegetable and animal kingdoms, trees in a manner quite intire, and as sound as if they had been but that moment cut down. This could have proceeded from nothing else but the quality of the soil in which they were planted, a soil dry and stony, mingled with a red sand, and particles of iron, easily taken up by a knife touched with a loadstone.

But the greatest mischief that has been done to the marine is, that of not having preserved the forests situated near the sea-coast, or on the banks of navigable rivers. These forests, condemned one after another, have been cut down out of caprice, or under several frivolous pretences. How much cost and expence, what an infinite labour, might have been spared, if they had still subsisted! It seems they made, here tofore, some such reflections, and that the governors of MARITIME PROVINCES were particularly charged with the care of WOODS, and with the inspection of the sea and rivers; whence it came to pass, that those governors, officers removable at the pleasure of our princes, while as yet sons never succeeded their fathers in their offices, on a supposition of their inheriting their virtues, took the title of foresters. This title was principally in vogue under the second race of our kings; and we are assured, that Charlemagne was the first that bestowed that title, and that he conferred on a Saxon lord, who settled himself in Flanders, the coasts of which were then altogether naked, and exposed to the incursions of the Danes.

It is very probable that these great foresters performed the functions of a sort of officers, who began to be known, in the reign of the emperor Constantine, under the titles of comites litoris Saxonici per Britanniam, of comites Cimbrici & Batavici litoris, of duces tractus Aremoricani, &c. These officers were very powerful, and acknowledged none for their superiors but the præfectus prætorio of Gauls; they were equally charged to look to the safety of the coasts, and to the preservation of the forests, castles, and other edifices which stood in or near the coasts.

The celebrated John de Tillet, first secretary to the parliament of Paris, observes, that the word Forest is derived from an old Low-Dutch term, which signifies rivers, as well as woods. He cites, in support of this, several authentic charters, which are still preserved in the archives of the palace: amongst the rest, one by which Childebert, founding the abbey of St Germain des Prez, yields to it all his rights on the river Seine, as he then held them, adding, as the same Tillet observes, and as they were his forests. The true signification of which term is certainly to be learned from hence, that anciently all the banks and shores, indeed all the places adjacent to the sea, and to rivers, were filled with trees; and as they were first inhabited, grubbed up, and cultivated, they bestowed the name of forest equally on all places where wood and water were joined. The neighbourhood retained its denomination after it became more peopled; but by degrees, as inhabitants began to increase, and barbarism gave way to softer manners, to more polished conversation, and to pleasures, towns were formed, arts were introduced, and the conveniencies of life were refined and improved every day. It was necessary to sacrifice to these uses a great quantity of wood, in order to give people, if we may so speak, room to breathe: hence it came to pass, that, preserving a few trees for ornament, they cut down all the rest, without reflecting, that a very transitory satisfaction would induce frequent and grievous fits of repentance: in effect, the common complaint throughout almost every part of the kingdom is, that there is no wood left, or, at least, that the people are ruined by the expence of its carriage.

The late marquis Seignelai, whose views extended to futurity, had formed a design of causing all the sea-shore to be planted with timber fit for SHIP-BUILDING. I don't know what obstacle hindered that design, which was undoubtedly worthy the most clear-sighted ministry: it may be that, after mature deliberation, M. de Seignelai began to distrust the French genius, always ready to seize, with ardour, new schemes, and to abandon them afterwards out of pure distaste. He was afraid that a project which required an age, or an age and a half, to bring it to perfection, would appear a chimerical project: for the bulk of our nation, through a rapidity and intemperance of taste, would have us purpose and execute at the same time, and would have invention and perfection appear almost together: works that require great application, says cardinal Richlieu, are little agreeable to our humour or natural disposition.

The last advantage respects the order of government, and, in one word, the whole system of our marine. The different usages, regulations, and employments, and all sorts of labours, are disposed in such a manner, that they enter into, and corroborate each other, so as to afford mutual assistance. We have nothing to fear from what gave so much uneasiness to the famous duke de Sully, when he became superintendant of the finances: as he found himself stopped at every turn by a heap of useless formalities, disputes, and very ill-founded remonstrances, he could not help saying in a brisk tone, which exceedingly became him, 'Great kingdoms are not governed by slips of paper, skins of parchment, strokes of a pen-knife, scratches of a pen, vain words, or, in short, by imaginations, fancies, shrugs, and grimaces.' The aim of this ministry was to quicken, and to render more simple the operations of the treasury; and he was justly afraid, that a long train of formalities, and round about methods, should render the most essential and decisive parts of all affairs less attended to.

In regard to the marine, it is divided into two corps, who are so perfectly well acquainted with their respective privileges and prerogatives, as to observe one another with some degree of jealousy, and to put each other reciprocally in mind of their duty; and, while one of these corps devotes itself to the fatigues of war, and distinguishes itself by its firmness and bravery, on the most shining and perilous occasions, the other, more tranquil in appearance, saves it a thousand cares, and a thousand inquietudes, which would consume that body to no purpose. Courage begins to grow cold, when deprived of its liberty of acting in its full extent, or when depressed by many important cares; it wants only favourable occasions to appear and distinguish itself: at least, this is what the great M. Turenne believed, especially in the latter part of his life, and which he generously expressed, with a frankness and confidence worthy of so great a man. I have, said he, only one thing to do, which is to conquer. Choisi has put all the frontier places into a state of defence, Du Metz takes care of the artillery, and Jacquier makes it his business to prevent my ever suffering for want of provisions.

And since I have been speaking of M. Turenne, give me leave to report a fine saying of his in 1665, to Lewis XIV, who asked him, in confidence, 'What would be proper to be done, in case Philip IV. of Spain, who was very ill, should happen to die?' M. de Turenne answered, upon the spot, 'In that case, Sire, the augmentation of your ships of war and gallies, would be of as great utility as the increase of your land troops, as well in respect to what the king of Spain has in the Indies, in Italy, and in Sicily, as with regard to Spain itself, the entrance of which lies fair and open, by the way of Portugal.' An answer like this appears to me decisive; and if we had reasoned in this manner when the crown of Spain devolved on a branch of the house of Bourbon, all had ended well, and we had brought ENGLAND and HOLLAND, joined together, to the last EXTREMITY, by weakening their TRADE. I will add further, that, though in virtue of his rank as marshal-general of the camps and armies of the king, M. de Turenne ought to have given his advice only in that sort of war which was properly his province, yet, such was the extent of his genius, and so quick his apprehension of truth, as enabled him to discern, that there were certain occasions in which a MARITIME POWER ALONE ought to be employed, and where one victory at SEA is of equal value to a long series of victories obtained by land: the very perfection of policy is to know how to enter into the differences, which are sure to escape superficial minds.

I return to the established order in the MARINE of FRANCE: and I must confess, that what distinguishes it in a particular manner is, that MILITARY CORPS of which it is composed, and which has an air of dignity, which diffuses itself over all its parts. Considered in this light, there is not one in EUROPE which ought not to yield to it with reverence. The character of the maritime power of the DUTCH is œconomy, and that of the maritime force of the ENGLISH is activity: the first, according to the republican genius, place all honour in saving, and direct all their views this way; whatever should contribute to the strength or security of their ships, they pare off to save charges, as far as possible, and by repeated endeavours this way, they expose their vessels to frequent shipwrecks. I lay it down as a thing pretty certain, that, for want of those necessary precautions, the DUTCH lose a third of the ships they equip every year. As for the ENGLISH, who are more judiciously covetous, they more than recover, by quickness and diligence, what they lay out in extraordinary expences.

One of their ships makes as many trips in four months, as a Dutchman can in five, or even in six; and there is certainly no kind of profit more real, or more certain, than that which arises from the shortness of campaigns, or of voyages at sea. The French hold a middle character, as it were, between these two; without having the œconomy of the Dutch, or the activity of the English, they surpass them, without difficulty, in the arrangement and exactness of their service;

they have gained by this I know not what title, the SUPERIORITY AND EMPIRE.

But there happens from hence sometimes two inconveniencies. The first is, that we think ourselves checked, as the marquis de Montlue says, if we don't march with all the attendance of a prince, and yet this sometimes leads us into great inconveniencies. It is better to move like a private gentleman, and not to play the prince, than, by straining things to a great height, to run the hazard of bringing upon one self some mischief. The second, that, through too great attention to the procuring every thing necessary, we sometimes go too far, and provide also for superfluities; so that by an excess of prudence, we fall short in expedition. However, it is frequently necessary to dispatch, for success depends on a certain degree of boldness, and not seldom on a single stroke. In great affairs, says cardinal d'Osset, in a letter to M. Villeroy, in order to avoid a great evil, or to gain a great good, one must venture, and put something to the risk, and resolve at once, and, without delay, to get out of a bad situation in the briefest and quickest manner possible.

It is easy to judge, from what I have been saying, that French vessels ought, in general, to be better armed, and better equipped, than those of all other nations. In them there is nothing wanting, as to what is requisite for the campaign, or for the preservation of the seamen and soldiers embarked. For in our marine, we know perfectly well the value of men's lives, and esteem it the highest point of prudence to take all the care that is possible for preserving them.

There is still more than all this; we have in France, as it were, an entire nation, who, exempt from all other charges and impositions, apply themselves entirely to, and think of nothing else but, SEA AFFAIRS. Their course of life is undoubtedly very thorny and laborious. But as they are bred to it from their infancy, and as they are pleased, by a continual variety of objects, they accustom themselves to it by little and little, and pass from one campaign to another, almost without perceiving it: these people, with all this, are infinitely brave; of IRON, in point of LABOUR, of STEEL, in point of COURAGE, as Cæsar says of the ancient GAULS. They attempt besides things astonishing, and, in respect to which, nothing but an apprenticeship* could have diminished, in their eyes, the peril and the risque. It is true that our seamen have one disadvantageous quality, which is, that, on the slightest discontent, they withdraw, and go into foreign service: but this fault, however, is not singular in them, it is, indeed, the fault of the whole nation; curious after novelties, and full of vain caprice, they often quit the kingdom. Hence it is, that one every-where sees Frenchmen, and that we find them fighting under every banner, Nullum bellum sine milite Gallo.

* The classes of the marine, is one of the finest establishments in the kingdom of France, and, at the same time, one of the most useful and advantageous. Mr Armoux and Bonrepos, intendant of the marine, established them, though, as it but too often happens, the prime minister ran away with the credit.

These classes, that our author talks of, are no other than the enrolled seamen in France, and this was the first fixed, by an ordinance, dated 22 Sept. 1688: the seamen were then divided into three classes, of which one was obliged to serve annually on board the king's ships, and the other two were at liberty to serve the merchants. They have been since distributed into five classes. In the year 1681, there were 60,000 men enrolled.

Behold the principal advantages of which France has a right to boast, and which she cannot neglect, but to her shame, and to her prejudice. Her situation is such, that, I repeat it again, all the nations of Europe cannot help looking upon her with an eye of JEALOUSY. It may be, that I shall have an objection started to me here, of little solidity indeed, but which, notwithstanding, has dazzled and misled many persons of merit. 'A maritime power, say they with disdain, however useful, however beneficial it may be supported at bottom, draws after it too great an expence, and has too ruinous a train at its heels; consequently it ought rather to be abandoned, on account of the immense sums it must cost, than preserved for the sake of the profits that from it ensue.'

To this objection, which they endeavour to render so much the stronger, by many affected computations, I shall offer three things in answer, which are not only very weighty, but altogether decisive; and I hope they will strike the reader in so forcible a manner, as to leave him no inclination to demand any farther, or more ample explication.

In the first place, it is true, that the marine demands expence, and even expences that are pretty large. But what part of government, what branch of the state does not demand them? Can one sustain a war, can one adjust the management of the revenue, can one give a proper air of magnificence to the king's household, can one secure the good-will, or entertain correspondences with foreign nations, without having in one's hands considerable sums of money, and disposing of them in a proper manner, and as necessity requires? In great affairs, says the cardinal de Retz, one ought never

to

to regard money. A sovereign is too rich, while discovering a noble courage, a greatness of soul, quick parts, and strong penetration, even in his most trivial actions, he favours the COMMERCE and MANUFACTURES of his subjects. Before him, the cardinal de Richlieu had remarked, 'That he ought to be careful in laying up money to supply the necessities of the state, and religiously exact in preserving them, when no occasions offered for laying them out; but that he ought to be equally liberal in employing them whenever the good of the public required it, and to do it in time, and in proper measure; otherwise any retardment on such occasions, costs the state very often extremely dear, by making it lose opportunities that never are to be recovered.'

Besides, if for maintaining the marine, it is requisite to be continually advancing money, and providing things long beforehand, I dare aver, that the marine will indemnify with usury, and not be at all slow in paying. Is it not that which protects and enlivens trade, both at home and abroad? Is it not that which secures all our traders, all our merchants, who are dispersed through all the different parts of the world; that preserves them, in the midst of the Grand Signior's dominions, from pillages and insults, to which they would be otherwise subject; that procures them capitulations, and valuable privileges on the coast of Barbary, and in the seas of the Levant, and enables them to sail in safety, wherever the French flag hath appeared? Is it not that which, in a time of war, keeps off the enemies from our coasts, which would be otherwise ravaged, and preserves a free passage for the navigation between one maritime province to another? In a word, is it not that which so amply fills the coffers of our kings, and that which gives their subjects so favourable an opening for discharging their superfluities, by sending into foreign countries the fruits of their harvest, or of their industry? The abbé de St. Pierre has observed, in one of his Political Memoirs, That the ballance of our commerce with foreigners, amounts to, at least, one hundred and fifty millions a year (that is, about 7,000,000*l.* sterling) which makes, one month with another, twelve millions and a half. Is it not the maritime power that preserves this ballance, and by preserving it, sustains our credit, always on the point of falling, through the jealousy of our neighbours?

Secondly, If cardinal de Richlieu thoroughly understood the thing, and has not carried it too far in his Political Testament, we ought to agree, that the principal riches of a state is its reputation, so important to a great prince, that it is impossible to purpose to him any advantage, that can in any degree compensate the loss of it. But how is that reputation to be acquired and preserved, that reputation, I say, which Machiavel looked upon to be so necessary to all sovereigns, that he called it, The apple of their eyes? How can a prince ever reckon on his fame? Or suppose it should force strangers, delicate as to point of honour, to acknowledge his superiority, the same cardinal de Richlieu has pointed out two methods equally noble and sure; the first is, to entertain in all courts ambassadors, whose birth, conduct, train, and expence, may do honour to the master who employs them; the other, to seize, with the utmost briskness, whatever has the least tendency to increase the domaine of the marine; to cause considerable squadrons to be yearly fitted out, and to let them rendezvous regularly every year at certain places, such as Cadiz, Genoa, before Algiers, at Copenhagen, and in the passage of the Sound. It is there, so to speak, where all the nations of Europe assemble, and where it is proper to strike their eyes, by the appearance of strong squadrons. It is there that a prince, who has a good reputation, does more by the bare interposition of his name, than others can do, who are less esteemed, with all their menaces and intrigues. I do not speak of still more numerous squadrons, that it may be convenient to equip from time to time, and to send to America, and into the East-Indies; it suffices me to repeat here what that great minister, whom I before cited, has said, that nothing is more indispensable to a state, than its reputation; the diminution of which, however slighted it be, may prove a step to create an unlucky disposition towards its absolute declension.

In the third place, if there be any excess in the marine, if things relating thereto are sometimes pushed too far, it is not that which ought to be accused, but the present system of affairs in this kingdom, in which, to say the truth, we scarce distinguish any thing that looks like frugality, œconomy, or disinterestedness. All things are now executed at a prodigious expence, and all we do is swallowed up in pomp and decoration; private interest, in most mens minds, overbalances the love of public good*, and that regard which is due to their country. Happy the hand, who shall establish things in their natural situation! Happy the age, in which there shall be seen a nobility, accustomed from their very infancy

* *Patriæ rem unusquisque, non suam, augere debet. Melius est enim pauper in divite, quam dives in paupere imperio versari.* Val. Max. lib. 4. i. e. A man ought to study to augment the public stock, not his own. For it is much better to be poor under a rich government, than to be rich under a poor one.

to a masculine and generous virtue, above little interests, despising frivolous occupations, and even life itself, when opposed to the grandeur of their sentiment. I would shew, says the M. de Montlue, to those whom I leave behind me, that I am this day the oldest captain in France, that I never sought repose, but endeavoured to acquire honour by doing service to the kings, my masters, which was the sole end and aim of my life, flying all those pleasures and delights, which turn out of the road of virtue and true greatness young men, whom God hath endowed with commendable parts, and who are on the point of advancement.

In regard to frugality, it is more necessary to soldiers, than to any other sort of men. Is it not then shameful, while their life is thick strown with risks and hazards, to be thinking how they may invent new delights, and pique themselves on refining luxury and pleasure? An emperor was, heretofore, treated as loose and effeminate, because, after his death, a looking-glass was found in his tent. What an example this of Roman austerity! Charles V. being once on the point to take the field, the townsmen of Antwerp and Bruges went to make him a present of Flemish pictures, of infinite value, in which were represented Bacchanalian sports, marriages, and country feasts. The emperor, who scarce deigned to look upon them, putting on a serious air, said, Carry back your presents, they don't by any means suit me, I see nothing in them but cramming*.

* Our kings have often endeavoured, though to very little purpose, to repress, during a war, the expence and sumptuousness of tables, of which Tacitus speaks well, when he calls them *luxuriosos apparatus conviviorum, &c. irritamenta libidinum.*

I ought not to forget here, a question that hath been often handled among the English. They enquire whether the gentry are fitter for maritime service than soldiers of fortune, who have nothing to subsist on, but their merit and their experience? and with them it seems to be decided in favour of the latter. It is true, according to cardinal de Richlieu, that all men being equal by nature, must suffer, with regret, that difference, which protection and riches put between them. It is also true, that many, who are obliged to give way, blame, with reason, those who command them to shew, that though they are inferior to them in power, yet, in merit, they surpass them.

But without weighing critically what, perhaps, belongs in a peculiar manner to England, I shall only say, that in France the marine has gained considerably since it has been composed of select youths, and of officers chosen out of the best families. It is not that I would exclude certain men, who may be said to be privileged, and who indemnify themselves from an obscure birth, by a display of talents superior to any birth. I willingly compare them to that plebeian, so famous in the Roman History, and to whose speech I will give a place here, in order to humble those who want every thing but birth.

'I cannot, said he, expose to the eyes of the public, the portraits, the triumphs, or the consulates, of my ancestors: But if you incline to see them, I can produce abundance of pikes, standards, horse-harness, and other military rewards, besides many wounds. These are my charters, these are my nobility, which it is true I have not received from my fathers, but have purchased, by my own proper toils, and at the expence of my blood. There is nothing of deceit in my words; that is a kind of art with which I am absolutely unacquainted. Virtue is best seen and distinguished by her own light. Let those who have been wanting to their honour, and have committed base and scandalous actions, seek to varnish them over by the pomp of their discourses; for my part, I never learned the sciences of the Greeks, which I don't see have rendered either wiser or more virtuous many of those, who boast of being well versed in them. But I have learned what the republic ought to advise and to approve; to attack the enemy, to succour speedily such as are under my orders, to fear nothing but infamy; to brave, by turns, the scorching heat of summer, and the winter's pinching cold; to lie upon the ground; and, in fine, to suffer all that is most tedious or tiresome in war.'

Nobility, without doubt, owes its splendor to fair and generous actions; but as it degenerates every day, ought we to complain that such actions are revived, and appear in other men? The nobility brigade and intrigue, in order to acquire charges and employments, without ever thinking how to merit, or to execute them. What madness in these vain men! Their ancestors have left them, it is true, all that depend on them, riches, great names, and shining titles; but they have not left them personal merit; that lay beyond the extent of their power; that alone they could not communicate, that alone is the thing not hereditary. They say that I am a brutish fellow, and without the least tincture of good manners, because I am ashamed to own a player for my companion, disdain either shewy or effeminate pleasures, and give less wages to my cook than to any other of my

my domestics. What mighty crimes! and yet they are all mine.

I thought this elogium due to several officers of great merit, who have rendered the marine illustrious, by so many heavy campaigns; and who, in spite of the obstacles they met with at every turn, in spite of their rivals, who seem to block up their way to preferment, have acquired it notwithstanding, and that too with the highest applause; such, even in late times, was M. de Gué Trouin, as much distinguished by his undaunted bravery, as by his superior capacity, who exposed himself rapidly and boldly to all sorts of dangers, even to those which he had not foreseen, and which his intrepidity seemed to ward off, by not suffering them to confound him.

REMARKS, regarding the lasting security and glory of the
BRITISH EMPIRE.

Thus far Mons. Deslandes, who has zealously endeavoured to raise a spirit in France for a boundless advancement of the maritime power of that kingdom; and who does not discern this to be the grand system, which now prevails at that court?

The Romans, though their city was situated very conveniently for maritime affairs, not being above fifteen miles distant from the Tyrrhenian Sea, and having the river Tyber running through it, capable of receiving the smaller vessels, yet seem wholly to have neglected all naval concerns for many years after the building of Rome; and some eminent writers have been willing to assign this as one of the principal causes which preserved that state so long in its primitive innocence and integrity, free from all those corruptions, which an intercourse with foreigners might probably have brought into fashion.

But, as an instance of what may be done by a vigilant people, we find, that, about the year of the city 492, the Romans observing, that the coasts of Italy lay exposed to the depredations of the Carthaginian fleet, which frequently made descents upon them, and considering that the war with that republic was likely to continue, they determined to render themselves masters of a naval army: which they accomplished, with such wonderful bravery and resolution, as soon to be capable of trying their naval strength against their more formidable enemy, and afterwards to give many signal defeats to the Carthaginians, who, till that time, held the dominion of the sea uncontested, derived down to them from their ancestors.

Whoever considers this fluctuation of power, from the Carthaginians to the Romans, must perceive a dangerous parity in that accession of naval strength which has accrued to the crown of France, from the beginning of the reign of Henry IV. to the end of the reign of Lewis XIV. Who could have imagined that France, in so short a time, could have been able to equip a fleet capable of disputing the dominion of the deep against the united navies of England and Holland? But after the diminution of her maritime power during the war with queen Anne, who could have suspected that France should have so speedily recruited and augmented her navy, so as frequently to deride the British power, before the French had the insolence to conduct Navarro out of Toulon, and commence that inglorious engagement, wherein a brave British admiral was not only shamefully unassisted by his colleague, but afterwards disgraced for nobly defending the honour of his country? And who could have thought, that the French after the reduction of their fleets in its two interceptions by the admirals Anson and Hawke, and after the loss of 2185 ships taken from them by us, during the course of the late war, should be able so expeditiously to restore their debilitated navy, and retrieve their commerce to a stronger, and in a better condition than it ever enjoyed before? — But all this has been, and now is, unhappily for us, the case! which should rouse Britain from that apathy, she has too long and too tamely suffered, while her enemies have been audaciously insulting her in too many parts of the universe.

It is the invariable policy of France to amuse her neighbours with delusive negotiations, while she is secretly preparing to afflict them with the rapacity of her arms. See our REMARKS on the article PLANTATIONS. Was not this the unkingly conduct of Lewis XIV. that grand ravager, in his barbarous destruction of the Palatinate, and his perfidious invasion of the United Provinces? Was not this the behaviour of Lewis XV. to her Hungarian Majesty, when he as unkingly renounced the Pragmatic Sanction, and, instead of preserving the indivisibility of the Austrian inheritance, was the first to lop the branches of so fair a tree, by his invasion of Bohemia? And what can Great-Britain expect will be the consequence of the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, 'for establishing a christian, universal, and perpetual peace, as well by sea as land; and for preserving a sincere and inviolable friendship between the several high powers at war, both as principals and auxiliaries, their heirs, successors, kingdoms, states, provinces, countries, subjects, and vassals, of what rank or condition soever they may be, without any excep-

VOL. II.

tion either of places or persons?' Why, from the French nation we can expect nothing but French policy; that is, whenever France is able to unsheath the sword, she will think it no dishonour to cancel the most sacred engagements she has made with the pen. This is certainly the policy of France; and this we have been told by some of our ministers themselves, who, as they are so well acquainted with the practice of our most inveterate enemy, ought to be perpetually on the guard for our own security.

The French navy is now grown to an enormous list, and our brave admiral Vernon, more than a year ago, shewed an account which he had procured of the French navy then in the ports of Brest and Toulon; whereby it appeared that, exclusive of what were in the harbour of Rochefort, the ships of force amounted to near one hundred sail. What a wonderful augmentation since the close of the year 1747, when, according to the most accurate accounts of many, the whole royal navy of France amounted to no more than 31 ships of the line, from 80 to 90 guns, besides seven frigates; of which 7 were old and unserviceable, and the remainder too few to attempt any thing in opposition to the navy of England! But let us also remember, that the British nation at the same time, notwithstanding the detriment she had sustained by the interception of commerce, and the loss in the royal navy, was still capable of continuing the maritime war, and of prosecuting it with redoubled vigour; her royal navy in 1747, consisting of 126 ships of the line, besides 75 frigates, 43 sloops, 16 bombs, and 11 fire-ships, in all 279, of which 225 were in commission, being 96 more than those in employment at the commencement of the Spanish war; but, at the conclusion of the war, in the beginning of 1749, on the reduction of the British navy, the ships continued in commission were only 71 of the line, with 29 frigates, besides sloops and tenders for which 10,000 sailors have been since continued in the service of the royal navy.

Therefore, we ought not to be intimidated at the views of France, but rather vigilant in our own.

Every court in Europe knows, that such has been the steady conduct of Great-Britain for many years past, to act perfectly consistent with her treaties and alliances, and chiefly upon the DEFENSIVE, to preserve not only the rights and liberties of her own people, but to protect her allies from being oppressed and over-run by the power of France, whereby all Christendom must have been involved in the calamitous event. England cannot be charged in any respect, during the reign of the present family especially, with having violated her engagements with any state or empire, or with having attempted to act OFFENSIVELY against any power without very great provocation; and the exertion of their maritime strength on these occasions has been with the greatest moderation, and in order only to preserve that balance of power, which has hitherto preserved the liberties of all Europe. But this will not long continue in the power of Great-Britain, if other nations increase and strengthen their maritime power, for the sake of protecting and extending their trade, and the English, at the same time, do not use all possible means to keep up theirs: if we are regardless of our well-being in this respect, our rivals in trade must sooner or later become our superiors, and this must produce very injurious and fatal effects to this kingdom. For as trade is the chief source of our affluence, and consequently, the great instrument of power, so, if we suffer our trade to decline for want of due protection by a maritime force, our influence, as a maritime state, and all our present affluence and security, must necessarily dwindle in a just proportion to it. That we may be the better apprized of the schemes and measures of France for many years past to augment her marine, in order one day to assert and maintain an ascendancy over the English and Dutch in maritime prowess, we refer the reader further to the article NAVAL AFFAIRS. To make still a further judgment upon concerns of this nature, see also the articles MARITIME, or MARINE AFFAIRS, NAVAL STORES, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, PLANTATIONS.

As we would not omit any thing essential under such interesting heads, as those we have just referred to, we shall take notice of a particular or two more, which seem to require the serious attention of the public at this time: the first is, that Spain, as well as France, seems at present to be engaged in such measures, that can scarce fail to raise not only her royal navy, but her mercantile shipping, to a height superior to what it ever was. See the articles CASTILLE, CATALONIA, FACTORS, FLORIDA, MEDITERRANEAN, MANUFACTURES, MARITIME, or MARINE AFFAIRS, NAVAL AFFAIRS. In regard to some of our laws relative to shipping, see the article MASTERS OF SHIPS. See also MEXICO.

There are likewise many other of the lesser states, that are either raising a new maritime power, or augmenting what they have; and as the machinations of certain potentates may hereafter be productive of such alliances, as may one day occasion a union of maritime power that may prove formidable to Great-Britain, it behoves her to guard sometimes against those possible evils; and more especially so,

seeing that the marine, as well as the finances of our naturally, the States General, are, by certain intrigues and distractions fomented amongst them, in worse plight and condition than they have been for half this century: nor is this the only melancholy situation of Holland, that may prove disadvantageous to these kingdoms on urgent occasions; there is another circumstance, that relates to the affairs of that state, which is no less detrimental to the joint interest of England and the United Provinces: I mean the present unsettled state of the barrier, which has been postponed too long, and may be attended with consequences equally injurious to the common cause with what else has been intimated. See the articles HOLLAND, FLANDERS, NETHERLANDS. — These considerations taken with their united force, should, methinks, have their due weight with Great-Britain to preserve and augment the power of her royal navy to such a degree, that she may be able to assert and maintain that superiority of maritime strength for which she has been so long renowned, and which has hitherto proved the salvation of the liberties of the whole Protestant interests. See the articles SEA DOMINION and SEA BRITISH.

Nor does it appear to me, that the augmentation of our royal navy to the height requisite at this or any other conjuncture, need be so great a burthen to the state, as some are wont to apprehend; especially if those marine concerns were managed with that oeconomy and sagacity, which many judge necessary: and if, besides this, due measures were taken to provide ourselves wholly with naval stores of every kind, and not to be under the necessity of taking any from other states, or, at least, such a proportion only as may be politic, in order to uphold and cement such a mutual degree of commercial interest as good policy may suggest; for we cannot expect to be sellers to all nations, and buyers of none. If, however, we are wise enough to supply ourselves with such a proportion of our naval stores in general, as will keep the bulk of the treasure thereon expended within ourselves, an expence of this kind may, perhaps, add riches to the nation, instead of being an incumbrance to it. See what I have urged in this light in particular, under the article NAVAL AFFAIRS. See also the article NAVAL STORES.

SHROPSHIRE is bounded on the east by Staffordshire, on the north by Cheshire, on the south by Worcestershire, Herefordshire, and Radnorshire, and on the west by Montgomery and Denbighshire in Wales, and is computed to be 134 miles in compass. The air of this county is very healthy, as it generally is in such as are mountainous or hilly. The soil is various, the hilly parts not being altogether so fruitful as the low grounds. Here are mines of coal, copper, lead, iron-stone, and lime-stone.

SHREWSBURY, the county town, is delightfully situated on the Severn. Here is a market every Thursday for Welch cottons and flannels, of which there are sold as much as comes to 1000 l. a week one with another.

BRIDGNORTH, on the same river, is a place of great trade, carried on both by land and water: its markets are well stocked with all necessaries, and its fairs are resorted to from most parts of the kingdom for horses, black cattle, sheep, butter, cheese, bacon, linen cloth, hops, and most other goods and merchandize. The town is well furnished with artificers, who deal in making and selling clothes, leather, iron-tools, and the common manufactures of the kingdom, and is as famous as any other for making of stockings.

OSWESTRY has a great traffic on its market-day for the Welch flannels and freizes, of which it is the staple.

SIAM, a kingdom of Asia, beyond the Ganges, in the farther East-Indies, bounded on the north by the kingdoms of Pegu and Ava; on the east by Cambaya, Lao, Jancomia, and Tanga; on the south by a bay of its own name; and on the west by the bay of Bengal; making a semicircle of about 450 leagues, though others make it larger, and bounded by Pegu and Lao on the north, the China and Indian Ocean to the east and west, with the kingdom of Malacca to the south.

SIAM PROPER, or the UPPER SIAM. The air is very temperate, and the soil in general very fat and fruitful. The country abounds with rice, cotton-trees, and others, from whence they extract oils for divers uses. They have abundance of trees that yield a gum, which is the chief ingredient of the Japan and Chinese varnish. The best sort of benjamin comes from hence, it being pure, clear, and white, with little streaks of an amber colour.—They till their lands after the rains, and gather their harvest of rice after the waters are retired, though sometimes they do it before, in boats; for, according to some historians, it grows so fast, that the ear is always above water, though it rises a foot in 24 hours.—The rice which grows where the rivers do not overflow, and which is nourished by great cisterns, or trenches of rain-water, is more substantial, durable, and better relished than the other. They raise several sorts of herbs, pulse, and roots.—They have also lemons, citrons, pomegranates, and oranges, which they call crystal ones, because of their value, arising from their use to sick people. — In fine, the country abounds with all the fruits of the Indies; the most

estimable is the arrac-tree.— Their fruits are large figs, like saucages in form, jaiques, shaped like large melons, and of a delicate taste and smell, sugar-canes, pepper-trees, cocoa's, anana's, and that remarkable plant called ginseng, which they drink like tea, in a morning fasting.

They have mines of gold and silver, lead, tin, iron, loadstone, marble, agats, sapphires, crystals, antimony, emeralds, and tambank, which is a mixture of copper, with a little gold and silver. They have steel, of which the inhabitants make sabres, poignards, and knives, but they are in general bad smiths. A diamond-mine was discovered here once, but neglected for want of encouragement, because the mines are entailed on the crown, which has the sole benefit of them.— Here are various kinds of beasts, as elephants, rhinoceroses, leopards, tygers, with all the other tame and wild beasts of the Indies; but they eat little flesh, and only catch deer, whereof they breed great numbers, for their skins, which they send yearly to Japan.

They are ignorant of the arts, except the ordinary sorts of mechanics, but are dexterous at gilding, and beating of gold into plates. They make a coarse sort of cotton cloth, and are good at embroidering. The common people employ themselves in fishing, and the better sort in merchandizing. The women are the chief merchants, some of whom trade considerably, though none of them get estates by foreign trade, that being appropriated to the king.

The chief places are,

CHANTEBON, or as some call it, LIAM, stands at the mouth of a river of the same name, near the gulph of Siam, and in the extreme south-east part of this country. The river is navigable for large ships, and there is a tolerable trade carried on here.

BANKASOY, on a river which lies four or five leagues to the east of the bar of Siam, where are two islands called the Dutch islands, at which ships are obliged to stay in the southwest monsoons, when they cannot get water over the bar that bears off it south-east and by south, about nine leagues distant. It is a place not much frequented by strangers, though it produces much aquila and sapan-wood, and elephants-teeth, which are all sent to the king, who traffics with them. This place is of chief note for ballichang, or a sauce made of dried shrimps, cod, pepper, salt, and sea-weed, or grass, all mixed, and beaten up to the consistency of thick mustard. Many hundred tons hereof are expended in Siam, and the adjacent countries.

BANCOCK, or BENCOCK, in an island formed by the river Menan. Most ships bound to India put in here, to give an account from whence they came, as well as of their lading, and complement of men, &c. and to pay custom, the acquittance for which they shew at another place up the river, called Canon-Bantenau, within a league of the town of Siam, and then they have liberty to trade any where through the kingdom without paying any thing, but for their cocket, which they are obliged to do on penalty of forfeiting the ship.

The capital of the country, and the seat of the king, is

SIAM, a large city, formed by three streams of the river Menan, or Memnan, which is generally full of ships, prows, &c. 30 leagues from Bontempia.

The Dutch have a factory here, about a mile below the town, on the same side of the river, and their chief makes a good figure here, though the Siam market takes off but little of European goods; and their greatest traffic is in tin, sapan-wood, and deer-skins, which they buy up for the Japan market. The Portuguese had a great trade here formerly, till they obstructed the commerce of the natives with the Dutch, and attacked the latter in the river Menan; which so incensed the king, that he became an enemy to the Portuguese ever after, and encouraged the Dutch, whose trade here is very advantageous with respect to the isles of Java and Sumatra.

The English had a factory here for many years, till about 1686, the East-India company had a quarrel with the Siamese, and withdrew it. The suburbs, which are inhabited chiefly by strangers, lie on both sides of the river.

TENNASERIM is a city of great trade, near a river of its own name, which falls into the bay of Bengal with three mouths, and is above 200 miles north-west of Siam, and 20 leagues within the bay, amongst several small islands.

CUI, or COUIR, is a place on the coast hereabouts, which produces great quantities of tin and elephants-teeth; but all are sent to Siam, for the king's use.

MARGUI, MERJEE, stands in an island near Tennaserim, 140 miles south-west from Siam, and is esteemed, by some, the best port in the Indies. It is a safe harbour; and the country produces rice, timber, tin, elephants teeth, and aquila-wood. A large number of English merchants settled here formerly, and carried on a considerable traffic, but were obliged to quit it in 1687, by the Old East-India company; who having a mind that the English here should reside at Fort St George, threatened the king of Siam with a war, if he did not deliver them up, or force them out of his country: and the officer whom they sent with the message behaving insolently to the government, and putting some of the Siamese to death

death without cause, the enraged populace massacred 76 of the English, by way of revenge. This place, and Tennaserim, is the road where ships from Guzaratte arrive, in June and July, and merchants transport their goods from hence over land to Siam.

LIGOR, the capital of a country of the same name, which was formerly a kingdom of itself, 'till by civil dissensions it became a prey to the king of Siam; it stands above 380 miles south of Siam. The Dutch have a factory here, which trades in tin and pepper, the country producing abundance of the former, which they engross all to themselves.

SANGOR stands on the side of a large river, about 12 leagues south of Ligor; it produces tin, elephants-teeth, aquila-wood, and some gold; but the inhabitants meet with such discouragement in digging for tin, that there is little to be got, and what is manufactured is bought up by the Dutch factory at Ligor.

JONSALAM, or JUNCALAN, or JONKUYLOAN, on the western coast, is an island within a mile of the continent, but the south end is about three leagues from it. Between this and the continent there is a good harbour for shipping, in the south-west monsoons, and on the west side of the island; Puton Bay is a safe one in the north-east winds; between this island and Merjee there are several other good harbours; but the sea-coast is very thinly peopled, because of great numbers of freebooters, called Salleiters, who inhabit islands along the coast, and both rob and take people for slaves, whom they transport to Achim, in Sumatra, and there sell them: this town often suffers by their depredations. Those islands afford for traffic ambergrease, the horns of the rhinoceros, good masts, and abundance of tin; but few people dig for it, by reason of the abovementioned out-laws; besides, their governors being generally Chinese, buy their places at the court of Siam, and fleece the people to reimburse themselves: yet the villages on the continent drive a small trade with ships that come from Coromandel coast and Bengal, but both the buyer and the seller deal by retail; so that a ship's cargo is a long time in selling, and the product of the country as long in purchasing: the island is about 80 leagues north-east of Achim, and was formerly called a kingdom.

MARTABAN, or MARTAVAN, once a kingdom independent on the bay of Bengal, which Moll places in the empire of Ava, and the Sansons say it formerly belonged to Pegu, but it is now a province subject to Siam. It abounds with corn, medicinal herbs, oil of jessamy, roses, oranges, lemons, figs, pears, chefnuts, &c. mines of gold, silver, iron, steel, lead, copper; it has also rubico, lacque, benzoin, and they make a sort of porcelain vessels, varnished black, much esteemed for keeping liquors. It is said to extend 300 miles from the south to the north, and 115 where broadest, from east to west. Father Pimento says, it formerly yielded three harvests a year; but about 1597, much of it was laid waste by the Siamese. Boufingault says it has so good an air, that the inhabitants never have the head-ach. It has Pegu on the north, Siam on the south and east, and the Indian Ocean, and bay of Bengal, on the west. The capital, of the same name, is a well-built populous town, and has one of the best havens in the country, with a free entrance at all seasons, to which ships trade from Malacca with pepper, china ware, camphire, &c. and make their returns in rice, which they likewise export to Cochin. Moll places it 223 miles north west of Siam, on the east side of the gulph of Pegu, from which city it stands about 92 miles to the south, and it was reckoned its principal haven.

The GOLD and SILVER WEIGHTS of SIAM

Are by tual, which weighs nearest 9 dwts. 10 grs. and is $9\frac{1}{2}$ dwts. better than standard silver.

GREAT WEIGHTS

Are from their coins likewise, as

	lb.	oz.	dr.	
80 Tuals is 1 catty, or	-	2	9	$4\frac{3}{4}$ Avoir.
50 Cattys is 1 pecul, or	-	129	0	13 Ditto
But 50 cattys of Siam should make 1 pecul China, of 132lb. for they weigh all their goods by the China dotchin; but it is never found that the king's dotchin at Siam gives more than 129 lb. which should be 132 lb.				

COINS.

Their coins are tuals, miams, tuangs, and samporfs.

2 Samporfs is	-	-	-	-	1 Tuang
2 Tuangs	-	-	-	-	1 Miam
4 Miams	-	-	-	-	1 Tual

Their accounts are kept in cattys, tales, tuals, miams, tuangs, and cowries.

800 Cowries is	-	-	-	-	1 Tuang
2 Tuangs	-	-	-	-	1 Miam
4 Miams	-	-	-	-	1 Tual
4 Tuals	-	-	-	-	1 Tale
20 Tales	-	-	-	-	1 Catty.

10 miams pass for a tale China, and 85 tales Siam are always reckoned at 8 tales China.

CUSTOMS.

The Chinese, Moors, and Banians, pay 8 per cent. customs. The English, at present, pay no customs, but pay measure for their ships; a ship of 200 tons burthen pays from 1150 to 1200 rupees measure, and so for other vessels, in proportion to their burthen.

REMARKS.

In order to make a right judgment of the nature of the East-India trade in general, and consequences of the same trade to these kingdoms in particular, the reader is desired to consult the following articles throughout this work, viz BENGAL, CAMBODIA, CARAVANS, CHINA, COMPANIES, COROMANDEL, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, EAST-INDIA COMPANY of ENGLAND, EUROPE, FRANCE, in regard to its East-India trade in particular; GOLD, with respect to the gold brought from the East-Indies into Europe; JAPAN, INDOSTAN, MONOPOLIES, ORIENTAL TRADE, OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY, PEGU, PORTUGUESE EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

Under these heads, and what we shall further lay before the reader in the sequel, he will find such FACTS, and such argumentative matter stated, naturally deducible therefrom, as will enable him to determine within his own breast, that great point, whether it is for the interest of the nation that the East-India company should be continued under its present constitution, or whether it should be annihilated, and the trade laid open to all his Majesty's subjects.

And as the substance of what has been urged against the company will be found faithfully represented under the preceding articles, so will also the answers thereunto; but there having lately appeared an answer to some of the principal objections which have been started against the company, and that in a light something different from what has been given throughout the preceding parts of this work; I should be charged with partiality, if I was to omit this additional argument in favour of the company, since I have suppressed nothing of weight that has been urged in opposition to that corporation. Another inducement to this is, that I shall scarce have another opportunity of saying any thing more in relation to the East-India trade before this work is completed; and, therefore, all evidence in regard to a subject of this importance, will be expected to be fairly laid before the public, for their information. —The substance of this argument in vindication of the company is as follows, viz.

'The remotest traffic is always most beneficial to the kingdom's stock; for example—Suppose pepper to be always worth two shillings the pound, and a merchant should fetch it from Holland, and pay there twenty-pence the pound, he will gain well by the adventure; but if he fetch this pepper from the East-Indies, he cannot give above five-pence the pound to obtain the like gain, clear of all charges; which sufficiently proves the great advantage we have by purchasing commodities in remote countries, not only for our own consumption, but for exportation: so that it is plain we make a much greater stock by gain upon many commodities, than those nations do where they grow; and surely there is not less honour and judgment by getting riches in this manner, than by an increase of our own means, especially when this latter is advanced for the benefit of the former, as hath been found in the East-Indies by sale of our native commodities.

But for the better understanding thereof, we must distinguish between the gain of the kingdom and the profit of the merchant; for although the kingdom pays no more for this pepper than is before supposed, nor for any other commodity purchased in foreign countries, more than the stranger receiveth from us for the same; yet the merchant payeth not only that price, but also the FREIGHT, INSURANCE, INTEREST, CUSTOMS, and many other CHARGES, which are exceeding great in long voyages: but all these, in the kingdom's account, are but commutations among ourselves, and no privation of the public stock; they remain still in the kingdom.

It is of great importance to the nation, that the price of lands should be improved [see our article LANDED INTEREST], which never hath, nor can be done, but by a successful foreign trade, the ballance whereof is the only means and rule of our treasure; that is to say, when, either by issuing out of the realm yearly, a greater value in wares than we consume of foreign commodities, we grow rich; or, by spending more of strangers goods than we sell them of our own, we are impoverished: for the first of these courses brings in the money which we have; the last will carry it away again when we have got it. See our article BALLANCE of TRADE.

It is a true saying, That plenty or scarcity of money makes all things dear or cheap in a commonwealth [see our articles MONEY, CASH, CIRCULATION]; but it is necessary to distinguish the seeming plenty of money from that which only is substantial, and able to perform the work; for there are many.

many ways and means to procure money into a kingdom (for a short time) which therefore do not enrich, but rather impoverish the same, by the several inconveniencies which ever accompany such alterations; for instance, if we should melt down our plate into coin [see our article COIN], it would cause plenty for a time, yet should we be nothing the richer, but rather this treasure being thus altered, is made the more apt to be carried out of the kingdom, if we exceed our means by excess in foreign wares, or maintain a war by sea or land, where we do not feed and cloath the soldier, and supply the armies, with our own native provisions; by which disorders our treasure will be exhausted, for it is not the merchants exchange by bills that can prevent the last of the abovementioned evils. [See the article EXCHANGE.]

But whether it be the stranger or the English merchant brings money into this country, it must ever be done upon a valuable consideration, either for wares carried out already, or after to be exported, which helps us nothing, except the evil occasions of excess or war aforementioned be removed, which will exhaust our treasure; for otherwise, the money that one man bringeth in for gain, another man shall be forced to carry out for necessity, because there shall ever be a necessity to ballance our accounts with strangers, although it should be done with great loss upon the rate of money, which is exported at great risk and danger of confiscations, for necessity or gain will ever find some means to violate the laws.

So that the treasure which is brought into the realm by the ballance of our foreign trade, is that money which only doth abide with us, and by which we are enriched; and by this plenty of money thus gotten (and no otherwise) do our lands improve; for when the merchant disposes of his cloth well abroad, he presently buys a greater quantity, which raiseth the price of wool, and other commodities, which improves the landlord's rents, as the leases expire daily; and also by this means money being gained, and brought more abundantly into this kingdom, it doth enable many men to buy lands, which must make them the dearer; but if our foreign trade come to a stop or declination, by neglect at home, or injuries abroad, whereby the merchants are impoverished, and so the commodities of the growth and product of the nation less issued, then do all the benefits abovementioned cease, and our land fall daily in price; wherefore the flourishing estate of our general trade is the only means to make our lands improve: so the particular trade to the East Indies is a PRINCIPAL INSTRUMENT therein, because it hath much increased the general traffic of this kingdom.

In the course of a foreign trade there are three degrees of gain; the first is that of the commonwealth, which may be done when the merchant (who is the principal agent therein) shall lose. The second is the gain of the merchant, which he sometimes doth justly and worthily effect, although the commonwealth be a loser. The third is the gain of the king, whereof he is ever certain, even when the commonwealth and the merchant shall be both losers.

It hath been already observed, that the commonwealth may be enriched in the course of trade, by the ballance of the same, when excesses are avoided; but it may be affirmed, that such happiness may be in the commonwealth, when the merchant, for his particular, shall have no occasion to rejoice. As for example: suppose the East-India company should send out one hundred thousand pounds in goods, or money, into the East-Indies, and receive home for the same the full value of three hundred thousand pounds; hereby it is evident, that this part of the public stock is trebled: and yet it may be proved, that the company shall be losers by the adventure, if the returns be made in bulky commodities; for the freight, the charges abroad and at home, his Majesty's duties and customs, and other charges, will be above two hundred thousand pounds; which being added to the principal, produceth loss. And thus we see, that not only the kingdom, but also the king, may get very much, when the merchant shall lose; which gives good occasion to consider how much more the nation is enriched by this trade, when all things pass so happily, that the merchant is a gainer also, together with the king and kingdom.

But for the better explaining of that which hath been affirmed as above, we must understand, that if the said one hundred thousand pounds should be trebled by the return of so much silks, and other fine commodities, out of the Indies, then the merchant likewise should gain by such an adventure, because those commodities would require but five hundred tons of shipping to bring home the same, which is but a very small charge, in respect of four thousand five hundred tons of shipping, which would be required to lade home the like value in bulky commodities.

The second sort of gain in the course of trade is, when the merchant, by his laudable endeavours, may both bring in and carry out wares and commodities to his advantage, by buying them, and selling them to good profit, which is the end of his labours; yet nevertheless the commonwealth shall decline, and grow poor, by a disorder in the people, when through pride, and other excesses, they consume more foreign wares in value than the wealth of the kingdom can satisfy and pay,

by the exportation of our own commodities; which is the very quality of an unthrif, who spends beyond his means. See our articles EXPORTATION and IMPORTATION.

The third sort of gain is the king's, who is ever sure to get by trade, when the commonwealth and the merchant shall lose severally, as aforesaid, or jointly, as it may and sometimes doth happen when the merchant is unsuccessful, and when our commodities are overballanced by foreign wares consumed: but if such disorders be not prevented, his Majesty in the end shall be the greatest loser, when his subjects be impoverished.

The safety of this kingdom consists not only in its own strength and wealth, but also in the laudable and lawful performances of those things, which will weaken and impoverish such powerful princes, as either may or are become our enemies in remote countries.

All nations (who have no mines of their own) are enriched with gold and silver by one and the same means, which is already shewed to be the BALLANCE of their foreign trades; and this is not strictly to be done in those countries where the fountain of treasure is, but rather with such order and observations in their trade, and against excess, as are before-mentioned: for suppose England, by commerce with Spain, may get and bring home five hundred thousand ryals of eight yearly, yet if we lose as much by our trade in Turkey, and therefore carry our money thither, it is not then the English, but the Turks, who have got this treasure, although they have no trade with Spain, from whence it was first brought. But if England having thus lost with Turkey, does notwithstanding gain twice as much by France, Italy, and other members of her general trade, then there will remain five hundred thousand ryals of eight clear gain by the ballance of the same; and this comparison holds between all other nations, both for the manner of getting, and the proportion that is yearly gotten. But if yet a question was made, whether all nations get treasure, and Spain only lose it, I answer no; for some countries by war, or by excess, do lose that which they had gotten, as well as Spain, by war, and want of wares, doth lose that which was its own.

The industrious Hollanders wanting means in their own hands, do find rich mines in his Majesty's seas; golden mines they may be termed, for the States so call them in their public proclamations [see our article FISHERIES], which they have set forth on all occasions for the better preservation of their fishing: a treasure it is (indeed) inestimable, and an employment most profitable: from hence originally proceed the increase and maintenance of their people, their arts, their private wealth, their public treasure, the multitude of their ships which fetch materials to build ships, the swarms of their small vessels which catch fish, to lade their great ships which trade with fish; the produce whereof doth furnish them with all their wants of foreign commodities, and make them also rich in treasure, with which treasure they do also enlarge their trade into all the quarters of the world, whereby they become the magazines for England, France, Spain, and other places. In which course of trade, they are not less injurious to supplant others (especially the English) than they are careful to strengthen themselves, with more than ordinary diligence; for they know well, that trade hath raised their fortunes, and doth feed their hopes.

We have no other means to get treasure but by foreign trade; for mines we have none: and how this money is gotten in the management of our trade is already shown; that it is done by making our commodities, which are exported, to overballance in value the foreign wares which we consume: so that it remains only to shew, how our money may be added to our commodities, and being jointly exported, may so much the more increase our treasure.

And here let it be supposed, that our yearly consumption of foreign commodities is to the value of twenty hundred thousand pounds, and our exportations to exceed that two hundred thousand pounds, which sum it may be affirmed is brought to us in treasure to ballance the account: but if we add three hundred thousand pounds more in ready money, into our former exportation in wares, what profit can we have (will some men say) although by this means we should bring in so much ready money, seeing that we have carried out the like value?

To this the answer is; that when we have prepared our exportation of wares, and sent out as much of every thing as we can spare or vend abroad, it is not therefore said, that then we should add our money thereunto to fetch in more money immediately, but rather first to enlarge our trade therewith, by enabling us to bring in more foreign commodities; which being sent out again into the places of their consumption, they will in due time much increase our treasure: for though in this manner we do yearly multiply our importations to the maintenance of more shipping and mariners, improvements of his Majesty's customs, and other benefits, yet our consumption of those foreign commodities is no more than it was before; so that all the said increase of commodities brought in, by the means of our ready money sent out, as aforesaid, doth in the end become an exportation

tion unto us of a much greater value than our said monies were, which is proved by the three several examples following.

First, suppose that one hundred thousand pounds sterling, being sent in our shipping into the east countries, and that it will buy there one hundred thousand quarters of wheat, clear of all charges on board the ships, which being after brought into England and housed, to export the same at the best time for vent thereof in Spain or Italy, and that it there sells for two hundred thousand pounds to make the merchant but a saver, yet by this reckoning we see the kingdom hath doubled that treasure.

But the profit will be far greater when we trade thus with our money in remote countries; as for example, if we send one hundred thousand pounds into the East-Indies to buy pepper there, and bring it hither, and from hence send it to Italy or Turkey, and that it yields there five hundred thousand pounds, at those places, in regard to the excessive charges which must be disbursed in those long voyages in shipping, wages, victual, interest, customs, and the like, all which charges the king and the kingdom gain; and it may be here observed, that as the public profit by foreign trade is the only means whereby we gain our treasure, so the trade to the East-Indies (in its proportion) doth far excel all others.

The third example is, where the voyages are short, and the commodities rich, which therefore will not employ much shipping, the profit to the kingdom will be far less; as when another hundred thousand pounds shall be employed in Turkey in raw silks, and brought hither to be exported from hence, the merchant shall have good gain, though he sells for one hundred and fifty thousand pounds; and thus, take all the voyages together in their medium, the ready monies exported will be returned to us near treble. But if any man will yet object, that these returns come to us in wares, and not really in monies as they were issued out,

The answer is; that if our consumption of foreign wares be no more yearly than is before supposed, and that our exportations be so mightily increased by this manner of trading with ready money, it is not then possible (in the course of trade) but that all the overbalance or difference should return in either money, or such commodities as we must export again; which, as is before plainly shewed, will be still a greater means to increase our treasure; for it is in the stock of a kingdom as in the estates of private men, who, having store of wares and merchandize, do not therefore say, that they will not venture out or trade with their money (for this would be ridiculous) but do also turn that into wares; whereby they multiply their money, and so by a continual and orderly change of one into the other grow rich, and when they please turn all their estates into treasure, for they that have wares cannot want money; for what originally begot the monies sent out, but our wares?

Neither is it said that MONEY is the life of trade, as if it could not subsist or pass current without the same; for we know that there has been great trading by way of commutation or barter, when there was but little money stirring in the world. There are some nations which have such remedies against this want, that it can neither decay nor hinder their trade; for they transfer bills of debt, and have other ways whereby they assign their credit from one to another daily for very great sums, with ease and satisfaction by writing only; whilst, in the mean time, the mass of treasure, which gave foundation to these credits, is employed in foreign trade as a merchandize which doth much increase their traffic. It is not, therefore, THE KEEPING THE MONEY IN THE KINGDOM, WHICH MAKES A QUICK AND AMPLE TRADE, BUT THE USE OF OUR WARES IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES, AND OUR WANT OF THEIR COMMODITIES, WHICH CAUSES THE VENT AND CONSUMPTION ON ALL SIDES.

And here it may be observed, that Leghorn is one of the most famous places for trade in Europe, and yet the merchant hath but little means to make their returns from thence, but only in ready money; which they may, and do carry away freely at all times, and without custom, to the great advantage of the duke of Tuscany and his subjects, who have been much enriched by the continual great concourse of merchants, from all the states of princes their neighbours, bringing them money daily to supply their want of the said wares; and thus we see that the current of merchandize, which carries away their treasure, becomes a flowing stream to fill them again in a greater measure with money.

Therefore, let no man doubt but that MONEY must ever attend on MERCHANDIZE, for they go together: and it is worthy the noting, that there are princes who are content to part with their treasure, only to enjoy the trade of the wares which are brought them, for which (to encourage the merchant) they take no custom; whereas we, by sending out our MONEY, do gain the employment of our SHIPPING, the trade of our WARES, and the profit of the CUSTOMS, which is a TREBLE benefit.

Some men have thought, that those countries which permit money to be carried out, do it because they have few or no wares to trade withal; but we have great stores of commodi-

ties, and therefore their action ought not to be our example. To this it may be answered, that if we have such a quantity of wares, as doth fully provide us of all things needful from beyond the seas, why should we then doubt that our monies sent out in trade must not necessarily come back again in treasure, together with the great gains which it may procure in such manner as is before-mentioned? and on the other side, if those nations which send out their money, do it because they have few wares of their own, how come they to have so much treasure as we ever see in those places, which suffer it freely to be exported at all times, and by whomsoever? The answer is, Even by TRADING with their MONIES; for by what other means can they get it, having no mines of GOLD or SILVER?

It may now be expected, that I should give my thoughts with respect to the great complaints which have been this year published, against the India company's exportation of gold and silver bullion; but I chuse rather to observe,

That the foreign bullion exported by the East-India company, their officers and servants, for five years, commencing at Michaelmas 1711, and ending at Michaelmas 1716, amounted to 1,1,636,257. Besides, more than one tenth part of the whole export, was yearly sent to the East-Indies in goods of English product.

In five years, from Christmas 1712 to Christmas 1717, the East-India goods exported from England to foreign parts, amounted on their nett value to

Exclusive of the drawbacks and prompt payment allowed the merchants. 3,335,928

By which it is apparent, that over and above the value of the bullion exported to India, there was a ballance accruing from foreign parts to the amount of

Which have been answered to Great-Britain by goods, exchange, or bullion. Besides this sum, 1,699,671

The company have paid for customs in five years to Christmas 1717

The drawbacks on exportation of goods in the same time 1,848,070

So that the remaining surplus towards clearing the debt of the nation, amounted to 898,179

To which is to be added, as a further gain to the nation, all the salpêtre, drugs, tea, coffee, pepper, cotton, yarn, raw silk, muslins, and calicoes, expended in Great-Britain in the said five years, which otherwise must have been purchased at much dearer rates of our neighbours.

Note, The East-India company did licence foreign bullion for purchase of diamonds, from Michaelmas 1711 to Michaelmas 1716, 1,123,537.

But, because much the greatest part of the said diamonds are again exported, this sum is not added to the above bullion.

I shall now only observe, that I think the trade to the East-Indies will entirely be lost to this nation, if it should be laid open; but as I may probably publish too much on this subject for our natural enemies, or our professed friends and allies to hear at this time, so I will defer giving my thoughts thereupon 'till a more proper opportunity offers.' Some Thoughts relating to Trade in general, and to the East-India Trade in particular, printed for Baldwin.

That the reader may have a summary view of what has been urged for and against the East-India trade and company, the following short queries may not be unnecessary.

I. In favour of the TRADE and COMPANY.

1. Quere. Whether the East-India trade in general be beneficial or otherwise, upon the whole, to the European potentates interested therein?

If it has been, and still continues to be, detrimental to the Europeans upon the whole, can it be supposed that they would be so infatuated as to carry on a losing trade for many years? And,

If it is a commerce detrimental to the respective states that are engaged, how comes it to pass that other nations are endeavouring to establish this trade?

If the trade to the East-Indies could be most advantageously carried on by the several powers therein concerned, in a manner free and open to all the subjects of these powers, how happens it that every one of them should rather prefer large joint-stock exclusive companies?

If all the European states, engaged in this trade, carry on the same by the means of rich and powerful joint-stock corporations, with privileges and immunities exclusive of the subjects of such states; and Great-Britain alone was to attempt to carry on this trade different from them all by a regulated company, and to leave the same free and open to all his Majesty's subjects—Quere, Could Great-Britain be presumed to carry the trade on with the like degree of profit and safety that other nations do?

Whether the importation of gold from the East-Indies, and the re-exportation of East-India commodities to Europe America, and Africa, together with the building, employment of the shipping concerned therein, breeding of seamen,

the benefits arising from freight, assurance, customs, and all other charges, are not of far greater advantage to the kingdom, than the exportation of silver is a detriment? And whether, if the trade was laid absolutely open to all his Majesty's subjects, the exportation of silver would not rather be augmented than diminished?

Whether gold and silver, or bullion, ought not to be esteemed by the legislature as a commodity, or merchandize, and suffered, like other wares, to be freely exported? [See our article **BULLION**, Vol. I.] And if so, whether all objections raised against the company, by reason of their exportation of silver, are not inconclusive, and of no more weight against the company than against the trade itself, if laid open, because it cannot be carried on without such exportation?

Whether, if all the silver that has been produced in America was now circulating, as money*, in Europe, Europe would be the richer for it? And whether silver, if that was the case, would not have been as cheap as tin, or, perhaps, copper?

R E M A R K S.

* It may be here necessary to observe, that it must be beneficial to trade, that our princes, nobility, and gentry, should wear the richest gold and silver cloathing, and use such utensils, and adorn their palaces and houses with those precious metals, as much as the revenues of the crown, or income of the estates of the nobility and gentry will admit; only with this difference, that crowned heads may lay out this way, whatever the extent of their revenues will allow; but the nobility and gentry must act in this, with such regard to their families, that they may all be properly provided for, whilst the heir only should fill up such splendid appearances.

The reason of which is this, that as the gold and silver (i. e. money) increases in greater proportion than the people increase, so will the prices of every thing advance, and that in much greater proportion than the rents will or can rise; wherefore it cannot but be beneficial even for trade, that as much of these metals be used in splendor, as is consistent with the above mentioned circumstances; because, by thus keeping so much of those metals out of trade, the more just distinction will it keep up amongst the several ranks and stations of men, whilst at the same time it will give so much greater employment, and that in the most nice and curious arts, to mechanics, &c. and to prevent our markets from rising so high, as to hinder the exportation of our commodities, or give too great encouragement to the importation of foreign goods.

I am induced to make this remark, from the practice of the East-Indians, who, as I have often heard, carry this matter so far, as to bury the money they get by trade; as E. Philips, Esq, p. 7. also says, that they have, since the year 1602, buried above 150 millions of silver, which hath been brought into Europe (a).

(a) Money is the tradesman's working tools, without which he cannot proceed in trade at all; therefore, since the increase of money amongst the people will increase the price of things in greater proportion than the rents can be raised; the more money circulates in trade, the more must the traders have in their hands to carry it on; and this will necessarily raise tradesmen so much nearer the rank of gentry, as the quantity of cash they circulate is greater in proportion to the rents, than it would be if the prices of things were kept lower, the way above suggested.

Whether this trade extends to exhaust our wealth, or whether, on the contrary, our re-exportations of East-India goods do not, in the **BALLANCE** of **TRADE** with other countries, compensate us for the money paid for them; and whether we could carry on these **TRADES** so extensively, and to that advantage, without East-India goods to make up our fortments, as these goods are now, by the present channel and course of trade, become necessary for our foreign markets? But,

Whether, if the trade is laid open, private traders, who are disunited in their interests, can have such large capitals lodged in the Indies, and such a degree of weight and influence there, as are necessary to carry on trade with the natives; and whether numbers of separate traders going to India will not raise the price of the Indian commodities, and lessen the price of our own?

II. IN OPPOSITION TO THE COMPANY.

Query—If the East-India trade is so essentially connected with many other branches of our trade, whether it would not, if laid open, very much enlarge our trade in **GENERAL**, increase our **NAVIGATION**, and add to the wealth and riches of this kingdom?

Whether this trade is not carried on by the company with greater prejudice to the nation than it would be if made free and open, as they export less of its manufactures, and set their own price upon what they import, at the expence of the people of Great-Britain?

Whether, if the trade was laid open, a much greater number of ships would not be employed in this trade than at present, and those the strongest and most warlike, which, by this means, would be more extensive and enlarged in places

already traded to, and to others hitherto unfrequented; and, consequently, whether more of our fellow-subjects would not find employment both abroad and at home, more of our woollen, and other manufactures, be exported, and we have those goods much cheaper from thence for our own consumption, which we cannot well be without, and not interfere with our own; and whether those which we re-export, whereby our traffic with them in foreign markets would be very much enlarged, and the consumers of those goods take them from us, which they now do from **OTHER** nations?

Would not laying open this trade prove the means to carry on a great coast-trade in the Indies, and our coarse and fine cloths, and other manufactures, in all probability, be sold in greater quantities than hitherto, and a very great profit arise to the kingdom, by the additional freight which our ships will be able to make, in carrying of goods and passengers from one country to another?

Whether those who may be against this trade being laid open, as thinking the nation would be the more exhausted, ought not to examine what commodities are brought from those parts of the East-Indies, that take from us the greatest quantity of our product and manufactures, and in return, give us commodities that we cannot well be without; that are partly re-exported, and that do not interfere with, or hinder the consumption of, our own; and what from those parts, to which we chiefly export gold and silver? And whether upon these enquiries it will not be found, that those people who take from us most of our product and manufacture, give us in return saltpetre, pepper, cowries, &c. indico, and other dyeing goods, as well as drugs of most kinds, and very often gold and silver, particularly the former, which is afterwards exchanged for goods at Madras; and whether those places to which we chiefly send gold and silver, do not give us, in return, goods **MANUFACTURED**, **INTERFERING WITH**, **AND HINDERING THE CONSUMPTION OF**, **OUR OWN**, or such as serve us only for **LUXURY**, and whereof a very small value is re-exported to foreign countries independent of Great-Britain?

Whether, therefore, if this trade is now carried on to the disadvantage of the nation, it would not be the contrary, when laid open; especially if we are as careful as our interest obliges us to be, to encourage the different **TRADES** to some of those places, and with some of those people, and to discourage it to and with others? And whether, if this trade was laid open, under proper regulations and restrictions by the **LEGISLATURE** (whose business it is to discourage the trading to all disadvantageous ports of India, by **DUTIES** on commodities serving only for luxury, or interfering with, or hindering the consumption of, our own manufactures) the nation would be so far from being thereby the more exhausted, that a more extensive and beneficial trade would not be carried on, and greater employment given to our navigation and seamen? For when a trade is confined to a **FEW**, who are in no apprehension to be outdone by any rival, they are not like to take any extraordinary pains to improve it; whereas, when **MANY** carry on a **TRADE**, their industry and ingenuity are always at work to outvie one another; and to this it is we owe the increase of our trade in the course of 100 years past, and the extensiveness of our commerce at present. Whether the government, or a number of gentlemen that a **REGULATED COMPANY** shall be composed of, cannot apply money to the maintenance of forts and castles with good garrisons, as well as a number of gentlemen of whom an exclusive company is composed; and whether the servants of the government, or the factors of a **REGULATED COMPANY**, cannot do all in **INDIA** that the servants or factors of an exclusive company can do, touching **TRADE**, **PRESENTS**, and **ALLIANCES**? &c.

SIBERIA, or **ASIATIC RUSSIA**, formerly denominated **GREAT TARTARY**, is situated between 60 and 130 degrees of east longitude, and between 47 and 72 degrees of north latitude, being bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north, by the Pacific Ocean, China, and Chinese Tartary on the east, by the Mogul's and Uzbek Tartars on the south, and by the rivers Oby and Irtis, which separate Asiatic from European Russia on the west, being upwards of 2000 miles in length from east to west, and 1500 miles in breadth from north to south; the north of it a cold, barren, uninhabited country, covered with snow eight or nine months in the year; the southern provinces, a more fruitful soil, but most of the natives live a vagrant life like the ancient Scythians and Tartars, depending chiefly on what they take by hunting and fishing, or the produce of their flocks and herds: there are very few towns, and very little of the land cultivated, except near Tobolski the capital, to which part of it the Swedish prisoners were banished some years ago, and to which the Russians send most of their prisoners and some large colonies; but still there want hands to manure the ground, and great part of Siberia remains a desert. They have scarce any trade or manufactures; the principal traffic of the Muscovites of Siberia, is by sledges over the lake and frozen country to China in the winter, and they have been endeavouring to find a way into the sea of Japan and China, by their rivers which

which fall into the Frozen Ocean, but have not succeeded yet, as I can learn; but they relate they have met with some rich mines of silver and copper in the mountains of Siberia, which they have begun to work. We include the Calmuc Tartars within the limits of Siberia, as they acknowledge themselves subject to the empire of Russia.

TOBOLSKI, or **TOBOLSKA**, the chief city of Siberia, is situated on the confluence of the rivers Tobol and Irtysh, in latitude 58, longitude 67. 10, east. It is seated on a high hill of a large compass, the lower part of which is inhabited by Mahometan Tartars, who drive a good trade up the river Irtysh, and carry their merchandizes across Great Tartary, quite to China.

This city is, likewise, a famed mart for all the commodities which are brought thither, not only from most parts of Muscovy, but likewise from Tartary, and other countries: and the concourse of those merchants doth daily increase, and is vastly advantageous to the Russians.

Here is plenty of all sorts of provisions, and very cheap. An hundred weight of rice is sold for sixteen pence, and a good ox for two rixdollars, and the rest in proportion, especially fish, which is here in great plenty and variety; insomuch that a sturgeon of forty pounds weight is sold for five or six pence, and the same may be said of all kinds of game. In this city are held the supreme courts of judicature for all Siberia and Dauria; and here is likewise the residence of a metropolitan, sent hither from Moscow, who has a supreme spiritual jurisdiction over those two provinces.

The river Irtysh, which runs along one side of the town, is reckoned as rapid as the Danube, and flows thither from the south, and empties itself into the Oby. That of Tobol, which runs along the other side; and from which the town takes its name, is supposed to have its spring-head from the same territory with the Irtysh, and falls into it a little below it, and both bring a constant flow of merchandizes into it all the summer.

DEMIANSKI, seated on the river Irtysh, fifty leagues north of Tobolska, is a town of good traffic.

SOMAROSKOI JAM, is another town of some trade on the same river, about 50 leagues below Demianski, and about 20 above its confluence with the Oby.

TINNEN, **TINNEN**, alias **TINNA**, is situated in latitude 56. 50, longitude 65. 10, on a river of its name, called also **TORA**: it stands about 40 leagues south of Tobolska, and is a great market for all kinds of furs. It is large, populous, and surrounded with stout walls and ramparts; and is chiefly inhabited by Tartars, who are very affable and courteous, and carry on a considerable trade with other nations.

JAPANZIN stands in latitude 58. 10, longitude 63. 25, about 45 leagues north-east of Tinnchen, on the river Toza, and was built for a stage for persons who travelled on this road; as was also **Vergaleria**, the first town of Siberia, for those who travelled thence in Persia. It was built anno 1590, and is the residence of a governor, and of a numerous garrison, who yearly distribute out the corn, and other provisions, to other fortresses and garrisons seated in countries not tilled.

TARA, situate in latitude 57. 5, longitude 71. 45, almost in the middle of the province, upon the river Irtysh, is another considerable place for trade, and built by the Muscovites for the security of it down that river.

SURGUT is seated on the north-east side of the river Oby, and is a poor town, thinly inhabited, and worse built; and in short, in the whole territory of it the people are so poor, that they can scarcely afford cloaths to keep themselves warm. They cultivate but little land, and that very indifferently; and subsist almost wholly on their hunting of fables, ermines, black foxes, beavers, and such-like creatures, with which this territory abounds; some of which they catch in traps, others they hunt with dogs, and traffic for their skins. The ermines are here the finest and largest in all Siberia; and the black foxes are in such esteem, that a skin of that sort is sold for two or three hundred rubles. Hyenas and beavers are, likewise, in great plenty here.

NARIM, in latitude 58. 50, longitude 82. 53, capital of a territory of that name, is, likewise, situate on the Oby, a little below where that river receives the Keta. It is large and populous, and defended by a strong fortress, and a good garrison of Cossacs. The territory about it abounds with foxes, beavers, ermines, fables, &c.

TOMSKAI is a strong frontier town, and the capital of a province of its name. It is seated on the river Toza, which falls into the Oby a little below it. It stands about 30 leagues south of Narim, latitude 56. 50, longitude 84. 37, east.

Other towns along those rivers above-named are, **SIBER**, or **SIBIER**, **BERESAI**, **JURGOET**, which last stands on an island in the Oby; and the fortress of **Comgoscoi** on the river **Telt**, which hath a good garrison.

R E M A R K S.

The inhabitants of this last Narim, were a little above 30 years ago ordered to get upon their sledges, and make what farther discoveries they could towards the eastern part of this province. They travelled eastward through several waste

and desert countries, which had, however, abundance of rivers, trees, and a good soil; and, at the end of three weeks, found a champaign country, inhabited by a sort of wild people, who lived in huts, and called themselves **Tingoesi**. They were seated along the river **Jenizea**, which is larger than the Oby, and runs in almost a straight course northward, the length of 25 degrees, from the lake **Baykal**, where it rises, to the Northern Ocean, into which it discharges itself. This river is observed to overflow in summer, like the Nile in Egypt, to above 70 leagues of the flat land; during which time, these **Tingoesi** move up, with all their cattle, towards the mountains, 'till the waters are dried up; and then return, and make the best of that fine pasture land.

The next year a new set of Muscovites were sent with the former, and some **Samoiedes** and **Tingoesi**, who were their guides, and here and there their interpreters; and these still kept towards the east, not daring to decline towards the south. In their way they met with some wild people on this side the river **Perfida**, which is not so wide, but is as rapid as the **Jenizea**; and these were a stout robust people, with little eyes, who made signs as if to tell them, that on the other side of that river, there was heard an omom, which some understood of thunder, others of the sound of bells. The report they made at their return, excited the curiosity of others; and the waiwode sent thither, the year after, about 700 men, who penetrated again as far as the river **Perfida**, and encamped there along its banks, waiting for the spring, that they might see it thawed and open. Here they perceived, when the wind sat towards them, the confused sound of bells, of men, and horses, on the other side of the river, though they met with no men on this side: they fancied likewise, that they saw some vessels, with their sails of a square form, such as are used in India. In the months of April and May they saw, with pleasure, the whole country covered with variety of flowers, plants, fruits, beasts, birds, &c. and, by slow journeys, returned, and arrived in Siberia in autumn, where they gave an account of what they had seen.

This river of **Perfida** is supposed to be the boundary of the kingdom of **Cathai**, on that side which lies between India and China, and this gave them great hopes of more considerable discoveries in process of time; but the troubles which happened in Muscovy, put an end to the embassy they had designed to send thither, in a summer or two. However, the governor of Siberia sent thither a fresh caravan by land, and a number of covered vessels down the Oby into the Northern Sea, to discover the coasts of it as far as the mouth of the **Jenizea**; and the first that come, whether by land or water, were to wait for the others a whole year, and then return by the same way. Both performed their parts, and made a faithful report of what they had observed, which was sent, sealed, to the court of Moscow, to be made use of as soon as the war was ended. But by the little notice that has since been taken of it, it is probable, that the account has been either lost, or discouraged; and that the Muscovites have returned, in a great measure, to their primitive aversion to all discoveries of this kind; and all commerce with other nations: otherwise they have very great conveniences, by means of those rivers, most of them navigable, to carry their enquiries a great deal farther after the so much desired **NORTH-EAST PASSAGE** into **CHINA** and **JAPAN**. For instance, they have here a large river called the **Taas**, which falls into the Oby, and which seems to come down from a forest not far from the **Jenizea**; whence springs another river not far from the former, which falls into the **Jenizea**; so that from the Oby one might, by means of the **Taas** above mentioned, cross part of Siberia and **Samoieda**, and, after about two or three leagues march by land, come to another called the **Torgalf**, and sail down it into the **Jenizea**, the **Torgalf** having been lately discovered by the **Tingoesi** and **Samoiedes**, and found to be navigable, quite into the **Jenizea** above mentioned.

The **Jenizea**, so lately mentioned, is another river that would no less contribute to such useful discoveries, and, consequently, may deserve a particular description in this place. It hath its spring-head in some lakes near high mountains on the south side by Siberia, and thence running towards the north-west, crosses the land of the **Curges**, or **Kurgisses**, where it grows considerably larger, by the addition of a great number of brooks and rivers; particularly the **Angara**, which springs out of the lake **Baykal** above named, and waters the city of **Jenizea** in the territory of the **Tonguscan Tartars**, and called, by most travellers, **Jenizekoi**, the **Padkamena**, and **Tongusca**, both of them also very considerable.

A good way below this it enters into **Samoiedia**, where it receives, among many of a lesser size, those of **Nizaia**, **Tongusca**, which runs through the territories of the **Tongusci**, a little below the confluence of which is the monastery of **Troitzcogo**, and somewhat lower still, on the opposite side, the town of **Turnganscoi**, where the **Turngan** falls again into the **Jenizea**. Next to it, it receives those of the **Schoriga**, **Corefiga**, **Gataka**, and **Ubo**; and below these one branch of the **Guskina**; and a few leagues farther the other, by which is formed the island of that name; and, after a great winding

winding along the east side of a vast ridge of mountains, it divides itself, before it falls into the Frozen Sea, and forms a second island over-against Nova Zembla. We shall only observe farther, concerning the course of this river, that it receives a great number of others, for some of which we hardly find any names in maps.

A short account of the many attempts that have been made for the discovery of a NORTH-WEST PASSAGE.

The first person who attempted this discovery was John Cabot, employed by Henry VII. of England, towards the end of the fifteenth century, but was prevented from finishing his discovery by his people mutinying. He was always of opinion there was a passage, and that he should have discovered it if not prevented by his men.

It was almost fourscore years before another attempt was made, and then undertaken in the year 1576 by Sir Martin Forbisher, who was so little discouraged by an unsuccessful voyage, that he made two more, though with the same success. In 1583 Sir Humphry Oilbert went on the same expedition, but went no farther than Canada, in which voyage he settled the cod-fishery at Newfoundland. In 1585, Capt. John Davis made an attempt, but without success, and two more in the two following years, but without succeeding in his great attempt of discovering the north-west passage, though he proceeded to the height of 72 degrees north.

Mr Hudson, in the year 1610, after having in vain made a trial of the north-east passage, attempted the discovery of the north-west, passing through the streights that have since borne his name into an open sea; but was, like John Cabot, prevented from proceeding by a mutiny among his seamen, who refused to proceed any farther. After him Baffin made three voyages in the years 1612, 1615, and 1616.

In the year 1618, Mr Henry Button, afterwards Sir Henry, attempted to improve upon the discoveries made by Mr Hudson, and wintered at port Nelson, where, by the extreme cold, he lost great part of his men. He was the first person who wintered in those countries.

During these attempts of the English, the king of Denmark, thinking to perfect their attempts by the vicinity of his country, in the year 1605 fitted out two ships, and sent them on the same expedition, under the command of Capt. Cunningham, a Scotsman, who succeeded no better than the English; which did not prevent another expedition in the year 1607, when the men mutinied, and obliged the captain to return. This ill success only occasioned the king of Denmark to change the people; and having fitted out two ships, sent them under the command of a Dutchman, named Christian Richardson, manning his ships from Norway and Iceland, but with the same success, the men mutinying before they saw the land of Greenland. In 1619, the Danes sent Capt. Munk, who wintered there, and lost all his men but two, with whom he got home in the pinnace, leaving the ship behind.

In the year 1631, the English resumed the undertaking, and sent two ships, one from London under the command of Capt. Fox, and one from Bristol under the command of Capt. James, who met near port Nelson in the month of August. Fox came home that year, but James wintered in that country, and endured almost incredible hardships, but at last arrived safe in England.

The ill success of these attempts put a stop for many years to any ships being fitted out for this discovery, especially as the Hudson's-Bay company, which was established in Charles the 1st's time, had taken that discovery under their more immediate care, being by their charter obliged to fit out ships to send on that discovery; though we read of only two expeditions, one under the command of Capt. Barlow, who was lost, and another unsuccessful under the care of Mr John Scrogg, in the year 1722.

From this time till Capt. Middleton's expedition in the king's ship *Furnace*, in the years 1741 and 1742, we hear of no attempt. This voyage occasioned a controversy between Arthur Dobbs, Esq; now governor of North Carolina, and the captain, on his return, but with little satisfaction to the public, the principal intent of the voyage, the discovery of the passage, not being completed.

In the year 1744, an act was passed, promising a reward of 20,000*l.* to be paid by the lords of the treasury, to any persons who should succeed in discovering the north-west passage. This, with other advantages, which the undertakers proposed to themselves by such an attempt, encouraged a subscription for fitting out two ships from London, called the *Dobbs* and *California*, under the command of the captains Moor and Smith, who sailed the 20th of May, 1746, and after wintering at port Nelson in Hudson's-Bay, to be ready to go on with their expedition early the next year, and making many attempts, which proved to them only the probability of a passage, and not the certainty by success, they arrived safe in Yarmouth-roads on the 14th of October, 1747. The last voyages that we have heard of, are those made by Capt. Swaine from Philadelphia, but with as little success as any of the former.

Of the NORTH-EAST PASSAGE.

The north-east passage has likewise been often attempted by the English, the Dutch, and the Danes, but hitherto unsuccessfully. There have been, however, as I am informed, some discoveries made within these few years, that have not only a tendency to facilitate such a discovery, but are of such a nature, as seem to prove demonstrably the CERTAINTY of such a passage: and these discoveries, if I am rightly informed, are now in the possession of an English gentleman, who has been at no inconsiderable trouble and expence silently to come at such intelligence, by residing several years in Russia, and there employing proper people to pursue such measures as have been instrumental thereunto. Such a happy discovery, made by a subject of the crown of Great-Britain, must not only give eternal glory to the kingdom, but be attended with unspeakable advantages. As I know something of this gentleman's character, I am confident that he would be the last person who would offer any thing of this kind to the public, if it was not grounded upon very rational principles.

SICILY. See NAPLES.

SILESIA, a duchy in Germany. This country lies between Bohemia, Moravia, and Lusatia, on the south-west, and Poland on the north-east. On the side next Bohemia are many barren mountains; but the rest of the country is good soil, abounding with corn, wine, sweet-cane, or galengal, madder, and flax; and in the mountains which divide it from Moravia are mines of silver, the richest in Germany: there are others of copper, lead, iron, quicksilver, salt, salt-petre, and chalk.

TESCHEN, which stands between the two rivers Oels and Weichsel, has a good trade in wine and fruit from Hungary, with store of venison, wild fowl, and fish, and two sorts of beer, the one of wheat, the other of barley, both much esteemed.

FREYSTADT, on the river Oels, is noted for mines of iron, and is a great thoroughfare from Cracow to Vienna.

STRIGA stands on the river Polnitz, and is noted for excellent beer, and that remarkable mineral called *terra sigillata*.

BRESLAW, which is the metropolis of Silesia, stands at the conflux of the Oder and Olaw, and two other rivers. It is a very populous city, and much frequented by Hungarian, Bohemian, Polish, and other foreign merchants. Here is a square near a mile round, where are, on one side, three grand warehouses, about 500 paces in length, like market-halls, full of shops, where they sell silks, stuffs, fine cloth of all colours, iron wares, &c. and on the other side are the houses of the merchants to whom they belong. But the salt-market, in respect to the magnificent houses round it, is reckoned the finest of all its squares.

CROSSEN stands near the conflux of the Oder and Boben: it is a neat old city, and has a considerable trade, particularly in linen cloth and earthen ware, by its rivers.

REMARKS.

A misunderstanding having some time subsisted between the crowns of Great-Britain and Prussia, in relation to the SILESIA LOAN, it may be of use to posterity to know the answer that was given, by his Britannic Majesty's order, to the king of Prussia's memorial upon that occasion; and especially so, because there is great knowledge therein contained of maritime and commercial affairs, and the whole is drawn up with such extraordinary judgment and accuracy, as will ever do honour to those celebrated lawyers whose names are superscribed thereto.

The duke of NEWCASTLE'S LETTER, by his MAJESTY'S order, to Monsieur MICHELL, the king of PRUSSIA'S secretary of the embassy, in answer to the memorial, and other papers, delivered by Monsieur MICHELL to the duke of NEWCASTLE, on the 23d of November, and 13th of December last. Published by authority. London, printed by Edward Owen, in Warwick-Lane. 1753.

S I R,

Whitehall, Feb. 8, 1753.

I lost no time in laying before the king the memorial which you delivered to me, on the 23d of November last, with the papers that accompanied it.

His Majesty found the contents of it so extraordinary, that he would not return an answer to it, or take any resolution upon it, till he had caused both the memorial, and the *Exposition des Motifs*, &c. which you put into my hands soon after, by way of justification of what had passed at Berlin, to be maturely considered, and till his Majesty should thereby be enabled to set the proceedings of the courts of admiralty here in their true light; to the end that his Prussian Majesty, and the whole world, might be rightly informed of the regularity of their conduct, in which they appear to have followed the only method which has ever been practised by na-

tions where disputes of this nature could happen, and strictly to have conformed themselves to the law of nations, universally allowed to be the only rule in such cases, when there is nothing stipulated to the contrary, by particular treaties between the parties concerned.

This examination, and the full knowledge of the facts resulting from it, will shew so clearly the irregularity of the proceedings of those persons to whom this affair was referred at Berlin, that it is not doubted, from his Prussian Majesty's justice and discernment, but that he will be convinced thereof, and will revoke the detention of the sums assigned upon Silesia, the payment of which his Prussian Majesty engaged to the empress queen to take upon himself, and of which the reimbursement was an express article in the treaties by which the cession of that duchy was made.

I, therefore, have the King's orders to send you the report made to his Majesty upon the papers abovementioned, by Sir George Lee, judge of the Prerogative Court; Dr Paul, his Majesty's advocate-general in the courts of civil law; Sir Dudley Ryder and Mr Murray, his Majesty's attorney and solicitor-general. This report is founded on the principles of the law of nations, received and acknowledged by authorities of the greatest weight in all countries; so that his Majesty does not doubt but that it will have the effect desired.

The points upon which this whole affair turns, and which are decisive, are,

First, That affairs of this kind are, and can be, cognizable only in the courts belonging to that power where the seizure is made; and consequently, that the erecting foreign courts, or jurisdictions, elsewhere, to take cognizance thereof, is contrary to the known practice of all nations in the like cases, and therefore a proceeding which none can admit.

Secondly, That those courts, which are generally styled courts of admiralty, and which include both the inferior courts, and the courts of appeal, always decide according to the universal law of nations only, except in those cases where there are particular treaties between the powers concerned, which have altered the dispositions of the law of nations, or deviate from them.

Thirdly, That the decisions in the cases complained of appear, by the inclosed report, to have been made singly, upon the rule prescribed by the law of nations; which rule is clearly established, by the constant practice of other nations, and by the authority of the greatest men.

Fourthly, That in the case in question, there cannot even be pretended to be any treaty that has altered this rule, or by virtue of which the parties could claim any privileges which the law of nations does not allow them.

Fifthly, That as, in the present case, no just grievance can be alleged, nor the least reason given, for saying, That justice has been denied, when regularly demanded; and as, in most of the cases complained of, it was the complainants themselves who neglected the only proper means of procuring it, there cannot, consequently, be any just cause, or foundation, for reprisals.

Sixthly, That, even though reprisals might be justified by the known and general rules of the law of nations, it appears by the report, and indeed from considerations which must occur to every body, that sums due to the king's subjects by the empress queen, and assigned by her upon Silesia, of which sums his Prussian Majesty took upon himself the payment, both by the treaty of Breslau, and by that of Dresden, in consideration of the cession of that country, and which, by virtue of that very cession, ought to have been fully and absolutely discharged in the year 1745, that is to say, one year before any of the facts complained of did happen; could not, either in justice or reason, or according to what is the constant practice between all the most respectable powers, be seized, or stopped, by way of reprisals.

The several facts which are particularly mentioned above, are so clearly stated and proved, in the inclosed report, that I shall not repeat the particular reasons and authorities alleged in support of them, and in justification of the conduct and proceedings in question. The King is persuaded, that these reasons will be sufficient, also, to determine the judgment of all impartial people in the present case.

It is material to observe upon this subject, that this debt on Silesia was contracted by the late emperor Charles the Sixth, who engaged not only to fulfil the conditions expressed in the contract, but even to give the creditors such further security as they might afterwards reasonably ask. This condition has been very ill performed by a transfer of the debt, which had put it in the power of a third person to seize and confiscate it. You will not be surprized, Sir, that, in an affair which has so greatly alarmed the whole nation, who are intitled to that protection which his Majesty cannot dispense with himself from granting, the King has taken time to have things examined to the bottom, and that his Majesty finds himself obliged, by the facts, to adhere to the justice and legality of what has been done in his courts, and not to admit the irregular proceedings which have been carried on elsewhere.

The late war furnished many instances, which ought to have convinced all Europe how scrupulously the courts here do justice upon such occasions. They did not even avail them-

selves of an open war, to seize or detain the effects of the enemy, when it appeared that those effects were taken wrongfully before the war. This circumstance must do honour to their proceedings, and will, at the same time, shew, that it was as little necessary as proper, to have recourse elsewhere to proceedings intirely new and unusual.

The King is fully persuaded, that what has passed at Berlin, has been occasioned singly by the ill-grounded informations which his Prussian Majesty has received of these affairs; and does not at all doubt, but that, when his Prussian Majesty shall see them in their true light, his natural dispositions to justice and equity, will induce him immediately to rectify the steps which have been occasioned by those informations, and to complete the payment of the debt charged on the duchy of Silesia, according to his engagements for that purpose.

I am, with much Consideration,

S I R,

Your most Obedient,

Humble Servant,

HOLLIS NEWCASTLE.

To the KING's Most Excellent MAJESTY.

May it please your Majesty,

In obedience to your Majesty's commands, signified to us by his grace the duke of Newcastle, we have taken the memorial, sentence of the Prussian commissioners, and lists marked A and B, which were delivered to his grace by Monsieur Michell, the Prussian secretary here, on the 23d of November last, and also the printed Exposition des Motifs, &c. which was delivered to his grace the 13th of December last, into our serious consideration; and we have directed the proper officer to search the registers of the court of admiralty, and inform us how the matter appeared from the proceedings there, in relation to the cases mentioned in the said lists A and B, which he has accordingly done.

And your Majesty having commanded us to report our opinion, concerning the nature and regularity of the proceedings under the Prussian commission, mentioned in the said memorial, and of the claim, or demand, pretended to be founded thereupon, and how far the same are consistent with, or contrary to, the law of nations, and any treaties subsisting between your Majesty and the king of Prussia, the established rules of admiralty jurisdiction, and the laws of this kingdom:

For the greater perspicuity, we beg leave to submit our thoughts upon the whole matter in the following method:

First, To state the clear established principles of law.

Secondly, To state the fact.

Thirdly, To apply the law to the fact.

Fourthly, To observe upon the questions, rules, and reasonings alleged in the said memorial, sentence of the Prussian commissioners, and Exposition des Motifs, &c. which carry the appearance of objections, to what we shall advance upon the former heads.

First, As to the law.

When two powers are at war, they have a right to make prizes of the ships, goods, and effects, of each other, upon the high seas: whatever is the property of the enemy, may be acquired by capture at sea; but the property of a friend cannot be taken, provided he observes his neutrality.

Hence the law of nations has established,

That the goods of an enemy, on board the ship of a friend, may be taken.

That the lawful goods of a friend, on board the ship of an enemy, ought to be restored.

That contraband goods, going to the enemy, though the property of a friend, may be taken as prize, because supplying the enemy with what enables him better to carry on the war, is a departure from neutrality.

By the maritime law of nations, universally and immemorially received, there is an established method of determination, whether the capture be or be not lawful prize.

Before the ship or goods can be disposed of by the captor, there must be a regular judicial proceeding, wherein both parties may be heard, and condemnation thereupon as prize, in a court of admiralty, judging by the law of nations, and treaties.

The proper and regular court for these condemnations, is the court of that state to whom the captor belongs.

The evidence to acquit or condemn, with or without costs or damages, must, in the first instance, come merely from the ship taken, viz. the papers on board, and the examination, on oath, of the master, and other principal officers; for which purpose there are officers of admiralty in all the considerable sea-ports of every maritime power at war, to examine the captains, and other principal officers of every ship, brought in as prize, upon general and impartial interrogatories: if there do not appear from thence ground to condemn, as enemies property, or contraband goods going to the enemy,

enemy, there must be an acquittal, unless, from the afore-said evidence, the property shall appear so doubtful, that it is reasonable to go into further proof thereof.

A claim of ship, or goods, must be supported by the oath of some body, at least as to belief.

The law of nations requires good faith: therefore every ship must be provided with complete and genuine papers, and the master, at least, should be privy to the truth of the transaction.

To enforce these rules, if there be false or colourable papers; if any papers be thrown over-board; if the master and officers examined in *PREPARATORIO* grossly prevaricate; if proper ships-papers are not on board; or if the master and crew cannot say whether ship or cargo be the property of a friend or enemy: the law of nations allows, according to the different degrees of misbehaviour or suspicion, arising from the fault of the ship taken, and other circumstances of the case, costs to be paid, or not to be received, by the claimant, in case of acquittal and restitution. On the other hand, if a seizure is made without probable cause, the captor is adjudged to pay costs and damages: for which purpose, all privateers are obliged to give security for their good behaviour; and this is referred to, and expressly stipulated by, many treaties *. [See our articles *PRIVATEERS*, and *MARITIME*, or *MARINE AFFAIRS*, and *TREATIES OF COMMERCE*.]

* Treaty between England and Holland, 17 Feb. 1668, art. 13.—Treaty 1 Dec. 1674, art. 10.—Treaty between England and France, at St Germain, 24 Feb. 1677, art. 10.—Treaty of commerce at Ryswick, Sept. 20, 1697, between France and Holland, art. 30.—Treaty of commerce at Utrecht, 31 March, 1713, between Great-Britain and France, art. 29.

Though from the ships papers, and the preparatory examinations, the property does not sufficiently appear to be neutral, the claimant is often indulged with time, to send over affidavits to supply that defect: if he will not shew the property, by sufficient affidavits, to be neutral, it is presumed to belong to the enemy. Where the property appears from evidence not on board the ship, the captor is justified in bringing her in, and excused paying costs, because he is not in fault; or, according to the circumstances of the case, may be justly intitled to receive his costs.

If the sentence of the court of admiralty is thought to be erroneous, there is in every maritime country a superior court of review, consisting of the most considerable persons, to which the parties who think themselves aggrieved may appeal; and this superior court judges by the same rule which governs the court of admiralty, viz. the law of nations, and the treaties subsisting with that neutral power whose subject is a party before them.

If no appeal is offered, it is an acknowledgement of the justice of the sentence by the parties themselves, and conclusive.

This manner of trial and adjudication is supported, alluded to, and enforced, by many treaties *.

* As appears with respect to courts of admiralty adjudging the prizes taken by those of their own nation, and with respect to the witnesses to be examined in those cases, from the following treaties:—Treaty between England and Holland, 17 Feb. 1668, art. 9 and 14.—Treaty 1 Dec. 1674, art. 11.—Treaty 29 April, 1689, art. 12, 13.—Treaty between England and Spain, 23 May, 1667, art. 23.—Treaty of commerce at Ryswick, 20 Sept. 1697, between France and Holland, art. 26 and 31.—Treaty between England and France, 3 Nov. 1655, art. 17 and 18.—Treaty of commerce between England and France at St Germain, 29 March, 1632, art. 5 and 6.—Treaty at St Germain, 24 Feb. 1677, art. 7.—Treaty of commerce between Great-Britain and France, at Utrecht, 31 March, 1713, art. 26 and 30.—Treaty between England and Denmark, 29 Nov. 1669, art. 23 and 34. Heineccius, who was privy-counsellor to the king of Prussia, and held in the greatest esteem, in his treatise de Navibus ob vecturam vetitarum mercium commissis, cap. 2. § 17 and 18. speaks of this method of trial.

With respect to appeals, or reviews:—From treaty between England and Holland, 1 Dec. 1674, art. 12. as it is explained by art. 2. of the treaty at Westminster, 6 Feb. 1715-16.—Treaty between England and France, at St Germain, 24 Feb. 1677, art. 12.—Treaty of commerce at Ryswick, 20 Sept. 1697, between France and Holland, art. 33.—Treaty of commerce at Utrecht, 31 March, 1713, between Great-Britain and France, art. 31 and 32; and other treaties.

In this method all captures at sea were tried, during the last war, by Great-Britain, France, and Spain, and submitted to by the neutral powers. In this method, by courts of admiralty acting according to the law of nations, and particular treaties, all captures at sea have immemorially been judged of, in every country of Europe: any other method of trial would be manifestly unjust, absurd, and impracticable.

Though the law of nations be the general rule, yet it may, by mutual agreement between two powers, be varied or departed from; and where there is an alteration or exception, introduced by particular treaties, that is the law between the parties to the treaty, and the law of nations only governs so far as it is not derogated from by the treaty.

Thus, by the law of nations, where two powers are at war, all ships are liable to be stopped, and examined to whom they belong, and whether they are carrying contraband goods to the enemy: but particular treaties have enjoined a less degree of search, on the faith of producing solemn passports, and formal evidences of property, duly attested.

Particular treaties too have inverted the rule of the law of nations, and, by agreement, declared the goods of a friend, on board the ship of an enemy, to be prize; and the goods of an enemy, on board the ship of a friend, to be free, as appears from the treaties already mentioned, and many others *.

* Particularly by the afore-said treaty between England and Holland, 1 Dec. 1674; and the treaty of Utrecht between Great-Britain and France.

So likewise, by particular treaties, some goods reputed contraband by the law of nations, are declared to be free.

If a subject of the king of Prussia is injured by, or has a demand upon, any person here, he ought to apply to your Majesty's courts of justice, which are equally open and indifferent to foreigner or native: so vice versa, if a subject here is wronged by a person living in the dominions of his Prussian Majesty, he ought to apply for redress in the king of Prussia's courts of justice.

If the matter of complaint be a capture at sea during war, and the question relative to prize, he ought to apply to the judicatures established to try these questions.

The law of nations founded upon justice, equity, convenience, and the reason of the thing, and confirmed by long usage, don't allow of reprisals, except in case of violent injuries, directed or supported by the state, and justice absolutely denied, in re minime dubia, by all the tribunals, and afterwards by the prince.

* Grotius de Jure Belli ac Pacis, lib. 3. cap. 2. §. 4, 5.

Treaty between England and Holland, 31 July, 1667, art. 31. Reprisals shall not be granted 'till justice has been demanded according to the ordinary course of law.

Treaty of commerce at Rywic, 20 Sept. 1697, between France and Holland, art. 4. Reprisals shall not be granted, but on manifest denial of justice.

Where the judges are left free, and give sentence according to their conscience, though it should be erroneous, that would be no ground for reprisals. Upon doubtful questions, different men think and judge differently; and all a friend can desire is, that justice should be as impartially administered to him, as it is to the subjects of that prince in whose courts the matter is tried.

Secondly, As to the FACT.

We have subjoined here two lists, tallying with those marked A and B, which were delivered to his grace the duke of Newcastle, by Monsr. Michell, with the said memorial, the 23d of November last, and are also printed at the end of the said Exposition-des Motifs, &c. from whence it will appear, that as to the list A, which contains 18 ships, and their cargoes,

- 4 If ever taken, were restored by the captors themselves, to the satisfaction of the Prussians, who never have complained in any court of justice here.
- 1 Was restored by sentence, with full costs and damages, which were liquidated at 2801 l. 12 s. 1 d. sterling.
- 3 Ships were restored by sentence, with freight, for such of the goods as manifestly belonged to the enemy, and were condemned.
- 4 Ships were restored by sentence, but the cargoes, or part of them, condemned as prize or contraband, and are not now alleged, in the lists A or B, to have been Prussian property.
- 5 Ships and cargoes were restored by sentence, but the claimant subjected to pay costs, because, from the ship-papers, and preparatory examinations, there was ground to have condemned, and the restitution was decreed merely on the faith of affidavits afterwards allowed.
- 1 Ship and cargo was restored by sentence upon an appeal, but, from the circumstances of the capture, without costs on either side.

There need no observations upon this list. As to the eight cases first above-mentioned, there cannot be the colour of complaint.

As to the four next, the goods must be admitted to have been rightly condemned, either as enemy's property or contraband, for they are not now mentioned in the lists A or B.

If contraband, the ship could have neither freight nor costs, and the sentences were favourable in restoring the ships, upon presumption that the owners of the ships were not acquainted with the nature of the cargo, or owners thereof. If enemy's property, the ships could not be entitled to freight, because the bills of lading were false, and purported the property to belong to Prussians.

The ships could not be entitled to costs, because the cargoes, or part of them, being lawful prize, the ships were rightly brought in.

As the six remaining ships and cargoes were restored, the only question must be, upon the paying or not receiving costs, which depends upon the circumstances of the capture, the fairness

fairness of the ship's documents, and conduct of her crew; and neither the Prussian commissioners, the said memorial, or said Exposition des Motifs, &c. alleges a single reason why, upon the particular circumstances of these cases, the sentences were wrong.

As to the list B.

Every ship on board which the subjects of Prussia claim to have had property, was bound to, or from, a port of the enemy; and many of them appeared clearly to be, in part, laden with the goods of the enemy, either under their own, or fictitious names.

In every instance where it is suggested that any part of the cargo belonged to a Prussian subject, though his property did not appear from the ship's papers, or preparatory examinations, which it ought to have done, sufficient time was indulged to that Prussian subject, to make an affidavit that the property was bona fide in him; and the affidavit of the party himself has been received as proof of the property of the Prussian, so as to intitle him to restitution.

Where the party won't swear at all, or swears evasively, it is plain he only lends his name to cover the enemy's property, as often came out to be the case, beyond the possibility of doubt.

It appears by a letter ^{29 May}_{9 June}, 1747, from Mons. Andrie, to his Prussian Majesty, exhibited in a cause, and certified to be a true extract by Mons. Michell, under his hand, that this colourable manner of screening the goods of the enemy was stated in the following words:

'Your Majesty's subjects ought not to load on board neutral ships any goods really belonging to the enemies of England, but to load them for their own account, whereby they may safely send them to any country they shall think proper, without running any risk: then, if privateers commit any damage to the ships belonging to your Majesty's subjects, you may depend on full justice being done here, as in all the like cases hath been done.'

List B contains thirty-three cases:

- 2 Two of them never came before a court of justice in England, but (if taken) were restored by the captors themselves, to the intire satisfaction of the owners.
- 16 In sixteen of them, the goods claimed by the Prussian subject appear to have been actually restored, by sentence, to the masters of the ships in which they were laden; and, by the customs of the sea, the master is in the place of the lader, and answerable to him.
- 14 In fourteen of the cases, the Prussian property was not verified by the ship's papers, or preparatory examinations, or claimant's own affidavit, which he was allowed time to make.
- 1 And the other cause, with respect to part of the goods, is still depending; neither party having moved for judgment *.
- 33 And so conscious were the claimants that the court of admiralty did right, there is not an appeal, in a single instance, in list B, and but one in list A.

* The Prussian has since applied for judgment, on the 29th of January, and obtained restitution.

Thirdly, To apply the LAW to the FACT.

The sixth question in the said Exposition des Motifs, &c. states the right of reprisals to be, Puisqu'on leur a si long tems deniè toute la justice, qu'ils étoient fondes de demander.

The said memorial founds the justice and propriety of his Prussian Majesty's having recourse to reprisals, because his subjects, N'ont pu obtenir jusqu'à present aucune justice des tribunaux Anglois qu'ils ont reclamés, ou du gouvernement auquel ils ont porté leurs plaintes. And in another part of the memorial it is put, Apres avoir en vain demandé des reparations de ceux qui seuls pouvoient les faire.

The contrary of all which is manifest, from the above state, and lists hereto annexed.

In six of the cases specified, (if such captures ever were made) the Prussian subjects were so well satisfied with the restitution made by the captors, that they never complained in any court whatsoever in this kingdom.

The rest were judged of by a court of admiralty, the only proper court to decide of captures at sea, both with respect to the restitution and the damages and costs, acting according to the law of nations, the only proper rule to decide by: and justice has been done by the court of admiralty so impartially, that all the ships alleged in list A to have been Prussian, were restored; and all the cargoes mentioned in either list, A or B, were restored, excepting 15, one of which is still undetermined.

And, in all cases in both lists, justice was done, so intirely to the conviction of the private conscience of the Prussian claimants, that they have acquiesced under the sentences, without appealing, except in one single instance, where the part of the sentence complained of was reversed.

Though the Prussian claimants must know, that, by the law of nations, they ought not to complain to their own sovereign, till injustice, in re minime dubia, was finally done them, past redress; and though they must know that rule of the law

of nations held more strongly upon this occasion, because the property of the prize was given to the captors, and ought, therefore, to be litigated with them. The Prussian, who, by his own acquiescence, submits to the captors having the prize, cannot afterwards, with justice, make a demand upon the state. If the sentence was wrong, it is owing to the fault of the Prussian that it was not redressed: But it is not attempted to be shewn even now, that these sentences were unjust in any part of them, according to the evidence and circumstances appearing before the court of admiralty, and that is the criterion.

For as to the Prussian commission to examine these cases; ex parte, upon new suggestions, it never was attempted in any country of the world before: prize, or not prize, must be determined by courts of admiralty belonging to the power whose subjects make the capture: every foreign prince in amity has a right to demand that justice shall be done his subjects, in those courts, according to the law of nations, or particular treaties, where any are subsisting. If in re minime dubia these courts proceed upon foundations directly opposite to the law of nations, or subsisting treaties, the neutral state has a right to complain of such a determination.

But there never was, nor ever can be, any other equitable method of trial. All the maritime nations of Europe have, when at war, from the earliest times, universally proceeded in this way, with the approbation of all the powers at peace. Nay, the persons acting under this extraordinary and unheard-of commission from his Prussian Majesty, don't pretend to say, that, in the four cases of goods condemned here, for which satisfaction is demanded in list A, the property really belonged to Prussian subjects: but they profess to proceed upon this principle, evidently false, that, though these cargoes belonged to the enemy, yet being on board any neutral ship, they were not liable to enquiry, seizure or condemnation. Fourthly, From the questions, rules, reasonings, and matters alleged in the said memorial, sentence of the Prussian commissioners, and Exposition des Motifs, &c. the following propositions may be drawn, as carrying the appearance of objections to what has been above laid down.

First PROPOSITION.

That, by the law of nations, the goods of an enemy cannot be taken on board the ship of a friend: and this the Prussian commissioners lay down as the basis of all they have pretended to do.

Answer. The contrary is too clear to admit of being disputed: it may be proved by the authorities of every writer upon the law of nations; some of different countries are referred to*. It may be proved by the constant practice, ancient and modern; but the general rule cannot be more strongly approved, than by the exception which particular treaties have made to it†.

* Il Consolato del Mare, cap. 273, expressly says, The enemy's goods found on board a friend's ship, shall be confiscated. And this is a book of great authority.

GROTIUS de Jure Belli ac Pacis, lib. iii. cap. 1. § 5. numero 4, in the notes, cites this passage in the Il Consolato; in his notes lib. iii. cap. 6. § 6.

LOCCEMIUS de Jure Maritimo, lib. ii. cap. 4. § 12.

VOET de Jure Militari, cap 5. nu. 21.

HEINECCIUS, the learned Prussian before quoted, de Navibus ob Vecturam vetitarum Mercium commissis, cap. 2. §. 9, is clear and explicit upon this point.

BYNKERSHOEC Quaestiones Juris Publici, lib. i. cap. 14. per totum.

ZOUCH (an Englishman) in his book de Judicio inter Gentes, pars 2 § 8. numero 6.

Treaty between Great-Britain and Sweden, 23 Oct. 1661, art. 12 and 13.—Treaty between Great-Britain and Denmark, 29 Nov. 1669, art. 2d.—And the passport, or certificate, settled by that treaty, are material as to this point.

† Treaty between France and England, 24 Feb. 1677, art. 8. Treaty of Utrecht between France and England, 1713, art. 17.—Treaty between England and Holland, 17 Feb. 1668, art. 10.—Treaty between England and Holland, 1 Dec. 1674, art. 8.—Treaty between England and Portugal, 10 July, 1654, art. 23.—Treaty between France and the States General at Utrecht, 11 April, 1713, art. 26.

Second PROPOSITION.

It is alleged that lord Carteret, in 1744, by two verbal declarations, gave assurances in your Majesty's name, that nothing on board a Prussian ship should be seized, except contraband; consequently, that all effects not contraband, belonging to the enemy, should be free, and that these assurances were afterwards confirmed in writing, by lord Chesterfield, the 5th of January, 1747.

Answer. The fact makes this question not very material, because there are but four instances, in lists A or B, where any goods on board a Prussian ship have been condemned, and no satisfaction is pretended to be demanded for any of those four cargoes and lists A and B: however, it may be proper to shew how groundless this pretence is.

Taking the words alleged to have been said by lord Carteret, as they are stated, they don't warrant the inferences endeavoured

voured to be drawn from them; they import no new stipulation, different from the law of nations, but expressly profess to treat the Prussians upon the same foot with the subjects of other neutral powers under the like circumstances, i. e. with whom there was no particular treaty: for the reference to other neutral power, cannot be understood to communicate the terms of any particular treaty. It is not so said. The treaties with Holland, Sweden, Russia, Portugal, Denmark, &c. all differ. Who can say which was communicated? There would be no reciprocity; the king of Prussia don't agree to be bound by the clauses to which other powers have, by their respective treaties, agreed. No Prussian goods, on board an enemy's ships, have ever been condemned here; and yet they ought, if the treaties with Holland were to be the rule between Great-Britain and Prussia; nay, if these treaties were to be the rule, all now contended for, on the part of Prussia, is clearly wrong: because, by treaty, the Dutch, in the last resort, are to apply to the court of appeal here.

Treaty of alliance between Great-Britain and Holland, at Westminster, the 6th of February, 1715-16, article 2.

'Whereas some disputes have happened, touching the explanation of the 12th article of the treaty marine, in 1674, it is agreed and concluded, for deciding any difficulty upon that matter, to declare, by these presents, that, by the provisions mentioned in the said article, are meant those which are received by custom in Great-Britain and in the United Provinces, and always have been received, and which have been granted, and always are granted, in the like case, to the inhabitants of the said countries, and to every foreign nation.'

Lord Carteret is said twice to have refused, in which Mons. Andrié acquiesces, to give any thing in writing, as not usual in England.

Supposing the conversations to mean no more than a declaration of course, that justice should be done to the Prussians, in like manner as to any other neutral power with whom there was no treaty; there was no occasion for instruments in writing, because in England the crown never interferes with the course of justice. No order, or intimation, is ever given to any judge. Lord Carteret, therefore, knew that it was the duty of the court of admiralty to do equal justice, and that they would, of themselves, do what he said to Mons. Andrié.

Had it been intended, by agreement, to introduce between Prussia and England a variation, in any particular, from the law of nations, and, consequently, a new rule for the court of admiralty to decide by, it could only be done by a solemn treaty, in writing, properly authorized and authenticated; the memory of it could not otherwise be preserved, the parties interested, and the courts of admiralty could not, otherwise, take notice of it.

But lord Chesterfield's confirmation, in a letter of the 5th of January, 1747, being relied upon, the books of the secretary's office have been searched, and the letter to Mons. Michell is found, which is verbatim as follows:

'Monsieur, à Whitehall, le 5 Janvr, 1747-8.

'Ayant eu l'honneur de recevoir les ordres du roy sur ce qui a formé le sujet du memoire, que vous m'avez remis, du 8 de ce Mois, N. S. Je n'ai pas voulu tarder à vous informer, que sa Majesté, pour ne rien omettre, par où elle peut temoigner ses attentions envers le Roy votre maitre, ne fait nulle difficulté de declarer, qu'elle n'a jamais eu l'intention ni ne l'aura jamais, de donner le moindre empêchement à la navigation des sujets Prussiens, tant qu'ils auront soin d'exercer leur commerce d'une maniere licite, et conformément à l'ancien usage établi et reconnu parmi les puissances neutres.

'Que sa Majesté Prussienne ne peut pas ignorer, qu'il y a des traités de commerce qui subsistent actuellement, entre la Grande Bretagne, et certains etats neutres, et qu'au moyen des engagements formellement contractés de part et d'autre, par ces mêmes traités, tout ce qui regarde la maniere d'exercer leur commerce reciproquement, a été finalement constaté et reglé.

'Qu'en même tems il ne paroît point, qu'aucun traité de la nature susdite existe à présent, ou a jamais existé, entre sa Majesté et le roy de Prusse; mais, que pourtant, cela n'a jamais empêché que les sujets Prussiens n'aient été favorisés par l'Angleterre, par rapport à leur navigation, autant que les autres nations neutres: et cela étant, sa Majesté ne suppose pas, que l'idée du Roy votre maitre, seroit d'exiger d'elle des distinctions, encore moins de preferences, en faveur des sujets à cet égard.

'Que de plus sa Majesté Prussienne est trop éclairée pour ne pas connoître, qu'il y a des loix fixes et établies dans ce gouvernement, dont on ne peut nullement s'écarter; et que s'il arrivoit que la marine Angloise s'avisât de faire la moindre injustice aux sujets commerçans du Roy votre maitre, il y a un tribunal ici, savoir, la haute cour de l'amirauté, à laquelle ils se trouvent en droit de s'adresser et de

'porter leurs plaintes; assurés d'avance, en pareil cas, qu'on leur y rendra bonne justice; les procédés juridiques de la dite cour étant ayant été de tout tems hors d'atteinte, et irréprochables; temoin, nombre d'exemples, où des vaisseaux neutres, pris illicitement, ont été restitués avec frais et dommages aux propriétaires.

'Voici ce que le Roy m'a ordonné de vous répondre sur le contenu de votre dit memoire; et sa Majesté ne sauroit que se flatter, qu'en consequence de ce que je viens d'avancer, il ne restera plus rien à desirer au Roy votre maitre relativement à l'objet dont il est question; et le Roy s'en croit d'autant plus assuré, qu'il est persuadé que sa Majesté Prussienne ne voudroit rien demander, qui ne fut équitable.

'Je suis avec bien de la consideration,

'Monsieur,

'Votre très humble, &

'Très obeissant Serviteur,

'CHESTERFIELD.'

There need no observations. It is explicit, and, in express terms, puts Prussia upon the foot of other neutral powers with whom there was no treaty, and points out the proper way of applying for redress.

The verbal declarations made by lord Carteret in 1744, which are said to have been confirmed by this letter from lord Chesterfield, cannot have meant more than the letter expresses.

And it is manifest, by the above extract from Mons. Andrié's letter to his Prussian Majesty, that in May 1747, Mons. Andrié himself understood, that goods of the enemy, taken on board neutral ships, ought to be condemned as prize.

It is evident, from authentic acts, that the subjects of Prussia never understood that any new right was communicated to them.

Before the year 1746, the Prussians don't appear to have openly engaged in covering the enemy's property.

The men of war and privateers could not abstain from captures, in consequence of lord Carteret's verbal assurances in 1744, because they never were nor could be known: and there was no occasion to notify them, supposing them only to promise impartial justice. For all ships of war were bound to act, and courts of admiralty to judge, according to the law of nations and treaties.

Till 1746, the Prussian documents were, a certificate of the admiralty, upon the oath of the builder, that the ship was Prussian built; and a certificate of the admiralty, upon the oath of the owner, that the ship was Prussian property.

From 1746, the Prussians engaged in the gainful practice of covering the enemy's goods, but were at a loss in what shape, and upon what pretences, it might best be done.

On board the ship 3 Soeurs, was found a pass, bearing date at Stettin the 6th of October 1746, under the royal seal of the Prussian regency of Pomerania, &c. alleging the cargo, which was ship-timber, bound for Port l'Orient, to be Prussian property, and, in consequence thereof, claiming freedom of the ship.

Claiming freedom to the ship, from the property of the cargo, being quite new, the proposition was afterwards reversed: and on board a ship called the Jumeaux, was found a pass, bearing date at Stettin the 27th of June 1747, under the royal seal, &c. alleging the ship to be Prussian property, and, in consequence thereof, claiming freedom to the goods.

But this pass was not solely relied on, for there was also found on board the same ship, another pass, bearing date at Stettin the 14th of June 1747, under the royal seal, &c. alleging the cargo to be Prussian property.

And it is remarkable, that the oaths, upon which these passes were granted, appeared manifestly to be false: and neither of the cargoes to which they relate, are now so much as alleged to have been Prussian property in said lists A. or B.

It being mentioned, in the said Exposition des Motifs, &c. that Mons. Michell, in September 1747, made verbal representations to lord Chesterfield, in respect to the cargo taken on board the said ship called the 3 Soeurs, which was claimed as Prussian property; and no mention being made in lists A and B of the said cargo, we directed the proceedings in that cause to be laid before us, where it appears in the fullest and clearest manner, from the ship-papers and depositions, that the cargo was timber, laden on the account, and at the risque of Frenchmen, to whom it was to be delivered at Port l'Orient, they paying freight according to charter-party. That the Prussian claimant was neither freighter, lader, or consignee; and had no other interest or concern in the matter, than to lend his name and conscience: for he swore that the cargo was his property, and laden on or before the 6th of October 1746; and yet the ship was then in ballast, and the whole of the cargo in question was not laden before May 1747.

Several other Prussian claims had, in like manner, come out so clearly to be merely colourable, that Mons. Andrié, from his said letter, ^{29 May} _{9 June} 1747, appears to have been ashamed of them.

Third PROPOSITION.

That lord Carteret, in his said two conversations, specified, in your Majesty's name, what goods should be deemed contraband.

Answer. The fact makes this question totally immaterial, because no goods condemned as contraband, or which were alleged to be so, are so much as now suggested to have been Prussian property in the said lists A and B; and, therefore, whether as enemy's property or contraband, they were either way rightly condemned; and the bills of lading being false, the ships could not be entitled to freight.

But, if the question was material, the verbal declarations of a minister in conversation, might shew what he thought contraband by the law of nations; but never could be understood to be equivalent to a treaty, derogating from that law. All the observations, upon the other part of these verbal declarations, hold equally as to this.

Fourth PROPOSITION.

That the British ministers have said, that these questions were decided according to the laws of England.

Answer. They must have been misunderstood, for the law of England says, that all captures at sea, as prize, in time of war, must be judged of in a court of admiralty, according to the law of nations, and particular treaties, where there are any.

There never existed a case, where a court, judging according to the laws of England only, ever took cognizance of prize.

The property of prizes being given during the last war to the captors, your Majesty could not arbitrarily release the capture, but left all cases to the decision of the proper courts, judging by the law of nations and treaties, where there were any: and it never was imagined, that the property of a foreign subject, taken as prize on the high seas, could be affected by laws peculiar to England.

Fifth PROPOSITION.

That your Majesty could no more erect tribunals for trying these matters than the king of Prussia.

Answer. Each crown has, no doubt, an equal right to erect admiralty-courts, for the trial of prizes taken by virtue of their respective commissions; but neither has a right to try the prizes taken by the other, or to reverse the sentences given by the other's tribunal. The only regular method of rectifying their errors, is by appeal to the superior court.

This is the clear law of nations; and, by this method, prizes have always been determined, in every other maritime country of Europe, as well as England.

Sixth PROPOSITION.

That the sea is free.

Answer. They who maintain that proposition in its utmost extent, don't dispute but that when two powers are at war, they may seize the effects of each other upon the high seas, and on board the ships of friends: therefore, that controversy is not in the least applicable upon the present occasion*.

* This appears from Grotius in the passages above cited, lib. iii. cap. 1. sect. 5. num. 4. in his notes. And lib. iii. cap. 6. sect. 6. in his notes. See our article SEA DOMINION.

Seventh PROPOSITION.

Great-Britain issued reprisals against Spain, on account of captures at sea.

Answer. These captures were not made in time of war with any power.

They were not judged of by courts of admiralty, according to the law of nations and treaties, but by rules, which were themselves complained of, in revenue courts: the damages were afterwards admitted, liquidated at a certain sum, and agreed to be paid by a convention, which was not performed. Therefore reprisals issued, but they were general. No debts due here to Spaniards were stopped, no Spanish effects here were seized. Which leads to one observation more.

The king of Prussia has engaged his royal word to pay the Silesia debt to private men.

It is negociable, and many parts have been assigned to the subjects of other powers. It will not be easy to find an instance, where a prince has thought fit to make reprisals upon a debt, due from himself to private men. There is a confidence that this will not be done; a private man lends money to a prince, upon the faith of an engagement of honour, because a prince cannot be compelled, like other men, in an adverse way, by a court of justice. So scrupulously did England, France, and Spain adhere to this public faith, that, even during the war, they suffered no enquiry to be made, whether any part of the public debts was due to subjects of the enemy, though it is certain, many English had money in the French funds, and many French had money in ours.

This loan to the late emperor of Germany, Charles the VIth,

VOL. II.

in January 1734-5, was not a state transaction, but a mere private contract with the lenders, who advanced their money, upon the emperor's obliging himself, his heirs and posterity, to repay the principal with interest, at the rate, in the manner, and at the times in the contract mentioned, without any delay, demurr, deduction, or abatement whatsoever; and, lest the words and instruments made use of should not be strong enough, he promises to secure the performance of his contract, in and by such other instruments, method, manner, form, and words, as should be most effectual and valid, to bind the said emperor, his heirs, successors, and posterity, or as the lenders should reasonably desire.

As a specific real security, he mortgaged his revenues, arising from the duchies of Upper and Lower Silesia, for payment of principal and interest; and the whole debt, principal and interest, was to be discharged in the year 1745. If the money could not be paid out of the revenues of Silesia, the emperor, his heirs and posterity, still remained debtors, and were bound to pay. The eviction or destruction of a thing mortgaged, don't extinguish the debt, or discharge the debtor.

Therefore the empress queen, without the consent of the lenders, made it a condition of her yielding the duchies of Silesia to his Prussian Majesty, that he should stand in the place of the late emperor, in respect of this debt.

The seventh of the preliminary articles, between the queen of Hungary and the king of Prussia, signed at Breslau, the 11th of June, 1742, is in these words; 'Sa Majesté le roi de Prusse se charge du seul payement de la somme hypothéquée sur la Silesie, aux marchands Anglois, selon le contract signé à Londres, le 7me de Janvier, 1734-5.'

The stipulation is confirmed by the ninth article of the treaty between their said Majesties, signed at Berlin, the 28th of July, 1742.

Also renewed and confirmed by the second article of the treaty between their said Majesties, signed at Dresden, the 25th of December, 1745.

In consideration of the empress queen's cession, his Prussian Majesty has engaged to her, that he will pay this money, selon le contract, and consequently has bound himself to stand in the place of the late emperor, in respect of this money, to all intents and purposes.

The late emperor could not have seized this money, as reprisals, or even, in case of open war between the two nations, because his faith was engaged to pay it, without any delay, demurr, deduction, or abatement whatsoever. If these words should not extend to all possible cases, he had plighted his honour to bind himself, by any other form of words, more effectually to pay the money; and therefore was liable at any time to be called upon, to declare expressly, that it should not be seized as reprisals, or in case of war; which is very commonly expressed, when sovereign princes or states borrow money from foreigners. Therefore, supposing for a moment, that his Prussian Majesty's complaint was founded in justice, and the law of nations, and that he had a right to make reprisals in general, he could not, consistent with his engagements to the empress queen, seize this money as reprisals. Besides, this whole debt, according to the contract, ought to have been discharged in 1745. It should, in respect of the private creditors, in justice and equity, be considered, as if the contract had been performed; and the Prussian complaints don't begin 'till 1746, after the whole debt ought to have been paid.

Upon this principle of natural justice, French ships and effects, wrongfully taken, after the Spanish war, and before the French war, have, during the heat of the war with France, and since, been restored, by sentence of your Majesty's courts, to the French owners. No such ships or effects ever were attempted to be confiscated, as enemies property here, during the war; because, had it not been for the wrong first done, these effects would not have been in your Majesty's dominions. So, had not the contract been first broke, by non-payment of the whole loan in 1745, this money would not have been in his Prussian Majesty's hands.

Your Majesty's guarantee of these treaties is entire, and must therefore depend upon the same conditions, upon which the cession was made by the empress queen.

But this reasoning is, in some measure, superfluous; because, if the making any reprisals upon this occasion, be unjustifiable, which we apprehend we have shewn, then it is not disputed, but that the non-payment of this money would be a breach of his Prussian Majesty's engagements, and a renunciation, on his part, of those treaties.

All which is most humbly submitted to your Majesty's royal wisdom.

January 18, 1753.

GEO. LEE,
G. PAUL,
D. RYDER,
W. MURRAY.

TRANSLATION of the earl of CHESTERFIELD's letter to
Monf. MICHELL.

S I R,

Whitehall, Jan. 5, 1747-8.

Having had the honour to receive the king's orders upon the subject of the memorial, which you delivered to me on the 8th instant, N. S. I would not delay informing you, That his Majesty, in order to omit nothing, whereby he may shew his attention to the king your master, makes no difficulty in declaring, That his Majesty has never had, or will have, any intention, to give any interruption to the navigation of the Prussian subjects, as long as they shall take care to carry on their commerce in a lawful manner, and conformable to the ancient usage as established and acknowledged amongst neutral powers.

His Prussian Majesty cannot be ignorant, that there are treaties of commerce actually subsisting between Great-Britain and certain neutral states, and that by means of the engagements formerly contracted on each side by those treaties, every thing relating to the manner of reciprocally carrying on their commerce, has been finally settled and regulated.

At the same time, it does not appear that any such treaty exists at present, or ever did exist, between his Majesty and the king of Prussia: nevertheless, that has never hindered the Prussian subjects being favoured by England, with respect to their navigation, as much as other neutral nations: and his Majesty does not suppose, that the king your master means to require distinctions from his Majesty, much less any preferences, in favour of his subjects in this point.

His Prussian Majesty is too well informed not to know, that there are in this government fixed and established laws, which cannot be departed from; and that in case any English ships of war should commit the least injustice to the trading subjects of the king your master, here is a tribunal, viz. the high court of admiralty, where they have a right to apply, and make their complaints; and they may be previously assured, that, in such case, impartial justice will be administered to them; the juridical proceedings of the said court being, and having ever been, unimpeached and irreproachable, as appears by numerous examples of neutral vessels illegally taken, having been restored, with costs and damages, to the proprietors.

This is the answer the king has ordered me to give, upon the contents of your said memorial; and his majesty cannot but flatter himself, that, in consequence hereof, the king your master's desire will be fully answered, with relation to the point in question; and of which his Majesty is the more assured, as he is persuaded that the king of Prussia would not require any thing, but what is equitable.

I am, with much Consideration,

S I R,

Your most obedient,

And most humble Servant,

CHESTERFIELD.

TRANSLATION of Mr PETER TRAPAUD's declaration of
his having made satisfaction to the Prussians for the damage
received by the ship St John, No. 16. in list A.

In the Exposition which his Prussian Majesty has published, of such ships of his subjects as were taken by the English in the last war, I have observed in the list A, No. 16, that the ship St John, John Grosse captain, is therein mentioned, as having received some damages to the prejudice of the Prussian owners. As the fact is known to me, as I was the sole owner of her cargo, I do hereby as such testify the truth, for the satisfaction of all whom it may concern. And I cannot conceive, how the Prussian subjects dare demand an indemnification, which they have already more than received, as I am going to convince them.

In the month of November 1747, I ordered the said ship to be freighted at Bourdeaux, and loaded at Libourne with 158 $\frac{3}{4}$ tons of white wine. On the 1st of December following, that ship put out to sea; on the 11th of the said month, she got as far as the Downs, where she was met by an English privateer, called the Prince of Orange, who sent six of his men on board the Prussian ship, and had the Prussian pilot brought on board him, with the ship-papers and documents, in order to their being examined. On the 12th of the said month, as she lay at an anchor, a great storm arose from the west south-west, which obliged the Prussian captain, with the consent of his crew, and of the six Englishmen who were then on board his ship, to cut his cable, in order to drive off to sea. The ship got afterwards into Browershaven inlet in Holland, on the 15th of the said month of December, without any other damage, than the loss of part of her cable and of an anchor, and arrived at Rotterdam the 21st of the said month. All this is proved by the declaration of both the captain and his crew, made on the 4th of January, 1748, before Jacob Bremer, notary public in Rotterdam; and afterwards sworn to on the 6th of the said month, before the commissioners of the chamber of maritime affairs.

After the ship was unloaded, the captain gave in to me his account for gross average, consisting of the following articles:

1. For the loss of his cable and anchor.
2. For the maintaining, during eight days, the six men who had been put on board his ship by the English privateer.
3. For a passport I procured for him, from the Prussian envoy at the Hague, which cost 3 or 4 florins.

I paid him for my share in that gross average 704 florins, Holland currency, over and above 105 florins which I gave Capt. Grosse as a present, and 10 florins 10 stivers I gave as a present to the crew of his ship: besides all this, it cost me 20 florins, or thereabouts, in England, which Messrs Simond (brothers) had disbursed, by my order, for the Prussian pilot, who remained on board the privateer, after the storm had parted them.

Those who understand the navigation and fitting out of ships, must allow, that the Prussian owners will find themselves more than reimbursed for all their pretensions, by means of the 839 florins 10 stivers, Holland currency, which I have paid them; and that they cannot, with any foundation, make any other demands.

All that I have alleged above, can be verified by authentic vouchers (except the presents or gratuities to the captain and his crew, amounting to 115 florins 10 stivers, for which I took no receipt). In witness whereof I have signed this present declaration. Rotterdam, January 30, 1753.

PETER TRAPAUD, jun.

LIST of all the PRUSSIAN ships taken by BRITISH armaments at sea, during the last war, as well those detained for examination only, as those judicially proceeded upon, together with the judgments given in the admiralty-courts of GREAT-BRITAIN thereupon, tallying with his PRUSSIAN Majesty's LIST marked A.

No. of ships.	Ships, which (if taken) were restored by the captors, upon examination, without either party applying to a court of justice.	Ships and goods restored, with all costs and damages attending the capture.	Ships restored with freight, according to the bills of lading, for such goods, which were found to be the property of the enemy, and condemned as prize.	Ships and goods restored, but without costs, from circumstances arising from the case.	Ships and cargoes restored, paying costs. In these cases, it either appeared, that the ship had not the usual evidence of property, according to the custom of the sea; or from the ship-papers, or examination of the crew, there appeared just reason to presume the cargo to belong to the enemy, and the neuter claimant declined proving his property, by strict legal evidence; and obtained restitution, on the faith of his own affidavit; and, in these cases, courts of admiralty have always made the like decrees.	Cargoes, or part of them, condemned as contraband, and not now alleged, in list A or B, to have been Prussian property, and therefore were certainly prize of war.	Appeals from the admiralty decrees.
1	La Fred. Amitie, Capit. Sprenger.						
2	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Les Jumcaux, Capit. Kruth.	
3	— — — —	L'Anne Elizab. Cap. D. Schultz, costs and damages, 280 l. 12 s. 1 d.	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —		
4	La Cat. Christine, Cap. Fre. Berend.						
5	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	La Dame Juliene, Capit. Mar. Preft.		
6	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Fred. II. Roy de Prusse, Capit. Chretien Schultz.		
7	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Vaisseau au bon Vent, Capit. Mi- chel Juriansen.		
8	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Soleil D'Or, Cap. Jac. Ridder.	
9	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	La Daageroud, Cap. M. Sperwien.		
10	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Fred. II. Roy de Prusse, Capit. Chretien Schultz.	
11	— — — —	— — — —	L'Aigle D'Or, Cap. On. Arends.	— — — —	— — — —		
12	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Les Deux Freres, Capit. Jon Hallen.		
13	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Jeune André, C. H. Barkhorn.	
14	— — — —	— — — —	La Dor. Sophie, Ca. P. Kettelhuth.	— — — —	— — — —		
15	— — — —	— — — —	La Deux Freres, C. A. Augustinus.	— — — —	— — — —		
16	Le St Jean*, Cap. Jean Grosse.						
17	Le Jeune Tobie, Capit. Paul Otto.						
18	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	Le Petit David, Cap. M. Bugdahl.	— — — —		Le Petit David, Cap. M. Bugdahl.

On the 3d of February, the duke of Newcastle received a letter from Mr Wolters, his Majesty's agent at Rotterdam, inclosing the following declaration:

DANS l'Exposition que sa Majesté Prussienne a donnée au public, des vaisseaux de ses sujets pris par les Anglois dans la dernière guerre; j'ai remarqué dans la liste A. no 16. que le navire le St Jean, Capit. Jean Grosse, y est noté comme ayant reçu quelques dommages, au préjudice des propriétaires Prussiens. Comme le fait m'est connu ayant été seul propriétaire de sa cargaison, je veux en cette qualité rendre témoignage à la vérité, pour servir où il appartiendra. D'ailleurs, je ne puis comprendre, comment les sujets Prussiens osent demander un dédommagement, qu'ils ont déjà plus que reçu, comme je vais les en convaincre.

Dans le mois de Novembre 1747, je fis fretter à Bordeaux, et charger à Libourne le dit navire avec 158 $\frac{1}{2}$ tonneaux de vin blanc. Le 1^{er} de Dec. suivant, ce navire mit en mer; le 11. du dit mois, il se trouva à la hauteur des Dunes; là il fut rencontré par le corsaire Anglois, nommé le Prince d'Orange, qui envoya à bord du navire Prussien six hommes de son équipage, et fit venir à son bord le pilote Prussien avec les papiers de mer, pour en faire l'examen. Le 12. du dit mois, étant à l'ancre sous les cingles, il s'éleva une furieuse tempête de la part du W. S. W. qui obligea le capitaine Prussien, du consentement de son équipage, et des six Anglois pour lors dans son bord, de couper le cable pour gagner la mer. Ce navire entra ensuite dans le passage de Browerhave en Hollande, le 15^e du dit mois de Decembre, sans avoir eu d'autre dommage que la perte d'une partie de son cable et d'une ancre, et arriva ensuite à Rotterdam le 12^e du susd^t mois. Tout ceci est constaté par la déclaration du capitaine et de son équipage, passée le 4 Janvier 1748, pardevant Jacob Bremer, notaire public dans Rotterdam; ensuite fermentée, le 6^e du dit mois, pardevant les commissaires de la chambre de la marine.

Après que le navire fut déchargé, le capitaine me fit fournir son compte d'avaire grosse, dans lequel il portoit les articles suivants:

1. Pour la perte de son cable, et de son ancre.
2. Pour la nourriture de 8 jours à 6 hommes qui avoient été mis, par le corsaire Anglois, sur son bord.
3. Pour une passeport que je lui fis donner à la Haye par l'envoyé de Prusse, qui couta 3 à 4 florins.

Je lui payai, pour ma portion, dans cette avaire grosse, 704 florins, argent courant d'Hollande, en outre 105 florins dont je fis present au Capit. Grosse, et 10. 10^e. aussi de present aux matelots, qui compoioient son equipage. Outre tout ceci, il m'en a couté 20 florins ou environ, en Angleterre, pour autant que Mess. Simond, freres, avoient deboursé par mon ordre pour le pilote Prussien qui estoit resté à bord du corsaire, lorsque la tempête les separa. Ceux qui se connoissent en navigation, et en armement de navire, ne pourront disconvenir, que les propriétaires Prussiens se trouvent, au moyen de 839. 10^e. courans d'Hollande, que je leur ai payés, plus que remboursés de toutes leurs pretensions; et s'ils peuvent, avec quelque fondement, en demander d'autres.

Tout ce que j'avance ci dessus peut se verifier par des pieces authentiques, (à la reserve des presents, ou gratifications, au capitaine ou à son equipagea montant à 115. 10^e. dont je n'ai pas retiré de quittance,) en vertue dequoi j'ai signé la presente declaration. Rotterdam, ce 30 Janvier 1753.

PIERRE TRAPAUD, le jeune:

The above declaration was signed in my presence; and the original vouchers quoted in the same, have been produced to me. Witness my hand and seal.—Rotterdam, January the 30th, 1753.

R. WOLTERS. (L. S.)

LIST of all the neutral ships, taken by BRITISH ships during the last war, in whose cargoes the subjects of PRUSSIA claim to have been interested; together with the judgments given by his Britannic Majesty's courts of admiralty thereupon, tallying with his Prussian Majesty's List marked B.

No. of ships.	Ships names.	If taken, released by the captors, on examination, without either party applying to a court of justice.	In what voyage taken.	Judgment as to ship.	Judgment, as to goods.	For what cause.	Appealed.
1	La Cecile, Capitaine Bois Swensen.	— — —	Cette to Altena	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of the property.	
2	Le Nahring, Capit. Chrétien Tiedeman.	— — —	Rochelle to Bourdeaux	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of the property.	
3	La Demoiselle Jean, Capit. Joachim Peyn.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of the property.	
4	Le Carlshaven, Weiff, Capit. Jean Holme.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	
5	L'Anne Elizabeth, Capit. Chrétien Mau.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits as to property.	
6	Le Gust. Prince Royal, Capit. Barthow Muhl.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
7	Le Jeune Benjamin, Cap. H. Newschilling.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
8	Le Prince Frederic, Capit. Jean Hartmann.	— — —	Hamb. to Bilb. and Bayonne.	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavit of property.	
9	Le Marie Joseph, Capit. Feurier Rouge.	— — —	Hambourg to Cadiz	Restored	Restored - -	On the ship-papers.	
10	L'Union, Capit. Jean Struckmann.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
11	Le Neptune, Capit. Sonder Heeren.	— — —	Nants to Hambourg	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	
12	Le St Paul *, Capit. Gent Hinfichren.	— — —	Nants to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - The rest still depending	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
13	La Couronne, Capit. Pierre Claffen.	— — —	Nants to Hambourg	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	
14	La Demoiselle Cather. Capit. Wilche de Vries.	— — —	Rochelle to Altena	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
15	La Concorde, Capit. Claes Eichels.	— — —	Rochelle to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
16	La Feaune, Capit. Gerhard Roger Altag.	— — —	Charente to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
17	L'Amitie, Capit. Jean Quimann.	— — —	Rochelle to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
18	Le Jeune Pri. Chrétien, Cap. J. Corn. Leuwen.	— — —	Marseilles to Hambourg	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	
19	La Dem ^e . Marguerite, Capit. Hen. Bielenberg.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
20	Le Roxier, Capit. Pierre Claffen.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	
21	La Marie Sophie, Cap. Chrétien Gregerfen.	— — —	Rochelle to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
22	L'Anne Sophie, Capit. Hen. Horn de Wolgast.	Released.	Bourdeaux to Koningsberg				
23	Le Hop Danzig, Capit. Conrad Harlach.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Dantzic	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	
24	Le Jeune Jeane, de Peterfb. Cap. T. Siefers.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	
25	Le Gregoiet de Breme, Capit. Jacob Muller.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
26	La Jeune Catherine, commandée par le Cap. Kupper, ensuite par le Capit. Elker.	Released.	Bourdeaux to Hambourg				
27	Les Six Soeurs, de Lubec, Cap. Pierre Zaan.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Lubec	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	
28	La Ste. Anne, de Hamb. Capit. Abr. Peterfon.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
29	Le Jeune Eldert, de Hamb. Cap. G. Auvén.	— — —	Roan to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
30	Le Juste Henri, de Hamb. Cap. H. Elkes.	— — —	Bourdeaux to Hambourg	Restored	Part restored - Part condemned	On affidavits of property. Want of affidavits of property.	
31	L'Elizabeth, Capit. Soeren Paterfen.	— — —	Hambourg to Bourdeaux	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	
32	La Demoiselle Claire, Cap. Herm. Claf. Priest.	— — —	Hambourg to Roan	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	
33	L'Adolph Frederic, Capit. Jonas de Haspen.	— — —	Marseilles to Hambourg	Restored	Restored - -	On affidavits of property.	

* On the 29th of January, affidavits were exhibited in the court of Admiralty, and sentence prayed on the part of the Prussian claimant, and the goods were decreed to be restored.

SILK-WORMS.

MEMOIR upon the breeding of SILK-WORMS in FRANCE, and all other climates where mulberry-trees can be cultivated. By M. de Goyon de la Plombanie.

A pretty long stay which I made in the southern provinces of the kingdom where silk-worms are bred, together with what I have read in the best authors, have enabled me to shew the public, that the method commonly followed for this purpose does not answer the end proposed.

In the Indies, and all other places where the climate allows people to breed silk-worms on the trees, like our caterpillars, the silk is very fine, very strong, and in great abundance. Whence we conceive that a pure and temperate air is necessary to those very delicate animals, which must be kept very clean, and breathe with difficulty in a confined and thick air, from which they contract disorders. In those happy eastern climates, nature of herself performs her operations; but with us, she requires the assistance of art; art, therefore, ought to correspond with nature, so as to aid her effectually, without ever doing her the least violence.

When I was in Languedoc, I observed that in the cold mornings the silk-worms were benumbed, and moved but very little, and that, of all the chambers in which they were bred, those which had most light, the freest air, and were exposed to the south, succeeded infinitely better than the rest; that those people who were least careful in keeping them clean, could never turn them to account, and, for want of this precaution, a number of them perished, after they had been raised at a great expence. In this respect they are so delicate, that the least impure or strong smell throws them into convulsions; people of stinking breaths, rank respiration, or they whose sweat is of a disagreeable odour, nay, the smell of women at certain times, is pernicious to these animals, and does them more injury than one would imagine.

A variety of food, gathered from different soils and different trees, contributes to render the silk unequal: the leaves gathered wet, given after they are faded, or mixed together, without separating the tender from the harsh, the worms eating at intervals, or of what they dislike, all these circumstances, which too often occur in the method of breeding them practised in France, greatly contribute to the little success and returns of the manufacture: yet, hitherto, I have not seen one person employ himself as he ought, in finding means to remedy these inconveniencies. This consideration has determined me to communicate to the public my own ideas of the subject; and after I shall have given a detail of them, any person can try the experiment in miniature, that he may assure himself of the utility of my method.

Some methods which may be used in making silk in France, so as to render it abundant, and of good quality.

Pains must be taken to have a number of mulberry-trees; they may be planted in all sorts of soils where they will grow, but they must not be shaded by any other sort of trees. Almost all the soils that produce walnut-trees and elms, will agree with the mulberry: and they must be carefully engrafted with that kind whose leaf is the most broad and smooth.

REMARKS upon the different soils and qualities of the trees.

All those trees that rise in light, barren, sandy grounds, that have little moisture, will produce the finest and strongest silks; whilst those which are produced in fertile fat ground, abounding in juice, yield a coarser and weaker silk; young trees, from 6 to 12 years old, will produce silk that is neither so fine nor so good as that from trees of 18 or 20 years growth; so that the oldest are always to be preferred. It is the same case with mulberry-trees for silk, as with vines for fruit, which is different in quality, according to the different ages of the trees, and the difference of soil. Nature always makes one thing atone for another; the old vines, and those that are planted in a meagre soil, produce the best wine, though in small quantity; those raised in a fat soil, produce a larger quantity, but of an inferior quality: so that both kinds nearly yield the same profit. The same thing will happen in silk, if we do not mix the produce of different soils and different trees. This is an essential remark for the œconomist, though he has not hitherto regarded it. The practice is to mix the leaves, and give them indifferently to the worms; but it has been observed, that a worm, fed with leaves of different qualities, always makes an ill-formed silk, as may be perceived by the microscope: worms thus managed will be like a spinner, who puts indiscriminately flax and hards upon her distaff, and cannot possibly spin thread so good and equal, as if it had been made solely from one of these materials. If the Indian silk is so beautiful, uniform, and strong, it is because the worms eat only of the leaves of one tree, on which they have been bred, and care is taken to pick the cods, so as that the best are kept together. From these remarks it follows, that we ought to furnish those little animals with a lodging that would procure to them, as much as possible, the same advantages they enjoy in those countries where they thrive with-

out care; that is, to shelter them from the injuries of our climate, to procure for them a pure temperate air, that shall be continually renewed, and give them a great deal of light, which contributes to their health; to clean them gently every time they receive new food, without touching them with the hand, or any sort of instrument: finally, if we cannot secure them from the noise of thunder, at least, to free them from the sight of lightning, which gives them more disturbance, by the quick and violent vibration of their little optic nerves, which incommodes their circulation, and affects them with distempers. If care be taken to prevent all these dangers, by the means which I am going to describe, we may be assured of having worms that will succeed to a miracle.

Of the lodging of SILK-WORMS.

When the design is to raise a great quantity of silk worms, so as to profit by the income they will produce, it will be necessary to build on purpose a lodging wholly detached, for raising the worms, proportioned to the quantity of the owner's trees. For example: if the scheme is, to make 500 lb. weight of raw silk, the lodging must be 80 feet long, and 20 feet broad, with three stories, comprehending the ground-floor; and every story must be 10 feet high, exclusive of the thickness of the roofs, which should be plastered, if plaster is to be easily got; if not, there must be a cieling of boards, joined together as well as possible, upon which several folds of brown paper must be glued, to hinder dirt and dust passing from one floor to another, for nothing is more hurtful to the worms.

The house shall extend from north to south, fronting the east and west; the ends opposed to the north and south shall be built up without any opening, so as that there shall be no admission either to the north wind or south sun, which are equally prejudicial to the worms: but the two fronts to the east and west shall have windows opposite to each other, six feet broad, and in height from the cieling to the floor, with an interval of four feet only between them. Each of these windows must be shut by two sashes of glass, or at least, in lieu of glass, be covered with white oiled paper: these sashes must open sideways, upon little sliders, like the scenes in the opera; each shall be three feet and an inch broad, and slide behind the frame of the window, one against the other, for the sake of convenience; and, in order to keep out the lightning in tempestuous weather, there shall be within side, at the top of the window, an umbrella of wax cloth, to exclude every ray of light. When this is to be used, the glass or paper sashes may be shut, by means of a roller, at one end of the apartment, a cord communicating with all the umbrellas may be drawn, so as to make them act together at once, either for admitting or excluding the light. Every artist will easily comprehend the nature of the contrivance. It will also be necessary to have a second umbrella, of coarse canvas, on the outside of every window, which will occasionally serve to break the too violent action of the wind and sun, and even of the hail, without excluding too much air or light.

Such a building may be executed of wood and mud covered within and without by plaister, or lime; if in a country abounding with stone, it may be executed in stone; the greatest expence will be in the glass-work and umbrellas.

At the two extremities of this house there must be stoves, a foot and a half broad, six feet long, and two feet high, made of plates of cast iron. Round each stove, at the distance of half a foot, a little wall must be built of brick, or tiles, which shall surround it, so as to hinder its heat from being absorbed by the external air. In this interval however, formed on all parts between the stove and the wall, a necessary quantity of air shall be introduced, by a ventilator, or bellows, made for the purpose, to be worked either by the wind, or a little horse. In cold weather the stove must be furnished with fire, to the necessary degree of heat, which may be communicated through the funnels, in the first apartment, or hall, in order to be distributed; but great care must be taken to prevent smoke. The air being heated in the intermediate space of the stoves, will in like manner be distributed through the whole first hall by means of a tin pipe, which must run the whole length of it, and be furnished with small holes, proportioned to the distances; that is, the farther they are removed from the stove, they must be the larger, and more numerous. Thus the air being treated between the furnace and its crust, will warm that of the hall, give it a suitable degree of temperament, and continually renew that which was foul, and this, as the sashes were shut, in going out through the joinings, will resist the external cold air, which would otherwise enter.

It will be sufficient to warm one hall in a house consisting of three, because that will be enough for rearing the little worms, during the cold mornings of the spring; and, when they grow large, they may be distributed into the other halls, in the order which we shall now describe.

We must plant little posts of oak, half a foot broad on one side, and three inches on the other, at the distance of six feet between them. They must be fixed in a line across the hall, and united by ledges of wood, at the distance of twelve inches from one another; so that the posts being 10 feet high, there will be nine ledges: an interval of three feet and a half must

be left from one range of posts to the other, for the convenience of passing between them: the ledges being one inch thick, and three inches broad, shall be placed horizontally, and mortised in each post; then boards of fir, a foot broad, and six feet long, shall be tied to these ledges, with bits of leather, or sheep-skin, in the manner of hinges, one on each side. These hinges will allow the boards to be raised or lowered, like the lid of a coffer; a cord at each end of the boards passing through pulleys at the roof, and fixed to a hook at the lower part of the posts, will actuate all the boards of the same side, like lattices; and if all these boards be kept in a horizontal position, they will serve as so many shelves, upon which the leaves and the worms may be spread. Care must be taken to put nothing upon the board which is next to that where the worms shall reside; but when you would renew the leaves, gently raise up the board on which the new leaves are placed, so that the worms may see and smell them; they will not fail to go thither, and abandon that on which they were: and this migration will afford them an opportunity to clean the first, and prepare it for the reception of new food, when it shall be thought proper to furnish it: and this gentle and continual exercise of the silk-worms passing and repassing alternately from one board to another, will keep up their appetites, and strengthen their bodies. In order to make them yield silk, they must be presented with bits of straw and heath, in the usual way; these small branches must be prepared on the next board, when it is perceived they will no longer eat, but seek to deposit their silk, and make their cods.

I shall not here treat of the different distempers to which the worms are subject during their moulding, abundance of authors having already performed that task; my sole aim is to prevent the dangers to which they are exposed, by describing the attention which ought to be given, and the precautions to be taken in their lodging, in preserving the air pure and temperate, and in managing the light so as to strengthen their bodies, and to excite them to eat.

There must be two places for the store of leaves; in one they must be wiped upon cloth, or a very clean board, when they are wetted by the rain; and in the other they must be preserved cool and fresh, that they may not be too much faded. Besides, it must be observed, that in very hot weather there falls upon the leaves a kind of manna, or honey, which is viscous, and very pernicious to the silk-worms, for it afflicts them with looseness, makes them sick, and languish to death, or, at least, destroys the beauty of the silk. The dust of the roads too, that often sticks to the leaves, incommodes and disgusts the worms. These inconveniences may be alleviated, by putting the fresh-gathered leaves in osier baskets, and rinsing them several times in pure limpid water, which will wash away the dust, honey, or manna. But these leaves must not be given to the worms until after they have been wiped upon sheets; and care must be taken not to let them lie any time in heaps, except in a very cool place, otherwise they will ferment, and become still more pernicious. By the choice of food and regimen the causes of disease are prevented. Over and above these precautions, those who have the charge of breeding silk-worms will be very attentive in chusing the cods, and dividing them into three or four classes, that they may have the finer silk, and that it may not be rendered defective by a mixture of the good with that which is common; afterwards, no pains must be spared in unwinding the silk with all possible art, and if the threads break, as will often be the case, they must be supplied by other cods, in the room of those which have broke, and these must be thrown among the refuse, as being of a defective silk, which would spoil the other. This advice I give with great confidence, being persuaded that those who follow it will find it turn to advantage.

REFLECTIONS upon the above REMARKS.

This memoir will meet with abundance of opposition, especially among people bigoted to old customs; and therefore I propose to write to those only who conduct themselves by the rules of good sense and reason, and are in a condition to profit by the new lights they receive.

What I propose is demonstrated from nature, but, if practised, the expence may seem to exceed the profit. It may therefore be necessary to undeceive those who allow themselves to be prejudiced against this memoir, by furnishing them with means to try the experiment at a small expence; for it will be prudent to try the scheme in miniature, before it is undertaken at large, not only for informing one's self whether or not the author has spoke truth, but likewise to know if there would be any real advantage in following his advice. In order to avoid all mistakes, we must exactly observe the least circumstances, keep account of the time and expence which have been employed, together with the profits which have been drawn, and to compare this with the usual method, in due proportion, that we may see which of the two is preferable: this spirit of curiosity, inquiry, and application, is always useful; by such occupation we acquire instruction, and are insensibly conducted to useful and curious discoveries, which flatter us the more, as they are the fruit of our own study and meditation.

To begin we may use a closet, or any little place, which may

resemble the large building I have described; that is, be equally windowed, enlightened, aired, and glazed, furnished with umbrellas to keep out the lightning, and the joinings may be secured with pasted paper. We must try to supply it with fresh air, to leave nothing that yields a bad scent, and without using a stove, to procure warmth by a proper circulation of warmed air. When this small apartment is put in order, furnished with moving boards such as I have described, so as to fill up the whole capacity of the lodging, as much as may be, without impairing the convenience of passing; it may be tenanted by a quantity of worms, suitable to the extent of the place.

In order to ascertain the number, we must observe that one worm, come to its natural growth, occupies the space of two inches square. As it increases in bulk it requires more air: and when the season is temperate, we run no risque in opening the casements in the day-time, but they must be carefully shut at night. According to this dimension, a board four feet long and one broad may hold about 300 worms; and a closet 12 feet square, and 10 feet high, will contain 18,000; if we can make 10 stories, and three rows of shelves, these 18,000 may produce as many cods; but as some of them always die, I reckon 15,000 may turn to account: 150 cods ought to produce an ounce of silk, when they are good; so that the 15,000 will yield about six pounds of raw silk. Thus the curious observer will see whether his trouble and expence exceed that of the ordinary method, by comparing the charge and profit on each side, and by including in this account the loss which is occasioned by want of care, he will find, if he is judicious, that his crop will sometimes be augmented one half, or at least one third. If he is satisfied with this experiment, he may afterwards work at large, in proportion to the number of his mulberry-trees, build an house for the purpose, situated on a rising round, well secured from bad winds, and not in a bottom, which is always subject to mischievous fogs and squalls of wind.

At the same time, he must take care to increase the culture of his mulberry-trees, without, however, planting such a number as will hinder the cultivation of other necessary provisions, and to make woods of them, as people make coppices; in which case the leaves will be finer, and more easily gathered, and the wood will serve for firing. They may also be planted at random, without being subject to any sort of cultivation, for we cannot have too many. This tree, when the soil is naturally good, may be useful by its wood, in a great many shapes: its leaves are a treasure; the poultry and hogs are fed by its fruit, which, indeed, is eaten by all sorts of animals.

REMARKS before the last war.

Under the article BRITISH AMERICA, particularly under the colony of GEORGIA, and also in our REMARKS on that article, I have taken notice of the production of the silk-worm, which was the first motive to the establishment of that plantation, in order to raise silk for the carrying on, in some degree, within ourselves, that estimable manufacture, and to save some proportion of that ready money we are obliged to expend on the importation of foreign raw silk. How it hath come to pass that a design of this kind should miscarry, in a climate confidently declared, time after time, to be proper for it, has never yet been cleared up to the satisfaction of the public; but certainly this is necessary, after the nation has been at so great an expence on the occasion. England is not esteemed a climate so suitable as Georgia, and other of her plantations on the continent of America, for the brood of this delicate animal; and yet there have been instances which seem to bid fair for success in a design of this kind even in England, provided it had been properly and resolutely pursued by some reasonable public encouragement; but perseverance and public spirit seem to be wanting in this kingdom, to bring many important concerns for the benefit of trade to their ultimate perfection, or to give them a fair experimental trial.

How far we have succeeded even in England, in regard to the production of the silk-worms, may deserve notice in the following single instance, and divers others that might be mentioned: and if so, certainly in Georgia, and other contiguous colonies, this matter might be brought to far greater perfection; and this is my chief reason for laying before the reader the following experiments, that were made in Chelsea Park, in the months of May, June, and July, 1719. Philosophical Transactions. April 27, I received a small parcel of silk-worms eggs from Languedoc.

May 6, early in the morning I found them hatched of themselves; the wind shifting in the night from east northerly, to the west southerly, changing the air of a sudden to warm, two days before the change of the moon.

After feeding and managing them according to art, through the whole course of their four sicknesses, they were come to their state of perfection, being then as thick as a man's little finger, and from four to five inches long, of a yellowish colour, and, when held against the light, they might be seen through, as you may an egg, being of the same colour and consistence, filled with the matter that makes the silk. This

is a certain sign that they will begin to spin in 24 hours, or less. They then forsake their food (being very voracious before) and hunt about for a convenient place to fix their holdfasts for supporting the balls, or cones, that they are to make, which they do in a most wonderful mathematical manner, with a mixture of a gummy substance, that ties all together; and when the loose fuzzy substance is taken off, and some of the silk is wound off, the remainder is so smooth and compact, shining like satin, that they are made use of for artificial flowers, and esteemed the best of any thing yet known for that purpose, for which they are generally kept in boarding-schools. I weighed many hundred of these silk-balls, or cones, which I found to weigh from 35 to 40 grains, with their aurelia's, or chrysalis, within them.

June 27, they began to spin, having been hatched seven weeks and three days, and in four or five days finished their laborious and curious work; but their balls were not fit to be removed until eight or ten days.

July 7, Monf. Lachivre began to wind off their silk-balls, with a machine that made great dispatch, winding much fine silk in a day. I found that an ounce of silk-balls would make about a drachm of fine silk; but, to be more certain, I weighed out to the winder 12 pounds of silk-balls, at four times, and told the balls in every three pounds as followeth, viz.

The first three pounds contained	-	-	812 Balls
The second three pounds contained	-	-	842
The third three pounds contained	-	-	797
The fourth three pounds contained	-	-	868

So that the whole 12 lb. weight contained 3319 Balls,

Which, when wound off, was found to yield and make one pound and an ounce, or 17 ounces of fine silk, and about seven ounces of coarse refuse, unwound, in all a pound and half, avoirdupoise weight, or two pounds Troy; which is as great, or greater, making or yielding, as in any part of the world, and the silk as fine. I shewed it to a noted silk broker, who said it was Italian silk (not knowing it was made in England) and worth about 20s. per pound, if I had ever so many bales of it, &c.

Now upon this experiment, finding that 3319 silk-balls would make one pound and one ounce of fine silk, I was desirous to know what quantity of silk might be expected from the worms hatched from one ounce of eggs.

Of which to obtain the knowledge, I made use of the following method: by often weighing and telling, I found that 100 eggs weighed but one grain: so that if one grain contains 100, a scruple must contain 2000, and a drachm 6000, and an ounce, at eight drachms to the ounce, must contain 48,000 eggs. Now if every egg hatch a worm, and every worm makes a silk-ball, there must be, from one ounce, 48,000 silk-balls; and if 3319 balls will make one pound and one ounce of fine silk (which by experience I found they did) then 48,000 silk-balls will make 15 lb. 6 oz. of avoirdupoise weight in fine silk, or 18 lb. 8 oz. of Troy weight, which is very considerable. And in the same proportion, 1 lb. of silk-worms eggs will produce worms sufficient to make above 180 lb. of silk. But allowing for casualties, and supposing but 12 lb. of fine silk made from the worms and their silk-balls, produced from an ounce of silk-worms eggs, it will be found much to exceed most countries, according to Augustino Gallio's computation: for he saith, that in the southern parts of France, viz. Languedoc and Provence, they make but 7 or 8 lb. of silk from silk-worms hatched from an ounce of eggs; and in Brescia in Italy, but 8, 9, or 10 lb. of silk from an ounce of eggs; only in Calabria, where the silk-worms and their eggs are larger, they make 11 or 12 lb. of silk from an ounce of eggs, which still does not exceed, nay hardly comes up to, what we make in England.

I have only this to add, that experience hath taught me how to hatch silk-worms twice in a year, so as to have two crops of silk in one year; and that the mulberry-trees will have leaves in England twice in a year, without prejudice to either tree or fruit, is most certainly true.

REMARKS ON OUR ARTICLE SILK, SINCE THE LAST WAR, AND THE DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

The silk we have from Italy is generally thrown, and serves for warp for our manufactures, and the greater part we import from PIEDMONT, the whole principality not being larger than a small English county; yet it is reckoned that the king of Sardinia receives at least 200,000l. of us yearly for that commodity, and all in ready money, for he hath loaded all our manufactures with very high duties, which is in effect a prohibition, and admits those of France at a small custom; for which reason they supply his dominions with WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES.

The prices we pay him for THROWN SILK are also extravagant, being in general above TWENTY SHILLINGS for every pound; nevertheless he appears to be very fond of keeping us dependent upon him; for an engine or machine being erected in this kingdom [see DERBYSHIRE] for

throwing RAW SILK into ORGANZINE, to prevent the use thereof, we are told, he hath prohibited the exportation of RAW SILK out of his dominions; and we have now none from thence but what is got by stealth; however, the markets are open in other parts of Italy.

As we have but one water-engine of the quality of that in Derbyshire for throwing silk in this kingdom, if that should be destroyed by fire, or any other accident, it would make the throwing fine silk among us very precarious; and it is very much to be doubted, whether all the men now living in the kingdom could make such another.

As we have commodious rivers for that purpose, whose streams hold all the year, and run through large towns, where scarcely any manufactures are carried on, it would be matter of great consequence to our silk manufacture to have three or four more erected, according to the model of that at Derby, though at the PUBLIC CHARGE, which would give us hopes of preserving that manufacture among us for ever; and we should come in for a part of the fine raw silk of Granada, Valentia, Murcia, and other provinces in Spain, as well as the products of several parts of Italy, in exchange for our woollen manufactures, and not be tied down to the strict rules of paying our ready money, as we are now, to the duke of Savoy; and when once fully employed, the profit in a short time might defray the whole expence. See the article SILK.

It certainly is extremely impolitic for us to depend for silk imported from any foreign country, provided we can be able to furnish ourselves with so valuable a material in our own plantation; a matter that has been long hoped for and expected hitherto in vain. Some have attributed this to the unkindliness of the climate in our continental colonies; [see our article SILK WORMS] but it being asserted many years since, that Georgia did actually produce silk of a good quality, as good, as was then said, as that of the Piedmontese itself; and yet no considerable quantities hitherto having been there produced in so many years, many have doubted the veracity of the production. Whether it has been owing to want of the proper care, and effectual encouragement, we cannot say; but this others have thought to have been the real cause, and not any unfavourableness in the climate. It has been judged by many, who have been well acquainted as residents in our plantations of Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, more northerly climes than Georgia, that those colonies would produce the best silk, and as fit for organzine as any in the world; for these countries afford vast numbers of white and other mulberry-trees, which grow wild, and spring up almost every where in great abundance, which looks as if nature had called us thither to propagate that manufacture, long before now, in those plantations: but if these climes are rather too northerly for the delicate tenderness of the silk-worm; now we are possessed of the FLORIDAS, the most southerly of those continental plantations, we can have no excuse, if we are wanting in our efforts to attempt this capital material, and that in the most effectual and vigorous manner, that the climate will admit of.—It is to be hoped, that no possible care, or even expence, that can be afforded, will be spared to set this design a-foot; for in time it certainly will prove of as great advantage to this nation, as any employment in the plantations; the manufacture of silk being a more profitable undertaking, where the air and land are happily adapted to raising the production needful in competent quantities.

It has been a dispute, whether the manufacture of silk, woollen, or linen, is most considerable in the world. Many travellers say the silk manufacture exceeds either of the other two; and they assign this reason for it, that the people of CHINA, who are computed to be two hundred millions in number, are chiefly clothed with silk garments, which indisputably demonstrates it to abound with the greatest quantity of silk of any country in the world, it being there so very plentiful and cheap, that several of the Jesuits affirm, five suits of silk there do not exceed the price of one suit of woollen in Europe.

Certain it is that Persia, India, and China, had the manufacture of silk long before it came into Europe, the first that was brought being in the time of Augustus.—We manufacture at present very great quantities of thrown and raw silk in this kingdom; it is thought to be six times, at least, as much as it was about threescore years ago; for then we were supplied with French and Italian silks, all fully manufactured. The vast riches of China, arising from this manufacture, is sufficient to demonstrate the great advantage thereof; and the extraordinary treasure the duke of Savoy draws into his country by silk, which is made in the little principality of Piedmont, as before observed, is also another instance: we may judge, if he draws above 200,000l. sterling a year from this kingdom, what his profits are, which he draws from Holland, and other places where the manufacture is carried on to a very great degree.

We are informed the very land for planting of mulberry-trees, in many parts of Italy, is worth from three to five pounds an acre; and gentlemen there, as well as in Sicily, sell their mulberry leaves to the poor for one half the silk they make,

make, and the money is equally divided between them upon sale of the silk; and that the leaves of a tree there have yielded three or four pounds.

Now if the manufacture of silk, and the planting of mulberry-trees has raised the land to be so valuable, and some gentlemen receive such considerable revenues from their crops of leaves, very great things may be expected by our effectually encouraging and promoting the manufacture of silk in our colonies, where as much land may be had for sixpence, as in Italy for five pounds. And if great numbers of mulberry-trees were planted among the Indian nation, when they shall be duly reconciled to our people, bordering on our settlements, and some skilful, good-tempered, persons employed to instruct them in the proper seasons for gathering leaves, and feeding the worms, and rewarding them bountifully for their pains, those people might be brought to be very profitable subjects to this nation. The Spaniards, while FLORIDA was in their hands, notwithstanding their pride, were condescending enough to instruct some of the Indians, under their jurisdiction, to render them very serviceable in carrying on and improving the manufactures of indigo, cochineal, and several others, to the great advantage of New Spain. The French also, while they possessed CANADA, in their settlements about the river St. Lawrence and the great lakes, and on the Mississippi, took a great deal of pains to instruct them in every thing they thought might contribute towards enriching their mother-country. They went with them on their long travels in their hunting seasons; and while they had CAPE BRETON, made these INDIANS inhabiting that part of the continent, very useful to them in their FISHERIES. If the Spaniards and French engaged those people to be so serviceable to them, I do not see it is impossible, if kindness, justice, and good nature was duly exercised towards them, but they may be brought to be highly serviceable to Great-Britain also.

No part of the world should seem to be better adapted to the brood of the silk-worm than our colonies now are; consistent not only with philosophic speculation on the various climes and situations thereof, but from the unquestionable experience of most other parts of the world, where this material is produced of the best qualities, and the greatest emolument. It is generally observed, that all those countries which afford the best silk, border upon the sea, and lie pretty near the same latitude; our plantations, the province of Gilon and Nanking, and Chekian in China, all border upon the sea, and are pretty near the same latitude. Those places in Turkey that produce silk, border upon the sea, and Italy and Sicily are, in a manner, environed by the sea; likewise the provinces of Granada, Murcia, and Valentia in Spain; the places that yield the best silk, as well as Languedoc and Provence in France; all lie upon the sea.

Provided we should never be able to induce our neighbouring Indians in North-America to become useful to us in this valuable production, may not the negroes from Africa prove so? As the great advantages that accrue to Portugal and Spain, as well as to ourselves in our sugar and tobacco plantations, is by the cheap labour of negroes, may not the same cheapness of labour be also of prodigious benefit to us, if employed in our COLONIES, in producing and making of silk? And when that season is over, may not the same negroes servant-turn their hands to raising and dressing of hemp and flax, the charge being little more than their cloathing from England; for the earth there produces provisions in abundant plenty?

We are told by gentlemen of good intelligence, that the whole charge of making a pound of silk in China does not stand in above five shillings, and almost any person, man, woman, or child, may work at it; and a man or woman, with a child to assist in directing the thread of the silk, may, with a proper machine, reel from the cocoon or silk-bag, one pound in a day.

Where we have, at present, proper land in our plantations for little or nothing, and might have labour performed as above, it is not unreasonable to suppose that silk could stand us in so much as it may do the Chinese. A manufacture of this kind might be brought, in a little time, to so great a degree of perfection, and such quantities raised, that I should conceive the labour of negroes employed in this work would produce above twice as much as those that are employed in planting either sugar or tobacco: and as this nation now greatly inclines to the wearing of silk garments in imitation of the French, to the great discouragement of our woollen manufactures, the manufacture of silk from our plantations would not only enable us to supply ourselves amply therewith, but enable us to export large quantities of silk fully manufactured.

SILK MANUFACTURE of CHINA. It may be said that China is the country of silk, and seems to be an inexhaustible source of that commodity. It not only furnishes silk to a great number of nations in Europe and Asia, but also the emperor, the princes, the mandarins, the literati, the women, and, in a word, all those in easy circumstances, wear habits of silk, and are clothed with sattin or damask; very few, except the vulgar or country people, wear cotton painted blue.

The several provinces of China furnish perfectly beautiful silks, yet such as come from Tché hiang are undoubtedly the best and finest. The Chinese judge of good silk by its whiteness, softness, and fineness; for if, in handling it, it is rough to the touch, it is a bad sign. Sometimes, to make it look well, they prepare it with a certain rice-water, mixed with lime, which burns it, and renders it incapable of being manufactured when transported into Europe.

This is not the case with that which is pure, for nothing can be more easily wove, and a Chinese workman will work upon it in an hour without breaking a single thread.

Their looms are very different from those of Europe, and much more simple. Two or three windles and a wheel are sufficient to do it; and, in a word, it is surprizing to see the simplicity of the instruments with which they make the most beautiful stuffs. At Canton there is a sort of silk, which comes from Tong-hing, but it is not comparable to that brought from the province of Tché-hiang, provided this last is not too moist, which we ought to beware of; for the Chinese, who are generally wont to cheat, sometimes put into the heart of the packet one or two parcels of coarse silk, widely different from that on the surface. See the article CHINA.

Of this silk the most beautiful stuffs are made in the province of Kiang-nan; for to this province most of the good workmen repair, and it furnishes the emperor with all the silks he uses, and those he makes presents of to the grandes and lords of his court. The great trade of Canton, where foreign merchants abound, also draws a vast number of good tradesmen to it.

They could make stuffs as rich as those of Europe, if they were sure of their sale; but they generally employ themselves on the most simple kind, because the Chinese are fonder of what is useful than of what is beautiful.

They, indeed, make gold stuffs, but they do not pass their gold through the drawing-mill, as they do in Europe, in order to twist it with the thread, but are content to gild a long leaf of paper, which they cut into narrow slips, with which they cover the silk, with a great deal of dexterity.

These stuffs are very beautiful at first, but do not last long; neither are they very proper for wearing apparel, because the air and the moisture soon tarnish the splendor of the gold. They are most proper for curious pieces of furniture, and the ornaments of churches; and none but the mandarins and their wives cloath themselves with these stuffs, and that very seldom.

The pieces of silk most used by the Chinese are gauzes, both of the plain and flowered kind, of which they make summer habits; damasks of all sorts and colours; striped sattins, and the black sattins of Nankin; corded taffeties, which wear well; several other sorts of taffeties, some with flowers, and others striped in a beautiful manner; crapes, brocades, and different sorts of velvets: of this last the crimson is the dearest, but it is easy to be deceived in it; the best method of discovering the fraud, is to take lemon-juice, mixed with lime, and sprinkle some drops of it on different parts, and, if the colour changes, it is a sign that it is bad.

The Chinese also make a prodigious number of other stuffs, two of which are most generally used among them.

First, a sort of sattin, stronger, and less glossy than that made in Europe. This is sometimes plain, and sometimes adorned with flowers, trees, birds, and butterflies.

Secondly, a particular taffety, of which they make drawers, and other sorts of wearing apparel. It is thick, and yet so pliant, that we may fold it and press it with our hand, without leaving any mark in it. They also wash it, like other stuffs, without losing a great deal of its lustre.

The Chinese workmen give the lustre to this taffety with the fat of the river-porpoise, which they purify by washing and boiling; then with a fine brush they give the taffety two beds in the same direction, on the side they intend to render glossy.

When they work in the night-time, they use this fat melted in their lamps instead of oil, because its smell banishes the flies from the place, which is looked upon as a great advantage, since these insects, by lighting on the work, are very detrimental to it.

The province of Cang-tong furnishes a particular silk, which is found in large quantities on the trees and in the fields. When it is spun, they make a stuff of it called kein-tcheou, and this silk is produced by small insects, which nearly resemble caterpillars. They do not spin it round nor oval, as silk-worms do, but in very long threads, which adhere to the bushes and shrubs, as the wind pushes them to one side or another. They gather these threads, and make of them silk stuffs, coarser than those which are spun in houses. These worms are wild, and eat indifferently the leaves of the mulberry, and those of other trees. Persons unacquainted with this stuff, would take it for a rough stuff, or a coarse drugget.

The worms which spin this silk are of two kinds; and the first, which is larger and blacker than our silk-worm, is called t'ouen-kien; and the second, which is smaller, is called tiaokien. The cotton of the first is of a reddish grey; but that of the other is blacker; and the stuffs made of them retain these two colours. It is very close, does not cut, lasts long, washes

washes like stuff, and, when it is good, spots do not spoil it, not even those of oil, but come out of their own accord. This stuff is much esteemed by the Chinese, and is sometimes as dear as the satins and best-made silks. As the Chinese are very dexterous in counterfeiting, they make false kien-tcheou, with the refuse of the silk of the hiang, and it is very easy to be deceived, if we are not very careful. The workmen of Canton also make ribbands, silk stockings, and buttons, to great perfection.

AN ACT of PARLIAMENT for repealing the DUTIES payable on CHINA RAW SILK, and for granting other DUTIES in lieu thereof, made in the year 1750.

Whereas the duties now payable upon raw silk imported from China are a great discouragement to the importation thereof: and whereas a constant and plentiful supply of that valuable commodity to be manufactured in this kingdom, will be a public benefit, and greatly contribute to the increase and improvement of the silk manufactures: therefore we, your Majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the commons of Great-Britain, being desirous to promote and encourage the manufactures of this kingdom, do most humbly beseech your Majesty, that it may be enacted, and be it enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That from and after the 24th of June, 1750, the several rates, duties, subsidies, and impositions, now payable upon the importation of raw silk of the growth or produce of China, by virtue of several acts of parliament now in force, shall cease, determine, and be no longer paid.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the said 24th of June, all raw silk imported from China into this kingdom, by the united company of merchants of England trading to the East-Indies, or by any licence from the said company, shall, in lieu of the said rates, duties, subsidies, and impositions, by this act repealed, as aforesaid, be charged with, and pay the same rates, duties, subsidies, and impositions, as are now charged upon, and payable for, raw silk of the growth or produce of Italy; which said rates, duties, subsidies, and impositions, by this act granted, shall be paid by the said united East-India company, at the same times, and in the same manner, as the several rates, duties, subsidies, and impositions, by this act repealed, as aforesaid, have been paid.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That the several rates, duties, subsidies, and impositions, by this act granted, shall be raised, levied, collected, paid, and applied, in such manner, and for the same purposes, as the said several rates, duties, subsidies, and impositions, by this act repealed, as aforesaid, are now respectively raised, levied, collected, paid, and applied; and all the provisions of or in any act or law now in force for raising, levying, collecting, paying, and applying the rates, duties, subsidies, and impositions, hereby repealed, as aforesaid, shall be in full force, and shall be put in execution for raising, levying, collecting, paying, and applying the rates, duties, subsidies, and impositions, by this act granted, as fully and effectually, to all intents and purposes, as if the said provisions were particularly repeated and re-enacted in the body of this present act.

And it is further enacted and declared, by the authority aforesaid, That all raw silk of the growth or produce of China, imported after the said 24th of June, shall, upon the exportation thereof from this kingdom, be entitled to, and receive the same drawbacks and allowances only, as are now by law directed to be paid upon the exportation of raw silk of the growth or produce of Italy, any law or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

AN ACT of PARLIAMENT for encouraging the CULTURE of RAW SILK in his MAJESTY'S COLONIES, or PLANTATIONS, in AMERICA.

Whereas it will greatly tend to the increase and improvement of the silk manufactures of this kingdom, to encourage the growth and culture of silk in his Majesty's dominions in America, may it therefore please your Majesty that it may be enacted, and be it enacted, by the king's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That from and after the 24th of June, 1750, it shall and may be lawful to import any raw silks of the growth and culture of any of his Majesty's colonies, or plantations in America, directly from thence into the port of London, without paying any subsidy, custom, imposition, or other duty whatsoever, for the same, so as a due entry be first made thereof in the custom-house, at the time of importation, and in the same manner and form (expressing the package, marks, and numbers, together with the quantities and qualities of the respective goods) as was used and practised before the making of this act, and so as the same be landed in the presence of, and examined by, the proper officer or officers of the customs appointed for that purpose, and so as the same be imported in ships or vessels that may lawfully trade to his Majesty's plan-

VOL. II.

tations, manned as by law required: and on failure of the said conditions, or directions, herein last mentioned, such silks shall be liable to the payment of the respective duties, as if this act had never been made.

Provided always, and be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That in order to intitle the importer and importers of raw silk to the exemption intended by this act, every merchant, or other person or persons whatsoever, who shall, after the 24th of June, 1750, load any raw silk on board any ship or vessel, in any of the British colonies or plantations in America, shall, before the clearing out of the said ship or vessel from thence, make proof on oath, before the collector and comptroller of the customs, and naval officer, at the port or place where such raw silk shall be put on board, or any of them, that the raw silk, which he, she, or they, hath, or have, shipped on board the said ship, or vessel (expressing the quantity thereof) is bona fide of the growth and culture of some or one of the British colonies, or plantations, in America, expressing the parish or place in such plantation where the same was cultivated and produced, and by whom, producing such person's oath thereto, made before the governor of such island or province, or before the next justice of the peace (which oath the said governor, or justice of the peace, collector and comptroller of the customs, and naval officer, or any two of them, are hereby required and empowered to administer without fee or reward) and the master, commander, or other person taking charge of the ship, or vessel, on board which such raw silk shall be loaded, shall also bring with him a certificate, or certificates, from such collector and comptroller of the customs, and naval officer, or any two of them, as aforesaid, under their hands and seals of office (which certificate, or certificates, such collector and comptroller of the customs, and naval officer, are hereby required and directed to grant without fee or reward) expressing the marks, number, tale, and weight of the raw silk in each bale, parcel, or other package whatsoever, so shipped, or loaded on board such ship, or vessel, with the names, place, or places of abode, of the exporter, or exporters thereof, from the said British colonies, or plantations, in America, and the name or names, place or places of abode, of such other person or persons, who shall have sworn the goods therein mentioned to have been of the growth and culture of the said British colonies, or plantations, in America, and the name, or names, of the person, or persons, to whom the same are consigned in the port of London; which certificate, or certificates, the said master, commander, or other person taking charge of such ship, or vessel, shall, on his arrival in the said port of London, deliver to the collector, comptroller, or other chief officer of his Majesty's customs at the said port, at or before the entry of the said raw silk; and at the same time shall make oath, before any one of them the said collector, comptroller, or chief officer of his Majesty's customs (who are hereby required and empowered to administer the same without fee or reward) that the said bales and parcels, and goods mentioned in such certificate, are the same bales and parcels, and goods, as were taken on board in the said British colonies, or plantations, in America; and if any raw silk of the growth and culture of the British colonies or plantations, in America, shall, after the said 24th of June, 1750, be imported as herein before mentioned, without such certificate, signed and delivered as herein before required, and oath made as before directed, by the master, commander, or other person taking charge of the ship, or vessel, in which the same is imported, all such raw silks shall be liable to the payment of the respective duties, as if this act had never been made, any thing herein before contained to the contrary notwithstanding.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any person or persons shall, from and after the said 24th day of June, 1750, make, or cause to be made, an entry, or entries, of any foreign raw silk, under the name, or description, of raw silk of the growth, or culture, of any of the British colonies, or plantations, in America, or shall mix, or cause to be mixed, any foreign raw silk with raw silk of the growth or culture of the British colonies, or plantations, in America, with intent to evade the payment of the duties payable on foreign raw silk, every person or persons so making, or causing to be made, such entry, or entries, or mixing, or causing such mixture or mixtures to be made, shall forfeit and lose the sum of 50l. for every such offence, and all such foreign raw silk; and in case of any mixture, the quantity so mixed, both of foreign and British-plantation culture or growth, or the value thereof, together with the bales, or other packages containing the same, shall be forfeited, and shall and may be seized and prosecuted, or the value thereof be sued for by any officer, or officers, of his Majesty's customs; one moiety of which penalties and forfeitures shall be to the use of his Majesty, his heirs and successors, and the other moiety to him or them that shall seize, prosecute, or sue for the same, in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster.

Provided always, that if any doubt or dispute shall arise, whether the said raw silk, or any part thereof, so to be imported as aforesaid, is of the growth or culture of the British colonies

colonies or plantations in America, or of foreign growth or culture, the onus probandi shall lie on the owner or claimer thereof, and not on the informer and prosecutor; any law, custom, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any action or suit shall be commenced against any person or persons for any thing done in pursuance of this act, the defendant or defendants, in such action or suit, may plead the general issue, and give this act and the special matter in evidence at any trial to be had thereupon, and that the same was done in pursuance and by authority of this act: and if it shall appear so to have been done, then the jury shall find for the defendant or defendants; and if the plaintiff shall be nonsuited, or discontinue his action, after the defendant or defendants shall have appeared, or if judgment shall be given upon any verdict or demurrer against the plaintiff, the defendant or defendants shall and may recover treble costs, and have the like remedy for the same, as defendants have in other cases by law.

R E M A R K S.

Such has been the encouragement given by the legislature, to the culture of raw silk in our AMERICAN colonies. An ample supply of this commodity, however, can be brought only from ASIA, unless we make some very extraordinary improvements. EUROPE, during the last war, did not produce the usual quantity, nor has the price of some particular kinds declined since that time: for the consumption of this article increases rather than diminishes. The EAST-INDIA company, therefore, having, we presume, previously taken their measures, applied to parliament for an alteration of the duty on CHINA silk (as we see by the preceding act), the obtaining of which affords an encouragement to the importation of it; and, no doubt, by means of the company, we shall have a sufficient quantity*; which will prove highly beneficial to the silk manufacture of this kingdom. And, For the further encouraging this important manufacture, the following act passed in the year 1753.

* In 1752 we find accordingly a large supply of CHINA raw silk arrived.

An act for encouraging the silk manufactures of this kingdom, and for securing the duties payable upon the importation of velvets, wrought silks, and silks mixed with other materials, not manufactured in Great-Britain.

Whereas the payment of the duties charged and made payable by divers acts of parliament, upon the importation of velvets, wrought silks, and silks mixed with other materials not manufactured in Great-Britain, is frequently evaded by the subtil and fraudulent practices of evil-disposed persons, to the great discouragement of the silk manufactures of this kingdom, and the loss of his Majesty's revenue: therefore, for preventing such frauds and abuses for the future, be it enacted by the king's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That all velvets, wrought silks, and silks mixed with any other materials (such velvets, wrought silks, and silks mixed with any other materials, not being manufactured in Great-Britain, and such wrought silks, or silks mixed as aforesaid, not being prohibited to be worn therein) which shall be imported into this kingdom, after the twenty-ninth day of September, one thousand seven hundred and fifty-three, shall after the same have been entered at the custom-house, and before they are discharged by the officers, and delivered into the custody of the importer or his agent, be marked or sealed at each end of every piece, with such mark or seal, and by such officer or officers, as the respective commissioners of the customs in Great-Britain shall direct and appoint for that purpose.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the said twenty-ninth day of September, every person intending to export any such velvets, wrought silks, or silks mixed with any other materials, as herein before are mentioned and described, which shall have been imported into this kingdom, after the said twenty-ninth day of September, shall before such goods are shipped in order to be exported, give notice to the proper officer or officers to be appointed for that purpose, by the respective commissioners of the customs in Great-Britain, when and where he will pack up the said goods in order to be exported; and the said commissioners of the customs are hereby empowered and required to cause such officer or officers, to take care that such seals, stamps, or marks, be taken off from every piece so intended to be exported, without fee or reward; and no person shall be intitled to the drawback allowed upon the exportation of such velvets, wrought silks, or silks mixed as aforesaid, unless he shall have given such notice as herein before is directed, and until such seals, stamps, or marks, shall be taken off by the proper officer or officers as aforesaid.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the twenty-ninth day of September, one thousand seven hundred and fifty-four, in case any velvets,

wrought silks, or silks mixed with any other materials (such velvets, wrought silks, or silks mixed with any other materials, not being manufactured in Great-Britain, and such wrought silks, or silks mixed as aforesaid, not being prohibited to be worn therein) shall be found in any shop, warehouse, or other place whatsoever, upon land within this kingdom, not being marked or sealed as herein before directed, upon both ends of every whole and entire piece, or upon one end of every remnant of such velvet, wrought silk, or silk mixed as aforesaid, the same shall be forfeited, and shall and may be seized by any officer or officers of the customs, and secured in some or one of his Majesty's warehouses; and such officer or officers is and are hereby indemnified for so doing; and all such velvets, wrought silks, or silks mixed as aforesaid, so seized and secured, shall, after condemnation thereof in due course of law, be publickly sold to the best bidder, and one moiety of the produce arising by the sale of such velvets, wrought silks, or silks mixed as aforesaid, shall be to the use of his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, and the other moiety to the officer or officers who shall seize and secure the same as aforesaid; and the person in whose custody or possession the goods so seized and secured shall be found, shall also, for every such offence, forfeit the sum of two hundred pounds, to be recovered and divided in manner herein after directed.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That no velvets, wrought silks, or silks mixed with any other materials as aforesaid, which after the twenty-ninth day of September, one thousand seven hundred and fifty-four, shall be seized and forfeited by virtue of this act, or for any other cause of forfeiture, shall be consumed or used in this kingdom, but shall be exported again, and not sold otherwise than on condition to be exported, and shall not be delivered out of the warehouse wherein the same shall have been secured, until sufficient security be given, that the same and every part thereof shall be exported, and not landed again in any part of Great-Britain.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any person or persons shall at any time forge or counterfeit any stamp, mark, or seal, to resemble any stamp, mark, or seal, which shall be provided or used in pursuance of this act, or shall forge or counterfeit the impression of any such stamp, mark, or seal, upon any goods required by this act to be stamped, marked, or sealed, or shall sell, or expose to sale, any of the said goods with a counterfeit stamp, mark, or seal thereon, knowing the same to be counterfeited; all and every such offender and offenders, their aiders, abettors, and assistants, shall, for each and every such offence, forfeit the sum of five hundred pounds, and shall also be adjudged to stand on the pillory in some public place for the space of two hours.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That all pecuniary penalties and forfeitures by this act imposed, shall and may be sued for and recovered in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, or in the court of Exchequer at Edinburgh respectively, by action, bill, plaint, or information, in the name of his Majesty's attorney-general, or in the name of his Majesty's advocate in Scotland, or in the name or names of some officer or officers of the customs; and that one moiety of every such penalty and forfeiture shall be to his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, and the other moiety thereof to the officer or officers of the customs who shall inform and prosecute for the same.

Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted, That if any officer or officers of the customs shall neglect or refuse, for the space of one month, to prosecute to effect any person or persons for any pecuniary penalty or forfeiture by this act inflicted upon offenders against the same, that then it shall be lawful for any person or persons whomsoever to sue for, prosecute, and recover the respective pecuniary penalties and forfeitures by this act inflicted, in like manner as is herein before directed with regard to the officers of the customs; and one moiety of the said respective forfeitures, when recovered, shall, in such case, go and be applied to the use of his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, and the other moiety to the person or persons who shall sue or prosecute for the same respectively. And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That upon every action, bill, plaint, or information, entered and filed as aforesaid, for any pecuniary penalty imposed by this act, a capias in the first process shall and may issue, specifying the sum of the penalty sued for; and the defendant or defendants shall be obliged to give sufficient bail or security by natural-born subjects, persons naturalized or denizens, to the person or persons to whom such capias shall be directed, to appear in the court out of which such capias shall issue, at the day of the return of such writ, to answer such suit or prosecution; and shall likewise, at the time of such appearance, give sufficient bail or security, by such persons as aforesaid, in the said court, to answer and pay all the forfeitures and penalties incurred for such offence or offences, in case he, she, or they shall be convicted thereof, or to yield his, her, or their body or bodies to prison.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any action or suit shall be commenced against any person or persons

persons for any thing done in pursuance of this act, the defendant or defendants in such action or suit may plead the general issue, and give this act, and the special matter in evidence, at any trial to be had thereupon; and that the same was done in pursuance, and by authority of this act: and if it shall appear so to have been done, then the jury shall find for the defendant or defendants; and if the plaintiff shall be nonsuited, or discontinue his action, after the defendant or defendants shall have appeared; or if judgment shall be given upon any verdict or demurrer against the plaintiff, the defendant or defendants shall recover treble costs, and have the like remedy for the same as defendants have in other cases by law. And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any velvets, wrought silks, or silks mixed as aforesaid, shall be seized by virtue and in pursuance of this act; and if any doubt or question shall arise, where the said velvets, wrought silks, or silks mixed as aforesaid, were manufactured, the proof shall lie upon the owner or claimer thereof, and not upon the prosecutor; any law, usage, or custom to the contrary notwithstanding.

R E M A R K S.

Silk is a material for a very considerable manufacture; which being brought from abroad raw, we here twist, dye, and weave into different goodnesses, both plain, striped, and flowered, either by itself, or mixed with gold and silver; so richly brocaded, that we are allowed to exceed those from whom we had the art. Of this material also are made great quantities of ribbons, stockings, and other things; not only to serve ourselves, but also to export.

Our importation of raw and thrown silk is from Turkey, Italy, Sicily, and India.

1. Thrown silk comes chiefly from Leghorn, Genoa, Naples, and Messina.

2. Raw silk from Turkey, that is, Persia by the way of Turkey, Bengal in India, and from China.

All this silk is manufactured in Great-Britain, very little excepted, which is sometimes re-exported unwrought, chiefly to Ireland. The growth and increase of the consumption of silk in these kingdoms, has been much owing to the high duties on French wrought silks, particularly their alamodes, lustrings, [see ALAMODES and LUSTRINGS] and rich broad silks of every kind; but more especially to the prohibiting the use and wearing of EAST-INDIA wrought silks, which were formerly worn in England to an extraordinary degree; insomuch that one ship from India, namely, the Tavistock, brought in one article of wrought silk 9000 pieces of damask (besides a great many of several other sorts) each of which was worth at market, one with another, 9l. or more: so that the said damask only amounted to 89,000l. sterling.

At the making of the treaty of Utrecht, the state of the silk trade was then represented as follows*.

* See The British Merchant.

As to our increase of the silk manufacture at home, this will appear in some measure by the vast increase of the importation of raw and thrown silks from foreign countries, from Turkey, Italy, and the East-Indies.

But here I must acknowledge, that the importation of ardafs, or coarse Persia silk, from Turkey, is vastly abated. This has been principally occasioned by the imposition of such duties on it as it could not bear. But then this loss has been in part supplied by a vast importation of grogram yarns; and besides this, the importation of bellandine, or white Turkey silk, and of sherbaftee of Persia, is greater now, than that of these and the cheap ardafs silk, joined together, ever was before the beginning of the first war. All the work, therefore, that was formerly done with ardafs silks, and is now performed by grogram yarn, together with the whole increase of the number of bales imported from that country more than formerly, must be placed to the account of the increase of the silk manufacture in England.

I will not pretend to determine the value of this increase; all I will say here, shall be only to explain it. Suppose then, that formerly our annual importation of ardafs, and other silks imported from Turkey, amounted to 1500 bales, and that, at this time, the importation of bellandine and sherbaftee amounted to 1600 bales of silk; at first sight, this would look as if only a hundred bales of silk more were brought into the English manufacture: but if the grogram yarn, which is for the most part a new importation, should be allowed to supply 500 bales of ardafs silk, and that, nevertheless, 1600 bales of raw silk from Turkey are imported; then it would be manifest, that not only 100, but 600 bales of our present annual importation, must either be re-exported, or added to our silk manufacture. If it shall be allowed that the Turkey trade, by this means, furnishes 600 bales of silk per annum to our manufacture, more than it did before, I shall be very glad to be informed, whether such a quantity is not sufficient to produce 80 or 90,000 lb. weight of wrought silk? The Turkey merchants, or rather the weavers of Spitalfields, might certainly answer this question; and also, whether, at least, 600 bales of Turkey silk are not brought an-

nually to our looms, more than before the beginning of king William's war.

But we are yet more sure of our importation of Piedmontese and Bergamo silks; this amounts to near a thousand bales in a year, and is wholly new. Of these, and other Italian thrown and raw silks, we use at least 1200 bales annually at our looms more than we did before the beginning of the first war. And whence is this prodigious increase of our silk manufacture, but from the interruption of our commerce with France, and the prohibition of East-India silks?

I have by me an account of the East-India raw silks imported for several years last past; the whole quantity, at a medium, will make 400 bales per annum: so much of this as is not re-exported, is used at the English looms. If, by these several articles, 2000 bales are used at our looms, more than formerly, the weavers will be ready to answer, whether the produce will amount to less than 280,000 lb. weight of wrought silk; and this quantity, at 50l. per pound, will make the increase of our silk manufacture 700,000l. per annum. I am very ready to believe that such has been the increase, from what was asserted at the bar of the last House of Commons, by a gentleman well skilled in these matters.

He asserted, that our manufacture of	
lustrings, alamodes, and other black	} 300,000l. per ann.
silks, for hoods and scarves only, amounting to	
Of silks for linings of clothes, in imitation of persians, to	} 150,000
Of silk handkerchiefs	
	200,000
The whole of these articles	650,000l. per ann.

All this, besides the recovery of stuffs and cottons mixed with silks, which before were almost lost to this kingdom.

Lustrings and alamodes are now very little used; the silks that are used in their stead, are rasiégeans and mantua silks, which are quite a different fabric. But the whole value, it seems, of our black silks is 300,000l. per annum. This is an entire new manufacture to England, with which, before the first war, we were wholly served by France. This is not such a prodigious sum as people may imagine; it amounts to little more than 1s. 8d. per annum, for every one of the female sex; and we may very well conceive, that 300,000 of this sex are in these silks every one at the charge of 20s. per annum, which makes up the whole sum: but whatever is the quantity, France served us with the whole before.

For brocades, and other rich silks, almost the whole quantity used in England, were the manufacture of that nation, as well as great part of the persians for linings: and if this last sort made in England amounts to 150,000l. per annum, the whole of these two articles imported, may very well be believed to be the value of 200,000l. per annum.

The above-mentioned articles, and that of silk handkerchiefs, make it credible, that I am not much mistaken in my computation of 2000 bales of silk manufactured by our own looms, more than were before the interruption of the French commerce, and the prohibition of East-India manufactures: whether such a manufacture, of so much value, deserves our care or our contempt, is the next thing to be considered.

In the first place, I must insist upon it, that the whole price of this increase of our silk manufacture, from the worm to the mercer's shop, is paid to the product of our lands, and to the labour of our people.

There can be no question of the silks which are imported raw from Turkey, and manufactured here in England. No bullion is sent to that country. The raw silks are purchased there for our woollen manufactures; and as a part of the price of these is paid to the land-holder for his wool, and the rest to the labour of our people that made it up, it must be affirmed that the whole value of Turkey raw silk, is indirectly paid to our own people, by being paid to them for the goods that are exchanged for it: and as for the whole new value that is superadded to it, for the charge of importing, throwing, weaving, and dyeing of this silk, it is entirely, and directly paid to the labour of our own people.

The same thing may be affirmed of the raw and thrown Italian silks; they are both purchased by an over-balance of English manufactures exported to that country*; and if the whole value of these is directly paid to the English lands and labour, and if we could not hope to preserve our Italian markets for them, without taking off their silks, it must be acknowledged, that our land-holders and labourers are indirectly paid the value of these silks, by being paid for the goods that are exchanged for them.

* Although silver is not sent out directly to Piedmont, as it is to India, yet, in fact, it is the same thing; for the balance of some other trade is carried thither, which otherwise would be remitted to us.

The only difficulty is concerning East-India raw silks, which are purchased partly by our silver, and partly by our manufactures.

factures. But of those it must be acknowledged, that the whole price of importing and working them up is paid to the labour of our people. But as East-India raw silks are the least part of our importation*, so it is of these that we make the greatest re-exportations, and the countries to which we do it, reimburse us not only our whole cost of the re-exported raw silk that is imported from the East-Indies. However, the throwing of raw silk employs so many little and otherwise useless hands, that I shall never quarrel with the East-India trade for the silver it exports for those useful materials.

* The case is greatly altered, since the act of parliament to encourage the importation of China silk.

But this can never be said in defence of a trade, which exchanges our silver for foreign silks already manufactured to the very utmost perfection; for what can these be said to pay our lands? what to the labour of our people? It were better for us to send our money to the East-Indies than to France, for these manufactured silks, not only because they are purchased cheaper in the former, but because the cost of a long importation is all paid to our own navigation; besides that, it were less dangerous to enrich a country at so great a distance, than so near a neighbour as the French nation.

But that which I am chiefly aiming at is, that this whole increase of the silk manufacture in England, is so much lost to other nations: for all that pretend that we are not richer nor more populous than we were before the war, will grant, that our consumption of wrought silks cannot be greater than it was before. Whence then is this increase of a manufacture to the value of 700,000*l.* per ann. gained? and to what countries is it lost? It must be wholly lost to France and the East-Indies, and how is this loss to be proportioned?

Our whole quantity of black silks was heretofore brought from France; our own manufacture of this commodity amounts to 300,000*l.* per ann. France therefore has lost in this article the selling us so great a value.

There is no reason to believe, that the whole value of East-India wrought silks annually consumed in England ever amounted to 200,000*l.* per ann. It remains therefore to make up the whole 700,000*l.* per ann. that the value of 200,000*l.* per ann. more in brocades and other rich silks must have been imported from France.

Then let the custom-house accounts make the wrought silks imported from France as much or as little as they please, the increase of the silk manufacture in England will demonstrate, that our importation of this commodity from France was heretofore 500,000*l.* per annum.

By the extraordinary industry and ingenuity of our silk manufacturers, we have the satisfaction to observe, that the wear of French silks in general, is in this kingdom greatly discountenanced, by the wise and glorious example of his Majesty and all the royal family: and, indeed, the fabrics of Spitalfields are now esteemed to be superior to those of France. We have likewise many excellent designers among our weavers, which has not a little contributed to the increase of this manufacture, to that superlative height to which it is arrived. See the article ENGRAVING. And if our manufacturers would follow the example of the French in making a very light and cheap sort of silks, our exportation of these manufactures might reasonably be expected to increase.

The late encouragement given by the legislature to the importation of China raw silk, it is to be hoped, will have a happy tendency to render a great part of our silk manufactures much cheaper than without this silk. For,

The China silk is not only of excellent staple, but comes at little above one third of the price of Italian Piedmont silk. Before the late act, the duty of Bengal raw silk being one third more, and China near three times as much as that of the Italian; hindered our being supplied so fully as we ought, and was a great detriment to the nation; for we pay the duke of Savoy mostly ready money for what we have from him, which as effectually drains us of our bullion, as the India or China trade does; with this aggravation, that according to Mr Gee, almost three pounds of China silk may be purchased for the money that one pound of Piedmont silk costs us.

Although silver, as before observed, is not sent out directly to Piedmont, as it is to India, yet in fact it is the same thing; for the ballance of some other trade is carried thither, which otherwise would be remitted to us.

The silk of China will answer, in most respects, the use of Italian silk, provided we could be constantly supplied with the fine raw silk of which they make their damasks, sattins, and other fine manufactures, which, by the curiosity of those silks, must come up to the goodness of Italian silk.

The China silk that we commonly receive, is purchased at Canton, the nearest port we trade to in China; but their fine silk is made in the province of Nankin and Chekiam, where their fine manufactures are carried on, and where prodigious quantities of raw silk are made, and the best in all China. We have never till lately imported any of the superfine here, but two or three ships have brought extraordinary good, the

best of which, we are informed, was brought from Amoy; and doubtless, if encouragement was given for the importation of that fine silk, it might be thrown here, and our manufactures carried on at a small expence to the nation: the countries of Chekiam and Nankin that produce it, are much to the northward of the places we now trade to, and near Chufan, about five or six hundred miles to the northward of Canton, an island in which we formerly had a factory, and were admitted to trade.

That country is very cold in winter, and I have been informed, some of our woollen goods have sold very well there, especially our callimancoes and long-ells.

Besides, the countries of Chekiam and Nankin are near the heart of the empire, where the greatest trade is drove; and Nankin being the metropolis of trade in that country, as London is in England, she sends out her manufactures and merchandize to Canton, as we do to Bristol, and other out-ports. But, as Canton is the nearest port, some captains and supercargoes raise objections against going further down the coast, alleging that it is a difficult pilotage, and in danger of losing their passage back that year; that the mandarins, and other officers, impose upon them, which makes it difficult to trade with them. But when private traders had liberty to go to China, they were of another opinion; they went to those places where they could get most money, and the people of Chufan (where the merchants of Nankin as well as of Hamcheu and Nimpo, two other great trading cities, lodge great quantities of merchandize) would be as ready to cultivate a correspondence with our captains and supercargoes, as the people of Canton are; and it is hoped we may find as much encouragement to trade to those parts, as we now do to Canton, their interest being the same among them all. A trade of this nature cannot be immediately settled, good and prudent management and time must do that. Some of our ingenious gentlemen have found, that several of our commodities, as well as our woollens, would do very well towards the heart of China; and to speak freely, every lover of his country ought to have the advantage thereof in view, as well as his own private gains. If this trade could be fixed, and any quantities vended in that vast country, and the fine silk above-mentioned imported, it would exceedingly add to the profits we already receive by the Indian trade, and bring those advantages with it, that may enable us to vie with any kingdoms in Europe in the SILK MANUFACTURES; for as cheapness and goodness always give preference, SILK so imported from China will answer in both respects. And it is to be hoped, improvements of this kind will be readily undertaken by the company, and be an acceptable service to them, as well as to the nation in general.' Joshua Gee.—And we find that the company, from the preceding act of parliament, have in earnest engaged in this affair; and we may hope for such success in our silk manufacture, by means of the East-India and Turkey raw silks, that we may not be outdone therein by any other country.

For more matter relating to the silk trade, see the article RUSSIA, in regard to the silk of Persia being imported through Russia. See also the articles LEVANT TRADE, ORIENTAL TRADE, and TURKEY TRADE, for hints tending to some improvements to be made in our silk manufactures.

An ACT for explaining, amending, and rendering more effectual, an act made in the nineteenth year of the reign of king Henry the seventh, intitled SILK-WORKS.

‘Whereas by an act passed in the nineteenth year of the reign of king Henry the seventh, intitled SILK-WORKS, it is, amongst other things, ordained and enacted, that no manner of person shall from thenceforth bring, or cause to be brought, into the realm of England, to be sold, any manner of silk wrought by itself, or with any other stuff, in any place out of the said realm, in ribbands, laces, or girdles, upon pain of forfeiture of all the said ribbands, laces, and girdles, and every of them, in whose hands soever they be found, or the values of the same, the one moiety to the king, and the other moiety unto any of the king's subjects that would sue for the same: and whereas notwithstanding the aforesaid act, and the other laws now in being, great quantities of foreign manufactures, and particularly ribbands, laces, and girdles, are brought into, and sold in this kingdom, to the great diminution of the trade and manufactures of this kingdom, and to the great prejudice, hindrance, and impoverishment, of great numbers of his majesty's subjects; an evil which, if not timely prevented, will affect and greatly lessen the public revenue, and greatly distress the silk trade and manufactures of this kingdom: for remedy whereof, be it enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, that if any person or persons shall, after the twenty fourth day of June, 1763, import, bring, or convey, or cause to be imported, brought, or conveyed, into this kingdom, any ribbands, laces, or girdles, not made and manufactured in Great-Britain, whether the same be wrought

wrought of silk alone, or wrought of silk mixed with any other materials; all such ribbands, laces, and girdles, shall be, and the same are hereby declared to be forfeited; and the same shall and may be seized and detained by any person or persons whatsoever, in whatever importers, venders, or retailers hands the same may be found or discovered; and shall be disposed of as herein after is mentioned; and the person or persons bringing, conveying, or importing such ribbands, laces, or girdles, into this kingdom, or causing the same to be so brought, conveyed, or imported, shall also forfeit, for every offence, the sum of one hundred pounds; and all and every person and persons who shall be aiding, abetting, or assisting in the bringing and conveying or importing into this kingdom, any such ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforesaid, shall severally forfeit and pay the sum of fifty pounds, over and above any interest which he, she, or they, may have, or may have had, in any such ribbands, laces, or girdles.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That all and every person and persons, being a vender or venders, retailer or retailers, of any kind of ribbands, laces, or girdles respectively, in whose custody or possession any such ribbands, laces, or girdles, or any of them, shall be found, or who shall sell or expose to sale, any such ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforesaid, or who shall conceal any such ribbands, laces, or girdles, with intent to prevent the forfeiture or seizure of the same, shall, over and above the forfeiture and loss of such ribbands, laces, and girdles, and all interest which he, she, or they, may have therein, for every such offence, forfeit and pay the sum of fifty pounds.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That all pecuniary forfeitures and penalties incurred under this act, shall be paid, one moiety to our sovereign lord the king, his heirs, and successors, and the other moiety to him or them who will sue or prosecute for the same respectively; such of the said penalties which shall arise in that part of Great Britain called England, to be sued and prosecuted for in any of his majesty's courts of record at Westminster, by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in which no essoin, protection, or wager of law, or more than one imparlance, shall be allowed; and such of them as shall arise in that part of Great-Britain called Scotland, to be sued and prosecuted for in the court of Exchequer at Edinburgh, in such manner as any penalties and forfeitures for offences against the laws touching the customs may be sued or prosecuted for there respectively.

Provided always, and be it also further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That whenever such ribbands, laces, and girdles, shall be found and seized in that part of Great-Britain called England, and out of the cities of London and Westminster, and the limits of the weekly bills of mortality, and the same shall not exceed in value the sum of twenty pounds, it shall and may be lawful for two or more of his majesty's justices of the peace for such county, city, borough, or place, where the same shall be so found and seized, upon any information before them, that such ribbands, laces, or girdles, were seized as ribbands, laces, or girdles, unduly brought into, and not manufactured within, this kingdom, to hear and determine the same, and to proceed to condemnation or discharge thereof, as shall seem just; any thing herein before contained to the contrary notwithstanding.

And, for the utter prevention of all and every such ribbands, laces, and girdles, seized and condemned as aforesaid, from ever being made use of to the prejudice of the trade and manufactures of this kingdom, be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that all and every such ribbands, laces, and girdles, after condemnation thereof, shall, by order of the court, judge or judges, or justices, where or before whom such condemnation shall be had, be publicly burnt and entirely destroyed; but the execution of such order shall and may be suspended for so long time only as may be thought just and meet, for the better attaining the ends of justice, with regard to any suit or prosecution had, or to be had, for the recovery of any pecuniary penalty or penalties by this act inflicted.

Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That forthwith, after the seizure of any such ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforesaid, the same, until they shall be condemned, burnt, and destroyed, as aforesaid, or discharged as unduly seized, shall be deposited in one of the king's warehouses belonging to the Custom-house, in case such seizure happens to be within the cities of London or Westminster, or the weekly bills of mortality, where the same shall be received and admitted at all times by the proper officer or officers there, who is and are hereby empowered and required to receive and preserve the same until they shall be condemned, burnt, and destroyed, or discharged as aforesaid; and in case such seizure shall be made out of the said cities of London and Westminster, and the weekly bills of mortality, then the same shall be deposited in the hands of the chief magistrate of such city, town, or place, where the same shall be seized, or in the hands of the constable of the next adjacent village, who is and are hereby empowered and required to receive and preserve the same, until they shall be condemned, burnt, and destroyed, or dis-

charged as aforesaid; and all and every such ribbands, laces, and girdles, may, from time to time, be viewed and inspected by any person or persons, on behalf of the prosecutor or prosecutors, or of the person or persons interested in, or claiming, the said ribbands, laces, and girdles, with the leave of the court, officers, judges, or justices, where or before whom any prosecution or suit shall be carried on for condemnation thereof, or for recovery of any penalty by this act inflicted, who are and is hereby required to make and give such order, from time to time, for that purpose, as may be just and reasonable.

And, for the better discovering and detecting any offender or offenders against this act, be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, That upon an information in writing made upon oath before any two or more of his majesty's justices of the peace for the respective county or place (which information shall be signed by the party or parties making the same) that there is good ground and reason to suspect that such ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforesaid, have been imported into this kingdom, and are concealed by, or are in the possession or custody of any retailer or seller of any kind of ribbands, laces, or girdles, contrary to the true intent of this act, it shall and may be lawful for such justices respectively, to issue their warrant or warrants to any constable or constables, or other peace officer or officers, within the said county or place, empowering him or them to search, in the day-time, the house or houses, out-house or out-houses, warehouses, shops, cellars, rooms, and other places, belonging to, or hired, employed, or made use of, by such retailer or seller who shall be suspected to conceal or have in his, her, or their possession or custody, any ribbands, laces, or girdles, not made or manufactured within Great-Britain; and if any such ribbands, laces, or girdles, not being made or manufactured within Great-Britain, shall be found, to seize and carry away the same, for the purpose of carrying this act into execution, and to dispose thereof as is herein before directed.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That if any action or suit shall be commenced against any person or persons for any thing done in pursuance of this act, the defendant or defendants in such action or suit, may plead the general issue, and give this act, and the special matter, in evidence, at any trial to be had thereupon, and that the same was done by the authority of this act; and if it shall appear to have been so done, then the jury shall find for the defendant or defendants; and if the plaintiff shall be nonsuited, or discontinue his action, after the defendant or defendants shall have appeared; or if judgement shall be given upon any verdict or demurrer against the plaintiff, the defendant or defendants shall recover treble costs, and have the like remedy for the same, as defendants have in other cases by law.

Provided always nevertheless, and it is hereby enacted, That in every such action, it shall and may be lawful for the defendant or defendants, by leave of the court where such action shall be depending, at any time before issue joined, to pay into court such sum of money as he or they shall see fit, as amends for the matter or cause complained of in such action; whereupon such proceedings, orders, and judgements, shall and may be had, made, and given, in and by such court, as in other actions where the defendant is allowed to pay money into court.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That if any ribbands, laces, or girdles, wrought of silk alone, or of silk mixed with any other materials, shall be seized by virtue and in pursuance of this act, and any doubt or question shall afterwards arise, where the said ribbands, laces, or girdles, so wrought as aforesaid, were manufactured, the proof shall lie upon such person or persons, being a vender or venders, retailer or retailers, of any kind of ribbands, laces, or girdles respectively, in whose custody or possession the same were found, and not upon the prosecutor or prosecutors, plaintiff or plaintiffs; and in case no such proof shall be given, that such ribbands, laces, and girdles, were manufactured within Great-Britain, then the same shall, without any further proceeding, be taken and held to have been manufactured out of Great-Britain, and contrary to, and in violation of, this act; any law or custom to the contrary notwithstanding.

Provided always, and it is hereby declared, That if any such person or persons, in whose custody or possession any such ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforesaid, shall be seized by virtue and in pursuance of this act (such person or persons not importing or concealing the same) shall discover, upon oath, before any one or more justice or justices of the peace, the person or persons who sold such ribbands, laces, or girdles, to such person or persons, in whose custody or possession the same shall be seized, so as that such person or persons so selling the same shall or may be prosecuted and convicted according to the intent of this act, as the seller thereof, in case the same shall be, or be taken and held to be, within the intent and meaning of this act, manufactured out of Great-Britain; such person or persons so discovering as aforesaid, shall be, and is and are hereby freed and discharged of and from all and every penalties and forfeitures by this act

act inflicted, upon all and every person and persons, being a vender or venders, a retailer or retailers, having in their custody or possession, any such ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforesaid, not made or manufactured in Great-Britain, and of and from any proof that such ribbands, laces, or girdles, so seized as aforesaid, are manufactured in Great-Britain.

Provided also, and it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That nothing in this act contained, shall extend, or be in any wise construed to extend, to subject any person or persons whatsoever, who shall wear or make use of such ribbands, laces, or girdles, as aforesaid, as part of his, her, or their apparel or dress only, to any forfeiture, or to any pecuniary penalty or penalties inflicted by this act, or to any proof that such ribbands, laces, or girdles, are manufactured within Great-Britain.' 3 Geo. III. c. 21.

SILVER, a metal too well known to need a definition. By the art of metallurgy it is found to be the finest, purest, most ductile, and most precious, according to its natural properties, of all metals, except gold. See the articles **METALLURGY** and **METALS**, and the several heads from thence referred to.

There are silver mines, more or less, in all the quarters of the world. See the article **MINES**. Those of Peru and Mexico, and of some other parts of America, are much the richest. See the articles **AMERICA**, **PERU**, **MEXICO**, and **ORES**.

The mineral stones or ores, dug out of the earth, are not all of the same quality, consistence, or colour; some are white and ash-coloured, others spotted with blue or red, and sometimes with both; others are black: these last are the richest, and the easiest wrought.—Others of a yellowish red, and of a greenish colour.

The usual way of separating silver from the ore, in Europe, is the same as that of gold: i. e. by means of mercury [see **MERCURY**] with the difference only of adding salt. See the articles **GOLD** and **REFINING**.—How silver ore is assayed, see the article **ASSAY**.

R E M A R K S.

In the large way of business, silver and gold ores are treated either by amalgamation with mercury [see **AMALGAMATION**], or by smelting and refining them with lead [see **SMELTING**, and **REFINING**]. That by amalgamation is only used where the ore is exceeding rich, particularly at the silver mines of Potosi: for by grinding such rich ores with mercury, the nobler metals will be drank up by it, and may be readily separated from it again by distillation; which carries over the quicksilver, and leaves the nobler metals behind. Lead is used with the poorer ores, in order to imbibe the richer metals they contain; which it does much after the same manner by fusion, as quicksilver does without it, so as to separate the heterogeneous parts, by keeping them floating, and afterwards restoring the nobler metals by cupellation.

The large way of smelting gold and silver ores is analogous to the small one of assaying [see **ASSAY**]; all things being proportionably larger, the fire animated with bellows, and the blast directed upon the surface of the melted metal, so as to blow off the lead in the form of litharge, before it is fully vitrified [see the article **LEAD**]. But here the silver is not perfectly refined at one operation; some proportion of lead still remaining mixed among it, that requires to be burnt out, after the same manner, in a stronger fire: and even

thus it is with great difficulty that silver can be obtained pure, or totally separated, either from lead or copper. This large way of working might, perhaps, be improved in respect of the vessel or test employed, and the management of the fire, so as to work by the means of flame, without the assistance of bellows.

With regard to the test, we are to observe, that bone-ashes, though ever so well washed and sifted, are not, perhaps, the fittest matter to make tests of; the test so made being apt to crack in the fire, unless dried, very gently, for many days, before they are used. But there is a particular kind of talc, or unvitriifiable sperth stone, that being calcined to fine powder, as it readily may, and made up with a small solution of vitriol in water, affords such tests as may be almost immediately used without danger of cracking.

Again; the flame of a wind-furnace may be made to play upon the surface of the melted metal, so as readily to perform this operation, without blowing with bellows, that violently tear away the silver along with the lead, in the form of litharge. And this farther convenience may be obtained, that not only smaller and cheaper wood, but even pit-coal, shall here serve for the fuel, provided the structure of the furnace be contrived for the purpose. And in some places, particularly in Flintshire, they have of late advantageously used common pit-coal for testing in the large way, and the same improvement might also be made in the small way of assaying. The methods of obtaining silver in purity are various, and differ according to the metal wherewith the silver is mixed or allayed. If copper be mixed therewith, the best and cheapest way to purify the silver is, to calcine it with half its weight of common sulphur, then melt the whole together, and throw into the pot, at several times, a due quantity of clean and new iron filings; which will immediately make the sulphur quit the silver, catch hold of the iron, and form a scoria at top, leaving the silver free from copper, iron, or sulphur, at the bottom. See the article **FLUX**.

One method of separating **GOLD** from **SILVER** is by **QUARTATION**. See the article **QUARTATION**. See also that of **AQUA FORTIS** and **AQUA REGIA**, as applicable to **GOLD** and **SILVER**. See also the article **REFINING**.

Of trafficking in **SILVER BULLION**, see the article **BULLION**.

Of the fixing a **PAR** between **GOLD** and **SILVER**, see the article **COIN**.

Of silver bullion being a commodity, exportable as well as importable like other wares, see the articles **BULLION** and **COIN**.

Of the quantity of specie requisite to circulate the commerce of a nation, see the articles **CASH** and **CIRCULATION**.

Of the augmentation and diminution of coin in denomination, see the article **COIN**.

Sir Isaac Newton's representation laid before the lords of the treasury relating to the scarcity of **SILVER COIN**, and the measures taken to prevent the same. See the article **COIN**.

Of the laws of England relating to its coin, see **COIN**.

Of the exportation of silver by the East-India company in particular, see the articles **PEGU** and **SIAM**, and all other articles relating to the **EAST-INDIA TRADE**.—For further insight into subjects having an affinity with the circulation of silver, see the articles **CREDIT** [**PRIVATE CREDIT**] **PUBLIC CREDIT**, **FUNDS**, **DEBTS** [**NATIONAL DEBTS**], and **MONEY**.

In order to render our native commodities cheap and money plenty, see our articles **LABOUR**, **MANURE**, and **POOR**.

SIL

SIL

TABLES of GOLD and SILVER, composed from the authority of Mr LOWNDES, who inspected the original indentures, and from Bishop FLEETWOOD.

GOLD TABLE.

SILVER TABLE.

Reigns.	Specie.	Division.	Tale.	Stand.fine.	Specie.	Tale.	Stand.fine.	Proport.
		s. d.	l. s. d.	Car. Gr.	d.	s. d.	Oz. dwt.	100
28 Edw. I.								
18 Edw. III.	Florins	VI	15 00 0	23 3 $\frac{1}{2}$		XX III	11 2	13 83
Eodem ann.	Nobles	VI VIII	13 3 4	Ditto				
20 - - -	Ditto	Ditto	14 0 0	Ditto				
27 - - -	Ditto	Ditto	15 0 0	Ditto		XXII VI	Ditto	
30, 37, 46, } 18 Ric. II. } 3 H. IV. }	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	IV II I	XXV	Ditto	
9 Hen. V.	Ditto	Ditto	16 13 4	Ditto	IV II I $\frac{1}{2}$	XXX	Ditto	
1 Hen. VI.	Royals	X	22 10 0	Ditto		XXXVII VI	Ditto	
	Angels	VI VIII	16 13 4	Ditto		XXX	Ditto	
4 - - -	Nobles	VI VIII	Ditto	Ditto		Ditto	Ditto	
24 - - -	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto		XXXVII VI	Ditto	
39 - - -	Angels	VI VIII	22 10 0	Ditto		Ditto	Ditto	
4 Edw. IV.			20 16 0	Ditto		Ditto	Ditto	II 1
5 - - -	Nobles	X	22 10 0	Ditto		Ditto	Ditto	
	Angels	VI VIII	22 10 0	Ditto		Ditto	Ditto	
8, 11, 16, } 22 - - - } 1 Ric. III. } 9 H. VII. }								
1 Hen. VIII.	Sovereigns	XXII VI	27 00 0	Ditto		XXXV	Ditto	II 17
	Royals	XI III						
	Angels	VII VI						
	Nobles	VI VIII						
	{ Crowns	V	Gold stand. lowered.					
	{ $\frac{1}{2}$ Ditto	II VI	25 2 6	22 0				
34 - - -	Sovereigns	XX	28 16 0	23 0				
	Angels	VIII						
36 - - -	Crowns	V	30 00 0	22 0				
37 - - -			30 00 0	20 0				
1 Edw. VI.	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto				
3 - - -	Ditto	Ditto	34 00 0	22 0				
4 - - -	Sovereigns	XXIV	28 16 0	23 3 $\frac{1}{2}$				
	Angels	VIII						
5 - - -								
6 - - -	Sovereigns	XXX	36 00 0	23 3				
	Angels	X						
					s. s. d. v 2 6	LX	II 1	
					d. XII VI III			
					$1\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{4}$ d.			
	Sovereigns	XX	33 00 0	22 0				
	Crowns	V	36 00 0	23 3 $\frac{1}{2}$				
1 Mary						LX	II 0	
2 Eliz.	Sovereigns	XXX	36 00 0	23 3 $\frac{1}{2}$				
	Royals	XV						
	Angels	X						
	Sovereigns	XX	33 00 0	22 0				
	Crowns	V						
19 Eliz.	Angels	X	36 00 0	23 3 $\frac{1}{2}$				
26 - - -	Nobles	XV	36 00 0	23 3 $\frac{1}{2}$				
35 - - -	Sovereigns	XX	33 00 0	22 0				
	Crowns	V						
43 - - -	Angels	X	36 10 0	23 3 $\frac{1}{2}$				
					s. s. d. d. v 2 6 XII	LXII	II 2	
					d. VI II I $\frac{1}{2}$			
	Sovereigns	XX	33 10 0	22 0				
	Crowns	V						
2 Jac. I.	Unites	XX	37 4 0	22 0				
	Dub. crow.	X						
	British crow.	V						
	Thiftl. crow.	iv						
3 - - -	Royals	XXX	40 10 0	23 3 $\frac{1}{2}$				
	Angels	X						
10 - - -	Ditto	Ditto	44 00 0	Ditto				
	Unites	XXII						
	Doub. Ca- rolus's, &c. }	XI	40 18 4	22 0				
2 Car. I.	Rose Royals	XXX	44 10 0	23 3 $\frac{1}{2}$				
	Spur Royals	XV						
	Angels	X						
	Unites	XX						
	Dub. crow.	X	40 00 0	22 0				
	British crow.	V						
12 Car. II.								
22 - - -	Guineas	XX	44 10 0	22 0				
	$\frac{1}{2}$ Guineas	X						
	2 Guineas	XL						
	5 Guineas	C						
1 Jac. II.	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto				
1 W. & M.								
Queen Anne								
George I.								
George II.								

A state of confusion.

I do not find any alteration in the standard of the gold or silver down to the present time. 22 Carats fine and 2 alloy is the lb. of gold, and 11 oz. 2 dwts fine, and 18 dwts alloy, the standard lb. of silver; and the division of the pound gold continues the same; that is to say, into 44 guineas $\frac{1}{2}$, and the silver into the usual number of crowns, &c. but the guineas have varied in the nominal value several times, rising up to xxxs. and declining to xxi, the present current value; but never have been reduced again to their intended level of xxs. nor indeed ought: when compared with the Portugal pieces of 3l. 12s. or 1l. 16s. it appears to be better worth xxis.

				to the lb. Troy.	
Portugal	-	l. 3 12	-	13	l. 46 16 0
English guineas	-	1 1	-	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	46 14 6
					00 1 6
And the Portugal standard worse $\frac{1}{4}$ grain	-				00 2 6
					00 4 0

This, with the difference in point of exactness in coining, wherein the Portugal is much more defective than the English coins, may be very good reasons for their being refused in payments in any of the receipts of the public revenue; but answer very well the purpose of those who benefit by the irregularity, in trading with the heavier and passing off the lighter by tale; and which, if they can turn into guineas or heavy silver, make another gain.

How our standard is proportioned to that of other countries, and thence what the true par of exchange is between us, see the article COIN, where you will find Sir Isaac Newton's tables and the explanation thereof, and his representation afterwards to the lords of the treasury upon our coin.

S K I E, the biggest but one of all the western Islands of Scotland, is a part of Inverness, from which it is divided by a narrow channel. The soil is generally a black mould, though there is some of a red colour, wherein iron is sometimes found. The arable land is for the most part black, yet affords clay, white, red, and blue; and in some places there is fine white marble, various marcasites, [see MARCASITES] agate, and variegated stones; crystals of several colours, plenty of free-stone and lime-stone. Here are the lapis hecticus, the lapis ceraunius (a sort of cramp-stone) and plenty of good springs, some of which are medicinal.

It is very high land, both on the coast and within the country; and almost to the center of the island, there are seven high mountains that lie near one another. The soil is fruitful enough in the low grounds, and produces plenty of those species of cattle and corn, which are to be found in the other western islands; especially of the latter, for it supplies the neighbouring continent with barley and oats.

Cod and ling are common upon the coast, and herrings in great abundance, for the taking of which here are many convenient harbours and bays, with about thirty rivers that afford salmon and other fish. [See the article SCOTLAND.] The country is populous, the people handsome, and very healthy. Their cattle are horses, cows, sheep, goats, and hogs.

S K I N S. After various dressings of skins, some of which are only simply preserving them, others consist in penetrating, suppling, and strengthening the skin by means of oil on the flesh side only, (for the hair side is carefully covered during the operation) our furriers begin by employing the furs of our common wild beasts, such as foxes, pole-cats, moles, badgers, otters, rabbits, hares, mountain-cats, and some others, and they find means to make them valuable, by the judicious assortments they make of the most beautiful of them.

The mountain-cat is a very wild animal, bigger than the fox, and which, for its sparkling eyes, is looked upon by several naturalists to be the lynx of the Ancients. Its skin is, perhaps, one of the most beautiful in the world. But the creature is found in the forests of France as well as in other countries; and people there, as well as in other countries, had rather pay a high price for some skin of a dismal colour, and frequently counterfeited and dyed, if they can please themselves with the thoughts that it comes from some remote clime. It is true, that the northern parts of Europe and America furnish us with furs of great softness and lustre*. The countries which send us the most valuable, are Siberia on the confines of Tartary and Muscovy, Nova Zembla, Spitzberg, Groenland, Terra de Labrador, or New Britain, and Canada. The Ostiacks and Samoids†, who inhabit the northern parts of Siberia near the sea, venture on the ice into uninhabited countries, in order to hunt reindeer, elks, and foxes. The tributes which the Tartars owe, some to the emperor of China, others to the courts of Persia, Constantinople, or Petersburg, are paid in furs only: and those petits-gris, which the French merchants bring from China, probably are not the produce of China, but of Chinese Tartary.

* Wasserfchleb's Memoirs.

† Peyrere's Relation of Groenland.

Siberia is the true magazine of fine furs [see the article SIBERIA.] But our merchants do not go into that country, but purchase these goods either at Archangel or Petersburg. The Czars have for a long time past claimed the whole property of the most valuable product of Siberia, as the fine skins, and the gold-dust which is found in some of their rivers: and the situation of the country facilitates this subjection.

Siberia is open only on the side of Tartary, of which it makes a part, and where furs are of little or no value. To the north and west it is defended by the ice: towards Russia it is hemmed in by a ledge of mountains, the passages of which are commanded by so many forts and barriers, where all those

who come out of the country are searched with the utmost rigour, even to the breaking up of the carriages, to see if there is nothing valuable concealed in them. The criminals, who are exiled from Muscovy to Siberia, are obliged to go a hunting. They are maintained, but their captures belong to her Czarinian Majesty. The other inhabitants who hunt likewise, are not allowed to sell their goods out of the country: but the best skins which they have to sell, must be carried to the governor of Siberia. He pays them somewhat above the common price, which is a mere trifle; then puts a stamp on them, and sends them to the senate of Russia, which distributes them at Moscow, Petersburg, Archangel, and other places of trade. They hunt with gins, or long poles, or blunt darts, which either kill or stun the beast without injuring the skin.

The northern furs in most esteem are the sable, the black fox, the ermine, and the petit-gris.

The sable is a sort of weasel, found in Biscay, Prussia, Canada, and many other places; but the most esteemed is the Siberian, which we call xibiline: the blackest is the most valuable. But there are tricks played under the polar circle, as well as in the temperate zone. The Siberians and Russians have found out a way to dye the brown sable to the colour of that which is naturally of the most beautiful black. Lemon-juice is the best thing we know to discharge this artificial colour, and lay the cheat open.

The dearest furs of the Siberian sable are those which are made of the tips of the tails of this creature, and which can only serve for small things.

The black-fox, which is as well known as the sable in the coldest countries, and is not common any where else, may undeceive us of a vulgar error. Some of them, indeed, are found perfectly white, which would naturally be of another colour in other countries; and some, which were brown in summer, turn grey or white in winter, and resume their colour in summer: but there are many which never change colour.

Ermine, so much esteemed for its whiteness and lustre, is also a kind of pole-cat, or weasel. Some dictionaries confound it with the squirrel, of which we are going to speak; and to increase the confusion, with the Siberian sable, although they are three different animals. The sable and ermine differ as much as black and white. In order to heighten the charming white of the ermine, the furriers usually prick them here and there with little blackuffs, which are bits of the skin of a lamb from Lombardy, which is of a very shining black.

The fourth fur, which we have from the North, is the petit-gris. It is the skin of the squirrel of cold countries. It differs from ours in this, that from brown, like ours, in summer, it turns grey in winter, and continues grey after death. Two very different sorts of furs are made of this skin. The black makes the petit-gris, and the belly is as white, and more shining, than ermine. It is bordered on each side with a black streak, which is carefully preserved. When the fur is alternately varied with the back and belly of the skin, it is much the richer: and this is what was formerly called the little vair, which frequently occurs in the coats of arms of some ancient families.

From that branch of the skinner's trade which dresses skins intire, we may pass to the other, which generally dresses them without the hair. It is subdivided into several classes, which have some operations in common, and others peculiar to each class.

Although there is a great difference between the dresses of shammoy, allum leather, Hungary leather, Morocco leather, [see LEATHER] the tanner, and parchment-maker; yet the skins which pass thro' the hands of these several workmen, ought to have been, for the most part at least, washed of the blood and impurities in a running water, set to drain, worked with the hands, or pounded with wooden pestles in a tub, or vat; put into the pit (which is made in the ground, and bordered with wood, or stone and mortar) filled with water, in which quick lime is dissolved, in order to loosen the hair, that it may be easily rubbed off, without injuring the skin; drawn out, and set to drain on the edge of the pit; stretched on the leg, or horse, in order to have the hair scraped off with a blunt iron knife, or sometimes with a cylinder of wood; pared off the flesh and membranes on the flesh side, and of the scabs, or roughness, on the grain side, with a sharp knife; rubbed with a whetstone on the same horse, to take off any particles of the lime, or other thing which may occasion hardness; thickened by different sorts of powders, whereby they become greater in bulk, and so much lighter, as gradually to rise to the surface of the water; stretched out green, or half-dried, and piled one over another, or put up separate, after being dried to a crust; hung out to air upon poles, lines, or any other way; which must be done several times in dressing small skins.

This alternate transition from the liquid of the air into that of water, and from water into the air, with the assistance of the lime, salts, and oil, opens the inmost fibres of the skin so effectually, as greatly to facilitate the introduction of substances proper for making them pliant, without rendering them thinner.

Natural philosophy would be much embarrassed to settle the order and great number of these operations, by the dint of reason alone. But what the most penetrating genius has never been able to invent, frequent handling of the same thing brings a man to practise with success. Common workmen continue to do the same thing scrupulously by habit. One of them more expert than the rest, and whose experience makes up all his philosophy, oversees the whole, judges of the degree of dryness and moisture, of the hardness and softness, determines justly, and either repeats, lengthens, or shortens the processes.

These processes, though really the same in the four or five principal dressings of leather, are so different in regard to the manner of executing them, and the time required in them, that the knowledge of all the minute particulars is requisite for him only who intends to practise the trade. We will content ourselves with what constitutes the true objects of some of these trades; of the skinner, because this is of most general concern.

The allum leather-dresser dresses all sorts of white leather, from the ox-hide to the lamb-skin. He works chiefly for the saddler and glover. For dressing the saddler's leather, he uses bran, sea-salt, and allum. For that which the glover uses, after the common preparatives, he first employs bran, and then with salt, allum, fine flour, and yolks of eggs, mixed in hot water, he makes a sort of pap, with which the skins are daubed and fed, in a trough or tub.

The shamoy-dresser soaks in oil not only the skin of the true shamoy, which is a wild goat, but likewise those of all other goats, though much inferior to the true, and even sheeps-skins, which he dresses like shamoy.

The tanner uses the bark of young oaks, from 18 to 30 years old, ground in a tanning-mill, in which he soaks skins more or less, according to the different services expected from them, and their chief use is to remain firm, and keep out water.

Whereas the tanner's way of dressing leather, in lime and tan, takes up two or three years; the Hungary leather-dresser allows but three or four weeks to that which passes through his hands. He supplies the harness-makers, saddlers, belt-makers, and all other trades that use not only white and allum leather, or oiled and tanned leather, but also skins coloured grey with ink, and dressed in tallow, which is the distinctive work of the Hungarian leather-dresser *.

* Our curriers in England dress this sort of leather.

His name (Hongreyun in French) and method came from Hungary, whither a French workman went, by order of Henry IV. to learn the trade by stealth, and thereby to lower the price of harnesses and several other things made of leather, wanting in his armies.

The tanner in certain cases, instead of tan, uses redon, which is a plant cultivated in Gascony, and very common in Polish Russia. It serves chiefly for tanning rams and sheeps-skins, which the French call bassanes: but it is also used in dressing Russia leather, which the Polish Russians make a great mystery of, though there is a very good manufacture of that sort at St Germain en Laye.

The confit and fumach are in little use but for Morocco leather. The confit, into which goats-skins are put after the common preparation, is a large tub of warm water, where-in they are thrown, after having dissolved therein a very cheap substance, taken from the animal kingdom, and that is the sweepings of dog-kennels.

The fumach is taken from the vegetable kingdom: it is a dust which comes on the leaves and small branches of the plant called rhus, or fumach. It is fumach, with galls and allum, that the Morocco leather-dresser chiefly uses, whose intention is to give a grain to goat skins, and thereby to render them susceptible of the most beautiful colours. They call grain those little wrinkles, or furrows, which run all over the surface of Morocco leather, as also that of calves and cows-leather, which they bring to a resemblance of it, by dint of washing, pounding, washing again, wringing, and folding the skins different ways. We shall say nothing either of the water tinged with rust of iron, which serves to give a black colour, nor of the lac, and other substance, which colour the skins red, yellow, &c.

The workmen who give the grain, and the most lively colours, to the skins of shamoy, or other goats, and who dress calves and sheeps-skins in the same manner to imitate Morocco, make a great secret of certain parts of their art, which they say are the nicest parts of it. The precautions and mistrusts of tradesmen are sometimes very diverting. In my walks among them, I found a rope-maker who refused to let me take a draught of the mechanism of making a horse-girt, without a compulsive order.

As the grain and beautiful dyes of goats-skins are the work of the Morocco leather-dressers, the last preparation and dyes given to certain tanned leather, are the business of the currier: so, likewise, when skins dressed white by the skinner, are destined for writing or drawing, the parchment-maker puts the finishing hand to them.

VOL. II.

R E M A R K S.

Skins, and the hair of beasts, manufactured, become parchment and vellum, leather, of which are made shoes and boots, saddles, harness and furniture for horses, gloves and garments, coaches and chairs, household stuffs, covers of books, drinking vessels, &c. and furs for cloathing, hats and caps. These branches of trade that are derivable from the skin trade, render it a very considerable concern, and well deserving preservation as much as we can within ourselves.

The English have greatly increased their quantity of furs and skins of all sorts, from their northern colonies, since they have settled and planted northward to Nova Scotia, Annapolis, and other places towards the river Canada.

These several sorts of skins brought to Europe from these parts, are of the following kinds, viz. deer-skins, bear, beaver, otter, raccoon, fox, elk, cat, wolf, marten, mink, musquesh, fisher, &c. all which furnish us with materials within ourselves to carry on divers valuable and extensive branches of our commerce, without being obliged to import them from other nations; and for which raw materials we pay in the manufactures of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and thereby the mother-country, as well as our colonies, become more and more enriched. And this is likely to be the case to a very considerable degree; since CANADA is annexed to the crown of Great-Britain by the Treaty of 1763. See AMERICA, CANADA, MISSISSIPPI, INDIAN AFFAIRS in NORTH-AMERICA.

SLAVE TRADE. See AFRICAN TRADE, and ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY. See also DUTCH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AFRICAN COMPANY, and PORTUGUEZE AFRICAN COMPANY.

SLESWIC, or SOUTH JUTLAND. This duchy is an ancient dependence on the king of Denmark. It has North Jutland on the north, from which it is separated by a line drawn from the city of Bypen, on the German Ocean, to Colding on the lesser Belt; on the east it is bounded by the Baltic; on the south by the duchy of Holstein; and on the west by the North Sea or German Ocean. Its greatest length, from the south-east to the north-west, is about 86 miles, and its greatest breadth, from east to west, about 60.

It is watered by a great number of rivers, which render it very fruitful; it abounds with meadows and pastures. The eastern part of this duchy lies higher than the western; and in the latter there are large plains, which produce a great plenty of all sorts of corn.

The islands of North Strand, Fora, Sylt, Amron, Rom, and Manoc, belong to this duchy.

It is divided into several bailiwicks.

The whole duchy of Sleswic belongs to Denmark, the king having conquered it, during the minority of the duke of Holstein, in the late war of the North; and the possession has been secured to him by the guaranty of the kings of Great-Britain and France. The nobility of this province is very powerful, and divided into four circles, which are, those of Hadersleben, Tonderen, Flensburgh, and Gottorp. The chief towns in the duchy of Sleswic are as follow:

SLESWIC, or SLEŸZWIC, the capital of this duchy, is seated on a small arm of the sea, called the Sley, at the distance of about 22 miles from Keil, toward the north-west, 38 from Gluckstadt, to the north-east, and 28 from Lunden, to the east.

In 1100 it was a place of very great trade, and much frequented by merchants from Great Britain, France, Spain, Flanders, &c. This city was even so considerable, that Adam Bremensis, who flourished about the year 1100, called it Civitatem opulentissimam ac populosissimam, a most rich and populous city: but its trade is now almost dwindled to nothing. The soil, especially towards the south and east, is not very fruitful, but the town is sufficiently supplied with all necessaries of life from the neighbouring country, and the Sley affords abundance of fish. They brew beer here, which is not very palatable, but they import some from abroad, as well as wine, which is here pretty cheap.

GOTTORP was the ancient seat and patrimony of the dukes of Holstein, the chief branch of which family, after the royal one, took from thence the title or surname of Gottorp. It is about six miles distant from Sleswic, to the south-west, and stands on the Sley, which almost surrounds it, and carries vessels of small burthen to and from the Baltic.

ECRENFORD stands on a little gulph on the Baltic, which makes a very commodious haven, and affords a pretty considerable trade, it being one of the safest ports on that shore; it is about 22 miles distant from Gottorp to the east, and six from Kiel, towards the north.

FREDERICKSTADT, was thus called from its founder Frederick duke of Holstein and Sleswic, who built it in the year 1621, peopled it with Hollanders, and granted them great privileges. He endeavoured, also, to settle a silk trade there, and, for that purpose, sent a famous embassy to Muscovy and Persia, which gave occasion to Adam Olearius, secretary of it, to publish an account thereof, in an excellent book

of travels. This town stands on the banks of the river Eyder, and is 42 miles distant from Sleswic, towards the west, and 42 from Gluckstadt, to the north.

TONINGEN is also situated on the river Eyder, 10 miles below Frederickstadt, and about 14 from the German Ocean. It is not an ancient town, but it has a pretty good trade, which increases daily, by means of its commodious harbour, formed by the Eyder.

HUSUM, the capital of a bailiwick of the same name, stands on the gulph of Hover, and is about 10 miles distant from Toningén, to the north, and 20 from the German Ocean. It has a harbour capable of small vessels; and as the neighbouring country abounds with pastures, they keep here, every week, a market for cattle; and it has been observed, that, in time of war, they have sold here above 4000 horses in a year. In the gulph on the west of the town, they fish vast quantities of excellent oysters.

FLensburg, the capital of a bailiwick of the same name, is so called from the bay, or gulph of Flens, on which it stands, and which is formed by the Baltic. The town is about eight miles distant from Sleswic, to the north, and near 30 from Toningén, to the east. The bay, on the bottom of which it stands, makes here a fine haven, where ships of great burthen may ride safe; and come up to the very warehouses, to load and unload. On the land side it is encompassed with mountains, which shelter it from winds, and supply it with water.

APENRAGE stands on another gulph of the Baltic, and is 16 miles distant from Flensburg, to the north-west, and about 14 from Husum, to the east. It has a port at the bottom of the bay, which is much frequented by the Danish fishermen, and affords it a pretty good trade with the adjacent islands: this is also the chief place of a bailiwick of the same name.

HADERSLEBEN is a good sea-port town, near 20 miles distant from Apenrade, to the north. It is watered on the west by the lake of Hadersledam, and on the east by the canal, or gulph, called Haderslebfoerd, which is so shallow near the town, that vessels of burthen are obliged to anchor at the distance of two miles from it. That gulph into which the lake runs is very narrow, and about nine miles lower falls into the Baltic Sea. The country about this town abounds with fruitful corn-fields, and excellent pastures, which, together with the fish taken out of the lake and gulph, render this a pretty flourishing place.

TUNDER, or Tunderen, a small but well-built town, stands on the southern bank of the river Wydaw, about 12 miles distant from Hadersleben to the west, 20 from Husum to the south, and near 14 from the German Ocean. It lies in a fruitful soil, and had formerly a considerable trade, which is now lost, its harbour being choaked up with sand *.

* This is an instance, amongst numberless others in this work, to shew that when trade declines, poverty ensues.

The most considerable islands adjacent to the duchy of Sleswic are as follow:

NORTHSTRAND, in the German Ocean, lies overagainst the bailiwick and town of Husum, and was, it is said, separated from the continent by a violent storm. When it became an island, it was about 12 miles long, and four broad in some places, and in others less. Its soil is very fruitful, and produced abundance of corn before the great inundation that happened; it had also very fat pastures, where they fed exceeding good cattle: and they used to send daily to Husum, and other places, a prodigious number of sheep, fowls, ducks, and geese, and great quantities of butter.

AMRON, or **AMROEN**, is a small island to the north-west of Northstrand, from which it is about seven miles distant. It is in the form of a crescent, and is not considerable, but for its oyster-fishery.

FORA, **VOOREN**, **FOCTER**, or **FOCBER**, lies towards the north-east of Amron, nearest the coast of Sleswic, between Northstrand and Sylt. It belongs to the prefectorship of Tunder, and is of an oval figure, about six miles in length, and four in breadth. It abounds in cattle and corn, and has about 4200 inhabitants, and several villages.

SYLT lies to the north of Fora, from which it is separated by the Rode Tift, or Red Channel. It is of a triangular form, about 14 miles long. The greatest part of its soil is nothing but sand and heath; but towards the east and west there are some pastures, where they feed cattle. There are no woods here, and the people are obliged to fetch from the continent what they want for firing. Their number amounts to about 1750 souls. A great part of the men and boys set out every year for the whale-fishery on the coast of Iceland, Greenland, and Spitzbergen.

ROM, or **ROEM**, towards the north-east of Sylt, is about seven miles long, and about four broad, and has about 1500 inhabitants, and several villages. The eastern coast of the island has good pastures, and on the west there are harbours capable to receive middle-sized vessels.

There are several other islands on the coast of Sleswic, but they are so small and inconsiderable, that they do not deserve mentioning.

SLIGO, or **SLEGO**, a county in Ireland, lies full upon the sea, to the north and north-west, where it is also bounded by the river Trobis; it has Mayo on the west; part of that county, and Roscommon on the south; and the county of Leitrim on the east. The greatest extent from north to south, is 35 miles, and from east to west, 33; or, as some say, 44, it being very unequal both ways, and runs out in a point to the north, as far as Donnegal-Bay. It is computed to contain 241,550 acres. Great part of the country is mountainous and boggy, but its lower grounds and bottoms have a good soil, both for the ploughman and the grazier.

SLEGO, which lies on a bay of the same name, is a market-town, and the only town of note in the county. It has a very commodious harbour, and ships of 200 tons may come up to the town-key. The town is populous, but not large, nor is the trade here considerable, though much better than in any of the other places beyond it.

S M E L T I N G, among metallists, the melting of the metal in the ore, in a smelting furnace, in order to separate the metallic from the earthy and other parts. Smelting, in propriety, is restrained to the large way of working upon ores from the mines, and reducing them to a pure metal, so as to fit the produce for civil, mechanical, and oeconomic uses. For the methods of smelting the several metals from their respective ores, see the articles **COPPER**, **LEAD**, **TIN**, **IRON**, **GOLD**, **SILVER**, and **MERCURY**. See also the articles **ASSAY**, **FLUX**, **METALLURGY**, **MINERALOGY**, **MINES**, **MINERALS**, **ORES**, **REFINING**.

Preparatory to the smelting of ores, the following operations are requisite.

EXPERIMENT I.

The method of roasting of ores.

We took a pound of the common Cornish mundic, and breaking it into small lumps, exposed it upon the grate of a furnace, whilst the fire was made below, and thus at first gently heated and terrified the mundic; but afterwards by degrees increased the fire, so as to make the lumps glow, or appear red-hot: in which state we kept them for half an hour, or 'till no more sulphureous vapour, or stench, rose from them.

OBSERVATIONS.

This experiment shews the common method of roasting ores, in order to discharge their sulphureous, arsenical, or antimonial parts, that might otherwise hinder their fusion, or else carry off a considerable proportion of the truly metallic matter in melting. For fear this metallic matter should fly off, we made the fire gentle at first, but increased it, by degrees, 'till the lumps became red-hot, otherwise the sulphur would not quit its hold, for sulphur requires a naked fire, and the assistance of the open air, before it will burn, or go intirely off.

The richer and more tractable ores have no occasion to undergo this previous operation of roasting, but are usually committed to fusion soon after being dug up, and separated from their stone, or mine. However, if they contain any considerable quantity of sulphur, or arsenic, it is usual to roast even these a little.

But some copper ores are so refractory, or hold their sulphur so tenaciously, as to require many roastings before they will let it go, being either stamped or melted after every operation; so that all the parts may, at several times, be equally exposed to the fire, and have their sulphur discharged.

In the large way of business, which is smelting, this operation is usually performed in a trench, cut somewhat aslope on the ground, that the air may have the freer access at the bottom; then they place a layer of billet-wood in the trench, and upon this a layer of the ore, in little lumps; and so continue, interposing a layer of wood and a layer of ore, for three or four stories, when the pile being completed, they set fire thereto, and make it continue to burn slowly for several days together, during which time there arises a large quantity of sulphureous vapour, that may be perceived to a considerable distance.

But when the ore, by repeated roasting, stamping, and fusing, is become tolerably pure, they now finish the operation, by throwing it into a particular furnace, having a funnel to increase the draught, so as to make the fire the stronger, and discharge the sulphureous fumes in greater plenty. And this furnace is so contrived, that the open flame of the wood may play directly upon the ore; whence all its volatile part is separated, and the remainder left fit for the last washing and stamping.

When the ores contain a large quantity of sulphur, this usually sweats out, and runs down into cavities made on purpose to receive it, whence it may be laded out, and cast into moulds. But perhaps the most frugal method of roasting ores, so as to save, or collect, all the sulphur, or arsenic, they contain, is not generally known and practised: for, in the common way, a large proportion is lost, which may be collected, by means of a proper hood, in the form of flowers; and also the rising fume might, by a particular structure of the

the furnace, be made to pass into a large vessel of cold water, and there be condensed, as we see in certain chemical distillations and sublimations.

After the poorer and more stubborn sorts of copper ore have been thus successively roasted, and come to be quenched in water, or washed, they often impregnate the water with a vitriolic matter; so that sometimes profit may be made, by evaporating these waters, and suffering the vitriol to shoot: for the acid part of the sulphur, here separated by the fire, is greatly disposed to enter the metallic part of the ore, and dissolve it, so as to form an actual blue vitriol, or vitriol of copper, which sells for a considerable price.

And here it should be remembered, that ores rarely yield the less metal for roasting, unless the fire were made too strong, especially at the first: for when the yield proves small; the general complaint of the smelters is, that the ore, when sent to their furnace, was too little roasted; though indeed the fault is often their own, in neglecting to make the fire sufficiently brisk and strong from the first, which is a very considerable secret for increasing the yield of an ore.

There are, however, some reasons to believe, that many imperfect ores lose considerably of their metal by roasting, especially when they are mixed with arsenical or antimonial matters, which have a known property of volatilizing the impurer metals, and carrying them off in fume: whence, doubtless, it is that some poor ores and mundics are commonly treated with little success.

The remedy, in this case, we apprehend to be the due use and application of some fixing substances, whether of an absorbent, alkaline, or neutral nature; such as quick-lime, kelp, or pot-ash, dry river mud, clay, iron-filings, or the like, mixed, or stratified, along with the ore. And by certain additions of this kind, we doubt not but the yield of some poorer ores might be considerably increased.

The business of roasting of ores may be improved, and reduced to a few easy rules. (1.) We see it is of two kinds, or simple and compound; that is, either with or without addition. No addition is wanted when the ore proves rich, or in itself nearly of a metallic nature, as some ores are found to be; but additions are principally required, when arsenical, antimonial, or sulphureous matters are naturally mixed with the ores.

(2.) The fire is to be so regulated, from the first, that only the lighter, or more volatile, sulphureous, or arsenical fumes, may go off, otherwise the more metallic part also would fly away, and, without some proper contrivance to catch it, be lost. Yet the ore must feel the force of an open flame at last, otherwise all the sulphur, arsenic, antimony, and other immature mineral substances, will not be dislodged.

(3.) The more these immature substances abound in the ore, the gentler the fire should be at first; and when the greater part of them is thus exhaled, the fire is to be quickened by a freer admission of the external air.

(4.) Lastly, where such additions are used as are not metalline, for example, lime, mud, &c. they ought to be separated by stamping and washing, before the infusion, which would otherwise be hindered, or uselessly incumbered.

EXPERIMENT II.

The method of stamping and washing of ores.

We took the mundic roasted in our former experiment, and beat it fine in a metalline mortar; then seared it; and now putting it into a budding-dish, we washed it in several waters, with care to separate the heavier portion from the lighter, and drying this heavier part, which is always the more metallic.

OBSERVATIONS.

These operations of stamping and washing are not necessary in the richer sorts of ores, but sometimes absolutely required in the poorer and more flinty kinds. If a large quantity of mere stony matter adheres to the ore, it is sometimes knocked off with hammers, so as to leave the more metallic part free from this barren or superfluous substance.

If still the ore proves hard and flinty, it is sometimes softened by lying, for several months, exposed to the open air, which thus renders it fit for the stampers, though it sometimes also requires to be ignited, and quenched in water, to fit it for that purpose. Thus a large heap of hard, and otherwise untractable ore, may be heated red-hot, by interspersing it with billets, and setting them on fire; after which it may readily be quenched, and rendered friable, by throwing cold water upon it, or by driving and passing a small stream of water through it, from some adjacent river. And sometimes this operation is required to be repeated, before the ore will grow soft and tractable.

It is usual to stamp most ores in a state of moisture, or wetness, to prevent the avolation of their dust, or powder, but especially such as require much washing to separate their barren and lighter earthy parts, which would otherwise uselessly encumber the smelting-furnace. To perform this stamping the more commodiously, a stream of water is made to pass under the stampers, so as to make various windings and turnings, and, in part, run into certain cavities, made on purpose to catch and detain the heavier matter, whilst the lighter is washed away to a greater distance by the current.

But the method of washing the ores of the nobler metals is more exact and curious, particularly in washing of sand for gold, on the banks of the Rhine and Danube, where gold is frequently found, especially in such places where the sands are raised into large heaps, or a kind of mountains, by the rapidity of the stream.

These sands are usually washed by the hand, in a particular long trough, made with a descent, or current, for the purpose, and lined at the bottom with flannel, for thus the sand being artificially agitated with the hand, the lighter and larger stony matter rises uppermost, whilst the heavier descends, and is caught in the pores of the woolly cloth at the bottom: in the mean time, the lighter matters are washed farther off, by a stream running down the declivity: and when the flannel has thus collected a considerable quantity of the richer metallic matter, the whole cloth may be easily taken off, and rinsed in a proper vessel of water, where all the metallic matter, before adhering to it, readily falls off, and sinks to the bottom of the vessel; where, the water being decanted, the metal may be collected alone, and dried. And this is the method of procuring the gold, where the sand is fine, or extremely small.

In the large works, or where the gold is mixed with big sand, gravel, or stones, they make use of wire sieves, whose mesh is always of one certain size; so as readily to transmit the fine sand, or gold dust, and retain the larger gravel and stones behind: for it is extremely rare to meet with any grain of gold, so large as a barley-corn, in the sands of rivers. Whence this method by the sieve is highly serviceable, and conducive to the former operation: for though a large quantity of fine sand, thus presses the sieve, it may be readily separated in the trough, after the method already described.

And this may suffice to shew the general and particular methods of stamping and washing of ores. We see the end of these two previous operations, is to get rid of the matters which are not metalline; that so the furnace may not be uselessly employed upon such substances as will themselves yield no metal in the fire, and only hinder the metallic parts of the ore from coming together, and affording a yield answerable to the expence and trouble of the fusion.

After the heterogeneous parts have thus been thrown off, by roasting and washing, from the proper earth of the ore, the pure metal now remains to be separated from this earth by fusion.

But there are two difficulties, at least one or other of them, always found in this affair. For, (1.) This proper mineral earth, how flexible soever it may prove in gold and silver, yet scarce comes up to the fusibility of the pure metal, but rather flows thick and sluggish, unless the fibre be very intense indeed: but 'tis plain, that if this substance remains viscous, the molecularæ of the metal cannot sink through it, in order to form a metalline mass at the bottom. (2.) Sometimes only, a very small quantity of pure metal lies concealed in a vast body of such adhering earth, or wrapped up with the matters of other metals; whence one of these two inconveniences must arise, viz. either that the small quantity of metal cannot well, under so great a load of recrement, come into a little mass; or else, if it could, it must of necessity be so violently agitated and tossed about, by the strong fire required to keep so large a bulk of slag in fusion, as in the ebullition to be again involved, as it were, in little drops or bubbles, among the pappy mass of the scoria*.

* Scoria is the dross, crust, or slag, found at the top of a melted metal, or metallic matter; being often in the form of a vitrous mass, or glassy matter, and proceeding from the flux employed and united with some stony recrementitious matter contained there. But when a large proportion of a saline flux is used, the scoria will dissolve, or give, by the influence of the air.

These two inconveniences have their two remedies. (1.) The first is to add such substances as promote vitrification, and at the same time cause a thin flux of the vitrified body. Such substances [see the article FLUX] are for the large work, SAND, FLUXILE MUD, ALKALINE SALTS, TARTAR, NITRE, &c. and for the small, GLASS OF LEAD, a little BORAX, or any compound flux salt; the basis whereof is commonly tartar and nitre. (2.) The second is to add metal itself: this is a common way, and seems greatly improveable, if it can be brought to answer the expence. In this case, as a greater mass of metal cannot, by the same fire, be so much agitated and tossed about, as a less; or if it could be agitated as much, yet all its particles would cohere more firmly, in a large mass, than in a small one; hence, by such an additional metal, the little mass that would otherwise be with difficulty collected from the several falling particles of the melted matter, is artificially enlarged, so as to cover the whole bottom of the melting pot; in consequence whereof, all the single metallic particles that fall afterwards, are easily caught and detained below, by the large metalline mass, which there lies ready to receive them.

The metal usually employed to encrease the mass in this manner, is lead: but Becher, with great probability of much better success, recommends the use of silver in its stead, where

the perfect metals are expected. For silver, in this case, does not only remain unaltered by the fire and flux, but also by a specific efficacy, not to be known but by trial, collects together, and fixes the same potential atoms of the metallic principles that are lodged in an exceeding subtle form, remote from one another, up and down in the ore, and actually deduces them to perfect metal. Upon which property of silver it is, that Becher has built his *minera arenaria*, sand mine, or inexhaustible method of extracting the perfect metals out of sand; where, by using silver instead of lead, he undertakes to produce a ten times greater increase of the nobler metals.

But as this latter method can only, or principally, be used to profit in the separation of gold from its ore, by fusion; so lead remains a very convenient addition for the reception of silver, as performing a double use in the operation, viz. by imbibing the metal pure, and at the same time promoting the vitrification of the earth, mixed along with the silver.

Copper being in itself of difficult fusion, requires such a fire as is able to melt its glassy scoria sufficiently thin, at the same time that it is melted itself; and this it does, unless the flints should prove very obstinate indeed. Hence bare fusion, sometimes without any other assistance, will bring out this metal from its ore, and throw it down into a mass, the scoria here flowing so thin, as readily to suffer the metalline particles to sink through it; but when the ore is more stubborn, its separation may be promoted by metalline, or other additions, as above-mentioned.

In short, the difficulty of thus separating the metal from its proper earth, is principally founded in the ores of silver, gold, and copper; but lead and tin being very fusible bodies, are much easier melted from their adhering mineral matter.

There are, upon the whole, three things to be principally regarded in the smelting of ores, viz. (1.) The fusibility of the metal. (2.) The fusibility of the scoria. And, (3.) The contact or mixture of the metallic matter, with the inflammable part of the coals.

(1.) Different metals run in different manners from their ores. Thus lead, though extremely fusible in the metal, yet runs with difficulty from the ore, so as to require a considerable violence of fire. This stubbornness not belonging to the metal must be attributed to the stony, sulphureous, or other mineral matter, wherewith the ore is mixed; which matter seems to require a degree of heat, capable of vitrifying the lead, before the metal will run: but then, the lead thus vitrified, recovers a metallic form again, by coming in contact with the coals, especially charcoal.

Tin runs from its ore with greater ease than lead, and is therefore smelted in much less furnaces; but copper requires an intense heat, or a blast furnace; and iron, the greatest heat that can be given in a furnace: and both iron and copper absolutely require immediate contact with the fuel employed. Hence it appears, that each metal must have its determinate degree of heat, to run it with advantage from the ore or stone.

In order, likewise, to obtain the metal from the ore, to best advantage, the scoria, or slag, must be necessarily made to run thin and fluid; otherwise it entangles or inviscates the metal, and will not let it separate fully. And hence we frequently observe, in the assaying of copper ores, small grains of metal interspersed here and there among the scoria, that require to be separated by stamping and washing the whole mass; which labour might have been prevented, by using a proper degree of heat, capable of procuring a thin fusion, and a suitable flux, so as to have made all the metal fall to the bottom of the furnace; which it frequently does, when the operation is well performed, by means of a well-adapted flux.

To promote a thin fusion of the slag, in the larger furnace, it is often proper to use the more soft and fusible sands as a flux; and sometimes that loamy sand, which the smiths employ for the welding of iron; this sand readily vitrifying, and adhering to the metal in the fire: and, where it will answer the charge, even litharge, or dross of lead, might be used for this purpose in the larger furnace; for scarce any thing procures so thin a fusion of the slag as lead.

In the large work, sulphur is found to adhere tenaciously to copper; which metal, therefore, seldom comes out pure in the furnace, without repeated fusions. The best method of separating of this sulphur, is, to use a violent heat, no additional flux at all, and the greatest draught of air that can any way be procured; so that all things may conspire to burn out, or carry off the sulphur, and introduce in its stead, a thing of a different nature, viz. the inflammable matter of the wood and coals, and the vitrification of their ashes; whereon ductility appears to depend. But where iron is mixed with copper, no better addition is found than sulphur, and the more sulphureous marcasites, or what they, at the smelting-huts, call *marcasite-blocks*: for the sulphur which these contain, causes the copper readily to run away from the iron, and leave it behind in the furnace. And here the power which sulphur has upon the several metals, is very remarkable: it renders silver almost as fusible as lead: it also greatly increases the fusibility of iron, and regulus of antimony; but renders tin much less fusible than it is of itself;

and lead, even refractory in the fire: whence certain rules might be formed, for the use and application of sulphur to metals, for the improvement of metallurgy. And thus the whole art of smelting seems to depend upon knowing the degree of heat required by every ore; so as to make the slag, as well as the metal, run thin, and evaporate or discharge the sulphureous parts; and lastly, introduce the proper metallic, ductile form, by means of some unctuous or inflammable matter.

It seems principally owing to a defect in the knowledge of fusion, that so many recrements, or slags of metals, anciently thrown, as useless, from the furnace, have been wrought to considerable profit, of late, by more skilful workmen; at least, it seems more rational to attribute the success to this course, than to any supposed growth of metals in such slags: so, likewise, it is currently believed, that lead has grown rich in silver, by lying exposed to the open air, or by long covering churches, or other buildings; whilst, perhaps, it is rather owing to the unskilfulness of the former workmen, who were not able to separate all the silver naturally contained in the lead.

And thus it appears certain, that the ancient metallurgists were unacquainted with any way of extracting, to profit, a small quantity of silver out of copper; which is now commonly done by ingenious contrivance: whence the ancient copper, found upon temples, or other buildings, frequently contains silver. So likewise, in the forest of Dean, they at this day work the slag of their old iron works over again to profit.

SMOLENSKO, a duchy and palatinate in Muscovy.

This province is filed the great duchy, or palatinate, and extends about 200 miles from east to west, though not half the breadth from north to south. It hath on the north, the principality of Bela; on the west, Lithuania, unto which it formerly was subject, 'till subdued by the Muscovites; on the south, it hath the duchy of Severia; and, on the east, that of Moscow.

The river Niepper, or Boristhenes, hath its spring-head on the north east borders of this province, and runs quite across it, directly from east to west. As for the territory, it is not over fertile; but abounds with several kinds of wild beasts, whose skins fetch a good price. It lies from the 55th to the 56th deg. 30 min. of latitude. Its chief cities and towns are,

SMOLENSKO, **ZUERCOVA-LOUKI**, **GRAVISK**, **DRAGABUSA**, and **BOGLOVESTINE**; all of them inconsiderable, except

SMOLENSKO, capital of the duchy, which is pleasantly situated on the Nieper above-mentioned, near the confines of Lithuania, and is a large and well-built populous city. It is almost surrounded with woods, wherein are taken the best furs in all Muscovy.

As it stands on the frontiers, between Muscovy and Poland, it hath often shifted from one to the other, 'till yielded, with the whole province, to the czar, by the treaty of 1686.

SMUGGLER, a cant word for one that illegally evades the payment of the duties, laid by the state, on any kind of merchandize.

An Abstract of the chief LAWS of ENGLAND relating to SMUGGLERS.

By stat. 8. Geo. I. cap. 18. Any persons found passing knowingly with any foreign goods landed without due entry and payment of the duties, from any of the coasts, or within twenty miles thereof, and shall be more than five in company, or shall carry any offensive weapons, or wear any mask or disguise, when passing with such goods, or shall forcibly resist any officer of the customs or excise, in seizing run goods, shall be guilty of felony, and transported for seven years; and if he return before that time, it is felony without benefit of clergy.

And all persons receiving or buying any goods, wares, or merchandizes, clandestinely run or imported, before the same shall have been legally condemned, knowing the same to be so clandestinely run or imported, being convicted on the oath of one or more credible witnesses, or confession, before one justice of peace, shall forfeit 20 l. to be levied by distress and sale, &c. and for want of distress, shall be committed to prison, without bail or mainprize, for three months; the one moiety of the above penalty to the informer, the other to the poor of the parish where the offence was committed.

All seizures of vessels or boats of 15 tons or under, which shall be made after the 25th of March, 1722, by virtue of act, 1 Ann. cap. 7. for granting to her Majesty new duties of excise, &c. and of an act for continuing several impositions, &c. to raise money by loan for the service of the year 1710, or any other act relating to the revenue of customs for carrying uncustomed or prohibited goods from ships inwards, or for relanding certificate or debenture goods from ships outward-bound; and all seizures of horses, or other cattle, or carriages whatsoever, for being used in the removing, carriage or conveyance of such goods, contrary to the said acts, are to be examined into, proceeded upon, heard, adjudged, and determined, by two or more justices of peace,

peace, residing near the place where such seizure shall be made, whose judgment shall be final, and not liable to appeal or certiorari. Stat. 8. Geo. I. cap. 18.

Any two justices for London and Westminster, shall have the like power in determining such seizures as shall be made within those cities, as any two justices of any other county or place have. Ibid.

This act to continue for two years commencing from the 25th of March 1722, and from thence to the end of the next sessions of parliament.

By 6. Geo. II. when any officer of the customs shall neglect to seize and prosecute any vessel, horses, or carriage, which shall be forfeited for running of brandy, such officer being convicted upon the oath of one witness, before one justice of the peace, shall forfeit for every neglect 50 l. one moiety to the king, and the other to the informer, to be levied by distress and sale of the offender's goods, by warrant of such justice; and, for want of such distress, such offenders shall be committed to prison for six months.

By 9. Geo. II. cap. 35. intituled, An Act for indemnifying persons who have been guilty of offences against the laws made for securing the revenues of customs and excise, and for enforcing those laws for the future, it is enacted, That all his Majesty's subjects, their heirs, &c. who before the 27th of April, 1736, have incurred any penalty by clandestine running of goods, &c. making false entries of goods, or abusing officers, &c. shall be indemnified, and may plead the said act for their discharge; paying only 1 s. 4 d. for entering the plea, provided that they stop all proceedings brought against officers, or their assistants, for, or concerning any matter, cause, or thing, committed by such officer, or his assistants, on occasion of any offences, &c. intended by the said act to be released and discharged; and in case any person shall claim the benefit of this act, and shall afterwards bring an action against an officer, &c. such officer, &c. shall be discharged, may plead the general issue, &c. and may recover costs against such plaintiff.

All persons taking, or being intitled to, the benefit of the said act, and shall be afterwards guilty of the like offences, shall be liable to be prosecuted for both the former and new offence, and for smuggling bonds, &c. The act is not to discharge any judgment for monies actually levied, nor the informer's part of the penalty; and all persons liable to be transported for any such offences, committing the like after claiming the benefit of the said act, shall suffer death as a felon, without the benefit of clergy; and all persons neglecting to pay composition money (before agreed to be paid) shall be excluded from the benefit of the said act.

Excepted out of the said act, all seizures of goods, vessels, &c. money due on entry of goods or bond debentures, fraudulently obtained, and actions depending; and the treasury may compound, in cases where judgment was given for his Majesty on the 11th of May, 1736, relating to debentures, &c.

That from and after the 24th of June, 1736, upon information, upon oath, before any one or more justices of the peace, that three or more persons, are or have been, after the said 24th of June, 1736, assembled together for any the purposes aforesaid, and are or have been armed with fire-arms, or other offensive weapons, may grant a warrant for apprehending them, and may (if upon due examination he or they find cause) commit them to the next county gaol, there to remain without bail or mainprize, until discharged by due course of law; and upon conviction of their being assembled to assist in the running of goods, they shall be transported for seven years, as other felons, by the acts of 4 and 6 Geo. I. and returning before the expiration of such term, shall suffer death as felons, without the benefit of clergy.

Any person apprehending any other person, guilty of any of the last-mentioned offences, shall have a reward of 50 l. and the like sum of 50 l. shall be paid to any person maimed in the apprehending; and if any one is killed, his executors shall have 50 l. and an offender discovering two or more accomplices, within three months after the offence committed, to the commissioners of the customs, shall himself be discharged, and shall be intitled to the like reward of 50 l.

That from and after the said 24th of June, 1736, if two or more persons are found passing together within five miles of the sea, or a navigable river, with horse, carts, &c. whereon shall be laden six pounds weight of tea, or five gallons of brandy, or other spirits, &c. not having paid the duty, and having offensive arms, or being masked, &c. shall be deemed runners of foreign goods, within the meaning of the act of 8 Geo. I. and the proof of the entry, and payment of the duties, shall lie on the persons found with the goods; such persons, upon conviction, shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and be transported for seven years; and, returning before the expiration of the term, shall suffer death, without the benefit of clergy.

All goods, weapons, cattle, and package of goods, &c. so found, shall be forfeited and lost.

The 50 l. reward to persons wounded in apprehending, and to the executors of persons killed, and to the discoverers of their accomplices, are to be paid to the respective receivers-

general, by order of the commissioners, on certificate of the judge, of the offender's conviction; and the commissioners shall adjust each person's share in case of difference.

Upon information, on oath, before one or more justices of the peace, that persons are lurking within five miles of the sea, or navigable river, and there is reason to suspect that they wait with intent to be aiding and assisting in the running, landing, or carrying away, any prohibited or uncustomed goods, may grant a warrant for apprehending them; and they not giving a satisfactory account, may be sent to the house of correction, and be whipped, and be kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding one month; and the commissioners shall pay 20 s. to the informer, for every offender so taken as aforesaid; yet persons so apprehended, desiring time to clear themselves of the accusation, shall only be committed to prison till satisfaction or security be given, not to be guilty of the like offences again.

That after the 24th of June, 1736, persons offering tea, brandy, &c. to sale, with or without a permit, may be stopped on suspicion, and the person stopping the same may prosecute in his own name; and, on recovery, shall be intitled to a third part of the produce on sale; and the commissioners shall advance one shilling per pound for tea, and one shilling per gallon of brandy so seized, to the prosecutor, till sale.

That after the said 24th of June, 1736, all watermen, carmen, porters, and other persons whatsoever, found with prohibited or run goods, knowing the same to be prohibited or run, being lawfully convicted, on the oath of one or more credible witnesses, or by confession before one or more justices of the peace, where the offence shall be committed, or the goods found, shall forfeit treble the value; half to the informer, and half to the poor, where, &c. to be levied by distress, and sale of the offender's goods, by warrant from the justice or justices before whom such offender shall be convicted; and, for want of distress, the offender to be committed to the house of correction, there to be whipped, and kept to hard labour, for any time not exceeding three months.

Vessels arriving from foreign parts, with six pounds of tea on board, or brandy, &c. in a cask under sixty gallons, (except for the use of the seamen, not exceeding two gallons a man) hovering within a league of the shore, all such goods, with the package, shall be forfeited.

After 29 Sept. 1736, foreign goods taken in or put out of any vessel, within four leagues of the English coasts, without payment of customs (unless in case of apparent necessity) shall be forfeited, and the master, &c. shall forfeit treble the value; and the vessel, if not above 100 tons, shall be forfeited; and persons offering to bribe an officer to connivance, shall forfeit 50 l. the forfeitures, one half to the king, and the other to the informer, who shall prosecute in any of the courts at Westminster; and actions, &c. for assaults upon officers, may be tried in any county of England.

All goods found concealed, after the master's report at the custom-house, shall be forfeited; and the master shall forfeit treble the value; and persons forcibly obstructing or wounding officers on board, in the execution of their offices, shall, on conviction, be transported, not exceeding seven years; and, upon returning before the expiration of the time, shall suffer death as a felon, without benefit of the clergy.

Officers may go on board coasting vessels, and search for prohibited and uncustomed goods, and may continue on board during the vessel's stay in the port; and persons obstructing such officers, forfeit 100 l. and likewise 100 l. penalty is laid on all houses, men, &c. knowingly harbouring any person against whom process hath issued for obstructing officers, &c. but no forfeiture herein, unless public notice shall have been first given, in two successive gazettes, of such person's absconding, and a writing fixed to the door of the church.

Sheriffs, mayors, &c. on request in writing, of a known solicitor for the customs or excise, to grant special warrants for apprehending offenders; and the persons granting such warrants, shall be saved harmless from all escapes.

But, in trials of seizures, judges are to proceed according to the merits of the cause, without enquiring into the fact or form of making the seizure; and officers and their assistants, may oppose force to force, and when carried before a justice for wounding or killing any person, in such cases shall be admitted to bail.

The said act shall not indemnify any person prosecuted by the East-India company.

Any person sued for any thing done in pursuance of the said act, may plead the general issue, and give the special matter in evidence; and if found for him, shall have treble cost.

Provided, That nothing in the said act shall extend to restrain his Majesty's court of king's-bench, or any of the judges thereof, or the court of justiciary in Scotland, from bailing any person committed for felony, by virtue of the said act, in such manner as they may, by law, do in other cases of felony.

A warrant to bring offenders before a justice, upon the aforesaid smuggling act of 9 Geo. II.

Whereas I have been informed upon oath, that since the 24th day of June, 1736, A. B. of, &c. C. D. of, &c. and E. F.

of, &c. have been assembled together, for the purpose of clandestine landing and running of prohibited or uncustomed goods, and were armed with fire-arms and other offensive weapons, contrary to the form of the statute in that case lately made and provided: these are therefore to require you to apprehend and bring the said A. B. C. D. and E. F. before me, or some other justice of the peace for this county, to answer the premises aforesaid. Given under my hand and seal, &c.

By 19 Geo. II. reciting that divers dissolute persons associated themselves to support one another, and appeared in gangs, carrying fire-arms, and have been aiding in running prohibited goods, or liable to duties, or in the illegal landing of goods which have been shipped or exported upon debenture or certificate, or in rescuing the same after seizure, or in obstructing the officers of the revenue in their office, and that several officers had been killed, &c. by the said dissolute persons; it is enacted, That if any, to the number of three or more, armed with fire-arms, or other offensive weapons, shall, after the 24th day of July, 1746, be assembled in order to be aiding in the illegal exportation of wool, or other goods prohibited to be exported, or the carrying of wool or such other goods, or liable to pay duties which have not been paid or secured; or in the illegal relanding of any goods which have been exported upon debenture or certificate; or in rescuing the same after seizure from any officer of his Majesty's revenue, or other person or persons employed by them; or in rescuing any person who shall be apprehended for any of the offences made felony by this, or any other act; or in preventing the apprehending any person who shall be guilty; or in case any persons, to the number of three or more, so armed, shall, after the said 24th day of July, be so aiding; or if any person shall, after the 24th day of July, have his face blacked, or wear any vizard or other disguise, when passing with such goods, or shall forcibly resist any of the officers in the seizing such goods; or if any person, after the said 24th day of July, shall maim, or dangerously wound, any officer of the revenue, in his attempting to go on board any vessel within any port of this kingdom, or shoot or maim, or dangerously wound him when in such vessel, and in his office; every person so offending, and convicted, shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and suffer death without benefit of clergy. And every person who shall at any time be convicted of any of the said offences in Scotland, shall suffer death and confiscation of moveables.

If any person shall be charged of any of the offences aforesaid, before one or more of his Majesty's justices of peace, or of the king's-bench, if committed in England; or before the lord justice-general, or one of the lords of the judiciary, or any one or more of his Majesty's justices of the peace in Scotland, if the offence in Scotland, by information of one or more credible persons upon oath subscribed, such justice of the peace, &c. before whom made, shall forthwith certify, under his hand and seal, and return such information to one of the principal secretaries of state to his Majesty, his heirs or successors, who is to lay the same before his Majesty, his heirs, &c. in privy council; whereupon it shall be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs, &c. to make an order, thereby commanding such offenders, &c. to surrender, within 40 days after the first publication in the gazette, to the lord chief justice, or any justice of B. R. or to any one justice of peace, if the offence in England, or to any of the lords of judiciary, or to any justice of peace in Scotland, if the offence there, who is required, upon such surrender, to commit him or them without bail, &c. to the county-gaol or prison of the place where the surrender is, that he may be forth-coming to answer; which order the clerks of the privy council shall cause to be printed in the two successive gazettes, and to be sent to the sheriff of the county where the offence was, who shall, within 14 days after the receipt, cause the same to be proclaimed between ten in the morning and two in the afternoon, in the market-places, upon two market-days, in two market-towns, near to the place where the offence was committed, and shall be fixed in some public place in the said towns; and in case such offender, &c. shall not surrender, he escaping after such surrender, shall, from the day appointed to surrender, be adjudged to be convicted of felony, and shall suffer death, as if attainted by verdict and judgment, without benefit of clergy, if the offence is in England; and shall be adjudged to be convicted of a capital crime, and suffer death and confiscation, as in case of a person found guilty of a capital crime, and under sentence, if the offence be in Scotland; and the court of B. R. or the justices of oyer and terminer for the county or place where such person is, may award execution against such offender, &c. in such manner as if he, &c. had been convicted in B. R. or before justices of oyer and terminer, if the offence be in England; and the judiciary, or the lords of judiciary in their circuits, may award execution against such offender, &c. in such manner as if found guilty and condemned in the same court of judiciary, or in the circuit.

Every person who (after the time appointed for surrendering) harbours or succours such person, knowing him to be so charged, and to have been required to surrender, and who has not, being prosecuted for the same within one year after

the offence, and lawfully convicted thereof, shall be guilty of felony, and shall be transported for seven years, according to 4 Geo. I. and 6 Geo. I. and if such offender shall return into Great-Britain or Ireland before the same term, he shall suffer as a felon, without benefit of clergy.

Nothing therein shall prevent any judge or justice, or any magistrate or minister of justice whatever, from securing such offender, against whom information shall be made, and such order in council shall be made, by the ordinary course of law; and in case such offender, &c. shall be taken, in order to be brought to justice, before the time required to surrender, in such case, no proceeding shall be had upon such order, but he shall be brought to trial by due course of law.

Every offence by this or any other act relating to the revenue, shall be determined in any county in England, as if the fact had been committed therein: provided that no attainder for any offence by this act shall make any corruption of blood, loss of dower, or forfeiture of lands, &c. That if any officer, &c. or other person employed in seizing wool or other goods, not having paid or secured the duty, shall be beat, wounded, maimed, or killed, by any offender against this act, or if the said wool, &c. be rescued by persons armed as aforesaid, the inhabitants of every rape or lath, or hundred in England, shall make full amends for such beating, &c. and for such loss of goods, and shall pay 100l. for each person killed to his executors or administrators; and such officers, their executors, &c. are enabled to sue and recover the same, the sum for beating, &c. not to exceed 40l. The sum raised for that purpose to be proportionably assessed on the inhabitants of such rape, &c. for the damages and expences in recovering the same, in such manner as damages and costs are raised in hundreds in case of robberies, and for paying the expences according to 8 Geo. II. If the plaintiff be nonsuited, the charges of the defence, &c. to be levied as the said act directs; and every action shall be prosecuted in the same manner as the said 8 Geo. II. directs.

No person to recover, unless notice be given of the offence four days after the commission of it unto two inhabitants of some town, &c. near the place where the fact was done; and shall within eight days after such fact declare, on oath before some justice of the peace of the county, &c. where the same was committed; which examination every justice shall be obliged to take, whether he or they so examined do know the person, &c. who committed such fact, or any of them; and if it be declared that he or they knew the person, &c. who committed the same, or any of them, then he or they shall be bound by recognizance to prosecute according to law; and no such person or persons shall recover damages by virtue of this act, unless he or they, besides the said notice and recognizance, give such notice, and enter into such recognizance, as persons robbed are by the said 8 Geo. II. directed to give and enter into.

Provided, That where any offender shall be apprehended and convicted of the offence within six months after the offence, no hundred, &c. or inhabitant thereof, shall make any satisfaction for such damages, or pay the said 100l. to the executors, &c. of such killed person.

No action to be brought against the inhabitants of any hundred, &c. unless the same shall be commenced within one year after the offence committed.

All persons who shall apprehend, or discover so as he may be taken, any person in England so advertised, who shall not have surrendered within forty days, and cause him to be brought before the chief justice of B. R. or any one of the justices of the said court, or any justice of the peace for London or Middlesex (who is hereby required to commit such person to Newgate for such felony), shall have for every such person who shall be so apprehended 500l. to be paid in one month after execution shall be awarded against such offender, by the commissioners of the customs or excise respectively, who are required to receive the applications of such who are concerned, and to determine who are entitled to the said reward and shares thereof, and to divide the same as they the said commissioners, or the major part of them, shall think reasonable. And if any offender, against whom no order of council shall have been made, shall himself discover any other offender against whom such order shall have been made, he shall be discharged of his own offence (if no prosecution commenced) and shall have his share of the reward. And if any person lose a limb or an eye, or be otherwise maimed, &c. in apprehending or making pursuit after such offender, every such person shall receive 50l. over and above any other reward he may be intitled to by this act. And if any person, &c. shall be killed in the taking or pursuing, &c. then the executors, &c. of such person, &c. shall have 100l. All which rewards to be paid by the receiver-general of the customs, or cashier of the excise.

If any of the said offender or offenders in England shall, before his Majesty's order in council shall be made, discover two or more accomplices to the commissioners, &c. and apprehend them, or cause them so to be, so as they or two of them at least be brought to justice and convicted, the offender or offenders so discovering shall have 50l. and every person, &c. so discovering, shall be clear of his or their offence, for

for which no prosecution shall have been commenced, to be paid as aforesaid. Provided, that nothing in this act shall restrain B. R. or any of the judges thereof, or the court of justiciary of Scotland, or any of the judges thereof, from bailing any person committed on this act, and not convicted or attainted, in such manner as they may do by law in other cases of felony.

Persons guilty of any of the above offences, against whom no prosecution shall have been commenced, or composition made, before the said 24th of June, shall be acquitted on the following terms, viz. That he do, before 29 Sept. 1746, enter into his Majesty's fleet, and serve as a sailor for one year, and before such time register his name, employment, and place of abode, with the clerk of the peace of, &c. in a book, which the said clerk is to keep among the records of the sessions for the said county, &c. and shall sign such register, signifying that he claims the benefit of this act, and that he has * entered himself with a commission-officer, by name, of his Majesty's fleet, to serve as a sailor; which entry must be as follows:

* N. B. Though the time is expired for entering sailors, yet it is now of use to see whether persons have entered pursuant to the statute.

A. B. claims the benefit of an act of the 19th year of the reign of his Majesty king George II. and has entered himself with a commission-officer of his Majesty's fleet, and has registered his name in the book kept by the clerk of the peace of this county, riding, or division, this day of pursuant to the directions of the said act.

For which entry shall be paid to the clerk of the peace 1s. And the clerk of the peace is immediately after the said Sept. 29, to transmit to the said commissioners, an exact account of the persons who have by such entry entitled themselves to the benefit of this act.

Persons who shall claim the benefit of this act, and shall afterwards commit the like offences, or shall within the said year procure their discharge, shall be subject to be prosecuted not only for the new offence, but also be liable to the pains they would have incurred, in case the above indemnity had not been given.

If any officer of his Majesty's navy by any means suffer such person to avoid the service, such person shall lose the benefit of the act, and the officer forfeit 500l.

In case any information shall be brought to trial on account of the seizure of any ship as forfeited for illegally carrying goods, or of any wool, goods, wares, or merchandizes as accustomed, or illegally carried or exported, or intended so to be, or as illegally relanded after having been shipped or exported, upon debenture or certificate, wherein a verdict shall be found for the claimer thereof, and it shall appear a probable cause of seizure, the judge or court shall certify the same on the record, and the defendant shall not be entitled to costs, nor shall the person who seized the same be liable to any action, &c. And in case any shall be commenced wherein a verdict shall be given for the defendant, the court or judge shall certify on the said record, that there was a probable cause for such seizure, then the plaintiff, besides his ship and goods, or the value thereof, shall not have above 2d. damages, nor any costs of suit, nor shall the defendant be fined above one shilling. The said act to continue seven years. See the Business of the Custom-house at the end of every Letter.

SMUGGLING.

The following are some genuine SMUGGLING ANECDOTES, in relation to the ISLE of MAN.

The Isle of Man is, and has been many years, a common storehouse for all manner of goods and merchandizes that pay high duties in Great-Britain or Ireland, or are prohibited to be imported into these kingdoms.

The merchants in that island have constant supplies of large quantities of tobacco, both in leaf and roll, tea, in chests, with all sorts of East-India and Dutch goods from Holland: one cargo landed there from Rotterdam, though contrary to law, consisted of 345 chests of tea: they are likewise supplied with tobacco and other things from Dunkirk, Ostend, Norway, and even some parts in Great-Britain; with tea and India goods of all sorts from Gottenburgh and Denmark; with vast quantities of brandy and wines from France, and with rum from America: the Scotch and others send vessels to our plantations on purpose for that commodity, and land it there, contrary, as is supposed, to the act of navigation. These goods are all warehoused in that island, and afterwards put into packages of lesser quantities and weights, such as may be most handy and convenient for running into Great-Britain and Ireland.

There are nine or ten large wherries, and above twenty boats in the island, constantly employed in the smuggling trade, and go weekly from thence, if the weather permits, laden with high-duty or prohibited goods; the wherries and boats

from Piel-town supply the east and north parts of Ireland, the Highlands and west of Scotland; those from Douglas and Derbyhaven, Wales, Cheshire, and Lancashire; and those from Ramsey, Cumberland, and all the country on each side of Solway Firth; but their chief trade is up the river at Boulnefs, into the Scotch borders near Annan.

Ten or twelve of these boats are almost every week seen in a fleet passing Whitehaven, all laden, steering for the said river, where they land their cargoes at noon-day, the country being all ready to assist and protect them, in such numbers as no officer dare offer to molest.

These cargoes, which generally consist of brandy, rum, tea, and silks, are afterwards brought out of the Scotch border on horseback in the night, under an armed force of fifteen or twenty men, into England, and guarded by them up into the country, 'till they have passed all the preventive officers on the English border.

Thus all the northern counties on this side Trent, if not further, are supplied from that island with these commodities at a cheap rate, for the smuggler generally buys his brandy and rum there at two shillings the gallon, or under, and other goods in proportion, and by paying no duties is enabled to under-sell the fair trader.

It was several years ago made appear, that the clandestine trade carried on from this island, was then above 100,000l. yearly loss to the revenue of Great-Britain and Ireland, and it is computed now to be near twice as much, not to mention its carrying away the coin, the detriment to the honest merchant, landholder, and even ruin to the labouring people; for being constantly supplied with brandy, rum, and Dutch geneva, at so cheap a price, induces them to drink so much as not only weakens their constitutions, but corrupts their morals.

There is no other method, it is feared, can be thought on to put a stop to this great and growing evil (all the laws hitherto having proved ineffectual), but either by lowering the duties, or purchasing the island of the present proprietor.

From July 16, 1753, to July 11, 1754, a manufacturer of tobacco, with eight working men, manufactured and shipped off to Ireland 166 hogheads, containing 8397 rolls, 175,358 pounds neat tobacco. There is now in the Isle of Man several workhouses, in which are employed 50 men and upwards, all workers of Irish roll tobacco.—Say but 48 men, that in the same proportion with the manufactory in England, will be 996 hogheads, containing 50,382 rolls, 1,052,148 pounds neat tobacco, which must all be run into Great-Britain or Ireland, but chiefly to Ireland.

Irish duties on 1,052,148 lb. tobacco, is 1. 24,001 16 7½
Loss per annum will be English - 22,155 10 9

N. B. The supply for tobacco to the island is chiefly from Dunkirk.

Tobacco imported into the Isle of Man, makes a considerable article of the lord proprietor's revenue, who receives half a pound duty on the same, which is allowed on all hands, to bring him in 1500l. per annum.

One factor only, named W. T. for the merchants and dealers in tobacco in Dublin and other parts of Ireland, actually paid near 1000l. to the proprietor's collector for tobacco only, in the year 1753. And there are three or four more factors in that island for tobacco dealers, who pay less sums annually. These tobaccos are mostly manufactured in the island into fine pig-tail and coarse roll, and run into Great-Britain and Ireland.—The working manufacturers were first procured from Dublin and Glasgow; there are not now less than fifty of these hands, and a number of boys employed in several workhouses in the island.

FURTHER OBSERVATIONS on the present state of SMUGGLING from the ISLE of MAN.

The lords of the treasury, considering the intolerable growing evils arising from smuggling, ordered (the beginning of this summer) the commissioners of the customs to order the several collectors of his Majesty's revenue in Great-Britain, to transmit to them the most accurate estimate possible of the nature and quantity of the clandestine trade carried on in their respective districts, with their own observations thereon, and their opinions of the most feasible methods of suppressing the same, and whatever else might tend to the improvement and better establishment of his Majesty's revenue in the customs and excise, that the same might be considered by their lordships, and laid before parliament, &c. or to that effect. One of these orders addressed to the collector of the port of ——— by the secretary of the customs, I saw. The said collector, who is an able and intelligent officer, and with whom I have often conferred on these matters, did accordingly acquit himself to his principles. He also informed me, that the like orders had issued from the commissioners of the customs in Ireland to the respective collectors in that kingdom, with some of whom, the most notable, he had kept a close correspondence on this head, as well as with several in the ports of Great-Britain. That upon the whole of their informations and estimates he found, that the smuggling trade from the Isle of Man alone to Ireland, could not amount to less than a loss of 200,000l. per ann. to his Majesty's revenue in that kingdom.—And from the said island to England, Wales, and

and Scotland, at least 300,000*l.* per ann.—And to the East India company and the fair trader 200,000*l.* per ann. more, in the whole 700,000*l.* per annum, exclusive of the horrid consequences attending the said clandestine trade from the said isle; the chief of which are, the destruction of the health, breed, and morals of the British subjects stretching round the said island.—The death and daggers of their manufactures and agriculture.—The decay and consumption of the fair trader, and the temptation, and almost necessity they are thereby daily brought under, of countenancing and connecting themselves with the said smugglers, in order to keep out of a gaol.—The inevitable forerunners of the decay and destruction of his Majesty's customs and excise, if suffered to continue much longer.—Add only one consideration more, the nourishing and strengthening the trade and commerce of foreign powers, particularly one, our most dangerous neighbour, by destroying our own, and draining us constantly of our cash, &c. &c.

A MEMORIAL or petition of the merchants, owners of ships, &c. in the ports of Cumberland, has been lately presented to the lords of the treasury, setting forth the grievances they labour under from the clandestine trade carried on from the Isle of Man [see the sequel], to which I could add many more facts and considerations in support thereof, very interesting.—For instance, not one merchant along the coast of that county, has for seven years past, imported and paid duty for any French brandy, the county being glutted with the same by the smuggling-boats and night-carriers from the Isle of Man, though for four years past, that island has been chiefly supplied with coarse Spanish brandy from Cete and Barcelona, which they purchase there at about 10*d.* English, per gallon, and is sold out again to the smuggling-boats in the Isle of Man, at 18*d.* English, per gallon, the duty on importation of the same in the Island being but 1*d.* per gallon to the lord of the Isle, and the freight.—This brandy may be bought afterwards on the south and west coasts of Scotland, for about 2*s.* 2*d.* per gallon in great quantities.

Above 4000 gallons of this brandy were last year seized at different times, put up to sale at the custom-house at Whitehaven, but it would not fetch even the king's duty. Is not this a plain demonstration that the country about was supplied with it by the smugglers at a much lower price? Yet by the seizures of brandy brought to that custom-house last year as just mentioned, it is MOST CERTAIN, that not one smuggling-boat load from that island in a hundred, is taken by the cruizers or coast-officers, or any other ways. Almost every soul along the coast of Cumberland, &c. even the beggars and their brats, if they can steal any thing to purchase coarse sugar, drink tea once or twice a day, especially the dammed teas imported from Gottenburgh, &c. into the Isle of Man, much of which is sold by the smugglers from thence for 6*d.* or 1*s.* per pound, so that the excise on this article is dwindled to nothing along the coast. By such deplorable means, punch, bumbo, rumbo, and dry drams, have universally prevailed among all degrees of people on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland lying round the said island, to the inconceivable detriment of both the customs and excise, and it lessens in proportion the consumption of malt liquor, and the necessary motives of brewing it well.

REMARKS on the annexing the Isle of Man to the crown.

True it is, no less than eight ships arrived in the Isle of Man in the compass of 14 days in July last past from foreign parts, with brandy, rum, geneva, tobacco, arrack, teas, silks, &c. At one town called Douglas, the streets of which were scarce passable for several weeks, on account of the hogheads, all the warehouses in the town not being able to contain their cargoes, 'till room was made by running off the stock then in cellar. The smugglers last summer marched in the night in bodies of twenty men armed, and as many horse-loads of brandy, teas, &c. into and through some of the towns in Cumberland.—There are no troops in the whole country, except a small garrison at Carlisle on the east side thereof.

The above-mentioned observations, together with the following memorial of the merchants, do truly discover the present state of smuggling from the Isle of Man to the British dominions.—It remains now to examine the utility of suppressing the same effectually.—The present ineffectual means used for that end,—And, lastly, what may effectually and speedily do it.

It is now admitted by all the intelligent, that the abovementioned trivial duties to the lord proprietor of the Isle of Man do not amount to less than 5 or 6000*l.* per annum, at one penny a gallon upon spirits of all denominations imported there, a halfpenny a pound on tobacco ditto, and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on all dry goods ad valorem: by which, if there were no other lights, a reasonable judgment might be formed of the bulk of the clandestine trade carried on from thence to the British dominions round them, and the shocking loss it must be to his Majesty's customs and excise in particular, exclusive of the fatal consequences to his subjects.

From which it cannot but be admitted, that the government had better give the lord proprietor of that island, and his heirs for ever, a consideration of 5, or even 10,000*l.* a year, for

his sovereignty, than let it remain 12 months more as it is, it being obvious that the sum the government would save thereby, in a year or two, would more than pay such consideration for ever, at 3 per cent. even exclusive of the annual fair revenue of that island, which would then belong to the crown, and may be reckoned at 2000*l.*

Thus much in regard to the propriety and necessity of purchasing and annexing it to the crown, and making it a part and parcel of the realm of England, by act of parliament. See the article MAN [ISLE of MAN] and what follows.

It is said (and I believe with reason) that the present annual expence to the crown, in supporting cruizers, and additional coast officers, all along the coast of the three kingdoms, round the said island, and chiefly on account of the smuggling from thence, amounts to no less than 20,000*l.* per annum.

How improper! how injudicious these lofty-masted and decked sloops and cruizers are for the purpose intended, I submit to the cabin-boy, without repeating any more, than that they do not catch one smuggling boat in a hundred.

I shall be ashamed to repeat, that such lofty cruizers must be discovered by the smuggling, open, four-oared boats, with their two low masts and small sails, above an hour or two, at least, before the cruizer can discover them; the natural consequence of which is, the boats immediately clap to windward, and stand a wide course from the cruizer, by which they are seldom discovered, except in a fog, when it is always calm enough to give the boats an advantage by their oars. Moreover, such cruizers draw too much water to pursue the smuggling-boats in shore, and, before such can reach them with their boats, their cargoes are landed, and numbers of people always ready to convey them away. So much for the insignificance of such cruizers!

I come now to offer effectual means totally to suppress the smuggling from that island.

And first that of purchasing and annexing the same to the crown, which, indeed, is to be preferred on every account. This would infallibly put a final end to smuggling from that island; because all such foreign goods as mentioned above, must then be brought to the island in ships of burthen, and landed in one of their four ports, and this could not be done without the knowledge of a king's governor, collector, and the proper officers, in the face of day, the whole coast of that island being rocky and dangerous, except their four ports, and open boats cannot supply them with such goods from France, Holland, Spain, Denmark, and Sweden.

But if the lord proprietor should decline taking a reasonable consideration for his sovereignty thereof, or ask an unreasonable one for the same, which I would not suppose, except he should estimate the growing revenue thereof in proportion as it has increased since the year 1736, when he came to the inheritance thereof, viz. to have increased from 1000*l.* in the aforesaid duty, to 5000*l.* a year: if this should be the case, it may properly fall under consideration, as a most important national concern, whether it be not absolutely necessary to have an act of parliament for commissioners immediately to inquire into, and ascertain, the value of the said island, and to oblige him to receive such valuable consideration in lieu thereof, &c. as in the case of the heritable jurisdictions in North Britain.

But if measures of this kind should be thought improper, I doubt not means may easily be found to induce him to alter his inclinations in a short time,—viz. By dismissing the present sett of improper cruizers employed for suppressing the running trade from that island, and employing the annual expence of their establishment in fitting out and supporting half a score light open boats, or cutters, carrying 9 or 10 men each, having two low masts, equal to those of the smuggling-boats, to sail and row six oars at a time, to be stationed on proper cruizes round the said island.—These must see and be seen at the same time; but being light, and better adapted for sailing and rowing, and drawing equal water, would soon come up with the smuggling-boats.

Suppose, also, the captors were intitled to 40*s.* per head for each smuggler so taken in the fact; and besides one moiety of the clandestine goods then taken, the 40*s.* per head to be paid them out of the remaining moiety of the goods, or, in case of a deficiency therein, to be instantly paid them by the collector of the port where the prize and smugglers are landed, upon delivering over to the civil power such captive smuggler, or smugglers, who are to be impowered to commit the said delinquents to gaol, 'till they can be conveniently turned over to serve on board the royal navy for the space of seven years at least; such cruizers, nevertheless, to be intitled only to one third of the goods taken, except they deliver over to the civil magistrate one or more of the smuggling delinquents then taken in the fact.

If some people should think this punishment too light for such atrocious enemies to the public, they have my consent and approbation either to transport them to America for life, or even to exchange them for our Christian slaves in Barbary: all which I think much too favourable for such who promote the destruction of their fellow-creatures and country at the same time.

Upon this last method it must be observed, as the reason of its effectualness, that at present the smuggling merchants and factors in the island give, for freight to each of the smuggling boats, five guineas, which is paid to the said crew immediately, upon their producing a certificate of their having delivered their said cargo to their consignment in Scotland, England, Wales, &c. But as the captures would be at least as 20 to 1 under this disposition, so would the danger to the boat-crews be, on account of the penalties annexed, which would quickly discourage all freight at any price: this would soon stagnate all stock on hand in the island, stop farther importation of such goods, and with it the lord's duties. Most of these Mank's boatmen are very hardy able-bodied seamen, mostly married and wedded to their own home, and to whom a servitude and absence of seven years, or more, would, I am confident, be a kind of death. In short, SOMETHING MUST SPEEDILY BE DONE TO PUT AN EFFECTUAL END TO THE ENORMOUS SMUGGLING TRADE CARRIED ON FROM THAT ISLAND, OR ALL THE EVILS ABOVE MENTIONED MUST INFALLIBLY CONTINUE.

N. B. No Leeward Island rum is now imported into the Isle of Man, but coarse, stinking North America rum, drawn from molasses, carried there by their lumber ships from the Leeward Islands, particularly French molasses, from St Eustatia. French and Spanish wines abound in the island, and great quantities of Dutch geneva, very coarse Spanish silks, Barcelona handkerchiefs. The Liverpool Guinea-men also take in stores at the Isle of Man; and their toys and trinkets imported there from Holland, France, &c. Horrible!

The MEMORIAL before mentioned, of the merchants and owners of ships in the port of Whitehaven.—Humbly addressed to the right honourable the lords commissioners of his MAJESTY'S treasury.

We the merchants and proprietors of ships in the port of Whitehaven, in the county of Cumberland, beg leave to represent to your lordships the great damage which this nation in general, (and more especially the ports of this county) sustains from the clandestine trade carried on from the ISLE of MAN, to the several parts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and humbly submit to your lordships judgment the means we apprehend to be the most conducive to remove the same.

It is well known that this Island is the great storehouse wherein the French, and other nations, deposit prodigious quantities of wine, brandy, coffee, tea, silks, and other India goods, which are there admitted upon very low duties, and afterwards smuggled upon the coast of Great-Britain and Ireland, in small boats and wherries, built for that purpose; besides the frauds committed in the article of TOBACCO, which being first entered in the several ports of Great-Britain, for foreign parts, after receiving the drawback, are frequently landed in this island, and afterwards run back again in this kingdom and Ireland.

For the carrying on of which clandestine trade, the situation of the Isle of Man is extremely commodious, being within seven hours sail of the several coasts of England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales.

The loss, by this illicit trade, to his Majesty's revenues in the kingdoms of Great-Britain and Ireland, hath, by competent judges, been computed at no less than TWO HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS annually, besides the damage to the fair traders in general, and to the honourable East-India company in particular, which may reasonably be computed at no LESS SUM. And if the duties alone upon these foreign commodities, thus fraudulently imported, amount to so excessive a sum, we may judge, in part, what an immense treasure in SPECIE is annually drained from these kingdoms, and principally from the circumjacent sea coasts, for the purchase thereof, which, in the same proportion, tends to the impoverishing his Majesty's dominions, and the enriching a neighbouring state, the formidable rival of our power, as well as our commerce.

But the greatest loss which the public sustains by this detestable trade, proceeds from the alienation of such numbers of his Majesty's subjects from the honest arts of life, from agriculture, from manufactures, or from lawful commerce, to an employment which tends both to the destruction of their lives, and the debauching of their morals, by the excessive importation of spirituous liquors.

These evils, though extending in some degree to all parts of Great-Britain and Ireland, are yet most sensibly felt by the port of Whitehaven, and other neighbouring ports of this county, by reason of their vicinity to the Isle of Man.

We beg leave, therefore, to represent to your lordships the peculiar hardships which the trade of this port labours under, from the clandestine practices above mentioned, which, of late, have been carried on to a most exorbitant height.

A considerable trade hath formerly been carried on from the port of Whitehaven, by the exportation of British manufactures, to Virginia and Maryland, and other of his Majesty's plantations in America, and the importation of tobacco, and other products of those colonies, and also the exportation of coals to Dublin, and other parts of the kingdom of Ireland,

by means whereof the commerce of these kingdoms hath been enlarged, his Majesty's revenues increased, and great numbers of able-bodied seamen have been raised ready upon any emergency, to be applied to the defence of their king and country. Both these trades are at present in a very declining state, occasioned chiefly by the exorbitant growth of the smuggling trade in the Isle of Man: for whereas formerly a profitable branch of the trade of this port consisted in supplying the Irish markets with tobacco, this hath been greatly diminished by the manufactories of this commodity which have been set up, and greatly increased of late in the said island, by means whereof those markets are chiefly supplied with manufactured tobacco, in a clandestine way, to the great prejudice of the trade of this place, and the fair trader in general.

We beg leave likewise to represent to your lordships the difficulties which the coal-trade labours under, as it is at present carried on from Whitehaven and the neighbouring ports, to Dublin and other parts of the kingdom of Ireland, arising from the same cause. And whereas, by an act made in the 12th year of his late Majesty George the 1st, No goods or commodities whatsoever, other than such that are of the growth, product, or manufacture of the Isle of Man, are allowed to be brought from the said island, into the kingdoms of Great-Britain or Ireland, on any pretence whatsoever, under the penalty of a forfeiture of ship and goods; which makes it necessary that the owners of ships employed in the trade, for the safety of their property, should use the greatest caution and circumspection, in appointing the most faithful masters and sailors to navigate them that are to be met with, yet it frequently happens that small quantities of prohibited goods are taken on board, on the coast of the said island, where boats are continually plying to supply them, by reason whereof, ships of great value are forfeited and sold, to the great prejudice of their innocent proprietors, who are often without redress, inasmuch as the nature of the trade will allow only such low wages to the masters of coal vessels, that few persons who are possessed of any considerable property will accept of that office. By this means, this once-flourishing trade is now reduced to a very declining state, few people being willing to venture their substance upon so precarious a foundation. For the removal of these obstacles to lawful commerce, by which the nation in general (and more especially the port of Whitehaven, and other neighbouring ports) are greatly affected, we humbly beg leave to mention to your lordships the expedient, which, by the wisdom of the legislature, has been judged most conducive to this end, viz. by purchasing the sovereignty of the said Island of the right honourable the proprietor, and annexing it to his Majesty's government; for the carrying of which useful design into execution, your lordships have been vested with a proper authority.

But if this cannot be effected, we humbly desire your lordships would vouchsafe to take under your consideration the state of the smuggling trade from this island, and apply such further remedies as in your wisdom shall seem most expedient, since it is evident from experience, that the laws now in being are not sufficient to restrain the illicit practices complained of, which are grown to so exorbitant a pitch, that the smuggling boats go publicly in large fleets, and at a common risk: so that when any of his Majesty's cruisers fall in with them, it is scarce possible to take more than one at a time, and then the law hath provided no other punishment but the loss of the boat and goods, which loss is abundantly made up by the success of their confederates. But this seldom happens, for the cruisers employed in the channel are but slow sailers, and easily seen at a distance, and easily avoided, so that scarce one in a hundred of the smuggling boats or wherries ever falls into their hands.

It seems necessary, therefore, that a greater number of small boats, well manned, should be employed in apprehending these smuggling vessels, and that some further provision ought to be made by law, for the punishment of those who are employed in navigating them, either by transportation to the British colonies in America, or by sending them, for a limited time, on board his Majesty's navy, or by some other way which may be judged more expedient.

Signed by 40 of the principal merchants and owners of ships.

ANNUAL REVENUE of the ISLE of MAN to the LORD PROPRIETOR.

	l.	s.	d.
Lords rents, certain and impropriate tythes	1500	—	—
Fines certain, payable upon deaths of tenants and alienations of estates, and fines levied on the people for breach of penal laws, com. annis	500	—	—
Duties and customs upon imports necessary for the home consumption of the island, com. annis	500	—	—
Duties and customs on goods imported into the island, and afterwards smuggled into Great-Britain and Ireland, com. annis	4000	—	—
Revenue in gross	6500	—	—
9 Y		Revenue	

	l.	s.	d.
Revenue in gross (brought over)	6500	—	—
From which deducting his annual civil list	700	—	—
Then his present income will be	5800	—	—
But were the smuggling trade suppressed, } whereby the lord would annually lose } the duties arising thereon, viz.	4000	—	—

Then the lord's annual income, upon a }
fair trade, would amount only to }

N. B. Brandy, rum, &c. pay only one penny per gallon duty in the Isle of Man.

Teas, India goods, &c. pay ad valorem $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

By which it is evident how great the importation of clandestine goods into the island must be, to raise annually 4000 l. upon such low duties.

But it is now believed these low duties amount annually to 6000 l.

The tobacco alone imported into the island brings in to the lord, at a halfpenny per pound, 1500 l. per annum.

FURTHER REMARKS ON SMUGGLING.

Although the smuggling trade carried on by means of the Isle of Man is exceeding great, and attended not only with very great detriment to the revenue, but of unspeakable injury to the fair trader, who pays the legal duties for those commodities that others smuggle; yet it is to be wished that all the smuggling in the kingdom centered in this island only, for then the annexing the same to the crown of Great-Britain might prove an effectual remedy against so great an evil. Certain, however, it is, that this illegal and pernicious practice has spread itself too much over the whole kingdom, and calls aloud for an effectual redress, if there is a possibility. But while men are weak or wicked enough to persuade themselves, that there is nothing criminal in robbing the king of his revenue, or taking a false custom-house OATH, it is to be feared that those evils will never be extirpated from amongst us. See the articles AFFIDAVIT and OATH.

Nor do mankind seem to be sensible of the consequences to the public of thus robbing the royal revenue: for whatever the revenue is illegally plundered of, occasions the raising of new funds, or taxes, to supply that deficiency; and this has been the occasion of the continuance of the national debts and taxes: for if all those sums of money of which the public revenue has been, since the Revolution, deprived, by the infamous practice of smuggling, had been saved, it is to be questioned whether the nation would have been much in debt at this time of day. So that it may be said with truth, that smuggling has been one principal cause of the continuance of our debts and taxes; and, therefore, such who perpetrate acts of this kind, are the greatest bane to these kingdoms, if the perpetuity of our debts and taxes is one of the greatest of evils.

Nor does the mischief thus terminate to the injury and oppression of the community in general; it strikes directly at the immediate ruin and destruction of every individual fair and honourable trader in the kingdom; for he that evades the payment of the legal duties upon the commodities wherein he traffics, will, as he can well afford it, undersell him who justly pays the duties; and thus the honourable trader must either be undone, or turn smuggler to prevent it. Whence it is apparent, that one smuggler breeds many, and is the source of so general a depravity in trade, that smuggling traders are, in a great measure, become the great instruments of the ruin of all the rest.

The severity that has been shewn towards the most outrageous of these miscreants, has, indeed, had such happy effects, as to break the knot of those terrible banditti; yet this has not struck at the root of the mischief, and in the opinion of most, it can never be extirpated while the temptation from high duties remains so great: for where the avoiding them makes the profit great, no risk, no danger, can prevent men attempting it; it is throwing out a bait to a greedy fish; he will snap at it, though ruin ensues. Besides, it being chiefly the articles of luxury that are smuggled, as brandy, tea, French wine, laces, silks, &c. it spreads their consumption among the lower class of people, who are tempted to imitate, at a less expence, the luxuries of their superiors; and the same smugglers that bring us these superfluities, carry off prodigious quantities of raw wool, to the great prejudice of our manufactures, and the nation in general.

High customs prevent the bartering away our manufactures for foreign goods, not only for our own consumption, but also for exportation, which might enlarge the vent of our goods ten times more than it now is; for if a merchant now exports woollen goods, and would barter them for wines, the duties on them would amount to more than the cost of his woollen goods; so that he must have a double capital for such an adventure, or let it quite alone, where the sales of great quantities of woollen goods are lost to the nation.

As high customs enhance the expences of our navigation, the freight must be raised accordingly, whereby the prices of the soap, oyl, and dye stuff used in manufacturing our wool, are

advanced to the maker, and the freights on the cloths, or stuffs, exported, being also raised, are additional clogs upon the sales of our woollen goods.

High duties prevent the carrying on fishing trades, the great nurseries of seamen; whereby our sailors being few, and their expences raised by taxes, they have the highest wages of most people in Europe, which is another additional advance on the freighters, to the prejudice of our woollen trade, as above.

Great duties taking away so great a part of our merchants' stocks, they are thereby deprived of driving that great trade, and purchasing those quantities of woollen goods they would otherwise do; besides our merchants' risks in trade being greater than those in Holland, and their losses heavier by our customs, their bankruptcies must be more frequent: this sensibly affects our manufacturers, who are generally considerable creditors; for broken merchants may be well compared to ninepins, one of which seldom falls without beating down many others.

High duties recommend foreign manufacturers of fine goods, by making them expensive, which vanity, on that account, soon renders fashionable; whilst our own are despised, though superior in goodness, and are a great discouragement to our manufactures.

Large customs are the cause of the smuggling of wool; because the gain being great by running tea, brandy, and French goods, on account of the high duties, hath raised the contraband trade to a great pitch, and the smugglers cannot make their returns in any commodity of so quick and certain a vent, or that gives so good a profit as our wool; for the French being less taxed than we, can work cheaper; and their own wool being coarse, English and Irish wools are so much in demand, that they will give great prices for them, for which reason they receive vast quantities, to the ruin of our manufactures.

High customs on ashes, bay salt, cotton, copper, coals, drugs, foreign soap, flax, fruit, furs, hemp, iron, leather, linens, oil, paper, rice, tobacco, tallow, threads, tapes, silk, and sugar, being necessities of life, or materials of manufacture, most necessarily made all our commodities dear, not only to our own people, but to foreigners likewise, (though our workmen should have no excise to pay) and such discouragements give opportunity to foreigners to send their manufactures cheaper to foreign markets, and smuggle them, in defiance of all laws, into our own country, to the ruin of our manufactures; for all the above customs are as much taxes on our woollen manufacture, as if they were laid on the wool itself, or more; for the workman must raise the money on the woollen goods he makes, to pay the duties of what he uses of the above articles, with the advances, in all the hands they pass through, before they come to him.

'Tis by these high duties that we ourselves drive away our own manufacturers, and prevent our ever getting more; and foreigners could not rival the people of so fruitful a country as Britain, if we did not furnish them with the means, by our high taxes and restraints, that are always prejudicial to trade, though designed to amend it, and never effect the thing intended, though fortified with the most rigorous penal law: of which Mr Locke gives an instance, in his Considerations, &c. p. 116. 'Tis death in Spain to export money; and yet they who furnish all the world with gold and silver, have least of it among themselves: trade fetches it away from that lazy and indigent people, notwithstanding all their artificial and forced contrivances to keep it there; it follows trade against the rigour of their laws; and their want of foreign commodities, makes it openly be carried out at noon-day.'

This seems to be a parallel of the state we are coming to, and which some foreigners may by and by make.

'Tis felony in England to export wool, and yet they who furnish all the world with wool, have least of the manufacturing of it among themselves; the smuggling trade fetches it away from that excised and custom-loaded people, notwithstanding all their artificial and forced contrivance to keep it there: it follows the smuggling trade, against the rigour of the laws, and their want of taking off the taxes on their manufactures makes it openly be carried out at noon-day.

By this we see that neither death or banishment can force trade to an unnatural channel; and it may be compared, in one respect, to water, which cannot be compressed within its natural dimensions: the more force is exerted, the sooner is the vessel broke that contained it, and the water let loose never to return.

The great De Wit, in his Memoirs, Ratissbon edit. p. 77, asserts, 'That the navigation, the fishery, the trade, and manufactures, which are the four pillars of the state, should not be weakened or encumbered by any taxes; for 'tis they that give subsistence to the most part of the inhabitants, and which draw in all sorts of strangers, unless the necessity was so great, that the country was threatened with an intestine destruction, and these fundamentals should be attached upon the hopes that these taxes would not last long; at least haste should be made, as soon as the storm was over, TO TAKE THEM OFF: again, this distinction should be made, that

' that manufactures should not, or cannot be taxed at all, because they are not fixed to the country, and we must fetch from foreign countries the stuffs and materials to work them up.'

Smuggling sends away our specie.

Britain having no mines of gold or silver, has no other means of getting, or preserving its treasure, but by foreign trade. As customs confine our trade to mere importation, for our own necessities or vanities, and at the same time ruin our manufactures; what we want in exports to balance the imports, must be paid in specie, making the balance of trade every year more and more against us; for as we raise the prices of our goods so high, by taxes, that foreigners will not take them, and yet continue to import their superfluities, which we now chiefly, and in time must intirely, pay for with our gold and silver, as appears by the bills of entry in every week we are obliged to do; and our high duties encourage smugglers, who have seldom a settled habitation, or any stock of our manufactures by them, to carry out vast quantities of SPECIE to purchase their cargoes: such large draughts make our mint lie idle; we see but little new-coined gold, and hardly any silver; we find our money disappear, and grow scarcer every year; our trade decline, and our people starve. In regard to high duties and their effects, see further the articles BONDING at the custom-house, LABOUR, TAXES, FUNDS, DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT.]

That the lowering of the duties on some branches should seem to be the most natural and effectual way to suppress smuggling, and, indeed, to augment the national revenue, may be judged from the lowering of the DUTY ON TEA; the duty thereupon being very considerably augmented since that time, and the smuggling of that commodity proportionably diminished; and this was obtained by the indefatigable application of the right honourable Stephen Theodore Janssen, Esq; late lord mayor of the city of London; to whom I am indebted for these anecdotes, relating to the smuggling carried on by means of the Isle of Man, and for many other curious particulars, which I shall endeavour to render as useful to the public as I am able. See LINEN and TEA.

Further REMARKS on SMUGGLING since the last War.

Since the Reports on the infamous practice of smuggling, made by the committee of the house of commons, and lately published by Mr. Alderman Janssen, now Chamberlain of the city of London, the true idea of those practices seems to be revived, and has induced the government, after so long and shameful disregard of the proper measures recommended throughout the said Reports, to put them in execution: and we hear daily of the good effects of the salutary means at length exerted.

It is said likewise that the Isle of Man WILL AT LAST BE ANNEXED to the crown of England; that Island having been reckoned a PETTY FRANCE, within this kingdom, it being a capital rendezvous for French smugglers, and a prodigious magazine for all sorts of French commodities and manufactures. See the ISLE of MAN. The present vigilance of the government, in this respect, is not only manifest all around the British and Irish coasts, but is exerted in our American plantations. For the French, under the pretence of carrying on their fishery in North America, pursuant to treaty, have been taken smuggling in the river St Lawrence, and as well our British furs from Canada as their own wares, among British subjects: but his Majesty's cruizers there, being very active at present, it is to be hoped, will put a stop to these practices of the French in this part of the world.

The goods lately seized by the officers of his Majesty's customs, trading to and from the Isle of Man, and the Isles of Guernsey and Jersey, are said not to amount to so little as 300,000 l. The Dutch, no less than the French, also make their fisheries on the coasts of Great Britain and Ireland subservient to their smuggling practices; and therefore there is no less need for the officers of the revenue to be watchful over these our good friends and allies, lest we should be as great sufferers by their smuggling arts, as we are by their fisheries on our coasts.

England is certainly the best market in the world for such smugglers to bring their wares to, they selling here the dearest, and fetching the best prices, because our own commodities and manufactures sell the dearest to our own subjects of any in the whole world. This, we apprehend, to be the great inducement to smuggling in general in these kingdoms; and till the cause is effectually removed, it is to be feared, the effect will never greatly cease; for the high duties heighten the temptation to some, and the low price of our competitors' goods, to others. The immensity of our national debts, and the tax-incumbrances under which our whole commerce labours, for the payment of interest only, and a great proportion of that to foreigners also, occasions the smuggling with which we so greatly abound in every part of this kingdom; and while people can purchase two or three smuggled suits of clothes, for the price of one, and perhaps, not so gay, we cannot suppose any great obstruction will be put to smuggling.

An abstract of an act made in the year 1762 for the further improvement of the revenue of customs; and for the encouragement of officers making seizures, and for the prevention of the clandestine running of goods into any parts of his Majesty's dominions.

Vessels or goods seized by the officers of the customs to be publicly sold, after condemnation, to the best bidder, at such places as the commissioners of the customs shall think proper; one moiety of the produce to go to the said officers; and the other to be paid into the exchequer. Officers to be allowed, after all charges deducted, two third parts of the produce upon wrought silks, bengals, stuffs mixed with silk or herba, of Persian or Indian manufactures, and calicoes, seized and condemned in pursuance of act 11, 12 Will. III. the other third to be paid into the exchequer; and upon wool; and other goods enumerated act 12 Geo. II. the produce after all charges; and upon tobacco and snuffs burnt, &c. pursuant to act 24 Geo. II. 3 d. per lb. and for tobacco stalks 1 d. per lb. and for tea, not exceeding 2 s. 6 d. per lb.

Where the produce of any seizure shall not answer the expences of condemnation and sale, or a verdict be given for the claimant, the charges to be paid out of any branch of the revenue applicable to incidents. The king to direct, by order of council, or proclamation, how the share of such seizures as shall be made by vessels in his service, shall be divided amongst the officers and men.

Where any foreign brandy, arrack, rum, or other spirits, not being for the ship's use, shall be imported, &c. in any vessel of 50 tons, or under, the same, together with the vessel and furniture, shall be forfeited; and in like manner, where any spirits, tea, tobacco, tobacco stalks, or snuff, are liable to forfeiture by act 9 Geo. II. or act 24 Geo. II. the vessel on board which the same shall be found, if under 50 tons, shall be forfeited, with her apparel: and the vessels, &c. seized and condemned, are to be disposed of as vessels of 40 tons, or under, forfeited for importing foreign brandy, &c.—No writ of delivery to be issued out of the exchequer for any such vessel, unless the officer delay proceeding to trial and condemnation three terms; and security be given, in double the value, to return the vessel upon condemnation.

—Clauses in act 8 Annæ, & 15, 16 Geo. II. Claimant, upon entering his claim, to give security in 60 l. to pay costs; and in default thereof, the goods and vessel to be condemned.

—Clauses in act 5 Geo. I. The recited clauses, respecting customable or prohibited goods on board vessels of 50 tons or under, found hovering on the coast of this kingdom, extended to all such like vessels found hovering on any of the coasts of Ireland; and the said offences to be tried, and penalties recovered in any of the four courts of Dublin.—Offences in other ports, to be prosecuted in the court of admiralty, or other court of record of the place; and the forfeitures to be divided and applied as these in Great-Britain.

REMARKS since the last Edition.

In the Reports of the committee of the honourable house of commons, appointed to enquire into the causes of the most INFAMOUS PRACTICE of SMUGGLING, and lately published by Mr. Chamberlain Janssen, late lord mayor and representative of the city of London, it is observed, that 'upon the rupture with Spain in 1739, it was clearly foreseen, that the insidious practices of France would necessarily involve us in a war likewise with that power; wherefore it became an indispensable consideration, what would be the most effectual methods to stop those channels, through which we were daily pouring in our wealth among the people of that perfidious nation; enriching them with our specie, merely to purchase superfluous commodities; and, at the same time, impoverishing and weakening ourselves, previous to a war which was upon the point of breaking out with them.'

The British parliament, impressed with a deep sense of the mighty evils resulting from this imprudent and baneful intercourse, seized the earliest opportunity of putting a stop to it. They were sufficiently apprized, that this nation paid annually to France, a prodigious sum of money for French cambric; and that our East-India company, out of their stock then in hand, with what they could import, would be able to furnish a commodity equally fit for every purpose; and therefore very judiciously passed an act, in 1744, for prohibiting the wear of French cambric; and so general was the sense of both houses, at that juncture, for this prohibition, that several members declared in their speeches, (doubtless in hopes that their example would be universally followed) that they took it for granted, not a single member of either house would appear in French cambric by that time twelve-month. This act, however, not answering effectually the purpose intended, other acts have passed since to enforce the intention of the first; and these several acts have, at last, completed the disuse of this pernicious commodity among us; and that we may hope for ever.

But the parliament did not stop here: for, the next session, finding the smuggling of tea was got to so exorbitant a height, that the large revenue, which ought to have arisen from it, was sinking daily; and in danger of suffering a much greater diminution, unless a speedy remedy were applied; and be-

ing at the same time well informed, that one million and a half of pounds weight of the tea so smuggled in upon us, (together with brandy and other goods) came from France, for all which we paid them our ready money; they passed an act, to commence at Midsummer 1745, for taking off one half (being two shillings per pound) of the excise upon that article; by which wise law, the practice of smuggling was found immediately to lessen; and our specie was consequently, in a great degree, preserved from being sent to France. Our India company thereupon increased their importation of tea very considerably, and the revenue increased with a most surprizing rapidity*; as will fully appear in a large and curious sheet at the conclusion of this treatise. It is computed there have been saved to the nation, by these two salutary laws, not less than three hundred thousand pounds annually; which exorbitant sum had been sent in specie from hence to France, before the prohibition of the wear of French cambric; and the check put to the smuggling of French tea.

* For some years before the passing this act, the excise and custom upon tea (together) produced but little above one hundred and seventy thousand pounds sterling, communibus annis. But so immense has been the increase of this branch of the revenue from that period, that upwards of five millions and a half sterling have been paid into the exchequer, more than would have been, if this act had not passed; whilst the East-India company has, on the other hand, increased her importation of tea, near fifty-three millions of pounds weight.

The succeeding session, the parliament found, from custom-house accounts laid before them, that smuggling still continued to a much greater excess than could have been suspected, when the act of the last session passed. They were likewise sensible, that such † numerous and desperate gangs of men, so well mounted and so well armed, might greatly add to the disturbance ‡ already broke out in the kingdom. They knew that these banditti carried the earliest intelligence to France, into whose ports they were freely admitted, although in the time of open war, and an open rebellion; and they also knew they were hardy sailors and skilful pilots. All these circumstances were so very alarming, that a committee was moved for, and appointed accordingly, to inquire into the causes of the most infamous practice of smuggling, &c. which committee made the two following Reports, that now appear in print for the first time.

† See page 7, to 11, of the first Report.

‡ The beginning of the winter 1745, when the rebels were in England.

The reader will find, in these Reports and the papers annexed, an abundance of particulars, not only new, but useful and curious. He will see in what manner the laws, for levying the taxes and guarding against frauds, have been suffered for a long course of years to be trampled upon, to the manifest detriment of the fair trader, the very affecting diminution of the revenue, and the utter disgrace of government. He will see, with astonishment, those laws violated by avowed and open acts of force. He will see too many instances of the infringement of those laws, through the fraudulent connivance of those very officers, who were appointed to secure the strict observance of them. In a word, he will see the revenue plundered, in so barefaced a manner, and in such a variety of shapes, that he will be struck with amazement, that practices so opposite to all principles of government, and pregnant with evils of such fatal consequence, could have been permitted to reign so long. And, finally, he will discover, in the course of these sheets, very probable methods proposed, (if not very certain ones) for collecting the old taxes, in a due and regular manner; whereby the frequent imposition of new ones, so oppressive to our manufactures, and so destructive to our trade, might have been spared; and the loss of some important branches of our commerce thereby prevented.

Jovis, 6 Die Februarii, 1745.

Ordered nemine contradicente, That a committee be appointed to enquire into the causes of the most infamous practice of smuggling, and consider of the most effectual methods to prevent the said practice, and to report their opinion therein to the house.

And a committee was appointed accordingly; and all that come to the committee, are to have voices; and the committee have power to send for persons, papers and records.

Anno tertio Georgii III. regis. Cap. XXII.

An Act for the further improvement of his Majesty's revenue of customs; and for the encouragement of officers making seizures; and for the prevention of the clandestine running of goods into any part of his Majesty's dominions.

Whereas, by an act passed in the twelfth year of the reign of his late Majesty King George the First, intitled, An act for the improvement of his Majesty's revenues of customs, excise, and inland duties, the commissioners of those revenues are respectively impowered and directed to cause all tea, coffee, foreign brandy, rum, or other foreign exciseable liquors, which shall be seized by any officer of the customs or excise, after condemnation, to be publickly sold to the best

bidder, at such places as the said commissioners shall think proper; and to allow the officers making such seizures, for their encouragement, one third part of the full sum arising from the public sale of all such tea, coffee, foreign brandy, rum, or other exciseable liquors, free from all charges of condemnation and sale; and to cause the remaining part of the produce of such sales, after paying the reward to the officer, and the charges of condemnation and sale for such seizures, to be paid into the receipt of his Majesty's exchequer, in lieu of his Majesty's moiety, as was then practised: And whereas, by several subsequent acts of parliament, one moiety of all fines, penalties, and forfeitures, imposed by any act relating to the duties of excise; or any other duty under the management of the commissioners of that revenue, is given to his Majesty, his heirs and successors, and the other moiety to him or them who shall discover, in form, or sue for the same; in pursuance of which laws the officers of excise seizing any of the commodities herein before enumerated, have been allowed a moiety thereof; but the provisions in those subsequent laws, not extending to such seizures when made by officers of the customs, they have hitherto been allowed only one third of the produce thereof, pursuant to the directions of the before-recited act of the twelfth of George the First: And whereas the power given by the said recited act to the respective commissioners of the customs and excise, to cause the goods therein enumerated to be publickly sold, has been found very advantageous to the revenue; and if the like power was extended in general to all sorts of goods, it would prevent many frauds and illicit combinations practised by bidders in the court of exchequer, to the great detriment of the public revenue and the fair trader: And whereas it is highly reasonable and just, as well as of public utility, that the officers of the customs and excise should have equal encouragement to be vigilant in the exertion of their duty, to suppress the pernicious practice of smuggling; to which end, may it therefore please your Majesty, that it may be enacted, and be it enacted by the king's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That from and after the first day of May, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-three, it shall and may be lawful to and for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, to cause all ships, vessels, and boats, and all goods of what kind soever they may be (excepting only such vessels, boats, and goods, as are by law liable to be burnt) which shall be seized by any officers of the customs, for unlawful importation, or for non-payment of duties, or for any other cause of forfeiture, and condemned according to law, to be sold publickly to the best bidder, at such places as the said commissioners shall think proper; and all and every officer who shall seize such goods, shall, for his and their encouragement, be allowed, by the said commissioners, one moiety of the net produce arising by the sale of such seizure, after deducting the charges of condemnation and sale from the whole; and the said commissioners shall cause the other moiety thereof to be paid into the receipt of his Majesty's exchequer, in lieu of his Majesty's share thereof (excepting in those cases which are otherwise provided for by this act) any law, custom, or usage, to the contrary notwithstanding.

Provided always, and it is hereby declared and enacted by the authority aforesaid, That after deducting the charges of condemnation and sale from the gross produce of all wrought silks, bengals, and stuffs, mixed with silk or herba of the manufacture of Persia, China, or East-India, and all callicoes, painted, dyed, printed, or stained there, which shall be seized and condemned in pursuance of an act passed in the eleventh and twelfth years of the reign of the late king William the Third, (intitled, An act for the more effectual employing the poor, by encouraging the manufactures of this kingdom) the said commissioners of the customs shall allow to the officer or officers who shall seize the same, two third parts of such net produce, and cause the remaining third part thereof to be paid into the receipt of his Majesty's exchequer; and that for all wool, and any other of the species of goods enumerated in an act passed in the twelfth year of the reign of his late Majesty king George the Second (intitled, An act for taking off the duties upon woollen and bay yarn imported from Ireland to England, and for the more effectual preventing the exportation of wool from Great-Britain, and of wool, and wool manufactured, from Ireland to foreign parts) after deducting the charges of condemnation and sale, the remainder of the produce shall be paid to the officer who shall seize the same, in such manner as by the said act is directed; and that for all tobacco, tobacco stalks, and snuff, which shall be burnt or destroyed, in pursuance of an act passed in the twenty-fourth year of the reign of his late Majesty king George the Second (intitled, An act for the more effectual securing the duties upon tobacco) the officer or officers seizing the same, shall be paid, in the manner directed by that act, three pence for every pound weight of such tobacco and snuff, and one penny for every pound weight of tobacco stalks; and that for such as shall be burnt, or otherwise destroyed, by order of the
respective

respective commissioners of the customs or excise, pursuant to the laws now in being, the officers making the seizures shall be rewarded in such manner as the said commissioners shall think proper, such reward not exceeding two shillings and six-pence for each pound weight of such tea, in lieu of all other allowances; any thing in this or any other act to the contrary notwithstanding.

Provided also, and it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That if the produce of any particular seizure, sold in pursuance of this act, shall not be sufficient to answer the expences of condemnation and sale; or if, upon the trial of any seizure, a verdict shall be given for the claimant, and the ship or goods shall not be condemned; in either of those cases, it shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, to order the charges attending the seizing and prosecuting such ship or goods, to be paid out of any branch of the revenue of the customs, which is by law applicable to the payment of incidents; any thing in this, or any other act of parliament to the contrary notwithstanding. And whereas, for the more effectual prevention of the infamous practice of smuggling, it may be necessary to employ several of the ships and vessels of war belonging to his Majesty, his heirs and successors, on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and of the other dominions and colonies belonging to the crown of Great-Britain; therefore, for the better encouragement of all the officers and seamen employed in such service, to do their duty therein, be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, That it shall and may be lawful to and for his Majesty, his heirs and successors, to direct and appoint the moiety herein before mentioned, or any other part of all and every the seizure and seizures that shall be made by such officers or seamen respectively, so employed as aforesaid, to be divided amongst all such officers and seamen of such ship or vessel of war, who shall make any such seizure as aforesaid, in such proportions, and in such manner, as his Majesty, his heirs and successors, shall think fit to order and direct, by any order or orders of council, or by any proclamation or proclamations to be made or issued, from time to time, for that purpose; and such moiety, or other part of the said seizure or seizures, shall be so paid and divided to and amongst all the officers and seamen of such ship or vessel of war accordingly.

And whereas the laws already made to prevent the clandestine importing and landing of foreign brandy, rum, strong waters, or other spirits, tea, tobacco, tobacco stalks, and snuff in small vessels, which hover upon the coasts of this kingdom, have been found insufficient for that purpose; be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the first day of June, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-three, if any foreign brandy, arrack, rum, strong waters, or spirits of any kind whatsoever, shall be imported or brought into Great-Britain, or into any port, harbour, haven, or creek thereof, in any ship, vessel, or boat, of the burthen of fifty tons, or under (except only for the use of the seamen then belonging to and on board such ship, vessel, or boat, not exceeding two gallons for every such seaman) every such ship, vessel, or boat, with all her tackle, furniture, and apparel, and also all such brandy, arrack, rum, strong waters, or spirits, or the value thereof, shall be forfeited and lost; and where any brandy, arrack, rum, strong waters, or other spirits, or any tea, tobacco, tobacco stalks or stems stript from the leaf, or snuff, is or are liable to forfeiture, by virtue of an act made in the ninth year of the reign of his late Majesty king George the Second, intituled, An act for indemnifying persons who have been guilty of offences against the laws made for securing the revenue of customs and excise, and for enforcing those laws for the future; and by another act made in the twenty-fourth year of the reign of his said late Majesty king George the Second, intituled, An act for the more effectual securing the duties upon tobacco, or either of them, for being found on board any such ship or vessel at anchor, or hovering within the limits of any of the ports of this kingdom, or within two leagues of the shore, as is particularly expressed in those acts: It is hereby further enacted, That in every such case the ship or vessel on board of which such goods shall be so found, with all her tackle, furniture, and apparel, shall also be forfeited and lost, provided such ship or vessel doth not exceed the burthen of fifty tons.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That every ship or vessel forfeited by this act, shall be seized and prosecuted, and after condemnation be burnt, destroyed, or used in his Majesty's service by the officers of the customs or excise, and the tackle, furniture, and apparel disposed of and divided, and the tonnage ascertained in the same manner as is directed by the laws now in force, with respect to vessels of forty tons or under, forfeited for importing foreign brandy or other spirits.

And it is also further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That no writ of delivery shall be granted out of the court of exchequer, for any ship, vessel, or boat, that is liable to be burnt, destroyed, or used in his Majesty's service, by virtue of this act, or any other act relating to the customs or excise, unless the officer seizing the same shall delay proceeding

to the trial and condemnation thereof for the space of three terms; and in that case, not without good security being given in double the appraised value of such ship, vessel, or boat, to return the same upon condemnation, in order to be burnt, destroyed, or used in his Majesty's service according to law.

And whereas, by an act passed in the eighth year of the reign of her late Majesty queen Anne, for granting to her Majesty new duties of excise, and upon several imported commodities; and by another act passed in the fifteenth and sixteenth years of the reign of his late Majesty king George the Second, for further regulating the plantation trade, and several other purposes; it is amongst other things enacted, That every person, upon entry of any claim in the court where any prohibited or uncustomed goods, or any ship, vessel, or boat, shall be prosecuted, shall be obliged to give security, in the penalty of thirty pounds, to answer and pay the costs occasioned by such claim; and in default of giving such security within the time limited by the course of that court, for entering such claim, such goods, ships, vessels, or boats, shall be recovered: And whereas many persons have, from the smallness of the penalty, been induced to enter groundless claims in fictitious names, with a view to put the officers of the revenue to vexatious trouble and delay, as well as to deter them from prosecuting seizures legally made, by putting them to an extraordinary expence, oftentimes more than the value of the goods seized, which tends very much to the prejudice of the public revenue, and to the discouragement of the officers thereof, in the execution of their duty: To remedy therefore this inconvenience for the future, be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the first day of May, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-three, every person, upon entry of any claim in the court where any goods, ships, vessels, or boats, shall be prosecuted, shall be obliged to give security, in the penalty of sixty pounds, to answer and pay the costs occasioned by such claim; and in default of giving such security within the time limited by the course of that court, for entering claims, such goods, ships, vessels, or boats, shall be adjudged to be forfeited, and shall be condemned; any thing in the before-recited acts, or any other act of parliament, to the contrary notwithstanding.

And whereas, by certain clauses in an act made in the fifth year of the reign of his late Majesty king George the First, intituled, An act against clandestine running of uncustomed goods, and for the more effectual preventing of frauds relating to the customs; (which clauses have been continued by several subsequent acts) it was declared and enacted, That where any ship or vessel, of the burthen of fifty tons, or under, laden with customable or prohibited goods, should be found hovering on the coasts of this kingdom, within the limits of any port, and not proceeding on her voyage for foreign parts, or to some other port of this kingdom, wind and weather permitting, it should and might be lawful to and for any officer or officers of his Majesty's customs, to go on board every such ship or vessel, and to take an account of the lading, and to demand and take security from the master, or other person having or taking the charge or command of such ship or vessel in that voyage, by his own bond, by him to be entered into, unto his Majesty, his heirs and successors, in such sum or sums of money as should be treble the value of such foreign goods then on board, with condition that such ship or vessel, as soon as wind and weather, and the state and condition of such ship or vessel permitted, should and would proceed regularly on such voyage, and should land such foreign goods in and at some foreign port or ports; and if such master, or other person, having or taking the charge or command of such ship or vessel, should, upon such demand, refuse to enter into such bond; or, having entered into such bond, should not depart or proceed regularly on such voyage, as soon as wind and weather, and the state and condition of such ship or vessel should permit, unless otherwise suffered to make a longer stay by the collector, or other principal officer in his absence, of such port where such ship or vessel should be, not exceeding twenty days, then, and in either of the said cases, all the foreign goods so on board such ship or vessel, should and might, by any officer or officers of the customs, by direction of the collector, or other principal officer as aforesaid, be taken out of and from such ship or vessel, and forthwith brought on shore and secured; and in case the said goods were customable, the customs and other duties should be paid for the same: and as concerning wool, or any prohibited goods, or other goods liable to forfeiture, which might be found on board such ships or vessels at the time of their unlading as aforesaid, the same were thereby declared to be subject to forfeiture, and the officers of the customs should and might prosecute the same, as also the ship or vessel, in case she should be liable to condemnation, as in the manner therein after mentioned; and that after such goods were so taken out of such ship or vessel, and brought on shore, and secured by such officer or officers, such bonds so to be given as aforesaid, should be void and delivered up, without any fee or reward for taking or delivering up the same; and such bond, not being otherwise discharged, should, on a proper certificate,

certificate, returned under the common seal of the chief magistrate in any place or places beyond the seas, or under the hands and seals of two known British merchants upon the place, that such goods were there landed, or upon proof by credible persons, that such goods were taken by enemies, or perished in the seas (the examination and proof thereof being left to the judgement of the commissioners of the customs) should be vacated and discharged: And whereas the extending of the said clauses to the rest of his Majesty's dominions, may be a means of preventing illicit trade; be it therefore enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the first day of July, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-three, the said clauses, and every part of them, shall be extended to all ships and vessels of the burthen of fifty tons, or under, which shall be found hovering on the coasts of Ireland, or any other of his Majesty's dominions or territories belonging to the crown of Great-Britain; and shall be of equal force in every respect, in regard to all such ships and vessels found hovering on any of the coasts aforesaid, as such clauses now are, or shall be construed to be, in regard to any ships or vessels hovering on the coasts of this kingdom; and all offences which shall be committed against the said clauses, or any part of them, on the coasts of Ireland, shall be tried, and the penalties and forfeitures thereby incurred, shall be prosecuted for and recovered in any of his Majesty's courts of record in Dublin in the said kingdom; and all offences which shall be committed against the said clauses, or any part of them, on the coasts of any other of his Majesty's dominions or territories (except this kingdom) shall be tried, and the penalties and forfeitures thereby incurred, shall be prosecuted for and recovered, in any court of admiralty, in the dominion or territory on the coast whereof such offence shall be committed (which court of admiralty is hereby authorized, impowered, and required, to proceed to, hear, and determine the same) or in any court of record in such dominion or territory, at the election of the informer or prosecutor, according to the course and method used and practised there in prosecutions for offences against penal laws relating to the customs or excise; and such penalties and forfeitures so recovered there, shall be divided and applied in such and the same manner as penalties and forfeitures recovered in Great-Britain for the like offences are, or in pursuance of this act may be, directed to be divided and applied.

SOAP, a sort of paste, either hard and dry, or soft and liquid; used in cleansing and bleaching of linen, and for other purposes by the dyers, perfumers, fullers, hatters, &c. See **BLEACHING** and **LINEN**. Some peculiar sorts are also used medicinally.

To make soap requires an intimate union of the salt of pot-ashes with oil, or any vegetable or animal fat: this union, in the present method of soap-making, is procured by a tedious operation, or by long boiling a weak lye of pot-ash and quick lime with the fat, adding a stronger and a weaker lye occasionally by degrees, 'till the requisite point to the perfection of the soap is hit.

R E M A R K S.

It might greatly contribute to shorten this operation, and ease the expence thereof, if a mechanical motion or engine were employed instead of fire, to procure this intimate union of the lye and oil. And that something of this kind is practicable, appears from hence; that if, for example, half a pint of the soap-boilers strongest, or capital lye, as they call it, be briskly shook in a phial, with an ounce or more of oil olive, for half a quarter of an hour, and then the phial be suffered to rest, there will, in a short time after, be found a solid cake of tolerable soap at the top of the liquor, and may be easily preserved in that form, by breaking the phial, and rendered harder by being exposed to the air.

The art of soap-making depends upon the following particulars. (1.) The nature and quality of pot-ash. (2.) The nature of oils and fats. And (3.) The several ways of uniting them to advantage.

(1.) A due enquiry into the nature of pot-ash [see the article **POT-ASH**, **NORWAY**] shews wherein the superiority of the foreign ashes, particularly those of Marseilles, Castile, Venice, and Joppa, consists; why the soaps, at present made in England, fall short of the perfection of some foreign soaps; and will inform us of the ways whereby even Joppa soap might be equalled in England. For such an enquiry will trace out the real physical differences betwixt one sort of pot-ash and another, with the ways of converting any one of them into the rest; so as to fit them for the soap-boiler, glass-maker, &c. respectively: it shews also, how the mildest pot-ash is obtainable, for the more curious soaps; and especially for those intended to be used medicinally, &c. And, by the way, there is room to suspect, that a thorough enquiry into this subject, would shew the matter of all pot-ash to be the matter of nitre; or that all the vegetables which yield pot-ash by calcination, might be brought to afford nitre by putrefaction; or that pot-ash is nearly the same thing, both in nature and substance, with fixed nitre.

(2.) A due inquiry also into the nature of oils and fats,

would shew likewise, how one sort might be converted into another, or hard animal fats into liquid oils, and liquid oils into solid fats, by digesting oils with certain coagulating acids, &c.—How all the foreign solid oil soaps might be imitated in England, and how a great variety of liquid soaps might be prepared for many different purposes; the foundation of the thing entirely depending upon the use of a highly subtilized and thin vegetable oil.

(3.) An enquiry into the best methods of uniting fixed vegetable salts with oils, might naturally suggest several machines for the purpose; whereby many tons of soap should be readily made by means of mills, wrought by the wind or water; and this either with or without fire. It might also inform us of several menstruums, or connecting mediums, which should, either alone or with little assistance, procure an intimate union.

SOIL. See the article **MANURE**, and those others from thence referred to.

SOISSONNOIS. This province, in France, is bounded on the north by Laonois, on the east by Champagne, on the south by Brie, and on the west by Valois. It abounds in corn, pastures, and wood.

SOISSONS is situated in a very agreeable and fruitful vale, on the banks of the river Aione. It is seventeen leagues distant from Paris to the north-east, and about eight from Rheims to the west. It is a large city, well built, and drives a great trade in corn.

SOMERSETSHIRE has Devonshire on the west, Dorsetshire on the south, the British channel on the north, and Wiltshire on the east, and is about 150 miles in circumference. The air is the mildest, and the soil, for the most part, the richest in the kingdom: it abounds with grain of all kinds, of which it supplies home and foreign markets with vast quantities. Its hills afford mines of coal, lead, and copper; woad thrives well here; and teasels, a sort of thistles used by cloth dressers, grow scarce any where else; and of lapis calaminaris, without which there is no making brass, more is dug up here than in all the kingdom besides.

All sorts of cloth are manufactured here; as broad and narrow kerseys, druggets, ferges, duroys, and shalloons, together with flockings and buttons; and in the south-east parts are made great quantities of linen. The value of the woollen manufacture alone here, in the first hands, has heretofore been rated at a million a year.

BRISTOL, the second city in Great-Britain, for trade, wealth, and number of inhabitants, stands on the conflux of the rivers From and Avon. As to the trade of it, 'tis well known to be the most considerable, London only excepted, especially to the West-Indies, to which its merchants were the first adventurers, and always greater traders in proportion, than that metropolis. Liverpool is now said to vie with them. It was even computed, above 30 years ago, when it employed no less than 2000 sail of ships, that the trade, in proportion to the bigness of the two cities, was above three times as great as that of London. Indeed the Bristol merchants had a very good trade to the West-Indies, at the time of the civil war, which they have increased much more, not only thither, but to all parts of the world, since the Revolution. Before that, they knew little of the Guinea trade, and hardly any thing of the Dutch, the Hamburgh, the Norway, and the east-land commerce; all which have since been very flourishing here.

In time of peace, 50 West-India ships, many of them of considerable burthen, have arrived here in a fleet, or very near one another. The shopkeepers here, who are in general wholesale men, have so great an inland trade, that they maintain carriers, as the London tradesmen do, to all the principal counties and towns, from Southampton to the banks of the Trent.

Moreover, by means of those two great rivers, the Severn and Wye, they have the whole trade of South Wales, as it were, to themselves; and the greatest part of that of North Wales. And how their trade may be greatly increased, see the article **RIVERS**.

The largest ships lie at Hungroad, four miles down the river; two miles below which is Kingroad, another station, in the merchandize brought to the key by lighters.

One of this city's principal branches of trade, and which has been prodigiously increased since the Revolution, is that to Ireland; from whence it imports tallow, linen, and woollen, and bay-yarn. The Straights trade, for all sorts of fruit, oil, &c. is very considerable.

They have also some considerable manufactures of woollen stuffs, particularly cantaloons, which are carried on chiefly by French refugees. Glass ware is as plenty and cheap here, as in any place in the world, here being no less than fifteen glass-houses, (which are served by the Kingwood and Mendip-hills coal-mines) some for glasses, others for bottles.

BRIDGEWATER, on the river Parret, has a pretty good coast trade to Bristol, and all down the Severn to Wales for coals, to Cornwall for slate, &c. Its foreign trade is chiefly to Portugal and Newfoundland. Wool is brought hither in good quantities from Ireland, for a trade to which kingdom, this port lies as convenient as any in the Severn sea. They have, besides, a great retale trade; and for cheese there are few, if any,

any, greater markets in the kingdom, many waggon loads being brought here, on a market day, for Devonshire.

MINEHEAD has a safe harbour in the Bristol channel, much frequented by passengers to and from Ireland; from whence also about 40 vessels come hither yearly with wool, that being its chief trade. Here are several rich merchants, who have some trade also to Virginia, and the West-Indies; and they correspond much with the merchants of Barnstaple and Bristol, in their foreign commerce. They ship off also about 3 or 4000 barrels of herrings yearly, for the Mediterranean, &c.

TAUNTON, on the river Thone, is a populous town, the inhabitants being computed at above 20,000; some thousands of whom are employed in the manufacture of serges, duroys, sagathees, shalloons, &c. Some of them, indeed, are, of late years, removed to the neighbouring town of Wellington.

WELLINGTON is chiefly of note for its seven weekly fairs, for cattle from the west country; and its manufacture is serges, druggets, &c.

YEOVIL, or **IVEL**, is a good large town, on a river of the same name. Its chief manufacture is gloves, though some cloth is made here, and it has a considerable market for corn, cheese, hemp, flax, linen, sail-cloth, &c.

CHIDDER is famed for the finest cheese in the world, except the Parmesan: the parish is about 23 miles in compass, abounding with pasture. 'Tis common here for 3 or 4 dairies to join their milk, to make one great cheese of 100, or 150 lb. weight, value six-pence a pound on the spot. There are, moreover, such great plantations of apples in this parish, that 3000 hogheads of cyder have been made in a season, and 36 horse-loads of apples have been sent in a week, for 26 weeks together, to Shepton-Mallet, &c. for sale; and 200 bags of wool are produced in it every year.

BRUTON, on the river Bru, drives a great trade in serges and stockings.

SHEPTON-MALLET is a populous town, with many very considerable clothiers.

Some cloth is also made at **CROSCOMB**, but its chief manufacture is stockings.

FROME-SELWOOD is also remarkable for its woollen manufacture. The cloths made here, are for the most part medals, of about 7 or 8 shillings a yard.

SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

A short HISTORY of the SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

This company was erected by act of parliament, in the ninth year of the late queen Anne, entitled, An act for making good deficiencies, and satisfying the public debts, and for erecting a corporation to carry on a trade to the South Sea, and for the encouragement of the fishery, &c. The preamble recites, That the debt due to the navy, the army, &c. amounted to 9,000,000 l. and upwards, and thereupon it was enacted, that the duties following should be imposed for paying an interest or annuity, after the rate of 6 per cent. per ann. for all the said sum, which interest amounted to the annual sum of 568,279 l. 10 s. The duties constituting the fund for payment of the said interest, were all the impositions and duties upon wines, vinegar, tobacco, East-India goods, wrought silk, whale-fins, &c. granted by an act of the 8th of queen Anne, 'till the year 1720, continued by this act to the crown for ever, together with the duties on candles, and money given with apprentices. And the queen was impowered, by letters patent, to form the said creditors, interested in the navy-bills, &c. into a company, who, on their subscribing their bills, tickets, debentures, &c. were to be admitted into the joint-stock, and become members thereof, in proportion to the sums due to them. And the said corporation were, by the said act, to be vested in the sole trade to and from all kingdoms and lands on the east side of America from the river Oroonoko, to the southernmost part of Terra del Fuego; and on the west side thereof, from the southernmost part of the said Terra del Fuego, through the South Sea, to the northernmost part of America, not exceeding 300 miles from the continent on the said west side (excepting Brazil, and other places in the possession of the king of Portugal, and the country of Surinam in possession of the States General) the company to be sole proprietors of all islands, forts, &c. which they should discover within these limits, to be held under the annual rent of one ounce of gold.

The crown also was impowered, by letters patent, to direct a stock to consist of 20 s. in every 100 l. of the capital stock of the company, to be raised by the members thereof, and employed in improving, enlarging, and carrying on the fishery of this kingdom, for the use of the company.

In pursuance of this act, the proprietors of the navy-bills, tickets, and any debentures abovesaid, were incorporated, by the name of The Company of Merchants of Great-Britain trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fishery. And on the peace that followed, anno 1713, the late queen transferred to the said company, the benefit of the **ASSIENTO CONTRACT** with Spain, which was the furnishing the Spaniards with slaves for their mines and plantations in America, by which they were also entitled to send a large ship annually with European goods, consisting chiefly of our woollen manufactures, to the

Spanish West-Indies. [See the article **ASSIENTO CONTRACT**.] By an act of 1 Geo. I. cap. 21. the sum of 822,032 l. 4 s. 8 d. was added to the capital stock of the South Sea company, to make it up just the sum of 10,000,000 l.

With this large capital, we don't find that the company ever applied themselves to foreign trade, (which seemed to be the principal design of incorporating them) unless in sending the ship above mentioned with European goods to the Spanish West-Indies, and furnishing the Spaniards with negroes; nor did they make any attempt to promote the fishery (another grand design in establishing this corporation) 'till of late years, and then only by sending a small number of ships annually to fish for whales; but what they chiefly make a merit of is, their being instrumental to the lessening of the national debt, and rendering some of those debts redeemable, which could not have been redeemed otherwise, without a breach of the public faith. They boasted—That they had not only added above 50 per cent. to the estates of all the old proprietors of the stock, but had been continually promoting the public good, by savings and reductions of interest.—That it appeared by a statute of 3 Geo. I. cap. 9. that the capital of the company then amounted to 10,000,000 l. for which a yearly fund of 600,000 l. was payable to them, after the rate of 6 per cent. and that they submitted to accept, after Midsummer 1718, of an annuity of 500,000 l. being after the rate of 5 per cent. per ann. for their ten millions.—That the company agreed also to advance the government the further sum of two millions, for the discharge of lottery-tickets that carried 6 per cent. and accepted another fund to pay them an interest of 5 per cent. for the said two millions.

That afterwards the South Sea company procured as many annuities, redeemable, and irredeemable, and other public debts, to be subscribed into their stocks, as with their original capital amounted to 33 millions and upwards, taking an interest of the government of 5 l. per cent. for the present, and stipulated to take 4 l. per cent. for the whole after Midsummer 1727; by which reduction of interest, the nation was provided of a fund usually called the **SINKING FUND**; whereby the public would have been enabled to have discharged the whole debt within the compass of forty years, or very little more, without laying any new burthens on the subjects.

And whereas it was objected to them, that the change that was made in the long annuities, by the company's redeeming them at twenty years purchase, had brought the nation in debt three millions more than it was before, the annuitants not having paid so much money for them by three millions; the company answered, that the nation was in debt on account of the annuities, according to the payment she was to make to the annuitants, and according to the time she was obliged to continue those payments; and if their bargain makes no alteration in that matter, if it neither adds to or lessens those payments, or the time of continuing them, then it leaves the debt of the nation just as it found it, neither increased nor diminished by it: but if it either lessens the annual payments, or shortens the time of making such payment, it must be so far said to lessen the national debt to the annuitants.

In the year 1716, there was published a calculation of the state of the national debt, in which the long annuities granted at several times were stated and valued, according to the sums paid into the Exchequer for them, which was about eleven years and a half purchase for those in king William's, and under sixteen years purchase for those in queen Anne's, time. This calculation, therefore, states the debt of the nation on the account of the annuities according to the sums they were first granted at.

Because this could neither be reckoned the debt of the nation with regard to the annuitants, nor the value of the annuities. It could not be reckoned the debt of the nation with regard to the annuitants, because the nation had contracted with them not to pay them off at pleasure, by returning them the money they at first paid into the Exchequer, but in an absolute engagement for the payment of such annuities for a certain term of years: neither could it be reckoned the value of the annuities, for their value must be stated (as the value of every thing else must be) not according to what was given for them at first, or what they were worth at that time, but according to what they are worth at the time they are proposed to be purchased: for as they then were only of such a value, because money bore such an interest, so if the state of interest is altered since that time, the value of such annuities must be in the same degree altered; for their value must rise in the same degree that the interest of money decreases, which was the reason that they were worth above 20 years purchase in the year 1720, and therefore could not be purchased at a lower rate, unless a power had been taken in parliament of fixing the price, which was supposed to be a step inconsistent with the safety of the public credit. The stating, therefore, the national debt to the annuitant according to the sums first given for them, was a great mistake.

But yet upon this foundation, that the degree of the debt is to be thus stated, an argument is formed, that the buying the annuities by the South Sea company at 20 years purchase, makes

makes an addition to the national debt, because here is 3,000,000l. &c. more paid for them than they were at first granted at. This supposes that the nation owed the annuitants no more than their first purchase money, and could oblige them to take it when they pleased; and if this had been the case, then it must have been granted that the 3,000,000l. &c. given by this bargain, had been so far an increase to the national debt.

But if this supposition be contrary to the true state of the case, if the faith of the nation was given absolutely for the payments of such annuities, and for such a term of years, then the debt of the nation to the annuitants must be stated according to that grant. And then the question will be, whether the nation is upon better terms with the annuitants by this new bargain, than she was without it: and the only way to see this clearly, is to see whether the nation is to be sooner quit of her payments to the annuitants, and therefore to pay less to them by virtue of this purchase, than she must have paid to them, had they continued unpurchased in their first state? At the time this purchase was made, the nation was to continue the payment of the annuities for about 83 years.

If, therefore, this term of payment is by this new bargain reduced to a term of years of about half the time, and this be done not by any farther money advanced by the nation, but only by a change made in the manner of her payments, and a change of the state of the annuities, then it must be very obvious how much the nation is relieved in her debts to the annuitants. The change made in the manner of the payment is this; the South Sea company buy 100l. annuity with 2000l. stock, so that the nation is to pay interest for 2000l. stock instead of paying an annuity of 100l. Was the nation to continue this same payment to the stock, and for the same term of years that she was to have continued her payments to the annuities, then it must have been granted, that she had neither lessened nor increased her debt by this bargain.

But if by virtue of this new bargain, and by this change in the manner of the payments, that is, by paying interest for 2000l. stock, instead of an annuity of 100l. the nation has not only a redeemable debt to deal with, but is also provided with a fund sufficient for the redeeming or discharging of 2000l. stock in about half the time she was to have paid the annuitants, then it must be equally granted, that she has her debt in this great degree lessened and relieved by this bargain. Now what is here only supposed as the effect of this bargain, is the true and real nature of it, and such as it was sufficiently fitted to produce, which may be thus made plainly to appear. The nation pays interest for 2000l. stock, instead of paying an annuity of 100l. but it is provided for in this contract, that in the year 1727, there should be a reduction of interest at one per cent. So that instead of the 100l. annuity, there will be only 80l. per ann. paid to the 2000l. stock; and this abatement of interest, or deduction of 20l. per ann. from the 100l. annuity, will raise a fund sufficient for the discharge of the 2000l. stock in about half the time that the payment of the annuities was to have been continued. So that by this meer change of the state of the debt, and the manner of the payments, the nation is enabled to discharge the whole debt in about 34 years sooner than it could have been discharged had the annuities not been thus purchased.— That notwithstanding all these advantages accruing to the nation by the scheme laid by the late South Sea directors, they had been evicted out of their estates, however long enjoyed, and by whatever means acquired.

As to the calamities of the year 1720, which altered the estates of so many private persons, they ought not to be imputed altogether to the directors, or to the South Sea scheme itself, but to a more general cause; for there was not any order of men in the nation, that had not some share in helping forward that general infatuation, and to whom therefore the common calamity ought to be attributed; so that it might have been justly expected, that every order of men in the kingdom should have been inclined, either to have pardoned or gently punished such a state of things, as they had not been mere spectators of.— That had the directors been allowed the benefit of a fair and candid trial, they might very justly have pleaded, that they had done nothing privately, or of their own heads; that they were driven into all the steps they took, by the irresistible temper of men of all orders; that they had acted openly in the sight of the legislature, and had the orders and authority of general courts for all they did, and their thanks after it was done.

Another cause the late directors assign for the sudden rise of their stocks, which occasioned the calamities in the year 1720, was the Bank bidding against them. The proposition made to the parliament at first, say they, was only for a voluntary subscription of the proprietors of the irredeemable and redeemable debts into the South Sea stock, at the best terms the company could agree with them (which was no more than selling their stock by subscription); a method the Bank has often pursued; and as the ministry knew the company had gained a sum for their proprietors, by taking in part of the lottery 1710, the year before, besides what they paid

the government for so doing, they insisted the company should pay a sum of money to the government for the liberty of having the said debts subscribed into their stock.

Before this proposition, the Bank had been applied to for undertaking this matter, but they refused it, treating it with contempt. But on the proposition being made to the house of commons, they became bidders of above five millions and a half to the government, by which the scheme first proposed was entirely altered, the same being then put up to the highest bidders; which influenced the minds of all sorts of people, and was the occasion of the extravagant rise of stocks, whereby all the mischievous consequences to private persons ensued; for it is plain the nation has received a great advantage by it, and therefore the ill consequence can only be the increasing some persons estates, and decreasing the estates of others. The second reason of the ill consequences of the scheme was owing to the bargain which the Bank solemnly made to the South Sea company, and never performed, whereby so many persons were misled, and thereby very greatly injured.

The company desire also it may be observed further, that the directors and managers of that scheme were never charged with any frauds or embezzlements of the company's effects.

The late directors also in their defence, and in order to shew how instrumental they have been in reducing the interest of money, and putting the national debt in a way of being paid off in a few years, published a treatise, titled, A true State of the South Sea Scheme, &c. wherein they inform us, that the method they first proposed for executing their scheme was as follows:

The total of their capital was about	l. 11,746,000
Total of the annuities and debts to be taken in	30,981,000
were about	-
Which would make the total of their capital	42,727,000

The whole sum to be taken in by the company being so large, and consisting of annuities and debts of various kinds, it was judged impracticable to take in the whole at one time, and that by taking them in at different times, prices, and proportions, the proprietors thereof (through apprehension of being either entirely left out, or of coming in afterwards at a higher price) would be quickened to make their subscriptions, whereby the execution of the scheme would be rendered more easy and certain. Though when the scheme was first formed, the price of the stock did not exceed 116l. to 118 per cent. yet it was supposed, if the proposal was accepted by the parliament, that the acceptance would so much increase the credit of the stock, as the company might be able to take in the said annuities and debts, at the rates, and in the proportions herein after mentioned: and if the Bank and East-India company, or either of them, would come in, they were proposed to be admitted into the first subscription at 130 per cent. or even lower, which would nevertheless have increased the profit to the South Sea company. But as their coming in was uncertain, the calculation was made only upon the other annuities and debts, viz.

6,500,000	Annuities and debts, subscribed at 130 per cent. for the stock, would produce stock to the subscribers	l. 5,000,000
7,000,000	Ditto, subscribed at 140 per cent. would be stock to the subscribers	5,000,000
7,500,000	Ditto, subscribed at 150 per cent. would be stock to the subscribers	5,000,000
9,981,000	Ditto, subscribed at 160 per cent. would be stock to the subscribers	6,238,125
30,981,000	Total stock to the subscribers	21,238,125
	Stock gained to the company	9,742,875
	Total stock to the company for the annuities and other debts to be taken in	30,981,000
	Then the capital would stand thus:	
	Proprietors old capital	11,246,000
	Proprietors new capital by subscription	21,238,125
	Total proprietors stock	32,984,125
	Stock belonging to their company in their corporate capacity, gained by their subscription	9,742,875
	Total capital as above	42,727,000
9,742,875	Stock to be sold by the company, at 160 per cent. amounts to in money	15,588,600
	Out of which deduct to be paid to the public	3,500,000
	Rest nett profit to the company	12,088,600
	The company's funds or income, for about 38,600,000l. at 5 per cent. per ann.	1,930,000
	For 4,127,000l. at 4 per cent. per ann.	165,080

Total

Total of the company's income, besides the allowance to them for charges of management	1. 2,085,080
8 l. per cent. for a dividend upon 32,984,125 l. proprietors stock comes to	2,638,730
Towards which the company's income would be	2,095,080

Wanting to make an annual dividend of 8 per cent. 543,650

Which, by the gradual selling the stock, and what the company gained on the subscription, would have supplied the same for above 12 years: before the expiration of which time it was supposed, the benefit of their trade to Africa, and the grants of Nova Scotia, and of the French part of St. Christopher's, would have been sufficient to have perpetuated the dividend, if not to have enlarged it. But the commons objecting against giving the South Sea company the African trade, Nova Scotia, and that which was the French part of St. Christopher's, the South Sea company were prevailed with to leave those advantages out of their proposals, which were the substantial things to have supported their credit; but still with assurance from those in the ADMINISTRATION, of using their utmost endeavours to obtain them for the company: But the price of South Sea stock, from the time of accepting their proposals to the passing the act, rising very considerably, and the Bank and their friends always opposing whatever appeared to be for the benefit of the South Sea company, they could never obtain those advantageous grants, which they had much depended on (as solid supports to the stock) though they frequently importuned and pressed the ministry for the same.

The extraordinary rise of the South Sea stock before the passing the act, together with the opposition of the Bank, having defeated the company of those grants and settlements which they had depended upon as the solid supports of the stock, as has been already hinted, nothing was left them but the opinion of mankind to enable them to execute the act, which put them under a more than ordinary necessity of complying with the general disposition of the people; and, therefore, though their original designs and intentions were to have no subscriptions but of the several annuities and debts that were to be taken in; yet there being, immediately after passing of the act; a prevailing notion among many of the proprietors and others without doors (for it did not proceed from the directors) of taking in money subscriptions; and this opinion growing universal, the directors found themselves under a necessity to depart from the method they had first intended to proceed in, and to begin the execution of the act with a money subscription; to which they were the more easily induced, finding the method prescribed by the act would require a great many months to effect the taking in but a part of those public debts; and that unforeseen accidents might so reduce the price of stocks, as wholly to defeat the execution of the act, and yet the company would remain under the obligation of paying to the public 4,667,000 l. though no part of the act should be executed.

A further inducement to admit of a money subscription was, that they might be thereby enabled to pay off such of the redeemable debts, and to offer money to such of the annuitants, as shall not be inclined to take stock for the same, they not being then certain, there would be such an universal disposition in those proprietors to accept stock for their debts and annuities, as afterwards appeared; but when that disposition did appear, the directors had no occasion to apply the money to that use. By these and the like considerations, the directors were prevailed on to open a money subscription at 300 per cent. with distant times of payment, and without limiting the sum to be taken in, stocks being then 285 per cent.

The method they proceeded in was, that every director took the names of those persons who applied to them, and the sums for which they desired to be admitted into that subscription; which, when brought together, amounted to so large a sum, and the names were of so considerable persons, that though their first intention was to have had that subscription for no more than one million, or at most one million and an half; and though they permitted no person to have more than 4000 l. and the sums desired were generally reduced, yet the directors found they could not bring the subscription to a less sum than 2,250,000 l. without giving such disgust, as might prove prejudicial to the company.

The first money subscription being thus fixed, and the sum it amounted to being 6,750,000 l. of which 60 per cent. being 4,050,000 l. paid down, the directors thought this subscription a sufficient fund to enable them to execute the rest of the act, and accordingly came to an unanimous resolution of taking no more money subscriptions.

But this subscription soon selling out at a considerable profit; it cannot be forgot how impatient persons of all ranks and degrees were for another money subscription, and by their importunity did prevail on the directors to agree the 28th of April to open one, which was done on the 30th of the same month at 400 per cent. of which 40 per cent. was paid down; and the same day resolved it as their opinion, nemine contra-

dicente, not to take any further SUBSCRIPTION in MONEY. This subscription was intended also not to exceed a million, but the application to get into it was such, that when the directors came to examine the names and sums demanded, they found they could not reduce it under a million and half, without giving the greatest offence.

But the directors thoughts being intent upon executing the act according to their first design, by taking in the annuities and redeemables, especially the former, on which the parliament had laid so great stress; they (the same day it was agreed to open the second money subscription) previously resolved on a subscription for the annuities; which met with such success, that in a few days above two-thirds of them were brought in, and on the 19th of May (the price of stock being then 375 per cent.) the directors fixed the price for the subscribed annuities at 32 years purchase, to be paid as follows, viz.

For 100 l. per ann.	
Stock 700 l. at 375 per cent. which amounts to	1. 2625
In money and the company's bonds	575
Total for 100 l. per ann.	3200

This gave great satisfaction to all parties concerned; and the stock and subscription advanced so fast, that when the parliament rose, the stock was at near 800 per cent. and the second subscription sold for 500 per cent. profit.

At this time the price of stock being about 800 per cent. and the second subscription selling for about 500 per cent. advance; and great numbers of those who desired to be admitted into the third subscription, having requested it at 1000 per cent. the directors thought they could not set it at a less price; but they allowed such times of payment, as with the Midsummer dividend reduced it to about 800 per cent. This met with no blame from any person at that time, but, on the contrary, universal approbation; as appears by the price this third subscription bore, it soon selling at 300 per cent. profit.

When this subscription was completed, the directors came again to a resolution of taking no more money subscriptions, and applied themselves to take in the remainder of the annuities and redeemables. To which end, on the 8th of July they agreed to open their books on the 12th of that month, to take in part of them; which was accordingly done, and in a few days, most of the irredeemables and annuities standing out were subscribed: but some of the proprietors of those debts and annuities, by reason of their absence, or other impediments, not having an opportunity to subscribe before the books were shut; made great application to the directors to be admitted; who, being unwilling to complete the execution of the act with as much expedition as they could, did, on the 27th of July, resolve to open books on the 4th of August following; for taking in the remainder of these debts and annuities, and most of those which were standing out were then brought in.

On the 12th of August the price of stock, inclusive of the Midsummer dividend, was upwards of 900 per cent. which made the stock, exclusive of that dividend, about 820 per cent. The directors agreed to fix the price of the subscribed long annuities at 36 years purchase, and the redeemables at 105 per cent. and the price of stock to be given for the same at 800 per cent. so that the redeemables, considering they were taken in at 105 per cent. had the stock at about 60 per cent. under the current price; which gave general satisfaction at that time.

It farther appeared, that the terms allowed for the annuities and redeemables which were subscribed, were very satisfactory, because they were sold at a much higher price than the unsubscribed; and some time after this price was declared in the Gazette, many considerable proprietors of the unsubscribed annuities and debts pressed and asked it as a favour to be, and were accordingly admitted to subscribe, and particularly several foreigners and merchants, intrusted here by them, for their use. Although the directors had come to several resolutions against any further money-subscriptions, those resolutions were not sufficient to stem the repeated application for the same, from multitudes of all ranks; and the proprietors of the stock began to clamour at their not being admitted to a share of their proportions in the former subscription, and some of them threatened to demand a general court, to order that the proprietors might be admitted to a subscription in proportion to their stock; which obliged the directors to take that matter into consideration: and the same day on which they fixed the price of stock for the two last subscriptions of the annuities and redeemables, they agreed to take a subscription of 20 per cent. on stock, for the proprietors only, the stock in such subscriptions to be valued at 1000 l. per cent. which, at that time, gave great pleasure and satisfaction to the proprietors, and 40 per cent. was offered for the privilege of that subscription.

But this did not take off the applications for another money-subscription to all persons indifferently, to which the directors shewed a great unwillingness; but, by the continued solicitations of multitudes of all degrees, and from all parts, they at length consented to open a fourth money-subscription, on

the 24th of August, at 1000l. per cent. exclusive of the Midsummer dividend (the third subscription then selling at about 300l. per cent. advance) but, to prevent this subscription running to an excessive sum, they agreed that one fifth part, being 200l. per cent. should be paid down, and none be admitted but those who brought their money that very day. The eagerness for this subscription was so great, that notwithstanding this precaution, and the directors full intention that this subscription should not exceed a million, yet, in a few hours, there was 1,200,000l. subscribed, although many were excluded, who pressed very earnestly to come in. Had not the directors taken that precaution in relation to this fourth subscription, it would probably have swelled to a larger sum than the third, as is manifest not only by the eager filling so great a sum (as is mentioned) in so short a space, and the numberless letters the directors received from persons who desired to be admitted into it, but also by a memorable reply that a great minister of state, since dead, made to them, upon their informing him of the method they intended to proceed in; who thereupon told them, That he himself had a list for above a million for that subscription, and that therefore, if they would proceed in the method they had proposed, without taking in lists, as they had done in the third subscription, he desired that they would publish an advertisement in the Daily Courant, That it was not in his power to serve his friends; that thereby he might clear himself of the clamour and charge that would arise against him for having neglected them.

As to the subscriptions for 20 per cent. to be limited to the proprietors only, the same was afterwards (for several reasons) thought fit, by the general court, to be omitted. The spring of the money-subscriptions arose from without doors, and not from the directors themselves, as already mentioned; and one may venture to say, those subscriptions were countenanced by the parliament; for that, after the first money subscription was taken in, there having arisen some doubts concerning the validity thereof, the parliament were pleased to pass a clause in the act, for establishing the two insurance companies, confirming not only the subscription taken, but also all such subscriptions as should after be taken, and to make the receipts that should be given out for the same assignable in law, which they would not have been without authority of parliament. They observe further, that by the original scheme, the highest calculation of the stock was 160l. per cent. and that advance supported by such beneficial grants to the company, which, if pursued and ripened into actual execution, would have kept the stock at least to that price, without being detrimental to any. But several public advantages would necessarily have arisen therefrom; as, first, the bringing the annuities into a state of redemption, which had been always thought an insurmountable obstacle to getting the nation out of debt. Secondly, The reducing the interest of the public debts from 5 to 4 per cent. and thereby increasing the sinking fund above 540,000l. per ann. by which the whole debt of the nation might have been paid off in about 24 years. Thirdly, The lowering the common rate of interest, which would soon have followed as a necessary consequence thereof. Fourthly, The trade and revenues of the kingdom would have been increased, by the peopling and cultivating Nova Scotia, and the French part of St Christopher's; and especially by enlarging and opening the trade to Africa into the INLAND PARTS of the CONTINENT, which has never yet been done, whereby they could scarce have failed of discovering the many rich gold mines which unquestionably are there, and from whence an immense treasure might have been brought into this kingdom.

The South Sea directors, in the year 1720, insisted further, that the scheme was originally formed with a design of great advantage to the public, as well as to the original proprietors, and, notwithstanding it received many alterations between its first formation and passing into an act, and that the execution of that act has been attended with many misfortunes; nevertheless there still flow therefrom many and great benefits, as well to the public, as to the original proprietors: and yet the directors of the South Sea company are punished in a manner beyond any precedent known in England, whilst the projectors and managers of the innumerable BUBBLES set up, even without any legal foundation, and with no other intention than that of fraud and cheat, have not been so much as called in question. [See the articles ACTIONS and BUBBLES.]

A SCHEDULE of the late DIRECTORS respective ESTATES, with their respective ALLOWANCES for their subsistence, and the SUMS taken from them.

	The nett value of the estates of the directors, by the report of the secret committee.			Their allowance for subsistence.	The fines, or sums taken from each director.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	l.	s.	d.
Sir John Fellows	243,099	—	6	10,000	233,099	—	6
Mr Joye	40,105	2	—	5,000	35,105	2	—
Mr Aftell	27,750	19	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	10,000	17,750	19	8 $\frac{3}{4}$

	The nett value of the estates of the directors, by the report of the secret committee.			Their allowance for subsistence.	The fines, or sums taken from each director.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	l.	s.	d.
Sir Lambert Blackwell	83,529	17	11	15,000	68,529	17	11
Sir John Blunt	183,349	10	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	5,000	178,349	10	8 $\frac{3}{4}$
Sir R. Chaplin	45,875	14	5	10,000	35,875	14	5
Mr Chefter	140,372	15	6	10,000	130,372	15	6
Sir W. Chapman	39,161	6	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	10,000	29,161	6	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mr Child	52,437	19	1	10,000	42,437	19	1
Mr Delaport	17,151	4	6	10,000	7,151	4	6
Mr Edmonson	5,365	—	—	3,000	2,365	—	—
Mr Eyles	34,326	16	7	20,000	14,326	16	7
Mr Gibbon	106,543	5	6	10,000	96,543	5	6
Mr Gore	38,936	15	5	20,000	18,936	15	5
Sir William Hammond	22,707	4	2	10,000	12,707	4	2
Mr Hawes	40,031	—	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	5,000	35,031	—	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
Mr Houlditch	39,527	10	4	5,000	34,527	10	4
Mr Horsey	19,962	5	3	10,000	9,962	5	3
Sir J. Jacobson	11,481	4	—	11,000	481	4	—
Sir The. Janssen	243,244	3	11	50,000	193,244	3	4
Mr Ingram	16,795	—	—	12,000	4,795	—	—
Sir J. Lambert	72,508	1	5	5,000	67,508	1	5
Sir Har. Masters	11,814	12	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,000	6,814	12	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mr Morley	1,869	10	3	1,800	69	10	3
Mr Page	34,817	12	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	10,000	24,817	12	3 $\frac{3}{4}$
Mr Raymond	64,373	6	3	30,000	34,373	6	3
Mr Read	117,297	16	—	10,000	107,297	16	—
Mr Reynolds	18,368	12	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	14,000	4,368	12	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mr Sawbridge	77,254	1	8	5,000	72,254	1	8
Mr Tillard	19,175	14	4	15,000	4,175	14	4
Mr Turner	881	17	6	800	81	17	6
Mr Surman	112,321	10	—	5,000	107,321	10	—
Mr Grigsby	31,687	6	—	2,000	29,687	6	—

This act for the confiscation of their estates was founded upon the following resolutions of the lords and commons, viz. 2 February, 1720, resolved by the House of Peers, That the South-Sea directors declaring 30 per cent. dividend for the half year ending at Christmas, and 50 per cent. per ann. for 12 years after, was a villainous artifice, to defraud and delude his Majesty's good subjects.

16 February, 1720,

The secret committee of the House of Commons made their report, from whence it appeared that the following portions of South-Sea stock were taken in for the several persons following, viz.

		l.
For the earl of Sunderland, first lord of the treasury, at the request of James Craggs, sen. Esq.	50,000	
For the duchess of Kendall	10,000	
For the countess of P.	10,000	
For the two nieces of the duchess of Kendall	10,000	
For Mr Craggs senior	30,000	
For Charles Stanhope, Esq.	10,000	
For the Swordblade company	20,000	

It appeared also, that Mr Aislaby, chancellor of the Exchequer, had great quantities of the South-Sea stock given him, and that a great deal more had been taken in by the members of both Houses of Parliament.

18 February, 1720,

Resolved, That the setting the stock to sale by subscriptions, at high prices, above the intrinsic value, by the directors, was a gross and notorious fraud, and one great cause of the sinking the public credit, and bringing upon the nation the distress it at present labours under.

Resolved, That the advising the late directors to set the stock to sale by subscriptions, at high and extravagant dividends above said, by any persons in the administration, was a notorious breach of the trust reposed in them, to the prejudice of his Majesty's government, and the interest of the kingdom.

20 February,

Resolved, That the taking in, or holding of stock, by the South-Sea company, for the benefit of a member of parliament, or person in the administration, while the company's proposals, or bill, was depending, without a valuable consideration, or security, for the acceptance, or payment, for such stock; and the company's paying, or allowing, such persons the difference arising by the advanced price of the stocks, were corrupt, infamous, and dangerous practices, highly reflecting on the honour and justice of parliament, and destructive of the interest of his Majesty's government.

The

The Commons taking into their consideration that part of the report of the secret committee which related to John Aislable, Esq; a member of that House, Mr Aislable was heard in his defence; and it being plainly proved that he had caused a book of accounts between him and Mr Hawes to be burned, and given him a discharge for the ballance, amounting to 840,000 l. it was resolved nemine contradicente (among other things) That the said John Aislable had encouraged and promoted the dangerous and destructive execution of the late South-Sea scheme, with a view to his own exorbitant profit, and had combined with the late directors of the South-Sea company in their pernicious practices, to the detriment of great numbers of his Majesty's subjects, and the ruin of the public credit, and the trade of this kingdom. They resolved; also, That he should be expelled the House, and committed to the Tower, and a bill brought in for restraining him from going out of the kingdom, and from alienating his estate, as was done in case of the directors.

R E M A R K S:

The opposers of the South-Sea scheme suggested, That the confiscation of the directors estates by the legislature was far from being unjust; nay, it is affirmed, that such indulgence never was shewn before to people in their circumstances; for though it should be admitted that they were the proprietors of the sinking fund, that they put the debt of the nation in a way of being paid, and rendered those annuities redeemable which before were irredeemable, yet it was done by such methods as ought never to be countenanced or encouraged. Had they not given out that they were able to make such high dividends, the annuitants had never been drawn in to subscribe their annuities, and others to purchase stocks at those advanced rates. There is no doubt but the company had great advantages by the public debts being subscribed, and by the high price at which their stocks were purchased; but what was the company's gain, was the loss of thousands and ten thousands; nor does the competition of the bank at all excuse the rashness of the South-Sea company, in bidding so vast a sum for the scheme as they were conscious could never be paid, by any gains the company could fairly make. They had, it is true, improved their original stock, by taking in the debts; the bank saw it, and would have been glad to have engrossed those debts, for the very same reason the company was so fond of them: but one would think both the one and the other infatuated, as well as the people, to bid so many millions as they did for the execution of the scheme.

There is no doubt but the seeing these great bodies bidding against each other, did contribute to the advancing the price of stock; and if it should be admitted that the bank had their share in abusing the people, and inducing them to part with their fortunes, to purchase what had no existence in nature, it is not to be conceived how this step of the bank can excuse the South-Sea company, who led the way to all these extravagancies: and can it be supposed that the proprietors of the long annuities could ever have been prevailed on to subscribe them, or other people to have given 3 or 400 l. for 100 l. stock, if they had not been assured by the directors it was worth so much, and that they could make dividends in proportion to these prices?

The merit, therefore, of procuring the annuities to be subscribed, which before were irredeemable, by giving out that their stock was worth more than it really was (say the adversaries of the scheme) was no more than the merit of a sharper; for, had not the annuitants been deceived in the value, they never would have subscribed, and, though the bringing them in might lessen the national debt, and be a very great advantage to the company, yet, as it was accomplished by deceitful arts, has very little merit in it, the government may be very little gainers by the scheme, as well as the proprietors of the original stock: but if this gain has arisen from the losses innocent people have sustained, who confided in the veracity and probity of the directors, and who depended upon it that the stock was of the value they set upon it, what excuse they can make for their conduct, it is not easy to say. That there has been only a revolution of mens private estates and fortunes, and that what one has lost another has gained, may be true; but the question is, by what means the losers were induced to part with their fortunes, and beggar their families? Whether the annuitants were not deceived in the value of stock when they subscribed, by the directors setting a high price upon it, and assuring them they could divide 20, 30, nay 50 per cent? What satisfaction is it to a man, that he was tricked into a disadvantageous contract, and not forced into it? How is public credit supported better the one way than the other?

As to the trade to the Spanish West-Indies, by the South-Sea company, though it appeared at first view very beneficial, inasmuch as they exported the manufactures of Great-Britain, and received treasure (chiefly) in return; yet this (it is said) was done with as great advantage formerly, by the way of Cadiz and the flota; and that the fraudulent practices of the company's agents in America have been one principal occasion of the ill usage we have met with on that side for many years past.

The establishing a fishery, which was another grand motive for erecting the South-Sea company, has been no less neglected than traffic: they employed 24 ships, indeed, for some years, but their agents and officers managed so ill, that they brought the company greatly in debt upon that article; whereupon they laid it down, though it be one of the most beneficial fisheries the Dutch are engaged in. Those who have their fortunes in South-Sea stock, content themselves, at present, with the revenues arising from the funds settled upon them; and some of the most wealthy of the proprietors, find means to increase their fortunes by stock-jobbing. They seem to have perfectly forgot the original design of their institution; namely, their sending colonies to South-America, and putting in for a share in the rich traffic of the South-Seas, which has been hitherto monopolized by the Spaniards, which might have been prevented, if this company had exerted themselves in commerce, instead of being made the tools of men in power, who made a sacrifice of the directors to save themselves. For this really appears to be the case, upon an impartial review of this extraordinary affair; and which might be made very apparent from some anecdotes now before me, which may one day see the light in another shape, since I have not room for them here.

True it is, that many of the most judicious and experienced in commercial affairs, looked upon the South-Sea company, considered as an institution for carrying on a trade to the SPANISH INDIES, as a romantic and chimerical project, and ruinous, rather than beneficial, to the national traffic, though the projector of it was cried up by his flatterers, as a person of uncommon genius; as a person remarkable for his learning, experience, and great sagacity in public business.---This seems to be apparent, from the preamble of the act for erecting this company, which is as follows.

‘Whereas it is of the greatest consequence to the honour and welfare of this kingdom, and for the increase of the strength and riches thereof, and for the vending the product and manufactures, goods and merchandizes of, or brought into, this kingdom, and employment of the poor, that a trade should be carried on to the SOUTH-SEAS; and other parts in AMERICA, within the limits herein after mentioned; which cannot be so securely carried on, as by a corporation with a joint stock, EXCLUSIVE OF ALL OTHERS: now, for the better encouragement of all and every the person or persons, who shall be or become members of the said company or corporation, to be erected as aforesaid; and to the end and intent that a trade to the South-Seas, and other parts of America, within the limits* herein after mentioned, may be carried on and promoted for the advantage and honour of this kingdom; be it enacted, &c.’

* What the nation was to expect from the stupendous trade that was pretended to be carried on by this company, may be seen in a treatise published in the year 1711, intitled, A View of the Coasts, Countries, and Islands, within the Limits of the South-Sea Company, &c.

It is plain here, that the company by its first institution was to have an exclusive trade, and that our people of Jamaica, by this very act, are deprived of the trade to the South-Sea, which was to the great advantage of themselves and the whole nation: so that this act for erecting this exclusive company of traders, deprived the nation of a very beneficial commerce. And, therefore, whatever might be the gain of the company, it could not be all profit to the nation; only so much could be esteemed the gain of the nation, as the gain of the company exceeded that of the Jamaica merchants.

But what the company's gain has been, and what the loss of the Jamaica merchants has really been, is notorious enough not to need animadversion. Nor does it appear, that the company could hope for any profit by this exclusive trade. They were to build FORTS and CASTLES in the SOUTH-SEA, for their security in countries already settled by our enemies, at such a charge, and at such a distance from this kingdom. They might, perhaps, as well have thought of building castles in the air: for this reason, therefore, we might well be allowed to esteem this project as romantic and chimerical. It was giving up the certain profit of the JAMAICA trade, to that imaginary one of a company, which was so far from having any prospect of advantage by it, that they were in a fair way of losing stock and block.

It is true, the Jamaica traders were not excluded; but only from Buenos Ayres, southwards, and from the South-Sea; they had still left the places in the Atlantic Ocean for themselves. But the profit they annually introduced from the South-Sea was considerable, and the company's act gave it up for nothing.

This was the case of the South-Sea project, 'till the peace was made, and 'till the Asiento contract made an alteration.

By this the Jamaica traders were entirely excluded from the Spanish Indies, and the company's castles in the air were turned into an obligation, to sell the Spaniards 4,800 negroes per annum, and a permission to send 500 tons of goods to Porto-Bello; but this, instead of turning to any account to the company, was so managed, as not only to be detrimental to them,

them, but highly injurious to the nation, by giving such umbrage to the court of Spain, as contributed to occasion a misunderstanding between Great-Britain and Spain for many years past; and which were not terminated in regard to the company, 'till the treaty concluded and signed at Madrid, the 5th of October, N. S. 1750, as we shall presently see.

But this Assiento contract, however beneficial it might have been rendered, both to the nation and the company, was, by mismanagement, somehow, in carrying into execution, rendered quite otherwise; it was, for many years, like the dog in the manger, it neither traded itself, nor would suffer those that would have done so in the like branch.

The act for erecting the South-Sea company deprived Jamaica of trading to the South-Sea; but the Assiento contract shut them out of the Spanish Indies; yet their returns of gold and silver from the Spanish Indies, in exchange for negroes and other merchandizes, were only 2 or 300,000*l.* per annum. Let the Spaniards have deprived us of this trade; but was it fit for ourselves to give it up?

Thus there was no prospect of the company's trading under this contract, as the stipulations of it were contrived, or getting any thing by it if they did. Could their goods, that were often kept three years in the king of Spain's warehouses, and under his own lock and key, and in so hot a climate, be brought, in the general, to a good market? Or did not one half of them often perish? Could the Assientists hope for profit from their negroes, that were to pay a heavy load of duties to the king? A treaty could scarce have been contrived of so little benefit to the nation; and yet of this kind one might have been so devised, as to have proved greatly beneficial to the kingdom, as well as to the company, if it had been wisely and honourably executed.

One would have thought, that after these pompous declarations, which we have seen in the preamble to the South-Sea act, some attempt should have been made to accomplish so great a design: but so far from it, that soon after, and without the least TRIAL, they gave up their pretensions of trading to the South-Seas, or in any other manner, than was stipulated by the Assiento contract. Thus, by accepting of the Assiento, they excluded themselves from trading to the South-Seas; and, by the act for incorporating the South-Sea company, all the rest of the subjects of Great-Britain were forbid trading within their limits.—This is the more remarkable, since neither the Dutch nor French, nor any other nation, restrained their subjects from trading to those parts; nor did they neglect to carry on a trade thither, with great profit to themselves; whilst those of Great-Britain, by means of the South-Sea company, were denied that*.

* Quere, Whether Great-Britain has not the same liberty of trading to the South-Seas, as they had before the South-Sea company was established as a trading corporation, although that company no longer exists as such?

Had the South-Sea company put their original plan in execution, with vigour and honour, it would, indeed, have been a benefit to the kingdom, if not to the proprietors of the stock, by the increase of our exports and navigators; but the sending an annual ship, under such limitations as was done, though a new method of trade, was so far from being a benefit in point of trade, that it certainly lessened our exports, and consequently the trade of the kingdom, on a general balance with the Spanish nation. Cadiz, Seville, Port St Mary's, &c. were, before this trading company was established, the places where the merchants, trading to the Indies, informed themselves what species and quantities of goods were shipped off from time to time; but, on the sending of the annual ships, they were under such uncertainties, that they really declined dealing in our manufactures by these channels; which gradually and insensibly gave our rivals in this trade an open opportunity to establish houses of trade at these ports, and by exercising the trade to the Spanish Indies, in a way the most agreeable to the court of Spain, have greatly supplanted us in this once most inestimable branch of our commerce: and this may, in a great measure, be ascribed to the South-Sea company's method of exercising their contract; for although we apprehend, that an Assiento under different stipulations, and fairly and honourably carried into execution, might have proved beneficial, both to the nation and the company; yet, as that we had was conditioned and exercised, it had quite contrary effects.

Thus we find, that the manner of the South-Sea company's exercising their trade*, was so far from being a benefit to the nation, by an increase of our exports and navigation, that it has been manifestly instrumental to lessen them, and has only turned trade out of its former channel, which was before beneficial to great numbers of merchants and tradesmen, as well as to the nation.

* What is here chiefly meant by the South-Sea company's exercising of their trade, is that illicit trade with which they were charged some years since by the court of Spain.

If the annual ship, all things considered, was of no advantage to Great-Britain, the company's trade, in general, must cer-

tainly have been of damage to it, and a considerable loss to the proprietors; for the Assiento, for negroes only, was allowed, even by the Spaniards, to be a losing contract; and it was on that express consideration, that the king of Spain granted the South-Sea company the liberty of sending an annual ship, of 500 tons, to the West-Indies. If then the one was a certain loss, and the other of no advantage, at least not an equivalent, or preferable to the national trade which we had before, they were nothing more than amusements, and ought to be thrown up, as tending to the prejudice of the proprietors, and the nation in general.

If the commerce of Great-Britain to Spanish America has been interrupted; and turned out of its course for some years, by means of this company, it is no little trouble to ascertain the real loss the nation has thereby sustained, besides the disadvantages which the nation has many years laboured under, through the misunderstandings and heartburnings between this kingdom and Spain. And, as the judicious Mr. Locke observes, 'When trade is once lost, it will be too late, by a mis-timed care, easily to retrieve it again; for the currents of trade, like those of waters, make themselves CHANNELS, out of which they are afterwards as hard to be diverted, as rivers that have worn themselves deep within their banks.'—This is what has been urged in general against the South-Sea company, as a trading corporation.—Wherefore, the court of England, we may presume, experiencing for a series of years, that the court of Spain was greatly irritated with the South-Sea company's conduct, and the court of England having no less reason, perhaps, to be displeased with the South-Sea company for their non-compliance with the terms of the late convention between Great-Britain and Spain, which might have prevented the late war: upon these considerations, we apprehend, it seems probable, that the two courts were determined, by the following treaty, to put an end to the trade of this company.

A Treaty concluded and signed at Madrid, on the 5th of October, N. S. 1750.

'Whereas by the 16th article of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, it has been agreed between their Britannic and Catholic Majesties, that the treaty of the ASSIENTO for the commerce of negroes, [see the article ASSIENTO] and the article of the ANNUAL SHIP, for the four years of non-enjoyment, should be confirmed to Great-Britain upon the same foot, and upon the same conditions, as they ought to have been executed before the late war: and the respective ambassadors of their said Majesties having agreed, by a declaration signed between them, on the $\frac{23}{24}$ June 1748, to regulate, at a proper time and place, by a negociation between ministers named on each side for that purpose, the equivalent which Spain should give in consideration of the non-enjoyment of the years of the said Assiento of negroes, and of the annual ship granted to Great-Britain, by the 10th article of the preliminaries signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the $\frac{1}{2}$ April 1748.

Their Britannic and Catholic Majesties, in order to fulfil the said engagements of their respective ministers, and to strengthen and perfect, more and more, a solid and lasting harmony between the two crowns, have agreed to make the present particular treaty between themselves, without the intervention or participation of any third power; so that each of the contracting parties acquires, by virtue of the cessions which that party makes, a right of compensation from the other reciprocally: and they have named their ministers plenipotentiaries for that purpose, viz. his Britannic Majesty, Benjamin Keene, Esq; his minister plenipotentiary to his Catholic Majesty; and his Catholic Majesty, Don Joseph de Carvajal and Lancaster, minister of state, and Dean of his council of state, who, after having examined the points in question, have agreed on the following articles.

ARTICLE I.

His Britannic Majesty yields to his Catholic Majesty, his right to the enjoyment of the Assiento of negroes, and the annual ship, during the four years stipulated by the 16th article of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

ARTICLE II.

His Britannic Majesty, in consideration of a compensation of one hundred thousand pounds sterling, which his Catholic Majesty promises and engages to cause to be paid, either at Madrid or London, to the royal Assiento company, within the term of three months at latest, to be reckoned from the day of the signing of this treaty, yields to his Catholic Majesty all that may be due to the company for balance of accounts, or rising in any manner whatsoever from the said Assiento; so that the said compensation shall be esteemed and looked upon as a FULL and ENTIRE SATISFACTION on the part of his Catholic Majesty, and shall extinguish from this present time, for the future, and for ever, all right, pretension, or demand, which might be formed in consequence of the said Assiento, or annual ship, directly or indirectly, on

on the part of his Britannic Majesty, or on that of the said company.

ARTICLE III.

The Catholic king yields to his Britannic majesty, all his pretensions or demands in consequence of the said Affiento and annual ship, as well with regard to the articles already liquidated, as to those which may be easy or difficult to liquidate; so that no mention can ever be made of them hereafter on either side.

ARTICLE IV.

His Catholic Majesty consents, that the British subjects shall not be bound to pay higher, or other duties, or upon other evaluations for goods which they shall carry into, or out of the different ports of his Catholic Majesty, than those paid on the same goods in the time of Charles II. king of Spain, settled by the CEDULAS and ORDONNANCES of that king, or those of his predecessors. And although the favour or allowance called Pie del Fardo be not founded upon any royal ordonnance, nevertheless his Catholic Majesty declares, wills, and ordains, that it shall be observed now, and for the future, as an inviolable law; and all the abovementioned duties shall be exacted and levied, now and for the future, with the same advantages and favours to the said subjects.

ARTICLE V.

His Catholic Majesty allows the said subjects to take and gather salt in the island of Tortudos, without any hindrance whatsoever, as they did in the time of the said king Charles II.

ARTICLE VI.

His Catholic Majesty consents, that the said subjects shall not pay any where, higher or other duties than those which his Catholic Majesty's subjects pay in the same place.

ARTICLE VII.

His Catholic Majesty grants, that the said subjects shall enjoy all the rights, privileges, franchises, exemptions, and immunities whatsoever, which they enjoyed before the last war, by virtue of cedula or royal ordonnances, and by the articles of the treaty of peace and commerce, made at Madrid in 1667; [see the article SPAIN] and the said subjects shall be treated in Spain, in the same manner as the most favoured nation, and consequently, no nation shall pay less duties upon wool, and other merchandizes, which they shall bring into, or carry out of Spain by land, than the said subjects shall pay upon the same merchandizes, which they shall bring in, or carry out by sea. And all the rights, privileges, franchises, exemptions, and immunities, which shall be granted or permitted to any nation whatever, shall also be granted and permitted to the said subjects; and his Britannic Majesty consents, that the same be granted and permitted to the subjects of Spain in his Britannic Majesty's kingdoms.

ARTICLE VIII.

His Catholic Majesty promises to use all possible endeavours, on his part, to abolish all innovations which may have been introduced into commerce, and to have them forborne for the future; his Britannic Majesty likewise promises to use all possible endeavours to abolish all innovations, and to forbear them for the future.

ARTICLE IX.

Their Britannic and Catholic Majesties confirm, by the present treaty, the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and all the other treaties, therein confirmed, in all their articles and clauses, excepting those which have been derogated from by the present treaty: as likewise the treaty of commerce concluded at Utrecht in 1713, those articles excepted, which are contrary to the present treaty, which shall be abolished and of no force, and namely, the three articles of the said treaty of Utrecht, commonly called explanatory.

ARTICLE X.

All the reciprocal differences rights, demands, and pretensions, which may have subsisted between the two crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, in which no other nation whatever has any part, interest, or right of intervention, being thus accommodated and extinguished by this particular treaty; the two most serene kings, engage themselves mutually to the punctual execution of this treaty of reciprocal compensation, which shall be approved and ratified by their said Majesties, and the ratifications exchanged, in the term of six weeks, to be reckoned from the day of its signing, or sooner if it can be done.

In witness whereof, we the above-mentioned ministers plenipotentiaries, that is to say, Benjamin Keene, Esq; in the name of his Britannic Majesty; and Don Joseph de Carvajal and Lancaster, in the name of his Catholic Majesty, by virtue of our full powers, which we have mutually communi-

cated to each other, have signed these presents, and have caused the seals of our arms to be put thereto. Done at Madrid, the 5th of October 1750, N. S.

(L. S.) JOSEPH DE CARVAJAL
Y LANCASTER.

(L. S.) B. KEENE.

His BRITANNIC MAJESTY's ratification.

George the second, by the grace of God, king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, duke of Brunswic and Lunenburg, arch-treasurer of the holy Roman empire, and prince elector, &c. To all and singular to whom these presents shall come, greeting: Whereas a certain treaty between us and our good brother Ferdinand VI. Catholic king of Spain and the Indies, was concluded and signed at Madrid, the 5th day of October last past, N. S. by ministers plenipotentiaries, sufficiently empowered with orders and authority on each side, in the form and words following.

[Fiat insertio.]

We having considered the above written treaty, have approved, ratified, and confirmed the same, in all and singular its clauses, as by these presents we do approve, ratify, and confirm the same, for us, our heirs and successors, engaging and promising, on our royal word, sacredly and inviolably to perform and observe all and singular its contents; and never to suffer, as far as in us lies, any person to violate the same, or in any manner to act contrary thereto. In witness whereof, we have caused our great seal of Great Britain to be affixed to these presents, signed with our royal hand. Given at our palace at St James's, the 5th day of November, in the year of our Lord 1750, and of our reign the twenty-fourth.

GEORGE R.

His CATHOLIC MAJESTY's ratification.

Don Ferdinand, by the grace of God, king of Castille, of Leon, of Arragon, of the Two Sicilies, of Jerusalem, of Navarre, of Granada, of Toledo, of Valentia, of Galicia, of Majorca, of Seville, of Sardinia, of Cordova, of Corfica, of Murcia, of Jaen, of the Algarves, of Algeira, of Gibraltar, of the Canary Islands, of the East and West-Indies, islands and Terra Firma, of the Ocean Sea, archduke of Austria, duke of Burgundy, of Brabant, and of Milan, count of Absburg, of Flanders, of Tyrol, and of Barcelona, lord of Biscay, and of Molina, &c. Whereas there having been agreed on and signed at Madrid, on the fifth day of October of this instant year, by Don Joseph de Carvajal and Lancaster, knight of the most illustrious order of the Golden Fleece, my gentleman of the bed-chamber in ordinary, my minister of state, and dean of this council, governor of the supreme council of the Indies, president of the committee of commerce and money, and superintendent-general of the posts and mails within Spain, as well those that go out of Spain or come from abroad; and Benjamin Keene, Esq; minister plenipotentiary from the most potent king of Great-Britain to my royal person, by virtue of the full powers that have been given to them by me, and by the said most serene king, a treaty upon the equivalent that Spain is to give in consideration of the four years of the Affiento contract for negroes, and of the grant of the annual ship that Great-Britain has not enjoyed on account of the last war, and about all the differences that did subsist between our two crowns. The said treaty is actually as follows:

[Fiat insertio.]

Therefore, after having seen and examined the said treaty, I have thought proper to approve of and ratify the same; as by virtue of the present I do approve of and ratify the same, in the best and most ample manner I can, promising, in faith of my royal word, to fulfil it entirely in the manner as it is therein contained and expressed: to this end I have ordered the present to be dispatched, which is signed with my hand, sealed with my privy-seal, and countersigned by my under-written counsellor of state and secretary of the universal dispatch of war, of Indies, marine, and of the revenues. Given at Buen Retiro on the 5th day of December, one thousand seven hundred and fifty.

(L. S.) I THE KING.

CENON DE SOMODEVILLA.

SPAIN is situate on the most western part of all the continent of Europe, and is encompassed on every side by the sea, except on the side of France, from which it is separated by a continued ridge of mountains called the Pyrennees. On the east and south it is bounded by the Mediterranean, the Straights of Gibraltar, and part of the Atlantic Ocean; on the west by the same ocean; and on the north by the sea called the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrennees. Its site is in the temperate zone, between the 36th and 44th degrees of north latitude, and consequently under the sixth, seventh, and eighth

eight climates; and in length it extends itself from the 10th degree of west to the third degree of east longitude, that is, 13 degrees from east to west, and nine degrees from north to south.

This kingdom is divided into fourteen provinces, viz.

- | | | |
|--------------|------------------|------------------|
| 1. Galicia, | 6. Catalonia, | 11. Estramadura, |
| 2. Asturias, | 7. Valencia, | 12. Andalusia, |
| 3. Biscay, | 8. New Castille, | 13. Granada, |
| 4. Navarre, | 9. Old Castille, | 14. Murcia. |
| 5. Arragon, | 10. Leon, | |

The soil of Spain has been misrepresented as dry and barren by several writers, who appear to have had no knowledge of it. We may even affirm, that its most mountainous and barren parts do produce something for use. Some are covered with stately trees of several sorts, either for timber or fuel. The rocky parts abound with wild thyme, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which serve to feed a vast number of sheep, goats, &c. and give their milks and flesh a more exquisite relish than any that is fed on the richest pastures; and if these happen to be scorched with too much heat in summer, the cattle are driven down to the sides of the hills, where they find plenty of those herbs, and meadow grounds well watered by the great number of rivers with which the country abounds; so that at the worst they never want a sufficient quantity of herbage to supply their numerous flocks. Other mountainous and rocky lands produce quantities of a famed plant called by them *esparto*, of which they make all kinds of ropes and other cordage.

The Spanish wheat is inferior to none, if not the very best in Europe, and the common product of it more than the natives can consume. Barley is here very good, and in such plenty, that it is the common grain for their horses and mules, instead of oats, which are here very scarce; and the straw of it serves them likewise instead of hay, of which they make hardly any through the kingdom.

Wine they likewise have in such abundance, that the poorest people drink it; and as to its goodness and the great variety of it, we need say the less, as most men are sufficiently acquainted with the various sorts of it; such as the Malaga, Sherry, Galicia, Alicante, Barcelona, and much greater number of others, which seldom, if ever, come among us, though nothing inferior to those above named.

As for fruits, they not only have the different sorts in much higher perfection, which either naturally grow, or which we cultivate with so much pains here in England, but likewise many others, which, with all our art, cannot be brought by us to any tolerable ripeness, and with which we are more easily supplied from them; such as citrons, lemons, oranges, almonds, raisins, prunes, olives, dates, figs, chestnuts, pomegranates, capers, and a multitude of others too tedious to enumerate. The same may be said of their herbs, flowers, and medicinal plants, which, though excellent in their kinds, yet grow most of them wild here, when in other places they could not be produced without great art and industry.

Their oil, wax, and honey, are allowed to be as good as any in the world. Few countries exceed this for plenty, goodness and variety of fowl, both wild and tame. Of four footed game, as deer, both red and fallow, hares, rabbits, and particularly wild boars. As for their tame swine, all that have had experience of it, allow that the Spanish bacon exceeds even that of Westphalia. Their sheep are most exquisite in taste, but they are still more valuable for their incomparable wool, which all their neighbours, and nobody more than our clothworkers, can testify to exceed any in Europe. Above all, we must not forget their horses, greatly famed for their exceeding celerity, those especially that are bred in large quantities in Estramadura, and parts adjacent, are reckoned the finest and swiftest. Other provinces breed, indeed, great quantities of them, and equally serviceable, but neither so beautiful nor of so great value. The Spaniards were, from the earliest ages, very curious in their breeding of good horses, and very dextrous in the use and management of them, especially in the field. As for the other services of that useful creature, such as carrying, drawing, plowing, &c. they have here their mules in great quantities, which seem much more fitted by nature for such drudgery, as well as for going over the most craggy and mountainous parts of the country; being both larger, stronger, and surer footed, than the horses, though nothing so swift. Many of them are 16, and some even 17 hands high, and carry very heavy burthens over such rocky parts, and with such ease and steadiness, as is quite astonishing to those who are not accustomed to them.

The silken manufacture is here so encouraged, that we are told, above a million of people are employed in feeding, gathering, and curing silk-worms, and in spinning, weaving, and making all kinds of silks, such as satin, damask, tabby, velvets, shags, and many other sorts. The same may be said of their cotton, hemp, and flax, which likewise grow here in large quantities, and employ a proportionable number of hands; not to mention their scarlet dye, saffron, sugar, pitch, rosin, and other commodities, that grow above ground.

If we dive into the bowels of the earth, we shall find gold, silver, quicksilver, which latter they send in large quantities,

into the West-Indies, their lead, copper, and excellent iron, the best of which is dug from the mountains of Biscay, and is sent all over Europe, as exceeding any other in goodness; they have great plenty of sulphur, allum, calamine, and other minerals; as likewise of jett, agate, cornelian, granates, crystal, marble, alabaster, jasper, and other stones. With relation to their gold mines, it must be owned that they have quite neglected them ever since they have been able to draw such immense quantities of that metal from America. But anciently they had it in as great plenty, or much greater plenty, out of their own.

The healthfulness of this country may be gathered, not only from its excellent situation and serene sky, but likewise from the stoutness and longevity of its ancient inhabitants, whilst they gave themselves up to a habit of exercise and temperance; in which last they always did, and do still excel all the other nations in Europe.

Having thus far run through all that need be said in general concerning this country, we shall now take a view of it, with respect to each of its particular kingdoms and provinces, in the same order as we have before ranged them.

The kingdom of GALICIA is washed on the west by the Ocean, on the north by the Cantabrian Sea or Bay of Biscay, on the east it borders upon Asturias and Leon, and on the south upon Portugal, from which it is parted next the sea by the river Minho.

This small kingdom produces wheat, millet, all kinds of herbs, plenty of cattle, especially hogs, whose bacon far exceeds that of Westphalia, strong mules, good horses, though not large; but it is most famed for its noble wines, particularly that of Ribadavia. They have plenty of ring and of timber for building houses and ships. They have likewise quarries of fine marble, and some flax is here produced, with which they make a pretty good sort of linen.

CORUNNA, a famed ancient sea port town on the Cantabrian Sea, or Bay of Biscay, called by our seamen the Groin. It is by its situation well fenced against the winds, and against the enemy by two strong castles. It stands between the two famed promontories of Finisterre and Ortegal, and is wealthy, being a place of considerable trade.

The principality of ASTURIAS. This principality lies on the north side, along the Bay of Biscay, borders on the west on Galicia; on the south it is divided from Castille and Leon by a ridge of mountains, called the Asturian Mountains, since they are the boundaries between that and those two provinces. On the coasts it reaches to the port Llanes, now Santillana, where it joins a narrow slip of land belonging to Old Castille, which runs into the sea between Asturias and Biscay. The whole length of Asturias is about 135 miles, and 60 in breadth. It is generally divided into two parts or districts, the one called Asturias de Oviedo, and the other of Santillana. But it is farther subdivided into seven merindades, or liberties, besides a little province called Liebana.

This little province of LIEBANA is about 27 miles long, and 12 broad. It is one of the most craggy and mountainous parts of Spain, excessive high, and almost inaccessible. These mountains are called Europa, and are in full front of the sea, and produce plenty of corn, wine, fruit, cattle, and game.

The lordship of BISCAY. Biscay, as generally taken, is divided into three provinces, viz. Biscay properly so called, Guipuscoa, and Alaba or Alava. The whole is bounded on the west by that slip of Old Castille which reaches to the sea, and, as was hinted under the last article, parts Asturias from Biscay on the south. The ridge of mountains formerly mentioned as branching from the Pyrennees, parts it from Old Castille on the south-east, as the same mountains part it again from Navarre, and the river Cidaro from France on the east, and all the north side is washed by the Cantabrian Sea, called commonly the Bay of Biscay.

The country is mountainous and barren, producing neither wheat, barley, wine, nor oil, but abundance of millet-seed and fruit, which make cyder in plenty. Some flax is likewise produced in their vallies, and abundance of timber for shipping on the hills. But their greatest treasure lies in their inexhaustible mines of iron, which is reckoned the best in the world, and is transported thence into all parts. Here are whole towns of smiths, that carry on the smithery manufactory, and make all sorts of iron-work, especially swords and fire-arms, very elegant and in great quantities. There is likewise a great deal of wool shipped off from their sea-ports into foreign parts, but most of it is brought hither from Old Castille. Some, however, they have here, but as it is neither so fine, nor in any quantity, they manufacture it wholly for their own use.

BISCAY, properly so called, borders on the west upon that slip of Old Castille which extends itself to the sea, on the south upon Castille, and part of Alava eastward upon Guipuscoa, and has the Bay of Biscay on the north.

BILBOA, though no city, is now the capital of Biscay, it being a place of great trade, by reason it has a good port, small vessels coming up to the mole, and others of greater bulk lying farther out. The greatest export here is of their fine wool and exquisite iron, most of the latter in bars; though great quantities of that wrought metal also are shipped off, such as swords,

swords, fire-arms, horse-shoes, and other such-like military necessities. The town stands six miles distant from the sea on the river Ibaichaval.

GUIPUSCOA follows next, as it runs along the same coasts of the northern Sea or Bay. It borders westward upon Biscay Proper and part of Alava, southward on Alava and Navarre, and eastward on Navarre and France.

ST SEBASTIAN, a noted port on the Bay of Biscay, nine miles from Fuentarabia, and almost inclosed with rivers, which fall into the sea in the neighbourhood of it, particularly that which they call the Branco. The mole will receive two hundred ships.

ALAVA borders westward on Biscay and Old Castille, southward on Castille hill, eastward on Navarre, and northward on Guipuscoa and Biscay.

The kingdom of **NAVARRÉ**. This country is divided from France on the north by the Pyrennees, which also cut it into two parts, distinguished into Upper and Lower; the former, much the larger, and on the Spanish side, is the kingdom we are now to speak of; the other beyond these mountains is by much the smaller, and belongs to France. This we are now upon, borders upon Biscay and Old Castille on the west, on Castille and Arragon on the south; and eastward upon Arragon. Its length is about ninety miles from north to south, and about eighty in breadth from east to west.

Navarre is divided into five districts, viz. **PAMPELONA**, **TUDELA**, **ESTELA**, **OLITE**, and **SANGUESSA**, which are parted by prodigious high mountains, yet yielding good corn, and other grain, wine, oil, honey, fruits and herbs, and affording plenty of food and pasture for their cattle, besides an infinite number of fowl, both wild and tame. These mountains produce metals and minerals, and had formerly several rich mines of gold and silver, though now either exhausted or neglected. Here are likewise abundance of fine springs, hot baths, and other medicinal waters.

The kingdom of **ARRAGON**. This kingdom is bounded on the north by the Pyrennees, which divide it from France; on the west it has Navarre and New and Old Castille; on the south the kingdom of Valencia; and on the east, part of Valencia and the principality of Catalonia. The whole length from north to south is 210 miles, and its breadth between 100 and 120. The country is mountainous, but full of delightful vales, and extraordinary fertile, which produce great plenty of wheat, wine, oil, saffron, and fruits of the most delicious kind. They breed also great quantities of cattle, and abound with all sorts of fowl, both wild and tame. The mountains are said to have mines of gold, silver, and other metals, but little is made of any of them, except iron. Here are likewise very considerable rivers, and plenty of good fish: the most remarkable of the rivers is the Turio, which fertilizes a great part of the country, not by an overflow like that of the Nile, but by its slow and gentle course, which gives opportunity to the husbandmen and gardeners to cut channels from it to water their lands, inasmuch that we are told their trees will bear fruits three, and often four, times a year; and not only in great plenty, but in such variety, that they reckon no less than 400 sorts produced in this kingdom. Their orchards, gardens, and pasture-grounds, are likewise much admired for their continual verdure and fertility. In a word, Arragon is on all these accounts, as well as for the extraordinary serenity of its air, compared to Egypt. The Mediterranean helps very much to enrich the country, both by foreign traffic, and the great quantity of fish which is caught on those coasts.

SARAGOSSA, the metropolis of this kingdom, is an ancient and opulent city, seated almost in the heart of it on the bank of the Ebro, and in a fertile and delightful plain, watered with three other rivers, viz. the Xalon, Gallego, and Guerva. It lies in the 41st degree of latitude, and in $1\frac{1}{2}$ degree of west longitude. The city is of an oblong form. It is rich and populous, and carries on a great commerce, and a considerable number of trades and manufactures both within and without the walls. The country round about it is very fertile and beautiful, and produces every thing that is necessary, comfortable, and delightful; corn, wine, oil, fruits in great plenty and variety, fish and fowl of all sorts, and all chiefly owing to its excellent situation.

CATALONIA is bounded on the north by the Pyrennees, by which it is parted from the province of Roussillon in France, on the west by Arragon, and a small part of Valencia; from the first of these it is separated by the rivers Noguera and Mataruna, and a ridge of hills, and from the latter by the river Genia. On the south and east it is washed by the Mediterranean, and has many convenient sea-ports along those shores. The inland is a mixture of plains and mountains; that part next to France is the most mountainous, but farther in, it abounds with delightful and spacious plains. The climate, which reaches from 41 to 43 degrees of north latitude, and from one degree to 30 20 east longitude, is therefore neither so hot as Andalusia, nor so cold as Asturia, and the north part of Spain, being moreover sheltered on the north by the Pyrennees, and on the east by the sea. This temperature, joined to the many streams and rivers with which the country abounds, makes it exceeding

fertile and delightful. Its product, which is here in great plenty, is excellent wheat, rich wine, sweet oil, exquisite honey, delicious fruits of all sorts, abundance of cattle, swarms of fowl, wild and tame, vast quantities of deer, hares, rabbits, and all other game: good hemp, fine flax, saffron, variety of corn, and other grain, herbs, &c. a considerable quantity of silk, fine wool, fish of all sorts, and in the greatest plenty, quarries of marble, alabaster, and jasper-stone, coral taken out of the sea, salt, and many other commodities.

BARCELONA is the capital of this province, and is inferior to few in Europe that are not the courts of princes. It is pleasantly seated on the Mediterranean coasts, a little below the gulph of Lyons, and opens to the sea in a beautiful semicircle, which, together with its eminence and castle, and the beauty of its churches and other sumptuous edifices, affords a most delightful prospect to the ships that sail by or to it, especially as it stands between two considerable rivers, the Lobregat and Bezes, which pay their tribute to that sea on each side of it. The coast it stands upon is a good safe road, and the port, though rather too small, hath yet rendered it a place of great trade, especially when Indian commodities were brought from Turkey and Egypt through the Mediterranean. Its situation is on a spacious plain, at the foot of the mountain Monjuque. Its territory round is stored with all necessities for sustenance and delight, as wheat and other grain, oil, rich wines, fruits of all sorts, cattle, fowl, honey, wood, and game of all kinds.

TARTAGONA, now the second city in this province, stands commodiously situate, near the coast of the Mediterranean, on the brink of a pleasant hill, at the foot of which is a safe and convenient harbour, for small ships, between the rivers Gaya and Francoli.

The climate here is so temperate, and the soil so rich and warm, that the trees bear fruit, and blossom, in the coldest months. The territory is adorned with delightful gardens, orchards, and country-seats; the fields abound with corn, wine, oil, flax, hemp, and fruit of all sorts, in the highest perfection, with all kind of fowl and game, and of fish from the sea.

TORTOSA is situate on the bank of the Ebro, not far from the sea, and has a good bay, formed by that river, that comes up almost to the walls of it. Without the city is a most beautiful plain, 18 miles long, and 6 in breadth, watered by the Ebro, and producing corn, wine, oil, fruit, timber for shipping, great quantity of palm-trees, with cattle, fowl, game, and other necessities, besides silk in abundance, which is here made in sarfenets. Here are likewise a great many curious springs, which fertilize the plain, and supply the city with water, besides quarries of marble and jasper, one within two miles of the city, and some salt-pits.

VICQUE is pleasantly situate, in a kind of peninsula, made by the rivers Ter and Noguera, which almost encompass it. It stands 36 miles north from Barcelona, at the foot of a hill, near a fertile and delightful plain. On the mountain Mosen, about six miles from the city, are found excellent white and purple amethysts, and topazes: they are dug out of a fat, reddish, or yellowish earth, and the best sort of these last are those of the deepest violet. In the neighbouring mountains are likewise found some gold, emeralds, and other precious stones, but in so small a quantity as not to answer the searching for them.

CARDONA stands about 60 miles distant from Barcelona: near this city is a mountain of salt, which yields an annual revenue of 30,000 pieces of eight: the salt is transparent, and, when powdered, is exceeding white.

The kingdom of **VALENTIA**. This kingdom lies, on the east, along the Mediterranean coasts, facing the islands of Majorca and Ivica, except only a small part towards Catalonia, which is parted from it by the river Cenia; on the north it has the kingdom of Arragon; on the west New Castille and Murcia; and the small track of it which runs toward the south, borders upon the last-named kingdom of Murcia. The greatest length of Valentia is about 210 miles, and its greatest breadth about 48.

This whole kingdom is so delightful, as to be compared to an earthly paradise. The air here is every where so temperate, that this part enjoys a perpetual spring: the trees are always covered with verdure and blossoms, the air very serene, and the weather so moderate and pleasant, as never to be either excessively hot or cold, nor disturbed by immoderate rains; upon all which accounts it is universally allowed to be the most delightful part of Spain, and, by many, even of all the world. The surprising excellence of its soil and climate, is the cause that the whole country is filled with noblemen and gentlemen's seats, and covered with exquisite gardens, pleasant orchards, delightful groves, fertile fields, and pasture grounds; and where the land is not employed for delight, it produces immense plenty of corn, wine, oil, honey, flax, and all kind of herbage; also flowers and fruit in great variety. To all which we may add, that the sugar, rice, and silk it produces, one year with another, is reckoned to amount to three millions of pieces of eight. Here are likewise mines of gold, silver, and other metals, besides great quantity and variety

variety of precious stones, which formerly amounted to an immense value; but they are now wholly neglected. Here is also abundance of allum, the best and finest white lime, and plenty of cochineal.

The earth about Valentia, and other parts of this kingdom, is so well cultivated, that, by Mr Willoughby's confession, they generally have five crops a year, especially of mulberry-leaves for silk-worms, of wheat, and other grain, grapes, olives, maiz, or Indian wheat, and sugar-canes.

VALENTIA, the noble and ancient capital of this kingdom, is seated on the shady banks of the river Turio, over which it has five stately bridges, and stands about two miles from the sea. It lies in 39 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude, and about 15 minutes east longitude. Its distance from Madrid, the now metropolis of Spain, is about 180 miles, south-east; from Barcelona, south-west, about the same number; and south from Saragossa about 135. Its sea-port, named Grao, which stands on the Mediterranean, about a mile and a half from the city, furnishes it with every thing either for convenience or delight, the sea supplying it with an extraordinary variety of fish, the neighbouring lake of Albufera, or little sea, with great abundance of water-fowl and fresh-water fish; and the fertile country about with the greatest plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, herbs, and other provisions. It is enriched by the number of quality and gentry which live in it, by its great commerce, and the variety of manufactures that are carried on here, especially the woollen, so that the cloth that is made here is reckoned the finest in all Spain.

ALICANT is a famous city and sea-port on the Mediterranean, distant from Murcia, towards the north-east, 42 miles, 60 south from Valentia, and about 210 from Madrid. It is a place of great trade, by reason of its commodious harbour, and well known to the English, for the delicate wines and delicious fruits, which they bring from thence.

The kingdom of **NEW CASTILLE**. This country is bounded on the north by Old Castille, from which it is every way divided by mountains, which are only known by the names of the countries they run through; on the east it is parted from Estramadura, by another chain of them, called Guadalupe, and la Sarena; on the south from Andalusia, by those called Sierra Morena, and by an imaginary line from Murcia; and on the east by the river Segura, and mountains of Almanza and Requena from Valencia; and from Arragon by those of Maya, Daroka, and Molina. The length of this kingdom, from south to north, is about 180 miles, and pretty near the same in breadth, where it is widest, but its figure is irregular in the latter.

The country being all inland, and surrounded with such high mountains, which contract the sun's rays as it were into a focus, and, at the same time, suppress the free passage of the cooling sea breezes, its climate is consequently hotter in summer, and colder in winter, than those which lie along the sea-coasts, under the same latitude. It is nevertheless very healthy, and its soil generally fertile, producing abundance of wheat, and other grain, plenty of wine, oil, fruit, and herbs, feeds a great quantity of cattle, all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, and is very well supplied with variety of fish and green pasture, by the many rivers that run through it.

TOLEDO is built on a high, steep, and craggy rock, almost inaccessible on all sides, and made much more so by the course of the river Tagus, which encompasses it almost round, and over which it has two noble bridges. Here are a great number of merchants, tradesmen, and artificers, especially in the silk and woollen manufactures, which two branches alone are said to have employed near 10,000 hands. Toledo is about 36 miles distant from Madrid.

TALAVERA DE LA REYNA is delightfully seated on the river Tagus, 36 miles west from Toledo, and is much famed for its woollen manufacture of stuffs, and particularly for an extraordinary kind of fine earthen ware that is made at it.

The kingdom of **OLD CASTILLE**. Old Castille was formerly part of the Roman Tarracconensis, and borders all the way on the south to New Castille, from which it is divided by a ridge of mountains, which change their names according to the places of note they pass through, as Motina, Sigüenza, Segovia, &c. by that chain of them which is called Sierra de Tablada, and by those of Pica and Banos, from Estramadura, on the west; and by those of Avila and Perina, with the little rivers of Carrion, Pisuerga, and Heban, from Leon on the north-west. It is parted again on the north from Asturias and Biscay by another ridge of hills, branching out from the Pyrennees; only in the center, between these two provinces, it hath a narrow slip of land, which reaches quite to the bay of Biscay; lastly, on the east, the Ebro and mountains of Doea, for a considerable length, part it from Navarre and Arragon. The greatest extent of this province, from north to south, reaches from 40. 10. to 43. 15. degrees of latitude and from 1. 30. to 4. 10. degrees of west longitude; that is, about 180 miles, and near about the same number from east to west; that is, both ways taken where largest, for its figure is very irregular, and not near answerable in other parts.

The climate here differs somewhat from that of New Castille, on account of the country being more mountainous, which makes the several parts vary, according to their situation, the

vallies being excessive hot, the upper ground proportionably cold and bleak, and others, according to the proximity of the hills, send down refreshing gales, or cause a greater reflection of the sun. But, upon the whole, the soil is generally good, in some sense or other, the plains yielding plenty of all sorts of grain, fruit, wine, and other provisions, the sides of the hills good pasture for their numerous cattle, and the tops timber for building and fuel. Some of these summits are so high, that they are covered with snow all the summer, which is carried and sold to the towns, as is usual through all Spain, to cool their wine.

WALLADOLID stands on the bank of the river Pisuerga, on a pleasant rising ground, and a noble prospect all round it, as itself yields a delightful one to the beholders, from its fine situation and grand edifices.

This city is populous and opulent through not only the great number of rich and noble families who make their chief residence in it, but much more so by the large commerce, manufactures, and other inferior trades which are carried on here. The woollen manufacture is here the best and most considerable in all Spain, for here is a vast quantity of the finest wool produced, from innumerable flocks that are raised in the neighbouring plains; and the cloth that is made here is reckoned the best in all the world, and in high esteem both at home and abroad. Here are also sundry other manufactures and trades carried on, with great industry and success.

The kingdom of **LEON**. This kingdom, properly so called, is now bounded by the Asturian mountains; on the east it has Old Castille, from which it is divided by the mountains of Pernia, and the rivers Carrio and Pisuerga, as far as the Ebro, then by those of Heban and Reganno, 'till you come to the mountains Bonilla de la Sierra; on the south, the mountains of Bannos, and another ridge, divide it from Estramadura; and, on the west, the rivers of Agueda, Duero, and a chain of mountains, part it from Portugal, as does the same ridge of hills continued, from Galicia. The whole extent of Leon, from north to south, is about 120 miles, that is, from 42 to about 40, and from east to west about 90; that is, from 4. 20. to 5. 40. east longitude. The river Duero runs almost across the middle of it, leaving one half on the north, and the other on the south.

As this kingdom lies in the same climate and latitude with that of Old Castille, to which it is contiguous, and is, like it, intermingled with ridges of high hills, capacious vallies, and campaign plains, which occasion pretty near the same degrees of heat and cold, dry and moist; its soil and temperature differ very little from that, and its ground brings forth near the same productions, such as excellent wheat, and other grain, pasture and cattle, fine wines, oil, honey, fruit, game fowl, and the like. The natives are here likewise robust, hardy, laborious, brave, temperate, and lovers of learning. The mountains have also some minerals, but chiefly quarries of excellent marble, and veined alabaster, jasper-stones, and sometimes others of greater value, as turquoises, garnets, amethysts, &c.

The province of **ESTRAMADURA**. This province is divided from Portugal, or from the Portuguese Estramadura, on the west, by the rivers Elya, Caya, and some others of less note; on the north it joins on the kingdom of Leon, without any noted mountains or rivers to part them; on the east, the mountains of Banos, Pico, and Guadalupe, divide it from Old and New Castille; and on the south it is parted from Andalusia by the chain of hills called Sierra Morena. The rivers Tajo and Guadiana running through it from east to west, divide it into three parts; the most northern is that which is beyond the Tajo, the next is between that and the Guadiana, and the last is that which is south of the Guadiana. The length of the whole province, from north to south, is 150 miles, that is, from 38. to 40. 30. latitude; and in breadth, from east to west, about 120, that is, from 4. 40. to 6. 20. west longitude.

The climate, indeed, is exceeding hot, and somewhat sultry, being mostly inland, and wanting those cooling gales which the hills and the sea communicate to the adjacent provinces; but in all other respects it may justly be reckoned the pleasantest and most fertile not only in all Spain, but perhaps in the world. For an evidence of which, we need but instance in the most celebrated plains called La Vera de Plasencia, of which it might suffice to say, that several of the Ancients placed the elysian fields in it, as knowing of no place more delicious and beautiful. This noble plain is about 36 miles in length, and 10 in breadth, and so sweetly delightful, that it invites great numbers of the nobility and gentry to spend the summer in it. It hath 13 small towns, or villages, and about 5000 houses, all beautifully situated, and neat, and all the rest is either covered with the greatest variety of fruit-trees which Europe affords, or beautifully variegated and disposed into olive groves, vineyards, gardens, orchards, meadows, and fields, producing plenty of corn, flax, &c. and watered with many pleasant springs and streams, yielding besides abundance of excellent fish, especially trout. Such is, in fine, the product of this valley, that of the territory of only four inconsiderable villages, out of the 13 that are in it, the product

duct is said to have amounted, in one year, to 150 tons of oil, 550 of wine, 60,000 bushels of chefnuts, an incredible quantity of wheat, and other grain; whilst other parts of it yielded not only the like, or even larger quantities, in proportion, of the same produce, besides fruits, flax, &c. but likewise abundance of silk, wax, honey, saffron, and such like, besides pasture, and great quantities of cattle.

ANDALUSIA province is divided, on the north, from Estramadura and New Castille, by the Sierra Morena mountains; on the east from Portugal, by the river Chanca, and from Algarve by the Guadiana; on the south it has the ocean, the mouth of the Straights, and part of the Mediterranean; and along the south-east it has the kingdom of Granada.

No province in Spain exceeds this in fertility and commerce; the latter is owing to its maritime situation, and convenient harbour. The great quantity of wine and oil is so extraordinary, as to be almost beyond credit. Their cattle, also, are numberless. Fine oranges, citrons, raisins, almonds, pomegranates, and figs, are the natural growth of this province. They have great plenty of fine salt and sugar, and a celebrated breed of horses.

SEVILLE, its capital, situate on the river Guadalquivir, and in one of the most beautiful plains of Europe.—Here is an India-house, for the regulation of their West-India trade, a fine exchange, and mint.—The silk and silver stuffs are the most considerable manufactures carried on here, with those of soap and pottery-ware.—Without the city are salt-pits, and quarries of marble.—Along the river are many commodious keys, where ships of good burthen may safely lie.

CORDOVA stands on a delightful plain: besides the extraordinary fertility of its soil round about, which supplies it with plenty of fine wheat, oil, fruits, &c. it carries on a great variety of trades and manufactures; and, among the latter, the woollen and silken, of the finest kind, and that of a curious gilt leather. It is famed also for a breed of fine horses.

CADIZ is next in rank to the royal cities; it is very advantageously situated for commerce; the spaciousness of the harbour, seated upon the ocean, so near the Mediterranean, draws thither a concourse of ships and merchants, to purchase the product of Spain, and, of late years, of the West-Indies, which are now first brought hither.

XERES DE LA FRONTERA is well situate on the small river Guadaleta, about six miles from the sea. Its territory is so rich and fertile, that, besides great quantities of wheat, fruit, cattle, and other provisions, it yields 60,000 pipes of sherry yearly. It has also a good brood of horses.

EZIZA seated on the Xenil, and on a delightful plain, producing immense quantities of corn, wine, oil, silk, and cotton.

GIBRALTAR, a well-known sea-port, on the mouth of the Straights. See our article **MEDITERRANEAN**, for its consequence to Great-Britain, as being now in her possession.

BAEZA, situate about three miles from the Guadalquivir; it is remarkable for the dyeing of very fine scarlet cloth, and making of rich taffeties.

SAN LUCAR DE BARAMEDA, about 45 miles below Seville, and serves as a port to that famed city; it was much more considerable than at present, before the Spanish West-India fleets were allowed to set out from, and return to, Cadiz.

PORT ST MARY is seated on a plain, at the mouth of the Guadaleta river, and is much frequented, on account of its commodiousness.

CARMENA stands in the center of Andalusia, and has very fertile and spacious plains, which produce great plenty of all things.

LUCENA is as delightfully situated as most cities in Europe, few spots of ground producing greater plenty of delicious wine, oil, and choice provisions, than this territory does.

MOGUER, seated on the banks of the river Azige, or Tinto. Its river is remarkable for its colour, or dye, it being impregnated with some mineral, which not only gives a yellow tinge, but petrifies all the sand it runs over.—It has no other good quality, except that of curing worms in cattle.

There are in this province several towns of some note, though under the degree of cities; but as they are not remarkable for any considerable traffic, we shall pass them over in silence.

The kingdom of **GRANADA**. This kingdom is divided, on the north, from the province of Andalusia, by the mountains of Cazorla, Sierra Morena, Segura, and some others; on the east, another chain of mountains divides it from Murcia; on the south it is contiguous again to Andalusia, without any noted boundaries; and on the west it is bounded and washed by the Mediterranean. The whole length of it, from east to west, is about 210 miles; the greatest breadth exceeds not 72; and the whole circumference somewhat above 500.

This country, besides those immense quantities of corn, wine, oil, fruit, cattle, game, fish, &c. which it hath in common with the finest provinces in Spain, we have already taken notice of; here the most craggy mountains are every where covered with vines, fruit-trees in the highest perfection, and what would to some of our readers appear incredible, if not attested by so many undoubted eye-witnesses, here are bunches of grapes, that, like those of the promised land, are obliged

to be carried on a pole, between two men; and some of them, we are assured from persons of veracity, have weighed 40 pounds. Sugar is here likewise cultivated in great plenty, and that which grows here exceeds any in Spain for fineness. Silk is likewise manufactured in such quantities, and great variety, as to be sufficient to serve the whole kingdom, besides what is exported.

Those fields, hills, and other places which are reckoned the most barren, are covered with thyme, marjoram, lavender, and other aromatic herbs, which their cattle feed upon, and give their flesh a delicious and exquisite taste; laurel, myrtle, sweet basil, and other odoriferous shrubs, grow likewise here, to such height and abundance, that they make their hedges of them: so that if we consider it either with respect to its surprizing fertility and plenty of all things for food and delight, or to the admirable prospect of its hills and dales, or the fragrancy of its fruits and herbs, no country seems to approach nearer to the idea we may have of an earthly paradise than this. If we add to all these, its excellent maritime situation, number of commodious harbours and ports, and its vast exports and imports, the number and opulence of its cities, we shall easily own, that this little kingdom must have been one of the noblest and finest in all Spain.

MALAGA is an ancient city, and commodious sea-port. There is nothing but conjecture can be offered about its name; yet, considering the commodiousness of its port, its situation, both for inland and foreign commerce, we need not doubt but it was built in some of the earliest times, and, in all likelihood, passed through the hands of those trading nations which occupied successively the Mediterranean coasts, in one of the pleasantest and most convenient parts of which it stands. As the situation of this place is in a fine fertile plain, surrounded with hills, mountains, and grounds, all of them covered with vines, and the greatest variety of fruits, it may be allowed to yield one of the most beautiful prospects, both from land and sea, of any place on these coasts: and how fine their wines, raisins, almonds, figs, lemons, oranges, and other fruits are, is well known, from the great quantities of them brought hither from thence, besides the vast quantities that are exported into other parts of Europe. Its distance from Madrid is about 260 miles south, and a little to the west; 75 south-east from Seville; and about the same distance south-west from Granada.

ANTEQUERA is pleasantly seated on the banks of the Rio de la Villa, part of the town standing on a hill, and the rest on the plain.

Near this city is a famed salt-pit, three miles in length, near two in breadth, which supplies the whole territory with salt. About eight or nine miles from it is a spring, that dissolves the stone, and brings it away by urine.

This city stands about 220 leagues south from Madrid, 75 south-east from Seville, 72 south-west from Granada, and about 15 south from the sea.

The kingdom of **MURCIA** borders on the north upon New Castille; on the west it is parted from Granada and Andalusia, by the mountains of Segura, and some others, which stretch themselves into the sea, and partly by the kingdom of Valentia. Its greatest length, from north-west to south-east, is about 100 miles, and its greatest breadth, from north-east to south-west, about 70. Its latitude is from 37 degrees 30 minutes, to 38 degrees 50 minutes; and longitude 1 degree 40 minutes west.

The climate here is somewhat of the hottest; but the soil, though mountainous, is exceedingly fertile, never failing but through extreme drought, and generally yielding great plenty of wheat, barley, wine, oil, fruits, pasture, and honey, in great abundance: but what makes the chief wealth of it is, the great quantity of silk which is here made and exported, and employs the greatest number of hands.

MURCIA, the metropolis of this kingdom, is situate in a spacious and delightful plain, so very fertile, that it often yields an hundred-fold in corn, besides all other grain, wines, oil, mentioned in the general account of the product of the country. Round about this plain are planted an infinite number of mulberry-trees, with whose leaves they feed as many worms as generally make, every year, 210,000lb. weight of silk.

Murcia is computed to be distant about 200 miles south-east from Madrid, 20 north from Carthagen, and about 90 south-west from Valentia.

CARTHAGENA is seated on the side of a hill, on the Mediterranean coast, on the mouth of the river Guadalatin, and is a commodious, as well as one of the most noted sea-ports in Spain. The harbour is likewise well sheltered from storms, by a small island called Escombrada; it has good plenty of fresh water on the shore, and exports great quantity of wool for Italy. The air is so temperate in summer, and so mild in winter, that the trees are every where covered with leaves, blossoms, and fruit. Besides these productions of the earth on the surface, its bowels yield likewise amethysts, garnets, agates, and other such precious stones.

Its distance from Madrid is about 220 miles south-east, 27 south from Murcia, and 86 east from Granada.

ARTICLES of PEACE, COMMERCE, and ALLIANCE, between the CROWNS of GREAT-BRITAIN and SPAIN, concluded in a TREATY at MADRID, the $\frac{12}{3}$ day of May, in the year of our Lord God 1667.

I.

First, It is agreed and concluded, That from this day forward there shall be between the two crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, a general, good, sincere, true, firm, and perfect amity, confederation, and peace, which shall endure for ever, and be observed inviolably, as well by land as by sea and fresh waters; and also between the lands, countries, kingdoms, dominions, and territories, belonging unto, or under the obedience of either of them: and that their subjects, people, and inhabitants respectively, of what condition, degree, or quality soever, from henceforth reciprocally shall help, assist, and shew to one another all manner of love, good offices, and friendship.

II.

That neither of the said kings, nor their respective people, subjects, or inhabitants within their dominions, upon any pretence, may, in public or secret, do, or procure to be done, any thing against the other, in any place, by sea or by land, nor in the ports or rivers of the one or the other, but shall treat one another with all love and friendship; and may, by water and by land, freely and securely pass into the confines, countries, lands, kingdoms, islands, dominions, cities, towns, villages, walled, or without wall, fortified, or unfortified, their havens and ports (where hitherto trade and commerce hath been accustomed) and there trade, buy and sell, as well of and to the inhabitants of the respective places, as those of their own nation, or any other nation that shall be or come there.

III.

That the said kings of Great-Britain and Spain shall take care that their respective people and subjects, from henceforward, do abstain from all force, violence, or wrong; and if any injury shall be done by either of the said kings, or by the people or subjects of either of them, to the people or subjects of the other, against the articles of this alliance, or against common right, there shall not therefore be given letters of reprisal, marque, or counter-marque, by any of the confederates, until such time as justice is sought and followed in the ordinary course of law: but if justice be denied or delayed, then the king, whose people or inhabitants have received harm, shall ask it of the other, by whom (as is said) the justice shall have been denied or delayed, or of the commissioners that shall be, by the one king or the other, appointed to receive and hear such demands, to the end that all such differences may be compounded in friendship, or according to law. But if there should yet be a delay, or justice should not be done, nor satisfaction given within six months after having the same so demanded, then may be given letters of reprisal, marque, or counter marque.

IV.

That between the king of Great-Britain and the king of Spain, and their respective people, subjects, and inhabitants, as well upon sea, as upon land and fresh water, in all and every their kingdoms, lands, countries, dominions, confines, territories, provinces, islands, plantations, cities, villages, towns, ports, rivers, creeks, bays, streights and currents, where hitherto trade and commerce hath been accustomed, there shall be free trade and commerce, in such way and manner, that, without safe-conduct, and without general or particular licence, the people and subjects of each other may freely, as well by land, as by sea and fresh water, navigate and go into their said countries, kingdoms, dominions, and all the cities, ports, currents, bays, districts, and other places thereof, and may enter into any port with their ships, laden or empty, carriage, or carriages, wherein to bring their merchandize, and there buy and sell what and how much they please, and also at just and reasonable rates provide themselves with provisions, and other necessary things for their subsistence and voyage; and also may repair their ships and carriages, and from thence again freely depart with their ships, carriages, goods, merchandize, and estate, and return to their own countries, or to such other place as they shall think fit, without any molestation or impediment, so that they pay the duties and customs which shall be due, and saving to either side the laws and ordinances of their country.

V.

Item, It is likewise agreed, That for the merchandizes which the subjects of the king of Great-Britain shall buy in Spain, or other the kingdoms or dominions of the king of Spain, and shall carry in their own ships, or in ships hired or lent unto them, no new customs, toll, tenths, subsidies, or other rights or duties whatsoever, shall be taken or increased, other than those which, in the like case, the natives themselves, and all other strangers, are obliged to pay; and the subjects aforesaid buying, selling, and contracting for their merchandizes, as well in respect of the prices, as of all the duties to be paid, shall enjoy the same privileges which are allowed to the natural subjects

of Spain, and may buy, and lade their ships with such goods, and merchandizes; which said ships being laden, and customs paid for the goods, shall not be detained in port, upon any pretence whatsoever; nor shall the loaders, merchants, or factors, who bought and loaded the goods aforesaid, be questioned, after the departure of the said ships, for any matter or thing whatsoever concerning the same.

VI.

And to the end that the officers and ministers of all cities, towns, and villages belonging to either, may neither demand, nor take from the respective merchants and people, greater taxes, duties, stipends, recompences, gifts, or any other charges, than what ought to be taken by virtue of this treaty; and that the said merchants and people may know and understand with certainty what is ordained in all things touching this, it is agreed and concluded, That tables and lists shall be put up at the doors of the custom-houses and register of all the cities, villages, and towns of, or appertaining to, one or the other king, where such rights, and excises or customs, are usually paid; in which, how much, and of what quality, such rights, customs, subsidies, and payments either to the king's, or any of the aforesaid officers, are allowed, shall be put down in writing, declaring as well the species of what is imported, as what is carried out. And if any officer, or any other in his name, upon any pretence whatsoever, in public or secret, directly or indirectly, shall ask or receive of any merchant, or other person respectively, any sum of money, or other thing, by the name of right, due, stipend, allowance, or recompence (though it be by the way of voluntary donative) more or otherwise than aforesaid, the said officer or his deputy being in such manner guilty and convicted before a competent judge in the country where the crime is committed, shall be put in prison for three months, and shall pay thrice the value of the thing so received; of which the half shall be for the king of the country where the crime is committed, and the other half for the denunciator, for the which he may sue his right before any competent judge of the country where it shall happen.

VII.

That it shall be lawful for the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, to bring out, and carry into Spain, and all or any lands and dominions of the king of Spain (where heretofore they have used trade and commerce) and trade there with all kind of merchandize, clothes, manufactures, and things of the kingdom of Great-Britain, and the manufactures, goods, fruits, and kinds of the islands, towns, and plantations to him appertaining, and what shall have been bought by English factors on this side, or farther on the other side of the cape of Buena Esperanza, without being enforced to declare to whom, or for what price they sell their said merchandize and provisions, or being molested for the errors of the masters of ships, or others, in the entry of the goods; and at their pleasure to return again out of the dominions of the king of Spain, with all or any goods, estates, and merchandize, to any of the territories, islands, dominions, and countries of the king of England, or to any other place, paying the rights and tributes mentioned in the antecedent chapters; and the rest of all their lading which is not brought to land they may detain, keep, and carry away in their said ship or ships, vessel or vessels, again, without paying any right or imposition whatsoever for it, as if therewith they had never been within any bay or port of the Catholic king. And all the goods, estates, merchandize, ships, or other vessels, with any things introduced into the dominions or places of the crown of Great-Britain as prizes, and judged for such in the said dominions and places, shall be taken for goods and merchandize of Great-Britain, comprehended so by the intention of this article.

VIII.

That the subjects and vassals of the most serene king of Great-Britain, may bring and carry to all and singular the dominions of the king of Spain, any fruits and commodities of the East-Indies, it appearing by testimony of the deputies of the East-India company in London, that they are of, or have come from, the English conquests, plantations, or factories, with like privilege, and according to what is allowed to the subjects of the United Provinces by the royal cedulas of Contravando, bearing date the 27th of June, and the 3d of July 1663, and published on the 30th of June, and 4th of July the same year. And for what may concern both the Indies, and any other parts whatsoever, the crown of Spain doth grant to the king of Great-Britain and his subjects, all that is granted to the United States of the Low Countries and their subjects, in their treaty of Munster 1648, point for point, in as full and ample manner as if the same were herein particularly inserted, the same rules being to be observed, whereunto the subjects of the said United States are obliged, and mutual offices of friendship to be performed from one side to the other.

IX.

That the subjects of the king of Great Britain, trading, buying, and selling, in any of the kingdoms, governments, islands, ports, or territories of the said king of Spain, shall have, use, and enjoy, all the privileges and immunities, which the

the said king hath granted and confirmed to the English merchants that reside in Andalusia, by his royal cédulas or orders, dated the 19th day of March, the 26th day of June, and the 9th day of November 1645, his Catholic Majesty by these presents re-confirming the same, as a part of this treaty between the two crowns. And to the end that it may be manifest to all, it is consented, That the said cédulas (as to the whole substance thereof) be passed and transferred to the body of the present articles, in the name and favour of all and singular the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, residing and trading in any places whatsoever within his Catholic Majesty's dominions.

X.

That the ships, or any other vessels that shall belong to the king of Great-Britain or his subjects, navigating into the king of Spain's dominions or any of his ports, shall not be visited by the judges of contraband, or by any other officer or person, by his own, or by any other authority; nor shall any soldiers, armed men, or other officers or persons, be put on board any of the said ships or vessels; nor shall the officers of the custom-house of the one or the other party, search in any vessels or ships belonging to the people of the one or the other, which shall enter into their regions, dominions, or respective ports, until their said ships or vessels are unladen, or until they have carried on shore all the lading and merchandize which they declare they resolve to disembark in the said port; nor shall the captain, master, or any other of the company of the said ships be imprisoned, or they or their boats detained on shore; but in the interim, officers of the custom-house may be put on board the said vessels or ships, so they exceed not the number of three for each ship, to see that no goods or merchandize be landed out of the said ships or vessels, without paying such duties as by these articles either party is obliged to pay; which said officers are to be without any charge to the ship or ships, vessel or vessels, their commanders, mariners, company, merchants, factors, or proprietors. And when it happens that the master or owner of any ship shall declare, that the whole lading of his said ship is to be discharged in any port, the entry of the said lading shall be made in the custom-house after the usual manner; and if, after the entry made, any other goods be found in the said ship or ships, more than what are contained in the said entry, eight working days shall be allowed them on which they may work (which shall be reckoned from the day they began to unlade) to the end, that the concealed goods may be entered, and the confiscation of them prevented. And in case that in the time limited, the entry or manifestation of them shall not have been made, then such particular goods only, which shall be found as aforesaid, though the unlading be not finished, shall be confiscated, and not any other; nor shall other trouble be given, or punishment inflicted on the merchant or owner of the ship; and when the ships or vessels are re-laden, they may have freedom to go out again.

XI.

That the ship or ships appertaining to the one or the other king, or to their respective people and subjects, that shall enter into any ports, lands or dominions, of the one or the other, and shall discharge any part of their goods and merchandizes in any port or haven, being consigned with the rest to other places, within or without the said dominions, shall not be obliged to register or pay the rights of any other goods or merchandize, than of that which they shall unlade in the said port or haven, nor be constrained to give bond for the goods they shall carry to other places, nor any other security, if it be not in case of felony, debt, treason, or other capital crime.

XII.

Whereas the one moiety of the custom of all foreign goods and merchandize imported into England, is allowed and returned back to the importer, if the said goods be exported out of the said kingdom within twelve months after their first landing, upon oath made that they are the same goods which paid custom inwards, and that if they be not re-shipped within the said twelve months, yet they may at all times be exported without paying any custom or duty outwards: it is therefore agreed, That if any of the subjects of the king of Great-Britain shall hereafter land any goods or merchandize, of what growth or nature soever they be, in any of the ports of his Catholic Majesty, and having entered them, and paid the custom by which this treaty ought to be paid, and shall afterwards desire to transport them, or any part of them, to any other place whatsoever, for a better market, it shall and may be lawful for him or them so to do freely, without paying or being demanded any other custom or duty at all for the same, he or they making oath, if required thereunto, that they are the same goods for which custom was paid at their landing; and in case that the subjects, people, and inhabitants of the dominions of either part shall unlade, or have in any city, town, or village respectively, any goods, merchandizes, fruits or estates, and have paid the customs due, according to what hath been declared, and after that, not being able to put them off, shall resolve to remit them to some other city, town or village of the said dominions, they may not only do it without difficulty or impediment, and

without paying other rights than what were due at their entry, but likewise the custom or rights shall not be paid again in any other part of the said dominions, bringing certificates from the officers of the custom-house, that they were paid before in the due form. And the chief farmers and commissioners of the king of Spain's rents in all places, or some other officer or officers to be appointed for that purpose, shall at all times permit and suffer the transportation of all such goods and merchandizes from place to place, and give sufficient certificate to the owners thereof, or their assignees, of their having paid their custom at their first landing, whereby they may be carried to, and landed at, any other port or place of the said jurisdiction, free from all duties or impediments whatsoever, as aforesaid, saving always the right of any third person.

XIII.

That it shall be lawful for the ships belonging to the subjects of the one or other king, to anchor in the roads or bays of either; without being constrained to enter into port; and in case they be necessitated to enter thereinto, either by distress of weather, fear of enemies, pirates, or any other accident, in case the said ships be not bound to an enemy's port, and carrying thither contraband goods (whereof without some clear proof they shall not be questioned) it shall be lawful for the said subjects to return to sea freely when they please, with their ships and goods, so that they do not break bulk, or expose any thing to sale; and that when they cast anchor, or enter the ports aforesaid, they be not molested or visited; and it shall suffice, that in case they shew their passports or sea-papers, which being seen by the respective officers of either king, the said ships shall return freely to sea without any molestation.

XIV.

And if any ship or ships belonging to the subjects and merchants of the one or the other, entering into bays, or in the open sea, shall be encountered by the ships of the said kings, or of privateers their subjects: the said ships, to prevent all disorders, shall not come within cannon-shot, but shall send their long-boat or pinnace to the merchant-ship, and only two or three men on board, to whom the master or owner shall shew his passports and sea-letters, whereby not only the ship's lading, but the place to which she belongs, and as well the master and owner's name, as the name of the ship may appear; by which means the quality of the ship, and her master or owner will be sufficiently known, as also the commodities she carries, whether they be contraband or not; to the which passports and sea-letters, entire faith and credit shall be given, so much the rather, for that as well on the part of the king of England, as of the king of Spain, some counter-signs shall be given (if it shall be found necessary) whereby their authenticity may the better appear, and that they may not be in any wise falsified.

XV.

If any prohibited merchandize or goods shall be exported from the kingdoms, dominions, and territories of either of the said kings, by the respective people or subjects of the one or the other, in such case the prohibited goods shall be only confiscated, and not the other goods; neither shall the delinquent incur any other punishment, except the said delinquent shall carry out from the respective kingdoms or dominions of the king of Great-Britain, the proper coin, wool, or fuller's earth of the said kingdom, or shall carry out of the respective kingdoms or dominions of the said king of Spain, any gold or silver, wrought or unwrought; in either of which cases the laws of the respective countries are to take place.

XVI.

That it shall be lawful for the people and subjects of both kings, to have access to the respective ports of the one and the other, and there remain, and depart again with the same freedom, not only with their ships and other vessels for trade and commerce, but also with their other ships fitted for war, armed, and disposed to resist and engage the enemy, and arriving by stress of weather to repair their ships, or furnish themselves with provisions; so that entering willingly, they be not so numerous, that they give just occasion of suspicion, to which end they are not to exceed the number of eight, nor continue in their havens, nor about their ports, longer time than they shall have just cause, for the repair of their ships, to take in provisions or other necessary things, much less be the occasion of interrupting the free commerce, and coming in of other ships, of nations in amity with either king; and when an unusual number of men of war, by accident shall come unto any port, it shall not be lawful for them to come into the said ports or havens, not having first obtained permission of the king unto whom the said ports do belong, or the governors of the said ports, if they be not forced thereinto by stress of weather or other necessity, to avoid the danger of the sea, and in such case they shall presently acquaint the governor or chief magistrate of the place with the cause of their coming; nor shall they remain there any longer time than the said governor or magistrate shall think convenient, or do any act of hostility in such ports, that may prove of prejudice to the one or the other of the said kings.

XVII.

XVII.

That neither the said king of Great-Britain, nor the king of Spain, by any mandate, general nor particular, nor for any cause whatsoever, shall embark or detain, hinder or take for his respective service, any merchant, master of a ship, pilot or mariner, their ships, merchandize, clothes or other goods belonging unto the one or the other, in their ports or waters, if it be not that either of the said kings, or the persons to whom the ships belong, be first advertized thereof, and do agree thereunto; provided that this shall not be construed to hinder or interrupt the ordinary course of justice and law in either country.

XVIII.

That the merchants and subjects of the one and the other king, their factors and servants, as also their ships, masters and mariners, may as well going as coming, upon sea and other waters, as in the havens and ports of the one and the other respectively, carry and use all kind of arms, defensive and offensive, without being obliged to register them, as also upon land to carry and use them for their defence, according to the custom of the place.

XIX.

That the captains, officers, and mariners, of the ships belonging to the people and subjects of either party, may not commence an action, nor hinder or bring trouble upon their own ships, their captains, officers, or mariners, in the respective kingdoms, dominions, lands, countries, or places of the other, for their wages or salaries, or under any other pretence. Nor may they put themselves, or be received, by what pretext or colour soever, into the service or protection of the king of England, or king of Spain, or their arms; but if any controversy happen between merchants and masters of ships, or between masters and mariners, the composing thereof shall be left to the consul of the nation, but after such manner, as he who shall not submit to the arbitrament, may appeal to the ordinary justice of the place where he is subject.

XX.

And to the end that all impediments be taken away, and that the merchants and adventurers of the kingdoms of Great-Britain be permitted to return to Brabant, Flanders, and other the provinces of the Low Countries, under the jurisdiction of the king of Spain: forasmuch as it hath been thought convenient, that all, and any the laws, edicts and acts, by which the importation of cloth, or any other woollen manufacture, of what kind soever, dyed or undyed, milled or unmilled, into Flanders, or the other provinces, hath been prohibited, be revoked and disannulled; and that if any right, tribute, imposition, charge, or money, hath been, with permission, or otherwise, put upon clothes, or any of the foresaid woollen manufactures so imported (except the ancient tribute upon every piece of cloth, and proportionably upon every other woollen manufacture, agreeable to the antient treaties and agreements between the then kings of England, and the dukes of Burgundy, and governors of the Low Countries) the same should be altogether void, and no such tribute or imposition from henceforth imposed, or put upon the said clothes or manufactures, for no cause or pretext whatsoever: and that all the English merchants, trading in any of the said provinces, their factors, servants, or commissioners, should enjoy from henceforward, all the privileges, exemptions, immunities, and benefits, which formerly have been agreed and given by the foresaid ancient treaties and agreements, between the then kings of England, and the dukes of Burgundy, and governors of the Low Countries: it is therefore agreed, That deputies shall be named by the king of Great-Britain, who meeting with the marquis of Castelfordrogo, or the governor of those provinces for the time being, or any other ministers of the king of Spain, sufficiently authorized in this behalf, shall friendly treat and conclude hereupon; and also such further privileges, immunities, and necessary exemptions, suitable to the present state of affairs, shall be granted for the encouragement of the said merchants and adventurers, and for the security of their trade and commerce, as shall be agreed upon in a special treaty, that shall be made between both the kings, touching this particular.

XXI.

The subjects and inhabitants of the kingdoms and dominions of the most serene kings of Great-Britain and Spain respectively, shall, with all security and liberty, sail to and traffic, in all the kingdoms, estates, or countries, which are or shall be in peace, amity, or neutrality, with the one or the other.

XXII.

And they shall not be disturbed or disquieted in that liberty, by the ships or subjects of the said kings respectively, by reason of the hostilities which are or may be hereafter between either of the said kings, and the foresaid kingdoms, countries, and states, or any of them, which shall be in friendship or neutrality with the other.

XXIII.

And in case, that within the said ships respectively, be found, by the abovesaid means, any merchandize hereunder mentioned, being of contraband and prohibited, they shall be taken out and confiscated, before the admiralty, or other com-

petent judges; but for this reason the ship, and the other free and allowed commodities, which shall be found therein, shall in no wise be either seized or confiscated.

XXIV.

Moreover, for better prevention of the differences which might arise touching the meaning of forbidden merchandize, and of contraband, it is declared and agreed, That under this name shall be comprehended all fire-arms, as ordnance, muskets, mortar-pieces, petards, bombs, granadoes, fire-crancels, fire-balls, musket-rests, bandeliers, gunpowder, match, saltpetre, and bullets; likewise, under the name of forbidden merchandize, are understood all other arms, as pikes, swords, pots, helmets, backs, and breasts, halberds, javelins, and such armour; under this name is likewise forbidden the transportation of soldiers, horses, their harnesses, cases of pistols, holsters, belts, and other furniture, formed and composed for the use of war.

XXV.

Likewise to prevent all manner of dispute and contention, it is agreed, That under that name of forbidden merchandize, and of contraband, shall not be comprehended, wheat, rye, barley, or other grains or pulse, salt, wine, oil, and generally whatsoever belongs to the sustaining and nourishing of life; but they shall remain free, and likewise all other merchandizes not comprehended in the preceding article; and the transportation of them shall be free and permitted, although it be to the towns and places of enemies, unless such towns and places be besieged, blocked up, or surrounded.

XXVI.

It is also agreed, That whatsoever shall be found laden by the subjects or inhabitants of the kingdoms and dominions of either of the said kings of England and Spain, aboard the ships of the enemies of the other, though it be not forbidden merchandize, shall be confiscated, with all things else which shall be found within the said ships, without exception or reserve.

XXVII.

That the consul which hereafter shall reside in any of the dominions of the king of Spain, for the help and protection of the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, shall be named by the king of Great-Britain, and he so named, shall have and exercise the same power and authority in the execution of his charge, as any other consul hath formerly had in the dominions of the said king of Spain; and in like manner the Spanish consul residing in England, shall enjoy as much authority as the consuls of any other nation have hitherto enjoyed in that kingdom.

XXVIII.

And that the laws of commerce that are obtained by peace may not remain unfruitful, as would fall out if the subjects of Great-Britain, when they go to, come from, or remain in the dominions or lordships of the king of Spain, by reason of their commerce or other business, should be molested for cause of conscience; therefore, that the commerce be secure and without danger, as well upon land as at sea, the said king of Spain shall provide, that the subjects of the said king of Great-Britain shall not be aggrieved contrary to the laws of commerce, and that none of them shall be molested or disturbed for their conscience, so long as they give no public scandal or offence; and the said king of Great-Britain shall likewise provide, for the same reasons, that the subjects of the king of Spain shall not be molested or disturbed for their conscience, against the laws of commerce, so long as they give no public scandal or offence.

XXIX.

That the people and subjects respectively of one kingdom, in the dominions, territories, regions, or colonies of the other, shall not be compelled to sell their merchandize for brass-metal coin, or exchange them for other coin or things, against their will; or having sold them, to receive the payment in other species than what they bargained for, notwithstanding any law or other custom contrary to this article.

XXX.

That the merchants of both nations, and their factors, servants, and families, commissioners, or others by them employed; as also masters of ships, pilots and mariners, may remain freely and securely in the said dominions, kingdoms, and territories of either of the said kings, and also in their ports and rivers; and the people and subjects of the one king, may have, and with all freedom and security enjoy, in all the lands and dominions whatsoever of the other, their proper houses to live in, their warehouses and magazines for their goods and merchandize, which they shall possess during the time for which they shall have taken, hired, and agreed for them, without any impediment.

XXXI.

The inhabitants and subjects of the said confederate kings, in all the lands and places under the obedience of the one or the other, shall use and employ those advocates, proctors, scriveners, agents, and solicitors, whom they think fit, the which shall be left to their choice, and consented to by the ordinary judges, as often as there shall be occasion; and they shall not be constrained to shew their books and papers of account

account to any person, if it be not to give evidence for the avoiding law-suits and controversies; neither shall they be embarked, detained, or taken out of their hands, upon any pretence whatsoever. And it shall be permitted to the people and subjects of either king, in the respective places where they shall reside, to keep their books of account, traffic, and correspondence, in what language they please, in English, Spanish, Dutch, or any other, the which shall not be molested, or subject to any inquisition. And whatsoever else hath been granted by either party concerning this particular, to any other nation, shall be understood likewise to be granted here.

XXXII.

That in case the estate of any person or persons shall be sequestered or seized on by any court of justice or tribunal whatsoever, within the kingdoms and dominions of either party, and any estate or debt happen to lie in the hands of the delinquents belonging bona fide to the people and subjects of the other, the said estate or debts shall not be confiscated by any of the said tribunals, but shall be restored to the true owners in specie, if they yet remain, and if not, the value of them (according to the contract and agreement which was made between the parties) shall be restored within three months after the said sequestration.

XXXIII.

That the goods and estates of the people and subjects of the one king, that shall die in the countries, lands, and dominions of the other, shall be preserved for the lawful heirs and successors of the deceased, the right of any third person always reserved.

XXXIV.

That the goods and estates of the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, that shall die without making a will in the dominions of the king of Spain, shall be put into inventory, with their papers, writings, and books of account, by the consul or other public minister of the king of Great-Britain, and deposited in the hands of two or three merchants that shall be named by the said consul, or public minister, to be kept for the proprietors and creditors; and neither the cruzada, nor any other judicatory whatsoever, shall intermeddle therein; which also in the like case shall be observed in England, towards the subjects of the king of Spain.

XXXV.

That a decent and convenient burial-place shall be granted and appointed to bury the bodies of the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, who shall die within the dominions of the king of Spain.

XXXVI.

If it shall happen hereafter that any difference fall out (which God forbid) between the king of Great-Britain and the king of Spain, whereby the mutual commerce and good correspondence may be endangered, the respective subjects and people of each party shall have notice thereof given them in time, that is to say, the space of six months, to transport their merchandize and effects, without giving them in that time any molestation or trouble, or retaining or embarking their goods or persons.

XXXVII.

All goods and rights concealed or embarked, moveables, immoveables, rents, deeds, debts, credits, and the like, which have not with a formal notice of the cause, and by a legal condemnation, according to the ordinary justice, been brought into the royal exchequer at the time of concluding this treaty, shall remain at the full and free disposal of the proprietors, their heirs, or of those who shall have their right, with all the fruits, rents, and emoluments thereof; and neither those who have concealed the said goods, nor their heirs, shall be molested for this cause by the exchequers respectively; but the proprietors, their heirs, or those who shall have their right, shall have for the said goods and rights their action at law, as for their own proper goods and estate.

XXXVIII.

It is agreed and concluded, that the people and subjects of the king of Great-Britain, and of the king of Spain, shall have and enjoy in the respective lands, seas, ports, havens, roads, and territories of the one or the other, and in all places whatsoever, the same privileges, securities, liberties, and immunities, whether they concern their persons or trade, with all the beneficial clauses and circumstances which have been granted, or shall be hereafter granted by either of the said kings, to the most Christian king, the States General of the United Provinces, the Hanse-Towns, or any other kingdom or state whatsoever, in as full, ample, and beneficial manner, as if the same were particularly mentioned and inserted in this treaty.

XXXIX.

In case any difference or dispute shall happen on either side concerning these articles of trade and commerce, by either the officers of the admiralty or other person whatsoever, in the one or the other kingdom; the complaint being presented by the party concerned to their majesties, or to any of their council, their said Majesties shall cause the damages forthwith to be repaired, and all things, as they are above agreed, to be duly executed; and in case, that in progress of time any frauds or inconveniences be discovered in the navigation and

commerce between both kingdoms, against which sufficient prevention hath not been made in these articles, other provisions may be hereafter mutually agreed on, as shall be judged convenient, the present treaty remaining still in full force and vigour.

XL.

It is likewise accorded and concluded, that the most serene and renowned kings of Great-Britain and Spain, shall sincerely and faithfully observe and keep, and procure to be observed and kept, by their subjects and inhabitants respectively, all and singular the capitulations in this present treaty agreed and concluded: neither shall they directly or indirectly infringe the same, or consent that the same shall be infringed by any of their subjects or inhabitants. And they shall ratify and confirm all and singular the conventions before accorded by letters patent reciprocally, in sufficient, full, and effectual form, and the same so formed and made, shall interchangeably deliver, or cause to be delivered faithfully and really, within four months after the date of these presents; and they shall then, as soon as conveniently may be, cause this present treaty of peace and amity to be published in all places, and in the manner accustomed.

Dated at Madrid, the $\frac{1}{2}$ day of May, in the year of our Lord, 1667.

The form of letters which ought to be given by the towns and sea-ports, to the ships and vessels setting sail from thence.

To all to whom these presents shall come, We the governor, consuls, or chief magistrate or commissioners of the customs, of the city, town, or province of N. do testify and make known, That N. N. master of the ship N. hath before us, under solemn oath declared, That the ship N. of tun (more or less) of which he is at present master, doth belong to the inhabitants of N. in the dominions of the most serene king of Great-Britain. And we, desiring that the said master may be assisted in his voyage and business, do intreat all persons in general and particular, who shall meet him, and those of all places where the said master shall come with the said ship and her merchandize, that they would admit him favourably, treat him kindly, and receive the said ship into their ports, bays, havens, rivers, and dominions, permitting her quietly to sail, pass, frequent, and negotiate there, or in any other places, as shall seem good to the said master, paying still the toll and customs which of right shall be due, which we will acknowledge gratefully upon the like occasions. In witness whereof, we have signed these presents, and sealed them with the seal of our town.

Don PEDRO FERNANDEZ,
del campo y Angulo.

WILL. GODOLPHIN.

REMARKS.

The foregoing treaty of 1667, was signed May 23, and the next day Sir W. Godolphin, who was secretary to our embassy, and who was the chief contriver of that treaty, wrote thus to lord Arlington: 'The treaty of commerce, I dare promise your lordship, comprehends not only all the privileges and advantages which this crown hath ever granted to any other state or people, but likewise some conveniences which it hath never yet permitted to any other; for the better security and perfection whereof, I have diligently perused all the treaties these people have made with others, and all the royal cédulas they have granted in favour of any particular factories: and have not received from our factories any grievance or proposition of advantage in their commerce to be either remedied or procured for them, which we think is not sufficiently provided for in this treaty.'

And in another letter to his brother, May 25, he says, 'I will only say to you in general of the treaty of commerce, That besides all the freedoms and advantages of trade, which this crown hath granted to any other state, we have thereby several concessions and conveniences, whereof we find no example in their articles with any other. And I think they have not made any other these hundred years, which I have not learned as my lesson, in order to the treating and perfection of this.'

Sir William Godolphin might say this, and the world will believe him, since after that treaty we paid no more than the moderate duties above mentioned; and since the privilege of a judge-conservator, without which we cannot trade with any security in that country, and which was only granted before by royal cédulas to our merchants, and might have been revoked by the king, was confirmed to us by that treaty.

This treaty, and that of 1670, [see SPANISH AMERICA] being the principal foundation of all subsequent treaties that have been made between Great-Britain and Spain, we have judged it eligible to take due notice thereof.

In order to judge the more circumstantially of the commerce of Spain, and of the political regulations of that kingdom for exercising the same, and the benefits and advantages to which Great-Britain is entitled, and also the present turn, views, and spirit of the Spanish court, in regard to the advancement of their commerce and navigation: see the articles ALMOXARISFARGO, ANDALUSIA, BISCAY, CAS-

TILLE, CATALONIA, CORSICA, FACTORS, FISCAL, GRATIA'S, MEDITERRANEAN. — See also the article SPANISH AMERICA, and the other articles referred to from thence.

Of the FOREIGN EXCHANGES of SPAIN, particularly between MADRID and other principal trading cities of EUROPE.

Many errors have been committed by authors, in relation to the monies of Spain. La Banque rendue facile, upon this subject, says, in treating of the monies of Spain, that there is 25 per cent. difference between the PLATE MONEY there and the VELLON: but if his commerce had led him to a correspondence either at Madrid or Cadiz, he would have been acquainted with the two augmentations that Philip V. made there, and that a rial vellon is worth there $8\frac{1}{2}$ quarts copper money, so that the rial of old plate of exchange money, is worth 16 vellon, and the effective rial of new plate 17; which makes a difference between these two species of rials, as 32 is to 17; that is to say, $53\frac{1}{8}$ per cent. for 100 rials vellon, are worth only $53\frac{1}{8}$ rials of old plate: as this is the true state of the case, it follows, that La Banque rendue facile is mistaken.

By the word plate is meant silver money, whereby must be understood the money in which some merchants keep their accounts; and it is to that is given the name of old plate, which only is used for the negotiation of the exchanges with foreign places: it is imaginary, as the exchange crown of France, or the livres, sols, and deniers Tournois, or as the pound sterling of England; but as it is requisite in trade to understand the reduction of one sort of money into the other, we shall give the instruction proper for that purpose.

Usance is reckoned at Madrid, for bills of exchange, of France, Amsterdam, and all Holland, London, Hamburg, Leghorn, Genoa, Venice, and almost of all the trading cities of Europe, 60 days, exclusive of the date; after the expiration of which time there are allowed 14 days grace: Cadiz allows but 6 to bills drawn out of the kingdom of Spain; but to inland bills, there are 14 days grace allowed; after which bills are protested for non-payment.

The foreign bankers or remitters at Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. keep their commercial accounts in rials and marvedees old plate.

The shopkeepers of Madrid, the customhouses, and the tenants of the kingdom, keep their accounts in rials and marvedees vellon, which are called in France billon.

The merchants of Valentia in Spain, keep theirs in piaftres, sols, and deniers, which are divided into 20 and 12, as our pound sterling is into shillings and pence.

The pistole, or doubloon of exchange, is 4 piaftres, or 32 rials exchange.

The piaftre, or peso of exchange, is 8 rials exchange, or old plate.

The rial is 34 marvedees, or 16 quarts.

The ducat, or ducado current, is 11 rials, old plate, or 374 marvedees.

The ducat of exchange is 20 sols d'or, or, for facility of computation, 375 marvedees, or 11 rials 1 marvedee old plate. The sol d'or is 12 deniers d'or.

The said piaftre of exchange, is also reckoned at 15 rials vellon and 2 marvedees, or 128 quarts. And,

The rial vellon 34 marvedees vellon, or $8\frac{1}{2}$ quarts, effective copper money, in which a bill of exchange is paid at Madrid, if the foreign drawer, or any other does not take care to stipulate the payment to be made either in gold or silver, whereby there will ensue a loss to the bearer of the bill of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The pistole of gold, worth 40 rials of 16 quarts, is in France of the standard of 22 carrats, and weighs there 126 grains. The piaftre with two globes, worth 170 quarts, is in France of the standard of 10 deniers 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ grains, and weighs there 507 grains.

THE METHOD

Of reducing rials vellon, into rials of exchange, or old plate; those into piaftres of exchange, and those again into rials vellon; piaftres effective, into rials of exchange, and those into rials vellon; and for understanding of the reciprocal values of the said monies between each other.

5005 Rials 16 marvedees vellon, to be multiplied
By $8\frac{1}{2}$ quarts, the value of each of those rials.

40040
2502 $\frac{1}{2}$ for the $\frac{1}{2}$.
4 for the 16 marv. 4 marv. vell. making the quart.
42546 $\frac{1}{2}$ Quarts, to be divided by 16 quarts, the value of the rial, or which is more facile take $\frac{1}{4}$ of $\frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{16}$, it will give
2659 Rials 5 marved. plate, or exchange: take the $\frac{1}{8}$ thereof, and it will give
332 Piaftres 3 rials, 5 marv. of plate; multiply these
By 15 Rials 2 marv. vellon, another value of the piaftre [of exchange.
1660
332
4980

4980 [Brought over.]

19 : 18 for the 2 marvedees, i. e. for 664 marvedees.

3 : 26 for 2 rials, the $\frac{1}{4}$ of the multiplier.

1 : 30 for 1 rial, the $\frac{1}{8}$ of that.

0 : 10 for 5 marvedees of plate.

Rials 5005 : 16 marvedees vellon, the same as above.

250 Piaftres effective, 2 rials 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ quarts, also effective
At 10 Rials 10 quarts or $\frac{5}{8}$, val. of the said piaft. [or real.

2500

125 for 8 quarts, or $\frac{1}{8}$ the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 250.

31 $\frac{8}{32}$ for ditto, or $\frac{1}{8}$ the $\frac{1}{4}$ of that.

2 $\frac{1}{32}$ for 2 rials

$\frac{2}{32}$ for 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ quarts } real or effective.

2659 $\frac{5}{32}$ Rials old plate, the same as above, to be multip.
By 16 Quarts, value of the said rial.

15954

2659

2 for $\frac{4}{32}$,

$\frac{1}{2}$ for $\frac{1}{32}$ the $\frac{1}{4}$ of the 4.

42546 $\frac{1}{2}$ Quarts, as above, to be divided by $8\frac{1}{2}$ quarts, the value of the rial of vellon, it gives the 5005 rees, 16 marvedees vellon, as above.

OF THE COURSES OF EXCHANGE.

MADRID

Upon	Gives	To receive
Lyons	1 piaftre exchange, for	75 sols Tournois
Milan	1 ditto	for 100 sols cur. mon.
Messina	$3\frac{1}{4}$ dit. more or less, for	1 oz. of 30 tarins
Vienna	190 mar. more or less, for	1 florin of 60 kreutzers.
Venice	350 ditto, idem, for	1 ducat of 124 soldi ban.
Geneva	360 ditto, idem, for	1 crown current money.

Suppose that I am to pay to my correspondents of the following cities, what I am indebted to them, by remitting to each, according to the course of exchange, a bill of exchange, in money of their respective countries, I would know what those several remittances ought to be, according to the following sums due to my correspondents, viz.

COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

	Rials	Mar	
Of Paris, - -	83 pistoles	3	at 15 liv. 1 sol the pistole of 32 rials.
Amsterdam, -	7035 rials	3	at 97 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. gros per 1 duc. of 375 mar.
Hamburg, -	7026	28	at 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros per idem.
London, -	1387 piaft.	3	at 41 $\frac{1}{8}$ d. sterl. per piaftre of 8 rees.
Genoa, -	142	5	at 133 piaft. of 8 rees per 100 of 5 livres.
Leghorn, -	425	6	at 129 ditto per 100 of 20 sol d'or.
Rome -	8200 rials	---	at 550 marv. per crown d'estampe.
Naples, -	6540	---	at 400 ditto per ducat of 10 carlins.
Lisbon, -	6647	18	at 830 rees per ducat of 375 marv.

OF THE EXCHANGE OF SPAIN UPON FRANCE.

To reduce 83 pistoles, 3 rials, 5 marvedees of Spain, into livres, sols, and deniers Tournois, of France, exchange at 15 livres 1 sol per pistole of 32 rials of old plate.

OPERATION.

83 pistoles, 3 rials, 5 marvedees, to be multiplied
By 15 livres 1 sol of exchange,

415

83

4 liv. 3 sol. 0 den. for 1 sol, the $\frac{1}{20}$ of 83 pistoles,
0 18 9 for 2 rials, the $\frac{1}{16}$ of the exchange,
0 — 4 for 1 rial, the $\frac{1}{32}$ of that,
0 1 4 for 5 mar. the $\frac{1}{7}$ of the rial,

1250 liv. 12 fol. 5 den. for which the draught must be made upon Paris.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 83 pistoles, 3 rials, and 5 marvedees, by the price of exchange, and the product 1250 livres, 12 sols, 5 deniers, will be the sum to receive at Paris.—For the proof of which, reduce the 1250 livres, 1 sol, by 80 liards, or $\frac{1}{4}$ of sols, the value of the livre; and divide the two products, 100,051, and 1204, the one by the other, and you will have a quotient of 83 pistoles, and 19 remaining, to be multiplied by 32 rials, the value of the pistole; and dividing the same by the common divisor above, it will give 3 rials, and 196 for a remainder, to be multiplied by 34 marvedees, the value of a rial; and dividing again, you will have the 5 marvedees old plate to receive at Spain.

S P A

If I had due at Lyons 83 pistoles, 3 rials, and 5 marvedees, and would reduce them into piaftres, multiply them by 4 piaftres, the value of the pistole, and you will have, as below, 332 piaftres, 3 rials, 5 marvedees, to be multiplied by $75\frac{1}{4}$ fols Tournois, and the product will be 25,012 fols, 5 deniers, and dividing the same by 20, it will produce 1250 livres, 12 fols, 5 deniers.

EXAMPLE.

83 pistoles, 3 rials, 5 marv.	Exchange upon
4 piaftres	Paris 15 liv. 1 fol
332 piaftres, 3 rials, 5 marv.	20
at $75\frac{1}{4}$ fols Tournois of exchange	the $\frac{1}{4}$ 301 fols
1660	
2324	Exchange upon Lyons $75\frac{1}{4}$ fols.
83 for $\frac{1}{4}$	
18.9 for 2 rials the $\frac{1}{4}$	} of exchange
9.4 for 1 rial the $\frac{1}{8}$	
1.4 for 5 mar. the $\frac{1}{7}$ of a rial	
210)25012 fol. 5 den.	
1250 liv. 12 fol. 5 den. the same as above.	

Of the EXCHANGES of SPAIN upon HOLLAND.

To reduce 7035 rials, 3 marvedees, old plate, i. e. of 16 quarts each, into florins, fols, and pennings, bank money of Amsterdam, exchange at $97\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros per ducat of 375 marvedees, also of old plate.

OPERATION.

By 7035 rials, 3 marv. to be multiplied
34 marv.
28140
211053
239193 marv. to be divided by 375, gives
637 ducats, 17 fols, 2 deniers,
97 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros, exchange,
4459
5733
159 $\frac{2}{8}$ for $\frac{1}{4}$ of 637 ducats,
48 $\frac{5}{8}$ for 10 fols, the $\frac{1}{2}$
24 $\frac{2}{8}$ for 5 fols, the $\frac{1}{4}$
9 $\frac{5}{8}$ for 2 fols, the $\frac{1}{10}$
} of the exchange.
$\frac{1}{4}$)62031(

1550 : 15 fols, 8 penings, banco, for which sum the draught must be made on Amsterdam.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 7035 rials, 3 marvedees, into marvedees, by multiplying them by 34 marvedees, the value of a rial, adding thereto the 3 marvedees, and divide the product by 375 marvedees, the value of the ducat, which gives a quotient of 637 ducats, and a remainder of 318, which being multiplied by 20, and divided as before, gives 17 fols, with a further remainder of 85, which multiplied by 12, and divided also as before, gives 2 deniers. Multiply these 637 ducats, 17 fols, 2 deniers, by the price of exchange, of $97\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros, and divide by 40, the deniers in a florin, and the remainder will be 31 deniers, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of which is 15 fols, or flivers, to be received in bank money of Amsterdam; for the proof of which see the article HOLLAND, for the exchange on SPAIN.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon HAMBURGH.

To reduce 7646 rials, 28 marvedees old plate of Spain, into marks, fol, and pennings lubs, bank money of Hamburgh, exchange at $93\frac{1}{2}$ gros, per ducat of 375 marvedees of Spain.

OPERATION.

7646 rials, 28 marv.
34 marv.
30612
22938
259992
mul. 375 mar.
By 32 gros
779976
2339928
129996
12000 gros, divisor 24309252(gives 2025 marks, 12 fols, 4 penings, bank money, for which the draught must be made.

S P A

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 7646 rials, 28 marvedees, into marvedees, by multiplying them by 34 marvedees, the value of a rial, and multiply the product, 259992 marvedees, by the price of exchange, $93\frac{1}{2}$ gros, it will produce 24309252 gros for a dividend.—Multiply also the 375 marvedees, the value of a ducat, by 32 gros, the value of a mark lubs, and it will give 12000 gros for a divisor, and a quotient of 2025 marks lubs, with a remainder of 9252, to be multiplied by 16 fols, the value of the mark, and dividing by the same, it gives 12 fols lubs, and a further remainder of 4032, to be multiplied by 12 penings, the value of a fol, and still dividing by the same, it gives 4 penings bank money, to receive at Hamburgh; for the proof of which operations, see the article HAMBURGH.

Of the EXCHANGES of SPAIN upon ENGLAND.

To reduce 1387 piaftres (of 128 quarts) 3 rials, 3 marvedees, of Spain, into pounds, shillings, and pence sterling of England, exchange at $41\frac{5}{8}$ pence sterling per piaftre.

OPERATION.

By 1387 piaftres, 3 rials, 3 marvedees, to be multiplied
41 $\frac{5}{8}$ pence sterling, the exchange price.
1387
5548
693 $\frac{4}{8}$ for the $\frac{1}{2}$
173 $\frac{3}{8}$ for the $\frac{1}{8}$
10 $\frac{3}{8}$ for 2 rials the $\frac{1}{4}$
5 $\frac{1}{8}$ for 1 rial the $\frac{1}{8}$
$\frac{4}{8}$ for 3 marv.
} of 1387
} of the exchange

57750 deniers, to be div. by 12 and 20, give 240l. 12s. 6d. sterling money, for which the draught must be made upon London.

This is so easy that it needs no instruction.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon GENOA.

To reduce 542 piaftres (of 128 quarts each) $5\frac{1}{2}$ rials of old plate of Spain, into piaftres of 5 lires, bank money of Genoa, exchange at 133 of the said piaftres of Spain per 100 of the said piaftres of Genoa.

OPERATION.

If 133 piaft. of Sp.=100 of Gen. what are 542 piaft. $5\frac{1}{2}$ rials?

1064 divisor.	54200
	50 for 4 ri. $\frac{1}{2}$
	12.4 for 1 ri. $\frac{3}{8}$
	6.2 for $\frac{1}{2}$ ri. $\frac{1}{16}$
	54268.6
	8

434150, to be divid. by 1064, gives 408 piaftres, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers d'or in bank, for which the draught must be made on Genoa.—And $408 : 8\frac{1}{2}$

3 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols of bank.—For proof hereof see the article GENOA.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon LEGHORN.

To reduce 425 piaftres, 6 rials, old plate of Spain, into piaftres of 20 fols d'or of Leghorn, exchange at 129 piaftres of Spain per 100 of the said piaftres of Leghorn.

OPERATION.

If 129 piaft. of Spain give 100 of Leghorn, what will 425 $\frac{3}{4}$?

	42500
	50
	25
	42575
to be divided by 129, gives 330 piaftres, 9 deniers d'or, for which the draught must be made on Leghorn.	

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon ROME.

To reduce 8200 rials, of old plate of Spain, into Roman crowns, of 10 Julio's, exchange at 550 marvedees of Spain per crown d'estampe of 15 Julio's of Rome.

OPERATION.

O P E R A T I O N.

Exch. 550 marv. to be mul. by 10	8200 rials of plate 34 marv.
	<hr/>
5500 Julio's	32800 24600
	<hr/>
	278800 mar. 15 Julio's
	<hr/>
	1394000 278800
	<hr/>

4182000 Julio's, to be divided by 5500, gives 760 Roman crowns, 3 Julio's, 6 bayocks, for which the draught must be made upon Rome.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Reduce the 8200 rials into marvedees, by multiplying them by 34, the value of a rial; multiply also the product, 278880 marvedees, by 15 Julio's, the value of a crown d'estampe, and you will have 4182000, for a dividend.—Multiply, separately, the price of exchange, 550 marvedees, by 10 Julio's, the value of the Roman crown, and you will have 5500 for a divisor; and the one being divided by the other, will give a quotient of 760 Roman crowns, and 20 for a remainder, which multiplied by 10 Julio's, the value of the said crown, and divided as before, it will give 3 Julio's, with a further remainder of 35; which again multiplied by 10 bayocks, the value of the Julio, and divided as before, it produces 6 bayocks, to receive at Rome.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon NAPLES.

To reduce 6540 rials, old plate, or of 16 quarts of Spain, into ducats, carlins, and grains, of the kingdom of Naples, exchange at 300 marvedees of plate per said ducat of 10 carlins.

O P E R A T I O N.

6540 rials, to be multiplied By 34
<hr/>
26160 19620
<hr/>

222360, to be divided by 300, gives 741 ducats, 2 carlins, for which the draught must be made on Naples.

Of the EXCHANGE of SPAIN upon PORTUGAL.

To reduce 6647 rials, 18 marvedees, old plate, into crusadoes and rees of Portugal, exchange at 830 rees per ducat of 375 marvedees of Spain.

O P E R A T I O N.

	6647 rials, 18 marv.
	34
	<hr/>
	26588 19941 18
	<hr/>
375 marvedees 400 rees	226016
	<hr/>
150000 divisor.	830 rees, exchange,
	<hr/>
	6780480 1808128
	<hr/>

187593280, to be divided by 150000, gives 1250 crusadoes, 248 rees, for which the draught must be made on Lisbon.

In regard to the weights and measures of Spain, and their conformity with those of the principal trading cities of Europe, see the article ENGLAND, Vol. I.

SPANISH AMERICA. It was in the time of the emperor Charles V, the first king of Spain of that name, that, as the histories of that prince observe, the greatest news arrived to him that ever any one monarch received in a day, since the creation of the world; namely, the discovery and conquest not of a kingdom only, or an empire, but of a new world, which abounded with such immense treasure, that all the Christian world before was not equal to.

In confirmation of this surprizing news, Ferdinando Cortez, his general, (whom the emperor, as king of Spain, had ordered upon this expedition) sent him two ships loaded with silver, gold, pearl, emeralds, &c. to such a prodigious sum, that the emperor himself could hardly give credit to his ears in the report, or to his eyes when he saw the mass of treasure.

Succeeding ships returning one after another, brought incredible quantities of treasure, as Cortez, the general, being supplied with more forces, extended his conquests, 'till the kingdom or empire of Peru was added to that of Mexico, with the inexhaustible mines of Potosi; after that the kingdom of Chili, rich in gold, as the other in silver. This success so

increased both the wealth and dominion of the Spanish monarchy, that they have ever since been lords of America, and of the chiefest empire and kingdoms in that great part of the world. The Spaniards having subdued the country, and rooted out the inhabitants, began soon to plant colonies, establish governments, and settle nations in all that part of the world: and though the English and French have followed their example more north, and both possess some few islands besides, yet their possessions in America, compared with those of Spain, bear no great proportion to them. As our acquisitions there were in the northern parts, where the air was cold and inclement, the soil over-run with woods, the seas frozen, and the people fierce, the Spaniards thought that part of America not worth taking, having so great a possession before in the more temperate, warm, and fruitful parts.

Upon the settlement of the Spaniards in these new conquests, and experiencing still the increasing wealth out go even their highest expectations, it soon put them upon establishing laws of commerce, as well as government, in order to preserve not the possession of the country only, for that they did by sending over a competent military force, but to secure the commerce to themselves at home, and to prevent any other nation from breaking in upon it, and enriching themselves by it, at their expence.

To this end, the first regulation as a law of property (and which all other nations trading to America have since imitated them in) was, that they would suffer no ships from any other nation to trade to their new colonies, or to enter into their ports, nor any ships from thence to return to any other country but Old Spain, from whence they came: in a word, that they would have the whole trade to and from their colonies in New Spain center in Old Spain, which it does to this day, except such part as is carried on illicitly by other nations.

In pursuance of these measures, the king of Spain erected, in the year 1513, a council of commerce for the Indies at Seville, for regulating this trade; and the king his successor, in the year 1556, erected a royal court of justice, for determining all controversies relating to this traffic.

By virtue of these regulations, and their strict observance, the state of this trade is punctually kept up to the first intention of the emperor's council to this day, and is, perhaps, the best-established commerce in the world. Some, among many others, of those prudent and politic regulations, are as follow:

I. No ships are allowed to go to any of the king of Spain's dominions in America, without special licence from him, which licences are issued out at his court, or chamber of commerce at Seville, as above.

II. No foreigner, or stranger, is allowed to go to the said New Spanish dominions in America, in any of the said licensed ships, upon any terms whatsoever, whether to settle in the said West-Indies, or only to trade there, Irishmen only excepted, and those to be all Roman Catholics.

III. No person whatever, though he were a Spaniard born, and the king of Spain's subject, can go to the Spanish West-India dominions without special licence, to be obtained at the said Contractation-Office, that is to say, without licence from the king.

These fundamentals being previously established, there are then certain limitations to the numbers of ships, and the quantity of goods, that is to say, the tonnage, or burthen, they shall carry, which is always in the breast of the members of the Casa de Contractation, because the quantity of goods sent should not exceed the demand, and, consequently, glut the markets, and also abate the price, and the profits of the trade; likewise it is regulated there, at what times the several fleets of ships shall go out, and to what several places, and when they shall be obliged to come away, in order to their return. It is also regulated, That all the silver, or gold, or jewels, which shall be brought over, for whose particular private interest soever it be, shall be registered and entered in the ship's books of every ship, and likewise in a general register, in the port from whence the ship comes; where also it is to be seen, and duplicates of which are transmitted to the said council at Seville.

As no person is allowed to go to New Spain without licence, so no religious, no ecclesiastics of any kind, are permitted to come back in any of those ships, without licence from the superior of the order to whom they belong.

Some particular goods are not permitted to be laden in Old Spain in any of the ships, though those ships are licensed to go, those goods being reserved to the king to export thither in his own name, or to give licence to others to do it; without which licence the said goods are not only prohibited, but forfeited, if taken.

The manner of the fleets going.

The first fleet is called the galleons, or galloons: these are generally seven ships, but may be increased as the king or the Casa de Contractation, that is, the Council of Commerce, see fit; and they go from Old Spain to and from Carthagena and Porto-Bello, and no where else; neither are they allowed to go any where else, if they could do it. How often

or seldom soever the galleons go out, the next fleet of galleons never go out 'till the last are returned.

The next fleet is called the flota: these go to La Vera Cruz, or Cruz; they have no set time of going-out, but the merchants send them as the Chamber of Commerce directs, and they give their directions as they see the trade calls for it, and as the merchants by their petition, representing the occasion, can obtain leave.

The ships to Buenos Ayres are not to be called a fleet, being seldom above two ships, and never above four; and do not usually go out above once in two or three years; and they are generally out two, three, or four years, every voyage.

The Azoga ships, vulgarly called the quicksilver ships, are so called because they carry quicksilver, or mercury, by which the silver is wrought and refined in the mines; but not, as some think, that they should be laden with quicksilver.

They are not, strictly speaking, to carry any goods but in particular for the king's account; but they are generally full laden, notwithstanding the first regulation, and the merchants get special licences of the king to load, and they generally pay large sums for those licences.

Note, these carry quicksilver and fruit, or spice, for the king's account, and sometimes military stores and arms for the forces there; as also iron, which is called the king's merchandize: there are also petaches, sent at uncertain times. These are generally but two, and are called advice-boats, because they are sent either to give advice to the West-Indies of their ships being arrived at Old Spain, or of the departure of the fleets, when they have a set time determined. These petaches were generally small vessels and barks, which were dispatched merely for sailing; but now the merchants striving to get leave to ship goods upon them, they are generally about 350 tons burthen each.

N. B. When the ships to Buenos Ayres arrive there, they are to give notice to the governor of the time they intend to depart for Europe; and being obliged to bring back any goods for the king gratis, the notice they are to give to the governor is for him to get ready the king's goods, and is to be given two months before they are to come away: if he neglects it, they may come without it.

When the ships go out for New Spain, they go directly, the galleons to Carthagena, and the other ships to La Vera Cruz: but, when they come back, they go to the Havannah, and stay 'till they get all together, and then beating through the gulph of Florida 'till they come to the height of St Augustine, or perhaps to South Carolina, they steer away together for Old Spain.

All this commerce, under these regulations, and managed as has been said, usually centered at Seville, now at Cadiz; and it is no wonder that Seville, with the weight of so great an affair transacted in it, was become rich and populous; no wonder they have such magnificent buildings, and that the exchange for the merchants, as some tell us, cost king Philip II. 950,000 crowns in ready money.

Some have attempted to make calculations of the magnitude and value of this great trade to the Spaniards; but it is not easy to be done with accuracy. If the account taken out of the registers of the said council of trade may be depended on, it is a prodigy in itself, nor can I venture to vouch the truth of it; but they tell us, that, according to the books of that court, from the year 1519, to the year 1619, inclusive, being the first hundred years of the trade, the value entered, or registered, beside all private trade, was 5000 millions, in gold, silver, pearl, jewels, and other merchandize, though, for the first twenty years, very little was brought; so that it was called eighty years, not an hundred.

There is now passed above another century, and, if the former account was true, I am persuaded the amount must be extremely increased since.

For more matter relating to the commerce of SPANISH AMERICA, see the articles ACAPULCO, AMERICA, ARMADA, ASSIENTO CONTRACT, ACAPULCO, AZOGA SHIPS, DIRECTION CHAMBER, FLORIDA, FLOTA, GALLOONS, GAUGING OF SHIPS, INDIA-HOUSE OF SPAIN, INDULTO, LOGWOOD TRADE, MEXICO, PERU, MUSKETO-COUNTRY, PARAGUAY, PERU, REGISTER SHIPS, SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

A TREATY between GREAT-BRITAIN and SPAIN about accommodating differences, preventing depredations, and settling a peace in AMERICA: concluded at MADRID, July 17, 1670.

Forasmuch as the good understanding and correspondence between the English and Spanish nations have been interrupted in America, the most serene and most potent prince, Charles the Second, king of Great-Britain, &c. in order to re-establish and regulate the same for the future, hath dispatched Sir William Godolphin his envoy extraordinary into Spain, with full power and authority to conclude such a treaty as shall be proper and suitable to these ends: and that, in like manner, the most serene and most potent prince, the king of Spain, &c. and the queen-regent, Mary Anne, &c. in order to promote so good a work, and so advantageous to the public, have, on their part, appointed the count de Pegnaranda, counsellor of state, and president of the Indies, to confer

about, treat, and conclude that affair: they have at last mutually settled and agreed upon these following articles by virtue of their commissions.

I. In the first place, the said plenipotentiaries, Sir William Godolphin, and the count de Pegnaranda, have in the names of the most serene kings their masters agreed, That the articles of peace and alliance made between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, at Madrid, the 13th of May, 1667, nor any clause therein, shall any ways be revoked or be understood to be void, or annulled by this treaty, but that the same shall always continue in their former force, virtue, and power; provided it may be not contrary and repugnant to this convention and articles, or any thing that is contained in them.

II. That there shall be an universal peace, and a true and sincere friendship in America, as well as in other parts of the world, between the most serene kings of Great-Britain and Spain, their heirs and successors, and between their kingdoms, plantations, estates, colonies, forts, towns, islands, and territories, without any distinction of places belonging to the one or to the other, and between the people and inhabitants in their respective dominions, which shall for ever endure, and commence from this day, and be inviolably observed, as well by land as sea, and on fresh waters, so as that they are to promote the good and prosperity of one another, and to favour and assist each other with mutual returns of friendship, that so the offices of good neighbourhood and amity may be discharged and augmented amongst them in all places, as well in those remote countries, as in those nearer home.

III. That also, for the future, all enmities, hostilities and diffentions between the said kings, their subjects and inhabitants may cease, and be quite laid asleep, and that both parties do hinder and abstain from all manner of pillaging, depredations, injuries, and annoyances, as well by land as sea, and on fresh waters, be they where they will.

IV. The said most serene kings are to take care that their subjects do also forbear all acts of violence and hostility, and to call in all commissions, letters of marque and reprisal; and that they do not otherwise give leave to take any prizes, of what nature or kind soever they be, to the prejudice of either of the said two kings, or their subjects, whether they have been given or granted by them, to their own subjects or inhabitants, or to strangers; but are to declare them to be null and of no effect, as they are so declared by this treaty. And whoever shall act any thing to the contrary, shall not only be punished as a criminal, according to the nature of his offence; but shall also be obliged to make restitution and reparation for the losses the injured parties have sustained and require of them.

V. Moreover, the said kings renounce, and they have by these presents both of them renounced, and do renounce, all leagues, confederacies, capitulations, and intelligence, had in any manner whatsoever, to the prejudice of one another, that is or may be repugnant to this peace and treaty, and every thing that is contained therein; all and every such clauses, so far as they may reach to the said effect, being annulled and made void, and declared to have no force or virtue in them.

VI. The prisoners, of what state or condition soever they be, which are detained by reason of any acts of hostility hitherto committed in America, shall forthwith be set at liberty, without any ransom, or any manner of consideration for their enlargement.

VII. All offences, damages, losses, and injuries, which the nations and people of Great-Britain and Spain may at any time whatsoever, 'till now, have suffered on either side in America, be the cause or pretence what it will, shall be utterly effaced and buried in oblivion, in such manner as if the same had never happened.

Moreover it is agreed, that the most serene king of Great-Britain, his heirs and successors, shall have, hold, keep, and always possess, in full right of sovereignty, signiory, possession, and propriety, all the lands, countries, islands, colonies, and other places, be they what they will, lying and situate in the West-Indies, or in any part of America, which the said king of Great Britain and his subjects now hold and possess; in so much that they neither can nor ought hereafter to be contested or called in question for them, upon any account, or under any pretence whatsoever.

VIII. The subjects, inhabitants, merchants, captains, masters of ships, and the mariners of the kingdoms, provinces, and territories of each ally respectively, shall forbear and abstain from sailing to, and trafficking in, the ports and havens that have fortifications or magazines, and in all other places possessed by the other party in the West-Indies: that is, the subjects of the king of Great-Britain are not to navigate, nor to traffic in the havens and places that are in the possession of the Catholic king in the said Indies; neither are the subjects of the king of Spain to navigate, or traffic in the places possessed therein by the king of Great-Britain. But if, at any time, either of the kings shall think it proper to grant the other's subjects any general or particular leave or privileges, to sail to, and traffic in, any of the places under his obedience, the said traffic and navigation shall be exercised and maintained,

tained, according to the form, tenor, and effect of the said permissions or privileges, given and granted to them; for the security, guaranty, and authority whereof, this present treaty and the ratification of it shall serve.

X. It is also agreed, that in case the subjects and inhabitants belonging to either of the two allies, and their ships, whether they be men of war or merchants ships, and such as belong to private persons, should at any time be forced by storm, pursuit of pirates and enemies, or by any other accident whatsoever, to retire and enter into any of the rivers, creeks, bays, havens, roads, and ports, belonging to the other in America, in order to have protection and refuge, they shall be received and treated there with all manner of humanity and civility; have all the protection and assistance of friends, and they shall be allowed to refresh themselves, and be at liberty, at a reasonable and the common price, to buy provisions and other necessities, whether it be for the support of their persons, or for repairing their ships, and the convenience of their voyages: and they shall no manner of way be retarded or hindered to go out of the said ports or roads; but they may do it whenever they have a mind to it, without any let or molestation.

XI. In like manner, if any of the ships belonging to either one or the other of the allies, their people and subjects, shall run upon sand-banks, or be ship-wreck'd (which God forbid) within the bounds of the coasts or dominions of the other, or suffer any damage there; the persons that shall be ship-wrecked, or thrown a-shore, shall by no means be detained prisoners: but, on the contrary, all manner of assistance and succour shall be given them upon such accidents, and they shall have passports granted for their return, and free and peaceable passage of all of them to their own country.

XII. But when it shall so happen, that the ships, either of the one or the other party, as aforesaid, shall be forced into the ports and havens of the other, through the perils of the sea, or some other urgent necessity; in case they are three or four together, and may give just grounds of suspicion, they are, as soon as they arrive there, to let the governor, or the chief magistrate of the place, know the cause of their coming, and to tarry no longer there, than the said governor or chief magistrate will give them leave, and that it shall be necessary to supply themselves with provisions, and refit their ships; and they are ever to abstain from putting any wares or bales of goods a-shore, to expose them to sale; neither are they to receive any merchandize on board, or do any thing that is contrary to this treaty.

XIII. Both parties are sincerely and inviolably to observe this present treaty, and all and every the clauses contained therein; and they are to be observed and punctually fulfilled by the subjects and inhabitants of both nations.

XIV. Particular offences shall no way be a prejudice to this treaty, and cause no enmities or dissensions between the two nations; but every one shall answer for what he has done, and be prosecuted for contravening it: neither shall the one have recourse to letters of reprisal, or any other methods of the like nature, to obtain reparation for the offence of the other, unless justice be actually denied, or unreasonable delays used in administering the same. In which case it shall be lawful for the king, whose subject hath sustained the damage and loss, to have recourse to the rules and ordinary course of the law of nations, 'till reparation be made to the person that has been injured.

XV. This present treaty shall no way derogate from any pre-eminence, right, or signiory, which either the one or the other of the allies have in the seas, freights, or fresh waters of America; and they shall have and retain the same, in as full and ample a manner, as of right they ought to belong to them; and it is always to be understood, that the freedom of navigation ought by no manner of means to be interrupted, when there is nothing committed contrary to the true sense and meaning of these articles.

XVI. That the solemn ratification of this treaty and convention shall in good and due form be delivered by either party, and reciprocally exchanged in the space of four months, to reckon from this day; and they shall in the space of eight months, reckoning from the day of the exchange of the instruments (or sooner if it can be done) be published in all the proper places within the kingdoms, estates, islands, and signiories, of both the allies, as well in the West-Indies as elsewhere.

In witness of all and every one of the articles contained in these presents, we, the above-named plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty, and set our seals to it, at Madrid $\frac{1}{8}$ day of July, in the year of our Lord 1670.

The Count DE PEGNARANDA,
(L. S.)

WILLIAM GODOLPHIN,
(L. S.)

See TREATIES.

General REMARKS, by way of query, on the articles of SPAIN and SPANISH AMERICA, as they relate to Great-Britain in particular, BEFORE THE LAST WAR.

I. Whether it is not notorious to the whole world, that Spain for many years, prior to the late war, so behaved towards

Great-Britain, that the latter was forced into a war with that crown?

2. Is it not equally true, that to prevent the last war Great-Britain bore too long with the conduct of Spain, and did her more good offices, in regard to family-establishments in Italy, than Spain has deserved, seeing that she made no other recompence for the same, after her own turn was served, than that of insult and depredation upon the British subjects?

3. Whether the first giving up the trade of the South-Seas to the South-Sea Company, did not prove a great injury to the trade of Jamaica, and thereby to Great-Britain in general; and whether the Spaniards putting us off with the Assiento for Negroes, and an annual ship, was an equivalent to such loss of trade at Jamaica? See the articles SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, ASSIENTO CONTRACT.

4. Whether our absolutely giving up the Assiento to Spain, by treaty, in 1750, for so trifling a sum as 100,000*l.* in order to give that court no umbrage in relation to an illicit trade, laid to the charge of the South-Sea company, in their exercise of the Assiento, doth not indicate the most cordial disposition in the court of England to live in strict friendship and harmony with that of Madrid?

5. Whether, when the Assiento was so given up, the LOGWOOD TRADE in the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, to which the subjects of Great-Britain have a right, ought not to have been so regulated as to have prevented future broils on that head, between the two crowns; since 100,000*l.* was no equivalent for the ASSIENTO? And whether the latter might not have been done, upon conditions perfectly consistent with the honour and interest of both nations? See the article LOGWOOD.

6. Whether Spain is not more obliged to Great-Britain for taking off her products of fruit and wines, than she is to any other nation for so doing; and whether Spain doth not every day lessen her imports of the product and manufactures of Great-Britain, and encourage those of our rival nation, in proportion as she discourages ours?

7. Whether Spain hath used Great-Britain well, by deferring, since the last peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, to regulate the trade of Campeachy and Honduras upon a proper footing; and whether the dispossessing of the British logwood-cutters in the bay of Honduras (if this should prove true) while the two crowns were in treaty upon that very occasion, is acting consistent with the honour of nations, and that equity and friendship which we have a right to expect from a nation for whom we have done so much, and borne so much for peace sake?

8. Whether there is not too much reason to apprehend, from the present conduct of France towards Great-Britain, that the former is certain of the FRIENDSHIP AND ALLIANCE OF SPAIN to act in concert with her against our interests; and whether, notwithstanding the pretended friendship of Spain to England, since the last peace, France hath not obtained such an ascendancy over the court of Madrid, as to retard, and at length absolutely defeat the ratification of any treaty for regulating of the trade of CAMPEACHY AND HONDURAS between the two nations; and whether such regulation hath not been postponed from time to time, 'till France and Spain had both raised their marine to such a pitch, as to be able to surprize Great-Britain, by striking some notable blow, greatly detrimental to her interests?

9. Whether the Spaniards winking as they do at the illicit commerce carried on by the French at present, from the MISSISSIPPI TO MEXICO, and the EXTIRPATION OF THE BRITISH LOGWOOD CUTTERS FROM THE BAY OF HONDURAS, and frequently taking our vessels engaged in that trade, doth not sufficiently indicate a strict friendship between Spain and France, and a great lukewarmness between the former and Great-Britain?

10. Whether the strength that the French are daily gaining upon the MISSISSIPPI, and especially upon those parts bordering on the gulph of Florida; as also the absolute destruction of the Indian nation, called the Nautches, and other Indian allies of the British colonies of Georgia and Carolina, may not forbode an union between SPAIN AND FRANCE on that side, hurtful to our most southern colonies on the Continent, while France, at the same time, may attack Nova Scotia, which was formerly called the DUNKIRK of our NORTH AMERICAN settlements, while in the hands of France? And will not this be more so, if the French ever once again possess themselves of the whole, or of a part of this important colony, as they are possessed of Cape Breton? See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FLORIDA, LOUISIANA.

11. If there be any just foundation still to suspect the sincerity and friendship of Spain, does it not seem necessary to have a strict eye towards the preservation of our SUGAR COLONIES and the NEUTRAL ISLANDS, as well as towards NOVA SCOTIA?

12. Whether, if we find once more that there is no faith to be kept with France, nor with Spain, it is not full time to think of acting upon the offensive, instead of the defensive only, and that by striking the BOLDEST STROKE which we may have in our power?

13. Whe-

13. Whether the present state of the marine of Holland, and, indeed, the indifference and coldness of that republic to this nation, together with the unsettled state of their barrier; whether these considerations, and the good plight and condition of the French and Spanish marine, the death of the Grand Seignior, &c. have not excited France to their present conduct? See the articles HOLLAND, FLANDERS, and NETHERLANDS.

How Great-Britain may be able to cope with the enemy, see the articles NAVAL AFFAIRS, SEA DOMINION, SEA BRITISH, and SEAMEN. See also the article MEDITERRANEAN.

REMARKS on the Article SPAIN, since the last War, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE of 1763.

For the Definitive Treaty of 1763, the reader is referred to AMERICA, where appears the state of affairs between Great-Britain, as the same is settled since the last war. As we had conquered and possessed ourselves of the Havanna, Spain, for the restitution thereof, has ceded, by article XX, to the crown of England, the Colony of FLORIDA, with Fort St AUGUSTINE, and the BAY of PENSACOLA, as well as all that SPAIN possessed on the continent of NORTH AMERICA, to the east, or to the south-east of the RIVER MISSISSIPPI; and, in general, every thing that depends on the said countries and lands, with the sovereignty, property, possession, and all rights acquired by treaties or otherwise, which the Catholic king, and the crown of Spain have had, till now, over the said countries, lands, places, and their inhabitants; so that the Catholic king cedes and makes over the whole to the said king, and to the crown of Great-Britain, and that in the most ample manner and form.

By the VIIth article of the said DEFINITIVE TREATY, that for the future, the CONFINES between the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, and those of his Most Christian Majesty, in that part of the world, shall be fixed irrevocably, by a line drawn along the middle of the RIVER MISSISSIPPI, from its SOURCE to the RIVER IBERVILLE, and from thence by a line drawn along the middle of this river, and the LAKES MAUREPAS and PONTCHARTRAIN, to the sea; and for this purpose, the Most Christian king cedes, in full right, and guaranties to his Britannic Majesty, the RIVER and PORT of MOBILE, and every thing which he possesses, or ought to possess, on the left side the RIVER MISSISSIPPI; except the town of the NEW ORLEANS, and the ISLAND in which it is situated, which shall remain to France; provided that the RIVER MISSISSIPPI shall be equally free, as well to the subjects of Great-Britain, as to those of France, in its whole breadth and length from its source to the sea, and expressly that part which is between the said ISLAND of NEW ORLEANS, and the RIGHT BANK of that RIVER, as well as the PASSAGE both IN and OUT of its MOUTH.—It is further stipulated, that the VESSELS belonging to the subjects of either nation shall not be stopped, visited, or subject to the payment of ANY DUTY whatsoever.

By the said treaty it appears, that Great-Britain has obtained for her NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES, the BARRIER OF THE GULPH OF MEXICO, as far as the same extends to the RIVER MISSISSIPPI from east to west; and also the BARRIER of the GULPH of FLORIDA on the east of her colonies, together with the PORTS and HARBOURS of MOBILE, PENSACOLA, and St AUGUSTINE, and the FREEDOM OF THE NAVIGATION OF THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI. All which seem to promise a good SECURITY to all our SOUTHERN COLONIES on the CONTINENT; provided we can also gain the uninterrupted friendship and alliance of the INDIANS neighbouring thereupon; or if that cannot be effectually done, to keep them under due subjection to the British power and dominion.

To accomplish which now, there does not seem any great difficulty, in a little time. For we now, as it were, are in a situation to surround them by our navigation on the east, west, and south, by the Gulph of FLORIDA, the GULPH of MEXICO, and the MISSISSIPPI, on the southern part of the continent.—Which promises fair in conjunction to constitute a pretty FORMIDABLE BARRIER to our plantations of this side. And

By the IVth article of the said Treaty, his Most Christian Majesty renounces all pretensions which he has heretofore formed, or might form, to NOVA SCOTIA, or ACADIA, in all its parts, and guaranties the whole of it, and with all its DEPENDENCIES, to the king of Great-Britain.—Moreover, his Most Christian Majesty cedes and guaranties to his said Britannic Majesty, in full right, CANADA, with all its DEPENDENCIES, as well as the ISLAND of CAPE BRETON, and all the OTHER ISLANDS and coasts in the GULPH and RIVER of St LAWRENCE, and in general, every thing that depends on the said COUNTRIES, LANDS, ISLANDS, and COASTS, with the SOVEREIGNTY, PROPERTY, POSSESSION, and ALL RIGHTS ACQUIRED BY TREATY OR OTHERWISE; which the Most Christian king and the crown of France have had, till now, over the said countries, islands, lands,

places, coasts, and their inhabitants; so that the Most Christian king cedes, and makes over the whole to the said king, and to the crown of Great-Britain; and that in the most ample manner and form, without restriction, and without any liberty to depart from the said cession and guaranty under any pretence, or to disturb Great Britain, in the possessions above mentioned.

As we have seen the security the said treaty promises to our colonies on the southern parts of the continent; so here likewise we see the security it promises to our colonies on the northern parts of the continent; which considered together afford us the prospect of our MARITIME SECURITY and PROTECTION, by the means of the three great gulphs in America, that of St Lawrence in the north, MEXICO on the south, Florida on the east, and the navigation of the two great rivers, the MISSISSIPPI, and that of St LAWRENCE, both from the NORTH and from the SOUTH; besides the additional security and protection we may derive from the navigation of all the other numerous fine rivers, dispersed throughout this whole AMERICAN CONTINENT, both large and small, in every part thereof, and all fitted by nature for a perpetual commercial navigation.

The whole country, that is now annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, abounds with very large rivers, which it were endless to enter into a detail of, and for which we refer to the maps of the country for their names, courses, mouths, &c. and content ourselves with describing a few of the most considerable, as that of St Lawrence and the Mississippi.

The river St Lawrence is the largest in all North America, and inferior to few in the world, it being computed about 25 or 30 leagues wide at the mouth, and 200 fathoms in depth, and 160 leagues in length; and yet by the help of a good south wind, and the currents, which are pretty strong, may be sailed, according to Charlevoix, in 24 hours. As to its source, though the European missionaries have sailed up it above 700, or near 800 leagues, that is, as far as the LAKE of ALEMIPIGON, yet it is still unknown, unless it really springs from it, which no one hath yet been able to decide.—That LAKE discharges itself into that called the UPPER or SUPERIOR, lately mentioned, and this into that of HURON, and this into that of ERIE, or CONTI, and this last into that of FRONTENAC, or ONTARIO; all this by means of the SAME RIVER, from which it issues out with a smooth course during the first 20 leagues; after which it becomes more rapid during another 30 leagues, that is, till it comes to MONTREAL. From this it resumes its smooth flow quite to that of Quebec, growing still wider as it runs, till it empties itself into the sea above 100 leagues below it: but, according to the report of the wild natives, this famed river arises out of another LAKE, farther up, and larger than any of those we have mentioned, and which they call the LAKE of ASSINIPOLIS, or ASSIBOUELS; and this last is said by them to lie about 50 or 60 leagues above that of ALEMIPIGON, and is supposed to have a communication with the NORTHERN SEA; and it is not improbable but a northern passage into it may be found by means of this LAKE. There are falls or cataracts, such as that at NIAGARA. The river is, however, deep almost all the way, and hath a number of pleasant islands in it, the most remarkable of which are COUDRES, ORLEANS, MONTREAL, St JOHN, MISCOU, RICHLIEU, and several others. The highland is well wooded, and some lowlands well inhabited and manured, inasmuch that they yield vast crops of corn and other grain, besides fruits, pulse, &c. The settlements, which are mostly round the shores, are also well situated and built, and yield a noble prospect as one sails by them; the same may be said of the rest.

The river St Lawrence receives several considerable rivers in its course, the chief of which are called DESPRAIRIES, or OF THE MEADOWS; the MONS, the TREBLE RIVER, and the large one of SANGUENAY, and St MARGARET, near the mouth of it. All these, and other less remarkable, fall into it on the north side; there are others also on the south. The RIVER MISSISSIPPI runs through the whole province, which the French called LOUISIANA, from north to south, and overflows, at certain seasons, a vast quantity of land; it is called by the Spaniards LA PALLISADA, from the prodigious quantities of TIMBER which is sent down upon it in FLOATS to the sea. It is navigable above 450 leagues up from its mouth. The spring-head is still unknown, tho' the natives say, that it flows from a large stream that comes down from a hill in the country of the ISATI, about the 50th degree of latitude. We have an extraordinary account of the different nations met with on each side of the river, and they are represented as an hospitable, civil people, and willing to commerce with Europeans; their names and situation may be seen in the maps. The French made two settlements, the one near the LAKE ASSINIPOLIS, which is computed about 30 leagues round; the other among the Choagaskades, or stout people, who live in their neighbourhood.

The MISSISSIPPI receives a great many large rivers into its waves; and the country on both sides is fertile enough, and

and inhabited by a great variety of nations; for which we refer to Mr Sale's account thereof, who sailed down it in the year 1638, made some settlements on each side of it, and hath marked the distances between all those rivers that fall into it, and of the several nations that live between them on each side of this; the whole amount of which, from the River of the ILLINOIS, towards which he first set out, down to the mouth of it, he computes to be 653 leagues. The river discharges itself into the gulph of MEXICO, by two branches, which form an island of considerable length.

CANADA PROPER has Gaspé, St. John's Isle, Miscou Isle, Richlieu, the Treble River, Montreal, Isle Frontenac, Conti, St Francois des Anges, St Alexis, St Michael, and St Joseph; all which we shall just intimate, and not enter into a copious description.

Gaspé is chiefly worth notice, for being the capital of a large territory, called from it Gaspesia, extending along the eastern coast of this province from Cape des Rosseis, at the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, to another which lies over-against CAPE BRETON, which is about 110 leagues, and stretches itself much farther inland.

St JOHN's Isle lies on the Gaspesian coasts, and hath a bay of its name, north of the river St. Lawrence, on the way to the Hollow Island; about 60 miles long, and in some places 30 in breadth.

Miscou Island lies on the bay of St. Lawrence, east of the southern cape, called Des Chaleurs, on the Gaspesian coast, and is famed chiefly for its fertility.

RICHLIEU ISLANDS lie on the lake of St Peter, about 12 leagues from the town of Three Rivers, where the government of Montreal begins. There are above 100 of them, forming a small kind of Archipelago at the mouth of the river St Lawrence.

THE THREE RIVERS, so called from three rivers which join their currents about a quarter of a mile below it, and fall into the great one of St Lawrence. It was the capital of the French here, and much resorted to by several Indian nations, which come down those rivers to it, and trade with it in various kinds of furs. The country about it is pleasant and fertile in corn, fruits, &c. and hath a good number of lordships and handsome seats, and fine fisheries contiguous.—The town is about 30 leagues distant from Quebec, and the sailing up and down from one to the other, exceeding agreeable, and several leagues above it.

MONTREAL is situated on an island of the same name, in the river St Lawrence, about 14 leagues long, and 4 wide, where broadest, and very fruitful in corn, vegetables, &c. The town has a vast trade with the natives. The concourse of Indians of various tribes is very great, some of them coming from places distant some hundred miles; the fair is kept along the banks of the river, which lasts near three months. The natives bring thither all sorts of furs, which they exchange for guns, powder, ball, great coats, and other European garments; iron and brass work, and trinkets of every sort.

FRONTENAC is a fort on the same river, about 100 leagues above Quebec. The soil hereabout is so well cultivated as to yield all sorts of European and Indian corn and other fruits, according to Hennipin. Near is a good haven for all sorts of vessels to ride in with safety.

FORT St FRANCIS stands in the island of that name, on a bay on the south end of St PETER's LAKE.

There are several more of those islands under that name, very fertile, abounding with wood, wild fowl, pasture and cattle. A RIVER that comes down into the LAKE from NEW-YORK, and splits itself into a great number of branches, makes the country on that side very pleasant and fruitful; and so we may say of all the other parts of this country.

The PROVINCE of SANGUENAY is another part of Eastern CANADA. On the north-east it has the Indian nation Kilestinoas, on the north-west that of the Esquimaux; on the south-east it is bounded by the river St Lawrence, and on the south-west by that of Sanguenay; at the mouth of which is the town of THREE RIVERS before noticed. The river Sanguenay springs from the LAKE St JOHN, and falls into that of St Lawrence at the town of Jadoufiac, which, Charlevoix tells us, is navigable by the largest vessels above 25 leagues up. The haven will contain 25 men of war, and has good anchorage and shelter from storms. This province is much the same, as to its soil, climate, and inhabitants, with that of CANADA PROPER, before described. It yields the greatest plenty of marble of several kinds, inasmuch that not only the principal towns, forts, churches, and palaces, but even the houses of private men are built of it.

QUEBEC, the capital of CANADA, is situate on the confluence of the rivers St Lawrence, and St Charles; on the north of the former, and about 140 leagues from the sea. The haven is spacious, and able to contain at least 100 vessels of the line. A little above this is the city, situate on the narrowest part of the river; but between that, and the isle of Orleans, is a spacious bafon, a full league every way, into which the river St Charles empties itself, which flows

down from the north-west, so that it stands between the mouth of that river, and the Cape Diamant, on that of St Lawrence. The haven faces the town, and is safe and commodious, and about 25 fathom deep.

The ILLINOIS INDIANS live near the LAKE and RIVER of that name, which last springs from LAKE DAUPHIN, and after a course of above 200 leagues, exclusive of its windings, falls at length into the great river Mississippi. The people live in distant villages, on the plains on both sides of the river, beyond which are large woods and sloping hills, covered with delightful verdure at least nine months in the year, whilst the current, which is mostly south-west, is so smooth and agreeable, that vessels of a considerable size may sail up and down it with ease and safety, during a course of at least 120 leagues, before it falls into the river Mississippi. The lands on each side this river Illinois afford such plenty of pasture, that we see them covered with herds of large and small cattle, as well as goats, deer, and other beasts. The river also swarms with water-fowl of divers sorts, such as swans, geese, cranes, ducks, &c. in prodigious plenty. Great-Britain being now possessed of all the territory on the eastward of the Mississippi, we shall take notice of some other large rivers that fall into it, from FLORIDA. Mr Coxe says, that about twelve miles above the mouth of it a branch runs out of it on the east side, which, after a course of 160 miles, falls into the north-east end of the great bay of SPIRITO SANCTO. That at first 'tis very narrow and shallow, but, by the accession of several rivers, becomes a most lovely river, is navigable by the greatest boats and sloops, and forms pleasant lakes, particularly that of PONTCHARTRAIN, by which was discovered a more safe and expeditious communication with the river Mississippi, to avoid the danger and difficulty of sailing up that river by its principal mouth; the navigation of which Great-Britain is now intitled to. From this lake they enter into that of MAUREPAS; from which they go on, by means of the canal or river IBERVILLE, into the river Mississippi. When that cannot be easily done, they carry goods by land from the bay into the lake PONTCHARTRAIN, which discharges itself quite to the country of the Oumas, who are seated on the banks of the Mississippi, a little above New Orleans, and thence pursue that voyage up that river (La Martiniere.)

About 60 leagues higher up, on the east-side, is the river Yafsoona, which comes into the Mississippi, 2 or 300 miles out of the country, and is inhabited by several Indian nations. Sixty leagues higher is the river and nation of Chongue, with some others on the east of them.—Thirty leagues higher the Mississippi receives a river that proceeds from a lake about 10 miles distant, which is about 20 miles long, and receives four large rivers: 1. The Cufates, the most southern of them, being the river of the Cherokees, a mighty nation, among whom it has its chief fountains. It comes from the south-east, and its heads are among the mountains, which separate the Cherokees from Carolina, and is the great road of the traders from thence to the Mississippi, and the intermediate places.—Forty leagues above is the Chicazas; this river forms four delicate islands, which have each a nation inhabiting them. 2. The river Ouerspere, which, about 30 leagues to the north-east of the lake, divides into two branches, whereof the most southern is called the Black River.—The heads of this river are in that vast ridge of mountains that runs on the back of Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland, through which mountains there is a short passage to the sources of the great river Potomack, on the east side of them, by which the Indians, who are well acquainted with them, might, BEFORE THE PEACE, in conjunction with the French from the Mississippi, have harassed and annoyed our colonies. 3. The river Ohio, Oyo, or Hohio, which is a vast river, and comes from the back of New-York, Maryland, and Virginia. It runs through the most beautiful and fruitful countries in the world, and receives 10 or 12 rivers, besides innumerable rivulets: it is navigable 600 miles. Formerly several Indian nations dwelt on this river, who have been totally extirpated by the Iroquois, who made this river their usual road, when they entered into a war with the nations either to the south or west. 4. The most northerly river that runs into the said lake, and which comes, like the rest, from the north-east, is Jeremy's river.—Twenty-five leagues above the OHIO is the great island of Tamaroas, with a nation over-against it, that goes by its name; and another by that of Cohokia, who dwell on the banks of the Chepullo River.—Thirty leagues higher is the river Chicagou, on the river Illinois; which nation lived upon and about this river, in about 60 towns, and consisted of 20,000 fighting men, before they were destroyed by the IROQUOIS, and driven to the west of the Mississippi. This is a large pleasant river, and, about 250 miles above its entrance into the Mississippi, is divided into two branches: the lesser comes from north and by east, and its head is within 4 or 5 miles of the west side of the great lake of MICHIGEN: the biggest comes directly from the east, and proceeds from a morass within 2 miles of the river Miamiha, which runs into the same lake. On the south-east there is a communication between

tween these two rivers by a land-carriage of about two leagues, 50 miles to the south-east of the lake — The course of this river Chegogon is above 400 miles, navigable above half way by ships, and most of the rest by sloops and barges. It receives many small rivers, and forms 2 or 3 lakes, one especially, called Pimeteovi, 20 miles long and 3 broad, which affords great quantities of good fish, as the adjacent country does game, both of fowls and beasts. Several Indian nations inhabit round about. There is a fort erected here called Crevecoeur, which is about half way betwixt the gulph of Mexico and Canada, and was formerly the usual road of the French to and from both, till they discovered a shorter and easier passage by the rivers OUABACKÉ, and the HONIO, which rise at a small distance from lake ERIE, or some rivers which enter it.

Eighty leagues higher, the river Mississippi receives the MISCONSIAG, a river resembling that of the ILLINOIS, in breadth, depth, and course; and the country adjacent to its branches is alike pleasant and fruitful. — Sixty miles before it falls into the Mississippi, it is joined by the river Kikapouz, which is also navigable, and comes a great way from the north-east. — Eighty miles farther, almost directly east, there is a communication by a land-carriage of two leagues with the river Miscongwi, which runs to the north-east, and after a passage of 150 miles from the land carriage, falls into the great bay of Ponkeontamis or the Puans, which joins on the north-west side to the great river of the ILLINOIS. — Higher up the Mississippi is the river Chabadeba, above which the Mississippi makes a fine lake 20 miles long, and 8 or 10 broad. — Ten miles above that lake is the river of Tortoises, a large fair river, which runs into the country a good way to the north-east, and is navigable 40 miles by the greatest boats.

The rivers which do not communicate with the Mississippi, are only two large ones betwixt it and the peninsula of Florida; viz. the Coza and the Potache.

The Coza or COUSSA river, which the French have called MOBILE, rises from the Apalachean mountains, with several heads, of which the most northern is at the town and province of Guaxulá, at the foot of the mountains. Many rivulets uniting after a course of 80 miles, form a river, with several delightful isles, in a country wonderfully pleasant and delightful. — The first considerable town, or province, is Chiaha, with a river of its own name, which helps to enlarge the Coza; and which is famous for its pearl-fishing. From thence the river grows larger and deeper, being reinforced by others from the mountains and the valleys, till it enters the province of Coza, which is reckoned one of the most fruitful and pleasant parts of the country, and very populous. It consists of hills and valleys, rivulets, arable land, and lovely meadows. — Prunes grow naturally in the fields better than can be produced in Spain by culture; and though there are some vines that creep upon the ground, there are other which mount, in almost all places near the rivers, to the tops of the trees. The Coza river enters the Gulph of Mexico 100 miles south of Manhela, or MOBILE, as the French have called it. — One of the rivers that enters the Coza is the Chatta, where inhabit Indians of the same name. — To the east of the Cozas are the Becues, or Abecaes, who have 13 towns; and dwell on divers rivers, which run into the Coza. It is a very pleasant country, consisting of hills and valleys, and its soil is generally more marly or fatter than that of many other provinces. — A little more to the south west, between the Abecaes and Chattas, the Ewemalas dwell on a fair river of the same name, which coming from the north-east, mingles with the Coza. Mr Coxe says, this great river Coza falls into the Gulph of Mexico, 15 leagues east of the great bay of Nassau or Spirito Santo, or north east of the cape of Myrtle island. — The Ullibalys or Allibamous, Chicazas, and Chattas, who are the most considerable nations upon and between the rivers Coza and Mississippi, kindly entertained the English who resided among them several years, and CARRIED ON A SAFE AND PEACEABLE TRADE WITH THEM, TILL ABOUT THE YEAR 1715, WHEN, BY THE INTRIGUES OF THE FRENCH, THEY WERE EITHER MURDERED, OR OBLIGED TO MAKE ROOM FOR THOSE NEW INVADERS, WHO HAVE SINCE UNJUSTLY POSSESSED AND FORTIFIED THE SAME STATIONS, IN ORDER TO CURB THE NATIVES, AND TO CUT OFF THEIR COMMUNICATION WITH THE ENGLISH TRADERS; WHEREBY THEY ENGROSSED A PROFITABLE TRADE FOR ABOVE 500 MILES; OF WHICH THE BRITISH SUBJECTS WERE A FEW YEARS AGO THE SOLE MASTERS.

The town and fort in the ISLE of DAUPHINE lies about 9 leagues south of Fort Lewis, and 10 leagues west of PENSACOLA. The distance between the river Coza, and that of Palache or Spirito Santo, to the east, is about 190 miles, and the coast between them is deep and bold. — The chief harbour betwixt these two rivers, and indeed THE BEST upon all this coast of the GULPH OF MEXICO, is PENSACOLA, belonging by the last treaty of peace to the crown of Great Britain; it being a large port, safe from

all winds, which has four fathom at the entrance, and deepens gradually to seven, or eight — It lies 11 leagues east of PORT LEWIS AND MOBILE, 90 west from the upper part of the peninsula of Florida, and 158 from the TORTUGAS ISLANDS. — The land here produces pine trees, fit for ship-masts, of which many were cut down by the Spaniards, and carried to VERA-CRUZ, by a ship belonging to the FLOTA, that brought provisions, and returned with timber. There is a communication from hence by land with Apalachy.

APALACHYCOLA is a good harbour, 30 leagues east of the former, and as much from what the Spaniards called the river SPIRITO SANTO. This river enters the Gulph of Mexico about 100 miles from the cod of the bay of Potache, at the north-west of the peninsula of Florida, in about north lat. 30. It is not easy to find this place, by reason of the isles and lakes before and about it, and though a stately river, whose mouth makes a large harbour, FROM WHENCE A TRADE WAS CARRIED ON TO THE HAVANNA, by small vessels, yet it has not above two fathom water and a half, or three fathom at most, on the bar; but when that is passed, it is very deep and large, and the tide flows higher into it than into any other river upon all the coast. On both sides of it, towards the sea coast, live the nations of the Cushe-taes, Talliboufes, and Adebaches. This river proceeds chiefly from others, which have their origin on the south or south-west side of the great ridge of hills that divides this country from Carolina, and is supposed to have a course of about 400 miles. — All the channel from hence to the Tortugas islands, is called the Bay of Certos. — Here is a communication from hence by land with the PORT OF St. AUGUSTINE in the GULPH OF FLORIDA.

In the bay of NASSAU, or SPIRITO SANTO, there are four islands, which lie from south to north-east for 50 miles, with openings between them a mile or two over. The most northerly is that betwixt which and the continent is the entrance of the bay. It is called Myrtle Island, about 24 miles in length, but in some places very narrow. Some think it is the same that the French call L'Isle des Vaisseaux, or the Ships Island; which, considering its distance from Dauphiny island, and the convenient shelter it affords ships from the wind, is not improbable. — The bay is 15 miles broad from Myrtle Island to a row of islands which run parallel with the main and another bay between them, and stretch 50 or 60 miles to the south; as far as one of the smaller mouths of the Mississippi.

BILOCOBY BAY, with another fair harbour, is about 15 leagues to the north-east of the most eastern branch of the Mississippi, and a small river near it, called Passagoula.

We now shall touch on the Peninsula of Florida, which lies betwixt the Gulph of Mexico on the west, the Atlantic ocean on the east, and the Straits of Bahama on the south. It is about 100 leagues in length, but not above 30 where broadest. The ports and towns of strength and convenience, are St. AUGUSTINE and St. MATTHEO.

St. AUGUSTINE, on the eastern coast of the peninsula, is about 70 leagues from the mouth of the Gulph of Florida, or channel of Bahama, 30 south of the river Alatomaha, and 47 from the town and river of Savannah. — The city runs along the shore at the bottom of a pleasant hill shaded with trees in the form of an oblong square, being divided into four regular streets, which cut each other at right angles. The town is built thickest on the north side towards the castle, about a mile off, called St John's Fort. — There were 50 pieces of cannon mounted on the castle, 16 brass, and some 24 pounders. It has a covered way, and the town is intrenched with 10 saliant angles, each defended with cannon, and the castle is secured on the west by a morass. The port is formed by an island and a long point of land, divided from the continent by a river, which falls into the sea two miles above the fort. The island is called Eustacia, or Metanzas.

Though this place is of pretty good strength, every circumstance considered; yet Sir Francis Drake took it, 1586, and it was plundered by Captain Davis in 1665. In 1702, it was attacked by the English and Indians of Carolina, under Colonel Moore, who ruined the villages and farms in the open country, and besieged this town three months; but at the approach of some Spanish vessels to its relief, he raised the siege, and marched back to Charles town, 300 miles by land, leaving the ship and stores he brought with him to the enemy. — It was besieged again by General Oglethorpe in 1740, but to little purpose.

This port, now belonging to Great-Britain, may be attended with extraordinary advantages to the English, our southern settlements on the continent being hereby secured against any future attempts of the Spaniards by land; especially, when the utility of the other ports in the Gulph of Mexico is conjunctively considered. — Besides the great service this place may be to our trade, in not only depriving the Spaniards of a port from whence they might annoy us on that side, but also by enabling us to annoy them upon occasion, by cruizing on their home-ward-bound ships coming from the Gulph of Florida, and the Streights of Bahama.

Another place in the Gulph of Florida, next to St AUGUSTINE, that may be of service to this kingdom on an emergency, is St MATTHEO, about 15 leagues to the north. It is the frontier town of Florida next to Georgia. — The English besieged it in 1715, but were obliged to desist with considerable loss.

The sea upon this coast, and off, as far as the Bahama islands, which lie opposite to it, is termed the Gulph of Florida, which, according to our best navigators, is reckoned about 16 or 18 leagues over. And here the mighty current, which upon all the south part of the Gulph of Mexico sets constantly in with a strong stream to the west, driving so all the way to the very coast of La Vera Cruz, turns away again to the east, between the isle of Cuba, and the south coast of North-America, and finding no vent 'till it passes by Cape Florida, it then turns from south to north, and runs through this gulph into the great Atlantic ocean. For this reason it is that all ships from Jamaica bound for England come through this gulph to have the benefit of this current, which has sometimes proved dangerous both to the English as well as Spaniards. To avoid which the navigators make an allowance of about five points in the COMPASS for the current, and keep as near as possible to the Bahama side. — But as hazardous as this passage has sometimes proved for ships bound to Europe, there remains no other course for them to take; except that of the WINDWARD PASSAGE; and in a course of above 160 leagues from Cape Morant, the east point of Jamaica, to the north side of Crooked Island, which is what is called the Windward Passage, the English traders, in time of war, are in continual danger of being taken by the Spanish guarda costas, besides the perils of the sea.

Here it is necessary to observe, from the judicious navigator Mr Atkins, who in his voyage to the West-Indies says, “ that ships and vessels may, and often have failed through “ this channel from the NORTH SIDE OF CUBA to “ the BAY OF MEXICO, notwithstanding the common “ opinion on account of the current that is against it; that “ they keep the BAHAMA shore aboard; and that they meet “ the wind in summer for the most part of the channel “ easterly, which, with a counter-current on shore, pushes “ them easily through it.

He adds two observations of the pilots, in relation to this gulph: “ 1. This stream goes constantly out to north- “ ward in the middle channel, its force having some re- “ spect (like tides in other countries) to the moon and the “ winds; with a counter-current, or at least a stillness of “ the water, on shore, that will enable a ship to turn through, “ be the middle stream ever so strong; the same as in “ the Strait of Gibraltar, where, though the current “ runs continually into the Mediterranean, ships may “ work through, keeping the shore aboard. 2. The cur- “ rent which goes out here sets for most part into the “ Gulph of Mexico, between the two capes of Corientes and “ Catoche, with counter-currents on shore, though not “ always so, the pilots having observed them strong to the “ east at the new and full moons.”

From the preceding succinct survey of our present North American settlements, we conceive the following obvious inferences deducible.

1. That it is not the extent and magnitude of our new possessions in America, which would have proved of any manner of advantage to Great-Britain, if they were inaccessible by our ROYAL NAVY and our MERCANTILE SHIPPING; or if the whole had not abounded with numerous very large and extensive inland navigable rivers, whereby we could have an easy and safe communication with every part belonging to the crown of these kingdoms. They would not have been worth our acceptance; and it would have been the most infatuated bad policy to have given up our conquests, surrounded by the sea, for such new continental acquisitions.

2. But as our new territories are restrained in extent to the confines of the MISSISSIPPI, and the freedom of the navigation of that river secured to us from the source to the mouth, to the westward of our ancient colonies: as in consequence hereof, and the possession of all FLORIDA, we are also intitled to the navigation in the BAY of MEXICO to the SOUTHWARD of our ancient colonies, and are become possessed there of the ports and harbours of the bay of PALACHE, PENSACOLA, and MOBILE: as we have also secured to ourselves the additional ports and harbours of St MATTHEO and St AUGUSTINE on the south-east side of our ancient colonies, and those too in the GULPH of FLORIDA, through which the treasure of NEW SPAIN passes: as we have obtained likewise to ourselves the navigation of the GULPH and RIVER St LAWRENCE to the northward of our ancient colonies, and the freedom of navigation in these parts is secured to us by the acquisition of CAPE BRETON; which by good management may render our navigation here no less secure than Gibraltar has done that of the Mediterranean: as we have obtained the right of possession of CANADA, and all its DEPENDENCIES, still further to strengthen us on the northern side of our

ancient colonies: as we may be said, at present, to enjoy a MARITIME BARRIER to all our ancient continental colonies on the NORTH, EAST, WEST and SOUTH, and a navigable intercourse, by many very spacious and fine rivers among them; whereby we shall be able to protect them in their inland, as well as their extensive maritime parts, and cultivate an internal as well as a maritime commerce with the whole within the British boundaries; all our colonies will receive greater security than ever they had before; and therefore we may reasonably enough presume they will grow more and more prosperous, and thereby administer greater reciprocal aid, succour and support to each other, as well as to their mother country. For,

3. It is hardly to be doubted but Great-Britain will exert every measure that will tend to produce or compel such a union among all our colonies, as will add proportional strength to the whole continent; such a united degree of strength and power, as will, in future, render them a full match for France and Spain, and those their INDIAN ALLIES who may be perfidiously instigated to annoy them. — We shall soon be in a capacity, now the boundaries of Great-Britain and France are ascertained, on the American continent, to manage the INDIANS, seeing both nations are limited to their respective sides of the great river Mississippi. If we cannot, by every fair, upright and equitable method, which we hope will be first tried, bring the Indians on our side the great river to live in perfect friendship and harmony with us, we must, for our own safety and prosperity, be compelled to carry fire and sword amongst them, and drive them on the western side of the river: yet we must further hope, that we shall not be irritated too suddenly to this extremity, lest this should strengthen the hands of our enemies there, and enable them to have those Indians the more under their command, and subject to their eternal intrigues and machinations to distress us. — If we should experience, that the French are not determined to keep the peace, but will stir up the Indians to be our perpetual enemies, and will secretly supply them with arms and ammunition to commit ravages and depredations upon our colonists, we must be obliged to deprive France of their settlement at NEW ORLEANS, and of their navigation on the MISSISSIPPI: this, perhaps, may be much easier practicable, than preventing the French from exciting the savages to continue in eternal war with us: and 'till the French shall be totally extirpated from the whole continent, there is reason to fear, they will never desist from influencing the savages to our constant detriment.

4. It does not, therefore, seem at all improbable, that at length what has been suggested may soon come to pass, and that we shall have the whole continent to ourselves, be unmolested either by France or Spain, and bring the Indians under an amicable dominion. For if Spain should interfere to regain Florida, or practise any arts to strengthen the Indian nations against us, for the safety of all our colonies, we must be again forced into a rupture with them also: and if this should be the case, on any occasion whatsoever, we are certainly now in a better situation to carry on a war against both Spain and France than ever we were before we obtained our new conquests. — With regard to Spain, in this part of America, should we be compelled soon to draw the sword against them, our present situation in the GULPH of Mexico gives us just pretensions to have as many ships stationed there, when we see reason for it, as the Spaniards may have at the Havanna; and what then is likely to become of the HAVANNA and the treasure from MEXICO? If, upon any contravention of the treaty of peace, on the part of Spain, the court of England should resolve upon reprisals, will not our present situation enable us to become masters of the Spanish treasure from LA VERA CRUZ? See our articles MEXICO, OLD MEXICO, and NEW MEXICO. Must not this prove a perpetual alarm to the Spaniards, lest their FLOTA should fall into British hands upon any provocation? Are we not also better situated than before the last peace, to intercept their Galloons from PERU, which are obliged to sail to the Havanna, as well as the FLOTA, and from thence pass through the GULPH of FLORIDA? And are not our ships stationed in the GULPH of MEXICO, and that also of FLORIDA, more likely to intercept their treasures, both from MEXICO and PERU, before they arrive at the Havanna, and also after sailing from thence to Old Spain, than they ever were before? Our stations at the BASTIMENTOS, and JAMAICA, for those purposes, we have experienced to have been very precarious. — Next to the HAVANNA itself, we cannot be better situated than we now are, for such important occasions.

In case of a fresh rupture between England and Spain, of which we are speaking, are not the English, situated in the gulph of Mexico and Florida, more likely to reconquer the Havanna than they ever were before? With our ships stationed at Jamaica on one side, and in the gulph of Mexico and Florida on the other, with a force suitable to the occasion, and a resolution in the court of England to take it, we have little reason to fear success, while, as was said by a brave English admiral on another occasion, IT WAS OPEN AT TOP, let the Spaniards fortify and fortify again. As

our northern colonies gave all possible assistance, at the taking of CAPE BRETON, for their future security; so have we not reason to believe the like British spirit will manifest itself in the southern colonies, when we shall again besiege the Havanna? On such an occasion, may we not expect great aid from Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas?

The spirit of conquest is not abated in Britons; and if we have occasion to exert it again, we may possibly carry it farther than the Havanna. Being once again masters of that, who will hinder us from carrying our conquests a step further into the bottom of the gulph of Mexico, and becoming victors of the Mexican treasure at LA VERA CRUZ? And will not our domestic circumstances of PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, especially upon a fresh war, with Spain, oblige us to make our enemies contribute as much towards the immediate expence thereof as possible, and even to enable us to discharge those NATIONAL DEBTS, which they have occasioned? If this resolution is not taken in the next war, I should be glad to be informed, how many more such wars as we have already been engaged in, we can afford to undertake? Or, to ask this question in another manner, what degree of further public debts and taxes can this kingdom bear, before she arrives at her NE PLUS ULTRA of national incumbrances? Or, will people be so wild and infatuated as to imagine that we can never be so loaded with PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, as to be unable to raise more money to carry on wars? No man in his senses will assert this. — We have seen what may naturally enough prove the consequence of another Spanish war soon happening with Great-Britain. — Let us now please ourselves with the view of the consequences also of a French war falling out at the same time; for the one will bring on the other, especially since the FAMILY COMPACT has taken place.

It has been observed already, that England will find no great difficulty to dispossess the French of New Orleans, and deprive them of the navigation of the Mississippi, owing to our present situation for the purpose. As this seems to point out the fate of France in these southern parts of the American continent; so what may we reasonably expect will be their doom in the northern parts, where they have as little to defend themselves from British powers as they have in the southern? We are already in possession of all the territory, and of every place of importance to our security there. We have CAPE BRETON, which we may render more invincible than the Spaniards can do their Havanna, as being environed by the united force and aid of all our colonies in this part. Is it possible that the small isles of St Pierre and Miquelon should enable France to make head against the united strength of all our colonists? If France, therefore, quarrels with us again, we should, I am persuaded, meet with little obstruction in turning them out of the whole Newfoundland fishery: and when they oblige us to do that again, do they not put it once more in our power to deprive them for ever of this their chief fishery, which is their nursery for seamen? Can they flatter themselves, that this nation will evermore be their dupes to restore them to this privilege again? They cannot; because our circumstances will no longer admit of it. The weight of our public debts and taxes, in consequence of another war, will become so unwieldy, that our future safety and preservation will oblige us to keep what we conquer, or to dispose thereof, that the same must never revert into French hands. See our article WAR. For we are no longer in a capacity to continue the old system, to fight to negotiate, and negotiate to fight again. See CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT].

TAFFORDSHIRE is bounded on the east by Warwickshire and Derbyshire, on the south by Worcestershire, on the west by Shropshire and Cheshire; which last joining Derbyshire, makes the north border. In compass it is 141 miles.

Its air is generally good, as is the soil also, even the Moorlands, which are mountainous, and therefore reckoned the most barren, producing a short, but sweet grass, by which they breed as fine large cattle as those of Lancashire.

As to subterraneous productions, both the Moorlands and Woodlands yield lead, copper, iron, marble, alabaster, millstones, coals, salt, &c. beside various sorts of useful earths and clays.

LICHFIELD is a pretty large neat city, within three miles of the Trent.

TAFFORD, the shire-town, on the river Sow, is well built, and much increased of late, both in wealth and inhabitants, by its manufacture in cloth.

NEWCASTLE UNDER LINE is an antient corporation. The chief manufacture is hats. The cloathing trade also flourishes here, and the town is surrounded with coal-pits.

WOLVERHAMPTON is a populous, well-built town. The chief manufacturers here are locksmiths, who are reckoned the most expert of that trade in England.

WALSAL, pleasantly seated on the top of a hill, has a good market, and in and near it are several mines of iron, where-with the townsmen make spurs, bridle-bits, stirrups, buckles, &c. in which they carry on a considerable trade.

PENKRIDGE is noted for its great horse-fair, reckoned one of the greatest in the universe, especially hunters and road-horses, which are brought hither from Yorkthire, and all the horse-breeding counties in England. 'Tis held the 29th of September.

BURTON is of most note for its fine ale, and a manufacture of cloth, which was carried on formerly to greater advantage than at present.

STOCK-JOBGING.

Of the Art or Mystery of trafficking in the PUBLIC FUNDS.

The chief Laws and Statutes concerning Exchange-Brokers, and Stock-jobbing.

Brokers are those persons that contrive, make, and conclude, bargains and contracts between merchants and tradesmen, in matters of money and merchandize, for which they have a fee or reward; and they are called Exchange-brokers in some of our statutes.

By the statute 8 & 9 W. III. cap. 32. for restraining the ill practice of brokers and stock-jobbers; no person shall use or exercise the office or employment of a broker, in London or Westminster, &c. in making or concluding bargains between merchant and merchant, or others, concerning any wares and merchandizes, or monies to be taken up by exchange, or tallies or orders, bills, notes, stock of any company of trade, &c. until such person shall be admitted and licensed by the lord mayor and court of aldermen of London. And, upon admittance of any such broker, he shall take an oath, that he will truly and faithfully execute the office between party and party, without any fraud or collusion, according to the purport of the act, &c. Likewise, he shall give bond to the lord mayor, &c. in the penalty of 500l. for the faithful execution of his office, without any fraud or corrupt practice. The number of such brokers shall not, at one time, exceed one hundred; and the lord mayor and court of aldermen shall cause their names and places of habitation to be publicly affixed on the Royal-Exchange, and other public places: and every sworn broker, after his admittance, as aforesaid, shall carry about him a silver medal, having the king's arms on one side, and the arms of the city of London, with his own name, on the other side; which he shall produce at the concluding of every bargain to the parties concerned, upon pain to forfeit 40s. for every omission.

If any person shall act as a broker, not being admitted according to this act, he shall forfeit 500l. besides such other forfeitures as he may any ways incur thereby; and in case any one shall knowingly employ any person to deal for him as a broker, or stock-jobber, who is not admitted and sworn as aforesaid, such person shall forfeit the sum of 50l. And if any person, not being a sworn broker, according to this statute, shall act and deal in discounting tallies or bills, or in stock-jobbing, in selling stock, or any security upon any funds granted by parliament, he shall be liable to the forfeiture of 500l. and to stand on the pillory in some public place in London, three several days, for the space of one hour.

Every sworn broker is to keep a book or register, and therein enter all contracts and bargains that he shall make between any persons, within three days after any contract made, and for omitting so to do, he forfeits 50l. And if any such broker shall, directly or indirectly, take above 10 per cent. for brokerage, he shall, for every offence, forfeit 10l. Also, if any sworn broker deal for himself, in the exchange or remittance of monies; or buy any tallies, orders, bills, or shares in any joint-stock, for his own use; or shall buy goods or merchandizes to sell again, or make any profit in buying or selling any goods, more than the brokerage allowed, he shall forfeit the sum of 200l. and be for ever incapable to act as a broker.

All policies, contracts, or agreements, upon which any premium is, or shall be given or paid, for liberty to deliver, receive, accept, or refuse any share in any joint-stock, tallies, orders, Exchequer-bills, &c. other than such policies and contracts as are to be performed within three days from the time of making the same, shall be null and void, and every such premium shall be paid back: and if any premium be given, contrary to the intent and meaning of this act, with the privity of a sworn broker; or if any person shall trade therein as a broker, without being lawfully admitted, and the same shall come to the knowledge of any sworn broker, in every such case, such sworn broker shall forthwith discover the same; and, in default thereof, he shall be disabled to exercise the trade and office.

And all penalties and forfeitures given by this act, shall be recovered by action of debt, &c. in any of the king's courts of record at Westminster, one moiety whereof to go to the king, the other to him that shall sue for the same.

By the 6 Geo. I. cap. 18. it is declared, that all undertakings, tending to the common grievance and prejudice of his Majesty's subjects, or great numbers of them, in their trade, commerce,

commerce, &c. and particularly the acting as a corporate-body, by raising stocks, and the transferring or assigning any share in such stock, without authority by act of parliament or charter to warrant the same; and all acting under any charter formerly granted, for particular purposes, by persons who shall endeavour to use the same charters for raising a capital stock, or making transfers or assignments thereof, not intended by such charter to be raised or transferred; and acting under any obsolete charter, &c. shall for ever be deemed to be illegal and void.

All such undertakings and attempts, and things whatsoever, for furthering, countenancing, or proceeding therein, and relating thereto, shall be deemed public nuisances; and the offenders be liable to fines and punishments accordingly, and also incur any farther pains, &c. as are provided by the statute of præmunire.

And if any merchant or trader shall suffer any particular damage in this trade, &c. by occasion of any undertaking by this act declared unlawful, he may have his remedy for the same by action, to be grounded on the statute, against the person, societies, or partnerships engaged in such undertaking, &c. and in every such action the plaintiff shall recover treble damages with full costs.

If any broker, or person acting as a broker, for himself, or in behalf of others, shall bargain, sell, or buy, or contract for the bargaining, selling, or buying, any share or interest in any of the undertakings hereby adjudged to be unlawful, or in any stock of such undertakers, he shall not only be disabled to act as a broker for the future, but shall forfeit 500 l. one moiety to the use of the crown, and the other to the informer.

By 7 Geo. II. cap. 8. all contracts which shall be entered into, upon which any premium shall be given for liberty to deliver or receive, accept or refuse any public stock or securities, and all wagers, puts, and refusals, relating to the present or future price of stock or securities, shall be void; and all premiums upon such contracts or wagers shall be restored to the person who shall pay them; who, within six months from the making of such contract, &c. may sue for the same with double costs: and it shall be sufficient for the plaintiff to allege, that the defendant is indebted to him, or has received to his use, the money or premium so paid, whereby the action accrued, according to the form of the statute, without setting forth the special matter; and a bill in equity may be preferred for discovering any contract or wager, and the premium given, which the defendant shall be obliged to answer upon oath, &c.

Every person who shall make any contract, upon which any premium shall be given for liberty to put upon, deliver, accept, or refuse any stocks or securities, or any contract in the nature of puts and refusals, or shall lay any wagers, &c. as aforesaid, (except such persons who bona fide sue, and with effect prosecute for recovery of the premium paid by them; and that shall voluntarily, before any suit commenced, repay, or tender such premium which they shall have received; and except those persons as shall discover such transactions in any court of equity) shall forfeit 500 l. And all persons negotiating or writing such contract, incur the like penalty and forfeiture; which penalties may be recovered by action of debt, or information, in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster.

No money or other consideration shall be voluntarily given or received, for compounding any difference for the not delivering or receiving any public stock or securities; but all such contracts shall be specifically executed; and all persons who shall compound any difference, shall forfeit 100 l. And no person who shall sell stock, to be delivered and paid for a certain day, if it be refused or neglected to be paid for, shall be obliged to transfer the same; but it shall be lawful for such person to sell such stock to any other, and to receive or recover, from the person who contracted for the same, the damage which shall be sustained: and any person that shall buy stock, to be accepted and paid for on a future day, and which shall be refused or neglected to be transferred, may buy the same quantity of such stock of any other person, at the current market-price, and recover and receive, from the first seller, the damage sustained.

All contracts made for the buying or transferring of stock, whereof the persons, on whose behalf the contract shall be made to transfer the same, shall not at the time of making any such contract be actually possessed in their own right, or in the name of trustees, shall be void; and every person in whose behalf, and with whose consent, any contract shall be so made to sell stock, of which such person is not actually possessed, &c. shall forfeit the sum of 500 l. one moiety to the crown, and the other moiety to them that shall sue for the same; and any broker or agent, who shall negotiate such contract, and shall know that the person on whose behalf the contract shall be made, is not possessed of the stock, shall forfeit 100 l. to be divided between the king and the prosecutor.

Every broker, or person who shall act as a broker, receiving brokerage in the buying or disposing of stocks, shall keep a broker's book, in which he shall enter all contracts that he shall make, on the day of the making such contracts, with

the names of the principal parties, as well buyers as sellers; and such brokers, who shall not keep such book, or shall wilfully omit to enter any contract, shall, for every such offence, forfeit 50 l. one moiety to his Majesty, and the other moiety to the person suing for the same.

But nothing in this act shall extend to any contracts for the purchase or sale of stock, to be made in pursuance of any decree or order of the court of chancery, with the privity of the accomptant-general of that court: nor shall any thing in the act hinder any person from lending money on stock, or contracts for re-delivering or transferring thereon, so as no premium be paid for the loan, more than legal interest.

REMARKS.

Plain reasons why STOCK-JOBING has been, and still continues to be, detrimental to the commerce of this nation.

I. In relation to TRADING COMPANIES, whose stocks have been jobbed in, without due regard to the advancement of the commerce of the nation, by the means of those trading companies, as was the great plea for their primary institution.

1. Because, when the African trade was first established by a company, it had such reputation, that shares therein rose from 100 l. to 480 l. whereby the artful managers got great estates in selling shares; but after they had made their market, by practising on the passions of those unexperienced in this kind of mysterious traffic, the shares fell from 480 l. to FORTY SHILLINGS; which proved not only unspeakably prejudicial to that valuable branch of commerce, but injurious to many good families, and destructive to numbers of widows and orphans. This was formerly also the fate of the HUDSON'S BAY TRADE, the WHALE FISHERY, and SPICE TRADE, &c.

2. Because stock-jobbing has been the parent of numberless trading bubbles. See our article BUBBLES and ACTIONS.

3. Because jobbing in the South-Sea scheme of the year 1720, not only ruined thousands of families; but did great injury to the public credit of the nation. See our article SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.

4. Because stock-jobbing schemes have had as fatal effects in France as in England. See the article MISSISSIPPI.

5. Because, in times of danger and difficulty, the stocks of trading companies, which must be always negotiable, are liable, upon every idle rumour, to be raised and lowered by the jobbers therein, to answer their lucrative purposes, and thereby to hurt the PUBLIC CREDIT of those companies, as well as the PUBLIC CREDIT of the nation in general.

6. Because companies may act so imprudently, or unjustly towards other nations, in the exercise of their commerce, as may involve the nation in WARS and PUBLIC DEBTS, as well as ruin numbers of the stock-proprietors. See SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, and SPANISH AMERICA.

7. Because the domestic traffic in the stocks of companies, so engrosses the thoughts of the proprietors, that the national commerce often suffers, for want of that money being employed in a free trade; which might prove much more to the advantage of the kingdom, as well as to that of the stockholders themselves, if they employed the same property in the general trade.—These considerations may, perhaps, furnish the weightiest objections that can be urged against all JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES.

8. Because PRIVATE CREDIT is greatly injured hereby; for the monies of the opulent being locked up in these channels of domestic bubbling, and the stockholders heads wholly engaged in this kind of negotiations, industrious and skilful traders are deprived of those loans of money, which they were wont to have on their PERSONAL SECURITY, at the legal interest, wherewith to carry on the solid national commerce.—Whence private credit has received unspeakable detriment, for want of a competency of cash to circulate the general trade; whereby dealings for READY MONEY, or very short credit, which was greatly the case before STOCK-TRADING took place, are quite laid aside, and long credits enhance the price of our commodities, and bankruptcies have since proved more numerous than ever. See our article CREDIT [PRIVATE CREDIT].

II. THE INJURIOUS EFFECTS OF STOCK-JOBING, WITH REGARD TO THE PUBLIC REVENUE FUNDS.

1. Because the PUBLIC FUNDS, together with companies stocks, engross that ready money that should otherwise be employed in trade, either by the proprietors or others; which would prevent that long credit which is so fatally customary in our trade, that tends to ruin it in all nations where we have any commerce; for, as foreigners know that our manufacturers are obliged to give and take credit at home, so they have insisted upon long credits abroad.—This prevents all ready money returns, which ruins the merchant as well as the manufacturer.—Whereas, was that money employed in trade, that circulates in the public funds, this practice of long credits would cease both at home and abroad, our commodities go far cheaper to foreign markets than otherwise they can do, quick returns be made, our traders saved from bankruptcy, and our rivals prevented from supplanting us at foreign markets, as they now do.

2. Because

2. Because, while people have opportunity to deal in the funds, they will endeavour, from a spirit of indolence, to subsist on their income that way, and turn their backs on all fair national trade.—This sinks the trade of the nation, for want of that circulation of money requisite to carry it on to proper advantage; whereby, instead of increasing in skilful traders, we swarm in stock-holders and stock-jobbers, brokers and usurers: and thus there appears to be plenty of money for funding and jobbing, while the trade of the nation, which alone can enable us to pay the interest and principal, is starved for want of money to circulate it the most to the public interest.

3. Because funding and stock-jobbing can never increase, but must daily lessen the commerce of the nation, which must daily lessen its real and substantial wealth, and augment only that which is imaginary.

4. Because this kind of traffic gives foreigners, who are proprietors in our funds, an opportunity at critical conjunctures, to use many artifices, in concert with our domestic jobbers, to raise and fall stocks as they please, draw the real money out of the kingdom, and prejudice or ruin the public credit, to answer some infamous temporary purposes.—Wherefore, to damp the spirit of STOCK-JOBGING, we must encourage that of COMMERCE; and to uphold the PUBLIC CREDIT, we must either lessen our PUBLIC DEBTS, or use a SPUNGE, with which the public creditors have been threatened by some of late. See the article MONEY.

SUBSIDY, an aid, tax, or tribute, granted by the parliament to the king upon urgent occasions, and imposed upon the subjects, according to a certain rate on lands or goods.

SUBSIDY is also a duty paid at the custom-house upon foreign goods imported into this kingdom. There are various **SUBSIDIES** granted by acts of parliament, according to the exigencies of public affairs. The **SUBSIDY INWARDS**, or **OLD SUBSIDY**. This duty is composed of a **TONNAGE** and **POUNDAGE DUTY**; which names arise from the different regulations, whereby it is imposed and levied. By the act of 12 Car. II. cap. 4. it is called a **TONNAGE DUTY** on wines imported, being thereon regulated by a sum certain on every ton; and it is called a **POUNDAGE DUTY** on other goods and merchandize imported, being thereon regulated by a **CERTAIN PORTION OF A POUND (OR TWENTY SHILLINGS IN MONEY)** of a certain **RATE** or **VALUATION** fixed in the **BOOK OF RATES**, which see.

TONNAGE is payable (in ready money by 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 1. 4. before landing) on all wines imported. 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 16. except prisage wines. See **PRISAGE**. And by the 13 and 14 of Car. II. cap. 2. vinegar, perry, rape of grape, syder and syder eager, which by the 12 Car. II. cap. 4. were under the common regulation of **POUNDAGE**, are made subject to **TONNAGE** for this Subsidy: on all which it is to be respectively levied and collected according to the several acts pointed out in the **BOOK OF RATES**.

Another subsidy is called the **NEW SUBSIDY**. It is to be raised, levied, and collected, by the same rules, orders, and methods, and under the same penalties and forfeitures, as signified in the several acts contained in the **BOOK OF RATES**.

There is a subsidy named the **ONE-THIRD SUBSIDY**, which is the amount of **ONE-THIRD** of the preceding subsidy. This branch, as well as the former subsidies, is composed of a tonnage and poundage duty, and is payable in all cases where that is due: it is to be raised, secured, and paid, by the same ways and means, and methods, under such penalties and forfeitures, and subject to such rules and directions, as for the **NEW SUBSIDY**. Therefore it is to be computed by taking one-third part of the net **New Subsidy** of Tonnage and Poundage.

Another subsidy is termed the **TWO-THIRDS SUBSIDY**; which branch of the customs, as well as the former subsidies, is composed of a tonnage and poundage duty, and is raised, secured, and paid, by the same ways and methods, under such penalties and forfeitures, and subject to such rules and directions, as before directed for the **New Subsidy** and the **One-third Subsidy**. It is an additional subsidy of two third parts of the **New Subsidy** upon all goods liable to the said **New Subsidy**, except in certain cases excepted, as per acts of parliament, and contained in the **BOOK OF RATES**.

There is also the **SUBSIDY** of 1747. This branch is over and above all subsidies, additional duties, impositions, &c. a poundage duty of twelve-pence in the pound, to be paid in ready money, on all goods and merchandize imported, except for tobacco, whereon it may be secured by bond, according to the several particular rates or values thereof, as rated and valued in the **BOOK OF RATES** referred to by 12 Car. II. and 11 Geo. I. or by any other act of parliament, &c.

This duty is to be levied and collected by the same ways and means, and under the same penalties, &c. as are directed for the **Old Subsidy**. See the conclusion of Letter A, in regard to the **BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE**, containing an **ENQUIRY** whether the merchant-importers of this kingdom are not intitled to certain **DISCOUNTS**, which they have never yet received.

SUBSIDIES ON SPIRITS. By 9 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 17.

VOL. II.

all the duties arising by spirits from September 29, 1736, are united to, and made part of the aggregate fund; and from that time the several duties then payable on spirits imported are accounted for in one sum, under the title of **SUBSIDIES ON SPIRITS**. See **SAXBY**.

SUBSIDY, and **ONE PER CENT. OUTWARDS**, with the duties on leather, white woollen cloths, foreign goods used in dyeing, exported.

THE SUBSIDY OUTWARDS.

By 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 2. was granted, as part of the subsidy of poundage, and continued therewith to August 1, 1710.—9 Ann. cap. 6. §. 1. revived from March 1710, for 32 years.—3 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 1. continued for ever; and is made part of the general fund by that act established.—This subsidy, as well as the **Subsidy Inwards**, is composed of a **TONNAGE** and a **POUNDAGE**, and is to be paid in ready money before shipping off, in order for exportation.

ONE PER CENT. OUTWARDS.

This duty is payable in ready money, without discount, upon all goods and merchandizes liable to **SUBSIDY***, exported from any part of Great-Britain, capable of a ship or vessel of 200 tons upon an ordinary full sea, to any part or place in the Mediterranean sea, beyond the port of Malaga, in any ship or vessel that hath not two decks, and doth carry less than 16 pieces of ordnance mounted, together with two men for each gun, and other ammunition proportionable.

* It is understood practically, that **FOREIGN GOODS USED IN DYEING**, enumerated in the portable **Book of Rates**, are not liable to this duty of one per cent.

The **SUBSIDY** granted in the year 1758-9, of poundage upon certain goods and merchandizes to be imported into this kingdom; and by the same act, an additional inland duty on coffee and chocolate. This duty is of 12 d. in the pound, or 5 per cent. granted on tobacco, foreign linens, sugar, and other grocery, as the same is understood in the **Book of Rates**, except currants; East-India goods, except coffee and raw silks; foreign brandy and spirits, except rum of the produce of the British sugar plantations; and paper, imported.—Said subsidy is granted to be paid on goods, as the same are valued in the **Book of Rates**, and to be levied and paid into the **Exchequer**, as the subsidy of 5 per cent. granted by 21 Geo. II. or of the year 1747. See the Conclusion of the Letter A, relating to the **BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE**.—Prize goods are to be charged only with the duties payable by act of Geo. II. unless taken out of the warehouses for home consumption.—Allowance to be made to the importer of tobacco, on paying down the duty.—Bond to be given on non-payment of the duty; and the importers to have the usual allowances and discounts.—Drawback of the duty allowed upon the exportation of goods within 3 years; except for such goods as are by former acts declared no drawback shall be paid or allowed on exportation thereof.—Drawback of the duty allowed on paper used in printing books in the learned languages in both universities, as is prescribed by act of 10 Annæ.—Like drawback allowed on paper used in printing books in the learned languages in the universities of Scotland.—A drawback of 3 shillings per hundred weight allowed on sugar refined in Great-Britain, and exported.—Refiner to make oath.—Exporter to make oath.—Searcher to certify the shipping thereof, and all other requisites being performed according to the **Book of Rates**.

Besides the several foregoing subsidies payable at the custom-house, there are a variety of other duties paid there, under various circumstances, as the same are set forth in the portable **Book of Rates**; in all which the merchant should be well informed, as follow, viz. The **PETTY CUSTOMS**, or **ALIEN'S DUTY**, **ADDITIONAL DUTY**, **COMPOSITION ON PETTY SEIZURES**, **IMPOST ON WINES AND VINEGAR**, **IMPOST ON TOBACCO**, **IMPOST 1690**, **IMPOST 1692**, **DUTY ON WHALE-FINS**, **DUTY OF 15 PER CENT ON MUSLINS**, **DUTY ON SPICES, PICTURES, &c.** **ADDITIONAL DUTY ON SPICES, PICTURES, AND DUTY ON DRUGS, &c.** **SECOND 25 PER CENT. ON FRENCH GOODS**, **COINAGE DUTY ON WINE**, and **COINAGE DUTY ON SPIRITS**, **DUTY ON PEPPER, RAISINS, AND SPICE**, **DUTY ON CANDLES**, **ADDITIONAL DUTY ON CANDLES**, **DUTY ON COALS IMPORTED, AND ON COALS, CULM, AND CINDERS, BROUGHT COASTWISE**, **ADDITIONAL DUTY ON COALS IMPORTED, AND ON COALS, CULM, AND CINDERS BROUGHT COASTWISE**. **DUTY ON COALS AND CULM, FOR BUILDING CHURCHES, &c.** **DUTY ON HOPS**, **DUTY ON HIDES, SKINS, &c.** **DUTY ON SOAP AND PAPER**, **ADDITIONAL DUTY ON SOAP AND PAPER, &c.** **DUTY ON COALS EXPORTED**, **DUTY ON SAIL-CLOTH**, **DUTY ON WROUGHT PLATE**, **DUTY ON APPLES**, **DUTY ON WINE 1745**. **DUTY ON GLASS**, **DUTY ON LINEN YARN**, **DUTY ON GUM SENEGA**, **OF UNRATED GOODS IMPORTED, UNDERVALUED, OF PRISAGE AND BUTLERAGE**. And the last additional **DUTIES ON WINES, CYDER, and PERRY**, see the **BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOMS**, the end of W.

The following three branches, though no part of the REVENUE OF CUSTOMS, but being payable on foreign GOODS imported, should be here taken notice of, as the EXCISE ON SALT IMPORTED, EXCISE ON LIQUORS IMPORTED, INLAND DUTY ON COFFEE, TEA, AND CHOCOLATE.

R E M A R K S.

SUBSIDIES, &c. at the Custom-house.

In the first year after the restoration of king Charles the II^d. * the parliament passed the act, granting the subsidy of TONNAGE and POUNDAGE, payable on merchandize imported or exported, as also the act for encouragement and increase of shipping and navigation; and two years after, in order to improve and enforce the execution of those laws, was passed the act for preventing frauds, and regulating abuses in the CUSTOMS: and these three acts established the foundation of the present system of the customs, which has been regulated and extended by subsequent laws, as occasions have required.

* Of the customs payable before the restoration, there yet remains a duty on wine, called PRISAGE || or BUTLERAGE, which are ancient duties payable to the crown of England (by prerogative) upon the importation of wines, but are now, and generally have been, granted from the crown by gift or patent.

|| PRISAGE is a certain taking or purveyance of wines to the king's use, out of every ship bringing wines belonging to the natives of England, except the merchants of London, the Cinque Ports, Southampton and Chester, which are exempted by particular charters: to be taken upon the breaking of bulk, or unloading any part of the ship's cargo, according to the whole quantity on board, though there be not more than one ton landed.

This duty is either SINGLE or DOUBLE.

SINGLE PRISAGE is one ton, and is due in kind, when the quantity imported amounts to, or exceeds, 10 tons, but is under 20 tons: for if under 10 tons, there is not any prisage due.

DOUBLE PRISAGE is 2 tons, and is due in kind, when the quantity imported amounts to, or exceeds, 20 tons, which is the most due out of any one ship: one ton to be taken before, and the other behind the mast, at the pleasure of the king's butler or prisage-master; who may taste the whole cargo, and chuse the best wines, and fill up the casks, or chuse those that are the fullest, and take them away, allowing only † 20s. per ton for freight: but it may be compounded for at a certain price, as is the practice in London, &c.

But in regard to wines imported into Scotland; on a cause in the court of Exchequer, between her Majesty's attorney-general and James Gordon, merchant, it was decreed in the year 1713, that prisage was not payable thereon.

BUTLERAGE is a duty of two shillings on every ton of wine imported by merchants, strangers, by Charta Mercatoria ‡, in lieu of prisage, to be paid within 40 days after the wines are landed.

|| 40 Hen. III. 28 Edw. I. 6 Edw. III. 20 Rich. II.

† 28 Edw. I. cap. 2.

‡ 31 Edw. I. cap. 1 and 2. 27 Edw. III. cap. 26.

The subsidy granted by the first of these acts was, by the wisdom of our ancestors, contrived on very simple, though comprehensive principles, being payable by a determinate sum on every ton of wine imported, and every ton of beer exported, and therefore called TONNAGE; and on other goods imported and exported, by a certain portion (generally one shilling in the pound sterling) according to the respective valuations in a BOOK OF RATES referred to, and authorized by the said act, and therefore called a POUNDAGE, together with a small duty on WOOLLEN CLOTHS exported; so that all goods liable to customs, except wine imported, beer and woollen cloths exported, were comprehended under this simple regulation of poundage; and this subsidy, so far as it relates to merchandize imported, is known by the name of Customs, or Old Customs.

But this simplicity of principles was not long adhered to with that care and attention it deserved; for by 15 and 22 of Car. II. the Subsidy on Corn imported was altered from a poundage duty on the Rates of Valuations, to certain sums payable by the quarter, according to the several species, and the various circumstances of importation; and by 25 Car. II. whale-fins and whale-oil underwent the like alterations.

In the short reign of king James II. two new duties were granted, the IMPOST ON WINE, and the IMPOST ON TOBACCO; that on wine was strictly on the principles of TONNAGE; but that on tobacco being by a certain sum payable on each pound weight, no regard was had, so as to regulate it by a poundage on the valuation thereof in the Book of Rates. There were other duties laid on, but having been temporary, and not continued, it is not necessary to take notice of them.

The necessities of the state, in order to support a war against France in the reigns of king William and queen Anne, occasioned the laying on many additional duties of customs,

the two first of which were, Impositions 1690, and 1692, on merchandizes imported, &c. Though, in drawing the acts for those duties, due regard was not had to the principle of POUNDAGE; yet it was not altogether unattended to, there being many species of goods in both these duties, which are regulated by a poundage duty on their respective valuations in the Book of Rates. Some branches are strictly according to the principles of poundage; and some being on the plan of the old customs, are consonant to the original principles of tonnage and poundage: in other branches, to the number of above 20, laid on during the reigns of king William, queen Anne, king George the First and king George the Second, these principles have been either not understood, or altogether neglected, except, says Mr. Saxby, in the subsidy of 1747, which being designed as a poundage duty only, and therefore formed on that species of the principles of the old customs, was constructed with great judgment and simplicity; and the more so, as it is not incumbered or obscured with discounts.

What Mr. Saxby has here observed, we think is liable to objection. For however simple and judicious that subsidy was constructed, we cannot apprehend it ever the more so, by reason of its being unincumbered with discount, in favour of the merchant, as the old subsidy, the new subsidy, the $\frac{1}{2}$ subsidy, and the $\frac{2}{3}$ subsidies, are not unincumbered with the allowance of discount to the merchants, on consideration of the present payment of the duty. For it is no less easy to compute the subsidy of 1747, with a discount of 5 per cent. than either of the other subsidies before mentioned. But if the subsidy of 1747 is unincumbered with the allowance of discount to our merchants, as in the cases of the other said discount, we should be glad to be informed, by what authority the merchants are not intitled to the discount on payment of the duties pursuant to the act of 1747? Is not this subsidy-act of 1747, founded on that of 12 Car. II? And does not that act allow the merchants the discount of 5 per cent. in the 17th rule contained in that act? In what peculiar clause or part of the subsidy-act of 1747, does it deviate from that particular allowance in the act of 12 Car. II? Is not also the subsidy-act of 1747, founded on that of the 11th of Geo. I? and is not this latter grounded on that of Car. II.? and wherein does that of Geo. I. deviate from that of Car. II. with relation to the discount allowed to the merchant, according to the 27 rules, signed Sir Harbottle Grimstone, Bart. then speaker of the house of commons? We can discover nothing in the act of 1747, which does repeal the said 17th rule, and thereby deprive the merchants of the discount legally allowed them. If we are mistaken in this matter, we shall thankfully be set to rights.—We started our doubts on this point, when we printed the first edition of this work; but as we did not judge it eligible to oppose the practice of the custom-house, lest we should err in our private judgment, we then computed the duty, consistent with such practice. Since that, we have more deliberately considered this affair, and confess, that we have not found sufficient reason to dissipate our doubts; and we have given our reasons more fully on this occasion, in the Custom-house Business treated of in this edition at the end of our Letter A; and for the reasons there urged, we have declined to make any further tabular computation of the duties of customs, lest we should misguide the whole mercantile body in a point that materially concerns their interest.

Another motive to induce us to decline these computations is, that we are informed that Mr. Saxby of the custom-house is about this work already, and has been engaged some time therein; because, since his Book of Rates was published, there has been another fresh subsidy-act of 1759; which has rendered his former book out of date, with respect to the totals of those computed duties that render his book consistent with the last subsidy-act of 1759.

The remainder of the introduction of Mr. Saxby's Book of Rates is spent chiefly in animadverting upon the errors of the books of rates that were composed by others, his predecessors; on which subject it is wished he had dwelt longer, as he seems to have intended; seeing, as he intimates, that he received great assistance from several gentlemen in various departments of the custom-house. However, for several of the judicious observations he has made, the public are obliged to him; and we hope and expect that his new Book of Rates will rectify more of the errors of those who treated on the same subject before him; and that he will render the whole business of the customs more intelligible, as well to the merchants as the officers of that revenue.

The allowances, bounties, and drawbacks payable on British goods exported, Mr. Saxby observes, and the premiums on other goods imported, &c. being a part of business not so immediately obvious to the officers of the customs, have not been heretofore so well digested and collected as they might have been; for though part of them have been extremely well done, others have been but slightly touched, and some quite omitted: but, continues he, as they are now become very numerous, and in regard to bounties and premiums a very extensive and formidable branch of business of the customs, it became necessary that the merchants, as well as officers,

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officers, should be well instructed therein, &c.' In these particulars Mr. Saxby's book is more accurate and extensive than any of those of his predecessors. What we would chiefly intimate here is, that these candid acknowledgements, and useful improvements made by that gentleman, will serve to convince us, that there has been as little infallibility in books of rates wrote by officers of the customs as by others; and therefore it is not impossible that there may be mistakes therein relative to the subsidy of 1747, as well as so many other points already explained by Mr. Saxby. See the conclusion of our Letter A, with respect to the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Mr. Saxby concludes his introduction, by remarking, 'that it must not be omitted, that a distant prospect and hope that the legislature might some time undertake to reform and reduce the rates, branches, &c. of this revenue, strongly pointed out the necessity of restoring and preserving the true text of the rates, as it would be in vain to attempt any regulations of that kind, till this were well executed; and this naturally leads to further speculations on the same subject; for the book of rates, of 1660, bears the marks of great antiquity, many of the terms therein being so obsolete as not now to be found elsewhere in the English language; and by comparing it with that of 1642, it is apparent to be no other than an old book of rates of former times, revised and corrected, so as to suit the circumstances of import and export of that period; and when one considers the great alterations and improvements which have been made in every branch of trade and manufactures throughout the world during the last age, it may be easily conceived that the names and value of such species of goods as were made and consumed an hundred years ago, will in many respects but ill fit those of the present times: but this is a large field to range in; I shall therefore for the present forbear to explain myself further on this subject, and shall only take the liberty to recommend to the present age an aphorism of a great man in the last: As time changes things for the worse, so should prudence alter them for the better.'—So far Mr. Saxby, who not only gives us hope of a more correct book of rates than we ever had before, but that a general reform may be made in the customs, by the legislature, with respect to the rates of goods; which the sooner the same is done, we think the better it will be for the interest of the nation. See our INTRODUCTION to this edition.

Before we leave this article, we shall only notice another paragraph in Mr. Saxby: 'The branches of the customs having many of them gone through various alterations of appropriation since their first establishment, the detail of such alterations is herein purposely omitted, and no more is inserted than their present situation, that being sufficient for the use and instruction of the officers.' To which we shall only observe, that as those alterations of appropriation in this branch of the revenue have never proved injurious to the PUBLIC CREDIT; so we may presume that the like alterations of appropriation in other branches of the revenue could not prove so neither; for if the national creditors are secure of their interest by parliament, they do not seem to pay so much regard to the appropriation of any peculiar duties or taxes for that purpose.

SUFFOLK is a maritime county in England, having the German Ocean on the east, Cambridgeshire on the west, the river Stour on the south, which divides it from Essex, and the rivers Ouse, the Liff, and Waveney on the north, which part it from Norfolk; and is in compass about 140 miles.

The air is very clear and wholesome, even near the sea-shore, because the beach is generally sandy and shelly. As to the soil, it is various. Its chief commodities are butter and cheese, and the principal manufactures of Suffolk are woollen and linen cloth.

IPSWICH, the county-town, has a considerable trade by sea, but not so great as formerly, when its harbour was more commodious. Its chief manufactures are linen and woollen.

ALDBOROUGH, on the coast, has a good harbour and trade in the fishery, abundance of sprats, soles, and lobsters, being caught in the sea here.

SUDBURY stands on the river Stour, which almost surrounds it. They drive here a good trade in perpetuanas, says, serges, &c. The Stour has of late years been made navigable for barges and small craft, as far as Maningtree in Essex, which is a great benefit to the trade of this place, and no small addition to its wealth.

EYE is a mean-built town, in the road betwixt Ipswich and Norwich. Its chief manufacture is bone-lace and spinning.

HALESWORTH is a large and populous town on the river Blythe, with a manufacture of linen yarn, of which great quantities are sold here, spun by the women of this town and the adjacent villages.

SOUTHWOLD, a small corporation on the coast, has a good harbour. It is a populous town, and drives a considerable trade in salt, old beer, herrings, sprats, &c. which last are cured here in the same manner as herrings at Yarmouth.

LEOSTOFF stands on the easternmost point of England. The chief trade of the inhabitants is fishing for cod in the North Sea; and for herrings, mackarel, and sprats, at home.

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STOW-MARKET on the Orwel, has a manufacture of tammies and other Norwich stuffs.

WOODBIDGE, on the river Deben, which being navigable by ships of considerable burthen to the town, its inhabitants drive a pretty good trade to London, Newcastle, Holland, &c. with butter, cheese, salt, plank, and several other sorts of merchandize, in their pinks and boats, which go to and from London every week.

LAVENHAM is a pretty large town on a branch of the river Bret. It has a considerable manufacture of serges, shalloons, says, stuffs, and spinning fine yarn for London; which has flourished the more by setting up a wool-hall, of which many hundred loads are sent from hence in a year. Its fair, which is on Michaelmas-day, is in great repute, especially for good butter and cheese.

BILDESTON is noted for its woollen manufacture, but it is a dirty place, and the buildings are mean.

CLARE is another mean-built, dirty town, but has a manufacture of says.

HADLEY is a pretty large populous town, and tolerably well built. It is of some note still, though of much greater formerly, for a manufacture of woollen cloth.

NEYLAND on the Stour is a large town, and has a manufacture of bays and says, which also was formerly much greater than now.

STRATFORD on the same river, is a thoroughfare-stage from Ipswich to London, of great traffic, and employed in the woollen manufactures. It is said that 300 droves of turkies have passed in one season over its bridge towards London, computed at 500 in a drove, one with another.

EASTERBERGHOLT is another large handsome village, employed also in the woollen manufacture, but not so much as formerly.

SUGAR.

The manner in which SUGAR is drawn from the canes.

The Americans having cut their canes above the first joint, and freed them from their leaves, make them into bundles and carry them to the mill, which is composed of three rollers of an equal size, and equally armed with plates of iron, where the canes are to pass. The roller in the middle is raised much higher than the rest, to the end that the two poles, which are affixed crossways at the top, and to which the beasts are yoked, may turn about freely, without being hindered by the machine. The great roller in the middle is surrounded with a cog full of teeth, which bite upon the sides of the two other rollers adjoining to it, which makes them turn about, grind and bruise the canes, which pass quite round the great roller, and come out dry, and squeezed from all their juice.

If by accident the Indian, or whoever feeds the mill with canes, should happen to have his fingers caught in the mill, they must immediately cut off his arm, lest the whole body should be drawn in and ground to pieces: therefore, as soon as they see any one have his finger or hand caught, the person standing by cuts off his arm with a hanger, and he is afterwards cured, and kept for other service. The juice falling into a vessel which is below the mill, and being drawn off, runs by a little channel into the first boiler, which holds about two hogheads, where it is heated by a small fire, and set a boiling, in order to make a very thick scum arise: the West-Indians keep this scum to feed their cattle with. This liquor being well scummed is put into a second boiler, where they make it boil again, throwing in, from time to time, warm water, in which they have beat up some eggs: having been thus purified, they pass it through strainers; and, after it has done running, put it into a third boiler, which is of brass or copper, and then again, upon another refining, into a fourth boiler; and when it begins to cool, and they find it rises to a grain, they pass a skimmer, or wooden spatula, underneath it, from the right to the left, to see what quality the graining is of: the sugar being thus ready, while it remains hot, is cast into moulds, or earthen-pots with holes in their bottoms, yet shut: at the end of twenty-four hours, which is the ordinary time, the sugar takes to incorporate, the negroes carry their pots into their warehouses, and after they have opened the holes, and pierced the sugar, they set the moulds upon little pots, or jars, in order to receive the syrup or molasses which runs from it. When the syrup is run from the sugar, they take it out of the mould, and cut it afterwards with a knife; and this sugar cut in this manner, is called the grey muscavado sugar; which, to be in its perfection, ought to be of a whitish grey, dry, have the least fat, or smelling of the fire, that may be. This muscavado is the basis and foundation of all the other sugars sold among us.

It is but little in use, though very proper to make syrups and coloured comfits.

OF CASSONADE, OR POWDER SUGAR.

The cassonade is made from the grey muscavado run again, and after it has been clarified, strained, and boiled, and cast into the moulds, and so prepared as we have been speaking before. After the syrup is drained out, they lay upon the

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sugar about an inch thickness of clay, wetted with common water, that the moisture which is in the clay, may get through the sugar, and take away with it whatever fat or bad matter might remain in it: when it will run no longer, and the clay at the top is dry, they take the sugar out of the moulds, and cut the cakes into three pieces, the top, the middle, and the bottom, which they dry separately, according to their fineness. The finest powder sugar is that of Brazil, which is extremely white, dry, and well grained, of a violet taste and flavour. The cassonade, or powder sugar, is much in use among the confectioners; above all, that of Brazil, by reason that it is less subject to candy, upon which account the confectioners value it the more. The sugar, which we improperly call sugar of seven pounds weight, because it as often weighs ten or twelve, is made of the grey muscavado, formed into loaves, as we have described before. The sugar of seven pounds is distinguished into three sorts, to wit, the white, the second, and the last, which is of a browner colour; the whiter the sugar is, the better stored, grained, and dried, the more it is esteemed. The less the moulds are, that is, the less the loaf is made, and the whiter it is, so much the dearer it is.

The use of this is to make choice syrups, white confections, and to preserve apricots, and the like.

OF SUGAR ROYAL, and DEMY ROYAL.

The sugar called royal, from its extraordinary whiteness, is made from the small white sugar, or powder sugar of Brazil, melted and cast into a loaf as the former. This sugar royal ought to be extremely white throughout the whole, that is to say, as fine at the top as the bottom, of a clear, compact, shining grain, notwithstanding easy to break; which is the general observation of sugars that are well baked, and of a kindly sort. We sell, besides, another sort we call demy royal, which is a small sugar-loaf, very white, and wrapped in a blue paper, which comes from Holland.

The Dutch formerly brought us sugars of eighteen and twenty pounds, wrapped in palm-leaves instead of paper; for which reason it was called palm-sugar, which was a white fat sugar of a good sort, and a violet taste. We used to have, besides, another sugar from the Madeiras; but we have no more of it now, because we have it from several other islands much better.

OF BROWN SUGAR.

This brown sugar is one sort of the muscavado, which they turn to powder sugar, and is made of the syrup of the seven-pound sugar, after the same manner as the others are made. It ought to be of a greyish red colour, dry, and not smelling of burning; for there is some to be met with so moist, and with so much of the burnt smell, that it is almost impossible to use it. The use of the brown sugar was formerly very considerable, it serving to put in clysters, &c. These molasses are better for distilling rum than the muscavado sugar.

SUGAR COLONIES, BRITISH.

OF BARBADOES.

The growing success of this sugar colony promoted the settlement of the others, and, as the sugar plantations increased, more hands were required to carry on the works than could, at that time, be spared from home. This gave birth to the Guinea trade, for supplying those colonies with negro slaves; and as the planters flourished and increased, so did their demands for all sorts of British manufactures, and such necessities of life as they could not produce in those climates, which opened another scene of trade to the British merchants, to furnish these new colonies with wine from Madeira.

These branches of trade were of the utmost advantage to Great-Britain, forasmuch as they drew no money out of the kingdom, but yearly brought in large sums, for British manufactures exported thither. The trade to this island was commonly open and free; for, before the civil war in England, the Dutch ships came hither to purchase sugars, as well as the English; but, since the Restoration, several acts of parliament have been made, to confine the trade of the sugar colonies to Great-Britain, and British ships only; which restraints soon made London the chiefest mart in Europe for sugar; and, as there was yearly more imported than was necessary for home consumption, the merchants exported the surplus to foreign markets, and, by underselling the Portuguese, who had considerable sugar-works in the Brazils, they gradually beat them almost out of all their sugar trade to the northward of Cape Finisterre.

This trade of re-exporting sugars, was carried on for many years with great success. Mr. Gee says, that, by this trade only, such an increase of treasure and wealth was brought into this kingdom, as yearly added three or four hundred thousand pounds to the stock of the nation; which, in thirty years time, amounted to upwards of ten millions sterling. Others have computed the clear profits accruing to Great-Britain from the sugar trade, and those other branches which chiefly

depend upon those islands, to amount to more than a million a year. A few years since, it appeared, by the custom-house accounts, that the value of the annual exports from Great-Britain to the sugar colonies, was five hundred thousand pounds sterling; and on importations from those islands, more than twelve hundred thousand pounds per annum. And if the value of our exports to Guinea and the Madeiras, which are the effects of the sugar trade, were added to the former, it would greatly augment the sum, and, consequently, enlarge the profit, which our mother-country received from the sugar colonies, and the several branches of trade depending thereon. Certain it is, that while the sugar trade flourished, both planters and merchants grew immensely rich, and the trade and navigation of Great-Britain was carried on to a much greater height than ever it was before. And this great source of wealth and treasure to their mother-country, arose from so small a beginning as a few families seeking shelter in a desolate island.

This shews what may be done by industry and trade, rightly applied. When the sugar trade was at this height, the flourishing state of Great-Britain alarmed her neighbours, and put them upon ways to circumvent her in trade, as the only means to put a stop to the growing strength of the kingdom, which they feared might become too formidable, from the great increase of seamen and shipping employed in the West-India and Guinea trades, both flourishing at the same time. Upon a parliamentary enquiry into the state of the trade to Africa, in the year 1728, it appeared to the house, that, in three years time only, the number of negroes imported at Barbadoes, Jamaica, and Antigua, amounted to 42,000, besides what were carried to St Christopher's, Nevis, and Montserrat.

True it is, however, that our sugar trade in general has, of late years, greatly declined. The French spared no expence or labour to rival Great-Britain in this capital article, they well knowing, if that sunk, her Guinea and Madeira trades must sink in proportion; for which purpose they embraced every opportunity to improve their sugar plantations, which they have done to a very extraordinary height; and such has been the wisdom of their councils, that the effect could not be otherwise.—For proof of which, see our articles FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY, and FRENCH AMERICA, where we have laid before the nation the measures which the French have many years taken for that purpose. The French having thus put their sugar colonies into a flourishing condition, the next thing they had in view, was to beat the British merchants out of the foreign markets for sugar, and thereby destroy their trade for exportation; and this they effected, by giving liberty for their ships to carry their sugars directly to the foreign markets, while ours were obliged to import all into Great-Britain, which enabled them to sell so much cheaper than our merchants could carry it from London, which almost put an intire stop to that valuable branch of trade to their mother-country.

The first declension of our exportation trade was attended with such ill consequences to the sugar colonies, that it lowered the price of sugar so much at home, as discouraged the merchants from sending to purchase sugars. This obliged the sugar planters to turn merchant-adventurers in a declining trade, and to ship their sugars upon their own account and risque. This put a stop to the currency of cash, which was before brought over yearly to purchase sugars, and laid the whole burthen of freight, duty, and commission, upon the plantation, that were formerly paid by the British merchants: and suppose but 15,000 hogheads of sugar to be shipped in a year from this island of Barbadoes, on gentlemen's own accounts, these three articles will amount to upwards of 60,000 l. sterling. Another great evil, that followed from the same cause, was, combinations among the buyers, by which the price of sugars sunk so low, as greatly to prejudice the planters, and yet turned to the benefit only of a few private persons, who were the first purchasers, and not at all to that of the consumers in general; by which that island was greatly prejudiced, and this received very little benefit.

The island of Barbadoes is generally esteemed to be little bigger than the Isle of Wight, and to contain 100,000 acres. About the year 1626, this country was not only unsettled, but uninhabitable, as affording nothing for the support of life, and over-run with shrub-wood, which gave a great deal of trouble to the first planters; yet, in the space of 50 years, this plantation came to an extraordinary height, and peopled with 50,000 whites, of whom 20,000 were able to bear arms, and 80,000 negroes. Within 20 years after the colony was settled, they mustered 11,000 horse and foot, which would be incredible, if we had not such proofs of these facts as put them beyond doubt.

In short, this island rose to such a pitch in the year 1661, that king Charles II. created, on the same day, 13 baronets, in Barbadoes, none of them having less than 1000, and some of them 10,000 l. a year. At this time their trade actually maintained 400 sail of ships; and it was computed that the running cash of the island was not less than 200,000 l. and their annual exportation to Great-Britain, in sugar, indico, ginger, and other commodities, at least 300,000 l. These facts

facts demonstrate the great value of this island, at the time we are speaking of; and, by the gradual increase of this colony, it has, since we first possessed it, contributed beyond conception to the riches of its mother-country.

When this colony was in its most flourishing condition, which was in the year 1676, there were 400 sail of ships, of 150 tons, one with another, employed annually in this trade; and if we reckon only that the sea-men, ship-builders, and other trades that live by these vessels, amounted, in the whole, to 10,000 souls, that will be no immoderate computation. The sugars that came from Barbadoes, were either spent at home, or sent abroad; and I reckon, that, in the manufacturing the sugars, and vending them at home and abroad, there might be 20,000 people more employed. To these we must add, such as got their bread by the goods and manufactures yearly exported from hence to Barbadoes, for almost all that the people eat, drink, and wear there, are the product of England; so that the computation cannot be thought to rise too high, if we allow, that in this way 20,000 more get their bread, which will make about 50,000 in the whole, all supported here by the labour and industry of the whites and negroes in that country. We are next to compute the money brought into this nation by the export of the commodities imported from thence, which was that year allowed to be above 200,000 l. and it was also agreed, that as much, or more, had been gained every year, between that time and the Restoration.

I shall say nothing of the money arising to the Exchequer from the duties, though this might be computed at 30,000 l. per annum; but that, from the year 1636 to 1656, which is 20 years, this colony produced but half so much: and, though it may be true, that, before the year 1640, it did not produce a quarter so much, yet, in the remaining part of that period, it certainly brought in a great deal more; and therefore we cannot be far from the truth, in computing that this nation acquired two millions in money, by Barbadoes, in that 20 years. In the next 20, that is, from 1656 to 1676, when it is allowed this island was in its most flourishing condition, there must have been gained four millions of money; and allowing for the gradual falling off of this trade, by a multitude of unlucky accidents, but more particularly by the settling the French sugar islands, we shall compute the last 70 years, from 1676 to 1736, at the same rate we did the first 20 years, and the gains will then amount to SIX MILLIONS: so that in the space of 100 years, the inhabitants of Great-Britain have received 12 millions in silver, by the means of this plantation, and had 50,000 of her inhabitants maintained by the people of that colony all the time.

I have insisted the longer upon this topic, because it may enable us to form some notion of what might be made of our plantations, if we attended to them as much as they deserve; for though it may be, and perhaps is, impossible, to improve any of them in proportion to what has been done in Barbadoes, yet we may well enough discern from hence, that they might be made incontestably more profitable to us than they now are, or, indeed, than the whole trade that we now possess; and if, at the same time we reflect on this, we likewise consider that there is nothing so absolutely in our power as the improvement of our colonies, it will most certainly appear to be the point, which, of all others, imports us most.

We are next to speak of the island of ST CHRISTOPHER, which was discovered by Christopher Columbus. It is situated in the latitude 17 degrees, 25 minutes, on this side the Line, and is about 75 miles in circuit; the Caribbeans inhabited it when Sir Thomas Warner, an English adventurer, took possession thereof; and Mons. Desnambue, a French gentleman, who commanded for the French in America, took possession the same day. These two adventurers settled this colony harmoniously, 'till queen Anne's war broke out, when the English drove the French intirely from their settlements; and the country being yielded to the crown of Great-Britain by the peace of Utrecht, all the French territories were sold, for the benefit of the public, which must have produced a very large sum, since out of it there was 80,000 l. paid for the marriage-portion of her royal highness the princess of Orange.

There were some indeed, who pretended, that notwithstanding the French part of the island of St Christopher's was by far the richest, we were no gainers by obtaining it, but that, on the contrary, the French received benefit thereby, because it enabled them to people the rest of their islands more effectually; but whoever considers that the sugars of this island are inferior to none in all America, that the plantations were in perfect order, and that the French ventured a war to prevent our settling St Lucia and St Vincent, will scarce be brought to believe that they parted with a country ready settled, and more valuable than both those islands, with their goodwill. The treaty of Utrecht was so indifferent a treaty, that I think there is no sort of necessity for making it appear worse than it really was. The same persons who first settled St Christopher's, likewise settled NEVIS, about the year 1628; and notwithstanding the misfortune of being dispossessed by

the Spaniards, in 20 years time there were at least 4000 people upon the island, and they continued increasing in the same manner, by a succession of prudent governors, for a considerable space. After the Restoration, when trade and peace flourished, this isle enjoyed its share of the benefit, and increased the inhabitants and riches; the only enemy they had to struggle with was the hurricane, which generally visited them once a year.

We are to proceed next to the island of MONTSERRAT, which name the Spaniards gave to this island, from the resemblance it has to a mountain in Catalonia, not far from Barcelona.

This island flourished, at first, more than Antigua; but since the lord Willoughby's time, the latter has got, and kept, the start of it. There were 700 men in Montserrat, 16 years after it was first inhabited. As to the climate, soil, animals, trade, and productions of this isle, they are much the same with those of the other Caribbee islands, only this has more mountains, which are covered with cedars, and other trees, that make it a lovely prospect from the sea. The vallies are fruitful, and better stored with fresh water than those of Antigua. According to the best accounts that have been received from this island of late years, it is rather increasing, both in the number of people, and in the value of their settlements, than not; as to the former, it is computed there may be about 4,500 white persons, and about 12,000 negroes, in this country.

The island of BARBUDA lies in the latitude 17 degrees 30 minutes north, is about 15 miles long, and lies north-east from the island we were last speaking of. The land is low and fruitful, and the English began to plant it as early as Nevis, Montserrat, or any other of the Leeward Islands, St Christopher's excepted. There are now about 1,200 persons upon it, and their number is daily increasing. The proprietor is the honourable Christopher Codrington, Esq; and he puts in a governor here, having the same prerogative as the other lords proprietors, in their several jurisdictions in America. This island has bred great store of cattle, and the inhabitants employ themselves mostly in that sort of husbandry, corn and provisions coming generally to a good market in the sugar islands. There is plenty of almost all sorts of tame cattle, as in Europe; and the English live here much after the same manner as they do in the counties in England, only their labour in the field is not so hard as here, the country being so much hotter.

The next plantation to this, if it may be properly so called, is ANGUILLA: it lies in 18 degrees 12 minutes. The country is level and woody, the soil fruitful, and the tobacco that grew there formerly was reckoned very good in its kind. They have no great quantities of sugars upon the island, but addict themselves rather to farming, in which they have had very good success; and this it is that enables them to live in the old patriarchal way, every man being a kind of sovereign in his own family, and no other government there is in Anguilla.

We have now gone through the Leeward Islands, except ANTIGUA, which we now take notice of, according to the order of time in its settlement. This island lies in 16. 11. north latitude, 63 longitude west from London: it is about 20 miles in diameter, and 60 in circumference. The climate, though not to be greatly boasted of, yet it is a very considerable and thriving plantation. It has greater plenty of cattle, and particularly venison, than any other of the Caribbee islands; the animals whereof are much the same, as also their productions. Their sugar and tobacco were formerly very indifferent, but the planters have since improved their art, and as good muscavado sugar is now made there, as in any of our sugar islands: they have also clayed some sugar, which was unknown in Antigua about 40 years ago.

Though there is not much tobacco planted in this island, what there is at present is far preferable to what it was formerly. After Jamaica and Barbadoes, this has been considered by some as the most considerable of our islands in America; and as there is still a great quantity of land capable of improvement, and it is allowed the people there might make a third more sugar than they do; and if we consider what must have been gained by our commerce with this island for upwards of eighty years, we cannot but judge that it has been highly advantageous to this nation, and well deserves all concern for its protection.

We have now gone through our chief Leeward Islands. As to the general produce, or value, of these islands, which may serve to shew of how great consequence they are to Great-Britain, the best account we have been able to obtain, is to the following effect: St Christopher's is the largest of all the islands, but the middle part of it being extremely mountainous, it is thought that there are not above 20,000 acres of land fit for sugar, in the whole island, which produces about 10,000 hogsheds of that valuable commodity. Antigua contains about 70,000 acres, and produces 16,000 hogsheds of sugar yearly. Nevis is said to be about 20 miles in circumference, and produces 16,000 hogsheds. Montserrat, which is less than any of them, produces 2,500, and sometimes

3,000 hogheads of sugar. In Barbuda they breed cattle, and in Anguilla they raise corn.

As to the produce of the island of JAMAICA, it is not easy to give an account thereof in a narrow compass; however, we shall give the best idea of it we can, and in as few words. In the first place, it produces large quantities of cacao, of which there still comes more from this than from any of our other plantations; and as it is known to be a very rich and valuable commodity, the reader will probably be pleased with a particular account of it. See COCAO.

Pimento is another natural production of Jamaica, from whence it is called Jamaica pepper, alluding to its figure, and the chief place of its growth.

The wild cinnamon-tree, commonly called, though falsely, cortex winteranus, grows in this island.

It is not doubted but that there are both silver and copper mines in the island, though they have not yet been discovered by the English, as it seems they were by the Spaniards.

But, after all, it is the sugar-cane that is the glory of Jamaica, by which the inhabitants have acquired such immense riches. It is generally said, that the sugar from St Christopher's is the best in the Leeward Islands; but I think it is agreed on all hands, that the sugar made in Jamaica exceeds that of all our plantations, though it is made there with much greater ease, since it cures faster in 10 days in Jamaica, than in six months in Barbadoes. There were, in the year 1670, upwards of 60 mills in Jamaica, which were computed to make about 2,000,000 of pounds weight of sugar; but some writers inform us, they make 10 times as much at present: whether that computation be right or not, is impossible for me to decide; but this is certain, that there is ground enough unoccupied in that country to make much more, since it is 140 miles long, and 60 broad; and it contains, according to a moderate computation, 4,000,000 of acres, of which, though there may be about one fourth in which English subjects have property, yet, it is certain, that not above a fourth of that fourth is actually planted, and a great deal of this is employed to other purposes than that of raising sugar. It is impossible to say precisely what quantity may be made here, because seasons differ, and other accidents intervene: some have thought they did not rise beyond the truth, in affirming that it has heretofore produced 100,000 hogheads, which, though it appears a prodigious quantity, yet there are many circumstances that concur to render it credible. As for the number of people in this island, they are computed to be, at this time, 70,000 white people, and 120,000 negroes.

We may from hence judge of the real advantages which this island affords to Great-Britain; for as all our histories of Jamaica, and almost every voyage thither that has been printed, speaks largely of the luxury and expence of all degrees of people there, which is a plain proof of their great wealth and acquisitions; so we may rest satisfied, that, whatever appearance there may be of magnificence among them, yet the real produce of all their labour, and of all their commerce, comes over here to Britain, and maintains and enriches the industrious part of our people; so that there can be nothing more absurd or unreasonable, than to grudge or envy the people settled there the great fortunes they acquire and possess, or to repine at the pomp and splendor in which they live, because, whatever it may be in appearance, it is, perhaps, an indifferent reward for their dwelling at such a distance from home, and for the hazards and labours they run through to acquire such fortunes; but this will appear much more clearly, if we advert a little to the situation of Jamaica, and consider the vast benefits that accrue from thence, in all times, and under all circumstances, of war as well as peace.

There is constantly, in time of war, a considerable naval force kept there; and though this be attended with a great expence to the British nation, yet it certainly is, or at least ought to be, a great comfort to us, that our money is spent with our countrymen, that it increases the value of their plantation, and, which is still more to our purpose, that, sooner or later, all that is spent and circulated there, by some channel or other, returns hither; so that, at the long run, the nation loses nothing by the charge she may occasionally be at in maintaining fleets upon this coast. We ought likewise to reflect, that, in a time of war, there are many prizes taken and carried into Jamaica, which makes an unusual, and almost incredible plenty of silver, and is the true cause of the dearness and high price of necessaries in that country, all which, likewise, in time, centers in the mother country: so that when we hear of great estates raised there in a short space of time, it ought to afford us the highest satisfaction, because those who make those large fortunes, or their immediate descendants, come over hither, and either vest their money in our funds, or purchase lands here. Thus a state of war, which implies a suspension of trade, produces few of the inconveniencies that usually attend such a suspension, because in Jamaica the very consequences of war become a kind of trade, and the wealth arising from them takes the same course, and runs in the very individual channels that any other trade would do; that is, they finally enrich, and tend to the benefit of, England.

But, in time of peace, besides what we draw from Jamaica, considered barely in the light of a sugar plantation, we are to

consider, likewise, whatever accrues to the inhabitants from their intercourse and dealings with other people, since whatever they gain is really our gain.

Before we quit this subject, it may be necessary to take notice of another branch of trade carried on from Jamaica, which has been made the subject of much debate; we mean the cutting of logwood in the bay of Campeachy. This matter came to be considered with the utmost care and circumspection by the Board of Trade and Plantations, in the year 1717, who solemnly reported, That we had an undoubted right to that trade, in which the subjects of the crown of England had been maintained and supported by former kings, his Majesty's royal predecessors. See the articles LOGWOOD, and LEeward ISLANDS in AMERICA.

REMARKS on the British sugar colonies before the last war.

We have seen, in as narrow a compass as we possibly could, the real value and importance of these sugar colonies to the crown of Great-Britain; and certain it is, it highly becomes the wisdom of the nation, that all possible care be taken to give the inhabitants of those colonies all manner of encouragement, and relief from any hardships under which they may labour; such as exorbitant salaries to their governors, large sums levied upon them, without being applied to their service; and the difficulties under which they too often are, in obtaining speedy and effectual justice, when persons in public stations are inclined to extend their power too far, with a view to promote their private interest. They should likewise have all possible encouragement given them for recovering that foreign trade they heretofore had, and beating out the French, and other nations, who have interfered therein; since in regard to both those points, that the enriching the subjects of Great-Britain, by the balance of trade in general, and augmenting her naval power, are the grand particulars ever to be attended to: for if it could be once brought about that either the old markets for sugar were retrieved, or new ones opened, there is no doubt that Jamaica, and other of those islands where there are lands fit for the purpose, uncultivated, would be more fully PLANTED, the inhabitants become more numerous, and their demands for manufactures from Great-Britain consequently larger than they are at present. On the other hand, the same diligence and alacrity are requisite, with regard to the colonies on the continent; and whatever is done to promote the trade of the sugar colonies, must necessarily tend to the emolument of our continent plantations, which supply the sugar islands with lumber and other things requisite for carrying on their trade: and if, besides this, ways and means could be found to open new channels, for the benefit of these colonies also, it ought to be done, and the protection of all our colonies secured by all the power that Great-Britain can possibly exert, consistent with her own particular safety. See our articles BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, PLANTATIONS.

That the French sugar colonies in America, from a very small beginning, are arrived to an extraordinary pitch of prosperity, even since the beginning of queen Anne's reign, is very apparent; and by what wise and gradual steps they have been so highly advanced, deserves the most serious attention of this nation. See our article FRENCH AMERICA.

The island of Martinico is the chief of these French settlements: the number of people in this island, by which we are obliged to compute the rest, is affirmed to be 10,000 whites, and 20,000 negroes. Whence it appears that the French are very numerous in these islands, and they make more sugar here than we do in the island of Barbadoes.—They also cultivate here indico, cotton, and cacao, to great advantage, and draw no little profit from the ginger, cassia, and pimento, of which they export considerable quantities. They likewise manufacture roucou, for the use of dyers, and send home variety of medicinal gums, and sweetmeats. The French sugar islands, besides, produce several kinds of very valuable woods, used for dyeing, inlaying, and cabinet-work, such as rose-wood, the Indian-wood, and the iron-wood, brazelletto-wood, or fustic, and ebony, which is used as well by the cabinet-makers as the dyers.—We may add to these commodities, raw hides and tortoise-shells, and then we may have a tolerable comprehension of the wealth of the French West-Indies.

Though these islands produce so many estimable commodities, yet they stand in need of supplies of divers essential necessaries, without which they could not possibly subsist; such as horses, and cattle of all kinds, corn, roots, dry fish, and all sorts of lumber, of which they receive some from Canada, and the rest from our northern colonies, in exchange for sugar, tobacco, indico, and other goods, sent to Canada, and for molasses, &c. to our northern colonies.—See our article FRENCH AMERICA, particularly our REMARKS on French America.

The inhabitants of this island also stand in constant need of negroes, with which they are now supplied by the French East-India company, by whom the slave-trade is now carried on with great regularity, and great advantage to the French colonies and nation. The negroes are sent to Martinico, where they are purchased by the inhabitants of the other islands, at a settled price, of so many hogheads of sugar a head

head, as in the Spanish ports they are bought for so many pieces of eight. See the article FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY.—And how our African trade might be greatly advanced, as well for the interest of the British colonies, as of the kingdom in general, see our article EAST-INDIA COMPANY, for what we have there humbly suggested. To what degree the French have increased in the commerce of all their sugar colonies considered together, see our article FRENCH AMERICA.—But of all the sugar colonies that the French possess in America, there is none of more high concernment to them than that of St Domingo.—And should the French once carry their point, and become sole masters of this island, we may reasonably believe that, in few years, it would become the richest and most estimable country in that part of the world, especially if the French should abandon their other islands, and transport their inhabitants thither; and, even in that case, there would be no danger of its being over-peopled; and its fertility is such, that they would all find room to exercise their industry, and that industry would be richly rewarded: besides, this would afford them many advantages; for whereas their other islands are subject to many inconveniences, but more especially the want of provisions, these would all be remedied there, and it would afford them an opportunity of increasing their strength there to such a degree, as would put it out of the power of any of their neighbours to give them much disturbance. On the contrary, they would soon become formidable, both to us and to the Spaniards; which is an evil, that, as it has been foreseen in time, it is to be hoped due care will be taken to prevent its ever coming to pass. Can we, therefore, give too much encouragement to our own sugar colonies, when the French may one day prove so formidable to us by means of theirs? Nor can we affect the French in a more tender point than in that of their sugar colonies, if a rupture at this conjuncture should prove inevitable.

It is not many years since the principal inhabitants of Jamaica addressed his Majesty, to shew him the decay of their trade and planting interest; whereby they represented, 'That the low value of their produce might be very justly attributed to the great improvement the French have made in their sugar colonies, by the encouragement given them, particularly in allowing them to export their commodities to foreign markets, without first introducing them into any of the ports of France; and from the lowness of their duties, they could undersell them. That sugar, and other commodities produced in the French and Dutch colonies, were frequently imported into Ireland, without introducing them into the ports of Great-Britain, and paying the duties, and, consequently, those foreigners were supplied with provisions at easier rates. That the British northern colonies imported into Jamaica great quantities of provisions, and other goods, for which they took no part of the produce of that island in exchange, a small quantity of molasses excepted, but were paid in bullion, which they carried to Hispaniola, and bought sugar, rum, and molasses, for their own use: which trade was not only unequal and injurious to the inhabitants of Jamaica, but prejudicial even to the northern colonies, and highly so to their mother-country, draining Jamaica of so much bullion in favour of France, which otherwise might have centered in Great-Britain.'

Though one part of this complaint has been remedied, the other is still subsisting: it is true, sugar can be exported from the plantations immediately to foreign countries, but the northern colonies still continue to supply the French with lumber, which gives them an opportunity of underselling us both at home and abroad. The case is also the same with the Dutch at Curassoa and Surinam, where our northern colonies send horses, whereby they carry on their sugar-making, which promotes the Dutch colonies in this manufacture: and the Dutch are so sensible of this advantage, that it is a law, or order, in Surinam, That these northern vessels shall not be admitted to trade with them, unless they bring such a number of horses; besides, they import from the colonies dry goods, whereby the consumption from Great-Britain and the southern plantations is greatly diminished.

The breed of seamen, with the increase and encouragement of the navigation of this kingdom, principally depend on our plantation trade and Newfoundland fishery; therefore their state and condition ever deserve the consideration of our best patriots, for preventing the decay, loss, or destruction of the trade and maritime strength of Great-Britain: but we may presume that this is most essentially to be done by DESTROYING THE FRENCH SETTLEMENTS, instead of encouraging their manufacture: and I wish that our gallant admiral Vernon had laid Hispaniola in ashes, which it was once in his power to have accomplished, if——

Should the English be dispossessed of Jamaica, which they may soon be, if the sugar-trade is ruined; and however some people may believe, we shall not only lose an island of very great consequence to us in point of commerce, but must never afterwards expect to be formidable by our naval force in that part of the world, as we have been for many years past, by means of that island; for, as Dr Davenant has justly observed, 'The loss of Jamaica must probably be followed with the absolute ruin of our interest in America.'

It was observed by a gentleman of Barbadoes in a speech to the council and general assembly of that island, 'That their neighbour colonies, so long kept by foreign fears from improving, were then encouraging trade, increasing their people, enlarging their plantations, and cultivating their lands: that their fertile soil yielded them many crops from one planting, while the soil of the English plantations required the utmost art, industry, and manure, and that too annually.'

We shall readily grant that the produce of Jamaica has not been less in value than 500,000 l. a year; and a friend to this island has acknowledged, that it is capable of producing THREE TIMES what it does at present, were but some laws made to prevent such quantities of land being monopolized by particular persons, obliging such persons as have very great runs of land, and will neither settle or sell the same, that they do the one or the other, and to give encouragement for white people to come and reside in that island. But it is quite different at Barbadoes, for no country known to Europeans ever exceeded this in agriculture: it had been said, That if the soil of this island had not been improved, but dug, and put on board of the ships and vessels that have traded hither since the settlement, they might have been sufficient to have carried the whole island away: for there is such great industry in planting and manuring the sugar-canes, that, the land being poor, the inhabitants are obliged to dung and improve their plantations like so many gardens: and I with the same poverty of soil is not equally apparent in the other Caribbee Islands subject to Great-Britain.

It is not above 70 years ago that Martinico was the only settlement the French were possessed of in the West-Indies: since which time, they have settled Guadalupe, and increased their settlements in Hispaniola ten to one, for which they had an encouragement given them, by the duty laid upon all clayed or refined sugar imported into France; which duty effectually prohibited, or prevented, either the English or the Dutch from sending any thither, and, consequently, caused an increase of the French plantations.

About 40 years ago the observation was made, That as the French had, within four or five years, beat us almost out of our indico trade, so it could not be much longer time before our condition would be the same with our sugar trade. The observation has been too early verified.

The French endeavoured to strengthen all trade in general; and by giving such tracks of land on Hispaniola, as also by not permitting any person to enjoy more than what he planted and manured, they have become powerful; nay, they did not scruple saying, That, in a few years, they would have the whole island of HISPANIOLA: on which account, in 1709 and 1710, the British ministry were applied to, and it was intended by them that, at the general treaty of peace, it should be demanded for the French to restore to the Spaniards such part as they possessed, by the cession of the whole island granted by king Philip to his grandfather; however, this cession was never put in execution, though it was required by France, for her assistance to Spain in the Mediterranean engagement, in 1744, but refused through the interest of his present Catholic Majesty, then prince of Asturias.

By an order issued by his Most Christian Majesty, for the better settling and peopling his colonies in America, every ship or vessel was obliged, when required, to carry a certain number of people thither, freight free: so that, by this encouragement to the increase of their inhabitants, and the fertility of the country in producing materials for enlarging and improving their SUGAR-WORKS, as also by the great extent of Hispaniola, it was observed, that the French colonists would not only make much greater quantities of sugar than the British colonists could in their plantations, but at a cheaper price, by being furnished with most materials for doing thereof within themselves: whereas the British islands were obliged to be supplied from the northern colonies, at a great expence, and, therefore, their product must necessarily be made up at a much dearer rate than the French; whereby the consequence would be, that the French, in a little time, must beat us out of that most valuable article to the whole kingdom, the SUGAR TRADE.

Earthquakes, inundations of the sea, insurrections of negroes, blights in the canes, and other concomitant circumstances, have been great impediments to the prosperity of our sugar plantations, which require lenitives, more than corrosives, in their present feeble condition. Upon the whole, our SUGAR TRADE has received a violent blow from the French; our NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERY has decayed by their encroachments; and our TOBACCO COLONIES, if proper care is not taken of that valuable branch of trade, may also be outrivalled by the French of LOUISIANA; which must give every Englishman a very melancholy prospect, since it is by our SUGAR and TOBACCO, and other COLONIES, we have such a ballance in trade on our side with Hamburgh, and other parts of the Eastland countries, as also a profitable trade with the United Provinces; and from our Newfoundland fishery, great sums have been annually brought into England from Spain, Portugal, and Italy: besides, our northern colonies being dependent on our sugar settlements to take off their product, and having not wherewithal to answer the exports to them from Great-Britain, are only valuable as they bear relation

lation to such colonies as are furnished by them, which cease on the decay of the trade from whence it arises.

Thus sad and melancholy is our present condition, as to these branches of our trade and navigation; which must be aggravated, from the consideration of the present conduct of the FRENCH in AMERICA.

REMARKS since the last war, and the peace of 1763.

To what degree many of the before-intimated evils, where-with we seemed to be threatened before the last war and peace, may be presumed to be remedied in time, we refer the reader to our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, CANADA, FLORIDA, LEEWARD ISLANDS, NEW-FOUNDLAND FISHERIES, INDIAN NATIONS, and to the various other articles to which from the preceding we refer.

The ACT continued for granting liberty to carry sugars from the British sugar colonies of the product and manufacture of the said sugar colonies in America, from the said colonies directly to foreign parts, &c. &c.

Whereas the laws herein after-mentioned, which have by experience been found useful and beneficial, are near expiring; it is enacted, That an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of his present Majesty, intituled, An act for granting a liberty to carry SUGARS of the growth, produce, or manufactures of any of his Majesty's sugar colonies in America, from the said colonies DIRECTLY TO FOREIGN PARTS, in ships built in Great-Britain, and navigated according to law; which was to continue in force for five years, from the said twenty-ninth day of September, one thousand seven hundred and thirty-nine, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament; and which, by several subsequent acts, made in the seventeenth and twenty-fourth years of the reign of his present Majesty, was further continued the first day of September, one thousand seven hundred and fifty-seven, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament; shall be, and the same is hereby further continued, from the expiration thereof, until the twenty-ninth day of September, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-four, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament.

In the last war Great-Britain conquered the French sugar colonies of MARTINICO and GUADALOUPE, &c. and upon the conditions stipulated in the treaty of peace, concluded in the year 1763, the said sugar colonies were restored again to France. See our article AMERICA, for the treaty at large. The long standing disputes, concerning the NEUTRAL Islands in America, are finally settled in the said treaty. See our article LEEWARD ISLANDS, where the new acquisitions of colonies in America are represented.

In the year 1758, an act was made for encouraging the exportation of rum and spirits, of the growth, produce, and manufacture, of the British sugar colonies, from this kingdom, and of British spirits made from melasses.—An abstract of the contents.

The duties of custom, payable upon the importation of rum and spirits, from the British sugar colonies, to be repaid upon the exportation thereof.—And the duties of excise to be remitted upon all such as shall be exported before payment is made of the said duties.—Exporter to give bond for the due exportation thereof.—Upon producing a certificate of such bond having been given, the rum or spirits mentioned therein, are to be delivered out of the warehouse, and a certificate of the quantity, and size and marks of the casks, &c. to be given therewith, and produced to the officer attending the shipping.—Due entry to be made of such delivery.—Bonds given for the duties are to be delivered up, upon oath made of the intended exportation, and certificate produced, &c. of the quantity shipped, and that the same are proof spirits; and also of the delivery thereof from the warehouses, &c.—If part only of the rum or spirits mentioned in the bond are certified to be delivered and shipped, the quantity is to be indorsed on the bond; and the bond to be delivered up, when the remaining part shall be certified to be delivered and shipped; provided the same be before the time stipulated for payment of the duties.—All rum and spirits intituled to the said drawback, &c. are to be exported in casks, containing not less than 100 gallons, and in vessels not less than 100 tons burthen.—The quantity delivered out is to be computed according to the gauge taken upon the importation thereof.—If, after delivery, any shall be concealed, or not shipped within twelve hours, or the cask be opened, or the same be reduced or altered in quantity or quality; such rum or spirits are forfeited, and the bond is to be put in suit; unless the commissioners' see cause to forbear the same.—Bonds given for exportation are not to be discharged, till certificates be produced of the due exportation and landing, and proof made thereof on oath, in manner required by the act for preventing the excessive use of spirituous liquors, &c.—If such rum or spirits shall not be exported, or shall be fraudulently reloaded, the same, together with the vessels, cattle and carriages employed therein, are forfeited; and the persons concerned forfeit double the amount of the duties; and the master, &c. if he assist or connive thereat, is to suffer also six months imprisonment:

or if the package be altered before arrival at the place of discharge, he forfeits 100 l.—The rum or spirits to be exported are to be proof; and the exporter is to give five days previous notice of the shipping thereof; and allow the officers to mark the casks, and take samples, paying for the same, if demanded; upon penalty of forfeiting 100 l.—If any rum or spirits shall be altered or reduced in quantity or quality, after being shipped, the same is forfeited, and the persons concerned therein forfeit also 100 l. and no drawback is to be allowed for the same.—Penalty of granting false certificate, or of counterfeiting, altering, &c. any oath or certificate, is 500 l. one moiety to the crown, the other to the prosecutor.—An additional drawback of 3 l. 3 s. per ton allowed on all British-made spirits, drawn from melasses, exported; oath being made of the truth thereof, and of the duties being duly paid; and certificate produced of the quantity shipped, and that the same were proof-spirits, &c.—The powers, regulations, forfeitures and clauses, &c. in the recited act, relating to the drawback hereby granted on the exportation of spirits; and to the preventing or punishing frauds, &c. extended to this act.

SURREY, a county in England, joins on the west to Berkshire and Hampshire, on the south to Sussex, on the east to Kent, and it is parted from Middlesex on the north by the river Thames, and is 112 miles in circumference.

The air, as well as the soil of the middle and extreme parts, is vastly different.

The chief commodities of this county, besides its corn, are box-wood, walnuts, and fuller's earth, which last is sold at a groat a bushel at the pits near Ryegate.

SOUTHWARK, though it seems a suburb of London, yet for extent and number of people, and their trade and wealth, &c. is inferior to few cities in England.

GUILDFORD is a large well-built town on the river Wey, which falls into the Thames. Its market is reckoned one of the greatest in England for wheat. By the navigation of its river, a great quantity of timber is brought to London, not only from its neighbourhood, but from the woody parts of Sussex and Hampshire. It had formerly a considerable manufacture of cloth.

KINGSTON upon Thames, is a populous, trading, well-built town. The market is kept in the town, so large that it might pass for a fair.

WANDLESWORTH, or WANSWORTH, is of note for a manufacture of brass plates and kettles, skillets and frying-pans.

FARNHAM on the river Loddon, is a large and populous town, and one of the greatest wheat-markets in England, especially between All-saints-day and Midsummer, when, one day with another, 250 load of wheat, and sometimes 400 have been sold here in a day. The plantation of hops hereabouts is also very considerable, and said to outdo the Kentish hop-yards, both in quantity and quality.

GODALMING is the most eminent town in the county for making cloth, particularly mixed kerseys and blue ones, said to be the best coloured in the kingdom for the Canaries. It stands on the Loddon, which abounds with good fish, especially pike, and drives a grist-mill, two paper-mills, and three corn-mills. The best whited brown paper is said to come from hence.

CHERTSEY has a bridge over the Thames to Shepperton in Middlesex. Its principal trade is in malt, which it sends in barges to London.

CROYDON is a large handsome town on the edge of Banstead-downs. Its market is chiefly for oats and oatmeal for London, though there is a great sale here too of wheat and barley. The town is encompassed with hills, well stored with wood, of which great quantities of charcoal are made, and sent to London.

DORKING is noted for its meal-trade, and its market for poultry, particularly the fattest geese and the largest capons, which are brought hither from Horsham in Sussex; where it is the business of all the country for many miles to breed and fatten them.

SUSSEX is bounded on the west with Hampshire, on the south with the British Channel, on the north with Surrey, and on the east with Kent, and is 170 miles in circumference. Its chief rivers are the Arun, Adur, Ouse, and Rother; the Arun has lately had a new outlet cut from it, to improve its navigation, which carries barges above Pulborough, and ships of 100 tons as high as Arundel; from whence they carry the largest and best timber in England to the docks of Portsmouth and Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford.

The air and soil of this country are both various, according to the different parts of it. On the sea-coast are very high green hills, called the South-downs, well known to such as deal in wool or sheep, there being great flocks fed here, whose wool, which is very fine, is too often exported clandestinely to France by farmers and jobbers, who are called OWLERS. The north-quarter is shaded with woods, from which they make abundance of charcoal; and fuel for the iron-works, there being plenty of ore on the east side towards Kent, and many great forges, furnaces, and water-mills, for both cast and wrought iron; which, though it is said to be

more

more brittle than Spanish, yet cannon are cast with it; and the best gunpowder is made in this county.

CHICHESTER has a very great market for corn, and every Wednesday fortnight here is also one of the greatest cattle markets in England. Its chief manufactures are malt and needles. Here is some foreign trade, and a collector, with other officers of the customs at Dell Key, a small harbour about four miles from the sea.

LEWES is one of the largest and most populous towns in the county. It carries on a good trade, and a little river runs through the middle of the town, to which it brings goods in boats and barges from a port eight miles off: on this river are several iron-works.

SHOREHAM is a populous place, and has a very good harbour for vessels of considerable burthen; and many ships are built here both for the navy and merchants service.

RYE is a pretty populous town. Its trade consists in hops, wool, timber, kettles, cannon, chimney-backs, &c. which are cast at the iron-work at Bakely, four miles from Rye to the north-east, and at Breed five miles to the south-west.

BRIGHTHELMSTON, is a pretty large populous town, chiefly inhabited by fishermen, as is also Newhaven. A pretty many small vessels bring coals, deals, &c. from Lewes hither, and load from hence with corn, timber, tan, &c. Some small craft are also built here.

SWABIA, the circle of, in Germany, is bounded on the north with the Palatinate and Franconia; on the south with Tyrol and Swisserland; on the west with Alsace; and on the east with Bavaria.

Its air is healthy, and the soil generally fruitful: for though some parts are mountainous and woody, yet the hills afford mines of silver, copper, and other metals, and the forests much pine and fir-timber, besides great store of game, and good breeds of horses, black cattle, and sheep; and other parts yield great store of corn, wine and flax. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in making linen cloth, of which they export great quantities. Its chief rivers are the Danube and Neckar, but great part of it is also watered by the Rhine.

The usual division of it is as follows, viz.

The marquisate of **BADEN**. This country, which is one of the finest in Germany, is extended along the eastern banks of the Rhine, having the Palatinate on the north, the Black Forest on the east, Alsace on the west, and Swisserland on the south. It is very populous, and fruitful in corn and wine, but chiefly in hemp, which they sell to the Dutch and Flemings; they have, also, in some places, agate, which they polish and export.

The chief towns here are only of note on account of their baths, for which they are much frequented.

ORTNAN is separated by the Rhine, on the west, from Alsace, has the the Brisgaw on the south, the margraviate of Baden on the north, and the duchy of Wirtemberg on the east.

The **BRISGAW** lies on the east side of the Rhine, which divides it from Alsace; betwixt Ortnan on the west, and the principality of Furstemberg on the east.

FRIEBURG is a large populous city, on the river Threisem: here are famous lapidaries for polishing the granates, jaspers, and other precious stones that are found in Lorrain, and the neighbouring countries.

The territory of **SUNTGAW** has Montbeliard on the west, Upper Alsace on the north, the bishopric of Basil, and Mount Jura the principality of Porentru, and the Franche Comte, on the south, and the canton of Basil on the east. The country, though mountainous, abounds with vines, and great quantities of its corn are transported to Swisserland, Lombardy, Lorrain, &c. There are no towns of any note for trade, neither in this territory, nor in the county of Montbeliard, nor the bishopric of Basil.

The bishopric of **CONSTANCE** lies on both sides of the lake of that name, and on the borders of Swisserland.

CONSTANCE, the capital, is a populous rich place, and has a considerable trade, by means of its lake, and the neighbourhood of the Rhine.

UBORLINGEN stands on the lake of Constance; it has a good haven, from whence barges are sent with wine and fruits to Constance, and other cities on the lake, to the great gain of the inhabitants, who are very industrious and frugal.

SALMANSWEILER is a small town, but has a good trade in corn.

BUCKORN has a good trade with the neighbouring countries, by the lake.

LINDAW stands on the north bank of the lake, by means of which, and the Rhine, it lies so convenient for trade, that it is called the Venice of Swabia. Part of the city is built on an island in the lake, to which there is a wooden bridge: this part is mostly inhabited by fishermen, watermen, and weavers. This place is so considerable a staple for goods of divers nations, and its market is so frequented by merchants for eight or nine leagues round, as well as others from a great number of towns, that it is said near 1500 load of merchandize enters every week at the gate next to the main land. The traders both of Swabia and Bavaria amass great quanti-

ties of corn, salt, iron, and copper here, which they sell to the Swiss and Grisons; and every Saturday vast stores of wheat and wine are brought hither by the lake, from Hegow and Tergow; as also an incredible quantity of butter and cheese is brought from Bregent, and the mountains of Swisserland, Appenzel, and the Grisons; besides fish and fruits of all sorts, and variety of other merchandize, from the neighbourhood, and from the northern countries, and which pass through Nuremberg and Augsburg, for Italy.

WANGEN stands on the river Arg, which falls into the same lake, and is noted for a trade in paper and flax, and for the best pickles, which are made here in great numbers, and sent all over the empire.

BIBRACK stands in a pleasant fruitful valley, surrounded with hills. The great trade of this town consists in fustians; so that, of all the trading companies, the weavers are most numerous.

LEUTHIRK, on the river Escach, is a small town, but the inhabitants have a good trade in corn, flax, and linen cloth, of which they make great quantities.

KEMPTEN, on the Aigow, is one of the ancientest cities in Germany. The trade of the place is weaving and whitening linen cloth, which, with its being on the road to Italy, and by the Swissers bringing salt from Tirol, makes it one of the richest cities in Swabia.

MEMMINGEN has a good manufacture and trade in linen, cotton, stuffs, and paper, which last is reckoned the best in Germany.

AUGSBURG, the metropolis of Swabia, stands near the confines of Bavaria, at the conflux of the rivers Lech and Werdach, which fall into the Danube 25 miles below it. It is one of the biggest and most beautiful cities in Germany. Its trade, at present, besides the bank of commerce, and the Tirol wines, with which it almost wholly supplies Germany, consists in goldsmiths wares, clocks, and ivory, with which, and all kinds of toys, not inferior to those of Nuremberg, it furnishes Germany, Poland, and the north of Europe; but even in several of those things, the English artizans have, of late years, excelled, and served foreign countries, to the great detriment of both Augsburg and Nuremberg, which had, for several centuries, been in possession of this trade.

ULM stands on the Danube, which here begins to be navigable; it is a great and very populous city, here being a great number of hands employed in the manufactures of stuffs, linen, cotton, and fustians; in dressing leather, and in the iron, and other manufactures, as well as clock-work; by which this is become one of the richest cities in Germany.

NORDLINGEN, the capital of a county, or division, of its name, stands on the river Eger. The principal trade carried on here is in linen cloth and dressed skins. There is a considerable yearly fair here, the week after Easter, to which merchants bring goods from very remote countries, and return with the manufactures of this.

WIRTEMBERG duchy, in that called Lower Swabia, is bounded on the north by part of Franconia, the archbishopric of Mentz, and the Palatinate of the Rhine; on the east by the county of Oetingen, and several other petty states of Swabia; on the south by the Danube; and on the west by the marquisate of Baden, and the Black Forest. It is reckoned the largest dominion in the circle of Swabia; and there are few countries in Germany so fruitful, it abounding with all sorts of corn, besides pasture. Its mountains are full of mines and vineyards, and its vallies of cattle; but being surrounded with the Palatinate, Franconia, and Alsace, that are altogether as fertile, the Wirtembergers have hardly any export for their commodities.

ESLINGEN, on the Neckar, is a place of some trade, and noted for good baths.

HAILBRON stands in a pleasant fruitful country, on the same river, and has a good trade, and several fairs.

The principal trade of **GEMUND** is in beads, which they send abroad.

HALLE stands amongst rocks and mountains, on the river Kocher, and owes its rise to its spring of salt, which, though not so white nor piquant as other salt, is carried to Nuremberg.

SWEDEN. This kingdom is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate, on the south; by the mountains of Norway on the west; by Danish, or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; and by Muscovy on the east.

The soil, where capable of cultivation, is tolerably fruitful. For want of industry, they have not a competent supply of corn, and, therefore, import many sorts of grain from Livonia. The cattle are small in size; their sheep bear a coarse wool, fit only to make cloathing for peasants; their horses are of a delicate kind.—They have plenty of wild beasts, which are hunted for their flesh, as well as their hides and furs. Fowl, both wild and tame, are in great plenty, and good in their kind.—Their lakes are well stored with variety of fine fish.—Their woods and forests over-spread great part of the country, and are, for the most part, of pines, fir, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and some oak.—They have variety of mines, particularly of copper and iron, and one

of silver, adjacent to which, the woods are much destroyed for fuel; but that want is so well supplied from distant places, by the conveniency of rivers and winter-carriages, that they have charcoal above six times as cheap as in England, though not so good in quality.

Iron mines and forges are in great number towards the mountainous parts, where they have the conveniency of water-falls to turn their mills. From these, besides supplying the country, there is yearly exported iron to the value of near 300,000*l*. but of late years the number of these forges has been so much increased, that each endeavouring to undersell others, the price has been much lowered; and since the prohibition of foreign manufactures, in exchange of which iron was plentifully taken off, it is grown so cheap, that it is found necessary to lessen the number of forges. Neither has that expedient had the effect intended; but, on the contrary, many more are like to fall of themselves, because they cannot work but with loss: in which case, many thousands of poor people, whose livelihood depends upon these forges and mines, will be reduced to a starving condition.

What we have been saying in relation to Sweden in general, is, in the main, applicable to Finland, except only that hitherto no mines have been discovered there. Its chief commodities are pitch, tar, and all sorts of wooden ware, cattle, dried fish, train-oil, &c.

The country of Sweden has no considerable manufactures, and yet they have a very great trade, and are very strong in shipping; the reason is, the produce of their land, notwithstanding its northern situation and barren soil, is an immense treasure, and, in a great measure, makes up for their want of manufactures. This product is not only great, but is inexhaustible in its fund, and is as follows:

Silver,	Iron,	Flax,	Tar,	Furrs,
Copper,	Timber,	Pitch,	Hemp,	Hides.

1. The silver; this they have peculiar to themselves, it being found in no other place in all these parts of the world, except in Norway, and this is the product of one mine only, at a place called Nola. The ore in the mine lies 145 fathom deep, the working of which has continued near 300 years, and yet, as they relate, is unexhausted. The mine itself is very curious, and strangers are often carried down to see it: it brings in a revenue to the king according to the degree to which it is worked.

2. Their mines of copper and iron are very valuable indeed, and are a fund of wealth considerably greater than the mine of silver, and which will support Sweden, perhaps, to the end of time: for as the quantity is inexhaustible, so the advantage of working these mines is very great. Without this, Sweden, which is otherwise a poor and barren place, excepting some few vallies and flat countries on the sea-coast, would not be able, on any terms, to import such great quantities of the manufactures and product of other countries as they now do: had they not copper and iron to pay with, they could never import such quantities of wine and brandy, wrought silks, and fine linens, from France and Holland; or of broad cloth, fine stuffs, wrought iron and brass, clock-work and watch-work, with other things, from England; but their copper and their iron supply them with all things, and the balance is always very much in their favour: which is not to be wondered at, inasmuch as before the last calamitous war, which drained them both of money and men, the Swedish nation was a formidable power; and they tell us that Sweden only, without including their provinces in Germany, furnished king Charles XII. for his wars, from the time of his first expedition against the king of Denmark, to his death at Frederickshall, above 300,000 men for soldiers, and 227 tons of gold, either in specie, or bills of exchange, made good in Sweden, or bills at Hamburgh, when exchange failed from Sweden; and this was always made good in copper or iron.

If this be true, and that we add to this the dreadful havock and destruction of the mines of copper, and of the iron-works, which the Muscovites made in their several invasions upon them, at the end of that war, and by which the late king of Sweden was obliged to consent to a disadvantageous peace, we need not wonder that the Swedes at present are in a low condition, in comparison to what they were, both as to their real wealth and their trade. The Muscovites carried away 70,000 tons of iron, besides copper, and did an irreparable damage, by destroying the copper mines, which had cost immense sums to bring to perfection, and by cutting down the woods, which were the life and support of the iron-works, and which will require many years growth to be rendered useful for the same works.

Yet notwithstanding all this, we see the Swedes, by an application never enough to be commended, begin to recover, and their government and gentry contributing to the repair of the great copper-mines, and of their iron-works, which had suffered so much; they begin to apply themselves vigorously to agriculture, and even manufactures, and export great quantities, and to fill their coffers again: and, in a few years, it is not doubted but they will be able to make a

considerable figure, though, perhaps, not quite so great as before.

I find no considerable manufactures, at present, in Sweden for exportation, except such as are the immediate product of the metals above; that is, brass-wire, drawn from their copper converted into brass, also some steel, and a great quantity of latten-wire, drawn from their iron. These they export in very great quantities, as they do also deals, masts, timber, pitch, and tar.

A few years since they set up a coarse manufacture of woollen cloth in Sweden, which they make with tolerable good success, for cloathing their poorer people, and for their armies; but we do not find they export any of it, except some into Muscovy and Poland, and that but lately. However, it is of great advantage to them, as it sets their poor at work, and finds employment especially for the women and children, who are the most incapable to get their bread in Sweden and Norway of any country in those parts of the world.

All the product of Sweden, except as above, finds no work for women, and therefore it is that in the country villages the women manage the plough and the cart, and till the land as much, and perhaps more, than the men.

As for the men, they are taken up in four employments, in which the women can do no service at all, viz.

1. In the woods, which makes good a proverb in those countries, That the Swedes are born carpenters.
2. In the mines, where they are also very skilful.
3. In the army, where they are acknowledged to be very good soldiers.
4. In the ships; but here they make not the best seamen.

It is almost as natural for the countrymen of Sweden to be carpenters or miners, as it is to children to suck: they take it just as a Dutchman takes to fishing, or as a negro to swim. In the woods their business is with the ax or the saw, felling timber or sawing deals, extracting the tar, turpentine, &c. and making the charcoal: all these are laborious works, fit only for the men: the like is the working in the mines, or at the forges and smelting-huts, which the women can do little or nothing at.

But now they have a woollen manufacture, the women begin to spin and card, and weave; and the children have the winding and spinning too, in their degree; so that many thousands get their bread, who could not do it before. It is true, their own wool being very coarse, they can make no great improvements in this manufacture; but they have wool from Poland, and the cloathing the poor is a trade very advantageous: for,

- (1.) It furnishes their poor with cloaths much cheaper than they were before, when the country people were cloathed chiefly with sheep's-skins, dressed with the wool on them.
 - (2.) It employs their own poor, who got nothing before.
 - (3.) It keeps all that money at home, which went annually abroad for cloathing for the meaner sort of people, which, notwithstanding their sheep-skin dress, was a very great sum.
- The Swedes have two countries distant from their native one, in which they have still some interest; and these are Finland and Pomeran.

1. In Finland they have very few ports left, having lost Elfsingvas and Wiborg to the Muscovites; however, at Abo, and some other small places remaining to them, they drive a considerable trade in Swedish deals, which are very valuable in England and Holland, being of a good durable and uncommon kind of yellow fir.

Also they export the best masts for ships of any place, except Wiborg, in all those seas. The inland country is famed for good horses, and the Finlanders horse were once esteemed the best cavalry in all Germany.

2. Pomeran: here the Swedes have still the port of Stralsund, which is a very considerable rich trading city, and a good port; and the isle of Rugen is a large, fruitful, and well-cultivated island: and from hence Sweden itself, in times of scarcity, is often supplied with corn.

This country of Pomeran is one of the most considerable in all the seas, for the best oak timber and plank; and the Dutch fetch great quantities hence every year, especially of plank; as also from Stetin, on the north of the Oder, which formerly belonged to the Swedes. The Swedes themselves, also, have the greatest part of the oak timber and plank from hence, with which they build their ships of war at Carelsroon.

They export from this country also great quantities of corn to Holland, and of linseed for making of oil, and also some linen, such as canvas, and other coarse linens; but the Swedes having quitted the Oder to the Prussians, has greatly lessened their trade on that side.

Though Sweden has for many centuries furnished a great part of Europe with those necessary commodities with which it so plentifully abounds, yet either their warlike temper, the idleness, or the ignorance of the inhabitants, has formerly kept them from being much concerned in trade, they having given the management and advantage of it too much to strangers, which was for a long time monopolized by the Hanse-Towns situate on the Baltic Sea, till the Seven Pro-

vinces of the Netherlands being erected into a republic, became sharers with them. [See the article HANSE-TOWNS.] Before that time, very little iron was made in Sweden; but the ore, being run into pigs, was transported to Dantzic, and other parts of Prussia, and there forged into bars. The nation owes the greatest improvements it has made in trade, to the art and industry of some ingenious mechanics, whom the cruelty of the duke of Alva drove into these parts. Their success invited great numbers of the reformed Walloons to remove thither, whose language and religion remain in the places they settled in, where they erected forges, and other conveniences for making of iron guns, wire, and all other manufactures of copper, brass, and iron.

The Swedish navigation was very inconsiderable 'till queen Christina, at the conclusion of the war in 1664, obtained from Denmark a freedom and custom for all ships and merchandize belonging to Swedish subjects, in their passage through the Sound [see the article DENMARK] and established in her own dominions that difference of custom which still subsists between Swedish and foreign ships, and is in the proportion of 4, 5, 6: the first being called whole-free, the second half-free, and the last unfree: so that where a whole-free Swedish ship pays 400 crowns, a half-free one pays 500, and a foreign vessel 600.

But, as great as this advantage was, it had but little effect, 'till the English act of navigation bridled the Hollanders, and opened the intercourse between England and Sweden. Since that time, their commerce has been much augmented, as well as ours, that way, and goods transported by both, or either party, according to the various junctures of affairs. When Sweden has been engaged in a war, the English ships have had the whole employ: but, in time of peace, the advantage is so great on the Swedish side, and merchants so much encouraged by freedom in customs, to employ their own ships, that English bottoms cannot be used in that trade, but only when Sweden is unprovided with a number of ships sufficient for the transportation of their own commodities.

The general direction of their trade belongs to the College of Commerce, which consists of the president of the Treasury, and four counsellors, who hear causes relating to trade, and redress any disorders that happen. The bank at Stockholm is of great benefit to trade, as well in regard that the king's customs for that city are paid there, as also that the merchants commonly make payments to each other, by bills drawn upon it; which eases them of great trouble in transporting their money from place to place, that would otherwise be very difficult and chargeable. This bank is well constituted, and in good credit, as it has the states of the kingdom for its guarantees. See our article BANKING. The interest of England, in the trade of Sweden, may be computed by the necessity of their commodities to us, and the vent of our's there. Their copper, iron, tar, pitch, masts, &c. cannot be had elsewhere, except from America, from whence such supplies may certainly be furnished: and if so, this consideration ought, in reason, to have an influence on the Swedish councils, and engage them to make the English trade with them as easy as possible, lest we should, in time, cease in the importation of their commodities. As to our exportations thither, they scarce amount to one third of what we import from thence, and consist chiefly in cloth, stuffs, and other woollen manufactures; of which there was formerly vended there, yearly, to the amount of 50,000 l. Besides these, tobacco, Newcastle coals, pewter, lead, tin, fruits, and sugar, with several other of our own commodities, are sold at this market, as also good quantities of herrings from Scotland: so that, in all, we are supposed to vend goods to about 100,000 l. a year; whereof, if any more than one half be paid for, it is extraordinary. But the making cloth in Sweden to supply the army, &c. which had formerly been endeavoured without success, being now encouraged and assisted by the public, and undertaken by some Scots, and others, has proved of late, and does still prove, a great hinderance to the vent of our cloth there. And, to favour this undertaking, English cloth is now (unless it be such fine cloths as cannot be made there) clogged with such excessive duties, as render the importation of it impracticable. The undertakers have got workmen from Germany, and some from England; and, besides the German wool they use, they receive great quantities from Scotland (supposed to be had from England) without which they cannot work. Yet as at present the English trade in Sweden is of the importance above mentioned, notwithstanding the abatements aforesaid, it is considerable, and will be so, while their commodities continue to be necessary to us.

THE EXCHANGES OF SWEDEN, OR STOCKHOLM.

STOCKHOLM

Gives *

To receive †

* 15 marks, cop. mon. more or less,	† in France, 1 crown of 60 sols.
24 ditto, idem	in Holland, 1 rixdol. cur. mon.
25 ditto, idem	at Hamb. 1 rixdollar banco.
18 ditto, idem	at Cadiz, 128 quartos.

As Stockholm negotiates by exchange only with Amsterdam or Hamburgh, the number of days must be stipulated for the bill of exchange to run, after the expiration of which, there are no regulated days of grace.

Merchants keep their accounts in rixdollars, copper dollars, and runsticks, reckoning 32 runsticks to a copper dollar, and 6 copper dollars to a rixdollar, valued at 3 Polish florins, or about 4 s. 6 d.—They reckon 8 runsticks to a mark, and 4 marks to a copper dollar.—They have a stiver dollar, which is called the Swedes rixdollar of Germany, or Poland, worth about 2 s. 3 d. sterling.—In this specie the custom of all exported goods must be paid; and it is divided into 32 ore.—The dollar in which the custom of all imported goods must be paid, is the Swedish copper-plate dollars, which are of double the value of the stiver dollar, viz. 90 groshen, or 3 Polish gilders, or 4 s. 6 d. sterling; the copper-plate dollar they divide into 48 ore.

The exchange with Hamburgh is upon the mark, whereof 20 are reckoned to be par with the specie, or rixdollar banco, of Hamburgh, and they give 24 or 25, more or less, of marks, for the said rixdollar.

To Amsterdam they give the same for the rixdollar current. To London they mostly exchange by the way of Amsterdam, or Hamburgh, but sometimes exchange may be made directly to London; and then, although they do reckon 20 copper dollars to be par with 20 s. sterling, yet the course is frequently at 28 or 30 of the said copper dollars for the pound sterling; but this rise and fall happen according to the course of trade.

SWEDISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

A succinct HISTORY of the SWEDISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

It was the ruin of the late Ostend East-India company [see the articles AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, and OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY] that gave birth to the establishment of a Swedish one, of which one Henry Koning was the chief author, a rich merchant, and one who had a just notion of the East-India commerce. He represented to the Swedish ministry, that this was a very favourable juncture to undertake a design of this nature; that there were a multitude of places in Africa and the Indies neglected by the Europeans, who had constantly followed one the other, and had scarce ever undertaken to strike out of the ordinary road; that besides, there were numbers of persons who, by the dissolution of the Imperial company of the Netherlands, were thrown out of business, and, which was worse, deprived of the means of returning into their own country, by the steps taken to hinder the Ostend company from carrying on their trade; that, consequently, there could be nothing easier than to procure proper people for carrying this commerce on, and fixing it in such a manner as not to be liable to any hazard, either of loss by trade, or opposition from other powers.

This proposition being maturely considered, it was resolved to authorize this Henry Koning to associate such persons as should be willing to contribute to his design, and to grant them the following privileges, by virtue of a charter, dated June 14, 1731. The king thereby concedes to Henry Koning and his associates, the liberty of navigating and trading to the East-Indies for 15 years, from beyond the Cape of Good Hope to the islands of Japan, wherever they shall think proper or convenient, with this restriction only, that they shall not trade in any port belonging to any prince or state in Europe, without their permission first had and obtained. The ships employed in this commerce shall constantly take in their lading at Gottenburgh, to which port they shall return, with all the merchandize they bring home from the East-Indies, and shall there cause the same to be publicly sold, as soon as conveniently they can. The said Henry Koning and company shall pay to the crown of Sweden, during the said 15 years, 100 dalers per last for every ship they employ, the freight of such ships being measured before their departure from Gottenburgh; which money is to be paid within six months after the safe return of the said ship from the Indies; and they shall likewise pay two dalers per last, in full satisfaction for the town duties.

The said Henry Koning and company may employ, equip, and arm, as many vessels as they shall think proper, provided that those vessels are built or bought in Sweden, and whatever else is necessary for equipping and furnishing them, be had in the Swedish dominions. But in case this should be found at any time impracticable, then the company may provide themselves with ships, or whatever else shall be found requisite for their commerce, wherever they shall think fit, provided always that they give the preference to, and promote, as far as in them lies, the building, manufactures, and produce of Sweden. The said ships shall carry the Swedish flag, and shall be furnished with passports under the king's hand, and also from the republic of Algiers. The said company shall be at liberty to raise what sum they think fit, for the carrying on their commerce, by a voluntary subscription,

or otherwise, as they think proper; and such as shall become subscribers, shall be obliged to pay in their money at the times prescribed, on pain of forfeiting their interest in the said commerce.

The company may transport what ordnance or small arms they think proper; as also SILVER, COINED OR UNCOINED, Swedish MONEY only excepted; and may likewise bring from the Indies what kind of goods or manufactures they think fit, without any restriction whatever. The vessels of the company, when freighted ready to sail, shall not be hindered, on any pretence whatsoever; nor shall they, at their return, be impeded from entering into the port to which they are consigned. The goods of the said company may be transported at their pleasure, from place to place within his Swedish Majesty's dominions, being first furnished with proper passports, without paying any other duties than those before stipulated. The captains of the company's ships shall have the same power for maintaining discipline amongst their crews, as the captains of the KING's ships; and, with respect to trade, they shall conform to the instruction given by Henry Koning and company, provided always, those instructions are not repugnant to the privileges granted by this charter.

The seamen and soldiers entering on board the company's ships shall not be liable to be PRESSED into the king's or any other service; and, on the other hand, it shall not be lawful for the company to take into their service any who shall have deserted that of the crown. The seamen and soldiers belonging to the ships in the company's service, and deserting from them, may be apprehended and detained, but according to the usual forms of laws, and by the hands of the proper officers. The ships belonging to the company being returned, and having landed the merchandize on board them, the said goods shall be duty free, excepting only a very small acknowledgement to be paid upon removing them.

The persons acting under this charter shall constantly chuse out of their number at least three directors, who shall be all men of distinguished probity and known abilities, of which the said Henry Koning shall be one; and, in case of his demise, the members of the company are impowered to make choice of another person in his stead, provided always, that these three directors shall be natives of the kingdom of Sweden, at least naturalized Swedes, Protestants, and resident in the king's dominions, unless necessarily absent in foreign parts, for the service of the company; in which case, the proprietors may substitute another director at home. The said Henry Koning, and his associates, may make such regulations for the management of their commerce as they shall think proper, provided they be agreeable to this charter. They shall render a faithful account to all the persons interested, as well of the profit and loss, as of the capital of the said company; but they shall not be obliged to discover the names of their subscribers, or the sums they subscribed; nor shall they be obliged to produce, or suffer their books to be inspected, on any pretence whatsoever. In case any of the directors shall find that the rest betray their secrets, or are guilty of any other fraud or misdemeanor, they may apply to the Board of Trade for justice and reparation, and, upon due proof, such offender shall be suspended from his office of director, and the company shall be at liberty to chuse another in his room.

In like manner, if any of the proprietors shall find that the said Henry Koning, and the rest of the directors, betray their trust, or are guilty of any frauds, they may make the same application, and obtain the same redress. The said Henry Koning, and company, may employ what number of supercargoes, officers, mariners, or soldiers, they shall think fit, either Swedes or foreigners, who, on their being so employed, shall enjoy the same privileges as if they were born Swedes; and the money employed, either by natives or foreigners, in the capital of this company, shall not be liable to any detention or seizure.

Such persons as are interested in, or employed by, the company, shall be naturalized, according to their respective qualities, upon their applying themselves to the king for that purpose. The said Henry Koning, and company, and such as are authorized by them, in case they are molested, or disturbed in their commerce, by any person, or in any part of the world whatever, shall have full power from his Majesty to obtain ample justice and satisfaction, by all convenient methods, and shall be at liberty to oppose force by force, and to consider such disturbers as pirates, and enemies to the public peace.

His Majesty will grant them these powers, especially in such commissions as their captains shall receive, and in case, notwithstanding, they should be attacked, and suffer any injury or injustice from any nation whatever, in the carrying on of this commerce, his Majesty, upon due information thereof, will grant them his high protection, and endeavour to procure for them speedy and ample satisfaction, either by way of reprisal, or otherwise. The rest of the subjects of the crown of Sweden are expressly prohibited and forbid to engage in, or interfere with, the trade of the said company, under pain

of his Majesty's high displeasure, and the confiscation of their vessels and effects. The king promises to alter or augment these privileges, upon application from the company, as often, and in such manner, as shall be found necessary for promoting the trade to the East-Indies, and the interest of the persons concerned therein.

R E M A R K S.

There were great expectations formed of this company, for various reasons; first, because they had all the powers granted them that they could reasonably expect or desire. Secondly, Because they were not limited in their capital, but allowed to raise such sums, and in such a manner, as they shall esteem most for their benefit. Thirdly, From their being prohibited from interfering with the commerce of other nations, and thereby running themselves and their country into difficulties and disputes. Fourthly, From their having the king's protection secured to them, in such a manner, and for such purposes, as might serve to answer all good ends, without involving the crown of Sweden in any controversies with the maritime powers, or any other of her allies. And, lastly, Because from the nature of the present constitution in Sweden, there seemed to be as high securities for the properties of such as interested themselves in this affair, as in any other country whatever.

These expectations were greatly heightened, by the company's meeting with no disturbance or opposition from foreign powers, who neither knowing who the subscribers were, or to what their subscriptions amounted, were the less alarmed by this new company; and besides, seeing themselves secure from any apprehensions of their interfering with the trade already established in the East-Indies, found it more difficult to assign any rational cause of complaint; to which we may add, that the company going on very slowly at the beginning, and being a long time before they completed their subscriptions, or prepared to fit out ships for the Indies, it was generally believed, both in England and Holland, that the design would come to nothing, and the company would vanish of itself.

But though the author of this design, M. Henry Koning, and his associates, were not hasty in equipping ships for the Indies, yet they took care to provide themselves in every respect with what might be found necessary for carrying on their scheme with success. They built for this purpose two very large and strong ships, one called after the king, the Frederick, the other by the name of the queen, the Ulrica. These they furnished in such a manner, as to be equally fit for trade or for defence. They made choice of such supercargoes as had not only established characters both for honesty and abilities, but were likewise well versed in the particular business in which they were to be employed, and men of experience in the trade to China. They proceeded with no less caution in the choice of their officers and mariners; and though they spent full two years in making preparations, yet that loss of time was well compensated, by the exactness with which those preparations were made: so that at the time their ships left the harbour of Gottenburgh, they were as well equipped, and in all respects as completely furnished for an East-India voyage, as any that were employed in that trade by the maritime powers; and the same care and diligence they have used ever since: so that it may, with great truth, be said, that as scarce any company was better established at first, so the affairs of none have been hitherto better conducted.

Their first voyages, though not attended with so much emolument as might have been expected, were, however, tolerably successful; and the company established their factory on the river of Canton in China, with the consent of the Chinese, who were very well pleased with their new comers, and well disposed to favour and promote their trade; so that they were very soon on the same footing there with other European nations. At home, indeed, they met with some difficulties; for the company being obliged to make use of a great many foreigners in all capacities, for the better carrying on of their trade, and there being no nation in Europe naturally more jealous of foreigners than the Swedes, this occasioned a great clamour, especially among the common people, which, however, was in some measure got over, by publishing an order, that at least two thirds of the mariners should be, for the future, natives of the kingdom; and as the execution of this order was apparently attended with great inconveniencies, it convinced even the vulgar of their mistake, and that the company had done no more than what they were warranted to do by their charter, and what the circumstances of their affairs, more especially at the beginning, rendered not only expedient, but necessary.

Since that time, the Swedish company have been very regular, both in fitting out their ships, and in their returns, which being sold to foreigners, have brought in great sums of money to the kingdom; yet, inasmuch as a great part of this money has been exported again, for the carrying on this trade, a new complaint has been created thereby, in respect to the silver carried to the East-Indies. We need the less

admire

admire at this in Sweden, because, though the trade of the kingdom is not large, yet it produces annually a considerable ballance in ready money, as is known experimentally here, since it is certain that two-thirds of the trade we carry on thither is managed with **READY MONEY** only; and it is also pretty much the same thing with other nations who trade thither, the French only excepted, who have a ballance in their favour from the Swedes, which, however, has gradually grown less and less, in proportion as they have taken more naval stores of them of late years, than they did formerly; and as their subsidy treaties bring in considerable sums to Sweden, or at least keep the money there, that would otherwise be employed in discharging the ballance of trade: so that the Swedes being used to see great sums of money brought in by every other branch of commerce, and being not so immediately acquainted with the profits arising from this, are the less disposed to consider it as nationally advantageous.

SWITZERLAND is surrounded by the territories of France, Germany, and Italy: it is separated from other countries by high mountains. It is divided into various cantons and free provinces, too well known to need a minute description here. Every canton, or province, in summer affords good pasture to the sheep, and in some of them there are ploughed fields. A considerable part of the cantons, especially that of Bern, the largest and most considerable, is a plain fruitful country, abounding in corn. The largest rivers in Europe have their source from these mountains, particularly the Rhine, the Rhone, the Danube, the Rufs, and the Inn; and there are many extensive lakes, as those of Constance and Geneva: here are also abundance of fine woods, especially of pine and fir-trees. The soil produces some corn and wine, though not in great quantity, and the fruits of the earth are frequently destroyed by storms or cold rains. They abound most in cattle, wherein they carry on no inconsiderable trade in the neighbouring countries; and their lakes abound with plenty of fish.

A flourishing trade is not to be expected in a country situate like this, out of the reach of the sea, and among mountains, passable only by mules, without native commodities sufficient to export, and without any peculiar genius in the natives to erect manufactures. However, the towns of Zurich, Basil, Schaffhausen, Geneva, and St Gall, carry on a pretty general traffic; the first and last of which have some manufactures: and Basil and Schaffhausen, being situate on the frontiers of the empire, are convenient magazines for merchandize to be exchanged between France, Italy, and Germany; which trades bring employment and profit to the inhabitants, among whom are some considerable merchants.

The Switzers not having a competency of wine or corn within themselves, are supplied with both from the Milanese, and the circle of Swabia; and the Tirol, Franche Comté, and Bavaria, supply them with salt. The sovereign of each canton is the general salt-merchant, and profits by retailing it.—Their necessaries for apparel and furniture come likewise from abroad.—They make, indeed, some coarse stuffs for cloathing their peasants, but their other people are generally cloathed with the manufactures of other countries. Specie, either of gold or silver, is very scarce in the circulation of their commerce, from its being locked up in those cantons that have

a public treasury, and for want of proper occasions to place it at interest on good security; which induces monied people, as well as their public treasuries, to put it into foreign funds for interest sake.—In consequence of their situation and circumstances, it is no wonder that the ballance of trade is against these people; which has put them under the necessity of preventing the consumption of foreign commodities, by sumptuary laws; which prevent the wear of jewels, gold and silver, silk, thread, lace, and what is costly in apparel; yet these measures prove no effectual remedy against their exportation of specie: nor can any effectual remedy be found for this, but by establishing manufactures, which was attempted by numbers of French Protestants, who formerly retired hither from persecution; but, for want of due protection and encouragement, and even toleration by the native citizens, who were weak enough not to suffer foreigners to exercise their trade in any of their capital cities, they were forced to carry their arts and trades to other countries: and they being but very mean workmen themselves, there is little hopes, from this mistaken policy, of seeing any considerable manufactures flourish in these cantons. So ridiculously obstinate are these people to their trading interests, that the poor nobility of the canton of Zurich may not engage in trade without degrading themselves. See the astonishing folly hereof, under our articles **COMMERCE**, **FRANCE**, **ARTIFICERS**, and **MANUFACTURERS**.

Of the EXCHANGES of ST GALL.

Usances, in regard to the payment of bills of exchange, is reckoned at 14 days after sight. The days of grace are not regulated there, bills of exchange, according to rigour, being payable 24 hours after the expiration of the usance. Some traders keep their accounts in florins, kruiters, and fenings, money of St Gall; or in florins, kruiters, and fenings, money of the empire. The florin is 60 kruiters, and the kruitzer 4 fenings. The effective rixdollar is 102 kruiters, money of St Gall; the crown of the empire is 2 florins, money of the empire, or 106 kruiters, money of St Gall. The money of St Gall is regulated, at present, at 106 kruiters. In this money they exchange on the following places:

ST GALL	
Gives *	To receive †
*58 kruitz. more or less,	† at Paris, 1 crown of 60 sols.
103 ditto, idem,	at Amster. 1 rixdollar banco.
85 ditto, idem,	at August. 100 florins cur. money.
110 ditto, idem,	at Bolzan. 100 ditto of exchange.
82 ditto, idem,	at Frankf. 100 ditto.
20 ditto, idem,	at Genoa, 1 livre banco.
96 ditto, idem,	at Geneva, 1 crown of 60 sols.
85 florins, idem,	at Leipzig, 100 florins cur. money.
7 $\frac{2}{3}$ ditto, idem,	at London, 1 pound sterling.
15 kruitz. idem,	at Milan, 1 livre cur. money.
85 florins, idem,	at Nurem. 100 florins ditto.
156 ditto, idem,	at Venice, 100 ducats banco.
82 ditto, idem,	at Vienna, 100 florins cur. money.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the End of Letter R.

SAIL-CLOTH.

SAIL-CLOTH, British-made, the BOUNTY AND REGULATIONS thereon.

— British-made, for which bounty has been given on exportation, afterwards relanded, is forfeited; and every person concerned in bringing back, or relanding the same, forfeits 2s. for every ell. 12 Ann. c. 16. §. 3. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 6.

— Every ship or vessel built in Great-Britain, or his Majesty's plantations in America, upon her being first navigated, is to be furnished with a complete set of NEW SAILS of SAIL-CLOTH MANUFACTURED in Great-Britain, which shall, bona fide, belong to such ship, on forfeiture of 50l. by the master thereof. 9 Geo. II. c. 37. §. 4 and 19.— c. 27. §. 11 and 24.— c. 52. §. 3 and 26.— c. 32. §. 3.

— Every manufacturer must affix or impress a stamp, containing his name and place of abode, on every piece of sail-cloth made by him. 9 Geo. II. c. 37. §. 3.

— If any person shall sell, or expose to sale, or work up into sails, any piece of British sail-cloth, without BEING SO STAMPED, and be convicted thereof by the oath of a credible witness, before one or more justices of the peace of the

VOL. II.

county, &c. where the offence is committed, he is to forfeit 10l. for every piece. 9 Geo. II. c. 37. §. 3.

— Any person wilfully cutting off, or obliterating such stamp, or using a stamp containing the name and place of abode of any other person, is upon conviction to forfeit 5l. for every offence, to be recovered by distress and sale of the offender's goods, by warrant from two or more justices, to be applied to the use of the informer. 9 Geo. II. c. 37. §. 3.

— Or canvas, foreign made, usually entered as HOLLAND-DUCK or vitery canvas, fit to be made use of for making sails, upon importation thereof into Great-Britain, to be stamped at landing by a stamp, to be provided by the commissioners of the customs, of eight inches diameter, dipped in red-lead, mixed with linseed-oil well boiled, expressing the place and port where they are entered. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 5, 6. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— For counterfeiting such stamp, or the impression, or knowingly selling any foreign sail-cloth with a counterfeit stamp, the penalty is 50l. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 6. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— No person in Great-Britain, or his Majesty's plantations in America, may make into sails or tarpawlins any foreign sail-cloth or canvas, not so stamped, on forfeiture thereof;

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

thereof; and the person so offending, on conviction thereof by the oath of a credible witness before a justice of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed, is to forfeit 50*l.* for every sail or tarpawling, for the use of the informer; to be levied by distress, and sale of his goods, by a warrant from two justices of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed; and for want of such distress, to be committed to gaol for six months, or untill he pays the penalty. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 7. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— Any person making up foreign sail-cloth or canvas into sails, must place the stamps on the after side of such sails, and in such manner, that the number of stamps may appear proportionable to the number of bolts or pieces in each sail, on forfeiture of such sails, and 10*l.* for every offence. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 8. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— No person may alter or mend a sail of foreign sail-cloth or canvas, not so stamped, on forfeiture of 20*l.* 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 9. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— Every sail-maker, or other person in Great-Britain, or his Majesty's plantations in America, must impress, on every new sail he makes, a stamp of eight inches diameter, dipped in lamp-black mixed with linseed oil well boiled, containing his name and place of abode in plain and distinct letters and words at length, on forfeiture thereof, and of ten pound for every new sail delivered to any captain or master of a vessel without such stamp. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 10. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— Sail-cloth of the manufacture of Ireland, imported into Great-Britain, (during the continuance of a bounty on exportation granted by an act of the parliament of Ireland, 19 Geo. II.) is subject to a new duty. 23 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1, 3.

— No canvas or sail-cloth may be imported from Ireland, but in whole and entire bolts or pieces; and if the loops or double threads of the bolts (which are directed to be part of the warp in the middle of that end of the web, which is last in weaving) are cut off; or if the bolts have a stamp importing the payment of either of the bounties, they shall be deemed to have received the bounty. 23 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 2.

— If any dispute arises about the duty, which ought to be paid, such duty is to be ascertained in the same manner, and under the same forfeitures and penalties, as upon goods subject to payment of duty ad valorem. 23 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 5.

— Upon the importation of canvas, or sail-cloth, from Ireland, the proper officer of the customs may open, view, and examine the same; and if it appears, that the said bounty has been paid, and no regular entry made at importation, the canvas or sail-cloth so omitted to be entered shall be forfeited, and may be seized by any officer of the customs. 23 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 4.

WITH REGARD TO SAILS.

Sails.— Every master of a vessel, belonging to any of his Majesty's subjects, navigated with, or having on board, any foreign-made sails, is, at the time of reporting his ship, to make an entry and report upon oath of every such sail, and, before the ship is cleared, to pay for them the same duty as by 12 Ann. cap. 16. is laid upon foreign-made sails imported by way of merchandize, on forfeiture of the sails to his Majesty, and 50*l.* for every offence by the master; and such sails are to be stamped at the port of entry, in the same manner as directed for foreign sail-cloth. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 1, 2. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— But if the master, before the ship is cleared, declares his intention of not paying the duty, and delivers up the sails to the officer of the customs, the sails only are to be forfeited. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 3. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— No captain of a ship coming from the East-Indies liable to this duty or forfeiture for any foreign-made sails, bona fide, brought from the East-Indies. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 4. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— Pecuniary penalties and forfeitures by this act (not otherwise directed and applied) may be prosecuted in any of his Majesty's courts of record in Great-Britain, or such of his Majesty's plantations in America where the offence is committed; one moiety to his Majesty, the other to the prosecutor. 19 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 12. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 3.

WITH REGARD TO SALT.

SALT—Ships laden with salt, hovering on the coast, and not proceeding directly to some port, may be compelled, by the officers of the customs or salt duties, to come into port; officers to continue on board till the salt is unladen, or the ship departs for her intended voyage; neglecting to enter and unlade the salt, or to proceed on her voyage in 20 days, the salt forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the master. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 7. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1.

— Officers of the customs or salt duties may search any vessel lying in port, or riding on the sea coasts; and if any salt, not duly entered, be found on board any vessel in which it was not imported, it is forfeited, or the value, and the master is subject to the same penalties and forfeitures as if it had been landed without entry. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 22.

— Officers obstructed, every offender is to forfeit 40*l.* 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 22.

— Neglecting or refusing to enter or unlade salt for the space of 20 days after a ship is come into port, or within that time to depart and proceed regularly on her voyage to some other place (unless permitted to make longer stay by the chief officer of the customs) the salt on board is forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the master. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 7.

— Imported in ships under 40 tons, or otherwise than in bulk (except for the ship's provisions) forfeited, and double the value. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 8. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1.

— Of the produce or manufacture of Great-Britain or Ireland, or other salt coming from Ireland, or the Isle of Man, may not be imported, or brought into any port or place of Great-Britain, nor taken out of any ship or vessel, nor put on shore within any of the said ports or places, upon forfeiture thereof, together with the vessel, and all her tackle and apparel. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 1. and 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 2.

— Persons delivering, conveying or assisting, forfeit 20*l.* each, or six months imprisonment. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 1. and 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 2.

— Such salt may be seized within two months; and if not claimed within 20 days, and security given for the value, the salt and ship are to be sold to the best advantage. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 2.

Except { Salt (from Ireland or other foreign parts) taken in for the necessary provision of the ship, or for curing fish, which may be landed; but entry thereof must be made within 10 days after coming into port, and the duties paid or secured before landing, upon forfeiture, and double the value. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 6. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 18.

— Salt regularly entered and exported to foreign parts, and the ship forced in by stress of weather, &c. in which case the salt may be landed within 20 days after coming in, provided the duties be again paid down (before relanding) for the whole quantity of salt entered for exportation. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 4.

Except { — Carried coastwise by certificate. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 3.

— Taken in by fishermen to cure fish at sea, upon oath before the salt-officer, that it was taken on board from some port in Great-Britain, mentioning the place, and not out of any vessel at sea. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 5.

— Imported from Jersey, Guernsey, Sark, and Alderney, liable to the same duties as any other foreign salt. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 11.

— From Ireland, or other foreign parts, though taken on board for necessary provision for the ship, or for curing fish, not entered within ten days after coming into port, and before the landing, &c. is forfeited, with double the value by the master of the ship, or the owner of the salt. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 6. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 18.

— Foreign, landed before entry, and the excise duty be satisfied, or without a warrant from the collector, or officer appointed for the duty on salt, is forfeited, or the value thereof, and 10*s.* per bushel; and every person concerned is to forfeit 100*l.* 5 and 6 W. III. c. 7. §. 4. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 24. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 6. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— The persons in whose custody such salt is found are liable to the same penalties, as if they had been the importers, unless they make it appear from whom they had it. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 3.

— Imbezzled after importation, and before ware-housing, the forfeiture is 20*s.* for every bushel of 84*lb.* 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 4. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Cellared and locked up, may not be removed without a warrant or permit for the conveyance, upon forfeiture thereof, besides 10*s.* per bushel, and 20*l.* for every such offence to be recovered of the importer, and of every person concerned in the removal. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 2.

— Importers to be charged with the full quantity of salt cellared, though upon clearing such cellar or warehouse there may appear to be a deficiency. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 17.

— At the end of every fishing season, the officer is to take an account of the salt remaining, which must be forthwith locked up as before; and the proprietors are to deliver them an account, upon oath, of the quantity of fish exported (confirmed

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

(confirmed by a certificate of the officers of the port of exportation) or of the red or white herrings entered for home consumption, on which the said salt had been used. But as to white herrings sent to foreign markets, immediately sent from sea, without being brought into port by the society of the Free British Fishery, the quantity is to be ascertained by the oath of the society's superintendant before a justice of the peace, or officer of the salt duties; and a certificate under the hands of their secretary and accountant, either that it appears by the letters or accounts from their correspondents or agents, to whom such fish were consigned, that they have come to their hands, or that such fish have been lost at sea. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 3. 10 and 8 Geo. I. c. 16. §. 3, 6. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. c. 3. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 9. §. 5, 6.

— But if delivered over by the proprietors to any other persons for the curing of fish, it must be so expressed in his accounts, and made appear by oath or otherwise, that it was so used, upon forfeiture of 50*l.* and the persons to whom delivered must, upon oath likewise, give an account of the salt by them used in the curing of fish exported; confirmed by the certificate of the officers of the port of exportation. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 10. and 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 41. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Such salt not so accounted for within 3 months after the expiration of each year, the forfeiture is 10*s.* per bushel. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 10. and 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 41. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Such salt as cannot be accounted for, having been sold, given away, or used for any other purpose, the proprietor, or the persons to whom delivered, and the buyer, are each of them to forfeit 20*s.* per bushel; 1-3*d.* to the use of his Majesty, and the remainder to the informer or fuer. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 2. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— In default of payment within 14 days, if sufficient effects cannot be found, the offenders must be sent to the house of correction, for any time not exceeding three months. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 2. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Fish cured with salt, delivered out of warehouses, not exported while good and merchantable, may be destroyed in the presence of an officer, and his certificate thereof accepted instead of that for exportation. 3 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 4.

— Foreign salt from Scotland into England, and all salt brought coastwise — May not be delivered, nor a warrant granted for the landing, till certificate of the true quantity on board, signed by the custom and salt officers of the loading-port, be produced to the salt-officer of the delivering-port, and oath be made before the salt-officer by the master, mate or boatswain, that to his knowledge there has not been taken on board any salt since he came from such port, upon forfeiture of double the value, and 10*s.* per bushel. 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 9. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 12. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 20. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Part only of such salt landed, and the ship proceeding with the remainder, the quantity delivered must be certified by the officers, on the back on the cocket, transire or other warrant, or else by a separate certificate under the hand and seal of the officers. 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 9. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 12. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 20. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Officers at the delivering port may demand a sight of the permit and cocket, and are to weigh the salt upon unloading; and if found to be more in weight than expressed in such permit and cocket, the surplussage is forfeited. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 22. §. 12, 13. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 21. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Masters refusing to shew the permit and cocket, the salt may be seized and detained; and if not produced within four days, the salt is forfeited. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 22. §. 12, 13. and 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 21. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— For which the duties have been drawn back, fraudulently relanded, without entry and repayment of the duties; the offender is to forfeit double the value thereof, and 10*s.* per bushel, and to be subject to such other penalties and forfeitures, as in case of foreign salt illegally landed. 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 20. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 27. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Landed in Ireland, not to have any drawback, unless entered outwards for some port in Ireland. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 13. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Shipped for Ireland — Debentures not to be made out, nor draw-backs allowed, till a certificate, under the hand of the collector of some port in Ireland, of the particular quantity there landed, be produced; the draw-back may not be allowed for any more than such quantity. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 11. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

Except { — The allowances for waste, being four bushels for every 40 bushels of white salt, and two bushels for every 40 bushels of rock salt, 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 14.

— Shipped for Ireland, and lost at sea by sinking of the ship, or taken by enemies; upon due proof made within two years, by the oaths of two credible witnesses before the justices of the peace at the general quarter-sessions, and their certificate thereof produced, the draw-back may be allowed; or the security vacated. 4 and 5 Ann. c. 12. §. 11. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 7.

— After put on board any boat, barge, &c. in order to be exported to foreign parts, may not be taken out, unless to be put into the ship wherein it is to be exported; nor landed in Great-Britain, except in the presence of a salt-officer; upon forfeiture of the boat, &c. goods, and 20*l.* by every person concerned, or six months imprisonment. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 23. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Ships laden with salt to be exported, drove into port by stress of weather, or other unavoidable necessity, salt-officers may go and remain on board till the salt be re-entered, or the ships proceed on their voyages. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 12. and 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 4. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Such salt may be relanded, within 20 days, upon due entry and repayment of the duty for the whole quantity entered outwards. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 12. and 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 4. 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Refusing officers to come on board, penalty 20*l.* 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 12. 2 and 3 of Ann. c. 14. §. 4. 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Unladen before due entry, or repayment of duty forfeited, with the whole cargo remaining on board. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 12. and 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 4. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 2 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Shipped for exportation, or to be carried coastwise — The particular quantity must be expressed in the cocket, which must be signed by the salt-officer, and given without fee or delay; and if the ship puts into any port of Great-Britain, the officers of the customs and salt duty may demand a sight thereof; and upon oath made before the collector or customer, that they have just cause to suspect that there is less on board than expressed in such cocket, the salt may be weighed. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 13.

— If, upon weighing, a deficiency be found, after a reasonable allowance made for waste, &c. the remainder is forfeited. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 13.

— Shipped for exportation, or to be carried coastwise — Perishing by the sinking of the ship before gone out of port, and before the exporter is entitled to the drawback; upon proof of such loss before the justices of the peace at the general quarter-sessions, they are to grant the exporter or proprietor a certificate thereof; which being produced to the officers, they are to permit the like quantity, therein mentioned, to be bought, without payment of any duty of excise. 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 10.

— Or such salt lost, in carrying down the river to be shipped for exportation, or lost after it is so shipped, and before the exporter is entitled to a debenture, and proof thereof made as above, the certificate shall be applied by the collector of the duties on salt to discharge and vacate the security given for the duty of so much as appears thereby to be lost. 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 6.

— Not to be shipped in order to be sent coastwise by a retailer or shopkeeper, till it be made appear, by oath or otherwise, before the officers, that the duty has been paid, or secured to be paid, or that it was bought of some other retailer, or shopkeeper, that had paid the duty. 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 3. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 11. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Upon re shipping from any boat, &c. on board any ship, to be carried coastwise, the master of the boat, &c. must, before any dispatches be granted, make oath before the salt-officer, that it is truly re-shipped, and not augmented or diminished, upon forfeiture of double the value, and 10*s.* per bushel. 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 25. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Belonging to British subjects that have paid the duty, perished or lost in any port of Great-Britain, or shipped coastwise, and lost at sea by storms, &c. upon proof of such loss, and that it was not occasioned by leakage or negligence, made by the oaths of two or more credible witnesses (whereof the master or mate to be one) before the justices of the peace at the general quarter-sessions, they are to grant a certificate of such proof being made; which being produced to any of the officers appointed to collect the duty upon salt, he is to permit the like quantity to be bought free of excise. 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 21. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 44. §. 28. and 2 and 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 18. and 8 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 11. and 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 1. and 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

— Imported,

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

—Imported, not of the product of Great Britain, to be deemed foreign, and charged accordingly. 5 & 6 W. & M. c. 7. §. 13.

—Exported to the Isle of Man, Jersey, or Guernsey, entitled to the drawback. 2 & 3 Ann. c. 14. §. 9.

—Any salt-maker, importer of salt, or any refiner or proprietor of rock-salt, refusing, upon due request or demand made by the salt-officer, in the day-time, or in the night in the presence of a constable or other lawful officer of the peace, to permit such officer to enter his works, warehouses, or other places, by him made use of for making, laying, refining, or keeping of salt, is to forfeit 40 l. for every such offence. 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 2.

—Rock-salt, salt-rock, or refined salt, exported to parts beyond the seas—The exporter to be paid by the salt-officer, for every bushel of rock-salt, or salt-rock, after the rate of 65 lb. to the bushel, and refined salt after the rate of 56 lb. to the bushel; all the duties which have been paid for the same, within two days after demand, on a debenture to be prepared by the collector of the customs, verified by the searcher, as to his quantity shipped; the oath of the exporter, or his agent, being first taken, that the duties were paid, and that it is to be exported beyond the seas, and not reloaded in Great-Britain; which debenture is to be given without fee or reward. 10 & 11 W. III. c. 22. §. 7. & 1 Ann. c. 21. §. 9.

—Rock or white-salt not to be shipped on board any vessel for exportation, or to be carried coastwise, without being first weighed by the officers appointed by the commissioners of excise, and a permit or certificate of the quantity obtained, upon penalty of forfeiture of the salt, and 10s. per bushel, unless the officer refuses, or does not attend to weigh it, or refuse a permit or certificate when weighed. 10 & 11 W. III. c. 22. §. 10, 11.

The officer refusing such permit (which is to be given gratis) is to forfeit 5 l. to the person grieved. 10 & 11 W. III. c. 22. §. 10, 11.

Carried coastwise by cocket or transire twenty miles by sea or more; or from the port of Great-Yarmouth to Lowestoff or Southwold-bay, although to a member or creek of the port where it is first shipped off, the allowance to be made for waste is three bushels for every 40 bushels of white salt, and one bushel and a half for every 40 bushels of rock-salt. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 4. & 6 Ann. c. 12. §. 1.

—The allowance to be made but once, though the salt should be carried coastwise from several ports, or members of ports. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 4. & 6 Ann. c. 12. §. 1.

—Foreign, or English, rock or refined salt—The exporter to have no greater allowance on prompt payment, and for waste, and upon exportation of the same, than what was paid or secured for the duty at first. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 16. & 5 Geo. II. c. 6. §. 5. & 26 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1.

—English to have 9 months, and rock-salt 12 months, for payment of excise. 5 Ann. c. 29. §. 5.

—Scots—imported into England, to pay 2s. 4d. per bushel, during the continuance of 2s. 4d. per bushel on English salt, imposed by 9 & 10 W. III. c. 4. & 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 8.

—And during the said time, no salt may be brought from Scotland to England by land in any manner, upon forfeiture thereof, with the cattle and carriages, and 20s. per bushel, to be recovered of the carrier or owner; and the person carrying the same to be imprisoned by any one justice of the peace for six months, and until the penalty be paid. 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 8.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS,

With regard to SEIZURES and FORFEITURES of ships—for the several causes thereof, follows, under the following article, SHIPS.

SEIZURES—of ships and goods as forfeited, for unlawful importation and exportation, or for non-payment of duties, may be made only by officers of the customs, or persons authorized by warrant from the treasury, or by special commission under his Majesty's great or privy-seal; and if made by any other persons, they are void. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 15.

—Except in the following cases, viz. Alamodes, arrack, brandy, cattle, fish, goods inwards, Ireland, plantations, wool.

—Officers making collusive seizures of foreign goods, in order to evade the duties, are to forfeit 500 l. and be rendered incapable of serving his Majesty; and the importers or owners are to forfeit treble the value of the goods. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 24.

—Officers or proprietors discovering their offences to the commissioners of the customs, within two months, so as to convict their accomplices, are to be acquitted. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 25.

—Other persons so discovering, within three months, are to have half of his Majesty's share. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 26.

—Not prosecuted to effect for the bringing of them to trial and condemnation, by the seizer or informer, may be seized or informed against, or an action brought by way of devenerunt, by any other officer, &c. who is to be esteemed

as the true first informer or seizer. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 17.

—Officers or informers may not compound any seizure, under one-third part of the appraised value, upon forfeiture of office. 13 & 14. Car. II. c. 11. §. 18.

COMPOSITION of PETTY SEIZURES.

All goods seized by the officers of the customs are to be prosecuted to condemnation, either in the court of exchequer, or before the justices of the peace, &c. and the king's moiety or share paid in to the proper officers, before any writ or order of delivery may be granted, except in the case of the 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 30. perishable goods: but when the seizure is so small, that the custom thereof does not exceed 40 s. the commissioners of the customs have, by their patent, a power to compound for it: and in that case, the king's part is to be paid in to the collector of the port of seizure; who is to account for it by the name of COMPOSITION on PETTY SEIZURES; which he is to comprehend under the general head of customs.

—In all suits and informations upon any act concerning the importation of goods, if the property be claimed by any person as the importer, the onus probandi is to lie on the owner or claimer. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 28.

—Upon entry of claim to any prohibited or uncustomed goods, or to any ships, vessels or boats, seized by virtue of any law now in force for the more effectual preventing the exportation of wool; or to any ship, vessel or boat, of 100 tons burthen, or under, seized for any other cause of forfeiture, the claimer must give security in the penalty of 30 l. in the court where prosecuted, to pay the costs; in default whereof, within the time limited by the course of such court, the goods may be recovered. 8 Ann. c. 7. §. 76. & 15 & 16 Geo. II. c. 31. §. 8.

—Foreign goods seized for non-payment of duties, or any other cause.—In disputes, whether the duties have been paid, or the goods have been lawfully imported, or legally compounded for, or condemned, or concerning the place from whence imported, the proof is to lie on the owner or claimer. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 8.

—In seizures or informations upon the act of navigation, 12 Car. II. c. 18. the defendant may have a commission out of the high court of chancery, to examine witnesses beyond the seas, and a competent time allowed before trial; and such examination is to be admitted for evidence, as if given viva voce. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 29.

—In every action, suit, indictment, information or prosecution, commenced against officers of the customs, &c. for any matter or thing done by virtue, or in pursuance, or execution of this, or any other act relating to the customs and navigation, the defendants may plead the general issue, and give those particular acts, and the special matter in evidence for their defence, in any of the courts of justice; and if, upon trial, a verdict pass for the defendants, or the plaintiffs discontinue or forbear their actions, or become non-suited, or judgment be given against them, by demurrer or otherwise, the defendants are to have [full, double or treble] costs of suit awarded against such plaintiffs, &c. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 16. and the several other acts on which the officers are to proceed.

—Writs of delivery may not be granted out of the court of exchequer for goods seized, but upon good security, and only for such goods as are perishable, or where the informer defers or delays coming to as speedy a trial, as the course of that court will permit. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 30.

—Forfeitures and penalties may be sued for, prosecuted and recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, information, or indictment, in his Majesty's court of exchequer, or any other of his Majesty's courts of record; wherein no assign, protection, privilege, or wager of law, or any more than one imparlance, must be allowed or admitted. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 31. and the other acts which inflict the forfeitures and penalties.

—Except in the following cases, viz. Ammunition, ashes, brandy, candles, coffee, drawbacks, fish, goods inwards, Ireland, land, iron, quarantine, sails, salt, ships, silks, spirits, tobacco, wool.

—Upon seizures of goods run or prohibited, and of the vessels, carriages, horses, &c. which may be tried before the justice of the peace—One or more of the said justices may administer an oath to persons skilled in the nature of the goods, &c. seized, to view the same, and to return the species, quantity, quality, and value thereof, to the said justices, in a limited time, in order that informations may be exhibited for their hearing and determining such seizures. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 16.

—After condemnation, by the judgment of such justices, the goods, &c. are to be publicly sold to the best bidder, at such places and times as the respective commissioners shall think proper. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 16.

—Of goods liable to duties, forfeited for being shipped, or put into any boat, &c. with intent to be exported, or for being unshipped to be laid on land, out of any ship from foreign parts, before the said duties are paid, secured, tendered or agreed for, and all forfeitures and penalties; one moiety

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

moiety of the rate or value thereof is to be for the use of his majesty, his heirs and successors, and the other moiety to the person that seizes, informs, or sues for the same. 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 4. and the several other acts quoted for goods inwards (art. 25.) and those which inflict the forfeitures and penalties.

—Except in the following cases, viz. Alamodes, arrack, brandy, calicoes, cattle, coin, East-India goods coastwise inwards, muslins, plantation goods, South-seas, tea, tobacco, wool.

—On all trials of seizures, the seizure, together with the method and form of making it, shall be taken to have been done in the manner as set forth in the information, without any evidence thereof; and all judges and justices of the peace are to proceed to the trial of the merits of the cause, without enquiring into the fact, form, or manner of making the seizure. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 34.

—In any information brought to trial, on account of the seizure of any ship or goods, as forfeited, wherein a verdict is found for the claimer, if it appears to the court there was a probable cause of seizure, and is so certified upon the record, the defendant shall not be intitled to any costs, nor the seizer liable to any action, indictment, or prosecution. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 16. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

—In any action, indictment or prosecution, brought against any person for seizing any ship or goods, wherein a verdict is given against the defendant, if the court shall certify upon the record, that there was a probable cause of seizure, the plaintiff, besides his ship or goods, or the value thereof, shall not be intitled to above two-pence damage, nor to any costs, nor the defendant fined above one shilling. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 16. & 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

—The produce of the seizures of prohibited and uncustomed goods is to be applied towards the support of his majesty's household, and of the honour and dignity of the crown. 1 Geo. II. c. 1. §. 4.

The LAWS of the CUSTOMS, with regard to SHEEP.

SHEEP—Lambs or rams, alive, exported: for the first offence the exporter, his aiders or abettors, are to forfeit all their goods for ever, and to suffer a year's imprisonment, without bail or main-prize; and then to have their left hands cut off in a market-town, upon a market-day, and be there publicly nailed up. 3 Hen. VII. c. 2. §. 1. & 8 Eliz. c. 3. §. 1, 2, 4.

—Persons offending a second time, are to be adjudged felons, and to suffer death accordingly. 3 Hen. VII. c. 2. §. 1. 8 Eliz. c. 3. §. 1, 2, 4.

—The offences to be heard and determined by the justices of oyer and terminer, gaol delivery, and justices of the peace. 3 Hen. VII. c. 2. §. 1. & 8 Eliz. c. 3. §. 1, 2, 4.

The chief LAWS of the CUSTOMS with respect to SHIPS.

SHIPS INWARDS, of 50 tons, or under, laden with custokable and prohibited goods, hovering on the coasts within the limits of any port, or if laden with brandy, within two leagues of the shore, pretending to be bound to foreign parts, and not proceeding on their voyages, the master may be compelled to give security in treble the value of the goods, to proceed and to land them in foreign parts: on default whereof, (unless permitted by the collector to make a longer stay, which must not exceed 20 days) the goods must be secured, and the duties paid; or if they are wool, or such goods as are prohibited, they will be forfeited. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 8. & 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

—After the goods are brought on shore, and secured by the officers, the bond must be delivered up. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 9. & 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

—Or if not brought on shore, upon producing a certificate, under the common seal of the chief magistrate of any place beyond the seas, or under the hands and seals of two known British merchants there residing, testifying the landing, or upon due proof that the goods were taken by enemies, or perished at sea, the said bond is to be vacated and discharged. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 9. & 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

—Masters of such ships suffering foreign goods to be put out, or wool, woolfells, mortlings, shortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, or tobacco-pipe clay, to be taken in, besides former penalties, are to suffer six months imprisonment, without bail or mainprize. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 32.

—The tonnage of such ships is to be measured and ascertained by the following rule, viz. Take the length of the keel within board (so much as she treads on the ground) and the breadth within board by the midship beam, from plank to plank, and half the breadth for the depth: then multiply the length by the breadth, and that product by the depth, and divide the whole by 94; the quotient will give the true contents of the tonnage. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 33.

—Freighted towards Great-Britain or elsewhere, may not be compelled to come into any port of Great-Britain, nor to tarry there against the wills of the masters, &c. and if such ship comes voluntarily, or be driven in, part of the goods

may be delivered, and the duties paid, and the ships be permitted to proceed with the remainder, where the masters, &c. please, without payment of duties. 28 Edw. III. c. 13. §. 3. & 20 Ric. I. c. 4. §. 1.

—But no brandy, or other spirits, in casks less than 60 gallons, can be reported for exportation. 28 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 1.

—In distress—Upon application by, or on behalf of, the commander of any ship stranded, or being in danger of stranding, sheriffs, or the deputies; justices of the peace, all mayors, bailiffs, or other head officer of the corporations and port-towns, constables, headboroughs; tything-men; officers of the customs or excise, coroners, and commissioners of the land-tax, are required to command the constables of the several ports nearest the place to summon persons to assist in preserving such ships and cargoes; and the officers of the customs, and said constables, may command ships, riding at an anchor near the place, to assist by their boats, and as many hands as they can conveniently spare: commanders of such ships, refusing or neglecting their assistance, forfeit 100 l. to the commander of the ship in distress. 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 18. §. 1. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 6, 9, 16.

—Persons acting in the preservation of such ships and cargoes, are to be rewarded within thirty days; on default whereof, the ships and cargoes may be detained by the officers of the customs; and in case of dispute about the quantum for such service, three justices of the peace may adjust the same. Provided no person appears to claim the goods so saved, the chief officer of the customs, in the next port, shall apply to three of the nearest justices of the peace, who shall put him, or some other responsible person, in possession thereof; and if not claimed within twelve months, are to be publicly sold (or, if the goods be perishable, forthwith sold); and after deduction of charges, the residue is to be transmitted into the exchequer, there to remain, to be applied for by the proprietor. 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 18. §. 2. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

—Persons not impowered, entering, or endeavouring to enter, ships in distress, or molesting the preservation thereof; or defacing the marks of goods saved, before an account thereof be taken, are to make double satisfaction within twenty days; or else to be put to hard labour for 12 months. Persons entering such ships without leave, may be repelled by force. 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 18. §. 3. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

—Goods saved from ships in distress, stolen, or carried off, the person on whom found is to restore them to the proprietor, upon forfeiture of treble the value. 11 Ann. sess. 2. c. 18. §. 4. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

—Holes made in the bottoms, &c. of ships in distress, the pump taken away, or any thing done tending to the destruction thereof, the persons so offending are to be made guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 18. §. 5. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

—Officers of the customs abusing the trust hereby reposed in them, are to forfeit treble damages to the party aggrieved, and to be rendered incapable. 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 18. §. 7. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

—In distress, wrecked, stranded, or cast on shore, in his majesty's dominions (whether any living creature be on board or no) any person convicted of plundering, taking away, or destroying any goods or merchandize, furniture, tackle, apparel, provision, or part belonging to her; or of beating, or wounding, with intent to kill; or obstructing the escape of any persons endeavouring to save their lives from her; or of putting out false lights, with intent to bring any vessel into danger, is to suffer death as a felon, without benefit of clergy. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 1.

—But if the goods or effects stranded, lost or cast on shore, are of small value, and stolen without circumstances of cruelty, outrage, or violence, the offender may be prosecuted by indictment for petit larceny, and punished accordingly. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 2.

—Such goods being stolen, upon information upon oath before a justice of the peace, of their being unlawfully conveyed away, or concealed in any place, or of some reasonable ground of suspicion thereof, such justice may grant warrants for search; and if they are found there, or in custody of any person not legally intitled to keep them, the owner or occupier of the place, or the person upon whom they are found, not immediately delivering them upon demand to the owner or person lawfully authorized to demand them; or not giving a good account how he came by them, is to be committed to gaol for six months, or until he pays the owner treble the value of the goods. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 3.

—Such goods stolen, or suspected to be so, and offered to sale, may be stopped and seized by the person to whom they are offered, or by any officer of the customs or excise, or any peace officer, who must carry them, or give notice of the seizure, to a justice of the peace; and if the person who offered them to sale does not, within ten days, prove, to the

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

satisfaction of the justice, the property to be in him, or the person who employed him, the goods, by order of the justice, are to be delivered over to the use of the owner, upon payment of reasonable reward for the seizure, to be ascertained by the justice; who is also to commit the person who offered them to sale to gaol for six months, or until he has paid treble the value of the goods to the owner. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 4.

—Any person not employed by the master, mariners, or owners, or persons lawfully authorized, who, in the absence of those who are so, shall save any ship or effects, and cause them to be carried into port, or to any custom-house near, or other place of safe custody, immediately giving notice thereof to some justice of the peace, magistrate, or custom-house or excise officer, or shall discover to them where such effects are wrongfully bought, sold or concealed, shall be entitled to a reasonable reward from the master or owners, to be adjusted, in case of disagreement, in the same manner as salvage. 11 Geo. I. c. 19. §. 5.

—Upon oath being made before a proper magistrate of any such plunder or theft, or of the breaking any ship contrary to 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 18. the examination taken thereupon in writing is to be delivered to the clerk of the peace of the county, &c. where the fact was committed, or to his deputy, who is to cause the offenders to be prosecuted in that county, or any one next adjoining; or, if the fact is committed in Wales, in the next adjoining English county. The necessary charges are to be paid him by the treasurer of the county, &c. where the fact was committed, and amount to be ascertained by justices of the peace at the general or quarter-sessions. Such clerk of the peace, refusing or neglecting to prosecute, forfeits 100l. to any person who shall sue for it. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 8.

—Such indictments may be laid in the next adjoining county by any other person. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 8.

—SHIPS OR GOODS STRANDED.—The justice of the peace, mayor, bailiff, collector of the customs, or chief constable nearest the place, must forthwith give public notice for a meeting of the sheriff, or his deputy, the justices of the peace, mayors, or chief magistrates, of towns corporate, coroners, and commissioners of the land-tax, or any five of them, who are required to give aid in execution of this act. 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 18. and to employ proper persons in saving the vessels or effects, and to examine persons upon oath concerning them or the salvage, to adjust the quantum of salvage, and distribute it among the persons concerned in case of disagreement; and every one who attends and acts, is to be paid four shillings a day for his expences, out of the goods saved by his care and direction. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 6.

—The charges and rewards for salvage not being paid, or security given for it, within 40 days after the service performed, the officer of the customs concerned may borrow money to satisfy the same, upon a bill of sale under his hand and seal of the ship and cargo; redeemable, nevertheless, upon payment of the principal borrowed, and interest at four per cent. per annum. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 7.

—Persons assembled to save any vessel or effects, are to conform to orders in the following subordination, as the person happens to be present. In the first place, to the orders of the master, or other officers or owners, or persons employed by them: in the next place, to the orders of officers of the customs; then of the officers of excise; then of the sheriff or his deputy; then of any justice of the peace; then of the mayor or chief magistrate of a corporation; then of the coroner; then of the commissioners of the land-tax; then of any chief constable; then of any petty constable, or other peace-officer. Any person wilfully acting contrary to such orders, forfeits any sum not exceeding 5l. to be levied by warrant of a justice of the peace; and for non-payment the offender is to be committed to the house of correction, not exceeding three months. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 13.

—For assaulting, wounding, or beating any person lawfully authorized, on account of their acting in the salvage of any vessel or effects, the offender, upon conviction at the assizes, or the general or quarter-sessions for the county, &c. where the offence was committed, is to be transported for seven years. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 11.

—Justices of the peace, in case of need, may, in the absence of the high-sheriff, take sufficient power of the county, to repel all unjust violence, and to enforce the execution of this act. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 12.

—SHIPS IN DISTRESS.—The officer of the customs, who acts in preservation thereof, must, as soon as conveniently may be, cause all persons belonging to the ship, or others who can give an account thereof, to be examined upon oath before a justice of the peace, as to the name and description, the name of the commander and owners, and owners of the cargo, of the port from and to which bound, and the occasion of the distress. The examination is to be taken in writing, and a copy to be delivered to the officer of the customs, with a copy of the account of the goods, who is to transmit it to the secretary of the admiralty, to be published in the London Gazette, for information of the persons concerned. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 15.

—Nothing in this act to extend to Scotland. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 18.

—This act not to prejudice any in the right to wrecks, or goods that shall be flotsam, jetsam, or logan. 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 18. §. 9. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 14, 16.

—Nor to extend to, or any ways affect the ancient jurisdiction and usage of the admiralty court of the cinque-ports; but the officers thereof are to have the same power as other persons in other ports. 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 2. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 10, 16.

—These acts to be read in every parish church or chapel of all the sea-port towns of this kingdom, on the Sundays next before Michaelmas-day, Christmas-day, Lady-day, and Midsummer-day. 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 18. §. 8, 10. & 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 1. & 26 Geo. II. c. 19. §. 16.

—SHIPS INWARDS—Arriving in the port of London, from foreign parts, may not be above three days in coming from Gravesend to the place of discharge, without touching or staying at any wharf, key, &c. adjoining to either shore between Gravesend and Chester's key, unless apparently hindered by contrary winds, &c. or other just impediment, to be allowed by the principal officers of the customs; and in the out-ports they must come directly up to the place of unloading, upon forfeiture of 100l. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11.

—Upon, or before their arrival, and before any goods are unladen, the masters or purser for that voyage must, upon oath, make a just and true entry of the burthen, contents and lading of their ships, with the particular marks, numbers, qualities, and contents of every parcel of goods on board, to the best of their knowledge; also where laden, of what country built, how manned, who was master during the voyage, and who are owners; and must answer all questions concerning the same, that shall be demanded by the customer, &c. upon forfeiture of 100l. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 5. & 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 2.

—And upon making such declaration upon oath before any two principal officers of the port, bulk may be broke in any port allowed by law, and duty paid for no more goods than are entered and landed; but upon arrival at the next port, declaration must likewise be made upon oath, before the customer, collector, comptroller, or surveyor, or two of them, of the quantity and quality of the goods landed at the first port, and to whom they did belong.

—No customer, collector, or other officer of the customs, is to clear inwards any ship or vessel liable to the payment of 6d. per month towards the support of the hospital for seamen, &c. disabled in the merchants service, or grant any warrant or other discharge, or suffer such ship to go out of port, till a certificate is produced of payment of the duty, and that the master is not more in arrear than three months for the same, or is exempted from payment thereof, on forfeiture of 20l. In case the certificate is not produced to the tide-surveyor when he comes on board to clear the ship, the tide-waiters are to be continued at the expence of the master, or owners, till it is produced. 20 Geo. II. c. 38. §. 22, 23.

—SHIPS OF WAR—from parts beyond the seas, having any goods on board, may not unlade them, till the captain has signified under his hand, to the customer, collector, and comptroller inwards, the names of every importer, with the marks, numbers, quantity and quality of every parcel of goods, and has answered upon oath to such questions as shall be demanded by the said officers, upon forfeiture of 100l. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 3.

—Such ships liable to all searches and rules as merchant-ships are subject to; except victualling-bills and entering. And captains refusing to make such entries, as well inwards as outwards, the officers may bring all customable and prohibited goods on shore to the king's store-house. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 3.

—Any commander, or other officer of any of his majesty's ships or vessels, receiving, or permitting to be received, any goods or merchandize, other than for the use of the ship, except gold, silver, jewels; and except goods of merchants, wrecked or in imminent danger; and except goods ordered on board by the lords of the admiralty; being convicted thereof by a court-martial, to be cashiered, and rendered incapable of any office in the naval service; and moreover to forfeit the value of all such goods so put on board, or the sum of 500l. one moiety to the informer, or person who shall sue for the same, the other to the use of Greenwich hospital; to be recovered in any court of record at Westminster, or in the high court of admiralty, at the election of the prosecutor; and the court where judgment shall be given against the offender is, with all convenient speed, to certify the same to the lords of the admiralty. 22 Geo. II. c. 33. art. 18. §. 24.

—SHIPS INWARDS.—The masters of any ships from foreign parts, or any other person, suffering any package to be opened, and the goods imbezelled, carried away, or put into any other form or package, after the ship comes into the port of discharge, are to forfeit 100l. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 4.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

— Or knowing of, or consenting to, the unshipping of any goods inwards, without a warrant, and the presence of an officer, are to forfeit the value of the goods. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

— Ships belonging to the subjects of the French king, lading or unlading any goods, or taking in, or setting on shore, any passengers, were to pay to the collector of the customs at that port, a duty of five shillings for every ton burthen, upon forfeiture of 10*l.* besides the duty: to continue as long as a duty of 50 s*ols* per ton on British ships was collected in France, and three months after. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 17. and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 24.

— Watermen, &c. going out from any port to fetch goods from such ships, were liable to the payment of this duty, and to forfeit 40*l.* 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 17. and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 24.

But this duty is made void by the 11th article of the treaty of commerce, concluded at Utrecht, 1713.

SHIPS OUTWARDS—Bound for parts beyond the seas, may not take in any British goods (fish taken by British excepted) 'till such ships are entered by the masters in the book of the customer or collector, and comptroller OUTWARDS, with the burthens, the masters names, the number of guns and ammunition, and to what places bound. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 4. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 3.

— Before departure out of the port, the masters are to bring to the said officers a content in writing, under their hands, of the names of every exporter, with the marks and number of the goods; and are, upon oath, to answer publicly in the custom-house to such questions, as shall be demanded concerning the same, upon forfeiture of 100*l.* 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 4. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 3.

— If bound to Ireland with certificate goods, the masters must take with them a duplicate of their contents in writing, certified under the hands and seals of the collector and comptroller of the port in Great-Britain, in order to be delivered to the officers of the customs in Ireland. 8 Ann. c. 13. §. 19.

— The masters suffering the package of any foreign goods to be opened on board, or put into any other form or package, or unshipped whilst the ship remains in port, without leave of the principal officers, are to forfeit 100*l.* and to suffer six months imprisonment, without bail or mainprize. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 7. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

— May not be detained by the officers above three tides after their arrival at Gravesend, and in the OUT-PORTS not above one tide, after they are ready to sail, upon forfeiture of office, and rendering damage to the merchant and owner. See the latter end of letter A.

— **FOREIGN-BUILT SHIPS TRADING COASTWISE**, so employed, bought after the passing of this act, are to pay at the port of discharge, for every voyage, 5*s.* per ton, one moiety for the use of the chest at Chatham, and the other moiety to the Trinity-house at Deptford-strand, 1 Jac. II. c. 18. §. 2.

— But such ships bought before the 29th of September, 1689, and not made free, are to pay only 12*d.* per ton. 1 Jac. II. c. 18. §. 3.

— To be received and recovered as directed for the customs, by 12 Car. II. c. 4. and 1 Jac. II. c. 18. §. 4.

BRITISH-BUILT, which any where in the Book of Rates are designed to entitle the importer or exporters of goods to any abatement or privilege, are to be understood, ships built in GREAT-BRITAIN, IRELAND, GUERNSEY, JERSEY, or the BRITISH PLANTATIONS in ASIA, AFRICA, or AMERICA, and whereof the master, and at least $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners, are British, i. e. his Majesty's subjects of Great-Britain, Ireland, or the said plantations, and have been so during the whole voyage, unless in case of sickness, death, &c. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 7. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 6.

— But British ships laden with CORN, intitled to the BOUNTY, may be sailed with the master, and at least $\frac{2}{3}$ of the mariners his Majesty's subjects. 1 W & M. c. 12. §. 1.

— During the present war, merchants ships may be navigated by $\frac{3}{4}$ foreigners, and $\frac{1}{4}$ British; and in any future war his Majesty, by his royal proclamation, may permit them to be navigated in the same manner. 13 Geo. II. c. 3. §. 1, 4.

SHIPS BELONGING TO GREAT-BRITAIN OR IRELAND.

— Foreign-built ships are not to be deemed or pass as ships belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, 'till the owner has made it appear to the chief officer of the customs, in the port next to his abode, that he is not an alien, and has made oath before the said officer, that such ships were bona fide, and without fraud, by him bought for a valuable consideration, expressing the sum, as also the time, place, and persons from whom bought, and who are his part-owners, if any (all which part-owners are also liable to the same oath) and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any part, interest, or share therein: whereupon the officer is to grant a certificate under his hand and seal, which he is to register, and return a duplicate thereof to the chief officers of the cus-

stoms in London, with the names of the feller and part-owners, and the sum paid. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 10.

— **BUT FOREIGN-BUILT SHIPS**, that is, not built in any of his Majesty's dominions of Asia, Africa, or America, are not to enjoy the privilege of ships belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, although owned or manned by British (except such ships as are taken at sea by letters of mart or reprisal, and condemned as lawful prize in the court of admiralty) but are to be deemed alien ships, and to be liable to aliens duties. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 6.

— The **ALIENS DUTY**, or petty customs, payable for certain goods imported in such ships. See **ALIENS**.

— Officers of the customs may not allow foreign-built ships the privilege of ships British-built, or belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, until a certificate be produced, or proof of the property be made, or until examination whether the master and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners are British; nor allow a foreign-built ship the privilege of bringing in goods of the growth of the country, where it was built, 'till examination and proof, upon forfeiture of office. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 11.

— Governors of the British plantations may not suffer foreign-built ships to lade or unlade any goods, 'till certificate be produced, and examination be made, whether the master and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners are British, upon forfeiture of their government. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 11.

SHIPS belonging to his Majesty's subjects of SCOTLAND—though foreign-built, if registered upon oath, before the first of May, 1708, are to be deemed as of the built of Great-Britain. 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 5.

— A duplicate of the register is to be transmitted to the chief officers at the customs in Edinburgh, and from thence to the port of London, in order to be entered in the general register of all ships belonging to Great-Britain (art. 5.) 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 5.

— Are not to be lost, or forfeited, for a small thing put therein, not customed, without the owners knowledge. 38 Edw. III. c. 8 §. 1.

— Arrested for unlawful cause, the officer being convicted thereof, forfeits 40*l.* to be sued for within two months. 28 Hen. VI. c. 5. §. 1.

— Willfully cast away, burnt or otherwise destroyed, to the prejudice of the insurers, or of the merchant that shall load goods thereon: the owners, masters, mariners, or other officers belonging to the ship, doing it, or directing or procuring the same to be done, are to suffer death. 4 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 3.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS WITH REGARD TO SILKS.

SILKS—Wrought, mixed with gold or silver, or other materials, secretly or clandestinely imported, are forfeited with 200*l.* by every importer and each of his assistants, besides former penalties, and 100*l.* by the receiver, feller, or concealer. 6 Ann. c. 19. §. 14, 15.

— Such silks are to be sold by inch of candle at the custom-house in London or Edinburgh. 6 Ann. c. 19. §. 14, 15.

— Wrought by itself, or with any other stuff, in any place out of this realm, in ribbons, laces, girdles, corsets of cauls, corsets of tissue, or points, may not be imported to be sold, upon forfeiture; but silks wrought and unwrought, or raw, may be imported by any persons. 19 Hen. VII. c. 21. §. 1.

— **THROWN**, of the growth or product of TURKEY, PERSIA, EAST-INDIA, CHINA, or any other country (except ITALY, SICILY, and NAPLES, brought directly from those places respectively, by sea, in ships legally navigated) may not be imported, on forfeiture thereof. 2 W. & M. c. 9. §. 2.

— Callicoes, linens, or stuffs, printed, painted, stained, or dyed, wheresoever found, not having a stamp, to denote the payment of duty, are forfeited, with the penalty of 50*l.* on the possessor. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 15.

— After recovered, may not be delivered out of the custom-house warehouse 'till stamp. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 15.

— **RAW**, of the growth and culture of the British plantations in America, may be imported directly from thence into the port of London, FREE OF ALL DUTIES; provided entry is made at the custom-house in the same manner as before this act, and it is landed in the presence, and examined by the proper officer of the customs, and imported in vessels which may lawfully trade thither, manned according to law. 23 Geo. II. c. 20. §. 1.

— But to entitle the importer to this exemption, the person who ships the silk in America, must, before clearing the ship, make oath before the collector and comptroller of the customs and naval officer, or any two of them, that such silk is, bona fide, of the growth and culture of SOME OR ONE OF THE BRITISH COLONIES OR PLANTATIONS IN AMERICA, expressing the parish wherein, and by whom it was cultivated and produced; who must likewise make oath thereto before the governor or justice of the peace, &c. Upon producing such oath, the collector and comptroller of the customs

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

and naval-officer, or any two of them, are to grant a certificate under their hands and seals, expressing the marks, numbers, tale, and weight in each bale; with the names and places of abode of the exporter, of the person or persons who have sworn to the growth and culture, and the name of the person to whom consigned in London; which certificate the master of the ship is to deliver to the collector, comptroller, or chief officer of the port of London, at or before entry; and at the same time make oath, that the bales and parcels, and goods contained in the certificate, are the same that were taken on board in the said British colonies in America. 23 Geo. II. c. 20. §. 2.

— Any person entering foreign RAW SILK as RAW SILK OF THE GROWTH OR CULTURE OF BRITISH PLANTATIONS IN AMERICA, or mixing foreign with that of the British plantation, in order to evade the payment of the duty, forfeits 50*l.* and all the silk, together with the bales and packages. 23 Geo. II. c. 20. §. 3.

— In any dispute about the growth, the ONUS PROBANDI to lie on the owner or claimer. 26 Geo. II. c. 20. §. 4.

— Wrought or mixed with any other materials, and velvets (not manufactured in Great-Britain, and not prohibited to be worn therein) imported, are after entry at the custom-house, and before delivery to the importer, to be marked or sealed, at each end of every piece, with such mark or seal, and by such officer, as the commissioners of the customs shall appoint. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 1.

— Upon exportation, the exporter, before they are shipped, must give notice to the proper officer, when and where he will pack them up, who is (without fee or reward) to take care that such seals, stamps, or marks, are taken off from every piece intended to be exported, without which no drawback is to be allowed. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 2.

— Such goods found in any shop, warehouse, or other place upon land, not so marked or sealed, upon both ends of a whole piece, or one end of a remnant, are forfeited, and may be seized by any officer of the customs, and secured in the king's warehouses; and after condemnation, are to be publicly sold to the best bidder; one moiety of the produce to be for the use of his Majesty, and the other for the officer who seized and secured them: and the person in whose possession they are found, also forfeits 200*l.* 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 3.

— Such goods not to be consumed in this kingdom, but are to be sold for exportation only, and not to be delivered out of the warehouse, 'till security is given accordingly. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 4.

— For counterfeiting such stamp, mark, or seal, or the impression thereof, upon the goods above mentioned, or for knowingly selling, or exposing to sale, the said goods, with a counterfeit stamp, the offender, his aiders, abettors, and assistants, are to forfeit for every offence 500*l.* and to stand in the pillory for two hours. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 5.

— The pecuniary forfeitures by this act, may be sued for in any court of record at Westminster, or the court of exchequer at Edinburgh, by action, bill, plaint, or information, in the name of the attorney-general, or of the advocate in Scotland, or of an officer of the customs; $\frac{1}{2}$ to his Majesty, and $\frac{1}{2}$ to the officer of the customs who informs or prosecutes. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 6.

— A capias, in the first process, may issue, specifying the sum of the penalty sued for; and the defendant shall be obliged to give bail by natural-born subjects, persons naturalized, or denizens, for his appearance at the day of the return of the writ; and at such appearance to give sufficient bail, to answer the forfeiture in case of conviction. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 8.

— If any officer of the customs refuses or neglects, for one month, to prosecute such offender to effect, any other person may do it in the same manner, and shall be entitled to the same share of the forfeiture. 26 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 7.

— In case of any question arising where the goods were manufactured, the proof is to lie upon the owner or claimer. 26 Geo. II. c. 11. §. 10.

SILKS, CHINA—Raw silk imported from China, by the united East-India company, is to pay the same duties, subsidies, and impositions, and to be allowed the same DRAWBACK, as RAW SILKS of the growth and produce of ITALY. 23 Geo. II. c. 9. §. 2 and 4.

WROUGHT SILKS, BENGALS, and STUFFS, mixed with silk or herba, of the manufacture of East-India, China, or Persia, and calicoes printed, painted, stained, or dyed there, prohibited in Great-Britain; and are, upon importation, to pay only the HALF-SUBSIDY. 11 and 12 W. III. c. 17. §. 1 and 10.

WROUGHT SILKS, stuffs, &c. muslins and calicoes, of the manufacture of East-India, China, or Persia, may not be imported into IRELAND, but from GREAT-BRITAIN, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and the ship, furniture, &c. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 12.—Officers of the customs conniving thereat in Ireland, forfeit 500*l.* and rendered incapable.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS WITH RESPECT TO SILVER.

SILVER—The OLD STANDARD of eleven ounces two penny-weights restored. 6 Geo. I. c. 11.

— The OLD STANDARD of eleven ounces two penny-weights, and the NEW STANDARD of eleven ounces ten penny-weights, continued; and no plate may be made of coarser alloy. 6 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 40.

— Molten silver may not be exported, unless marked or stamped at Goldsmiths-hall, and a certificate be produced to one of the commissioners of the customs, under the hands of one or more of the wardens, of oath having been made before him or them by the owner, and one credible witness, that it is lawful silver, and that no part thereof (before molten) was the current coin, nor clippings thereof, nor plate wrought within this kingdom. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 17. §. 5, 6.

— Shipped, without being so marked or stamped, and without such certificate, is forfeited, and may be seized by the officers of the customs. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 17. §. 6.

— Molten silver or bullion, either in bars, ingots, wedges, cakes, pina's, or any other form, may not be shipped, unless a certificate be produced to the commissioners of the customs, or four of them, from the court of the lord-mayor and aldermen of London, of oath having been made before the said court, by the owners, and two or more credible witnesses, that the same, and every part and parcel thereof, was, and is, foreign bullion; and that no part thereof (before molten) was the coin of this realm, or clippings thereof, nor plate wrought within this kingdom. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 19. §. 6.

— Shipped without entry, and such oath and certificate, is forfeited, and may be seized by any persons; and the proprietor forfeits double the value. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 19. §. 7.

— The master of any ship belonging to a subject, knowingly permitting the shipping, forfeits 200*l.* and if it be a man of war, the captain likewise forfeits his employment, and is rendered incapable of any office, civil or military. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 19. §. 7.

— Officers granting a cocket, before certificate be produced, and entry made by the commissioners, forfeit 200*l.* and are rendered incapable of any other place. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 19. §. 8.

— Seized, proof of its being foreign, &c. is to lie on the proprietor or claimer. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 19. §. 9.

— Watches, sword-hilts, wrought-plate, and other silver manufactures, of the fineness of 11 ounces 10 penny-weights to every pound troy, so many may be exported yearly, as shall be allowed by the commissioners of the customs, or any three of them. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 28. §. 1.

— But boxes, cases, or dial-plates, of gold, silver, brass, or other metal, for clocks or watches, may not be exported without the movements made up fit for use, with the makers name engraved thereon, upon forfeiture, and 20*l.* 9 and 10 W. III. c. 28. §. 2.

SILVER THREAD.

BOUNTY OR ALLOWANCE ON GOLD AND SILVER THREAD, LACE, OR FRINGE, MADE IN GREAT-BRITAIN, EXPORTED.

Silver thread, lace or fringe, made of plate-wire, and spun on silk, every pound weight avoirdupoise *	} 0 5 0
Gold lace, thread, or fringe, made of plate-wire, and spun on silk, every pound weight avoirdupoise *	} 0 6 8

* 10 Ann. c. 26. §. 62. and 3 Geo. I. c. 7. §. 1.

To be paid to the exporter by the collector of the duties on gilt and silver wire, or a debenture, expressing the kinds and quantities, to be made forth by the collector of the customs at the port of exportation, and the shipping thereof testified by the searcher: the exporter first making proof upon oath, before the collector of the customs, that the said thread, lace, or fringe, was actually made after the first of July, 1712, and also giving sufficient security that they shall not be reloaded in Great-Britain.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS RELATING TO SNUFF.

SNUFF—made, mixed, or coloured with oaker, umber, &c. (except water tinged with Venetian red) or fuslic, yellow ebony, touch-wood, or other wood, dirt, sand, or tobacco dust mixed therewith, is forfeited, with 3*l.* for every pound weight, by the maker or seller. 1 Geo. I. c. 46. §. 7. The powers and provisions relating to counterfeit tobacco, are to extend to the abuses in making and mixing of snuff. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 22.

Removed

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

— Removed by land.—Tobacco or tobacco-stalks exceeding 24lb. weight, or snuff exceeding 10lb. weight, may not be conveyed from the place of importation to any other place in Great-Britain, without a certificate from the collector, comptroller, or chief officer of the customs, at the place of importation; and if manufactured, with the importer's oath thereto (if the importer applies for it) that the duties were paid or secured at importation, by whom, when, and in what ship imported; or with the purchaser's oath thereto (if he applies for it) attesting the marks and numbers of the hogheads, out of which it was taken, from whom purchased, and when: if tobacco-stalks, or SNUFF, or manufactured tobacco, are so removed, then the certificate must have the importer's oath thereto (if he applies for it) that such stalks were stripped, or such SNUFF, or manufactured tobacco, was made from one or more hogheads, for which the duties were by him paid or secured at importation; or the purchaser's oath thereto (if he applies for it) that such stalks were stripped, or the snuff, or MANUFACTURED TOBACCO, was made from one or more hogheads, which had been delivered and received according to the directions of this act: which certificates such officers are to grant; and after entering in their books, to deliver to the person applying for the same, without fee or reward for certificate or oath, on forfeiture of 10l. for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 9.

— Removed by water.—No tobacco, tobacco-stalks, or SNUFF, may be shipped on board any vessel, to be carried by water, from any place in Great-Britain, to any other, until every part thereof is entered at the custom-house, at the port nearest the place where they are shipped; and if unmanufactured, it must be shipped in the original package in which it was imported, preserving the same marks and numbers, but not without a certificate from the collector or comptroller, or chief officer of the customs, at the port of importation, that the duties thereof were paid or secured at importation, by whom, the time when, and in what vessel imported: if it is tobacco-stalks, or SNUFF, or other manufactured tobacco, it is not to be so shipped, without a certificate from the said officers, that the duties were paid or secured at importation, for the tobacco from which they were stripped, made, or manufactured: which certificates the said officers are required to grant to the importer, or his known agent, applying for the same, without fee or reward, on forfeiture of 10l. for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 13.

Tobacco, or tobacco-stalks, exceeding 24lb. weight, or SNUFF, exceeding 10 pounds weight (which has been removed by water from the place of importation to any other place in Great-Britain) may not be removed afterwards from thence by land, without a certificate from the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the customs, at the place to which they were carried by water; that it appears to them by the entry of the certificate, which came with the goods from the place of importation, that the duties thereof were paid or secured there, and in what vessel they were brought by water, and when; and that the person applying for the same, had made oath to the truth thereof: which certificate such officers are required (after writing it in their books) to deliver to any person applying for it. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 22.

— Any certificate for removal of tobacco, tobacco-stalks, or SNUFF, by land or water, is to be deemed a proper one, though the name of the importer is not inserted therein, provided his name is expressed in the bill from which the certificate is prepared. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 5.

— Tobacco-stalks and SNUFF, seized and condemned, are to be burnt in the presence of the collector and comptroller of the customs, at the place where the goods are at the time of condemnation; or, for want of such, in the presence of the collector or supervisor of excise for that district. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 27, 28.

— Tobacco-stalks or SNUFF, removed from one place to another in greater quantities than by 24 Geo. II. c. 21. is allowed, and not attended with the certificate required, may be seized and prosecuted by any officer of the customs or excise; and the proof that it was removed from the port of importation, with a proper certificate, and that the duties thereon were paid or secured, is to lie on the claimer, and not on the officer who seized it. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 2.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS WITH REGARD TO SPICES.

SPICERY, viz. cinnamon, cloves, mace, and nutmegs, may be imported in British ships, whereof the master and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners are British, from any parts beyond the seas; upon licence first had from the commissioner of the customs, or any three of them, or from the customs, or collector and comptroller of the port. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 7. §. 3. and 3 and 4 Ann. c. 4. §. 6. and 8 Ann. c. 7. §. 26. and 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 45. and 8 Geo. I. c. 15. §. 19. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 2.

— The quantity, quality, and the port of importation,

are to be expressed in such licences; and if more be found than therein mentioned, it is forfeited. The package to be in casks or bales, unless from the East-Indies; the bale of cinnamon to weigh net 70lb. or upwards, and each cask of nutmegs, cloves, or mace, 300lb. or upwards, upon forfeiture thereof. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 7. §. 3. and 3 and 4 Ann. c. 4. §. 6. and 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 45. and 8 Geo. I. c. 15. §. 19. and 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 21. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

— The licences are to be delivered up by the masters at entry of their ships, and annexed to the report, with the marks and numbers of each cask, bale, or parcel, and the quantity and quality endorsed on the back, upon forfeiture of ship and goods. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 46. and 8 Geo. I. c. 15. §. 19. and 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 21. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

— Found on board any ship in small parcels, packed in hogheads, bales, or casks, are forfeited. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 47. and 8 Geo. I. c. 15. §. 19. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 2.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS WITH REGARD TO SPIRITS.

SPIRITS, or low wines, brought by sea coastwise, without a certificate from the officer of excise, where distilled, are forfeited; to be sued for as any other forfeiture by the laws of excise. 3 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 17.

THE BOUNTY ON SPIRITS DRAWN FROM BARLEY, MALT, OR OTHER CORN, EXPORTED.

By 6 Geo. II. cap. 17. §. 10. was granted without limitation, viz.

Spirits drawn from barley, malt, or other corn,	Bounty
for every ton thereof	1 10 0

To be paid to the exporter by the commissioners of the customs, or other proper officer belonging to them, when barley is at 24s. per quarter, or under, upon such proof of the exportation, as is directed by 1 W. and M. cap. 12. and out of such duties as are liable to the payment or the bounties on corn exported, in the same manner as if the respective quantity of barley, malt, or other corn, had been exported, allowing that twelve quarters of barley or malt are made use of in making one ton of spirits. 6 Geo. II. c. 17. §. 10.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS WITH REGARD TO STARCH.

Drawback or repayment of the duty of excise on British-made Starch exported.

Starch *, for every pound weight thereof	Drawback
avoidupoise	
Starch †, for every pound weight thereof	0 0 2
avoidupoise	

* 10 Ann. c. 26. §. 27. and 3 Geo. I. c. 7.

† 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 9. §. 13. and 6 Geo. I. c. 4.

To be repaid to the exporter thereof (by the collector of the duties) for such starch, exported to foreign parts by way of merchandize, on a debenture, to be made forth by the collector of the customs at the port of exportation, expressing the true kinds and quantities, and the exportation thereof testified by the searcher: the exporter having first made proof of the payment of the duties (on oath) before the said collector; and also having given sufficient security, that the starch shall not be relanded in Great-Britain. 10 Ann. c. 26. §. 25, 27. and 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 13.

If relanded (over and above the penalty of the bond) forfeited, or the value. 10 Ann. c. 26. §. 26.

STARCH, shipped for exportation, and afterwards relanded, is forfeited, or the value, besides the penalty of the bond, 10 Ann. c. 26. §. 26.

— Or hair-powder, found in any ship, waggon, &c. is seizable by officers of excise or customs, upon suspicion of its having been privately made, or clandestinely imported, or exported and relanded again after the duty hath been repaid. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 3.

— Within ten days after seizure, the officer is to exhibit an information before three commissioners of excise, or two justices of the peace. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 3.

— Upon information, the person in whose possession it is found, must make it appear, that the duty hath been paid for the same, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the goods, with horses and package, containing the same, and 5l. for every hundred weight; and the commissioners or justices are to proceed to give judgment accordingly. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 3.

— Suspected to be privately making or concealed, may be searched for by officers of excise or customs, by day or by night (but if by night, in the presence of a constable or other peace-officer) by warrant from the commissioners of excise, or a justice of the peace. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 4.

— Found privately making or concealing, is forfeited, with all materials and things in which it is contained; and the person privately making, or in whose possession it is found,

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

found, upon failure of proof that the duty has been paid, forfeits 50l. and for obstructing the officers 50l. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 4.

THE CHIEF LAWS OF THE CUSTOMS, WITH REGARD TO SUGARS.

SUGAR must be imported only in ships belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, or in ships of such port where the said goods can only, or most usually are first shipped for transportation, on forfeiture of ship and goods. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 8.

— But during the late war with France, this was not to extend to prevent any person importing the said goods in shipping built in Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, or any of the lands, islands, dominions, or territories belonging to his Majesty, in Asia, Africa, or America, provided the master and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners are British, or of the country of which the said goods are the growth, production, or manufacture: but if such ships are the property of foreigners, although British-built, the goods are to pay aliens, and all other duties, in the same manner as if they were foreign-built. 29 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 19, 20.

— No sugars, panelles, syrups, or melasses of the produce of any of the plantations in America, nor any rum or spirits of America (except of the growth and manufacture of his Majesty's sugar colonies there) may be imported into Ireland, unless shipped in Great-Britain in ships legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ship and all her furniture; — but not to extend to restrain the importation of sugars of the produce of any of the dominions of the king of Spain or Portugal, from any place from whence they might have been lawfully imported before. 6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 4, 13.

— Sugar, tobacco, cotton, wool, indigo, ginger, fustick or other dyeing wood, rice (except under the regulations in the 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. art.) melasses, hemp, copper-ore, beaver-skins, or other furs, pitch, tar, turpentine, masts, yards and bowsprits, of the growth, production, or manufacture of any of the British plantations in America, Asia, or Africa, may not be carried from thence, unless to some other British plantations, or to the kingdom of Great-Britain only, to be there landed, upon forfeiture of the said goods, or their value, with the ship and furniture. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 18. and 22 and 23 Car. II. c. 26. §. 10, 11. and 25 Car. II. c. 7. §. 3. and 3 and 4 Ann. c. 5. §. 12. and c. 10. §. 7. and 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 15. §. 25. and c. 18. §. 22. and 11 Geo. I. c. 29. §. 4. and 2 Geo. II. c. 28. §. 6. and c. 35. §. 17. and 3 Geo. II. c. 28. §. 1.

— And if, upon any pretence whatsoever, any goods of the British plantations in America be landed in Ireland, without being first landed in Great-Britain, and the duties thereof there paid, they are forfeited, with the ship; $\frac{3}{4}$ without composition to his Majesty, and $\frac{1}{4}$ to the fuer; unless stranded or driven in by leakiness, &c. in which case the goods must be delivered into the custody of the chief officer of the port, there to remain till re-shipped for Great-Britain, for which good security must be taken. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 14, 15.

— Now to extend only to sugars, tobacco, cotton, wool, indigo, ginger, speckle-wood, or Jamaica wood, fustick or other dyeing wood, rice, melasses, beaver-skins, and other furs, copper-ore, pitch, tar, turpentine, masts, yards, and bowsprits, of the growth, product, or manufacture of the said plantations. All other goods, of the growth, product, and manufacture of any of the said plantations, may be imported from thence into Ireland (except hops, which are to continue under the regulations of 9 Ann. c. 12. and 1 Geo. I. c. 12.) provided it be in British shipping, whereof the master and at least $\frac{3}{4}$ of the mariners are British. 4 Geo. II. c. 15. §. 1, 2. and 5 Geo. II. c. 9. §. 1.

— Ships coming to the said plantation to take in any of the following enumerated goods with intent to carry the same to some other British plantations, bond not having been first given to bring the same to Great-Britain only, there must be paid for such goods the following duties, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Sugar, white, the hundred weight	0	5	0
Sugar, brown, and muscovadoes the Cwt.	0	1	6
Tobacco, the pound	0	0	1
Cotton-wool, the pound	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
Indigo, the pound	0	0	2
Ginger, the hundred weight	0	1	0
Logwood, the hundred weight	5	0	0
Fustick, and all other dyeing wood, the Cwt.	0	0	6
Cocoa-nuts, the pound	0	0	1

And security must be taken to carry them to such plantations, or to Great-Britain. 25 Car. II. c. 7. §. 3. and 7 and 8 W. and M. c. 22. §. 8. and 1 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 4.

— British, in Asia, Africa, or America, rum or spirits, melasses, or syrups, sugars or panelles, of the product of any plantation in America, not in the possession of his Majesty, imported into any of the British plantations in America, are to pay the following duties in money of Great-Britain, according to the value of 5s. 6d. per ounce in silver; viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Rum or spirits, the gallon	0	0	9
Melasses or syrups, the gallon	0	0	6
Sugars and panelles, the Cwt.	0	5	0

and so in proportion for a greater or lesser quantity, to be paid down in ready money before landing. 6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 1, 2.

— British, in Asia, Africa, or America. — Any of his Majesty's subjects in any vessel built in Great-Britain, and belonging to his Majesty's subjects, of which the major part reside in Great-Britain, and the residue either in Great-Britain, or in some of his Majesty's sugar colonies in America, or in any vessel belonging to his Majesty's subjects residing in Great-Britain, and navigated according to law, that shall clear outwards, from Great-Britain to any of the said colonies, may ship sugars of the growth, produce or manufacture of the said colonies, to carry to any foreign part of Europe; provided a licence be first taken out for that purpose, under the hands of three of the commissioners of the customs, subject to the regulations, and on the conditions, stipulated by act of parliament. 12 Geo. II. c. 30. §. 2. and 24 Geo. II. c. 57. §. 7.

— This act not to extend to granting a liberty to carry any sugars from the sugar colonies to Ireland. 12 Geo. II. c. 30. §. 16. and 24 Geo. II. c. 57. §. 7.

— Of the growth of the British colonies, exported within a year after the importation, to draw back the residue of the subsidy. 6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 9. and 19 Geo. II. c. 23.

The allowance on British Refined Sugar exported.

By 9 and 10 W. III. cap. 23. §. 9. Was granted from 31st January, 1699, during the continuance of the new subsidy,
5 Ann. c. 8. art. 6. Upon sugar refined in Great-Britain, for every cwt. exported

2 and 3 Ann. c. 9. §. 3. Was granted during the continuance of the one-third subsidy,
4 — — 6. — 2. A further allowance on
5 — — 19. — 8. the same, for every cwt. exported
1 Geo. I. — 12. — 8.

6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 10. Was granted from 24th June, 1753, for five years.

11 — — 18. — 2. Further continued for seven years.

19 — — 23. — 1. Further continued for seven years.

20 — — 32. — 5. Further continued to 24 June 1756.

29 — — 26. — 1. Further continued for three years.

A further allowance on the same, for every cwt. exported

21 Geo. II. c. 2. §. 6. Was granted from first March, 1747, during the continuance of the subsidy 1747,

A further allowance on the same, for every cwt. exported

Total bounty 0 9 0

To be paid at the custom-house to the exporter within thirty days after the demand thereof; oath being first made by the refiner, that the sugar, so exported, was produced from brown and muscovado sugar, charged by the acts of 9 and 10 W. III. c. 23. and of 2 and 3 Ann. c. 9. and by 21 Geo. II. c. 2. (that is to say, charged with the new subsidy, one-third subsidy, and subsidy 1747.) and that, as he verily believes, the same was imported from his Majesty's plantations in America, and the duty duly paid at the time of importation thereof, the exporter making oath, that the same was duly exported, and his Majesty's searcher also certifying the shipping thereof, and all other requisites being performed according to the Book of Rates. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 23. §. 9. and 2 and 3 Ann. c. 9. §. 3. and 6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 10. and 21 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 8.

T.

T A P

TAPESTRY, a delicate kind of manufacture, serving to adorn apartments with hangings.

Of some curious improvements that have been made by Monsr. Le Blon, on the principles of printing, in imitation of painting, and of weaving tapestry, in the same manner as brocades.

M. Le Blon endeavouring to fix the true harmony of colouring in painting, found that all visible objects may be represented by the three primitive colours, red, yellow and blue; for out of them, all others, even black itself, may be compounded. We are beholden to the great Sir Isaac Newton for the discovery of the difference of colours contained in the rays of the sun, and that the union of them all produces a white, which is light itself.

For distinction sake, M. Le Blon calls those colours which are comprehended in the rays of the sun impalpable colours, and those used in painting, material colours. In the material colours, a mixture of all three produces a black or darkness, contrary to what is observed in the impalpable, which I said just now produce white. M. Le Blon takes this phenomenon to be owing to the body or substance of which those three material colours consist, and to the particles of them being opaque, and not transparent; for they only reflect certain rays of light, they strike on their surfaces; and therefore, when small particles of different colours are placed close together, if they are so small that each of them cannot be seen separately by the eye, we do not discern the colour of each particular atom, but only the blended reflected rays, proceeding from the adjoining particles: thus yellow and red produce an orange, yellow and blue, a green, &c. which seems to be confirmed by placing two pieces of silk near together, viz. yellow and blue: when, by intermixing of their reflected rays, the yellow will appear of a light green, and the blue of a dark green, which deserves the farther consideration of the curious.

He hath reduced the harmony of colouring in painting to certain infallible rules built on this foundation. Whereas, according to the common practice of painters, their colouring is the effect of mere chance or guess-work at first, but improved by experience, all painters usually declaring, that there can be no certain rules given for mixing colours. M. Le Blon published, some years ago, an ingenious book on this subject, intitled *Coloritto*; or, *The Harmony of Colouring in Painting*.

By these rules he light on the manner of printing any object in its natural colours, by means of three plates, and the three primitive colours; an art attempted and sought after ever since the invention of printing, but in vain, and thought impossible, 'till he put it in practice a few years ago. The plates are engraved chiefly after the mezzotinto manner, only the darker shades, and sometimes the outlines, where they are to appear very sharp, are done with a common graver. Each plate is not completely engraved, but only contrived to take such a portion of the colour as is necessary with the other two plates, to make the picture complete.

This art of printing consists in six articles.

1. To produce any object with three colours, and three plates.
2. To make the drawings in each of the three plates, so as that they may exactly tally.
3. To engrave the three plates, so as that they cannot fail to agree.
4. To engrave the three plates in an uncommon way, so as that they may produce 3000 and more good prints.
5. To find the three true primitive material colours, and to prepare them, so as that they may be imprimable, durable, and beautiful.
6. To print the three plates, so as that they may agree perfectly in the impression.

The first of which is the most considerable, comprehending the theoretical part of the invention; and the other five are subservient to bring it into mechanical practice, and of such importance, that if any one of them be wanting, nothing can be executed with success or exactness. Sometimes more

T A P

than the three plates may be employed, viz. when beauty, cheapness, and expedition require it.

The observation of the compounded colours reflected from two pieces of silk of different colours, placed near together, first gave him the thought of what the effect of weaving threads of different colours would be, when all the threads were so fine, as not to be distinguished at a small distance one from another.

By the same principles of producing any visible object with a small number of colours, he arrived at the skill of producing in the loom all that the art of painting requires. An art likewise often attempted, but as often abandoned, and declared impossible till now, as well as the other, of printing in colours. And it is probable, many improvements may from hence be made in several trades, especially in combing of wool, where the mixing of several colours may be of important use.

The colours used in weaving, being only superficial, and so differing from both the impalpable and the material colours, and not being to be so closely joined or incorporated together as those, will not of themselves produce a white or black, but only a light cinnamon: wherefore in weaving he hath been obliged to make use of white or black threads, besides red, yellow, and blue; and though he found he was able to imitate any picture with these five colours, yet for cheapness and expedition, and to add a brightness where it was required, he found it more convenient to make use of several intermediate degrees of colours.

There are two ways in use at Brussels, and at the Gobelins in Paris, for making tapestry after the common manner: one they call the flat way, and the other the upright. In the flat way, they have the warp stretched in a frame lengthwise of the piece: it is made of white worsted, and the pattern lies close under it, so that the workman can see the figures through the warp: he is provided with bobbins of various colours of silk or worsted, as the piece requires: then he takes up with his fingers one thread after another, as they answer to any colour in the painting beneath; and with the other hand passes the bobbin with the same colour, and strikes the threads with an ivory comb. Some of these frames are made like a loom, with a warp passed through the leishes, and treddles for the feet, with which they open the threads of the warp, to pass a common shuttle through them, when it is necessary to make a long throw, as is required in grounds, pillars, and tall uprights.

In the upright way the warp runs from top to bottom of the piece; the pattern is placed upright, and close behind it, and the outlines are drawn in charcoal upon the fore-side of the warp. The workman is placed with his back to the light, by which means he can see the pattern the better; then he takes up the threads one by one, and passes the bobbin as in the other way, and strikes it close with the comb: all which is near as tedious as needle-work itself, which is the reason why the finest tapestry comes to such high prices, so that none but princes and persons of distinction care to buy it; and what can be had at a moderate price is always coarse, and of a low taste: for workmen who have any good notion of painting, and are capable of adjusting the colours, are not to be had, but for excessive wages, which much enhances the price likewise: but in M. Le Blon's new way of weaving tapestry in the loom with a draw-boy, tapestry may be performed almost as expeditious as fine brocades: for when the loom is once set and mounted, any common draught-weaver, though not acquainted with drawing or painting; nay, hardly knowing what figure he is about, exactly produceth what the painter hath represented in the original pattern. And thus a piece of tapestry may be woven in a month or two, which, in the common way of working, would, before this invention, take up several years: and what, in the common way, costs a thousand pounds, may, by this means, be afforded finer and better for a hundred. Therefore, it is likely, this woven tapestry may become a current merchandize, and that many thousand industrious families may be well employed about it.

The main secret of this art consists in drawing the patterns, from which any common draught-weaver can mount the loom;

loom; and when that is done, the piece may be made of any size, by only widening the reeds and the warp, and a reverse may be made with the same ease; which is done by the boy's pulling the leishes up again, in the same order in which he pulled them down before; by which contrivance the tapestry may be suited to any room, whether the light comes in on the right-hand or on the left.

The patterns are painted upon paper, whereon are printed squares from copper-plates, and these subdivided by as many lines as answer to the threads of the warp, which run lengthwise of the piece; then they try how many threads of the shoot answer in breadth to every subdivision of the squares. Every thread of the warp goes through a small brass ring called a male, or through a loop in the leish, and hath a small long weight or lingoe hung below, to counterballance the packthreads, which going from the top of the rings or loops, are passed over the pullies, in the table directly over the loom, and are continued nearly in a horizontal position on one side of the loom to a convenient distance, where they are all spread on a cross-piece fastened to two staples: these are called the tail of the mounture; and from each of these packthreads just by the side of the loom, are fastened other packthreads, called simples, which descend to the ground; so that by pulling these simple chords, you raise any of the threads of the warp at pleasure; wherefore they fasten a loop or potlart to as many of these simple chords as there are threads of the warp to be pulled up at every shoot, or every throw of the shuttle; by which means the shoot manifests itself on the right side, where the warp is pulled up: and in ordering this, they are guided by the pattern, on which they count the distances of the subdivisions, which contain the same colours in the same line, and can be shot at once: then they fasten potlarts to the several simple chords that draw up the rings, through which those threads of the warp run, which are to lie behind this colour; they tie all these loops together, and fasten a piece of worsted or silk to the knot, of the same colour that the workman is to throw; and the boy, when he pulls each loop, names the colour, that the weaver may take the proper shuttle, and so on for every colour to be thrown.

Of the upright-way of working TAPESTRY, with relation to TURKEY CARPETS.

The carpets which are made at the royal manufactory of La Savoniere, below the Louvre, at Paris, are, in some respects, wrought by the upright-way of tapestry. The two rollers are placed the same way: the warp is braced from the top downward: the chain, with its loops, keeps all the threads of the warp equally perpendicular: the stick, which facilitates their crossing, runs through them in the same manner, and separates the foremost threads from the rest: the lizier-pole holds all the strings, which serve to draw the fore threads in their turns, and then the opposite threads, in order to insert the spindles of woof. But the method of working in this manufactory differs from the upright way of tapestry in these particulars:

1. The warp is divided, both before and behind, into parcels of 10 threads each, nine white, and one blue; which is regularly continued through the whole width of the piece.
2. The weaver works on the fore-side, and consequently sees what he does.
3. The design, or pattern, is traced in its proper colours, on cartons, tied about the workman, who looks at it every moment, because every stitch is marked on it, as it ought to be in his work. By this means he constantly knows what colours and shades he is to use, and how many stitches of the same colour.
4. In this he is assisted by squares, into which the whole design is divided: each square is subdivided into 10 vertical lines, corresponding with each parcel of 10 threads of the warp: and besides, each square is ruled with 10 horizontal lines, crossing the vertical lines at right angles.
5. The workman having placed his spindles of woollen, silk, or other richer thread near him, begins to work on the first horizontal line of one of the squares. These lines marked on the carton are not traced on the warp, for this would be endless; because an iron wire, which is longer than the width of a parcel of 10 threads, supplies the place of a cross line. This wire is managed by a crook at one end, at the workman's right-hand; towards the other end it is flatted into a sort of knife, with a back and edge, and grows wider to the point. The workman fixes his iron wire, or rod, horizontally on the warp, by twisting some turns of a suitable thread of the woof round it, which he passes forward and backward, behind a fore thread of the warp, and then behind the opposite thread, drawing them in their turns by their leishes. Afterwards, if it be necessary, he brings his woof-thread round the wire, in order to begin again to thrust it into the warp; or else he ties it to the wire with a running knot, and lets it hang on it, in order to take another woof, and pass it into the warp. He continues in this manner to cover the iron rod, or wire, and to fill up a line to the tenth thread of the warp, which is the blue one. He is at liberty either to stop here, or go on with the same cross line in the next division. According as he passes the thread of the woof round the iron wire,

and into the warp, the threads of which he causes to cross one another every instant: when he comes to the end of the line, he takes care to strike in, or close again all the stitches with an iron reed, whose teeth freely enter between the empty threads of the warp, and which is heavy enough to strike in the woof he has used. This row of stitches is again closed and levelled, by a dweet of blue thread doubled, which the workman puts into the warp, sliding his hand over the whole length of the line he has wrought. He crosses the same threads of the warp, and then stretches through them another single blue thread. He beats in these two threads, one after another, with his reed: these dweets of cross thread, which are a support to each line, will be hid by the pile on the fore side; they indeed diminish the beauty of the wrong side, but this is of no consequence.

This done, the workman draws the iron-rod or knife out of the loops of the woof that covered it: and as it is wider towards its end, these loops resist its passage; but being edged at its fore-part, it cuts them through. Then the workman with his left-hand lays a strong pair of shears along the finished line, cuts off the loose hairs, and thus forms a row of tufts perfectly even, which, together with those before and after it, form the shag. One line of this sort taking in the row of stitches and woollen pile, with the two blue threads which support them, somewhat surpasses, in thickness, the space between the first and second cross line of a square. There must be eight wires full of woollen thread, and sixteen blue threads, to answer to the ten cross lines of a square. By this means the workman always sees what he is doing. He follows stitch for stitch, and colour for colour, the place of his pattern which he is at, and paints magnificently without having the least notion of painting or drawing. It does not appear, that the directors of carpet-work among the Mahometans, are better draughtsmen than their workmen, for the Turkey carpets have nothing in them but a symmetry of colours.

R E M A R K S.

Under our articles of ARTIFICERS, CANDIDATE, CARPET, CLOTH, FRANCE, MECHANICS, MANUFACTURERS, and divers other articles, which the reader will observe from our GENERAL INDEX, we have shewn the great national advantages which arise to a trading state from manufactories in general, and how requisite it is, from time to time, to improve in the old, as well as to invent, or introduce, new manufactures, in order to fall in with the chargeable taste of foreign nations, that our rivals may not supplant us in trade, by their greater vigilance in these respects.—Under the preceding, and various other heads, we have also shewn by what gradations many states have increased in their mechanical and manufactural arts, and how the French, in particular, have arose to so great perfection in their manufactures, by sparing no encouragement, rewards, and honours, upon such ingenious artists who have proved the happy instruments of introducing any valuable NEW MANUFACTURE into their dominions.—We there have seen by what wise measures this politic and ingenious nation first established their woollen and filken fabrics of every species; how they first supplied themselves with the former sorts of manufactures, which they were wont to take from England, and by what degrees they afterwards have greatly supplanted this nation, at most of their best foreign markets in their woollen goods.—And under our article MEDALS, we shall find how they have commemorated those happy æras that have been productive of any blessings that have tended to the enlargement of the commerce and navigation of that neighbouring nation.

In the history of this part of the French polity, it will be difficult to find a single instance of any capital ingenious artist, that has proposed to the administration any laudable undertaking, tending to the improvement of the old, or the establishing of new manufactories, who has not been gratefully received, and liberally recompensed, and this even though he may have for a time proved unsuccessful in his attempt. By this generous treatment of the industrious and ingenious mechanic and manufacturer, it is not to be admired that they have drawn the most celebrated artists of every class into their country, from all corners of the world.—For such national munificence towards these people, will spread itself among them in all countries; and the glory that such a country derives therefrom, will influence these artists, maugre all laws to prevent it, to forsake their native country, where no due regard is had to their merit.

It would make, I am afraid, but a disagreeable scene: certain I am, that it would not redound to the honour of Great-Britain, if the history of great numbers of British, as well as foreign artists, who had great talents, and strong impulses to promote the commerce and navigation of this nation, was properly represented, and the difficulties and discouragements they have too generally met with; and which hath at length either broke their hearts, by shameful attendance and dependence, or forced them into other nations, where they have been caressed and rewarded, suitably to their merit: an history of this nature, with relation to our own country, compared with a like history in regard to France, would, I am confident,

confident, give great glory to the one, and no less ignominy to the other. Nay, was I to give a short history of many persons of this stamp, that have fell within the tether of my own knowledge, and that of some gentlemen of my acquaintance, it would be a disagreeable task, because it might be thought an invidious one, with respect to our rulers at different times.

There is a difference between the idle and designing projector, and the solid and well-intentioned artist. The former of these we have sufficiently exposed, under our article PROJECTORS, in order to guard the public against such impostors, who are as detrimental to the community in general, as ruinous to the private fortunes of those who are enchanted into their magic circle of PROJECTORSHIP.—But how these impostors may be prevented, and how the meritorious artists may be duly encouraged, and improved in their respective arts, see our articles ARTIFICERS, MECHANICS, PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL, and ROYAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.

Nations that abound not with mines, especially those of gold and silver, or such other as will tend to enrich and people the state, must depend upon the productions of their lands, or their manufactories, or both: and the two latter are preferable in most states to the former, as being more permanent, if wisely regulated, according to the wants and the taste of other countries.

Because Great-Britain and Ireland abound with such immense quantities of wool, and which is of a quality superior to all other in the world for the fabric of general manufactures; and because the goodness of our wool has long been, and still is, a temptation to our competitors in trade to smuggle it out of our nation, and that chiefly in exchange for their commodities of luxury, which are likewise smuggled into this nation: as our commercial rivals have, chiefly by means of our own wool, greatly supplanted us in many of the capital branches of this our staple manufactory, it behoves the wisdom of the nation duly to cherish and encourage every manufacture that has a tendency to the consumption of this commodity amongst ourselves, if no other end could be answered by it than that of so lessening the quantity, as to deprive our competitors of having so much out of the kingdom as they at present obtain.

As these manufactural arts have an immediate practical tendency to the improvement of those of DRAWING and PAINTING, this, methinks, should be no indifferent motive with us to the effectual promotion and encouragement of such manufactories; for when these new commercial establishments take place in the kingdom, and will afford a handsome recompence to the ingenious artist in design and painting, this will induce numbers to breed up their children, especially those of tender constitutions, to so genteel an employment, whereby they can obtain an handsome maintenance. But it does not seem very politic to expect that numbers of people should apply themselves to the arts of DRAWING and PAINTING, without first being certain that there will be competent business, by which they may get a tolerable livelihood. But this is not the case at present; for, if I am rightly informed, we have now more artists already in these branches than can well live: so that if we would increase the numbers of these artists, who certainly would greatly contribute to the improvement of divers of our mechanical and manufactural arts, we must previously settle and establish such permanent manufactories as will afford them certain bread.

The beauty and delicacy of our woollen, as well as silken manufactures of every kind, greatly depend on the lustre of their colours; and as there are no manufactures that require a superior beauty and elegance in this respect than those of CARPETS and TAPESTRY, the promotion of these will have an inevitable tendency to improvements in the art of DYEING; and every advance towards a further degree of perfection herein is of consequence to our woollen manufactories in general. See our article DYEING.

Commerce has been considered as either active or passive; the latter consists in purchasing more commodities in value of other nations than they do of us; the former does the contrary, and, by selling more than we purchase, become the source of wealth and power. Every new manufactory settled in a trading nation, either tends to lessen the importation of the same from foreign states, or to supply us with an additional commodity to increase our active commerce; and it sometimes answers both these ends.

States, no more than private persons, should lose sight of that excellent maxim of Cato, *Patrem familias vendacem, non emacem, esse oportet*: THAT THE MASTER OF A FAMILY OUGHT TO BE A SELLER, AND NOT A BUYER. All the comforts of the head of a family, all the wealth of a city, all the grandeur of a kingdom, depends solely upon selling much, and buying little, or upon selling more than is bought. He that is constantly buying more than he sells, let him be a second Cræsus in treasure, must at length be reduced to the unhappy state of a beggar; for his stock is diminished in proportion to the over-balance of goods bought in. But whoever is constantly selling more than he buys, let him be poor as Lazarus, must, by such a transaction, acquire the happy circumstances of the prosperous; for as much as the balance is in favour of the

amount of the SALES, just so much is added to his capital. Thus reason evinces the truth of it; and we have confirmation hereof in the vigilance of neighbouring nations to make provision for selling much and buying little.

NEW MANUFACTORIES is the sure and fundamental provision for the introduction of riches and happiness into a kingdom; and, for the want of these, and due improvements in the OLD, will ever occasion the decline of our trade, and introduce poverty.

Further to evince the truth of these principles, we may appeal to experience; for what has been the principal occasion of the decay of our TURKEY TRADE, but the new-invented woollen fabrics of the French, which have hit the taste of the Turks, while our's grow more and more out of date among that people? And has not this been caused by an unaccountable perverseness in our English manufacturers not to strike out of the ordinary road, and to hit the goût of the Turks, as well as the French have done? [See our article MANUFACTURES.] If a Turk can purchase two suits of cloaths a year of the French fabric, for the price that he must give for one of the English, they will give the former the preference; especially so, since it seems he can have them of different, and more beautiful colours, than those of England; and although they may be of a slighter manufactory, yet, if the two French suits wear as long as one of the English will, and the Turk can have his fancy better pleased, the Englishman will ever experience the disadvantage arising from his adhering to his OLD FABRICS, while his rival is daily inventing NEW.

In order to induce our English manufacturers to turn their thoughts upon emulating the French, in regard to the present Turkish mode, that the French have so beneficially introduced among them, I have, under the article MANUFACTURERS, earnestly recommended to them the imitation of these French woollen fabrics, which are now so much in vogue in Turkey, and which have been greatly instrumental in supplanting us in a considerable part of that once valuable and important commerce; and I have the satisfaction to inform the public, that my zeal is likely to be attended with the desired success: for not long since I have received letters from a very ingenious English manufacturer, that, in consequence of my recommendation of such like manufactures to the trial of our English clothiers, he had cheerfully set about them; and, within this month, I have received an additional pleasure, by seeing patterns of his FIRST TRIAL, which he has sent me; and which having laid before some of the Turkey merchants, they have great expectations that this ingenious English artist will not only be able to make as good cloths of this kind as the French do, according to the Turkish taste, but to sell them equally cheap, if not cheaper, than they do.—And if so, this will enable us once more to get the start of the French in this commerce, or put us upon a level with them in that important branch of trade.

This is the case, likewise, with relation to the SPANISH TRADE: for as to the fine English cloths, no objection can be made to their quality; but the French have got the start of Britain in all the finer sorts of woollen goods, by making them as fine to the eye, and not of half the substance as the British superfines; therefore they can afford to sell them much cheaper than ours. The policy of these our commercial rivals is very remarkable, subtle, and conspicuous to such Britons as are disposed to think on the trade of their country. The French finding they could not make cloth of so good a quality as the British, very judiciously attempted to outdo them by cheapness, which they have effected; and, in order to take off the natural objection against the French cloths, viz. that they are not so durable as the British, they are continually making improvements in their COLOURS [see our article DYEING] and, as soon as a good approved colour appears, it is more unfashionable not to be dressed in that colour, than it would be in England to be dressed in a suit made of blanketing. By this artifice the French subjects in this kingdom, and even the English also themselves in Spain, are inticed into a wear of their cloths, on account of the difference in the price; and the wearers will tell the Spanish shopkeepers they can have two French coats for the price of one made of British cloth. The alteration in the fashionable colours is artfully contrived to return, before a coat of paltry French cloth can be worn out: so that the superlative goodness of the British cloth is not regarded by any people of fashion; and if our countrymen, the manufacturers of cloth in Great-Britain, cannot invent a cloth as cheap as the French, they must expect to be beaten by their enemies, not only out of their raw materials (of which the French can have what quantity they please now, and will be courted to take more, as the trade of England declines) but out of the trade also; for there are merchants in several ports in this kingdom, who have large quantities of the best superfine British cloths, that have lain by them ever since the cessation of arms previous to the last peace.

Nor is this less the case with respect to our PORTUGAL TRADE. For the French have done our commerce in the woollen manufactory with this kingdom an unspeakable detriment, by a new fabrick of FRENCH BLACK DRUGGETS, which

which they have introduced there. Of this I have been apprized from Portugal by an English gentleman, who has greatly the prosperity and honour of his country at heart; and, in consequence of what I have observed under the article PORTUGAL TRADE, he has promised me that I shall soon receive patterns of these BLACK FRENCH DRUGGETS from Portugal; which I shall put into the hands of a celebrated English artist in this way, who has given me great hopes, that he likewise shall be able to beat the French in this manufacture, and put the English in Portugal upon a par in this trade with the French; which, when done, the public will be duly informed of.

These things are mentioned, with a view only to shew that if our manufacturers were to be properly encouraged in making such improvements in their respective branches, as would put this nation in a capacity to vie with its competitors in trade, they would never be behind-hand with them.—But if a ridiculous and unaccountable aversion to the introduction of NEW MANUFACTURES among us prevails, our manufacturers may starve by the OLD, and the nation be daily impoverished, while France is rendered more and more prosperous and powerful, by countenancing every valuable NEW invention made in their own, or introduced from other countries.

Manufactures of moderate expence, says a judicious writer, and quick growth, may safely be left to private adventurers, and run the common chance for success; the finer arts will never flourish, but under PUBLIC PROTECTION and NOBLE PATRONAGE; no encouragements in the hands of private persons, are adequate rewards to the man of genius. MONEY is the pay of common men, as praise is that of heroes; and HONOUR will ever be found a much stronger principle of fine invention, than GAIN. We may apply to the artist what Quintillian declares of his young orator—*Nolo mihi oratorem dari, quanti sint studia computatum*—All that was great and noble in ancient wit and art, was produced by honours as well as rewards, by the countenance of PRINCES, and the favour and kind influence of GREAT MEN. Sometimes, indeed, the strength of a warm devotion has struck an enthusiasm and passion into the works of artists, beyond the power of human motives to inspire. A noble profusion of HONOURS and BOUNTY raised the GOBELINES in France to its present height; the united influence of these two being generally sufficient to call forth whatever human industry can attain to.

This house was the residence of two brothers, who first brought to Paris the secret of dyeing a curious scarlet, and failed in setting it on foot. Their buildings went under the popular name of the FOLLY of the GOBELINES for many years, till the opprobrium was taken off by a ROYAL EDICT, and the name changed by public authority to the more honourable one of the ROYAL MANSION OF THE GOBELINES. The scarlet colour was ordered to be called after the name of the inventors, and the little river Bievre, which runs by the building, received the same distinction. These in appearance were trifling matters, but will be sensibly felt by the man of genius. The same year the house was purchased by the KING, and intitled the MANUFACTORY OF THE CROWN FURNITURE; and provision was made by a ROYAL CHARTER, to render the place a perpetual SCHOOL and seminary of the curious arts. Here M. COLBERT collected together, from all parts of the world, the most able MASTERS and DESIGNERS, as well as inferior artists in the fine manufactures. SALARIES were appointed for the DIRECTORS, and PENSIONS for life to the workmen; these were TAPESTRY-WEAVERS, ENGRAVERS in ETCHING and METZOTINTOES, GOLDSMITHS, JEWELLERS, CARVERS, and WORKERS in EBONY. In this place was wrought all the magnificent furniture for fourteen ROYAL PALACES, which has since been deservedly the admiration of the world. Particular care was taken, that no part should be furnished elsewhere, much less from abroad. All honorary presents to foreign princes and noblemen abroad, and to the ornament of temples and public buildings at home, were made in their best performances, instead of jewels or money. Many of the superior artists invited from foreign countries were made NOBLE, and all of them had various honorary privileges and royal pensions: the whole number, superior and inferior, were comprehended amongst the natives of France, and made free of Paris, with full liberty to practise their trades where they pleased, after working for a certain term in the Gobelines. This indulgence extends to all, who shall at any time hereafter practise the limited time in this foundation. The whole quarter of the Gobelines was exempted from taxes and imposts, and had a court of judicature peculiar to itself, under the title of the court of the ROYAL ARTISTS.

Besides these, there are three other academies in Paris for the polite arts, with various privileges, honours, and pensions, to the members forming the governing part of each society. The academy of painting and sculpture, that of architecture, and the military one, of late foundation. Precedents in viting our attention and imitation, if the latter may not be said to command it. The two former and the academy of

sciences are copied in SPAIN, and are all equally liberal endowments.

In England, the stream of public favour and liberality has turned wholly to the advance of SCIENCES; we have few or no institutions in favour of ARTS, no place of residence but for speculation. The Royal Society are indebted to the public only for their name. How useful this honourable body has been, and how they may be rendered far more so, see our article ROYAL SOCIETY.

An academy for the fine arts above-mentioned, under a royal charter, with distinguishing honours and privileges for the higher members, and small pensions for the lower, might give us a prospect of some perfection in the branches of TAPESTRY-WEAVING, PAINTING, SCULPTURE, and STATUARY, and all the lower trades of elegance depending on fine DESIGN. Without some such public institution, they never yet were carried to an height in any country: no private fortune can stand out the time necessary to train up hands enough to extend the ART into a TRADE: but when once a sufficient number were made perfect in this seminary, private adventurers would be found ready enough to take up the business; for no place ever wanted a trade, that abounded with working hands well instructed therein.—In a word, the THEORETICAL ARTS, and PRACTICAL TRADES thereon depending, should go hand in hand.

TAXES. Under the article REVENUE, we have given a brief narrative of the methods of raising money in this kingdom, from the CONQUEST to the REVOLUTION in 1688: under the same article we have likewise shewn, that as this nation enjoyed neither civil nor religious liberty, till the time of our great deliverer King William III.; so the whole property of the people was either at the mercy of princes or priests, or both; the public revenue was raised in an arbitrary and oppressive manner; and what the civil power did not wrest from the people, the ecclesiastical did.—We shall here give a view of the money that has been raised in this nation, since the revolution in 1688 to the demise of his late majesty George II. in 1759.

SUMMARY OF THE TOTAL YEARLY SUPPLIES, granted by Parliament, during the Reigns of KING WILLIAM and MARY, WILLIAM III. QUEEN ANNE, KING GEORGE I. and KING GEORGE II.

SUMMARY OF THE TOTAL YEARLY WAYS and MEANS.

		l.	s.	d.		l.	s.	d.
1st W. & M. 1688	—	2,908,680	0	0	—	2,743,142	6	2
2	9	3,668,191	10	0	—	3,768,191	10	0
3	90	4,656,255	0	0	—	2,651,702	18	0
4	1	3,676,677	16	3	—	1,816,702	18	0
5	2	4,017,080	9	6	—	2,000,000	0	0
6	3	5,549,087	15	7	—	5,588,506	5	10
7	4	4,882,712	0	0	—	5,413,709	11	1
1st WILL. III.	5	5,537,853	19	11	—	8,161,469	0	0
2	6	5,520,078	19	11	—	5,600,000	0	0
3	7	8,237,210	18	1½	—	5,184,051	1	11½
4	8	2,350,000	0	0	—	1,484,015	0	0
5	9	981,342	0	0	—	1,000,000	0	0
6	1700	2,886,536	14	6	—	2,620,000	0	0
7	1	4,380,045	11	0	—	6,913,628	15	5½
1st ANNE	2	3,535,457	17	2	—	3,887,630	0	0
2	3	4,005,369	8	6	—	4,200,000	0	0
3	4	4,717,438	3	4	—	4,914,888	3	3½
4	5	5,075,761	16	2	—	5,282,213	17	2
5	6	5,941,841	14	10½	—	6,142,381	15	6½
6	7	5,926,849	18	6½	—	6,189,067	15	6½
7	8	6,563,138	10	10½	—	6,868,839	0	0
8	9	6,425,268	10	2½	—	6,866,552	9	11½
9	1710	14,379,744	5	4½	—	16,246,325	0	0
10	11	6,671,386	1	10½	—	6,346,615	16	9½
11	12	3,520,072	10	5½	—	3,400,000	0	0
12	13	3,662,079	3	11	—	3,100,000	0	0
1st GEORGE I.	14	3,282,223	16	6½	—	7,317,751	15	6
2	15	3,053,363	5	11½	—	3,211,313	1	0
3	16	3,697,767	13	6½	—	2,229,514	3	2½
4	17	2,614,437	4	8½	—	2,735,509	3	2½
5	18	2,989,109	11	10½	—	2,742,000	17	10½
6	19	2,623,537	14	9½	—	2,920,264	13	8
7	1720	2,738,156	3	7½	—	2,719,412	10	9
8	1	2,923,108	18	0½	—	1,837,799	8	2½
9	2	1,935,054	16	6½	—	1,703,744	19	5½
10	3	1,863,888	6	8½	—	1,782,212	0	1½
11	4	1,823,229	4	1½	—	3,282,328	6	7½
12	5	2,978,954	1	3½	—	3,173,287	12	0½
13	6	2,895,305	0	7	—	5,544,594	2	2½
1st GEORGE II.	7	5,392,906	2	0½	—	3,540,478	10	4½
2	8	3,224,697	14	8½	—	3,826,825	7	0½
3	9	3,345,190	17	6½	—	2,883,180	2	5½
4	1730	2,752,833	5	4	—	2,887,949	6	1½
5	1	2,784,705	3	0½	—	3,989,689	11	10½
6	2	3,004,926	13	11	—	3,269,000	0	0
7	3	3,870,230	17	4½	—	3,380,565	6	10
8	4	3,150,452	4	7½	—	3,269,000	0	0
9	5	3,225,903	15	9½	—	3,769,000	0	0½
10	6	3,025,172	9	0½	—	2,908,506	9	9½
11	7	3,444,246	0	6	—			
12	8	2,633,323	9	8½	—			

The distinct years of the supply continued on the other side.

The distinct years of supply continued from the other side.

		l.	s.	d.		l.	s.	d.
13	Geo. II.	9	—	3,874,076	3	7½	—	4,097,831
14		1740	—	5,017,651	5	0	—	5,039,102
15		1	—	5,723,537	12	1½	—	6,188,065
16		2	—	5,912,483	12	3	—	6,119,157
17		3	—	6,283,537	14	0¼	—	6,624,065
18		4	—	6,462,902	3	9½	—	6,609,310
19		5	—	7,083,353	10	10	—	7,303,065
20		6	—	9,402,978	9	5	—	9,400,574
21		7	—	10,059,104	8	4½	—	10,088,065
22		8	—	8,082,409	1	7½	—	8,018,007
23		9	—	4,014,136	19	7½	—	4,313,710
24		1750	—	4,969,635	10	11¼	—	5,175,023
25		1	—	3,907,435	7	7	—	4,178,459
26		2	—	2,132,707	17	2½	—	2,422,911
27		3	—	2,797,916	10	2	—	3,077,897
28		4	—	4,073,779	11	6½	—	4,256,909
29		5	—	7,229,117	4	6¾	—	7,427,261
30		6	—	8,350,325	1	3	—	8,689,051
31		7	—	10,486,457	0	1	—	11,079,722
32		8	—	12,749,860	19	4½	—	12,991,240
33		9	—	15,503,564	15	9½	—	16,130,561
				347,491,970	13	6		356,089,320
								17 10

R E M A R K S.

We have here a miniature view of the immense sums of money that have been raised in this nation, from the year 1688 to the end of the reign of king George II. 1759; to support the four great wars, from the reign of king William to the end of the reign of Geo. II.; but to the conclusion of the settlement of the peace in the year 1763, the expence of the last war cost the nation above 50 millions more than the above total; and we have reason to be too sensible of the prodigious weight of our PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, with which the kingdom is at present oppressed, BY SUFFERING THE ANNUAL EXPENCE TO EXCEED THE ANNUAL REVENUE.

When an increase in the ANNUAL EXPENCE became necessary for securing and vindicating the honour and rights of the nation; had the ANNUAL REVENUE increased in proportion, we should have been at this time unincumbered with PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, for the payment of interest, and redemption of the PRINCIPAL DEBT.

Had the SUPPLIES been raised within the year, this would have been a constant check upon our annual expence; and we should not have been so wantonly profuse of the public treasure as we have been.

Though our commerce and navigation have been greatly enlarged and extended since the Revolution; and we have thereby been hitherto enabled to support the immense expence, under which we have laboured; yet, if effectual measures are not pursued to maintain and preserve our trade, we shall lose our great and essential support of the national fabric.

So great, at present, are our TAX-INCUMBRANCES in general, as to occasion our wares and commodities to come so dear to domestic purchasers, that it proves so great an encouragement to the SMUGGLING into the kingdom such prodigious quantities of French manufactures and commodities of almost every sort, that it will be impracticable, perhaps, for the wisest administration to prevent it; unless the great cause of TAX-INCUMBRANCES is effectually removed, and thereby our native manufactures and commodities are rendered as cheap as those of France.

Nor is the article of smuggling only likely to prove a great cause of unspeakable detriment and injury to our commerce, by reason of our great load of Tax-incumbrances upon it; but the multitude of our taxes occasion our manufactures and commodities in general to come so dear to foreign nations, that they are not able to purchase them, as they were wont heretofore; and therefore, instead thereof, they will import those of France, or any other nation whose commodities they stand in need of, that will come cheaper than those of England; and this will be a motive to foreigners to evade always the best COMMERCIAL TREATIES that can be made with foreign nations for the greater encouragement of our trade amongst them.

KING WILLIAM III.

Has a present aid granted, for the extraordinary occasions.—Raises money by a poll, towards the reducing of Ireland.—Has a grant of 1 s. in the pound on land, for one year.—Has the grant of an additional excise upon beer, &c.—An act for appropriating certain duties for paying the States-General, &c.—Has a grant of 2 s. in the pound on land, for one year.—Has an additional aid of 1 s. in the pound on land, for one year.—Passes an act for collecting the duties upon coffee, tea, and chocolate, at the Custom-House, at certain rates over and above what was before payable.—An act for raising money by a poll.—Has the grant of certain impositions upon beer, &c. for his and his queen's life.—Has the grant of tonnage and poundage for four years.—Has an aid granted of 1,651,702 l. 18 s.—Has a grant of certain impositions upon all East-India

goods, &c.—Passes an act for the continuance of several former acts therein mentioned, for laying several duties upon wines, vinegar, and tobacco.—Passes an act for encouraging the distilling of malt spirits, &c.—Has a grant of several additional duties of excise upon beer, &c.—Has a grant of certain impositions upon beer, &c.—Has an aid of 1,651,702 l. 18 s.—Passes an act for raising money by a poll, for one year.—Has a grant of 2 s. in the pound on land, for one year.—Has a grant of certain additional impositions on several goods and merchandizes, &c.—Passes an act for continuing certain bills therein mentioned, and for charging several joint stocks.—Has a grant of 4 s. in the pound for one year.—Has a grant of certain duties upon salt, beer, &c.—An act for raising money by the poll for one year.—Has a grant of several duties upon tonnage and poundage, and upon beer, &c.—Has a grant of several duties upon vellum, parchment, and paper, for four years.—Passes an act for licensing and regulating hackney-coaches and stage-coaches.—Has the grant of tonnage and poundage for five years.—Has a grant of 4 s. in the pound, &c.—Has a grant of certain rates and duties upon marriages, births, and burials, &c. for five years.—Has a grant of several additional duties upon coffee, tea, &c.—Has a grant for certain duties upon glass wares, stone and earthen bottles, coals and culm.—Has a grant of 4 s. in the pound for one year.—An act for continuing several duties granted by former acts upon wine, vinegar, &c.—Has a grant of several rates, or duties upon houses, for making good the deficiency of clipping money.—An additional duty upon all French goods and merchandize.—An act for laying several duties upon low wines, or spirits of the first extraction.—An act for continuing certain duties upon salt, glass wares, &c.—Has a grant of several duties upon vellum, paper, &c.—An act for continuing certain additional impositions upon several goods and merchandizes.—An act for making good the deficiencies of several funds therein mentioned, &c.—Has the grant of a duty upon leather for three years.—Has the grant of certain duties upon malt, mum, sweets, cyder, perry, &c.—Has the grant of a farther subsidy of tonnage and poundage, for two years three-quarters; and an additional land-tax for one year.—An act to licence hawkers and pedlars, &c.—An aid granted by a land-tax, and several subsidies, &c.—Has a grant of l. 1,484,015 : 1 : 11¾, for disbanding forces, &c.—Has a grant of several duties upon coals and culm.—A grant of a farther subsidy of tonnage and poundage, during life.—Has a grant to himself, his heirs and successors, of farther duties upon stamped vellum, &c.—An act for increasing the duties upon lustrings and alamodes.—An aid by a quarterly poll.—An act for raising a sum not exceeding 200,000 l. &c.—An aid for disbanding the army, of l. 1,484,015 : 1 : 11¾.—An act for laying farther duties upon sweets, &c.—An aid granted by sale of the forfeited estates in Ireland, and by a land-tax.—An act for laying farther duties upon wrought silks, muslins, &c.—An aid for defraying the expence of the navy, &c. for one year.—Has several duties granted him upon low wines, &c. and several additional duties continued upon coffee and tea, &c.—An act for appropriating 3,700 l. weekly, out of certain branches of the excise, for public uses, &c.—An aid by duties upon malt, mum, &c.

R E M A R K S.

The silver monies of king William and queen Mary were the same as those of king James, crowns, half-crowns, shillings, half-shillings, groats, and pieces of three pennies, two pennies, and one penny.

The old hammered silver money, which was still current, though it had been long complained of, on account of its being diminished, by the infamous practice of rounding and clipping, was about this time come to such a state, and the ill condition of it increased so fast, that there was an absolute necessity for the putting an effectual stop to an evil, which rendered all trade and dealing between man and man precarious, and at last threatened no less than the total destruction of all our silver coin.

The King accordingly, in his speech to the Parliament, on the 22d day of November, 1695, took notice of this calamity, and recommended it to the consideration of both Houses, 'as a matter of the most general concern, and the greatest importance.' The Lords, on the 5th day of the following December, resolved upon an address to his Majesty, 'desiring him to issue out his proclamation, That from such a day, or days, as he shall think fit, no clipped money of any sort shall pass in payment as the current coin of this kingdom.' And the Commons, on the 10th of the same month, came to the following resolutions:

'That the most effectual way to put a stop to the mischief which the nation suffered by the currency of clipped money, was to recoin the same: and, therefore, that all clipped money should be recoin'd, according to the established standard of the Mint, both as to weight and fineness. That the loss of such clipped money as was silver, and coined at the lawful mint of this kingdom, should be borne by the public.'

'That

‘ That a day or days should be appointed, after which no clipped crowns or half crowns, should be allowed in payment, or to pass, except only to the collectors and receivers of his Majesty’s revenues and taxes, or upon loans or payments into the Exchequer.
 ‘ That a day or days should be appointed, after which no clipped crowns or half-crowns should pass in any payment whatsoever.
 ‘ That all such crowns and half-crowns, as they came into his Majesty’s receipt, should be recoined into milled money.
 ‘ That a day or days should be appointed, after which no money clipped within the ring should be allowed in payment, or to pass, except only to the collectors and receivers of his Majesty’s revenues and taxes, or upon loans or payments into the Exchequer.
 ‘ That a day or days should be appointed, after which no money clipped within the ring should pass in any payment whatsoever.
 ‘ That a day or days should be appointed for all persons to bring in their clipped money, to be recoined into milled; after which no recompence should be made for the same.
 ‘ That a fund or funds should be settled, for supplying the deficiency of the clipped money.’

And an address being presented, in consequence of these resolutions, his Majesty did, by a proclamation of the 19th of the same month, reciting the before-mentioned addresses of the two houses, ‘ command, that after the first of January then next ensuing, no clipped crowns or half-crowns should pass in any payment, except to his Majesty’s collectors and receivers, &c. nor after the 3d of February, in any payment whatsoever, within London, or 40 miles thereof; nor after the 22d of February, in any other part of the kingdom; and that after the 13th of February, no shilling clipped within the ring should pass in any payment, except to his Majesty’s collectors, &c. nor after the 2d day of March in any payment whatsoever. And after that the said 2d day of March, no other money clipped within the ring should pass, except to his Majesty’s collectors, &c. nor after the 2d day of April, in any payment whatsoever.’ And by another proclamation, of the 4th day of January, in the same year 1695, reciting the former, and an address of the commons in parliament assembled, the receivers and collectors of his Majesty’s taxes and revenues were ‘ strictly charged and commanded, that, until the said several days mentioned in the last proclamation, they should receive in payment all clipped money of the several denominations therein mentioned, that were of standard silver.’

AN ABSTRACT of the ACCOUNTS of the GREAT RE-COINAGE in KING WILLIAM’S REIGN.

Of the silver coined in the Tower of London from the 30th day of September, 1695, to the 31st day of December, 1699, there was, in 12 general remains of clipped hammered silver monies, taken in by the lords of the Treasury, melted at Westminster into 10,933 ingots, and then sent to the Mint, the weight of	lb.	oz.	dwt.	gr.
There was likewise of hammered money and wrought plate imported into the Mint, and there melted, the weight of	790,860	1	19	8
The hammered money and wrought plate imported into the five country mints, made in weight,	696,971	0	16	19
At Bristol	146,977	0	0	0
At Chester	101,660	0	0	0
At Exeter	147,296	0	0	0
At Norwich	83,040	0	0	0
At York	99,023	0	0	0
The total of the hammered and clipped silver mon. and of the wrought plate imported, amounted to the weight of	2065,827	2	16	3
Which makes, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound-weight, the sum of 6,404,064 l. 8 s. 6 d. but which being coined somewhat lighter, though within the remedy allowed, produced really in tale the sum of	6,435,039	14	9	1
There was coined in the Tower of London, during the joint reign of king William and queen Mary; that is to say, from the 14th day of February, 1688, to the 28th day of December, 1694.				
In crown gold, the weight of 9,962 lb. 8 oz. 14 grs. making in money, at 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the value of	443,338	15	6	

Brought over	l.	s.	d.
In sterling silver, during the same time, the weight of 25,492 lb. 4 oz. 18 dwts. 8 grs. making in money, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of	443,338	15	6
	79,026	9	4

Total value of all the money, both gold and silver, coined during the joint reign of king William and queen Mary	522,365	4	10
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There was coined, during the remaining part of the reign of king William, after the queen’s death, in crown gold of the Tower of London, from the 29th day of February, 1694, to the 8th day of March, 1701, the weight of 66,866 lb. 3 oz. 14 dwts. 11 grs. making in money, at the aforesaid rate of 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the value of	2,975,550	16	1
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In sterling silver, during the same time, in the Tower, the wt. of 1,684,600 lb. 19 dwts. 6 grs. and in the five country mints, the weight of 577,996 lb. making together the weight of 2,262,596 lb. 19 dwts. 6 grs. and which produced in money, at the aforesaid rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of	7,014,047	16	11
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Total value of all monies, both of gold and silver, coined from the decease of queen Mary to the decease of the king	9,989,598	13	1
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And the whole value of all the said monies coined from the king’s accession to his death, amounted to the sum of	10,511,963	17	11
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QUEEN ANNE

Passes an act for the better support of her household, and of the honour and dignity of the crown.—An act for making good deficiencies, and preserving public credit.—An aid by divers subsidies, and a land-tax.—Has 4 s. in the pound granted upon land.—Has a supply granted to her by several duties upon malt, mum, cyder, and perry.—An act for continuing the duties upon coals, &c.—An aid by sale of several annuities at the Exchequer.—Has several subsidies granted for carrying on the war against France and Spain.—Has 4 s. in the pound granted upon land.—An aid by continuing the duties upon malt, mum, &c.—An aid for carrying on the war, &c. by selling annuities at several rates.—An additional subsidy of tonnage and poundage, for three years.—Has 4 s. in the pound again granted upon land.—Passes an act for raising monies by the sale of several annuities, for carrying on the war.—Continues the duties upon malt, mum, &c. for one year.—Continues the duties upon low wines, and upon coffee, tea, &c.—Has a farther subsidy granted upon wines and merchandizes imported.—Has 4 s. in the pound again upon land.—Continues the duties again upon malt, mum, &c.—An additional subsidy of tonnage and poundage continued, &c.—Passes an act for laying farther duties on low wines, &c.—Has 4 s. in the pound again granted upon land.—Passes an act for continuing the duties upon malt, &c.—Passes an act for continuing the duties upon houses, &c.—An act for continuing the duties on low wines, &c.—An act for continuing several subsidies, impositions, and duties, and for making the provisions therein mentioned, to raise money by way of loan, for the service of the war, &c.—Has 4 s. in the pound again upon land.—Has the duties on malt, mum, &c. continued.—Passes an act for raising a further supply by sale of annuities, charged on a fund, not exceeding 40,000 l. per annum.—An act for continuing half the tonnage, poundage, and other duties on goods imported, &c.—Act for continuing the half subsidies therein-mentioned, viz. on wine, vinegar, tobacco, &c.—Likewise the duties upon coffee, chocolate, spices, &c.—Has 4 s. in the pound again upon land.—Has the duties on malt, &c. again continued.—Has the imposition on tobacco, India goods, &c. continued.—Has 4 s. in the pound again upon land.—Duties on malt, &c. continued.—Duties on coals, &c. continued, and new duties on houses.—New duties of excise, and upon several commodities, granted.—An act for laying certain duties upon candles, and certain rates upon monies given with clerks and apprentices.—Has several duties, impositions, and additional taxes continued on wine, vinegar, tobacco, &c.—Has 4 s. in the pound still upon land.—Duties on malt, &c. again continued.—An act for reviving, continuing, and appropriating certain duties on several commodities to be exported, &c.—Passes an act for establishing a general post-office, &c.—Passes an act for laying certain duties upon hides, skins, &c. for 32 years.—Passes an act

act for laying a duty upon hops.—An act for making good deficiencies, and satisfying the public debts, &c.—Passes an act for duties upon coals, for building fifty new churches.—An act for licensing and regulating hackney coaches and chairs, &c.—Has 4s. in the pound still upon land.—Duties upon malt, &c. again continued.—An act for laying several duties upon all soap and paper made in Great-Britain, or imported, &c.—An act for laying additional duties on hides and skins, &c.—Has the whole taxes continued as in other years anno 1712, amounting to 6,656,967 l.—In the next year has 4s. in the pound again upon land.—Duties upon malt, &c. again continued.—Passes an act to raise 1,200,000 l. for public uses, by circulating a farther sum in Exchequer bills, &c.—Has 4s. in the pound again upon land.—Duties upon malt, &c. continued.—Passes an act for laying additional duties on soap, paper, and upon certain linens, &c.

R E M A R K S.

Queen Anne coined of silver the same monies and of the same form as those of king William; excepting that the arms of Nassau in the center of the four larger pieces were now omitted, and that in their room the garter star was again replaced. In the year 1707, the union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland being completed, and taking place on the first day of May, there was thereupon an alteration made in the royal arms, as represented on the money: England and Scotland being from that time impaled together in the first and third of the four crowned shields, in the second of which France was now placed, and Ireland in the fourth. All the old silver money of Scotland was also upon the same occasion recoined into money of Great-Britain, exactly the same as that coined in England, and only distinguishable from it by the letter E. for Edinburgh, stamped upon all the pieces under her Majesty's head.

There was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of queen Anne, that is to say, from the 9th day of March 1701, to the 1st day of August 1714,

In crown gold, the weight of 55,832 lb.	1.	s.	d.
2 oz. making in money at the rate of	2,484,531	8	4
44 l. 10s. the pound weight, the value of			

And in sterling silver, the weight of 66,804 lb. 9 oz. 15 dwts. which produced in money, at the rate of 3 l. 2s. the pound weight, the sum of	207,094	18	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
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Total value of both sorts	2,691,626	6	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
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It may be noted, that it appears by the particulars of the accounts from which the foregoing extract was taken, that in the years 1709 and 1711, during which the greatest coinages of silver were made in this reign, there was coined out of wrought plate brought in upon encouragement, the weight of 46,156 lb. 11 oz. 2 dwts. 3 gr. making in value about 144,000 l. sterling; which was more than two thirds of all the silver coined in the Tower, from her Majesty's accession to her decease.

But there was further coined in this reign at Edinburgh upon the Union, and by the English monies sent down thither, the weight of 103,346 lb. making in tale, at the aforesaid rate of 3 l. 2s. the pound weight, the sum of 320,372 l. 12s. sterling money; all which was of their first coinage, in the year 1707, or the very beginning of 1708. Besides which, there was again a second coinage soon after, and before the end of the last mentioned year 1708, when some silver that could not conveniently be minted before, was also like the other, converted into current money of Great-Britain: but of this last coinage we have met with no particular account.

When the war begun in this reign, nothing could be more menacing than our prospects. The house of Bourbon despising all treaties, and, as usual, the most solemn engagement, by seizing territories more extensive and considerable, than were ever gained by the most rapid conquests. All the powers of Europe were interested to oppose a monarch thus prepared for their destruction. No period of time afforded men more eminent for wisdom and abilities, and more distinguished by successes equal to their merit. Had not this been the case, notwithstanding the stand that king William made against France, Europe must still have submitted to an universal monarchy, which would not have indured any remains of civil or religious liberty.

In confederacies, wherein there are a variety of opposite interests, misfortunes are inevitable. Notwithstanding the several escapes of the enemy, the duke of Marlborough's progress, and the damages the French sustained elsewhere, reduced them to a state of distress and terror: notwithstanding their frontiers were impaired to such a degree, that we gained a secure admission into the defenceless parts of France, had his queen and country supported this great captain; yet we lost by the event every benefit which such advantages would have produced. For the queen unhappily exchanging the able, honest, and successful, for those whose management proved them the reverse, was the cause of our then not duly humbling the perfidious nation of France, who are eternally disturbing the happiness of man-

kind. No one of our monarchs ever had greater advantages of doing lasting good both at home and abroad, nor any reign been distinguished with such glorious and important events. Germany saved from destruction; the imperial crown preserved on the head of our ally; Flanders subdued; the exorbitant power of France reduced; the union of England and Scotland obtained, are events which will be had in everlasting remembrance. But by a dishonourable peace, how fruitless were these important events rendered? How soon again was the power of France restored to a condition of injuring, oppressing, and terrifying the world? And has not the power of this restless nation been daily aggrandized since this period? And do we not now experience the effect of it? And nothing, perhaps, but the queen's sudden removal, prevented the execution of those schemes in favour of a Popish pretender, which the peace-makers had laid.

KING GEORGE I.

Passes an act for the better support of his household, &c.—An act for rectifying mistakes in the names of the commissioners for the land-tax for the year 1714, &c.—Has an aid by the land-tax for the year 1715.—The duties on malt, &c. continued as in the former reign.—Passes an act for enlarging the fund of the governor and company of the Bank of England, relating to Exchequer bills, &c.—An act for raising 910,000 l. for public services, by sale of annuities, &c.—Passes an act for enlarging the capital stock and yearly fund of the South Sea company, &c.—Has the land-tax continued for the years 1715 and 1716.—Duties on malt, &c. again continued.—Passes an act to continue duties for encouraging of the coinage of money, &c.—An act for appointing commissioners to enquire into the estates of certain traitors, and of Popish recusants, and of estates given to superstitious uses, in order to raise money out of them severally for the use of the public.—The land-tax act passed again.—Duties on malt, &c. continued again.—Passes an act for redeeming the duties and revenues, &c.—An act for redeeming several funds of the governor and company of the Bank of England, &c.—An act for redeeming the yearly fund of the South Sea company, &c.—The land-tax continued.—Duties on malt, &c. continued. Land-tax again continued.—As also duties on malt, &c. Passes an act for applying certain overplus monies, and farther sums to be raised, &c.—An act for continuing certain duties upon coals and culm, &c.—An act for redeeming the fund appropriated for payment of the lottery tickets, made forth for the service of the year 1718, &c.—Land-tax again continued.—Duties on malt, &c. continued.—Passes an act for enabling the South Sea company to increase their capital stock and fund, &c.—An act for making forth new Exchequer bills, not exceeding 1,000,000 l. at a certain interest.—Passes an act for laying a duty upon wrought plate, &c.—Land-tax again continued.—An act for continuing the duties on malt, &c.—An act for raising a sum not exceeding 500,000 l.—Land-tax continued.—Duties on malt, &c. continued.—Passes an act for paying off, and cancelling 1,000,000 l. of Exchequer bills, &c.—An act for reviving and adding 2,000,000 l. to the capital stock of the South Sea company, &c.—An act for reducing certain annuities, &c.—Passes an act for the more easy assigning or transferring certain redeemable annuities, &c.—An act for granting an aid to the crown, by laying a tax upon Papists, &c.—Passes an act to continue the duties for the encouragement of the coinage of money, &c.—Has an aid granted by a land-tax.—An act for continuing the duties on malt, &c.—An act for repealing certain duties, payable upon coffee, tea, &c. and for paying certain inland duties in lieu of them.—Has an aid again by a land-tax.—An act for rating unrated goods, &c.—An act for continuing the duties on malt, &c.—An act for continuing several annuities to the Bank, 'till Midsummer 1727, &c.—An act for redeeming certain annuities, charged on the civil-list revenues, &c.—An act for the more effectual preventing frauds and abuses in the public revenues, &c.—The land-tax continued.—Has one million granted him, to be raised by a lottery.—The duty on malt, &c. continued.—Has an aid by laying a duty on the victuallers in London and Westminster, &c.—Passes an act for repealing the duties laid on snuff, &c.—An act for laying an imposition of two pence Scots, upon all ale and beer, brewed and sold in the city of Glasgow.—Passes an act for the improvement of the revenues, &c.—Has an aid granted him by a land-tax.—An act for redeeming certain annuities transferrable at the Bank, &c.—The duty on malt, &c. continued.—Passes an act for granting the sum of 370,000 l. to the crown, &c.—Passes an act for the sale of such of the forfeited estates in Scotland as remain unfold, and are vested in the crown.

R E M A R K S.

The silver monies of king George the 1st were the same as those of queen Anne, and of the same form, excepting that his head was again adorned with laurel, like those of his predecessors, king Charles II. king James II. and king Wil-

liam; and that upon the reverse of the crowns, half crowns, shillings, and half shillings, the arms of Brunswic Lunenburg, &c. used by his Majesty as Elector, were placed in the last of the four crowned shields, the third of which was now given to Ireland.

There was coined in the Tower of London during the reign of king George I. that is to say, from the 2d day of August 1714, to the 11th day of June 1727,

In crown gold, the weight of 184,763 lb. which, computed at 46 l. 14 s. 6 d. the pound weight, guineas having been settled and made current at 21 s. each, by his Majesty's proclamation of the 22d of December 1717, and being therefore no longer esteemed as pieces of 20 s. but of 21 s. each, in the mint, produced after that rate in money, the value of	1.	s.	d.
	8,492,876	3	6
In sterl. silver, the weight of 75,176 lb. making in money, at the rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of	233,045	12	0

And the total value both of the gold and silver amounted to 8,725,921 15 6

Note, It may be observed, that in the year 1718, and then only, there were coined some quarter guineas: when the weight of 110 lb. in gold was converted into such pieces, of which it consequently produced about 19,580 in tale.

As some natural necessities or disadvantages may be thought favourable to industry, so some have argued that artificial burthens may have the same effect. Sir William Temple * ascribes the industry of the Dutch entirely to the necessity, proceeding from their natural disadvantages; and illustrates his doctrine by a very striking comparison with Ireland, where (says he) by the largeness and plenty of the soil, and scarcity of people, all things necessary to life are so cheap, that an industrious man, by two days labour, may gain enough to feed him the rest of the week: which I take to be a very plain ground of the laziness attributed to the people. For men naturally prefer ease before labour, and will not take pains, if they can live idle; though when, by necessity, they have been enured to it, they cannot leave it, being grown a custom necessary to their health and to their very entertainment: nor perhaps is the change harder, from constant ease to labour, than from constant labour to ease. After which the author proceeds to confirm his doctrine, by enumerating, as above, the places where trade has most flourished, in ancient and modern times; and which are commonly observed to be in such narrow confined territories, as beget a necessity for industry.

* Account of the Netherlands, chap. 6.

It is always observed in years of scarcity, if it be not extreme, that the poor labour more, and really live better, than in years of great plenty, when they indulge themselves in idleness and riot.

This doctrine therefore, considered as has been done with regard to taxes, may be admitted in some degrees; but beware of the abuse. Taxes, like necessity, when carried too far, destroy industry, by engendering despair; and even before they reach this pitch, THEY RAISE THE WAGES OF THE LABOURER AND MANUFACTURER, AND HEIGHTEN THE PRICE OF ALL COMMODITIES. [For proof of which, see our articles LABOUR, DUTIES.] An attentive disinterested legislature will observe the point, when the EMOLUMENT CEASES, AND THE PREJUDICE BEGINS: but as the contrary character is much more common, it is to be feared, that the taxes of England are multiplied to a degree that will prove highly detrimental to art and industry: and therefore the contenders for more and more taxes, upon trade, are enemies to our commerce and navigation: were they as zealous for the reduction, or the annihilation of many of those we already have, they would shew themselves advocates for the prosperity of the nation.

REMARKS on the state of TRADE and LIBERTY since the REVOLUTION in 1688.

Upon king William's coming to the crown of these kingdoms, early application was made to him for several regulations tending to the encouragement of trade, and for establishing a great many useful manufactories among us, which had been kept under by France and others, underselling the manufactures made at home. This great prince was ever ready to hear all proposals made upon that occasion, and gave his utmost countenance to all such undertakings; but by the fondness of the nation to French commodities so much countenanced by king Charles and king James, it was no easy matter to bring the people into a due regard for those made at home. However, upon breaking out of the war with France in this reign, and prohibiting French commodities, encouragement was given for erecting several of these manufactories here, as the lustring, alamode, and other silk manufactories for hoods

and scarves, which the king's royal consort, the excellent queen Mary, took no small pains to establish; for which articles alone, it is allowed, France drew from us above FOUR HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS YEARLY. For the saving of which to the nation, we were indebted to the happy æra of the Revolution, which not only preserved us from the tyranny of Popery, but proved the salvation of our trade.

At the same time the manufacture of glass was established, which before we used to have from France, and also that of hats and paper. The manufacture of linen was likewise settled in several parts of the kingdom, particularly in Somersetshire, and Dorsetshire, where they made extraordinary good linen, in imitation of France; and which so increased, that in a few years it was computed, in a district of about ten miles square, they made to the value of one hundred thousand pounds worth annually. But upon the peace with France, there were so many linens run into the west, that it put that manufacture under great discouragement. At this glorious period also the manufactures of copper and brass were set on foot, which are brought to great perfection, and now in a great measure supply the nation with copper, kettles, and all sorts of copper and brass ware, which has saved the nation immense sums since that time. The making of fail-cloth, likewise, was begun and carried on to great perfection; also sword-blades, scissars, and a great many toys made of steel, which formerly we used to have from France; in the manufacturing of which, it is said, we now excel all other nations, and not only save those great sums we expended in France, but by means hereof bring in some hundred thousand pounds a year, by our Birmingham and Sheffield manufactories. The settling of salt-works, and improving of salt-springs and rock-salt, hath proved very beneficial here, and saves a very great treasure yearly, which also we heretofore paid to France for salt; and a great variety of other particulars, which have proved of unspeakable benefit to the trade of this nation; and therefore, those who are true friends to our commerce, cannot be enemies to this happy revolution.

The measures we have mentioned to have been taken in the reign of king William III, in regard to the coin of the kingdom at that time, had all the happy effects that could be expected, in relation both to trade and the public credit: for thereby the greatest part of the loss by the recoinage was thrown immediately upon the king, though it was afterwards made good to him by a tax; hereby the loss was as well divided and equally spread, as could well have been contrived. When the ill condition of the money, and the necessity of recoinage, was first taken into consideration, some were for changing the nominal values of the pieces, as if they had thought such new nominal values would really give to those pieces a different and a greater worth than that which they had before. Among these was William Lowndes, Esq; who, in an otherwise very useful book, intitled, A Report, containing an Essay for the amendment of Silver Coins, presented to the lords commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, on the 12th day of September 1695, advanced this scheme; particularly proposing, that the piece of silver of the same goodness and weight as the undiminished crown-piece, should, for the time to come, be current for six shillings and three pennies. But this was fully answered by the judicious John Locke, Esq; in his further considerations concerning raising the value of money; in which, as well as in his former tract on the same subject, and that of the lowering of interest, he has treated of this affair, and of every thing that had relation to it, in so clear, so strong, and so masterly a manner, as to carry conviction in every page, and to leave nothing to be afterwards added, by such as should again attempt to reconsider the same matters.

And now that we have mentioned these two last pieces, we cannot but take notice also of an excellent discourse published a little before by the reverend and learned Dr William Fleetwood, afterwards lord bishop of Ely: I mean his sermon against clipping, preached before the lord mayor, &c. at Guildhall chapel, on Sunday the 16th of December, 1694, upon this text of Gen. xxiii, 16. 'And Abraham weighed to Ephron the silver which he had named, in the audience of the sons of Heth, four hundred shekels of silver, current money with the merchant.' In which he with great judgment set before his audience the nature and consequences of this pernicious practice; boldly inferred, from the vast increase of it within a few years, that the avarice of greater and richer men than such as commonly suffered for it, must have been concerned in it; and wisely foresaw the calamities that must ensue, if the most prudent and considerate steps were not taken, in the applying of a remedy to so great an evil. 'Who can tell, said he, whether every single person must not bear his own burthen, and stand to the loss of all that is wanting of due weight, of all the money he is master of? And if he must, the cry will be like that of Egypt, loud and universal; for every family will be a loser: but it will fall severest upon the poor, who from a little can spare none.'

This prince greatly increased the royal navy.

These are a few of the great things that were done in the reign of king William III, for the interest of trade and the public

T A X

public credit, and which ought never to be forgot by all true Britons.

This great prince had just views of the horrid consequences of the unrestrained progress of the power of France. With great integrity and vigour, therefore, he made it the business of his life to oppose all its mischievous motions; nor did he grow weary in the glorious toil. He had an enemy who was ever well prepared and provided, while he was often embarrassed and disappointed, and rarely attended with triumphant success: however, the preservation of Europe from absolute subjection may justly be ascribed to his arduous endeavours. He knew in what a scandalous and mercenary manner his two predecessors had surrendered themselves to the will and pleasure of the enemy, nor was he ignorant of the weak and corrupt condition of many other states. As he proved himself a friend to the liberties of Europe, and preserved its free states from being the oppressed provinces of an universal monarchy, so equally sincere was his zeal for the religious rights of mankind: he had a just detestation of Popish tyranny and usurpation on conscience. In his days, and by his means, the firm and consistent foundations were laid of what is truly valuable in civil or religious affairs. Before his time, avowing the rights of mankind was criminal and disgraceful: as they had power and opportunity, the several parties of Christians oppressed each other. To him we owe the asserting and securing our most important immunities and privileges; and to him the intellectual world is indebted for the full freedom of debating all subjects, and for avowing and defending their sentiments with decency.

His last work completed his good designs, for conveying to us the great and invaluable blessing of the Protestant succession. Had he been cut off in any of the periods of his glorious struggle for the happiness of this nation, and the welfare of all Europe, the miseries and mischiefs which must naturally have followed, would surely have equalled all the suggestions of the most melancholy imagination. But the unthinking part of the world, because wholly delivered from the greatest of calamities, have not been, nor ever will, perhaps, be duly sensible.

Queen Anne's ministry, upon the treaty of Utrecht, too readily granted the French liberty to fish upon the very best fisheries on the north coast of Newfoundland, and there to build stages to dry them. They also granted them CAPE BRETON, WHICH IS SAID TO BE THE VERY BEST SPOT IN ALL THOSE SEAS FOR FISHING. Thus we see the French, by their great penetration and knowledge in the affairs of commerce, have gained from us a treasure equal to a mine of gold; and by means of the Newfoundland fishery, they have raised their naval power to the height we now experience it. See our article BRITISH AMERICA, where this matter is put in a full light. In short, notwithstanding the success of our arms in this reign, yet most of the advantages we gained in king William's time, in point of trade, were in a great measure lost, by the treaty of UTRECHT. And these advantages the French have not neglected to improve from that period of time; and the effects of their power, in consequence hereof, we have now reason to dread, unless our naval strength is so effectually exerted, as to break their measures at present, and to disable them ever after from destroying the commerce and the liberties of Great Britain; which may now be said to be the only BARRIER that all EUROPE has left, to withstand the torrent of French and Spanish tyranny and oppression. The confused state of the nation at the accession of his late Majesty KING GEORGE to the crown of these kingdoms, is well enough known, as are the several rebellions that were raised to dethrone him, in favour of the Pretender. Notwithstanding all which, we find this our great monarch not only triumphant in his arms, but even careful in promoting the interest of our commerce, at a time when it could have been the least expected. The first remarkable particular that we meet with in relation to this important point, is

A CONVENTION made at LONDON, July 26, O. S. 1715, relating to the DUTIES laid on BRITISH WOOLLEN CLOTHS exported to the AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

His Britannic Majesty's ministers having complained that the commerce of his said Britannic Majesty with the Austrian Netherlands is very much prejudiced by the high duties of importation laid upon the coarse woollen cloths sent from Great-Britain to the said Austrian Netherlands, the under-written minister and plenipotentiary of his imperial and Catholic Majesty for the treaty of barrier [see the article NETHERLANDS] at Antwerp, declares by these presents, that his Imperial Catholic Majesty will consent to the immediate reducing of the duties on the said coarse woollen cloths, according to the following specification: and that, in all other respects, the commerce of the subjects of his Britannic Majesty with the Austrian Netherlands shall remain, continue, and subsist, wholly on the same foot as it does at present, without any alteration, innovation, diminution, or augmentation to be made, under any pretext

T A X

whatsoever, till all the parties interested shall agree upon a treaty of commerce.

DYED WOOLLEN CLOTHS.

	Fl.	Sols.
A piece of the value of above 60 florins, up to 90	3	10
A piece of the value of above 40 florins, up to 60	2	0
A piece of the value of 40 florins, and under	1	0

MIXED WOOLLEN CLOTHS.

A piece of the value of above 60 florins, up to 90	2	10
A piece of the value of above 40 florins, up to 60	1	10
A piece of the value of 40 florins, and under	1	0

WHITE WOOLLEN CLOTHS.

A piece of the value of above 60 florins, up to 90	2	10
A piece of the value of above 40 florins, up to 60	2	0
A piece of the value of 40 florins, and under	1	0
Draps de pié (cloth to lie upon floors) of all sorts, the piece	0	8

Requisition made to the council of state at Brussels, the 6th of November, 1715.

It being absolutely necessary for the service of his Imperial and Catholic Majesty to lessen immediately the duties of importation on coarse woollen cloths coming from Great-Britain and the United Provinces, on the following foot,

WOOLLEN CLOTHS DYED.

	Fl.	Sols.
A piece of the value of above 60 florins, up to 90	3	10
From 40 to 60	2	0
Of 40 and under	1	0

MIXED.

A piece of the value of 60 florins, and so up to 90	2	10
From 40 to 60	1	10
Of 40 and under	1	10

WHITE.

	Fl.	Sols.
A piece of the value of 60 florins, and so up to 90	2	10
From 40 to 60	2	0
Of 40 and under	1	0
Draps de pié (cloth to lie upon floors) of all sorts, the piece	0	8

And to reduce the duties of importation on brandies distilled from corn coming from Great-Britain and the United Provinces, to three florins the aum, instead of eight, which is now paid, you are required, gentlemen, to give forthwith the necessary directions in the finances, that the proper orders may be immediately issued for this purpose, and that the collectors of the duties of importation and exportation may conform themselves accordingly thereto. Done at the conference at Brussels, this 6th of November, 1715.

A copy of the resolution of the council of state, minuted in the margin of consultation of the council of the finances the 7th of November, 1715.

Having made our representation to the ministers of the conference, conformably to this consultation, and added also other reasons to enforce it, they have newly made this day another more pressing requisition to us, by which they insist absolutely that the former be put in execution, whereupon the council of the finances shall issue the orders therein specified; but it is understood that they shall not have force nor effect, unless they be approved and ratified by his Imperial and Catholic Majesty in the treaty of barrier: this last clause, however, which begins with the words, 'It is understood,' and ends with the words, 'In the treaty of barrier,' shall not be inserted in the orders to be sent to the collectors.

Order of the council of finances to the collectors of the duties.

The counsellors and commissioners of the demesnes and finances of his Imperial and Catholic Majesty. Most dear and special friends, we herewith send you, with express orders of the council of state appointed for the general government of these countries, a copy of the requisition made to them by the ministers of the conference, relating to the lessening of the duties of importation on the coarse woollen cloth coming from Great-Britain and from the United Provinces, as also for reducing the said duties on brandies distilled from corn; commanding you, by express order of the said council of state, to take care to regulate yourselves pursuant thereto, in collecting the said duties,

duties, and to give notice of it to your subalterns. Most dear and special friends, God have you in his holy keeping. Brussels, at the council of the said finances, the 12th of November, 1715.

To the collectors of the duties of importation and exportation at

Newport,	Fort St Philip,
Ostend,	Borgerhout,
Bruges,	Mechlen,
Ghent,	Turnhout,
Dendermonde,	Tirlemont.

Extract from the tariff settled the 14th of November, 1715.

N. B. A difficulty having arisen about the intention of the requisition of the 6th of November, 1715, of which mention is made in the 26th article of the treaty of barrier, it is agreed provisionally, to cause the duties of importation on all the different sorts comprehended in the above tariff under the denomination of woollen cloths, to be collected according to the tenor of the said requisition of the 6th of November, 'till his Imperial and Catholic Majesty, and his Majesty the king of Great-Britain, shall agree upon it otherwise; and, in the mean while, the king's collectors and officers shall permit the said manufactures to be imported, giving notice, and taking security for the payment of the overplus duties of importation, on the foot the same shall be settled.

A letter from the Imperial envoy, count Volkra, to the lord viscount Townshend, principal secretary of state.

My Lord,

You have acquainted me that complaints are made of contraventions to the 26th article of the treaty of barrier, and I have had the honour to communicate to you what count Konigssegg has answered thereupon.

I can declare to you besides, that, for the future, there will be an exact performance of the said 26th article of the treaty of barrier, of the 15th of November, 1715, and of the convention at London, of the 26th of July, 1715, as also of the declaration in the tariff of the 14th of November, 1715, that is to say, that the duties on the petite draperie (or woollen stuffs) of England, will be collected on the foot of the coarse woollen cloths, according to the diminution expressed in the aforesaid convention at London, without any alteration, 'till it be agreed otherwise between the emperor and the king, our masters; but, in the mean time, the merchants are to give security to pay the surplus, if the matter shall be so determined between the two respective courts.

London,
August $\frac{20}{31}$, 1716.

I am, &c.

The COUNT VOLKRA.

R E M A R K S.

In order to judge the better of the merits of this COMMERCIAL CONVENTION, see our remarks on the article ROYAL EXCHANGE.

The French king having evaded the execution of the 9th article of the treaty of Utrecht, about the demolition of Dunkirk, by making a new canal at Mardyke, the next step taken by this monarch, tending to the benefit of trade and navigation, was making strong remonstrances, by that able minister, John earl of Stair, in 1715, to the court of France, for the demolition of Dunkirk and Mardyke. The effects of which were, that, in 1717, Col. Armstrong, Mr Alworth, and Mr Lassels, were appointed commissioners to inspect the demolition of the works at Mardyke, pursuant to the treaty with the late regent of France.

Another great point gained by the court of England, in the year 1715, was the signing of the BARRIER TREATY at Antwerp, by the British, Imperial, and Dutch ministers.—For the importance whereof, see our REMARKS on the articles FLANDERS, HOLLAND, and NETHERLANDS.

In 1715, we find his Majesty was able to conclude a treaty of commerce between England and Spain; and how greatly that proved to the advantage of the commerce of this kingdom, and how greatly this, and the preceding convention, contributed to supply the defects of the Utrecht treaty, see our REMARKS on the article ROYAL EXCHANGE.

In Dec. 1717, it being found by experience that guineas, and other gold coin, being too high in value, thereby diminished our quantity of silver coin, and proved very detrimental to our trade, the king issued a proclamation, declaring, That guineas should be current at no more than 21 s. and half-guineas, double-guineas, &c. proportionably; that broad-pieces of 23 s. 6 d. should be reduced to 23 s.

and those of 25 s. 6 d. to 25 s. and smaller gold pieces in proportion. See the necessity and reasonableness hereof, and how beneficial this measure proved to our commerce, under our article COIN.

November 11, 1718, at the meeting of the parliament, the king, in his speech, acquaints the Commons, That he had concluded an alliance between the two greatest princes of Europe, wherein they bound themselves to support the succession to these kingdoms in his family. — That to vindicate the faith of his former treaties, as well as to maintain those which he had lately made, and to protect and defend the TRADE of his subjects, which had in every branch been violently and unjustly oppressed by the Spaniards, it became necessary for his NAVAL FORCES to check their progress — And that, instead of listening to his reasonable terms of accommodation, that court had lately given orders at all the ports of Spain, and of the West-Indies, to fit out privateers, and to take our ships, &c. — Accordingly the Commons approved the king's measures with regard to Spain, and raised men and money accordingly. — An order of council also is published, December the 3d, in the same year, for making general reprisals on the Spaniards, and letters of marque are granted against them. — See our articles REPRISALS, and MARQUE [LETTERS of MARQUE]. — Thus the naval power of Great-Britain being exerted to protect her commerce, Spain threatens us with the Pretender, and a squadron sails from Cadiz towards England, to carry on this design, under the conduct of the duke of Ormond; but was disabled from pursuing its course by a storm. — This was cardinal Alberoni's scheme.

December 22, N. S. A convention between the emperor, the king of Great-Britain, and the States-General, relating to the execution of certain articles of the barrier treaty, is signed at the Hague.

March 18, 1718-19. An embargo is laid on all ships outward bound: and a proclamation published, for encouraging his Majesty's ships of war and privateers to take prizes from the Spaniards, by ordering them to be distributed among the sailors. — In July 1719, the city of Messina surrenders to the Imperialists, and in the whole siege admiral Byng gave great assistance. After the surrender, he lands some English forces, who took the tower of Faro; and that opening a free passage for his ships, he came to an anchor in Paradise-road, and destroyed the Spanish men of war that lay there, which for a time ruined the naval power of Spain — Which they have now again recruited, and if not again destroyed, are likely, in concert with their dear allies the French, to make another attempt to ruin the commerce of these kingdoms, and play their Popish tool again upon Great-Britain. — May their fate prove always as it hitherto has done!

In resentment for this treatment against our trade and liberties, his Majesty formed the project to make himself master of PERU in AMERICA, and accordingly admiral Hosier sails towards those parts with a squadron of men of war, and was to be joined by others; but this expedition was frustrated by the winds. — A design also was formed by his Majesty to attack the CORUNNA in SPAIN, and vice-admiral Mighells sailed from St Helens with six men of war, as a convoy to 4000 land forces under the command of lord viscount Cobham, but they landed at Vigo; and at the first summons the town surrenders, as does also the citadel a few days after. — They found there above 100 pieces of cannon, above 2000 barrels of powder, and 8000 muskets designed for the descent in England, which they brought away, as also several other pieces that were at Pont à Vedra. — The English troops being reimbarcked at Vigo, the fleet sails back for England with them, and arrives November 14. — In consequence of this spirit and vigour exerted by our navy, the king of Spain was compelled to dismiss his prime minister cardinal Alberoni, as a first step towards a peace with the emperor, king George and the regent of France.

In 1720, the unhappy affair of the South Sea company was broached. See our article SOUTH SEA COMPANY; which was greatly detrimental to the public credit; notwithstanding which, from the wisdom of his Majesty's councils the public credit was restored, and the national debts put into a state of redemption. See our articles CREDIT, [PUBLIC CREDIT] DEBTS, [NATIONAL DEBTS] and FUNDS.

August 4, 1721, his Majesty puts an end to the session of parliament with a speech, acquainting both houses, among other things, that he had renewed all our TREATIES of COMMERCE with Spain, upon the same foot as they were settled before the late war. — October 19, the parliament meets, and his majesty in his speech recommends to the nation, To improve the favourable opportunity, which the conclusion of a peace with Spain, and between Sweden and Muscovy at that time, gave, of extending our commerce, upon which, as his Majesty observes, THE RICHES AND GRANDEUR OF THIS NATION CHIEFLY DEPEND: and for that purpose, to make the exportation of our own manufactures, and the importation of the commodities, used in

the manufacturing of them, as practicable and easy as may be, by taking off the duties upon these branches, &c. — And to supply ourselves with naval stores from our plantations in America. — For the importance of these points to the commerce and navigation of the kingdom, see our articles MANUFACTURES and NAVAL STORES.

The most considerable acts passed this session in regard to trade, were, 1. For taking off the duty upon salt used in the curing of red and white herrings, and laying a proportionable duty upon all red and white herrings consumed at home only. — 2. An act for giving further encouragement for the importation of naval stores. — 3. For encouragement of the silk manufacture of this kingdom; and for taking off several duties on merchandizes exported; and for reducing the duties upon beaver-skins, pepper, mace, cloves, and nutmegs imported; and for importation of all furs, of the product of the British plantations in this kingdom only; and that the two corporations of assurances, on any suits brought on their policies, shall be liable only to single damages and costs of suit. See our article ASSURANCE.

In May 1722, his Majesty has full information of a conspiracy formed against him; the first intelligence of which came from the duke of Orleans, regent of France. — The apprehensions of this plot did so affect the public credit, that South Sea stock fell from 90 to 77, and the timorous and disaffected began a run upon the Bank: but the funds soon rose again to their former value: which ended in the banishment of Dr Atterbury, late bishop of Rochester, and the execution of Christopher Layer, &c.

For the support of the trade of our sugar colonies, his Majesty made a grant of the islands of ST VINCENT and ST LUCIA, near BARBADOES, to John duke of Montague, and a patent passed the seals for that purpose. See the importance of these places, under our article BRITISH AMERICA.

In December 1722, the emperor of Germany granted a patent for establishing an East-India company in the Austrian Netherlands, but the courts of GREAT-BRITAIN, FRANCE, and HOLLAND, made so strong an opposition to this design, that it was afterwards laid aside. See our articles AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, and OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

This year the governors of New-York, Virginia, and Pennsylvania, in order to support an interest with the Indian nations at Albany, with the SACHIMS, or KINGS of the AMERICAN NATIVES, called the FIVE NATIONS, or RIVER INDIANS, in which all former leagues between these governments and the said Indians were confirmed. Likewise,

Sir William Keith, governor of Pennsylvania, entered into a treaty with the SASQUEHANA INDIANS, wherein those people agreed to remove back into the woods, and leave a tract of 100,000 acres of land for the use of the ENGLISH PLANTERS.

April 24, 1724. — His Majesty puts an end to the session of parliament by a speech. The chief acts passed therein relation to trade, were, 1. For repealing certain duties therein mentioned, payable upon coffee, tea, cacao-nuts, chocolate, and cacao-paste imported, and for granting certain inland duties in lieu thereof; and for prohibiting the importation of chocolate ready made, and cacao-paste. — 2. For the better viewing, searching, and examining, all drugs, medicines, &c. in all places where the same shall be exposed to sale, or kept for that purpose, within the city of London and suburbs thereof, or within seven miles circuit of the said city. — 3. For encouraging the GREENLAND FISHERY.

May 16, 1724. — King George sends a circular letter to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, declaring his intention of appointing two professors of modern history and languages; one in each university, with a stipend of 400 l. per annum a-piece. — How a knowledge in these essentials might tend to enable people of distinction who are sent as ambassadors, &c. to foreign courts, to promote the commerce and the honour of the nation, is too obvious to need animadversion. — And this I doubt not but his Majesty had chiefly in view: however that design has been neglected since.

In April 30, 1725. — A treaty of peace is concluded at Vienna, between the emperor and the king of Spain; wherein king Philip renounces all the pretensions to his dominions in Italy and the Netherlands, and they mutually engage for the reciprocal defence and guaranty of all the kingdoms and provinces which they actually possessed, and the order of succession, as settled in their respective families, &c. — They also sign a private treaty, wherein the emperor engages to concur in employing force for having Gibraltar restored to Spain; to use means for placing the Pretender upon the British throne; and that his daughter, the archduchess, should be married to the infant of Spain. — The next day they signed a treaty of commerce for settling an East-India company at Ostend, which gave great umbrage again to the English and Dutch. The chief acts passed this session for the benefit of trade, were, 1. For encouraging the silk manufactures of this kingdom. 2. For preventing the clandestine running of goods, &c. 3. For rating such unrated goods and merchandize, as

are usually imported into this kingdom, and pay duty ad valorem, upon the oath of the importer; and for ascertaining the value of all goods and merchandize not inserted in the former, or present book of rates.

January 20, 1725-6. — The parliament meets. The king acquaints both houses, that the negotiations and engagements entered into by some foreign powers, which seemed to have laid the foundation of new troubles in Europe, and to threaten his subjects with the loss of several of the most advantageous branches of their trade, had obliged him to enter into a defensive alliance with the most Christian king; and the king of Prussia, &c.

February 24, 1725-6. — The convention of the royal burghs in Scotland presents an address to his Majesty, in which they remonstrated against the malt-tax, as a burthen too heavy for their country to bear: that it rendered them incapable of carrying on the fishing trade, and such other branches of commerce and manufacture as Scotland was proper for: that their poverty, and want of coin, the great decay of their trade, and the meanness of their grain, were melancholy truths, &c. — Therefore they prayed relief. — They afterwards petitioned the commons concerning it; as did likewise the shires of Renfrew, Barmff, &c. — In consequence of which the commons order, that some clauses should be inserted in the malt-bill, for the satisfaction of the Scots, namely; That the produce of it in Scotland, after 20,000 l. paid into the Exchequer, should be applied towards the encouragement of the trade and manufactures of that kingdom, &c. — And king George sends a letter to the royal burghs of Scotland, to put them in mind of improving their fisheries and manufactures, with the money granted them for that purpose at the Union. See our articles ABERDEENSHIRE and SCOTLAND, for what has been since done, for the promotion of the trade of that part of the united kingdom.

May 24, 1726. — King George puts an end to this session of parliament with a speech. The chief acts passed this session were, 1. For giving encouragement to the Greenland fishery. 2. To prevent unlawful combinations of workmen employed in the woollen manufactures, and for the better payment of their wages.

The emperor, in consequence of the alliance before mentioned with his Catholic Majesty, prohibits the importation of the English woollen manufactures into Sicily.

August 20, 1726. — The East-India company obtain a charter for incorporating their towns of Madraspatan, Bombay, and Fort William, to be governed each of them by a mayor and aldermen, who are empowered to make bye-laws, and exercise criminal as well as civil jurisdiction, except in cases of high treason.

In the latter part of this year, great preparations were made in Spain for war, both by sea and land; and a camp of about 20,000 men was formed at St Roch, near Gibraltar, under pretence of rebuilding the castle of Old Gibraltar. Upon repeated advices of their real intention, the garrison was reinforced with three regiments, and the Spaniards afterwards invested and opened the trenches before Gibraltar; and though some did not scruple to propagate, that Gibraltar would be given up by the late king, yet we know it was gallantly defended. — For the great importance of this place to the trade of these kingdoms, see our article MEDITERRANEAN.

January 17, 1726-7. — The parliament meets. His Majesty opens it with a long and pathetic speech, wherein he acquaints both houses, with the secret and offensive alliances concluded between the emperor and the court of Spain: — That the placing the pretender upon the throne of this kingdom, was one of the articles of the secret engagements; and the giving up the trade of this nation to one power, and Gibraltar and Portmahon to another, was made the price and reward of imposing upon this kingdom a Popish pretender, &c. — The lords and commons resolve, that the measures he had taken were honourable, just, and necessary, for preventing the execution of the dangerous engagements entered into in favour of the pretender; for preserving the dominions belonging to the crown of Great-Britain by solemn treaties, and particularly those of Gibraltar and Minorca; and for maintaining to his people their most valuable rights and privileges of commerce, and the peace and tranquillity of Europe.

March 25, 1727. — General letters of reprisals are granted against the Spaniards. — The court of Vienna seeming disposed to attack the DUTCH BARRIER in the NETHERLANDS [see our articles FLANDERS, HOLLAND, and NETHERLANDS, for the importance hereof to Great-Britain]; king George orders an augmentation of 30 companies of foot, and that the 10,000 auxiliaries which England was obliged to send to the assistance of the States, should hold themselves in readiness for embarkation.

May 15, 1727. — His Majesty puts an end to this session of parliament with a speech. — The chief acts passed this session for the benefit of trade, were, 1. For the better regulation of the woollen manufacture, and for preventing disputes among the persons concerned therein; and for limiting a time for prosecuting for the forfeiture, appointed by an act of the 12th year of his Majesty's reign, in case of payment of the

workmen's wages in any other manner than in money. 2. For preventing frauds and abuses in the dyeing trade. 3. For the free importation of cochineal, during the time therein limited. 4. For the better regulation of the linen and hempen manufactures in that part of Great-Britain called Scotland. 5. For encouraging and promoting fisheries and other manufactures and improvements in Scotland.

The treaty of Hanover having broke the measures of Spain and the emperor, preliminary articles for a general pacification are agreed upon at Paris, between the ministers of the emperor, his Britannic Majesty, the Most Christian king, and the States-General.

By the first article, the Ostend company was to be suspended for the space of seven years. By the 5th all hostilities were to cease, immediately after the signing of the articles: and, by the seventh a congress was to be opened at Aix-la-Chapelle, in four months from the day of signing.

So inconsistent have men been in their judgment of this reign, that some have thought, that our naval power was not so vigorously exerted during it, as it should have been, and others that it was exerted to too great lengths, by destroying the Spanish fleet in the Mediterranean, by Sir George Byng: notwithstanding these different opinions, certain it is, that the latter destroyed, at that time, the growing naval power of Spain, and utterly disappointed the great designs of an able and enterprising minister. And the fleets of admiral Hoffer, Sir John Jennings, Sir Charles Wager, and Sir George Walton, absolutely defeated the Imperial and Spanish designs before taken notice of.

The invasion and rebellion in 1718, are less remembered than that of 1715, because not one person suffered death on that account. The rebellion likewise intended by the late king of Sweden seems to have been forgot, though it gave some uneasiness to king George's reign; for had that implacable monarch lived, his designs against Denmark would probably have succeeded, and then he would have had leisure for transporting his hardy troops into Scotland.

Had the succession of this prince [king George] taken place before the change of the ministry at the latter end of queen Anne's reign, it would have been infinitely more happy, not only for the nation, but for the lasting tranquillity of the liberties of Europe. France would then have been compelled to give up the Spanish monarchy. By advantages in trading to the dominions of Spain, in Europe and America, and by several concessions, we should have had ample means of repairing the losses sustained by a long and expensive war. The house of Bourbon had been reduced within such bounds, as not to have been able to have become the terror and scourge of their neighbours, as they seem disposed to be at present.

King George I. came to a people, who had been corrupted both in their political and religious notions, and had been taught an aversion to our NATURAL ALLIES, and to all FOREIGN PROTESTANTS, while an esteem and affection for France, and a tenderness for many doctrines of POPERY, had been infused into them with great success; and these prejudices had indisposed the nation to submit to a PROTESTANT PRINCE, while the dangers from a POPISH ONE were not attended to. The advantages likewise of a prosperous war, and many valuable branches of commerce, had been given up or neglected, and the revenue was loaded with a very heavy debt; and yet the authors of these calamities had the art and assurance to impute the consequences of them to the king and his ministers.

These points seem as necessary to be inculcated at this time of day, as ever they were.

Notwithstanding the unhappy affair of the South Sea scheme, yet the wise measures at length pursued, the reduction of interest took place, from 6 to 4 per cent. and the NATIONAL DEBTS put into a state of redemption; than which nothing could have a happier tendency to establish the public credit, after the year 1720.

GEORGE II.

The reader will observe, that consistent with the plan of this work, we have included in the account before given, called A SUMMARY OF THE SUPPLIES AND THE WAYS AND MEANS for the raising all monies from the time of the revolution in the year 1688, to the end of the reign of George II. in the year 1759, the sum total raised in each distinct year, since the said year 1688; by which the reader will easily satisfy himself of the whole sum raised in each reign; by adding the yearly sums together belonging to each reign. We shall only observe, that in the long reign of Geo. II. there was coined as follows, viz.

By WEIGHT.				By TALE.			
lb.	oz.	dwt.	grs.	l.	s.	d.	
249,592	7	12	21	11,662,215	19	3	Gold
98,180	9	6	0	304,360	8	0½	Silver

Total value coined in the reign }
of Geo. II. } 11,966,576 7 3½

TEA is distinguished in name as it differs in colour, flavour, and size of the leaf. The chief of several sorts are, however, the leaves of the same tree, only differing according to the seasons at which they are gathered, and the manner of the

drying. To enumerate the several sub-distinctions were endless: the general division is into three kinds; the ordinary green tea, the finer green tea, and the bohea: to one or other of these, all the other kinds may be referred. See the article BOHEA, where the nature and qualities of India teas are described at large.

R E M A R K S.

Tea being an article of very great consumption in these dominions, and the smuggling thereof proving an extraordinary detriment to the PUBLIC REVENUE, a committee of the honourable house of commons was appointed in the year 1745, to inquire into the causes of the most infamous practice of smuggling, and consider of the most effectual method to prevent the said practice, and to report their opinion therein to the house; and this committee having examined into some of the causes of the said practice, and considered of methods for prevention thereof, came to the following resolutions, in consequence of the evidence that was laid before them.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the high duties charged upon teas and other commodities, have been one cause of the infamous practice of smuggling.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the act of indemnity passed in the last session of parliament, for persons guilty of the infamous practice of smuggling, was not extensive enough for the pardon of several persons therein concerned.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the not effectually prosecuting owners of vessels used in carrying on the pernicious practice of smuggling, is another cause of that infamous practice.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the exposing to sale the boats, and other vessels taken from persons carrying on the practice of smuggling, by means of which, such boats or vessels are often bought by the same or other persons carrying on the same pernicious practice, is another cause of the continuance, and an encouragement of smuggling.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the easy composition of the penalties incurred by persons convicted of running, or being concerned with others in running, landing, or disposing of uncustomed goods, is another cause of the said pernicious practice.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the want of proper penalties and punishment to be inflicted upon officers of the excise and customs for neglect of duty, or misbehaviour in their respective offices, is another cause of the said pernicious practice.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That lowering the duties on tea, and other commodities, would be one means to prevent the said pernicious practice.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That a general act of indemnity to all persons guilty of any crimes against the laws for preventing the running uncustomed goods, (except such as have been guilty of murder) will be one other means to put a stop to the infamous practice of smuggling.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the burning the boats and other vessels belonging to, and taken from persons concerned in the infamous practice of smuggling, will be one other means to prevent the said practice.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the compelling seamen and seafaring men taken on board any ship or vessel employed in running uncustomed goods, or otherwise concerned in landing or disposing of the same, to serve for a certain time on board his Majesty's ships of war, would be one other means to prevent the infamous practice of smuggling.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the giving a reward for the discovering and apprehending all such persons who have followed the infamous practice of smuggling either by sea or land, or as riders, would be another means for putting an end to the infamous practice of smuggling.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the incapacitating all persons who shall hereafter be convicted of running uncustomed goods, for voting at elections for members of parliament, will be a means of preventing the infamous practice of smuggling.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, That the prosecuting such subjects of his Majesty as shall resort to the ports of France, and carry with them intelligence in time of war, as guilty of high treason, would be another means of preventing smuggling.

This committee of the house of commons, appointed at the beginning of the sessions 1745, to inquire into the state of smuggling, was brought about by the incessant application of the right honourable Stephen Theodore Janssen, Esq; late lord mayor of the city of London, and now chamberlain of the said city. In consequence of which, an act for the reduction of the tea-duty to one half of what it was before, passed; and this took place according to the plan formed by that zealous patriot for this purpose; which act took place at

TEA

TEA

Midsummer 1745, to the prodigious increase of the public revenue, as will appear by the following particulars. The act for reducing the tea-duty commenced the 24th of June, 1745. Before this period, the revenue arising from tea had been gradually sinking from 200,000 l. per annum, to about 140,000 l. which last sum arose from about 600,000 lb. weight only of tea, which then paid duty. The present state of the revenue, from the great effects of this act, stands thus:

	lb. of tea.	Excise.	Custom.
1746	1,900,000	1,200,000	1,28,000
1747	2,000,000	210,000	28,000
1748	2,600,000	280,000	50,000
1749	2,700,000	280,000	50,000
1750	2,700,000	280,000	50,000
1751	2,800,000	310,000	58,000
1752	3,000,000	315,000	58,000
1753	3,200,000	325,000	58,000

l. 2,200,000 l. 380,000

l. 2,200,000 total excise.
380,000 total custom.

2,580,000
1,120,000 deduct for 8 years, at
[140,000 l. per ann.

Benefit by the act 1745, l. 1,460,000

So that the revenue has been benefited by this act, in eight years, 1,460,000 l. excepting only the 5 per cent. on dry goods, which took place in 1747-8; besides which, the India company, previous to this act, sold barely the cargoes of three tea-ships annually, whereas they now sell the cargoes of seven tea-ships annually, for the least; and if the company receives no benefit from this, it must be admitted that their navigation is increased, by so much, thereby. The above said saving to the revenue having prevented the laying on of additional taxes, manifests the important services that the late right honourable the lord mayor of London has really done, in this respect, for these kingdoms; and which, it is to be hoped, will neither be forgot by the kingdom in general, or by the government in particular: and to what this ANNUAL SAVING to the nation may amount, in a long course of years, is not easy to say. Nor is this the only advantage which has accrued to the nation from the indefatigable endeavours of this illustrious magistrate; it is an experimental confirmation of the truth of two of the principal resolutions of the aforesaid committee, viz. 1. That it is the opinion of the committee, That the HIGH DUTIES charged upon teas and other COMMODITIES have been one cause of the infamous practice of smuggling. 2. That it is the opinion of this committee, That LOWERING THE DUTIES on teas, and other commodities, would be one means to prevent the said pernicious practice. What other eminent services this honourable gentleman has really done, and has attempted still further to do, for the benefit of the commerce of these kingdoms, see our articles LINEN, and SMUGGLING.

Mr Alderman Janßen having, since the last edition of this work, published the Reports of the Committee of the Honourable House of Commons, concerning SMUGGLING, together with the following account of the Tea-trade, shewing in one view the whole state of the tea importation, consumption and revenue, from Midsummer 1745, (when the reduction of two shillings per pound took place) to New Christmas, 1763; we think it useful to introduce the same as it stands, viz.

TEA Imported by the EAST-INDIA Company, for Twelve Years before the Act passed for the Reduction of Excise upon TEA, commencing at Midsummer 1745.

	From Christmas 1733 to Christmas	1734	-	720,900 lb.	-	-	-	-	1740	-	1464,700 lb.
	1735	-	-	584,100	-	-	-	-	1741	-	1261,400
	1736	-	-	635,300	-	-	-	-	1742	-	1760,600
	1737	-	-	1648,100	-	-	-	-	1743	-	1645,500
	1738	-	-	1041,860	-	-	-	-	1744	-	725,700
	1739	-	-	1974,600	-	-	-	-	1745	-	882,800
Total importation for twelve years before the reduction		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Making for the medium of one year's importation		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
											14,345,560 lb. 1,195,464

TEA Imported by the East-India Company, for Seventeen Years since the Act passed for the Reduction of Excise upon TEA, commencing at Midsummer 1745.

[illegible]

Total importation for seventeen years since the reduction
Making for the medium of one year's importation

Exceeding the medium of one year's importation (being 1,195,464 as above) before the reduction This extra importation (of 52,934,217 lb. in 17 years) has yielded an extra gain to the East

Neat Receipt of Excise and Custom upon TEA, for Five Years before the Act passed for the Reduction of Excise upon TEA, commencing at Midsummer 1745.

[illegible]

From Midsummer 1745 to Midsummer 1746	1,800,000 lb. Tea at 1 s. per lb. excise £ 90,000	at 25 per cent. excise ad valorem £ 90,000 and at 14 per cent. custom £ 50,400	Totals.
1747	2,000,000	Do. 100,000	230,400
1748	2,600,000	Do. 130,000	256,000
1749	2,700,000	Do. 135,000	358,800
1750	2,700,000	Do. 135,000	372,600
1751	2,800,000	Do. 140,000	372,600
1752	3,000,000	Do. 150,000	386,400
1753	3,200,000	Do. 160,000	414,000
1754	3,300,000	Do. 165,000	441,600
1755	3,550,000	Do. 177,500	455,400
1756	3,710,000	Do. 185,500	482,684
Do.	1,897,338	per cent. excise ad valorem, together 199,532	521,721
From Christmas 1756 to Christmas 1757	4,189,783	25 per cent excise ad valorem 227,534	274,468
1758	4,012,652	Do. 232,106	609,070
1759	3,955,842	Do. 197,792	609,139
1760	4,196,546	Do. 209,827	676,054
1761	4,378,916	Do. 218,946	686,040
1762	4,393,903	Do. 219,696	720,074
	£58,384,990	£ 2,824,383	717,624

* This year the tax of 5 per cent. took place, upon dry goods.

** This year the further tax of 5 per cent. upon dry goods, took place at New Lady-day, amounting, with the former

custom upon tea, to somewhat above 24½ per cent.

N. B. It is not pretended that the above account is so nicely accurate, as if taken out of the excise and custom-house books; but a good deal of pains has been taken to bring the same to as great an exactness as it is possible without such perusal. And,

at all events, the reader will be sufficiently able to judge of the good effects of the Act in question.

Neat receipt of excise and custom upon tea, for seventeen years and a half, since the reduction

Making for the medium of one year

Exceeding the medium of one year's neat receipt (being 175,222 l. as above) before the reduction

(is for 17½ years 5,518,292 l.)

£ 8,584,674

490,553

315,331

£ 2,538,647

£ 3,221,644

£ 2,538,647

£ 2,538,647

£ 2,538,647

£ 2,538,647

£ 2,538,647

£ 2,538,647

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1. THIS experimental trial upon the article of tea, was the first of the kind, of any material consequence, which was ever made to prove, That the lowering of a high duty upon an article of consumption hath considerably advanced the produce of the public revenue upon such article, by occasioning the surprising general increase of its consumption.

2. It shews, That a foreign commodity, even of a luxurious nature, may become a general article of consumption, and be rendered fashionable and habitual, amongst all ranks and degrees of people, in consequence of reducing a high duty thereon to a moderate one, and thereby augment the revenue, in proportion to the general augmentation of the consumption of such foreign commodity.

3. It indicates, the next degree to a demonstration, that duties upon commodities may be strained to so high a pitch, as to cause a general diminution in the consumption, and consequently to occasion a proportionable diminution in the public revenue, which used to arise from the high duty.

OBSERVATIONS on the above.

It excites the unfair trader to act in concert with the smuggler, and the latter to hazard his life to reap the advantage which so great a temptation lays before him. It induces the consumer to enter into a close connection with the smuggler, in order to come at the commodity, which fashion and pride have made necessary to him, since his pocket cannot otherwise reach it.

4. It proves, that the revenue has been increased, by lowering the former high duty; and that to a sum so considerable, as above FIVE MILLIONS AND A HALF STERLING: That the East India Company, computing their profit on teas at one shilling on the pound, has gained above TWO MILLIONS SIX HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS STERLING thereby; and, That the nation in general has been proportionable gainers, by the extra increase of its navigation.

5. It proves, That the price of teas has fallen so very considerably, in consequence of the government's adopting this plan, That the custom of tea-drinking has, since, become universal throughout the kingdom, amongst all degrees of people; That the smuggling of this article is greatly abated;

and, That a surprising increase in the consumption of sugars has ensued, to the great improvement of the sugar colonies, as well as the great increase of the revenue, by the duty on sugars: and all these consequences have naturally attended an increase in the consumption of teas; chiefly and principally owing to the lowering the high duty thereon.

It must be observed, however, That the total increase in the revenue arising upon tea, from Midsummer 1745 to New Christmas 1763, as above represented, is not wholly to be ascribed to the reducing the excise duty upon tea at that period; the last subsidies of 1747 and 1759, which have taken place since, contributing about SIX HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS to the above increase; and this sum has been gained by the revenue in the additional increase of the consumption of sugars, which has gone hand in hand with that of teas. But to the produce of the two last subsidies, the proposer of the plan for reducing the excise upon teas in 1745 lays no sort of claim.

LONDON, March, 1763.

STEPH. THEOD. JANSSEN.

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STEPH. THEOD. JANSSEN.

and, That a surprising increase in the consumption of sugars has ensued, to the great improvement of the sugar colonies, as well as the great increase of the revenue, by the duty on sugars: and all these consequences have naturally attended an increase in the consumption of teas; chiefly and principally owing to the lowering the high duty thereon.

It must be observed, however, That the total increase in the revenue arising upon tea, from Midsummer 1745 to New Christmas 1763, as above represented, is not wholly to be ascribed to the reducing the excise duty upon tea at that period; the last subsidies of 1747 and 1759, which have taken place since, contributing about SIX HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS to the above increase; and this sum has been gained by the revenue in the additional increase of the consumption of sugars, which has gone hand in hand with that of teas. But to the produce of the two last subsidies, the proposer of the plan for reducing the excise upon teas in 1745 lays no sort of claim.

LONDON, March, 1763.

TIN is a white shining metal, containing a certain blueness; it is of so pliable a nature, that it may be bent into any form: as to hardness, it is between silver and lead, softer than the former, but considerably harder than the latter, and is the lightest of all metals: its weight to gold, by computation, is as 3 to 8, and something more.

R E M A R K S.

For the methods of assaying and smelting this metal, see the articles **ASSAY** and **SMELTING**; see also **METALLURGY**, **ORE**, **MINERALOGY**.

TOBACCO. The manner of planting and ordering tobacco in Virginia is thus: in the twelve days they begin to sow the seed in beds of fine mould, and when the plants be grown to the breadth of a shilling, they are fit to replant into the hills: for in their plantations they make small hills, about four feet distant from each other, somewhat after the manner of our hop-yards. These hills being prepared against the plants be grown to the forementioned bigness (which is about the beginning of May), they then, in moist weather, draw the plants out of their beds, and replant them in the hills, which afterwards they keep with diligent weedings. When the plant hath put out so many leaves as the ground will nourish to a substance and largeness that will render them merchantable, then they take off the top of the plant: if the ground be very rich, they let a plant put out 12 or 16 leaves before they top it; if mean, then not above 9 or 10, and so according to the strength of their soil: the top being taken off, the plant grows no bigger; but afterwards it will put out suckers between their leaves, which they pluck away once a week, 'till the plant comes to perfection, which it doth in August: then in dry weather, when there is a little breeze of wind, they cut down what is ripe, letting it lie about four hours on the ground, 'till such time as the leaves, that stood strutting out, fall down to the stalk; then they carry it on their shoulders into their tobacco-houses, where other servants taking it, drive into the stalk of each plant a peg, and, as fast as they are pegged, they hang them up by the pegs on tobacco-stalks, so nigh each other, that they just touch, much after the manner they hang herrings in Yarmouth. Thus they let them hang five or six weeks, 'till such time as the stem in the middle of the leaf will snap in the bending of it; then, when the air hath so moistened the leaf as that it may be handled without breaking, they strike it down, strip it off the stalk, bind it up in bundles, and pack it into hogheads for use.

Sometimes they are forced to plant their hills twice or thrice over, by reason of an earth-worm, which eats the root; and when the plant is well grown, they suffer damage by a worm that devours the leaf, called a horn-worm (an eruca, or canker-worm) which is bred upon the leaf; if these worms be not carefully taken off, they will spoil the whole crop.

In the year 1667, in August, there happened all over Virginia a gulf, or storm, of wind and rain, which continued for three days with such violence, that the like was hardly ever heard of. It began, and continued blowing, at east, with such fierceness, that above one half of their crop of tobacco, which was then standing in their fields, was blown away, and torn to pieces: the trees in the woods, all over the country, were blown up by the roots, in innumerable quantities; the waters in the bay, in some places, were drove a great way into the woods, and the greatest part of those that housed tobacco, had their tobacco-houses blown down, and their tobacco spoiled: so that there was not fully one part of three saved of what would have been made that year. The planters houses are built all along the sides of the rivers, for the conveniency of shipping: they build after the English manner, whitening the inside of their houses with mortar, made of burnt oyster-shells, instead of lime.

They have pure and wholesome water, which they fetch wholly from springs, whereof the country is so full, that there is not a house but hath one nigh the door.

The laws relating to tobacco are at the end of Letter T, on the Business of the Customs.

R E M A R K S.

By a pretty exact computation made a few years since, there is annually imported into Great-Britain, between 60 and 70,000 hogheads of tobacco: we will suppose 66,000, two-thirds of which are re-exported to France, Germany, Holland, &c. so that there remain for home consumption 22,000 hogheads; the duties whereof, reckoned at 15 l. per hoghead (at which in most cases they may be computed) will amount to 330,000 l. Now there is not much above one half of that sum which comes annually into the Exchequer; so that there has been manifestly lost to the public revenue, about 165,000 l. by the frauds at importation, re-exportation, and by bonding the duties.

This is upon supposition that no part of the 44,000 hogheads which are exported, was run or re-landed from DUNKIRK, and the isles of GUERNSEY, JERSEY, and MAN, into ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, and IRELAND, as has evidently

appeared to have been the case. But, if to this we add only $\frac{1}{2}$ part of what is exported to be re-landed or run (as that, at least, has been shewn to be the case) there is an additional loss to the revenue of 75,000 l. more, which sums together make 240,000 l. See the articles **MAN** [ISLE of MAN,] **SCOTLAND**, and **SMUGGLING**.

To prevent such disadvantages to the public revenue, which arise from this pernicious and detestable practice, the expedient which seems the most eligible is, the same that has been successfully tried in relation to tea, viz. that of **LOWERING THE DUTIES** [see the article **TEA**], for it has appeared with respect to the article of tea, that in proportion as the temptation to smuggling has abated, the less detriment has the public revenue sustained. And why the like experiment made upon tobacco may not have the same good effect, cannot be proved 'till it be effectually tried. See our article **SCOTLAND**.

Tobacco being a bulky commodity, gives great employment for our shipping, and therefore is a branch of trade that cannot be too much encouraged and protected; especially so, since our dear friends the French seem at present to be seized with a wonderful longing to ease us of the trouble and expence of supporting our tobacco colonies any longer. See our article **PLANTATIONS**, and such others as are from thence referred to.

T R A D E.

Some **MAXIMS** relating to **TRADE**, that should seem to be confirmed in the course of this work.

I. That the lasting prosperity of the landed interest depends upon foreign commerce. See our article **LANDED INTEREST**.

II. That the increase of the wealth, splendor, and power of Great-Britain and Ireland, depend upon exporting more in value of our native produce and manufactures, than we import of commodities from other nations, and bringing thereby money into the kingdom, by the means of freight by shipping. See our article **BALLANCE of TRADE**, and **REMARKS** on the article **FREIGHT**.

III. That domestic and foreign trade, as they are the means of increasing the national treasure, of breeding seamen, and of augmenting our **MERCANTILE** and **ROYAL NAVIES**, they necessarily become the means of our permanent prosperity, and of the safety and preservation of our happy constitution. See the articles **SEA DOMINION**, **NAVAL AFFAIRS**, **SEAMEN**, **SHIPPING**.

IV. That the constant security of the **PUBLIC CREDIT**, and the payment of interest and principal of the public creditors, depend upon the prosperous state of our trade and navigation, and not upon any crafty and chimerical expedients. See the articles **CREDIT** [**PUBLIC CREDIT**], **DEBTS** [**NATIONAL DEBTS**], **FUNDS**, **MONIED INTEREST**.

V. That gold and silver is the measure of trade, and that they are a commodity, and may be exported, especially in foreign coin, or bullion, as well as any other commodity. See our articles **BULLION**, **COIN**, **MONEY**, **EAST-INDIA TRADE** in general, **EAST-INDIA COMPANY**, **PEGU**, **SIAM**, and such other articles as we have referred to from the conclusion of the article **SILVER**, as having an affinity with these political points.

VI. That the increase of trade and navigation greatly depends, not only upon the increase of husbandry and agriculture, but also on the increase of ingenious working artists of every kind, in order to improve the perfection and delicacy of our **OLD MANUFACTURES**, and to discover such **NEW TRADES** and **MANUFACTURES**, as will enable us, at least, to keep pace in wealth and power with our rival nations, if we cannot go beyond them. See our articles **AGRICULTURE**, **HUSBANDRY**, **MANURE**, **LANDED INTEREST**, **ARTIFICERS**, **MECHANICAL ARTS**, **MANUFACTURERS**, **TAPESTRY**.

VII. That the support of a constant succession of **TRADING ARTISTS** amongst us of every class, greatly depends upon due public encouragement. See the beforementioned articles, and also that of **CLOTH**.

VIII. That the support of a constant succession of ingenious trading artists, generally depends upon the improvements made from time to time in useful philosophy. See our articles **CHYMISTRY**, **PHILOSOPHY-EXPERIMENTAL**, **ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON**, and divers other articles.

IX. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the introducing into this nation various wise and necessary establishments and practices for their regulation and encouragement, that other nations have adopted, and we seem equally to stand in need of. See our article **CHAMBER of COMMERCE**, with our **REMARKS** thereon, **SEAMEN**, for a voluntary register of them, so to encourage this body of men, that the arbitrary and disagreeable practice of pressing these brave fellows may be laid aside, and the **ROYAL NAVY** never want hands upon any sudden emergency. See also the articles **CANDIDATE**, **ASPHALTUM**, **CONSULS**, **FACTORS**, **DANCING-MASTER**,

MASTER, DIRECTION-CHAMBER, DIRECTOR OF TRADING COMPANIES in FRANCE, INDIA-HOUSE of SPAIN, PAINTING, PAPER-TREE, PATENTS, PORCELAIN [REMARKS thereon], LEVANT TRADE, FRENCH AMERICA, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY, FRANCE, MEDAL, NAVAL AFFAIRS, SEA DOMINION, SEA BRITISH, SHIPPING.

X. That the constant support of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the judgment, skill, and address, of our BRITISH MERCHANTS and TRADERS in general; and to that end, the course of their education, more especially of the former, should be no way inferior to that of any class of men in the community. See our article of MERCANTILE COLLEGE.

XI. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the knowledge thereof, as founded upon national principles, which the British nobility and gentry shall obtain, in order wisely to regulate the same at all times in their legislative capacity, for the true interests of the kingdom in general. See our article PARLIAMENT [MEMBER of PARLIAMENT.]

XII. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the knowledge therein, that our ministers abroad as well as at home shall have, in order constantly to communicate to the court of England, such matter on commercial affairs, as may procure to their country all advantages in relation thereto, as times and occasions may happily offer. See our articles CONSUL, COUNCIL of COMMERCE, MARITIME or MARINE AFFAIRS, TREATIES of COMMERCE.

XIII. That as many, and as great estates and honours and dignities, have been acquired by the practical arts and political knowledge of commerce, as by any other means whatsoever. See our article COMMERCE.

XIV. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends on the wise regulation of our TAXES, MONEY-AFFAIRS, and the preservation of the PUBLIC CREDIT; and that such knowledge cannot be obtained, without a due knowledge of trade, as founded on national principles. See the articles REVENUE and TAXES, and such other heads as we refer to therefrom. See also the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS, [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, MONEY, MONIED INTEREST.

XV. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, depends upon being able to sell our native produce and manufactures as CHEAP, and as good in QUALITY, in foreign countries, as our trading competitors can afford to do; and that this depends upon the due regulation of our TAXES, and the cultivation of LAND. See our articles DUTIES, EXPORTATION, LABOUR, MANURE, and such other, as we have referred to occasionally upon this topic throughout our work.

XVI. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, depends upon a well-grounded knowledge in political arithmetic; and that depends upon a right knowledge in commercial affairs, the public revenues, and the policy, especially in regard to the trade and money-affairs of foreign nations, and well-timed treaties of commerce. See our articles POLITICAL ARITHMETIC, PEOPLE, POOR, REVENUE, TAXES, TREATIES of COMMERCE.

XVII. That the prosperity of our trade and commerce may be greatly promoted, by encouraging the study thereof at our UNIVERSITIES, as has been lately done at CAMBRIDGE, by that eminent patriot the late right honourable lord viscount Townshend; and also by proper private associations to promote the same, as has been so laudably begun of late in this kingdom. See our article ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON, with a brief account there of the Society of ARTS, MANUFACTURES, and COMMERCE.

XVIII. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the knowledge of our country gentlemen in natural history, and such useful philosophy as we have recommended throughout this work. See our articles BOLE, CLAY, EARTH, FARMING, HUSBANDRY, MINERALOGY, &c. and divers other heads.

XIX. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, and the support of the public credit, greatly depends upon the suppression of smuggling. See our articles MAN [ISLE of MAN], SMUGGLING, TEA, TOBACCO.

XX. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon the suppression of the pernicious parts of the business of stock-jobbing, the discouragement of bubbles, and the upholding of no exclusive trading companies but such as tend to promote navigation, and to bring a ballance of treasure into the nation. See our articles ACTIONS, BUBBLES, SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, STOCK-JOBGING; see also COMPANIES and MONOPOLY, and all the chief great foreign trading companies throughout Europe, whose histories are briefly given in this work, in order to judge the better how far it may be necessary for this kingdom to preferre, regulate, or annihilate, particular trading corporations.

XXI. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon increasing the trade of the nation

to the utmost, between the mother-country and her colonies and plantations in America. See AMERICA, BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN], BRITISH AMERICA, NAVAL STORES, FRENCH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA, PORTUGUEZE AMERICA, and all our articles relating to the commerce of Africa.

XXII. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon restraining the anti-treaty and unjustifiable encroachments of France and Spain on our trade and colony-possession, as well in Europe as in America: See, besides the preceding articles, those of COLONIES, FRANCE, and PLANTATIONS; the latter of which displays the perfidy of France to all Europe for this century past; and the article FRANCE shews how steadily that nation has pursued the point of universal monarchy, and what strides they have already made thereto, which seem to be too little attended to.

XXIII. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon Great-Britain's preserving a constant friendship and good understanding with the United Provinces, and the preserving to them a good barrier against FRANCE. See our articles FLANDERS, FISHERIES, HOLLAND, NETHERLANDS, and UNITED PROVINCES.

XXIV. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon taking less of the produce and manufactures of other nations, as they decline in the importation of our's, and in the taking more of the produce of those countries which increase in their imports of our produce and manufactures. See the articles EXPORTATION, IMPORTATION, and SPAIN.

XXV. That the constant prosperity of our trade and navigation, greatly depends upon keeping up such a naval power as is able to break the measures of France and Spain, or any other potentates, when they are calculated to injure us; and the way to do that effectually, is to destroy their trade by sea, and their royal navies, as we did those of Spain in the year 1718. See the articles NAVAL AFFAIRS, SEA DOMINION, SEA BRITISH.

XXVI. That the constant prosperity of trade to our American colonies, greatly depends upon securing NOVA SCOTIA in particular, as a barrier on one side to our most northern colonies on the continent, and to maintain a dignity and alliance among the Indian nations, as also to take CAPE BRETON again out of the hands of France, and deprive them of all share in the Newfoundland fisheries: and also to secure and promote, on the other side, against both France and Spain, the colony of GEORGIA. [See our article BRITISH AMERICA.] Which has been done by the TREATY of PEACE made in 1763. See AMERICA, FLORIDA, CANADA, and NEWFOUNDLAND.

XXVII. That the constant prosperity of the trade of our sugar colonies, greatly depends on their being always in a condition to prevent a surprize from France, as was attempted in the year 1706, and is likely soon to be so again. That their preservation depends greatly on securing to ourselves the possession of the NEUTRAL ISLANDS, and annoying as much as possible the FRENCH SUGAR ISLANDS, especially MARTINIQUE and HISPANIOLA. See our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA.

XXVIII. That the constant prosperity of the trade and navigation of our sugar islands, greatly depends upon our destroying the FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and settlements in Africa, and well fortifying our own settlements and factories in that part of the world, and extending the inland trade of Africa. See all our articles relating to the AFRICAN TRADE; and see also that of the EAST-INDIA COMPANY, wherein are suggested some measures, whereby that company might probably be made instrumental to the great increase of the African trade, and destructive of that of France, which is the grand support of all the FRENCH SUGAR ISLANDS. See our articles ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, and FRENCH AFRICAN COMPANY.

XXIX. That the security and improvement of our trade to ASIA, and the injury to that of FRANCE, would greatly depend upon our discovery of the NORTH-EAST PASSAGE to China and Japan; and that, as it is currently reported this discovery is very likely to be made by a worthy subject of the king of Great-Britain, at a trifling charge, it is certainly for the interest of the nation cheerfully to encourage it, at the public expence; or the East-India company should do it, for their own interest. See our article SIBERIA.

XXX. That the constant prosperity of our trade to ITALY, TURKEY, and the LEVANT, will ever depend on the preservation of Gibraltar to the crown of Great-Britain. See our article MEDITERRANEAN.

XXXI. That the constant security of our trade to and from our sugar colonies, and the effectual prevention of the SPANISH DEPREDATIONS in AMERICA, in particular, will depend upon securing to ourselves some certain POSSESSIONS in America, which may prove of as much service to the protection of our trade in that part of the world, as Gibraltar is to our Italian and Turkey trades.—But what possessions these are, I have had the honour to lay before the * * * * *, whom I thought it my duty to apprize in time of a matter

of such consequence to his kingdoms, as being communicated to me from intelligence not to be doubted of.

XXXII. That the constant prosperity of the trade, and the permanent preservation of the liberties, as well of the United Provinces as of Great-Britain itself, would be better secured than by any other possible means whatever, perhaps; provided that GREAT-BRITAIN and HOLLAND became ONE NATION and ONE PEOPLE, governed by ONE and the SAME SOVEREIGN, according to the constitution of England, and to possess and enjoy the same privileges of trade, navigation, and religion, as England does, and the Dutch to contribute to the support of the British crown, in a proportion suitable to their abilities.

Let it be supposed, for a moment, that this was the case, the consequence would be, that England and Holland, so happily united, might increase their strength in ASIA to what degree they pleased, and keep all other European powers, and even the natives, so in subjection to them, as to oblige them to take a far greater quantity of our produce and manufactures than they do at present, &c.—This would give a new turn to the commerce over all ASIA.

These united potentates might also increase their power in AFRICA to what degree they pleased, and keep the French and Portuguese there in what subjection they thought proper. This would contribute soon and effectually to the ruin of the French sugar islands, which would of course fall into the hands of the maritime powers conjunctively.—Thus becoming masters of the sugar trade of the whole world, the wealth and power of both would so magnify, that the Protestant states might bid defiance to all the opposition of France, or any united Catholic powers whatever.

The due exertion of the united strength of these maritime potentates, would so strengthen the power and interest of both in America, as to give law there to the Spaniard, as well as the French, and ever after prevent their insults and depredations towards the trade and commerce of either.—This would tend to prevent war and bloodshed hereafter, upon these occasions. See our article VIRGINIA.

With regard to Europe, likewise, every one will at once see the weight and influence that such a powerful union must have. Great-Britain and Holland would then be in a capacity to uphold and maintain, at their OWN EXPENCE, a sufficient BARRIER for the support and protection of the United Provinces against France, and any other combined powers.—Upon this supposition, the Protestant interest would have such a formidable bulwark for its support, that the whole Popish strength joined to subvert it could never effect; and whatever conquest these Protestant maritime powers made in Popish countries, either in America, Asia, or Africa especially, NEED NEVER BE GIVEN UP, AS WE ARE NOW OBLIGED TO DO, AT THE CONCLUSION OF EVERY WAR, THAT FRANCE MIGHT NOT OVER-RUN THE UNITED PROVINCES OF THE STATES GENERAL.

This, also, would for ever after save us the eternal expence of land wars in FLANDERS and GERMANY; for when a solid and impregnable barrier was once procured to the Dutch, and the marine of England and Holland were united, and conducted by ONE and the SAME SOVEREIGN, for their mutual safety and benefit, the crest of France WOULD FOR EVER FALL, AND POPERY HAVE NO LONGER A CHANCE TO EXTIRPATE PROTESTANTISM AND LIBERTY FROM THE FACE OF THE WHOLE EARTH.

By this means, the fisheries of Great-Britain and Holland in Europe and America would become common to both powers; the commerce and navigation of both would be daily increasing, and none but such Protestant powers as should enter into their PROTESTANT CONFEDERACY, need have any share scarce in the commerce of the world: and, as empire follows trade, trade would give the PROTESTANT INTEREST the empire of the globe, and gradually tend to extirpate Popery, tyranny, and slavery, from the face of the earth. And 'till that comes to be the case, GREAT-BRITAIN and HOLLAND, and all the PROTESTANT POWERS, will be ever liable to be distracted, and their governments subverted, by the machinations of FRANCE. See the article FRANCE, and the shocking treachery of that nation, in our REMARKS upon the article PLANTATIONS.

Measures of this kind would soon give a new turn to the affairs of the United Provinces; they would then truly become the High and Mighty States, instead of the Poor and Distressed, which may one day be their fate, if something is not done to support them effectually, against being overrun by France, when a war shall break out.

And if the States-General depend upon the support only of Great-Britain, why should not their dominions be annexed to the crown of Great-Britain? They have experienced that their own republican constitution is not built upon so solid a basis as that of Great-Britain; the people do not enjoy so great a share of liberty, nor so solid security for their property now, as they would do under their united government. And as to their religion, they will enjoy the same toleration under the government of the crown of Eng-

land as they do at present. What hinders then but the wise and honest men of both states should think seriously of a matter of this high concernment to the mutual interest and happiness of both? More especially so, whilst the POPISH POWERS are not only making PROTESTANT PRINCES converts to their religion, but daily erecting NEW MONARCHIES for their POPISH PRINCES, the more effectually to enslave the world. It is, however, enough for me to start the hare; let others hunt it, whom it more nearly concerns, and are well paid for so doing. See our articles FLANDERS, HOLLAND, NETHERLANDS, UNITED PROVINCES, and WAR.

REMARKS on our article TRADE since the last war, and the Definitive treaty of peace of 1763.

Our public debts and taxes having increased by the last war to a degree of incredibility in so few years, did we not experience it; it becomes incumbent on us; it is indeed now indispensably requisite, that we should augment our trade, and thereby so enrich the nation, as to be able to disincumber ourselves of a great part of our national debts and taxes, if we shall not be able to get rid of the whole. For if we do not, the immense weight of them will so impede, clog, and stagnate our whole commerce and navigation, as to give our competitors the opportunity to engross the whole of our foreign trade out of our hands; since they underfold us at most foreign markets before the last war, and are in a capacity to do it far more so than they were then.

If our domestic policy is such, that we cannot soon lessen the tax-incumbrances upon our whole trade, France in particular will pour in, by smuggling into Great-Britain, an inundation of their cheaper commodities and manufactures; which will insensibly destroy our own domestic trade, starve our industrious manufacturers and artists, or draw them into their kingdom, to the unspeakable enrichment of France, and improvement of Great-Britain. The same likewise will be done in our continental colonies; for while they can have French wares and manufactures from 15 to 40 per cent. cheaper than English, it is ridiculously weak to flatter ourselves that our colonists will purchase English, when they can by any methods whatsoever obtain French. And it is to be feared, that the utmost efforts of the government will not be able much to lessen smuggling either in Great Britain, or in the continent of America; the coasts being so extensive, in both, though far more so in the one than the other, since our new acquisitions in North America: much less shall we be able to suppress the infamous practice of smuggling in either. So contiguous also are our island colonies to those of France, and so interwoven with them are our new-acquired ones, that France will most certainly run away with a great share of the trade, which appertains to the British empire, by the same means of smuggling.

TREATIES of COMMERCE and NAVIGATION.

Under the article MARITIME, or MARINE AFFAIRS, we have given the substance of the most essential treaties which have had relation to the trade and navigation of the principal states of Europe for above a century past: and having occasionally cited divers others that have taken place since, and given the substance of them, we shall here give the reader those together that have not been taken due notice of, as the necessity of our matter, or as the brevity of our articles in the dictionary required.

TREATY of NAVIGATION and COMMERCE between the most serene and most potent princess ANNE, by the grace of God, queen of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, and the most serene and most potent prince LEWIS XIV, the most Christian king: concluded at Utrecht the 31st day of March, O. S. 1713.

I. It is agreed and concluded between the most serene and most potent queen of Great-Britain, and the most serene and most potent the most Christian king, That there shall be a reciprocal and intirely perfect liberty of navigation and commerce between the subjects on each parr, through all and every the kingdoms, states, dominions, and provinces, of their royal Majesties in Europe, concerning all and singular kinds of goods in those places, and on those conditions, and in such manner and form, as is settled and adjusted in the following articles.

II. But that the commerce and friendship between the subjects of the abovesaid parties may be hereafter secure, and free from all trouble and molestation, it is agreed and concluded, That if at any time any ill understanding and breach of friendship, or rupture, should happen between the crowns of their royal Majesties (which God forbid), in such case, the term of six months shall be allowed after the said rupture, to the subjects and inhabitants on each part, residing in the dominions of the other, in which they themselves may retire, together with their families, goods, merchandizes, and effects, and carry them whither they shall please; as likewise, at the same time, the selling and disposing of their goods,

both

both moveable and immoveable, shall be allowed them freely, and without any disturbance; and, in the mean time, their goods, effects, wares, and merchandizes, and particularly their persons, shall not be detained or troubled by arrest or seizure; but rather, in the mean while, the subjects on each side shall have and enjoy good and speedy justice, so that, during the said space of six months, they may be able to recover their goods and effects intrusted as well to the public, as to private persons.

III. It is likewise agreed and concluded, That the subjects and inhabitants of the kingdoms, provinces, and dominions of each of their royal Majesties, shall exercise no acts of hostility and violence against each other, either by sea or land, or in rivers, streams, ports, or havens, under any colour or pretence whatsoever; so that the subjects of either party shall receive no patent, commission or instruction, for arming and acting at sea as privateers, nor letters of reprisal, as they are called, from any princes or states which are enemies to one side or the other; nor by virtue, or under colour of such patents, commissions, or reprisals, shall they disturb, infect, or any way prejudice or damage the aforesaid subjects and inhabitants of the queen of Great-Britain, or of the most Christian king; neither shall they arm ships in such manner as is aforesaid, or go out to sea therewith. To which end, as often as it is required by either side, strict and express prohibition shall be renewed and published in all the regions, dominions, and territories of each party whatsoever, that no one shall in any wise use such commissions, or letters of reprisal, under the severest punishment that can be inflicted on the transgressors, beside restitution, and full satisfaction to be given to those to whom they have done any damage; neither shall any letters of reprisal be hereafter granted, on either side, by the said confederates, to the detriment, or disadvantage of the subjects of the other, except in such cases only as justice is denied or delayed; to which denial or delay credit shall not be given, unless the petition of the person who desires the said letters of reprisal be communicated to the minister residing there on the part of the prince against whose subjects they are to be granted, that, within the space of four months, or sooner, if possible, he may evince the contrary, or procure the performance of what is due to justice.

IV. The subjects and inhabitants of each of the aforesaid confederates shall have liberty freely and securely, without licence or passport general or special, by land or sea, or any other way, to go into the kingdoms, countries, provinces, lands, islands, cities, villages, towns, walled or unwalled, fortified or unfortified, ports, dominions, or territories whatsoever, of the other confederate in Europe, there to enter, and to return from thence, to abide there, or to pass through the same; and, in the mean time, to buy and purchase, as they please, all things necessary for their subsistence and use: and they shall be treated with all mutual kindness and favour. Provided, however, that in all these matters they behave and comport themselves conformably to the laws and statutes, and live and converse with each other friendly and peaceably, and keep reciprocal concord by all manner of good understanding.

V. The subjects of each of their royal Majesties may have leave and licence to come with their ships, as also with the merchandizes and goods on board the same (the trade and importation whereof are not prohibited by the laws of either kingdom) to the lands, countries, cities, ports, places, and rivers, of either side in Europe, to enter into the same, to resort thereto, to remain and reside there, without any limitation of time; also to hire houses, or to lodge with other people, and to buy all lawful kinds of merchandizes where they think fit, from the first workman or seller, or in any other manner, whether in the public market for the sale of things, in mart-towns, fairs, or wheresoever those goods are manufactured or sold. They may likewise lay up and keep in their magazines and warehouses, and from thence expose to sale, merchandizes brought from other parts; neither shall they be in any wise obliged, unless willingly, and of their own accord, to bring their said merchandizes to the marts and fairs, on this condition, however, that they shall not sell the same by retail in shops, or any where else: but they are not to be loaded with any impositions or taxes on account of the said freedom of trade, or for any other cause whatsoever, except what are to be paid for their ships and goods, according to the laws and customs received in each kingdom. And moreover they shall have free leave, without molestation, to remove themselves, and, if they happen to be married, their wives, children, and servants, together with their merchandizes, wares, goods, and effects, either bought or imported, whensoever and whithersoever they shall think fit, out of the bounds of each kingdom, by land and by sea, on the rivers and fresh waters, discharging the usual duties, notwithstanding any law, privilege, grant, immunity, or custom, in any wise importing the contrary. But, in the business of religion, there shall be an intire liberty allowed to the subjects of each of the confederates, as also, if they are married, to their wives and children; neither shall they be compelled to go to the churches, or to be present at the religious worship in any other place: on the contrary, they may, without any molestation, perform their religious exer-

cises after their own way, although it be forbid, by the laws of the kingdom, privately, and within their own walls, and without the admittance of any other persons whatsoever. Moreover, liberty shall not be refused to bury the subjects of either party, who die in the territories of the other, in convenient and decent places, to be appointed for that purpose, as occasion shall require: and the dead bodies of those who are buried shall be no ways molested. The laws and statutes of each kingdom shall remain in full force, and shall duly be put in execution, whether they relate to commerce and navigation, or to any other right; those cases only being excepted, concerning which it is determined in the articles of this present treaty.

VI. The subjects of each party shall pay the tolls, customs, and duties of import and export, through all the dominions and provinces of either party, as are due and accustomed; and that it may be certainly known what are all the said tolls, customs, and duties of import and export, it is likewise agreed that tables, shewing the customs, port-duties, and imposts, shall be kept in public places, both at London, and in other towns within the dominions of the queen of Great-Britain, and at Roan, and other towns of France, where trading is used, whereto recourse may be had, as often as any question or dispute arises concerning such port-duties, customs, and imposts, which are to be demanded in such manner, and no otherwise, as shall be agreeable to the plain words and genuine sense of the aforesaid tables. And if any officer, or other person in his name, shall under any pretence, publicly or privately, directly or indirectly, ask or take of a merchant, or of any other person, any sum of money, or any thing else, on account of right, dues, stipend, exhibition, or compensation, although it be under the name of a free gift, or in any other manner, or under any other pretence, more or otherwise than what is prescribed above: in such case, the said officer or his deputy, if he be found guilty, and convicted of the same before a competent judge, in the country where the crime was committed, shall give full satisfaction to the party that is wronged, and shall likewise be punished according to the direction of the laws.

VII. Merchants, masters of ships, owners, mariners, men of all kinds, ships, and all merchandizes in general, and effects of one of the confederates, and of his subjects and inhabitants, shall, on no public or private account, by virtue of any general or special edict, be seized in any the lands, ports, havens, shores, or dominions whatsoever of the other confederate, for the public use, for warlike expeditions, or for any other cause, much less for the private use of any one; nor shall they be detained by arrests, compelled by violence, or under any colour thereof, or in any wise molested or injured. Moreover, it shall be unlawful for the subjects of both parties to take any thing, or to extort it by force, except the person to whom it belongs consent, and it be paid for with ready money; which, however, is not to be understood of that detention and seizure which shall be made by the command and authority of justice, and by the ordinary methods, on account of debt or crimes; in respect whereof the proceeding must be by way of law, according to the form of justice.

VIII. Furthermore it is agreed and concluded, as a general rule, That all and singular the subjects of the most serene queen of Great-Britain, and of the most serene and most Christian king, in all countries and places subject to their power on each side, as to all duties, impositions, or customs whatsoever, concerning persons, goods, and merchandizes, ships, freights, seamen, navigation and commerce, shall use and enjoy the same privileges, liberties, and immunities at least, and have the like favour in all things, as well in the courts of justice as in all such things as relate either to commerce, or to any other right whatever, which any foreign nation, the most favoured, has, uses, and enjoys, or may hereafter have, use, and enjoy.

IX. It is farther agreed, That, within the space of two months after, a law shall be made in Great-Britain, whereby it shall be sufficiently provided, that no more customs or duties be paid for goods and merchandizes brought from France to Great-Britain, than what are payable for goods and merchandizes of the like nature imported into Great Britain from any other country in Europe; and that all laws made in Great-Britain since the year 1664, for prohibiting the importation of any goods and merchandizes coming from France, which were not prohibited before that time, be repealed; the general tariff made in France the 18th day of September, in the year 1664, shall take place again; and the duties payable in France by the subjects of Great-Britain, for goods imported and exported, shall be paid according to the tenor of the tariff abovementioned, and shall not exceed the rule therein settled, in the provinces whereof mention is there made, and in the other provinces the duty shall not be payable otherwise than according to the rule at that time prescribed. And all prohibitions, tariffs, edicts, declarations, or decrees, made in France since the said tariff of the year 1664, and contrary thereunto, in respect to the goods and merchandizes of Great-Britain, shall be repealed. But whereas it is urged, on the part of France, that certain merchandizes, that is to say, manufactures of wool, sugar, salted fish, and the product of whales, be excepted out of the rule of the abovementioned

tariff, and likewise other heads of matters belonging to this treaty remain, which having been proposed on the part of Great-Britain, have not yet been mutually adjusted, a specification of all which is contained in a separated instrument, subscribed by the ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiaries on both sides: it is hereby provided and agreed, That, within two months from the exchange of ratifications of this treaty, commissaries on both sides shall meet at London, to consider of, and remove the difficulties concerning the merchandizes to be excepted out of the tariff of the year 1664, and concerning the other heads, which, as is above said, are not yet wholly adjusted. And at the same time the said commissaries shall likewise endeavour (which seems to be very much for the interest of both nations) to have the methods of commerce on one part, and of the other, more thoroughly examined, and to find out and establish just and beneficial means on both sides, for removing the difficulties in this matter, and for regulating the duties mutually. But it is always understood and provided, that all and singular the articles of this treaty do, in the mean while, remain in their full force, and especially that nothing be deemed, under any pretence whatsoever, to hinder the benefit of the general tariff of the year 1664, from being granted to the subjects of her royal Majesty of Great-Britain, and the said British subjects from having and enjoying the same, without any delay or tergiversation, within the space of two months after a law is made in Great-Britain, as abovesaid, in as ample manner and form as the subjects of any nation, the most favoured, might have and enjoy the benefit of the aforesaid tariff, any thing to be done or discussed by the said commissaries to the contrary, in any wise notwithstanding.

X. The duties on tobacco imported into France, either in the leaf or prepared, shall be reduced hereafter to the same moderate rate, as the said tobacco of the growth of any country in Europe or America, being brought into France, does or shall pay. The subjects on both sides shall also pay the same duties in France for the said tobacco; there shall likewise be an equal liberty of selling it; and the British subjects shall have the same laws as the merchants of France themselves have and enjoy.

XI. It is likewise concluded, That the imposition, or tax, of 50 sols Tournois laid on British ships in France for every ton, shall wholly cease, and be from henceforward annulled. In like manner, the tax of 5 s. sterling laid on French ships in Great-Britain for every ton, shall cease; neither shall the same, or any the like impositions be laid hereafter on the ships of the subjects on either side.

XII. It is further agreed and concluded, That it shall be wholly free for all merchants, commanders of ships, and others the subjects of the queen of Great-Britain, in all places of France, to manage their own business themselves, or to commit them to the management of whomsoever they please; nor shall they be obliged to make use of any interpreter or broker, nor to pay them any salary, unless they chuse to make use of them. Moreover, masters of ships shall not be obliged, in loading or unloading their ships, to make use of those workmen, either at Bourdeaux or in any other places, as may be appointed by public authority for that purpose; but it shall be intirely free for them to load or unload their ships by themselves, or to make use of such persons in loading or unloading the same as they shall think fit, without the payment of any salary to any other whomsoever; neither shall they be forced to unload any sort of merchandizes, either into other ships, or to receive them into their own, or to wait for their being loaded longer than they please. And all and every the subjects of the most Christian king shall reciprocally have and enjoy the same privileges and liberty in all places in Europe subject to the dominion of Great-Britain.

XIII. It shall be wholly lawful and free for merchants and others, being subjects either to the queen of Great-Britain, or to the most Christian king, by will, or any other disposition, made either during the time of sickness, or at any other time, before or at the point of death, to devise or give away their merchandizes, effects, money, debts belonging to them, and all moveable goods, which they have or ought to have, at the time of their death, within their dominions, and any other places belonging to the queen of Great-Britain, and to the most Christian king. Moreover, whether they die, having made their wills, or intestate, their lawful heirs and executors, or administrators, residing in either of the kingdoms, or coming from any other part, altho' they be not naturalized, shall freely and quietly receive and take possession of all the said goods and effects whatsoever, according to the laws of Great-Britain and France respectively; in such manner, however, that the wills, and right of entering upon the inheritances of persons intestate, must be proved according to law, as well by the subjects of the queen of Great-Britain, as by the subjects of the most Christian king, in those places where each person died, whether that may happen in Great-Britain or in France, any law, statute, edict, custom, or droit d'aubaine whatever, to the contrary notwithstanding.

XIV. A dispute arising between any commander of the ships of either side and his seamen, in any port of the other party,

concerning wages due to the said seamen, or other civil causes, the magistrates of the place shall require no more from the person accused, than that he give to the accuser a declaration in writing, witnessed by the magistrate, whereby he shall be bound to answer that matter before a competent judge in his own country: which being done, it shall not be lawful either for the seamen to desert their ship, or to hinder the commander from prosecuting his voyage. It shall moreover be lawful for the merchants on both sides, in the places of their abode, or elsewhere, to keep books of their accounts and affairs, as they shall think fit, and to have an intercourse of letters in such language or idiom as they shall please, without any molestation or search whatsoever: but if it should happen to be necessary for them to produce their books of accounts, for deciding any dispute and controversy, in such case they shall be obliged to bring into court the intire books or writings, but so as that the judge may not have liberty to inspect any other articles in the said books; neither shall it be lawful, under any pretence, to take the said books or writings forcibly out of the hands of the owners, or to retain them, the case of bankruptcy only excepted; neither shall the said subjects of the queen of Great-Britain be obliged to write their accounts, copies of letters, acts, or instruments, relating to trade, on stamped paper, in French papier timbré, except their day-book, which, that it may be produced as evidence in any law-suit, ought, according to the laws, which all persons trading in France are to observe, to be subscribed gratis by the judge, and signed with his own hand.

XV. It shall not be lawful for any foreign privateers (not being subjects of one or of the other confederates) who have commissions from any other prince or state in enmity with either nation, to fit their ships in the ports of one or the other of the aforesaid parties, to sell what they have taken, or in any other manner whatever to exchange either ships, merchandizes, or any other ladings; neither shall they be allowed even to purchase victuals, except such as shall be necessary for their going to the next port of that prince from whom they have commissions.

XVI. The ships of both parties being laden, sailing along the coasts or shores of the other, and being forced by storm into the havens or ports, or coming to land in any other manner, shall not be obliged there to unlade their goods, or any part thereof, or pay any duty, unless they do of their own accord unlade their goods there, or dispose of any part of their lading; but it may be lawful to take out of the ship, and to sell (leave being first obtained from those who have the inspection of sea affairs) a small part of their lading, for this end only, that necessaries, either for the refreshment or victualling of the ship, may be purchased; and, in that case, the whole lading of the ship shall not be subject to pay the duties, but that small part only which has been taken out and sold.

XVII. It shall be lawful for all and singular the subjects of the queen of Great-Britain and the most Christian king, to sail with their ships with all manner of liberty and security, no distinction being made who are the proprietors of the merchandizes laden thereon, from any port to the places of those who are now, or shall be hereafter at enmity with the queen of Great-Britain, or the most Christian king. It shall likewise be lawful for the subjects and inhabitants aforesaid, to sail with the ships and merchandizes afore mentioned, and to trade with the same liberty and security from the places, ports, and havens of those who are enemies of both or of either party, without any opposition or disturbance whatsoever, not only directly from the places of the enemy, aforementioned, to neutral places, but also from one place belonging to an enemy to another place belonging to an enemy, whether they be under the jurisdiction of the same prince, or under several. And as it is now stipulated concerning ships and goods, that free ships shall also give a freedom to goods, and that every thing shall be deemed to be free and exempt, which shall be found on board the ships belonging to the subjects of either of the confederates, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, should appertain to the enemies of either of their Majesties, contraband goods being always excepted, on the discovery whereof matters shall be managed according to the sense of the subsequent articles. It is also agreed, in like manner, that the same liberty be extended to persons who are on board a free ship, with this condition, that although they be enemies to both or either party, they are not to be taken out of that free ship, unless they are soldiers, and in actual service of the enemies.

XVIII. This liberty of navigation and commerce shall extend to all kinds of merchandizes, excepting those only which follow in the next article, and which are signified by the name of contraband.

XIX. Under this name of contraband; or prohibited goods, shall be comprehended arms, great guns, bombs, with their fuzees, and other things belonging to them, fire-balls, gun-powder, match, cannon-ball, pikes, swords, lances, spears, halberds, mortars, petards, granadoes, salt-petre, muskets, musket-balls, helmets, head-pieces, breast-plates, coats of mail, and the like kinds of arms proper for arming soldiers, musket-

musket-rests, belts, horses, with their furniture, and all other warlike instruments whatever.

XX. These merchandizes which follow shall not be reckoned among prohibited goods; that is to say, all sorts of cloths, and all other manufactures woven of any wool, flax, silk, cotton, or any other materials whatever; all kinds of cloaths and wearing apparel, together with the species whereof they are used to be made; gold and silver, as well coined as uncoined; tin, iron, lead, copper, brass, coals; as also wheat and barley, with any other kind of corn and pulse; tobacco, and likewise all manner of spices; salted and smoked flesh, salted fish, cheese and butter, beer, oils, wine, sugars, and all sorts of salt, and, in general, all provisions which serve for the nourishment of mankind, and the sustenance of life. Furthermore, all kinds of cotton, hemp, flax, tar, pitch, ropes, cables, sails, sail-cloths, anchors, and any part of anchors; also ship-masts, plank, boards, and beams, of what trees soever, and all other things proper either for building or repairing ships; and all other goods whatever, which have not been worked into the form of any instrument or thing prepared for war, by land or by sea, shall not be reputed contraband, much less such as have been already wrought and made up for any other use; all which shall wholly be reckoned among free goods, as likewise all other merchandizes and things, which are not to be comprehended and particularly mentioned in the preceding article, so that they may be transported and carried in the freest manner by the subjects of both confederates, even to places belonging to an enemy, such towns or places being only excepted, as are at that time besieged, blockaded up round about, or invested.

XXI. To the end that all manner of dissensions and quarrels may be avoided and prevented on one side and the other, it is agreed, That, in case either of their royal Majesties who enter into this alliance should be engaged in war, the ships and vessels belonging to the subjects of the other ally must be furnished with sea-letters, or passports, expressing the name, property, and bulk of the ship, as also the name and place of habitation of the master and commander of the said ship, that it may appear thereby that the ship really and truly belongs to the subjects of one of the princes; which passports shall be made out and granted according to the form annexed to this treaty. This shall likewise be recalled every year, that is, if the ship happens to return home within the space of a year. It is likewise agreed, That such ships being laden, are to be provided not only with passports, as abovementioned, but also with certificates, containing the several particulars of the cargo, the place whence the ship sailed, and whither she is bound; so that it may be known whether any forbidden or contraband goods as are enumerated in the 19th article of this treaty, be on board the same; which certificates shall be made out by the officers of the place whence the ship set sail, in the accustomed form. And if any one shall think it fit or adviseable to express in the said certificates the person to whom they belong, he may freely do so.

XXII. The ships of the subjects and inhabitants of both their most serene royal Majesties, coming to any of the sea-coasts within the dominions of either of the confederates, but not willing to enter into port, or being entered, yet not being willing to shew or to sell the cargoes of their ships, shall not be obliged to give an account of their lading unless they are suspected, upon sure evidence, of carrying to the enemies of the other confederate prohibited goods, called contraband.

XXIII. And in case of the said manifest suspicion, the said subjects and inhabitants of the dominions of both of their most serene royal Majesties shall be obliged to exhibit in the ports their passports and certificates, in the manner before specified.

XXIV. But in case the ships of the subjects and inhabitants of both their most serene royal Majesties, either on the sea-coasts or on the high seas, shall meet with the men of war of the other, or with privateers, the said men of war and privateers, for preventing any inconveniencies, are to remain out of cannon-shot, and to send a boat to the merchant-ship which has been met with, and shall enter her with two or three men only, to whom the master or commander of such ship or vessel shall shew his passport, concerning the property thereof, made out according to the form annexed to this present treaty: and the ship which shall exhibit one shall have free passage, and it shall be wholly unlawful any way to molest her, search, or compel her to quit her intended course.

XXV. But that merchant-ship of the other party which intends to go to a port at enmity with the other confederate, or concerning whose voyage, and the sort of goods on board, there may be just suspicion, shall be obliged to exhibit, either on the high seas or in the ports and havens, not only her passports, but her certificates, expressing that they are not of the kind of prohibited, which are specified in the 19th article.

XXVI. But if one party, on exhibiting the above said certificates, mentioning the particulars of the things on board, should discover any goods of that kind, which are declared contraband or prohibited by the 19th article of this treaty, to be designed for a port subject to the enemy of the other, it shall be lawful to break up the hatches of that ship wherein the same shall happen to be found, whether she belong to the subjects of Great-Britain or to France, to open the chests, packs, or casks therein, or to remove even the smallest par-

cel of the goods, unless the lading be brought on shore, in the presence of the officers of the court of admiralty, and an inventory thereof be made: but there shall be no allowance to sell, exchange, or alienate the same in any manner, unless, after due and lawful process has been had against such prohibited goods, the judges of the admiralty respectively shall, by a sentence pronounced, have confiscated the same, saving always as well the ship itself, as the other goods found therein, which, by this treaty, are to be esteemed free; neither may they be detained on pretence of their being, as it were, infected by the prohibited goods; much less shall they be confiscated as lawful prize. But if not the whole cargo, but only part thereof, shall consist of prohibited or contraband goods, and the commander of the ship shall be ready and willing to deliver them to the captor, who has discovered them, in such case, the captor having received those goods, shall forthwith discharge the ship, and not hinder her, by any means, freely to prosecute the voyage on which she was bound.

XXVII. On the contrary it is agreed, That whatever shall be found to be laden by the subjects and inhabitants of either party, on any ship belonging to the enemy of the other and his subjects, the whole, although it be not of the sort of prohibited goods, may be confiscated, in the same manner as if it belonged to the enemy himself, except those goods and merchandizes that were put on board such ship before the declaration of war, or even after such declaration, if so be it were done within the time and limits following; that is to say, if they were put on board such ship in any port and place within the space of six weeks after such declaration, within the bounds called the Naze in Norway, and the Soundings; of two months, from the Soundings to the city of Gibraltar; of ten weeks in the Mediterranean Sea; and of eight months in any other country or place in the world: so that the goods of the subjects of either prince, whether they be of the nature of such as are prohibited, or otherwise, which, as is aforesaid, were put on board any ship belonging to an enemy before the war, or after the declaration of the same, within the time and limits aforesaid, shall no ways be liable to confiscation, but shall well and truly be restored, without delay, to the proprietors demanding the same; but so as that, if the said merchandizes be contraband, it shall not be any ways lawful to carry them afterwards to the ports belonging to the enemy.

XXVIII. And that more abundant care may be taken for the security of the subjects of both their most serene royal Majesties, that they suffer no injury by the men of war or privateers of the other party, all the commanders of the ships of the queen of Great-Britain and of the most Christian king, and all their subjects, shall be forbid doing any injury or damage to the other side; and if they act to the contrary, they shall be punished, and shall moreover be bound to make satisfaction for all cause of damage, and the interest thereof, by reparation under the bond and obligation of their persons and goods.

XXIX. For this cause, all commanders of privateers, before they receive their patents or commissions, shall hereafter be obliged to give, before a competent judge, sufficient security, by good bail, who are men able to pay, and have no interest in the said ship, and are each bound in the whole for the sum of 1,500 l. sterling, or 16,500 livres Tournois; or, if such ship be provided with above one hundred and fifty seamen or soldiers, for the sum of 30,000 l. or 33,000 livres Tournois, that they make intire satisfaction for any damages and injuries whatsoever, which they or their officers, or others in their service, commit during their course at sea, contrary to this present treaty, or the edicts of either of their most serene royal Majesties, published by virtue thereof, under penalty, likewise, of having their special commission and patents revoked and annulled.

XXX. Both their abovenamed royal Majesties being willing to shew a mutual and equal favour, in all their dominions respectively, to the subjects of each other, in the same manner as if they were their own subjects, will give such orders as shall be necessary and effectual, that justice be administered concerning prizes in the court of admiralty, according to the rules of equity and right, and the articles of this treaty, by judges who are above all suspicion, and who have no manner of interest in the cause in dispute.

XXXI. Whensoever the ambassadors of each of their royal Majesties above named, and other their ministers having a public character, and residing in the court of the other prince, shall complain of the unjustness of the sentences which have been given, their Majesties on each side shall take care that the same be revised and re-examined in their respective councils, that it may appear whether the directions and provisions prescribed in this treaty have been observed, and have had their due effect: they shall likewise take care that this matter be effectually provided for, and that right be done to every complainant within the space of three months. However, before or after judgment given, the revision thereof still depending, for the avoiding of all damages, it shall not be lawful to sell the goods in dispute, or to unlade them, unless with the consent of the person concerned.

XXXII. A suit being commenced between the captors of prizes on one part, and the reclaimers of the same on the other, and a sentence, or decree, being given in favour of the

the claimer, that same sentence, or decree, security being given, shall be put in execution, the appeal of the captor to a superior judge in any wise notwithstanding; which, however, is not to be observed when judgment has been given against the claimer.

XXXIII. In case that either ships of war or merchantmen, forced by storms, or other misfortunes, be driven on rocks or shelves on the coasts of one or the other party, and are there broken to pieces and shipwrecked, whatever part of the ships or tackling thereof, as also of the goods and merchandizes, shall be saved, or the produce thereof, shall be faithfully restored to the proprietors, reclaimers, or their factors, paying only the expences of preserving the same, in such manner as it may be settled on both sides concerning the rate of salvage [see SALVAGE], saving, at the same time, the rights and customs of each nation. And both their most serene royal Majesties will interpose their authority, that such of their subjects may be severely punished, who, in the like accident, shall be found guilty of inhumanity.

XXXIV. It shall be free for the subjects of each party to employ such advocates, attornies, notaries, sollicitors, and factors, as they shall think fit; to which end the said advocates and others above mentioned, may be appointed by the ordinary judges, if it be needful, and the judges be required thereto.

XXXV. And, that commerce and navigation may be more securely and freely followed, it is further agreed, That neither the queen of Great-Britain nor the most Christian king shall receive any pirates or robbers into any of their ports, havens, cities, or towns; neither shall they permit them to be received into their ports, or to be protected or assisted by any manner of harbouring or support, by any the subjects or inhabitants of either of them: but they shall rather cause all such pirates and sea-robbers, or whoever shall receive, conceal, or assist them, to be apprehended, and punished as they deserve, for a terror and example to others. And all the ships, goods, or merchandizes, piratically taken by them, and brought into the ports of the kingdom of either, as much as can be found, although they have by sale been conveyed to others, shall be restored to the lawful owners, or their deputies, having instruments of delegation, and an authority of procuration, for reclaiming the same; and indemnification shall be made, proper evidence being first given in the court of admiralty for proving the property. And all ships and merchandizes, of what nature soever, which can be rescued out of their hands on the high seas, shall be brought into some port of either kingdom, and delivered to the custody of the officers of that port, with this intention, that they be delivered intire to the true proprietor, as soon as due and sufficient proof shall have been made concerning the property thereof.

XXXVI. It shall be lawful as well for the ships of war of both their most serene royal Majesties, as for privateers, to their enemies; neither shall they be obliged to pay any thing to the officers of the admiralty, or to any other judges; nor shall the aforementioned prizes, when they come to and enter the ports of either of their most serene royal Majesties, be detained by arrest; neither shall searchers, or other officers of those places, make examination concerning them, or the validity thereof; but rather they shall have free liberty to hoist sail at any time, to depart and to carry their prizes to that place which is mentioned in their commission or patent, which the commanders of such ships of war shall be obliged to shew. On the contrary, no shelter or refuge shall be given in their ports to such as have made a prize upon the subjects of either of their royal Majesties. And if perchance such ships shall come in, being forced by stress of weather, or the danger of the sea, particular care shall be taken (as far as it is repugnant to former treaties made with other kings and states) that they go from thence, and retire elsewhere as soon as possible.

XXXVII. Neither of their most serene royal Majesties shall permit that the ships or goods of the other shall be taken upon the coasts, or in the ports or rivers of their dominions, by ships of war, or others, having commission from any prince, commonwealth, or town whatsoever; and in case such a thing should happen, both parties shall use their authority and united force, that damage done be made good.

XXXVIII. If hereafter it shall happen, thro' inadvertency or otherwise, that any contraventions or inconveniencies on either side arise, concerning the observation of this treaty, the friendship and good intelligence shall not immediately thereupon be broke off, but this treaty shall subsist in all its force, and a proper remedy for removing the inconveniencies shall be procured, as likewise reparation of the contraventions; and if the subjects of the one or the other be found in fault, they only shall be severely punished and chastised.

XXXIX. But if it shall appear that a captor made use of any kind of torture upon the master of the ship, the ship's crew, or others who shall be on board any ship belonging to the subjects of the other party; in such case, not only the ship itself, together with the persons, merchandize, and goods whatsoever, shall be forthwith released, without any further delay, and set entirely free, but also such as shall be found guilty of so great a crime, as also the accessaries thereto, shall suffer the most severe punishment, suitable to their crime.

This the queen of Great-Britain and the most Christian king do mutually engage shall be done, without any respect of persons.

Form of the passport [see the article PASSPORT] to be desired of and given by the lord high admiral of Great-Britain, &c. or by the lords commissioners for executing the office of high admiral of Great Britain, &c. according to the directions of the 21st article of this treaty.

To all to whom these presents shall come, greeting: We high admiral of Great-Britain, &c

[or we commissioners for executing the office of high-admiral of Great-Britain, &c.] do make known and testify, by these presents, that A. B. of C. the usual place of his dwelling, master or commander of the ship called D. appeared before us, and declared by solemn oath [or produced a certificate under the seal of the magistrate, or of the officers of the customs, of the town and port of E. dated the day of the month of in the year of our Lord 17 of and concerning the oath made before them] that the said ship and vessel D. burthen tons, whereof he is himself at this time master, or commander, doth really and truly belong to the subjects of her most serene Majesty, our most gracious sovereign. And whereas it would be most acceptable to us that the said master, or commander, should be assisted in the affairs wherein he is justly and honestly employed, we desire you, and all and every of you, that wheresoever the said master, or commander, shall bring his ship, and the goods on board thereof, you would cause him to be kindly received, to be civilly treated, and, paying the lawful and accustomed duties, and other things, to be admitted to enter, to remain in, to depart out of your ports, rivers, and dominions, enjoy all manner of right, and all kind of navigation, traffic, and commerce, in all places where he shall think proper and convenient; for which we shall always be most willing and ready to make returns to you in a grateful manner. In witness and confirmation whereof we have signed these presents, and caused our seal to be put thereunto.

Given at the day of the month of in the year 17

Form of the certificates to be required of, and to be given by, the magistrate, or officers of the customs of the town and port, in their respective towns and ports, to the ships and vessels which sail from thence, according to the direction of the 21st article of this present treaty.

We A. B. magistrate, or officers of the customs, of the town and port of C. do certify and attest, That on the day of the month of in the year of our Lord 17 D. E. of F. personally appeared before us, and declared, by a solemn oath, That the ship, or vessel, called G. of about tons, whereof H. I. of K. his usual place of habitation, is master, or commander, does rightfully and properly belong to him, and other subjects of her most serene Majesty, our most gracious sovereign, and to them alone; that she is now bound from the port of L. to the port of M. laden with the goods and merchandizes hereunder particularly described and enumerated, that is to say, as follows. In witness whereof, we have signed this certificate, and sealed it with the seal of our office.

Given the day of the month of in the year of our Lord 17

Form of the passports and letters which are to be given in the admiralty of France, to the ships and barks which shall go from thence, according to the 21st article of this present treaty.

LEWIS count of Thoulouse, admiral of France, to all who shall see these presents, greeting: We make known, that we have given leave and permission to master and commander of the ship called of the town of burthen tons, or thereabouts, lying at present in the port and haven of and bound for and laden with after his ship has been visited, and before sailing, that he shall make oath, before the officers who have the jurisdiction of the maritime affairs, That the said ship belongs to one or more of the subjects of his Majesty, the act whereof shall be put at the end of these presents; as likewise that he will keep, and cause to be kept by his crew on board, the marine ordinances and regulations, and enter in the proper office, a list, signed and witnessed, containing the names and surnames, the places of birth and abode of the crew of his ship, and of all who shall embark on board her, whom he shall not take on board without the knowledge and permission of the officers of the marine; and in every port or haven where he shall enter with his ship, he shall shew his present leave to the officers and judge of the marine, and shall give a faithful account to them of what passed and was done during his voyage: and he shall carry the colours, arms, and ensigns of the king and of us, during

T R E

his voyage. In witness whereof, we have signed these presents, and put the seal of our arms thereunto, and caused the same to be countersigned by our secretary of the marine, at the day of 17

Signed LEWIS, COUNT of THOLOUSE,
And underneath by

Form of the act concerning the oath.

We of the admiralty of
do certify, That master of the ship named
in the above passport, has taken the oath mentioned therein.
Done at the day
of 17

XL. The present treaty shall be ratified by the queen of Great-Britain and the most Christian king, and the ratifications thereof shall be duly exchanged at Utrecht, within four weeks, or sooner, if possible.

In witness whereof, &c.

Be it known unto all men, That whereas in the 9th article of the treaty of commerce, concluded this day between the most serene queen of Great-Britain, and the most serene the most Christian king, by their Majesties ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiaries, mention is made of some heads of matters, which being proposed on the part of Great-Britain, have not as yet been mutually adjusted; and therefore it was thought fit to refer them to be discussed and determined by commissioners: we, therefore, the underwritten ambassadors, that it may certainly appear what are those heads of matters which are to be referred to commissioners, have resolved to give a particular description of them in this writing, declaring that they are the same, and no other than what follow:

I. No manufacture of either kingdom, and the dominions belonging thereunto, shall hereafter be subject to be inspected and confiscated, under any pretence of fraud or defect in making or working them, or because of any other imperfection therein, but absolute freedom shall be allowed to the buyer and seller, to bargain and agree for the same, as they shall see good, any law, statute, edict, arrest, privilege, grant, or custom, to the contrary notwithstanding.

II. And so far as a certain usage, not confirmed by any law, has obtained in several towns of Great-Britain and France, that is to say, that every one, for coming in and going out, shall pay a kind of tax, called in English HEAD MONEY, and in French DU CHEF, it is concluded that neither the same, nor any other duty on that account, shall any more be exacted.

III. And the British merchants shall not hereafter be forbidden to sell tobacco to any buyer whom they please; for which purpose, the letting out the duties on the said tobacco to farmers, which has been hitherto practised, shall cease, neither shall such farming be used again hereafter.

IV. The following case only being excepted, that is to say, where British ships shall take up merchandizes in one port, and carry them to another port of France, in which case, and in no other, the British subjects shall be obliged to pay the duties abrogated and abolished by this article, only in proportion to the goods which they take in, and not according to the bulk of the ship.

V. Whereas several kinds of goods contained in casks, chests, or other cases, for which the duties are paid by weight, will be exported from, and imported into France, by British subjects; it is therefore agreed, that, in such case, the aforesaid duties shall be payable only according to the weight of the goods themselves, but the weight of the casks, chests, and other cases whatever, shall be deducted in such manner and proportion as has been hitherto used in England, and is still practised.

VI. It is further agreed, That if any mistake or error shall, on either side, be committed by any master of a ship, his interpreter or factor, or by others employed by him, in making the entry, or declaration, of the goods on board his ship, for such defect, if so be some fraud does not evidently appear, neither the ship, nor the lading thereof, shall be subject to be confiscated; but it shall be free for the proprietors to take back again such goods as were omitted in the entry, or declaration, of the master of the ship, paying only the accustomed duties, according to the rates settled in the books; neither shall the merchants, or the master of the ship, lose the said goods, or suffer any other punishment, if so be the said goods so omitted were not brought on shore before the declaration made, and the custom paid for the same.

VII. And whereas the quality of the ship, master, and goods, will sufficiently appear from such passports and certificates, it shall not be lawful for the commanders of men of war to exact any other verification, under any title whatsoever; but if any merchant-ship shall want such passports, or certificates, then it may be examined by a proper judge, but in such manner, as if it shall be found, from other proofs and documents,

VOL. II.

T R E

that it truly belongs to the subjects of either of the confederates, and contains no prohibited goods, designed to be carried to the enemy of the other, it shall not be liable to confiscation, but shall be released, together with its cargo, in order to proceed on its voyage; since it may often happen, that such papers could not come to the ship when she was setting sail from any port, or that they have been lost by some chance or other, or have been taken away from the ship. And if, besides the passports and certificates, made according to the form of this treaty, other passports and certificates happen to be found in the ship, in another form, and perhaps according to the prescription of treaties made with others, no pretence shall be taken from thence of detaining, or in any wise molesting, either the ship, or men, or goods. If the master of the ship named in the passports be removed by death, or any other cause, and another be put in his place, the passports shall nevertheless retain their force, and the ship, and goods laden thereon, shall be secure.

VIII. It is farther provided on both sides, and shall be taken for a general rule, that a ship and goods, although they have remained in the enemy's power for four-and-twenty hours, shall not therefore be esteemed as capture, and be immediately made prize, but, if, on other accounts, they ought to be restored, they may be reclaimed, and shall be given again to the proprietors.

IX. It shall be free both for their royal Majesties, for the advantage of their subjects trading to the kingdoms and dominions of the other, to constitute national consuls, of their own subjects, who shall enjoy that right and liberty which belongs to them by reason of the exercise of their function; but as to the places where such consuls are to be appointed, both sides shall afterwards agree between themselves.

In witness whereof, &c.

Be it known to all men, That whereas in the 9th article of the treaty of navigation and commerce, concluded the 31st day of March, 1713, between the most serene queen of Great-Britain and the most serene the most Christian king, by the ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiaries of their Majesties, certain merchandizes, namely, woollen manufactures, sugars, salt-fish, and what is produced from whales, are excepted, in general words, from the rule of the tariff made the 18th day of the month of September, in the year 1664, in order to be afterwards referred to the discussion of commissaries: to prevent, therefore, all mistakes and ambiguity, which might, perhaps, arise from such general terms, and to make it more evidently appear, what particular sorts of goods are to come under the consideration of the aforesaid commissaries, we the under-written ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiaries, have declared by these presents, and do declare, that the exception of the above-mentioned merchandizes is to be understood in the manner following:

I. Whalebone cut and prepared, fins and oils of whales, shall pay, at all places of importation in the kingdom, the duties appointed by the tariff of the 7th of December 1699.

II. Cloths, ratines, and farges, shall be likewise subject to the same duties of the tariff of the 7th of December 1699; and in order to facilitate the trade thereof, it shall be allowed to import them by St Valery upon the Somme, by Rouen, and by Bourdeaux, where these goods shall be subject to visitation in the same manner, as those which are made in the kingdom.

III. Salt-fish in barrels only are to be imported into the kingdom, and at all places of entrance in the kingdom, countries, and territories, under the dominion of the king, even at all free ports, the duties of landing and of consumption shall be paid, which were appointed before the tariff of 1664, and besides 40 livres per last, consisting of 12 barrels, weighing each 300 pounds, for duty of entry; which entry shall not be permitted but by St Valery upon the Somme, Rouen, Nantz, Libourne, and Bourdeaux, and shall remain prohibited at all other harbours or ports, as well in the ocean as in the Mediterranean.

IV. Refined sugar, in loaf or in powder, white and brown sugar-candy, shall pay the duties appointed by the tariff of 1699.

In confirmation of which, &c.

At Utrecht, the 28th day of April, in the year 1713.

A TREATY of NAVIGATION and COMMERCE between
Great-Britain and Spain, concluded at Utrecht ^{Nov. 28,}
1713. _{Decem. 9,}

I. The treaty of peace, commerce, and alliance, between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, concluded at Madrid on the 14th day of May 1667 [see the article SPAIN], is ratified and confirmed by this present treaty.

Their royal Majesties mutually promise, that they will faithfully perform and fulfil all and singular the articles of the said treaty, and whatever privileges, concessions, grants, or advantages of any kind are therein, or in the cédulas annexed to it, allowed to their respective subjects; and that they will take care that they shall be at all times performed and fulfilled

by their ministers, officers, and subjects; that the subjects of the two crowns may enjoy the full effect thereof (except in those things concerning which it is otherwise ordained, to mutual satisfaction, in the following articles). Moreover, the treaty of 1670, between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain [see the article SPANISH AMERICA], for removing differences, restraining depredations, and establishing peace between the said crowns, is hereby confirmed and ratified, without prejudice, however, to any contract, or privilege, or licence granted by his Catholic Majesty to the queen of Great-Britain, or her subjects in the treaty of peace lately concluded, or in the ASSIENTO CONTRACT [see the articles ASSIENTO CONTRACT and SOUTH SEA COMPANY]; and also without prejudice to any liberty or power heretofore enjoyed by the subjects of Great-Britain, either by right, sufferance, or indulgence.

II. No higher duties or customs of any kind, on goods imported or exported, shall be paid by the subjects of their royal Majesties respectively, trading to the dominions of their Majesties, than are exacted from, and paid by, the subjects of the most favoured nation; and if any foreign nation shall hereafter obtain from either side, a diminution of the customs, or any other privileges, the same shall reciprocally be granted to the subjects of each crown. And as it has been agreed as above, touching the rates of duties; so it is ordained as a general rule between their Majesties, That in all lands and places subject to the command of their respective Majesties, all and every one of their subjects shall use and enjoy at least the same privileges, liberties, and immunities, concerning all imposts or duties whatsoever, respecting persons, wares, merchandize, ships, freighting, mariners, navigation, and commerce, and enjoy the same favour in all things, whether respecting trade, or any other right whatsoever, which is now, or shall be hereafter, enjoyed by the most favoured nation; as is set forth more at large in the 38th article of the treaty of 1667, specially inserted in the foregoing article.

III. [The third, fifth, and eighth articles, were not ratified as they stood at first in the treaty, but a new draught of them, which was annexed, and filed the explanatory articles. We shall therefore give our readers only the latter, at the end of this treaty.]

IV. The Catholic king consents and promises, that the subjects of Great-Britain residing in the provinces of Biscay and Guipuscoa, shall for the future be allowed to hire houses or warehouses for keeping their goods in, and his Majesty will take care, by repeating his orders for that purpose, that they shall be at liberty to do this in the same manner, and with the same privileges, which are enjoyed by the said British subjects in Andalusia, or any other ports or places in Spain, by virtue of the aforesaid treaty of 1667, or of any edict or ordinance issued by their Catholic Majesties. The subjects of Spain shall enjoy the same liberty in any ports or places of Great-Britain, with all the privileges belonging to them by the aforesaid treaty.

V. See the explanation at the end of this treaty.

VI. And as the respective subjects of their Majesties ought to enjoy an entire, safe, and unmolested use and liberty of navigation and commerce, whilst the peace and friendship entered into by their Majesties and their crowns shall subsist, it is provided by their Majesties, that for any little difference that may arise, their said subjects shall not be deprived of this security, but, on the contrary, they shall enjoy all the benefits of peace until war be declared between the two crowns.

It is further agreed, That if a war should break out and be declared between their Majesties and their kingdoms (which God prevent), in that case, agreeable to the 36th article of the above-mentioned treaty of 1667, the term of six months after the declaration of such rupture, shall be allowed to the subjects of each party residing in the dominions of the other, in which they may retire, with their families, goods, merchandizes, ships, and effects, and carry them by sea or land whither they shall please, paying the due and usual customs: they shall also be permitted to sell and alienate their moveable and immoveable effects, and carry away the price thereof freely and without molestation: nor shall their goods, wealth, merchandize, and effects, much less their persons, be in the mean time detained or molested by any seizure or arrest. But rather in the mean while the subjects on each side shall have and enjoy good and speedy justice, so, that during the said space of six months, they may be able to recover their goods and effects intrusted either to the public, or to private persons.

VII. It is likewise agreed, that all losses which the subjects of either crown shall duly prove that they sustained in the beginning of the late war (contrary to the tenor of the 36th article of the above-mentioned article of 1667), whether in moveable or immoveable goods, shall be reciprocally made good without delay to them, or to their lawful attorneys, heirs, or administrators; and restitution shall be made of such goods as were confiscated and remain, whether they consist of lands, houses, inheritances, or of whatsoever sort they be; and for such as cannot be recovered, a just and

lawful price shall be paid: and it is agreed and concluded by their said Majesties, that the said payments (the claims being fully justified as aforesaid) shall be faithfully made and performed by their respective treasurers.

VIII. See at the end of this treaty.

IX. His Catholic Majesty promises, that those merchandizes which are not particularly specified in the table of rates, which is to be drawn up agreeable to the 3d article of this treaty, shall be charged with the same and no higher duties, in proportion to their value, than the merchandizes mentioned in the said table of rates are charged with. And if any difference should arise between the farmers or the officers of the custom-house and the merchants, concerning the value of any goods, it shall be in the option of the merchant to sell such merchandizes to the farmer or officer at the price set upon them by the farmer; which price shall be immediately paid in ready money, the duty only being deducted. The merchant may likewise, keeping the rest of his merchandizes, give a part of them to the farmer or officer at the rate set upon them, as hath been mentioned, instead of the duty.

X. It is agreed, That in case any merchandizes shall be brought by the subjects of Great-Britain from the coast of Africa into Spain, and be admitted to pay the duties, these duties being duly paid, the merchandizes shall not be charged afterwards, either by the captains-general of the coasts or commanders of the ports, or any other person, under what name or title soever, with any further duty, excepting what is payable in general for all merchandizes of the same kind at the time of sale.

XI. The masters of merchant-ships entering into any port of Spain, shall be obliged, within 24 hours after their arrival, to exhibit two declarations or inventories of their cargoes, or of that part thereof which they are to unlade there, viz. one to the farmer or officer of the customs, and another to the judges of contraband: neither shall they open their hatches, till either the searchers come on board, or leave be given them to do it by the farmers of the custom-houses. No merchandizes shall be unladed with any other view than that of being immediately carried to the custom-houses, agreeable to a permission, which shall be given in writing to that end. It shall not be lawful, however, for the judges of contraband or other officers of the customs, under any pretext whatsoever, to open any bags, chests, casks, or other package of any goods whatsoever belonging to the British subjects, whilst they are carrying to the custom-house, and before they are brought thither, nor unless the owner or his factor be present, who may pay the duties, and take the goods into his own custody. But the judges of contraband, or their deputies, may be present when the goods are taken out of the ship, and when they are declared and opened in the custom-house: and if there be a suspicion of fraud, as for instance, that it is intended to shew one species of goods for another, it shall be lawful for him to open all the bags, chests, or casks, provided it be done in the custom-house and no other place, and in presence of the merchant or his factor, and not otherwise: but when the goods have been shewn and carried out of the custom-house, and the chests, casks, or other package marked with the sign or seal of the proper officer, no judge of contraband, or other officer, shall presume to open them again, or to hinder them from being carried to the merchant's house. Neither shall it be lawful for them, under any pretext whatsoever, to hinder the removal of the said goods from one house or warehouse to another, within the walls or compass of the said city or place, provided that it be done between the hours of eight in the morning and five in the evening, and previous notice be given to the farmers of the right de alcavalos and cientos, with what intent they are moved; and if it be done in order to their being sold, those duties, if not paid before, may be paid there, or at the place of sale; or, if not to be sold, that the usual certificate in writing may be given to the merchant. As to the rest, it shall be lawful to carry merchandizes by land or sea, from any port or place within the king of Spain's dominions to any other port or place, under the conditions expressed in the fifth article of this treaty.

XII. The merchandizes imported into, or exported from, the Canary Islands by British subjects, shall be charged with no higher duties than they paid there in the reign of the late king Charles II. or shall be imposed on them by the new book of rates.

XIII. The subjects of each of their Majesties, who are in debt to the subjects of the other, whether the debts were contracted before the beginning of the late war, or within six months after it began, or during the war under the protection of letters of safe-conduct [see the article PASSPORT]; or, lastly, after a truce was made between the two crowns, shall be bound and obliged faithfully to pay them, in the same manner as if a war had never broke out between the two crowns; nor shall they be suffered to raise any exceptions to the just demands of their creditors on pretence of the war.

XIV. His Catholic Majesty gives the subjects of Great-Britain leave to settle and reside in the town called St Andero, on the conditions expressed in the ninth and thirtieth articles of the treaty of 1667. See the article SPAIN.

XV. As

XV. As to the judge conservator, and others to be substituted by him, if the privilege of having one be granted to any other foreign nation, the same shall also be granted to the subjects of Great-Britain. In the mean time, and 'till something certain be determined in this matter, his Catholic Majesty will give express orders to all and every judge of his kingdom, and to all other persons whatsoever to whom the administration or execution of justice is intrusted, and enjoin them, under the severest penalties, to do justice, and cause it to be executed, without delay, partiality, or affection, in all causes wherein the subjects of Great-Britain are concerned.

The Catholic king consents, that appeals from sentences given in causes relating to British subjects, may be brought before the tribunal of the council of war at Madrid, and no where else.

XVI. If this treaty, or any article of it, be violated by any minister, or other subject, of her Britannic Majesty, or of his Catholic Majesty, he shall be answerable for all the damage thereby occasioned; and if he be in public office, he shall, besides making satisfaction to the person injured, as aforesaid, be deprived of his office.

XVII. The subjects of Great-Britain, having brought by sea, from some other ports of Spain, wine, brandy, oil, soap, dried grapes, or other commodities, it shall be lawful for them, on producing certificates that the duties were paid at the place whence they set sail, to lade the same on board their ships lying at Cadiz, or there to remove them from one ship to another, with consent of the intendants of the marine, and in presence of them, or of their deputies, if they chuse to be there, to prevent any fraud, at a seasonable time to be appointed by the intendants within 24 hours; or to carry them away from thence, without being liable to pay the duty called *hondeaxe*, or any other duty of import or export.

This treaty shall be ratified by the most serene queen of Great-Britain and by the most serene Catholic king, and the ratifications thereof exchanged at Utrecht within two months, or sooner, if it can be done.

In witness whereof, &c.

We having seen and considered the above-written treaty, have approved, ratified, and confirmed the same, as we do by these presents, for ourselves, our heirs and successors, approve, ratify, and confirm it, excepting only three articles thereof, viz. the third, fifth, and eighth, concluded at Utrecht, which are to be observed and understood in the manner and form following:

III. Whereas by the late treaty of peace it is agreed and established as a basis and foundation, that the subjects of Great-Britain, in what regards commerce, shall enjoy the same liberties and privileges, which they enjoyed in the reign of king Charles II. in all parts of the king of Spain's dominions; which rule is what is also to serve for a basis and foundation of the present treaty of commerce, and is to be understood reciprocally in favour of the king of Spain's subjects trading in the dominions of Great-Britain: and as nothing can contribute more to establish the commerce to a mutual benefit, than a fixed, clear, and easy rule in paying the duties, especially on a moderate footing, and proportionable to the value of the merchandize, in order to prevent the frauds that otherwise would be practised to the prejudice of the revenue of either crown, which has been often experienced in Spain, where the established duties by the antient books of rates are excessive; in consideration whereof his Catholic Majesty, being desirous to avoid the like consequences, and to favour, augment, and facilitate, in all that depends upon him, the commerce, in as ample a manner as her Britannic Majesty desires, hath consented on his part to suppress and make void the different duties payable upon importation and exportation, contained in the antient books of rates, as also those that have been imposed since, under any name or pretence whatsoever, and content himself with one only duty to be paid upon all goods and merchandize, after the rate of 10 per cent. of their value; and the like duty upon all goods and merchandize, which shall be exported out of his dominions, whether the value be made by weight, measure, piece, or *ad valorem*. And the same duty shall be collected in all the ports of entry in Spain, comprehending those of Arragon, Valencia, and Catalonia, excepting out of this general rule, Biscaya and Guipuscoa, whose duties of importation and exportation are to remain as they were in the time of Charles II. And that the said 10 per cent. being once paid, the farmers or officers of the custom-houses where these goods shall be entered, shall be obliged to mark the same with the proper seals and marks of their office, and also give the requisite dispatches; by virtue of which the proprietors of the goods may freely transport them to all the other parts of Spain, where they please, without being liable to pay any other duty, imposition, or charges, to the use or benefit of his Catholic Majesty, in any ports or parts of Spain whatsoever, in respect of transporting the said merchandize, over and above what they have paid in pursuance of this new arancel, provided in default of which they shall be esteemed to be fraudu-

lently transported. But it is to be understood, that this is not to extend to the *alcavalos*, *cientos*, and *millones*, in relation to which provision is made in the fifth and eighth articles of this treaty.

And forasmuch as the ambassador of England hath represented that, to avoid all differences and disputes for the future, it is absolutely necessary to establish a certain valuation or rate of the several sorts of merchandize, by which the said duty of 10 per cent. shall always be paid, and not altered, either by means of the augmentation or diminution of the price of the said merchandize, which may hereafter happen in the commerce, in any time, or in any part of the kingdom: it is agreed by their Catholic and Britannic Majesties by their ambassadors, that in the term of three months from the ratification of this treaty, or sooner, if possible, commissaries, named by both their Majesties in due form, shall meet at Madrid or in Cadiz, who, without loss of time, shall proceed to the forming a new book of rates, in such a manner as to fix and limit what shall be paid for the future on all sorts of merchandize, as well upon importation as exportation; and so as that all the different duties which were payable, either before or in the time of Charles II. or since, under whatsoever name or pretence, or collected in different custom-houses or offices, shall be comprehended in this only duty, payable in ONE SUM, whether upon importation or exportation, in all the ports of Spain, and shall extend to the kingdoms of Arragon, Valencia, and principality of Catalonia, and their dependencies, excepting only the provinces of Guipuscoa and Biscaya, of which mention has been already made. And whereas great instances have been made by the ambassador of Great-Britain, that directions be given to the said commissaries that they take care, and above all do observe as a fixed rule, that this duty be laid equally and generally in all the ports and custom-houses of Spain, upon the importation and exportation of all goods and merchandize, after the rate of 10 per cent. of the value, which such goods and merchandize bear in the course of trade between the merchants of Cadiz and port St Mary's, to which the ambassadors of Spain have consented; always provided that the goods and commodities which shall be imported into the kingdom of Spain, by the ports of Biscay and Guipuscoa, and afterwards transported into the other provinces depending on the kingdoms of Castille and Arragon, shall be obliged to pay, at the first custom-house of entry into the said kingdoms, the duties which shall be established in this new book of rates.

V. To prevent the abuses that may be committed in collecting the duties called *alcavalos* and *cientos*, his Catholic Majesty consents, that the subjects of her Britannic Majesty shall not be obliged to pay these duties, during such time as they think fit to let their merchandize remain in the magazines of the custom-houses appointed for that purpose; but when they shall think fit to take out the said goods, either to be transported farther into the country, to be sold in the same place, or carried to their own houses, it shall be permitted them so to do, upon giving bond with sufficient security to pay the said duties of *alcavalos* and *cientos* for the first sale, in two months after the date of his bond; upon which he shall have receipt given him for the said duties, and the goods shall be marked with the proper mark and seal of the farmers of the said *alcavalos* and *cientos* where such bond and security shall be given for the first sale; after which the said merchandize may be transported and sold by wholesale, in any port or place belonging to the king of Spain in Europe; and no obstruction or hinderance shall be made upon account of the said duties, nor the proprietors liable to pay a second time in respect of the first sale, provided those who carry the said merchandizes produce the receipts and marks of the farmer or proper officer concerned in the collection of these duties, or making sufficient proof of their not being sold before. But if, on the contrary, any merchant do sell his goods by retale, he shall be obliged to pay the said duties of *alcavalos* and *cientos* a second time, under the pains established by the laws. And his Catholic Majesty declares, that if any officer of the *alcavalos* and *cientos* shall exact a second time the said duties on the same merchandize when the said receipts and marks have been produced, or shall obstruct their passage or transportation, or occasion the least impediment, such officer shall be fined 2000 crowns to the benefit of his Majesty's revenues: and the officers of the custom-house shall not demand or take for making such receipts or certificates more than 15 real vellon [see the article SPAIN], unless it be otherwise settled in the new book of rates.

VIII. His Catholic Majesty consents, that the duties commonly called *millones*, which are payable upon fish and other sorts of domestic provisions, shall not be demanded in the first ports or custom-houses of entry in Spain, during such time as the proprietors will let them remain in the warehouses appointed for that purpose. But in case the owners shall desire to take them out, either to send into the country, sell them in the place, or carry them to their own houses, they are then to give bond, with good security to pay the said duty of *millones*, in the two months after date of the said bond, upon which the necessary dispatches are to be given them. And the said merchandize shall be marked with the seals or marks

of the farmers of the millones, where the said duties were secured; after which the said goods may be transported to, and sold in, the places where they are to be consumed, without paying any duties of millones. His Catholic Majesty also declares, that if after the receipts are produced, any officer, belonging to the farmers of the millones, should exact a second time the same duties on the same goods, or should oppose their passage, transport, or sale, or occasion the least impediment, the said officer shall be fined 2000 crowns for the benefit of his Majesty's revenues.'

ANNE, by the grace of God, queen of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. To all and singular to whom these presents shall come, greeting. Whereas the right reverend father in God, our right trusty and well-beloved counsellor, John bishop of Bristol, our ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary, dean of Windsor, and register of our most noble order of the garter, did on our part, together with the plenipotentiaries of the most serene Catholic king, conclude and sign at Utrecht, on ^{Nov. 28,} ^{Decem. 9,} 1713, a treaty of commerce between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, and at the same time a separate article was concluded, made between the said plenipotentiaries, who were severally furnished with sufficient authorities, and is as follows:

Separate A R T I C L E.

'By the present separate article, which shall be altogether of the same validity, as if it was inserted word for word in the treaty of commerce, this day concluded between their royal Majesties of Great-Britain and Spain, and shall for that end be ratified as well as the said treaty; his Catholic Majesty consents that it shall at all times hereafter be lawful for the British subjects, who shall live in the Canary Islands for the sake of their trade, to nominate some one person being a subject of Spain, who shall execute the office of judge-conservator there, and shall take cognizance, in the first instance, of all causes relating to the commerce of the British subjects; and his royal Majesty promises that he will grant commissions to such judge-conservator so named, together with the same authority and all the privileges which the judges-conservators have formerly enjoyed in Andalusia. And if the British subjects shall desire to have more judges of that sort there, or to change those that are appointed every three years, it shall be allowed and granted them. His Catholic Majesty consents likewise, that appeals from the sentences of the said judge-conservator, shall be brought before the tribunal of the council of War at Madrid, and no where else.

In witness whereof, we the underwritten ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiaries of her sacred Majesty of Great-Britain, and of his sacred Catholic Majesty, have signed and sealed these presents at Utrecht, ^{Nov. 28,} ^{Decem. 9,} in the year of our Lord 1713.

JOH. BRISTOL. (L. S.)

DUC. DE OSSUNA. (L. S.)

EL MARQUE DE MONTELEON. (L. S.)

We having seen and considered this separate article, have approved, ratified, and confirmed, as we do by these presents approve, ratify, and confirm the same, promising and engaging our royal word that we will faithfully and inviolably keep all and singular the things therein contained, and that we will not suffer any thing to be done contrary thereunto. For the greater testimony and validity whereof, we have signed this instrument with our royal hand, and caused our great-seal of Great-Britain to be affixed thereunto. Given at our castle at Windsor, the 7th day of February, 1713, in the 12th year of our reign.

The MEASURES taken by our sovereign the late king GEORGE I. to remedy some of the defects of the treaty of Utrecht, taken notice of under our articles REVENUE and TAXES.

TREATY of COMMERCE between Great-Britain and Spain, concluded at Madrid the 14th of December, 1715.

Whereas notwithstanding the treaties of peace and commerce, lately concluded at Utrecht the 13th of July, and the 9th of December 1713, between his Catholic Majesty, and her late Majesty the queen of Great-Britain, of glorious memory, there remained still some differences about trade and the course thereof; and his Catholic Majesty and the king of Great-Britain being inclined to maintain and cultivate a firm and inviolable peace and friendship, in order to attend to this good end, they have by their two ministers under written, mutually and duly qualified, caused the following articles to be concluded and signed.

I. The British subjects shall not be obliged to pay higher or other duties, for goods coming in, or going out of the several ports of his Catholic Majesty than those they paid for the same goods in king Charles the II'd's time, settled by schedulas and ordinances of the said king, or his predecessors: and although the indulto, commonly called pie del fardo, be not grounded on any royal ordinance; nevertheless his Catholic Majesty declares, wills, and ordains, that it be observed,

now and hereafter, as an inviolable law; which duties shall be exacted and raised, now and for the future, with the same advantages and favours to the said subjects.

II. His Majesty confirms the treaty made by the British subjects, with the magistrates of St Andero in the year 1700.

III. His Catholic Majesty permits the said subjects to gather salt in the isle of Tortugas, they having enjoyed this liberty in the reign of king Charles II. without interruption.

IV. The said subjects shall pay no where any higher or other duties, than those paid by the subjects of his Catholic Majesty in the same places.

V. The said subjects shall enjoy all the rights, privileges, franchises, exemptions, and immunities whatsoever, which they enjoyed before the last war, by virtue of the royal schedulas or ordinances, and by the articles of the treaty of peace and commerce made at Madrid in 1667 [see the article SPAIN], which is hereby fully confirmed; and the said subjects shall be used in Spain in the same manner as in the most favoured nation, and consequently all nations shall pay the same duties on wool and other merchandizes, coming in and going out to sea. And all the rights, privileges, franchises, exemptions, and immunities, that shall be granted, and allowed to the said subjects, the like shall be granted, observed, and permitted to the subjects of Spain, in the kingdoms of his Majesty the king of Great-Britain.

VI. And, as innovations may have been made in trade, his Catholic Majesty promises on his part to use his utmost endeavours to abolish them, and for the future to cause them to be avoided: in like manner the king of Great-Britain promises to use all possible endeavours to abolish all innovations on his part, and for the future to cause them by all means to be avoided.

VII. The treaty of commerce made at Utrecht, the 9th of December, 1713, shall continue in force, except the articles that shall be found contrary to what is this day concluded and signed, which are hereby abolished and rendered of no force, and especially all the three articles, commonly called explanatory. And these presents shall be approved, ratified, and exchanged on each side, within the space of six weeks, or sooner, if possible. In witness whereof, and by virtue of our full powers, we have signed these presents at Madrid, the 14th of December, in the year 1715.

M. DE BEDMAR. (L. S.) GEORGE BUBB. (L. S.)

TREATY of COMMERCE betwixt Anne queen of Great-Britain and Peter king of Portugal, concluded at Lisbon the 27th of December, 1703.

Whereas the league and strict friendship, which is between the most serene and most potent princess Anne queen of Great-Britain, and the most serene and most potent Peter king of Portugal, requires that the commerce of both the British and the Portugal nations should be promoted as much as possible; and her sacred royal Majesty of Great-Britain, hath signified to his sacred royal Majesty of Portugal, by the most excellent John Methuen, Esq; member of the English parliament, and ambassador extraordinary in Portugal, that it would be very acceptable to her, if the woollen cloths, and the rest of the woollen manufactures of Britain, might be admitted into Portugal, the prohibition of them being taken off: that this matter may be treated and transacted, they have given their full powers and commands; that is to say, her sacred Majesty of Great-Britain to the abovesaid most excellent John Methuen, and his sacred Majesty of Portugal to the most excellent Don Emanuel Telles Silvius, marquis of Alegrete, &c. one of the three directors of the treasury, and one of the first gentlemen of the bedchamber, and counsellor of state to his sacred royal Portuguese Majesty: who, by virtue of the full power to them respectively granted, having maturely and diligently considered the matter, have agreed upon the following articles.

I. His sacred royal Majesty of Portugal promises, both in his own name, and that of his successors, to admit, for ever hereafter, into Portugal, the woollen cloths, and the rest of woollen manufactures of the Britons, as was accustomed 'till they were prohibited by the laws, nevertheless upon this condition.

II. That is to say, that her sacred royal Majesty of Great-Britain shall, in her own name, and that of her successors, be obliged for ever hereafter to admit the wines of the growth of Portugal into Britain; so that at no time, whether there shall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Great-Britain and France, any thing more shall be demanded for these wines by the name of custom or duty, or by whatsoever other title, directly or indirectly, whether they shall be imported into Great-Britain in pipes or hogshheads, or other casks, than what shall be demanded from the like quantity or measure of French wine, deducting or abating a third part of the custom or duty. But if at any time this deduction or abatement of customs, which is to be made as aforesaid, shall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it shall be just and lawful for his sacred royal Majesty of Portugal, again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the rest of the British woollen manufactures.

III. The

III. The most excellent lords the plenipotentiaries promise and take upon themselves, that their above-named masters shall ratify this treaty, and within the space of two months the ratification shall be exchanged.

For the faith and testimony of all which things, I the plenipotentiary of her sacred royal Majesty of Great-Britain have confirmed this treaty, by the subscription of my hand, and by the seal of my coat of arms. And the most excellent lord the plenipotentiary of his sacred royal Majesty of Portugal, for avoiding the controversy about precedence between the two crowns of Britain and Portugal, hath subscribed another instrument of the same tenor, changing only what ought to be changed for that reason.

Given at Lisbon, the 27th of the month of Decem. 1703.

JOHN METHUEN. (L. S.)

A DECLARATION and ENGAGEMENT concerning the rights and privileges of the British merchants in the kingdom of Sicily, made at Utrecht the 8th of March, N. S. 1713.

Whereas by several treaties of peace, alliance, commerce, and navigation, formerly made between the kingdoms of Great-Britain and Spain, and at this time subsisting, but more particularly by the treaty concluded at Madrid, the 13th of May, in the year 1667, and the cedulas annexed thereunto, provision was made for the freedom, security, and perfect ease of the commerce of the British subjects trading in the kingdoms and provinces of Spain; the observance and usage of which treaties have hitherto been received in the kingdom of Sicily, in the same manner as in any other the dominions of Spain, and have remained there in full force, except some variations which have been introduced in the course of time; for the rectifying whereof, according to the rule of those treaties, Great-Britain has justly insisted hitherto.

Wherefore, on occasion of transferring the kingdom of Sicily to his royal highness the duke of Savoy, her sacred Majesty of Great-Britain, being watchful to preserve the rights and privileges of her subjects trading in the said kingdom, and being likewise willing to preserve to the Sicilians the privileges they have in Great-Britain, which are so very dear to the most serene the duke of Savoy, hath been graciously pleased to give instructions to her underwritten ministers plenipotentiaries, to agree with the ministers plenipotentiaries of his royal highness of Savoy, about making declarations mutually upon this subject. In pursuance thereof, the said ministers plenipotentiaries of his royal highness, in the name of their most serene master, do most solemnly declare and promise, that during the reign of the aforesaid most serene duke in Sicily, as likewise of his heirs and successors, the British merchants are henceforward to have, and shall effectually have, use, and enjoy, all those rights, privileges, liberties, and entire security, as to their persons, goods, ships, seamen, trade, and navigation, in the said kingdom of Sicily; which, by virtue of the treaties made between Great-Britain and Spain, they have hitherto enjoyed, or ought to enjoy; and, to that end that all abuses which deviate from the tenor of the said treaties shall be forthwith removed, and the rights and privileges acquired to the British subjects, by virtue of the aforesaid treaties, shall not on any occasion, or under any pretence, ever be violated or lessened. And if hitherto any more favourable privileges have been granted, or shall hereafter be granted, to the merchants of any other foreign nation any way relating to the persons of the traders, their ships, goods, duties, or the business of merchandizing, the British merchants shall likewise in all respects, and in the fullest manner enjoy the same.

And in like manner, the ministers plenipotentiaries of Great-Britain do, in the manner of her Majesty, confirm that the Sicilians shall hereafter enjoy the same privileges and liberties, which they have hitherto enjoyed, or ought to have enjoyed, as subjects of the king of Spain, by virtue of the aforesaid treaty of the year 1667.

In witness and confirmation whereof, &c.

TREATY of AMITY, COMMERCE, and NAVIGATION, between Great-Britain and Russia, concluded at St Petersburg, December 2, 1734.

I. The peace, friendship, and good correspondence, which happily subsist between their Russian and Britannic Majesties, shall be confirmed and established by this treaty, so as from henceforward there shall be between the crown of all the Russias on one side, and the crown of Great-Britain on the other, as likewise between the states, countries, realms, dominions, and territories, which are under their obedience, a true, firm, and perfect peace, friendship, and good understanding, which shall endure and be inviolably maintained for ever, as well by sea as by land, and on all fresh waters; and the people, subjects, and inhabitants on both sides, of whatsoever condition or degree, shall behave with entire good-will towards each other, and give each other all possible aid and assistance, without doing or offering the least wrong or damage whatsoever.

VOL. II.

II. There shall be an entire freedom of navigation and commerce throughout all the dominions of the two contracting parties in Europe, where navigation and commerce are at this time permitted, or shall be permitted hereafter, by the contracting parties to the subjects of any other nation.

III. The subjects of both contracting parties may enter at all times into all the ports or towns of either of the contracting parties, with their ships, vessels, or carriages; into which the subjects of any other nation are permitted to enter, to trade or abide there; and the mariners, passengers, and vessels, whether Russian or English, even though there be any subjects of any other strange nation among the crew, shall be received and treated in like manner as the most favoured nation; and the mariners and passengers shall not be forced to enter into the service of either of the contracting parties, which may have occasion for their service. And the subjects of both contracting parties may buy all kind of necessities which they shall stand in need of, at the current price; and repair and refit their ships, vessels, or carriages, and furnish themselves with all manner of provisions for their subsistence and voyage, abide and depart at their pleasure; without molestation or impediment, provided they conform themselves to the laws and ordinances of the respective states of the said contracting powers, where they shall so arrive or continue.

IV. The subjects of Great-Britain may bring by sea or by land, into all or any of the dominions of Russia, wherein the subjects of any other nation are permitted to trade, all sorts of goods and merchandizes, whereof the importation and traffic are not prohibited; and in like manner the subjects of Russia may bring into all or any of the dominions of Great-Britain, wherein the subjects of any other nation are allowed to traffic, all sorts of merchandizes of the produce and manufacture of the dominions of Russia, whereof the importation and traffic are not prohibited, and likewise all merchandizes of the produce or manufacture of Asia, provided that it is not actually prohibited by any law now in force in Great-Britain; and they may buy, and export out of the dominions of Great-Britain, all manner of goods and merchandizes, which the subjects of any other nation may buy therein and export from thence, and particularly gold and silver, wrought or unwrought, excepting the silver coined money of Great-Britain.

V. The subjects of Great-Britain, if they happen not to have rixdollars to pay therewith the custom, and other duties payable on the goods they enter, may pay in current money, at the rate of 125 copyks for one rixdollar.

VI. English ships that come to load or unload merchandizes belonging to the subjects of Great-Britain, shall be used with all kindness and dispatch, according to the regulations, without being detained in any manner whatsoever, on pain of the penalties mentioned in the regulations: and should the subjects of Great-Britain enter into any contract with any chancery, or college, for the delivery of any goods or merchandizes, on their giving notice that the same are ready to be delivered, they shall be received, agreeable to the time appointed in the contract, after which the account shall be adjusted and settled, in such a time as it was agreed upon in the contract between the chancery, or college, and the English merchants.

VII. It is stipulated, that in any town or place of Russia, where any other nations are admitted, the subjects of Great-Britain may pay for goods bought the same currency as has been received for goods sold, unless there be any particular agreement to the contrary.

VIII. It is stipulated, that the subjects of Great-Britain may bring to Russia all sorts of goods or merchandizes, and carry them through the dominions of Russia, the shortest or most convenient way, to Persia, paying 3 per cent. in rixdollars, ad valorem, for duties and transit of the said goods, and no more, under any pretence whatsoever. Nevertheless, the English merchants shall be obliged to agree with the Russian subjects for the carriage charges, either by water or by land, making them a reasonable allowance for the same; and the most strict orders shall be given, that the English merchants may meet with all dispatch and ease upon the road. They likewise may bring from Persia any goods or merchandizes, and carry them through Russia with the same liberty and ease, paying only 3 per cent. in rixdollars, ad valorem, for duties and transit, reckoning the rixdollars as usual in the Russian customs. And in order to prevent all frauds of English subjects, and all vexation and delay of Russian officers, English merchants shall declare the goods designed to be carried through Russia, either to or from Persia, at the first Russian place they arrive, which shall be received and admitted on the bill of lading, policy, or register, according to the value declared, on which a duty of 3 per cent. shall be paid, without opening or unpacking the merchandizes, any more than is absolutely necessary to satisfy the Russian officer that the merchandizes specified in the bill of lading, policy, or register, and no other, or others, are contained in the bale, in which the merchandizes are packed. But in case the Russian officer have any grounds to suspect that the goods are not declared to their right value, within 20 per cent. then the Russian officer, paying to the merchant the value declared, and 20 per cent.

cent. over and above it, without any deduction, may take the goods and dispose thereof. After the Russian officer's inspection, which is to be done without vexation or detriment to the goods or package, he shall fix leaden seals to the packs, or bales, that contain the goods, number and mark them, and deliver to the merchant a certificate of the payment of the duties; and by virtue of that certificate, leaden seal, mark, and number, they shall have a free passage through Russia, either going to or coming from Persia, without any obstacle or molestation: but should the merchants not carry any or all the bales through Russia, according to the declaration, or should the seals be taken off, and any goods taken out in Russia, if there is any reason to suspect such a conduct, in opposition to the true sense and meaning of this article, such merchant shall be fined, and pay the whole value declared of the pack, or bale, that shall be wanting, or to which the seal should not be found.

IX. It shall be permitted to the subjects of both contracting parties reciprocally, in all accustomed places of export, to load on board their own ships, vessels, or carriages, or any other, all merchandizes bought by them, excepting only such as are prohibited to be exported, and freely to send or carry away the same, provided they have paid the duties, and such ships, vessels, or carriages, have been cleared according to law.

X. The subjects of either party shall pay no more custom or duties, on the importation or exportation of goods, than what the subjects of any other nation pay for the same goods. And in order to prevent any frauds in the duties on either side, the merchandizes which shall be found to have been smuggled in without paying the duties, shall be confiscated, and no other punishment inflicted on the merchant of either side.

XI. The subjects of either party may freely pass, repass, or travel, in all countries which now are, or hereafter shall be at enmity with the other of the said parties, places actually blocked up or besieged only excepted, provided they do not carry any warlike stores or ammunition to the enemy: as for all other effects, their ships, passengers and goods shall be free and unmolested.

XII. Cannons, mortars, fire-arms, pistols, bombs, grenades, bullets, balls, fuzes, flints, matches, powder, saltpetre, sulphur, cuirasses, pikes, swords, belts, pouches, cartouche-boxes, saddles and bridles, in any quantity beyond what may be necessary for the ship's provision, and may properly appertain to, and be judged necessary for, every man of the ship's crew, or for each passenger, shall be deemed ammunition of war; and if any such be there found, they may seize and confiscate the same according to law: but neither the vessels, passengers, or the rest of the goods, shall be detained for that reason, or hindered from pursuing their voyage.

XIII. In case of a rupture between the contracting parties, (which God forbid) effects or vessels of the subjects of either party shall not be detained or confiscated, but there shall be the space of one year at least allowed them, wherein they may sell, dispose, carry off, or send away their effects, and transport their persons.

XIV. The merchants, mariners, vessels, or effects of either party, shall not be arrested or forced into service, without their own consent, under any pretence whatsoever; and if any servant, or mariner, deserts his service or vessel, he shall be delivered up: but nothing contained in this article is to be so understood, as to tend to the hinderance or obstruction of the ordinary course of justice on either side.

XV. In case of wreck on any part of the dominions of the contracting parties, all sorts of assistance shall be given the unfortunate; no violence shall be done them, nor shall their effects, saved either by themselves or others, or drove ashore, be hidden or detained from them; neither shall they be hurt, under any pretext whatsoever, but they shall be preserved for them, and they shall pay what is reasonable, for the assistance given to their persons, ships, or effects.

XVI. English merchants may buy, build, or rent houses, and sell or dispose of them, either at St Petersburg, Moscow, in the German Slabod, Astracan, and Archangel; and in those places their houses shall be exempted from lodging soldiers; in all other places they may likewise buy, sell, or rent houses, but there they shall be subject to quartering soldiers, equally as other inhabitants. Russian merchants may also build, buy, or rent houses in Great-Britain or Ireland, and sell or dispose of them, provided they qualify themselves for that purpose, in the like manner as the subjects of any other the most favoured nations are obliged to do, and they shall be free of lodging soldiers, and have a free exercise of the Greek religion, either in their houses, or any place appointed for that purpose.

XVII. Passports shall be given to all English subjects that might have a mind to retire from Russia, two months after having given notice thereof, without obliging them to give any security, if in that time there appear no just cause to detain them, without obliging them to apply for their passports any where else than to the college of commerce, or any other that may hereafter be substituted for the same. The same care and dispatch to depart, the Russian subjects shall have in

the dominions of Great-Britain, according to what is customary in that country on such occasions.

XVIII. English merchants that take into their service, or hire any servants in Russia, with such passports as the court of justice thinks proper to register, shall afterwards not be obliged to pay for the same to the masters of those servants, any more than what the English merchants and the servants agreed between them; but the English merchants shall not keep the servants longer than the time allowed them by the passports of their masters, and without poker mesnoys no servant shall be taken into service, or hired: and if the merchants take a security for the honesty of the servant, and it happen that the servant do not behave well, and cheat some body, the merchant shall not answer for it, but the security. Russian merchants shall have the same reciprocal security and justice in the dominions of Great-Britain, for the servants they may there hire, agreeable to the laws of the land.

XIX. All affairs of English merchants in Russia shall be under the cognizance only of the college of commerce, or any other court that may be appointed hereafter, in lieu of this college, to take cognizance of foreign merchants affairs, and no other. Russian merchants in the dominion of Great-Britain shall be under the protection of the laws of that kingdom, as all other foreigners are, and shall be treated as the most favoured nation.

XX. English merchants shall not be obliged to produce their books or papers to any body whatsoever, unless to bear witness in courts of justice; nor shall their books or papers be taken away and detained from them, neither shall their effects be distrained or sold, under any pretence whatsoever, except in case of a bankruptcy, and then only by decree of the college of commerce, or any other court that may be hereafter appointed, in lieu of that college, to take care of the affairs of foreign merchants; and Russian merchants in Great-Britain shall be protected by the laws, as the preceding article directs.

XXI. In case of a law-suit, four reputable persons among the foreign merchants shall be named by the college of commerce, to inspect into the books and papers of the plaintiff, if the case require it, and their report to the college of commerce shall be a sufficient evidence.

XXII. The custom-house shall take care to examine the Russian merchants servants, when they sign bargains, whether they have orders or powers of their masters for so doing: if not, they shall not be trusted. The same shall be observed in regard to the English merchants servants, and the bargains shall be for the masters account, who, if they have given orders or powers to their servants, shall then be answerable as if they had made the bargain themselves. All Russian servants employed in shops shall also be registered, and their transactions.

XXIII. If any Russian merchants indebted to English merchants, quit the place where they lived, and retire into the country, and it happen that during their absence, petitions be brought against them, proving the debt, then the college of commerce shall summon them thrice, allowing a sufficient time for their appearance before the college; but should they not appear, the college shall condemn them, and send an express, at the charge of the plaintiff, to the governors, with orders to put the sentence in execution, obliging the debtor to pay his debt.

XXIV. The Russian merchants that come with their goods shall enter them as soon as possible at the custom-house, and, when sold, shall write down the quantity, weight and measure, as the regulations direct.

XXV. The bracks shall be equitably established, and set in good order; the brackers shall be answerable for the quality of the goods, and false package, and subject to pay the losses, on proof being brought against them.

XXVI. Regulations shall be established for removing abuses which there may be in the package of hides and threads; in the interim, if any dispute arise between buyer and seller, in regard to the tare of any goods, the custom-house shall decide it, according to reason and equity.

XXVII. For a greater convenience and encouragement of the trade of Great-Britain, it is agreed that the following English woollen goods shall hereafter pay no more duty than what is set down in this article, viz. English cloth for soldiers shall pay no more than two copyks, in rixdollars, for each archine; the coarse cloth of the county of York, known in the Russian tariff by the name of kostrogi, shall pay no more than two copyks, in rixdollars, for each archine; broad flannels only one copyk, in rixdollars, for each archine; and narrow flannels, but three quarters of a copyk, in rixdollars, for each archine.

XXVIII. It is agreed and concluded that the subjects of both parties shall be respected and treated, in their respective dominions, in like manner as the most favoured nation; and the subjects of Russia which shall come into England, in order to learn arts and commerce there, shall be protected, favoured, and instructed: likewise, if any Russian vessels shall be met with out at sea by any English vessels, they shall in no wise be hindered or molested by them, provided they com-
port

port themselves in the British Seas in the accustomed manner; but on the contrary, they shall be favoured by them, and that in the very ports or havens belonging to the dominions of Great-Britain.

XXIX. Peace, amity, and good understanding, shall continue for ever between the contracting parties; and as it is usual to limit treaties of commerce for a certain space of time, it is agreed between the contracting parties that this shall continue for the space of fifteen years, to be computed from the day of signing this present treaty: and that before the expiration of the said term, they shall come to a further mutual agreement for renewing and prolonging the same.

Articles of PEACE and COMMERCE between the most high and renowned prince George II, &c. and the most high and glorious, mighty, and right noble prince, Muley Hammet Dahebbi, Ben Muley Ismael, Ben Muley Zeridh, Ben Muley Aly, king and emperor of the kingdom of Fez and Morocco, &c. January 14, 1728.

I. That all Moors or Jews subject to the emperor of Morocco shall be allowed a free traffic, viz. to buy or sell for 30 days in the city of Gibraltar, or island of Minorca, and not to reside in either place, but to depart with their effects, without let or molestation, to any part of the said emperor of Morocco's dominions.

II. That the king of Great-Britain's subjects residing in Barbary shall not be obliged to appear before the cadi, or justice of the country; but only the governor of the place, and his Britannic Majesty's consuls, are to take cognizance of, and adjust the differences they may have with the natives of the country.

III. That the menial servants of his Britannic Majesty's subjects, though natives of the country, either Moors or Jews, be exempt from taxes of all kinds.

IV. That all his Britannic Majesty's subjects, as well passengers as others, taken by any of the emperor of Fez and Morocco's cruizers, on board any foreign ship or vessel whatever, shall immediately be set at liberty, and sent to the city of Gibraltar.

V. That there be permission for buying provisions, and all other necessaries, for his Britannic Majesty's fleet; or city of Gibraltar, at any of the emperor of Fez and Morocco's sea-ports, at the market prices, and the same to be shipped off without paying custom, as has been extorted lately, contrary to the treaty of peace subsisting.

VI. All the other articles, being fifteen in number, concluded, agreed, and adjusted, by the honourable Charles Steward, Esq; on the behalf of his Britannic Majesty, and by his excellency bashaw Hamet Ben Aly, Ben Abdalla, and his imperial Majesty's treasurer, Mr Moses Ben Hatter, a Jew, on behalf of the said king of Fez and Morocco, shall stand good, and be of the same force, as in the reign of the most high and renowned prince George I, king of Great-Britain, &c. of glorious memory, and the high and glorious, mighty and right noble prince, Albumazer Muley Ismael, late emperor of Morocco. And it is farther agreed, That all the articles aforementioned, as well the fifteen, as these additional ones, shall, in twenty days after the date hereof, be published in the Arabic language, and affixed on the gates of all the sea-port towns in his imperial Majesty's dominions. Signed and dated at the court of Mequinez. January 14, 1728.

A TREATY of PEACE and FRIENDSHIP between the king of Great-Britain and the emperor of Morocco, in 1751.

George the Second, by the grace of God, king of Great-Britain, &c. duke of Brunswic and Lunenburg, arch-treasurer, and prince elector of the Holy Roman Empire, &c. to all to whom these presents shall come, greeting: Whereas a treaty for establishing peace and friendship was concluded and signed on the 15th of December, 1734, and copied the 15th of Rabbi the First, in the year 1164, which is, in English stile, the 15th day of January, 1750, O. S. and the additional articles of peace and commerce, concluded and signed at the court of Fez, on the 1st of February, 1751, N. S. between us and the high, glorious, potent, and noble prince, Muley Abedela, Ben Muley Ismael, Ben Muley Seriph, Ben Muley Aly, king and emperor of the kingdoms of Fez, Morocco, &c. by William Petticrew, Esq; our consul-general, on our part, and by the alcaide Habel Lohah Ben Hamed Limury, first minister, on the behalf, and by order of, the said king of Fez and Morocco, in the words and form following:

The TREATY of PEACE between his Majesty George the Second, king of Great-Britain, &c. and Muley Abedela, Ben Ismael, king and emperor of Fez, Mequinez, Morocco, &c.

I. For establishing peace and friendship, it is agreed and concluded for firm and valid, both by land and sea, in all the dominions of both powers, that the English in general

shall and may, now, and at all times hereafter, enjoy and continue in peace and friendship with the emperor and his subjects, and be well used and respected by the emperor's subjects, agreeable to the order and commands of the emperor.

II. That such number or quantity of passports as may be necessary, be transmitted to the emperor, indented in such manner as shall tally with the passports that shall be received by the English merchants in England; and if an English man of war meets with any merchant ships belonging to the emperor, such merchant ships shall be obliged to produce and shew their passports, given to them by the English consul.

III. If any dispute shall happen between the English and the emperor's subjects, the same not to be determined by a judge, but ended and adjusted by the English consul and the coved, that is, the mayor of the town where such dispute shall happen.

IV. That none of the emperor's subjects shall, at any time, forcibly enter the houses of the English, or any place belonging to them, or take and carry away any of their goods and effects, unless they have leave and authority from the emperor so to do: that if any of the emperor's subjects shall hire any English ship to carry and convey goods from one part of the emperor's dominions to another, and shall happen by stress of weather, or any other occasion, to touch at any place or places in the voyage, such ship or ships shall not be obliged to pay any thing for the shelter or assistance they may receive; and that no English whatever, or any of their servants (though not English) shall be liable to pay the tax imposed upon the emperor's subjects, called the poll tax.

V. That the fifteen articles of peace made and concluded between king George the First and Muley Ismael, are hereby agreed to and confirmed, with his Majesty king George the Second, as good and valid, and shall be faithfully kept and observed, together with the aforesaid four articles.

TREATY of PEACE between his Majesty George the Second, king of Great-Britain, &c. and Muley Abedela Ben Ismael, king and emperor of Fez, Mequinez, Morocco, &c.

I. That if any English shall happen to be on board any ship, or ships, enemies to the emperor, that may be taken by the emperor's ships, such English shall be well treated, delivered into the hands of the English consul, and have liberty to go where they please: this article to continue in force for six months from the conclusion of this peace; in which time, it is required that notice shall be given by the king of Great-Britain to all the English subjects, not to embark on board any of the emperor's enemies ships; for after that time, if the English shall so embark, the blame must be their own, as no regard will be had to them more than the emperor's enemies.

II. If any of the emperor's subjects shall be made slaves, and escape to an English man of war, or to Gibraltar, Port Mahon, or any of the English dominions, that they shall be protected, and with all convenient speed sent to their respective homes. The like treatment to be given to the English who shall be slaves, and escape to any part of the emperor's dominions.

III. If any English shall contract any thing to be paid to the emperor's subjects, notes shall be given for the same; and in like manner the same to be observed by the emperor's subjects in the English dominions; and if it shall happen that such subjects of either power cannot write, to get some person to write such notes for them.

IV. That no excuse be made, or ignorance of this peace pretended, the same shall be published and declared to all the subjects of both powers, both what is now agreed on, and the articles concluded with king George the First; which declaration shall be signed by each power, and by them kept, to prevent disputes. This treaty was concluded the 15th of December, 1734, and copied the 15th of Rabbi the First, in the year 1164, which is, in English stile, the 15th of January, 1750.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES of PEACE and COMMERCE between the most high, illustrious, and most renowned prince, George the Second, &c. and the high, glorious, mighty, and most noble prince, Muley Abedela, Ben Muley Ismael, Ben Muley Seriph, Ben Muley Aly, king and emperor of the kingdoms of Fez, Morocco, Taffilete, Sus, &c.

I. It is agreed on and concluded, That from henceforward there shall be, between his Majesty of Great-Britain, prince and elector of Hanover, &c. and the king of Fez and Morocco, their heirs and successors, a general, true, and perfect peace for ever, as well by land as by sea and fresh waters; and also between the lands, kingdoms, dominions, and territories belonging to, or under the jurisdiction of his Britannic Majesty in Germany, and those appertaining to the king of Fez and Morocco; and their subjects, people, or inhabitants respectively, of what condition, degree, or quality soever, from henceforth reciprocally shall owe the other all friendship;

ship; and that all ships, vessels, passengers with their effects, trafficking voluntary, or compelled by enemies, disasters of the seas, or any accident whatsoever, to the coasts of the emperor of Fez and Morocco's dominions, being his Britannic Majesty's subjects in Germany, shall from henceforth be treated according to the said regulations, as specified by the treaties of peace now subsisting between his Britannic Majesty and the king of Fez and Morocco.

II. It is agreed that all ships and vessels belonging to his Britannic Majesty in Germany, shall carry a proper pass, and that a copy of such pass, with the heads of the said passes, shall be sent to his Britannic Majesty's consul residing in Barbary, to the end that he may deliver the same to the commanders, or captains, of the king of Fez and Morocco's ships of war, or cruizers, to the end that due regard may be had to this peace, and that no commander or captain may offend through ignorance; and all commanders or captains of ships or vessels belonging to his Britannic Majesty's subjects in Germany, meeting with any ship or vessel belonging to the king of Fez or Morocco, or his subjects, if the commander of such ship or vessel produce a pass, signed by the governor of the city they belong to, with a certificate from the English consul, and, in case of his death or absence, from the major part of the English merchants residing in the said place, in such cases, the said ship or vessel shall pursue freely her voyage, without hindrance or molestation.

III. It is agreed that the king of Great-Britain's subjects shall not be obliged to appear before justices of the country in any cause, but that only the governor of the city, and his Britannic Majesty's consul, shall take cognizance of, and adjust the difference or suits they may have with the Moors, or other inhabitants in the dominions of the king of Fez and Morocco.

IV. It is agreed that no governor or officer under the king of Fez and Morocco shall, without the king's special order, visit or register the dwelling-houses or magazines of any of his Britannic Majesty's subjects residing in Barbary; and that all British ships taking freight in any port of the king of Fez and Morocco, to carry to other ports of the said kingdom, shall be exempted from all port-charges, as usual, in whatever port they may put in; and that the consul, and the other British merchants, shall be freely allowed to have Moors, or Jews, as their interpreters and brokers, who shall be exempted from all taxes, as likewise all their domestic servants.

All the other articles, being fifteen in number, concluded, agreed, and adjusted, by the admiral Charles Stewart, on the behalf of his Britannic Majesty, and by his excellency bashaw Hamet Ben Alay Ben Abdalla, and his Imperial Majesty's treasurer, Mr Moses Benatar, on behalf of the said king of Fez and Morocco, shall stand good, and be of the same force, as in the reign of the most high, illustrious, and renowned prince, George the First, king of Great-Britain, &c. of glorious memory, and the high, mighty, and most noble prince, Mulay Ismael, late emperor of Morocco, as likewise the other articles, being three in number, agreed and concluded by John Leonard Sollicoffree, Esq; on behalf of his Britannic Majesty, and his excellency bashaw Hamet Ben Aly Ben Abdalla on behalf of the king of Fez and Morocco.

It is agreed on and concluded, that all the articles aforementioned, being eighteen in number, with these additional articles, that are translated into the Arabic language, copies thereof be sent to all his Imperial Majesty's alcaides, and officers of all the ports in his dominions, there to be read by the cady or chief justice, in public assembly, and afterwards to remain deposited, either in the hands of the judge, or the alcaide of the port, that recourse may be had thereto on all occasions which may occur; and that the ratifications of the said articles shall be made within the term of six months, or sooner, if possible, in Spanish, which shall be received, and be of equal force. Dated and signed at the court of Fez, on the 1st of February, 1751, N. S.

Signed ABDELHOVAH ALY MOORY.

TREATY of PEACE between his Majesty George the First, king of Great-Britain, &c. and Muli Ismael, son of Muli Alli Sherife, king of Fez, Mequinez, Morocco, &c.

I. In order to establish peace between the powers, both by land and sea, and all their respective dominions, it is agreed on, that the English may now, and always hereafter, be well used and respected by our subjects, agreeable to the orders and commands of the emperor.

II. That all English men of war and merchant-ships, that shall come to any part of the emperor's dominions, to trade or otherwise, and shall have on board a cargo not proper for vending in the place where they shall come, may depart with the same to any other part of the emperor's dominions, and shall pay duty but once for the same; and that no duty at all shall be paid for any war implements, such as fire-arms, swords, and any thing belonging to the army, as also for materials of all kinds for ship-building; and if any English ship shall arrive at any of the emperor's ports, with any merchandize destined for any other part of the world, that no duty shall be paid for such merchandize, but shall depart with the same, without any manner of molestation. If any English

ship shall be thrown upon the emperor's coasts by stress of weather, or otherwise, the same shall be protected, and may safely depart, without any ill usage or interruption. In like manner shall be treated the emperor's subjects happening to be thus thrown on the coast of Great-Britain, or the dominions thereto belonging.

III. That all the English ships and emperor's ships may pass and repass the seas without hinderance, interruption, or molestation, from each other; nor shall any money, merchandize, or any demand be made or taken, by the ships of either power from each other; and if any subjects of any other nation shall be on board either the English or the emperor's ships, they shall be safely protected by both parties.

IV. If the emperor's men of war meet with any English ships, and shall want to see their passports, they are to send a boat, with two men of fidelity, to peruse the said passports, who are to return without any farther trouble, and then both sides to proceed quietly on their respective voyages; the same usage to be received by the emperor's merchant-ships from the English men of war, who shall allow the passports made out by the English consul, and, if the consul shall not be present to make them, then the passports made out by the English merchants to be good and valid.

V. If the English men of war, privateers, or letter of marque ships shall take prizes from any nation with whom they shall be at war, they shall have liberty to bring and dispose of the same in any of the emperor's dominions, without any duty or charge whatsoever.

VI. If any English ship shall by storm, or in flying from her enemy, come upon the emperor's coasts, the same shall be safely protected, and nothing touched and taken away, but shall be under the direction of the English consul, who shall send the goods and people where he shall think fit.

VII. It is the mutual agreement of the king of Great-Britain and the emperor, that the emperor do issue out orders to all parts of his dominions, for the well using of all the English subjects, and that particular places be appointed for the burial of their dead; that the consuls, brokers, shall freely go on board any ship, without interruption; that the English consuls, merchants, and other subjects of Great-Britain, may safely travel by land with effects, without any hindrance whatever; and if any English settled in the emperor's dominions shall be desirous to return home, that they may so do, with their families, goods, and effects, without interruption: if any English die, the effects of such to be taken under the care of the consul, to be disposed of as directed by the will of such person, and, if no will, for the benefit of such person's next heir; and if any debts shall be owing to such deceased person, the same to be paid by order of the governor, or any other person in power, where such person shall die; and that a subject of the emperor's be appointed to demand and receive the same, and deposit the same in the hands of the English consul, for the afore said uses. If any English shall contract debts in the emperor's country, and remove from thence without satisfying the same, no other persons shall be liable to pay such debts. The like usage and treatment the subjects of the emperor are to receive in the king of Great-Britain's dominions; and that the king may send as many consuls to the emperor's dominions as he shall think necessary.

VIII. That no English merchant, captains of ships, or other person or persons whatsoever, that are English subjects, shall be forced to sell any of their goods for less than the real value; and that no captain, master, or commander of any English ship shall be compelled, without their own will and consent, to carry any goods or merchandizes for any person or persons whatsoever; nor shall any sailor be forced away from any English ship.

IX. If any quarrel or dispute shall happen between any Englishman and a Mussulman, by which hurt to either may ensue, the same to be heard before, and determined by the emperor only; and if an Englishman, who may be the aggressor, shall make his escape, no other Englishman shall suffer upon his account; and if two Englishmen shall quarrel, to be determined by the English consul, who shall do with them as he pleases: and if any quarrel or dispute shall happen between Mussulmen in England, or in any of the English dominions, by which hurt may ensue, the same to be heard before one Christian and one Mussulman, and to be determined according to the laws of Great-Britain.

X. If it shall happen that this peace, by any means, shall be broke, the consul, and all other English, shall have six months time to remove themselves, with their families and effects, to any place they please, without interruption, and that all debts owing to them shall be justly paid to them.

XI. If any English in the emperor's dominions, or the emperor's subjects in the English dominions, shall maliciously endeavour to break the peace, such of them who shall be proved to so intend, shall by each power be punished for such offence, each power to take cognizance of their own subjects.

XII. If any of the emperor's subjects shall purchase any commodity in the English dominions, they shall not be imposed on in price, but pay the same as is sold to the English.

XIII. That

XIII. That not any of the Spanish, whether captains, sailors, or other persons, under the English government in Gibraltar or Port-Mahon, shall be taken or molested, sailing under English colours, with passports.

XIV. That no excuse be made, or ignorance pretended, of this peace, the same shall be published and declared to all the subjects of each power, which declaration shall be signed by each power, and kept by them to prevent disputes.

XV. If any man of war shall be on the emperor's coasts, that are enemies to the English, and any English men of war, or other English ships, shall happen to be, or arrive there also, that they shall not in any manner be hurt, or engaged by their enemy; and when such English ships shall sail, their enemies ships shall not set sail under forty hours afterwards.

And if, after the conclusion of this peace, any ship shall happen to be taken by either powers, within six months after the proclamation of the peace, that the same, with the people and effects, shall be restored. Made and declared in the presence of the emperor's servant, Ahammad Basha, son of Alli, son of Abdalla, by the authority given to him by the emperor. Dated this 23d of January, in the year 1721, English stile. Wrote and given to Charles Stewart, Esq; the English ambassador, in the seventh year of the reign of our late royal father, king George the First.

We having seen and considered the above-written treaty, with the additional articles, have approved, ratified, and confirmed the same, in all and singular their clauses, as by these presents we do approve, ratify, and confirm the same for us, our heirs and successors, engaging and promising, on our royal word, sacredly and inviolably to perform and observe all and singular their contents, and never to suffer, as far as in us lies, any person to violate the same, or in any manner to act contrary thereto. In witness whereof, we have caused our great seal of Great-Britain to be affixed to these presents, signed with our own royal hand. Given at our court at Kensington, the thirty-first day of July, in the year of our Lord 1751, and of our reign the 25th.

GEORGE R.

ARTICLES of PEACE and COMMERCE between the most serene and mighty prince Charles II. by the grace, &c. and most illustrious lords the basha, dey, and agâ, governors of the famous city and kingdom of Algiers, &c. concluded by Arthur Herbert, Esq; admiral of his Majesty's fleet, April 10, O. S. 1682.—With the few alterations made and included at the renewal thereof in 1686: all which are, for distinction, in a different character.

I. In the first place it is agreed and concluded, That from this day, and for ever forwards, there be a true, firm, and inviolable peace between the most serene king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, &c. and the most illustrious lords the basha, dey, and aga, governors of the city and kingdom of Algiers, and between all the dominions and subjects of either side; and that the ships, or other vessels, and the subjects and people of both sides, shall not henceforth do to each other any harm, offence, or injury, either in word or deed, but shall treat one another with all possible respect and friendship; and that all demands and pretensions whatsoever, to this day, between both parties, shall cease and be void.

II. That any of the ships or other vessels, belonging to the said king of Great-Britain, &c. or to any of his Majesty's subjects, may safely come to the port of Algiers, or to any other port or place of that kingdom, there freely to buy and sell, paying the usual customs of 10 per cent. as in former times, for such goods as they sell; and the goods they sell not, they shall freely carry on board, without paying any duties for the same: and that they shall freely depart from thence whensoever they please, without any stop or hinderance whatsoever. As to contraband merchandizes, as powder, brimstone, iron, planks, and all sorts of timber fit for building of ships, ropes, pitch, tar, fusils, and other habiliments of war, his said Majesty's subjects shall pay no duty for the same to those of Algiers.

III. That all ships, and other vessels, as well those belonging to the said king of Great-Britain, or to any of his Majesty's subjects, as those belonging to the kingdom or people of Algiers, shall freely pass the seas, and traffic, without any search, hinderance, or molestation, from each other; and that all persons or passengers, of what country soever, and all monies, goods, merchandizes and moveables, to whatsoever people or nation belonging, being on board any of the said ships or vessels shall be wholly free, and shall not be stopped, taken, or plundered, nor receive any harm or damage whatsoever from either party.

IV. That the Algiers ships of war, or other vessels, meeting with any merchant-ships, or other vessels, of his said Majesty's subjects, not being in any of the seas appertaining to his Majesty's dominions, may send on board one single boat, with two fitters only, besides the ordinary crew of rowers; and that no more shall enter any such merchant-ship, or vessel, without express leave from the commander thereof, but the two

fitters alone; and, upon producing a pass under the hand and seal of the lord high admiral of England and Ireland, or of the lord high admiral of Scotland, for the said kingdoms respectively, or under the hands and seals of the commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral of any of the said kingdoms, that the said ship shall proceed freely on her voyage; and that, altho', for the space of fifteen months next ensuing after the conclusion of this peace, the said commander of the merchant ship, or vessel, produces no such pass, yet if the major part of the seamen of the said ship, or vessel, be subjects of the said king of Great-Britain, the said boat shall immediately depart, and the said merchant-ship, or vessel, shall freely proceed on her voyage: but that, after the said fifteen months, all merchant-ships, or vessels, of his said Majesty's subjects, shall be obliged to produce such a pass as aforesaid. And any of the ships of war of his said Majesty; meeting with any ships, or other vessels of Algiers, if the commander of any such ship or vessel shall produce a pass, confirmed by the chief governors of Algiers, and a certificate from the English consul there residing, or if they have no such pass, or certificate, yet if, for the space of fifteen months next ensuing the conclusion of this peace, the major part of the ship's company be Turks, Moors, or slaves belonging to Algiers, then the said Algiers ships or vessels shall proceed freely; but that after the said fifteen months, all Algiers ships or vessels shall be obliged to produce such a pass and certificate as aforesaid.—

THE ONLY ALTERATION IN THIS REGARDS THE FIFTEEN MONTHS TERM ALLOWED FOR PASSES, &c.

V. That no commander, or other person, of any ship or vessel of Algiers, shall take out of any ship or vessel of his said Majesty's subjects, any person or persons whatsoever, to carry them any where to be examined, or upon any other pretence; nor shall they use any torture or violence to any person, of what nation or quality soever, being on board any ship or vessel of his said Majesty's subjects, upon any pretence whatsoever.

VI. That no shipwreck belonging to the said king of Great-Britain, or to any of his subjects, upon any part of the coast belonging to Algiers, shall be made, or become prize; and that neither the goods thereof shall be seized, nor the men made slaves, but that all the subjects of Algiers shall use their best endeavours to save the said men and their goods.

VII. That no ship, or any other vessel of Algiers, shall have permission to be delivered up, or go to Salée, or any place in enmity with the said king of Great-Britain, to be made use of as corsairs, or sea-rovers, against his said Majesty's subjects.

VIII. That none of the ships, or other smaller vessels of Algiers, shall remain cruising near, or in sight of his Majesty's city and garrison of Tangier, or of any other his Majesty's roads, havens, ports, towns, and places, nor any way disturb the peace and commerce of the same. TANGIER NOW OMITTED.

IX. That if any ship, or vessel, of Tunis, Tripoly, or Salée, or of any other place, bring any ships, vessels, men, or goods, belonging to any of his said Majesty's subjects, to Algiers, or to any port or place in that kingdom, the governors there shall not permit them to be sold within the territories of Algiers.

X. That if any of the ships of war of the said king of Great-Britain do come to Algiers, or to any other port or place of that kingdom, with any prize, they may freely sell it, or otherwise dispose of it at pleasure, without being molested by any: and that his said Majesty's ships of war shall not be obliged to pay customs in any sort; and that if they shall want provisions, victuals, or any other things, they may freely buy them at the rates in the market.

XI. That when any of his said Majesty's ships of war shall appear before Algiers, upon notice thereof given by the English consul, or by the commander of the said ships, to the chief governors of Algiers, public proclamation shall be immediately made to secure the Christian captives: and if, after that, any Christians whatsoever make their escape on board any of the said ships of war, they shall not be required; nor shall the said consul or commander, or any other of his Majesty's subjects, be obliged to pay any thing for the said Christians.

XII. That from and after the time that the ratification of this treaty by the king of Great-Britain, shall be delivered to the chief governors of Algiers, no subjects of his said Majesty shall be bought or sold, or made slaves in any part of the kingdom of Algiers, upon any pretence whatsoever. And the said king of Great-Britain shall not be obliged, by virtue of this treaty of peace, to redeem any of his subjects now in slavery, or who may be made slaves before the said ratification; but it shall depend absolutely upon his Majesty, or the friends and relations of the said persons in slavery, without any limitation or restriction of time, to redeem such, or so many of them, from time to time, as shall be thought fit, agreeing for as reasonable a price as may be, with their patrons or masters, for their redemption, without obliging the said patrons or masters, against their wills, to set any at liberty, whether they be slaves belonging to the beylic (or public), the galleys, or such as belong particularly to the basha,

dey, aga, or any other person whatsoever. And all slaves, being his Majesty's subjects, shall, when they are redeemed, enjoy the abatements of the duty due to the royal house, and of the other charges, by paying such reasonable sums as any slaves of other nations usually pay when they are redeemed.

XIII. That if any subject of the said king of Great-Britain happen to die in Algiers, or in any part of its territories, his goods or monies shall not be seized by the governors, judges, or other officers of Algiers, who likewise shall not make any enquiry after them: but the said goods or monies shall be received and possessed by such person or persons, whom the deceased shall, by his last will, have made his heir or heirs, in case they be upon the place where the testator deceased. But if the heirs be not there, then the executors of the said will, lawfully constituted by the deceased, shall, after having made an inventory of all the goods and monies left, take them into their custody without any hinderance, and shall take care the same be remitted, by some safe way, to the true and lawful heirs; and in case any of his said Majesty's subjects happen to die, not having made any will, the English consul shall possess himself of his goods and monies, upon inventory, for the use of the kindred and heirs of the deceased.

XIV. That no merchants, being his majesty's subjects, and residing in or trading to the city and kingdom of Algiers, shall be obliged to buy any merchandizes against their wills, but it shall be free for them to buy such commodities as they shall think fit: and no captain or commander of any ship or vessel belonging to his said majesty's subjects, shall be obliged, against his will, to lade any goods to carry them, or make a voyage to any place whither he shall not have a mind to go. And neither the English consul, nor any other subject of the said king, shall be bound to pay the debts of any other of his Majesty's subjects, except that he or they become sureties for the same, by a public act.

XV. That the subjects of his said Majesty in Algiers or its territories, in matter of controversy, shall be liable to no other jurisdiction but that of the dey, or the divan, except they happen to be at difference between themselves, in which case they shall be liable to no other determination but that of the consul only.

XVI. That in case any subject of his said Majesty, being in any part of the kingdom of Algiers, happen to strike, wound, or kill a Turk, or a Moor, if he be taken, he is to be punished in the same manner, and with no greater severity than a Turk ought to be, being guilty of the same offence; but if he escape, neither the said English consul, nor any other of his said Majesty's subjects, shall be in any sort questioned and troubled therefore.

XVII. That the English consul now, or at any time hereafter, residing at Algiers, shall be there, at all times, with entire freedom and safety of his person and estate, and shall be permitted to chuse his own terjiman (interpreter) and broker, and freely to go on board any ships in the road, as often and when he pleases, and to have the liberty of the country; and that he shall be allowed a place to pray in, and that no man shall do him an injury, in word or deed.

XVIII. That not only during the continuance of this peace and friendship, but likewise, if any breach or war happens hereafter to be between the said king of Great-Britain and the kingdom of Algiers, the said English consul, and all others his said Majesty's subjects, inhabiting in the kingdom of Algiers, shall, always and at all times, both of peace and war, have full and absolute liberty to depart and go to their own, or any other country, upon any ship or vessel, of what nation soever they shall think fit, and to carry with them all their estates, goods, families, and servants, without any interruption or hinderance.

XIX. That no subject of his said Majesty, being a passenger, and coming or going with his baggage, from or to any port, shall be any ways molested or meddled with, although he be on board any ship or vessel in enmity with Algiers: and in like manner, no Algerine passenger, being on board any ship or vessel in enmity with the said king of Great-Britain, shall be any way molested, whether in his person or in his goods, which he may have laden on board the said ship or vessel.

XX. That at all times, when any ship of war of the king of Great-Britain's, carrying his said Majesty's flag at the main top-mast head, shall appear before Algiers, and come to an anchor in the road, immediately upon notice thereof given by his Majesty's consul, or some officer from the ship, to the dey and regency of Algiers, they shall, in honour to his Majesty, cause a salute of 21 cannon to be shot off, from the castles and forts of the city, and that the said ship shall return an answer by shooting off the same number of cannon.

XXI. That presently after the signing and sealing of these articles by the basha, dey, aga, and chiefs of Algiers, all injuries and damages, sustained on either part, shall be quite taken away and forgotten, and this peace shall be in full force and virtue, and continue forever: and for all depredations and damages that shall be afterwards committed or done by either side, before notice can be given of this peace, full satisfaction shall immediately be made, AND WHATSOEVER REMAINS IN KIND SHALL BE INSTANTLY RESTORED.

XXII. That in case it shall happen hereafter, that any thing is done or committed contrary to this treaty, whether by the

subjects of the one or the other party, the treaty notwithstanding shall subsist in full force, and such contraventions shall not occasion the breach of this peace, friendship and good correspondence, but the party injured shall amicably demand immediate satisfaction for the said contraventions, before it be lawful to break the peace: and if the fault was committed by any private subjects of either party, they alone shall be punished, as breakers of the peace and disturbers of the public quiet. And our faith shall be our faith, and our word our word.

Confirmed and sealed, in the presence of Almighty God, April 10, of Jesus 1682, of the Hejira 1093, Abrir 11.

This is the treaty which remains still in force, and has been ever since referred to when any renewals, with additional articles have been made by our succeeding sovereigns. It was (mutatis mutandis) renewed and confirmed, April 5, 1686, by Sir William Soame, Bart. when he was going ambassador extraordinary from king James II. to the Grand Signior, with scarce any alterations, except literals, and what else has been observed. In 1691, Thomas Barker, Esq; sent for by Shaa-ban Hojia, then dey of Algiers, renewed and confirmed the same, without alteration or addition.

In 1700, Capt. Munden, jointly with Robert Cole, Esq; then consul for our nation at Algiers, renewed and confirmed the same, with the following additional articles.

I. We the most excellent and most illustrious lords, Mustafa dey, Ali basha, and Mustafa aga, governors of the most famous and warlike city and kingdom of Algiers, do, by these presents, renew and confirm the peace we so happily enjoy, with William, king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the Christian Faith, and his subjects, made in the year of Jesus, 1682 (of the Hejira 1093, and renewed four years after) in every part and article, more particularly that of the eighth, wherein it is expressed, that no ship or vessel belonging to our government of Algiers, shall cruize near, or in sight of, any of the roads, havens, or ports, towns, or places belonging to the said king of Great-Britain, or any way disturb the peace and commerce of the same: and in compliance with the said eighth article of that treaty, we do sincerely promise and declare, that such orders shall for the future be given to all our commanders, that under a severe penalty, and our utmost displeasure, they shall not enter into the channel of England, nor come, or cruize in sight of any part of his Majesty of Great-Britain's dominions any more for the time to come.

II. That whereas it had been declared, that all ships and vessels belonging to the subjects of the said king of Great-Britain should have passes, &c. by the last day of September, in this present year of Jesus 1700: we do by these declare, at the desire of Capt. John Munden, commander in chief of his said Majesty's ships in the Mediterranean, and Robert Cole, Esq; his Majesty's consul, now residing at our city of Algiers, on behalf of their great master, that no passes shall be required or expected from any of the English ships or vessels, in any part of the world, but that they shall proceed on their voyage, without producing, or shewing a pass to any of our cruizers, 'till the last of September 1701. And after that time is expired, and any ship of England be seized, not having a pass, we do hereby declare, that the goods in that ship shall be prize; but the master, men, and ship, shall be restored, and the freight immediately paid to the said master, to the utmost value as he should have had, if he had gone safe to the port whither he was bound.

III. That whereas Capt. John Munden has given us good assurance that he had a great affront some years past, from some of our rude sailors at our mole, we do hereby promise, that, at all times, whenever any of the king of Great-Britain's ships of war shall come to this place, order shall be immediately given to an officer of the government who shall attend at the mole, all the day-time, during their stay here, to prevent any such disorders for the future, that no misunderstanding may happen between us: and in any such case, the officer at the mole shall secure the person or persons so offending, who shall be punished with the utmost severity. By the help of God, and if he please, these articles, now made between us, shall be maintained. To the truth whereof, we have hereunto set our hands and seals, Algiers, in the year of the Hejira 1112, which is in the Christian account August 20, 1700.

In 1703, admiral Byng, afterwards lord viscount Torrington, renewing the peace for queen Anne with the same Mustafa dey, inserted the two new articles, which are as follow: the preliminary one being only a confirmation of the foregoing, for which reason it is omitted.

I. That whereas, by the said articles of peace, made and concluded by admiral Herbert in 1682, it was agreed, that the subjects of England should pay 10 per cent. custom for the goods they should sell at Algiers, or in the dominions thereof; now, for the better settling and maintaining a good commerce between the subjects of England and those of Algiers, it is agreed and declared, that, from henceforwards, the English shall pay but 5 per cent. custom; and that contraband goods, as is declared before, shall not pay any custom.

II. And

II. And it is farther agreed and declared, that all prizes taken by any one of the subjects of the said queen of Great-Britain, and all ships and vessels built and fitted out in any of his Majesty's plantations in America, that have not been in England, shall not be molested, in case of their not having passes: but that a certificate in writing, under the hands of the commanding officers who shall take any prizes, and a certificate under the hand of the governors or chiefs of such American colonies or places where such ships were built or fitted out, shall be sufficient passes for either of them. And our faith shall be our faith, and our word our word.

Algiers, confirmed and sealed, in the presence of Almighty God, October 28, in the year of Jesus 1703, of the Hejira 1115.

This was again renewed in the reign of his late Majesty king George I. when, in 1716, admiral Baker had orders to visit Tripoly, Tunis, and Algiers. With the two first, as will appear in the ensuing pages, he confirmed our former treaties in person; but to Algiers he deputed the Argyle and Chester, two of his Majesty's ships, to whose commanders, Capt. Coningsby Norbury, and Capt. Nicholas Eaton, in conjunction with Mr Thomas Thompson, then acting as consul in the absence of his brother Samuel Thompson, Esq; he gave a full power to ratify and confirm all the above treaties, with these following new articles.—After the preamble, the first article concludes thus:

I. If any demands or pretensions shall be now left depending, between the subjects or others of either party, they shall be amicably restituted, and full satisfaction shall be made to each other, according to the truth and justice of their claim: nor shall any of the same be cancelled, or made void by this treaty.

II. That as the island of Minorca in the Mediterranean Sea, and the city of Gibraltar in Spain, have been yielded and annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, as well by the king of Spain, as by the several powers of Europe engaged in the late war, it is now hereby agreed and fully concluded, that from this time forward for ever, the said island of Minorca and city of Gibraltar, shall be esteemed, in every respect, by the government and people of Algiers, to be part of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, and the inhabitants thereof be looked upon as his Majesty's natural subjects, in the same manner as if they had been born in any other part of the British territories: and they, with their ships and vessels wearing British colours, and being furnished with proper passes, shall be permitted freely to trade and traffic in any part of the dominions of Algiers, and shall pass without any molestation whatsoever, and shall have the same liberties and privileges that are stipulated in this, and have been made in any other treaties in behalf of the British nation and subjects; and therefore none of the cruisers of Algiers shall, at any time, cruise within sight of the said island of Minorca and city of Gibraltar.

III. That if any English ship shall receive on board any passengers and goods belonging to the kingdom of Algiers, the English shall defend the said Algerines and their goods, so far as lies in their power, and not deliver them to their enemies. And the better to prevent any unjust demands being made upon the crown of Great Britain, and to avoid disputes and differences that may arise, all goods and merchandizes that shall from henceforwards be shipped by the subjects of Algiers, on board the ships or vessels of British subjects upon freight, shall be first registered in the office of cancellaria, before the British consul residing in the port where they are so shipped; and the quantity, quality, and value thereof shall be expressed; and the consul is to manifest the same in the clearance given to the ship or vessel before it shall depart, to the end that, if any cause of complaint should happen hereafter, there may be no greater claim made on the British nation, than what by this method may be proved just and equitable.

IV. That if any of the Algerine cruisers shall meet with ships provided with scallop passes, of either ships or fatias, that shall fit with those delivered to them by the British consul, they shall pass free and unmolested. Algiers, October 29, 1716.

ARTICLES of PEACE and COMMERCE, between his most sacred Majesty George, &c. and the most excellent lords, Ali basha, Haffain Ben Ali bey, Cara Mustafa dey, the aga, and the divan of the most noble city of Tunis, and the whole body of the militia of the said kingdom. Renewed and concluded, A. D. 1716, by John Baker, Esq; vice-admiral, &c.

I. That all former grievances and losses, and other pretensions between both parties, shall be void and of no effect; and from henceforward a firm peace for ever, free trade and commerce, shall be and continue between the subjects of his most sacred Majesty George, king of Great-Britain, &c. and the people of the kingdom of Tunis, and the dominions thereunto belonging. But that this article shall not cancel or make void any just debt either in commerce or otherwise, that may be due from any person or persons to others of

either party; but that the same shall be liable to be demanded and be recoverable as before.

II. That the ships of either party shall have free liberty to enter into any port or river belonging to the dominions of either party, paying the duties only for what they shall sell, transporting the rest without any trouble or molestation, and freely enjoy any other privileges accustomed: and the late exaction that has been upon the lading and unlading of goods at Goletta and the Marine, shall be reduced to the ancient customs in those cases.

III. That there shall not be any seizure of any ships of either party, at sea or in port, but that they shall quietly pass without any molestation or interruption, they displaying their colours: and for prevention of all inconveniences that may happen, the ships of Tunis are to have a certificate under hand and seal of the British consul, that they belong to Tunis: which being produced, the English ship shall admit two men to come on board them peaceably, to satisfy themselves they are English; and, although they have passengers of other nations on board, they shall be free, both they and their effects.

IV. That if any English ship shall receive on board any goods or passengers belonging to the kingdom of Tunis, they shall be bound to defend them and their goods, so far as lies in their power, and not deliver them unto their enemies; and the better to prevent any unjust demands being made upon the crown of Great Britain, and to avoid disputes and differences which may arise, all goods and merchandizes that shall, from henceforward, be shipped by the subjects of this government, either in this port or any other whatsoever, on board the ships or vessels belonging to Great-Britain, shall be first entered in the office of cancellaria, before the British consul residing at the respective port, expressing the quantity, quality, and value of the goods so shipped; which the said consul is to certify in the clearance given to the said ship or vessel before she departs, to the end that, if any cause of complaint should happen hereafter, there may be no greater claim made on the British nation, than by this method shall be proved to be just and equitable.

V. That if any of the ships of either party shall, by accident of foul weather, or otherwise, be cast away upon the coast belonging to either party, the persons shall be free, and the goods saved and delivered to their lawful proprietors.

VI. That the English which do at present, or shall at any time hereafter, inhabit in the city or kingdom of Tunis, shall have free liberty, when they please, to transport themselves with their families and children, though born in the country.

VII. That the people belonging to the dominions of either party shall not be abused with ill language, or otherwise ill treated; but that the parties so offending, shall be punished severely according to their deserts.

VIII. That the consul, or any other of the English nation, residing in Tunis, shall not be forced to make their addresses, in any difference, unto any court of justice, but to the Bey himself, from whom only they shall receive judgment; this in case the difference should happen between a subject of Great-Britain, and another of this government, or any other foreign nation; but if it should be between any two of his Britannic Majesty's subjects, then it is to be decided by the British consul only.

IX. That the consul, or any other of the English nation, shall not be liable to pay the debts of any particular person of the nation, unless obliged thereunto under his hand.

X. That as the island of Minorca, in the Mediterranean Sea, and the city of Gibraltar in Spain, has been yielded and annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, as well by the king of Spain, as by all the several powers of Europe engaged in the late war; now it is hereby agreed and fully concluded, that from this time forward for ever, the said island of Minorca and city of Gibraltar, shall be esteemed in every respect by the government of Tunis, to be part of his Britannic Majesty's own dominions, and the inhabitants thereof to be looked upon as his Majesty's natural subjects, in the same manner as if they had been born in any part of Great-Britain; and they with their ships and vessels wearing the British colours, shall be permitted freely to trade and traffic in any part of the kingdom of Tunis, and shall pass without any molestation whatsoever, either on the seas or elsewhere, in the same manner, and with the same freedom and privileges, as have been stipulated in this and all former treaties, in behalf of the British nation and subjects.

XI. And the better and more firmly to maintain the good correspondence and friendship, that hath been so long and happily established between the crown of Great-Britain and the government of Tunis, it is hereby agreed and concluded, by the parties before-mentioned, that none of the ships or vessels belonging to Tunis, or the dominions thereof, shall be permitted to cruise, or look for prizes of any nation whatsoever, before or in sight of the aforesaid city of Gibraltar, or any of the ports of the island of Minorca, to hinder or molest any vessels bringing provisions and refreshments for his Britannic Majesty's troops and garrisons in those places, or give any disturbance to the trade or commerce thereof; and if any prize shall be taken by the ships or vessels of Tunis,

within

within the space of ten miles of the aforesaid places, it shall be restored without any dispute.

XII. That all the ships of war belonging to either party's dominions, shall have free liberty to use each others ports, for washing, cleaning, or repairing any their defects, and to buy and to ship off any sort of victuals, alive or dead, or any other necessaries, at the price the natives buy at in the market, without paying custom to any officer: and whereas his Britannic Majesty's ships of war do frequently assemble and harbour in the port of Mahon, in the island of Minorca, if at any time they, or his Majesty's troops in garrison there, should be in want of provisions, and should send from thence to purchase supplies in any part of the dominions belonging to Tunis, they shall be permitted to buy cattle alive or dead, and all other kind of provisions at the prices they are sold at in the market, and shall be suffered to carry them off, without paying duty to any officer, in the same manner as if his Majesty's ships were themselves in the port.

XIII. That in case any ships of war belonging to the kingdom of Tunis, shall take, in any of their enemies ships, any Englishmen, serving for wages, they are to be made slaves; but if merchants or passengers, they are to enjoy their liberty and effects unmolested.

XIV. That in case any slave in the kingdom of Tunis, of any nation whatsoever, shall make his escape, and get on board any ship belonging to the dominions of his sacred Majesty the king of Great-Britain, &c. the consul shall not be liable to pay the ransom, unless timely notice be given him to order that none such be entertained; and then if it appears that any slave has so got away, the said consul is to pay to his patron the price for which he was sold in the market; and if no price be set, then pay three hundred dollars, and no more.

XV. And the better to prevent any dispute that may hereafter arise between the two parties, about salutes and public ceremonies; it is hereby agreed and concluded, that whenever any flag-officer of Great-Britain shall arrive in the bay of Tunis, in any of his Majesty's ships of war, immediately upon notice given thereof, there shall be 25 cannon fired from the castle of Goletta, or other the nearest fortification belonging to Tunis, according to custom, as a royal salute to his Britannic Majesty's colours, and the same number shall be returned in answer thereto by his Majesty's ships; and it is hereby stipulated and agreed, that all ceremonies of honour shall be allowed to the British consul who resides here, to represent in every respect his Majesty's person, equal to any other nation whatsoever, and no other consul in the kingdom to be admitted before him in precedence.

XVI. That the subjects of his sacred Majesty of Great-Britain, &c. either residing in or trading to the dominions of Tunis, shall not, for the time to come, pay any more than three per cent. custom on the value of goods or merchandize, which they shall either bring into or carry out of this said kingdom of Tunis.

XVII. It is moreover agreed, concluded, and established, that at whatsoever time it shall please the government of Tunis to reduce the customs of the French nation no less than they pay at present, it shall always be observed that the British customs shall be 2 per cent. less than any agreement that shall for the future be made with the said French, or that shall be paid by the subjects of France.

XVIII. It is moreover agreed, concluded, and established, that in case any British ship or ships, or any of the subjects of his Majesty of Great-Britain, shall import at the port of Tunis, or any other port of this kingdom, any warlike stores, as cannons, muskets, pistols, cannon powder, or fine powder, bullets, masts, anchors, cables, pitch, tar, or the like; as also provisions, viz. wheat, barley, beans, oats, oil, or the like; for the said kinds of merchandize, they shall not pay any sort of duty or custom whatever.

We the parties before mentioned, having seen and perused the preceding articles, do hereby approve, ratify, and confirm, the several particulars therein mentioned; and they are to remain firm for ever, without any alteration. In testimony of which we do hereunto set our hands and seals in the presence of Almighty God, in the noble city of Tunis, the 30th day of August, old stile, and the year of our Lord Jesus Christ, 1716, being the 26th day of the moon Ramadam, and the year of the Hejira 1128.

(L. S.) J. BAKER. (L. S.) (L. S.) (L. S.)

ARTICLES OF PEACE and COMMERCE, between his most sacred Majesty George, by the grace, &c. and the most excellent lords Mahomet bey, Yusef dey, Shaaban rais, the divan, and the rest of the officers and people of the city and kingdom of Tripoly, renewed, concluded, and ratified, this 19th of July 1716, by John Baker, Esq; vice-admiral, &c.

I. In the first place, it is agreed and concluded, that from this time forward for ever, there shall be a true and inviolable peace, between the most serene king of Great-Britain, and the most illustrious lords and governors of the city and kingdom of Tripoly in Barbary, and between all the dominions

and subjects of either side: and if the ships and subjects of either party shall happen to meet upon the seas, or elsewhere, they shall not molest each other, but shall shew all possible respect and friendship.

II. That all merchant-ships belonging to the dominions of Great-Britain, and trading to the city or any other part of the kingdom of Tripoly, shall pay no more than three per cent. custom for all kinds of goods they shall sell; and as for such as they shall not sell, they shall be permitted freely to embark them again on board their ships, without paying any sort of duty whatsoever, and shall depart without any hinderance or molestation.

III. That all ships and other vessels, as well those belonging to the said king of Great-Britain, or to any of his Majesty's subjects, as those belonging to the kingdom or people of Tripoly, shall freely pass the seas, and traffic where they please, without any search, hinderance, or molestation, from each other: and that all persons or passengers, of what country soever, and all monies, goods, merchandizes and moveables, to whatsoever people or nation belonging, being on board any the said ships or vessels, shall be wholly free, and shall not be stopped, taken, or plundered, nor receive any harm or damage whatsoever, from either party.

IV. That the Tripoly ships of war, or any other vessels thereunto belonging, meeting with any merchant-ships, or other vessels of the king of Great-Britain's subjects (not being in any of the seas appertaining to any of his Majesty's dominions) may send on board one single boat, with two fitters, besides the ordinary crew of the rowers; and no more but the two fitters to enter any of the said merchant-ships, or any other vessels, without the express leave of the commander of every such ship or vessel: and then, upon producing to them a pass under the hand and seal of the lord high admiral of England, or the commissioners for executing of the said office, the said boat shall presently depart, and the merchant-ship or ships, vessel or vessels, shall proceed freely on her or their voyage. And though the commander or commanders, of the said merchant-ship or ships, vessel or vessels, produce no pass from the lord high admiral of England, or &c. yet, if the major part of the ships or vessels company be subjects to the said king of Great-Britain, the said boat shall presently depart, and the merchant-ship or ships, vessel or vessels, shall freely proceed on her or their voyage: and any of the said ships of war, or other vessels of his said Majesty, meeting with any ship or ships, vessel or vessels, belonging to Tripoly; if the commander or commanders of any such ship or ships, vessel or vessels, shall produce a pass, signed by the chief governors of Tripoly, and a certificate from the English consul residing there; or, if they have no such pass or certificate, yet if the major part of their ships company or companies be Turks, Moors, or slaves belonging to Tripoly, then the said Tripoly ship or ships, vessel or vessels, shall proceed freely.

V. That no commander or other person, of any ship or vessel of Tripoly, shall take out of any ship or vessel of his said Majesty's subjects, any person or persons whatsoever, to carry them any where to be examined, or upon any other pretence, nor shall use any torture or violence unto any person, of what nation or quality soever, being on board any ship or vessel of his Majesty's subjects, upon any pretence whatsoever.

VI. That no shipwreck belonging to the said king of Great-Britain, or to any of his Majesty's subjects, upon any part of the coast belonging to Tripoly, shall be made or become prize; and that neither the goods thereof shall be seized, nor the men made slaves, but all the subjects of Tripoly shall do their best endeavours to save the said men, and their effects.

VII. That no ship or any other vessel of Tripoly, shall have permission to be delivered up, or to go to any other place in enmity with the said king of Great-Britain, to be made use of as corsairs at sea against his Majesty's subjects.

VIII. That if any ship or vessel of Tunis, Algiers, Tetuan, or Sallee, or of any other place being in war with the said king of Great-Britain, bring any ships or vessels, men or goods, belonging to his said Majesty's subjects, to Tripoly, or to any port or place in that kingdom, the governors there shall not permit them to be sold within the territories of Tripoly.

IX. That if any subject of the king of Great-Britain happens to die in Tripoly, or its territories, his goods or monies shall not be seized by the governors or ministers of Tripoly, but shall all remain with the English consul.

X. That neither the English consul, nor any other subject of the said king of Great-Britain, shall be bound to pay the debts of any other of his Majesty's subjects unless they become surety for the same by a public act.

XI. That the subjects of his said Majesty in Tripoly, or its territories, in matter of controversy, shall be liable to no other jurisdiction but that of the dey or divan, except they happen to be at difference between themselves, in which case, they shall be liable to no other determination but that of the consul only.

XII. That in case any subject of his Majesty, being in any port of the kingdom of Tripoly, shall happen to strike, kill,

or wound a Turk or Moor, if he be taken, he is to be punished in the same manner, and with no greater severity, than a Turk ought to be, being guilty of the same offence: but if he escape, neither the said English consul, nor any other of his said Majesty's subjects, shall be in any sort questioned or troubled on that account.

XIII. That the English consul now, or at any time hereafter, residing at Tripoly, shall be there at all times with intire freedom and safety of his person and estates, and shall be permitted to chuse his own interpreter and broker, and freely go on board any ship in the road, as often and when he pleases; and to have the liberty of the country; and that he shall be allowed a place to pray in, and that no man shall do him any injury in word or deed.

XIV. That not only during the continuance of this peace and friendship, but likewise if any breach or war happen to be hereafter, between the said king of Great-Britain and the city and kingdom of Tripoly, the said consul, and all other his Majesty's subjects inhabiting in the kingdom of Tripoly, shall always, and at all times, both of peace and war, have full and absolute liberty to depart, and go to their own country, or any other, upon any ship or vessel, of what nation soever they shall think fit, and carry with them all their estates, goods, families, and servants, though born in the country, without any interruption or hinderance.

XV. That no subject of his said Majesty, being a passenger from or to any port, shall be any way molested and meddled with, though he be on board any ship or vessel in enmity with Tripoly.

XVI. That if any ships of war of the said king of Great-Britain come to Tripoly, or to any other port or place of that kingdom, with any prize, they may freely sell it, or otherwise dispose of it at their own pleasure, without being molested by any: and that his Majesty's said ships of war shall not be obliged to pay customs in any sort; and that, if they shall want provisions, victuals, or any other things, they may freely buy them at the rate in the market.

XVII. That when any of his Majesty's ships of war shall appear before Tripoly, upon notice thereof given by the English consul, or by the commanders of the said ships, to the chief governors of Tripoly, public proclamation shall be immediately made, to secure the Christian captives; and if, after that, any Christians whatsoever make their escape on board any of the said ships of war, they shall not be required back again, nor shall the said consul or commander, or any other his Majesty's subjects, be obliged to pay any thing for the said Christians.

XVIII. That all merchant-ships coming to the city or kingdom of Tripoly (though not belonging to Great-Britain) shall have free liberty to put themselves under the protection of the British consul, in selling and disposing of their goods and merchandize, if they shall think proper, without any hinderance or molestation.

XIX. That at all times, when any ship of war, of the king of Great-Britain, &c. carrying his said Majesty's flag, appears before the said city of Tripoly, and comes to an anchor in the road, immediately after notice thereof given by his said Majesty's consul, or officer from the ship, unto the dey and government of Tripoly, they shall, in honour to his Majesty, cause a salute of twenty-seven cannon to be fired from the castle and fort of the city; and that the said ship shall return an answer, by firing the same number of cannon.

XX. That no merchant-ship belonging to Great-Britain, or any other nation under the protection of the English consul, being in the port of Tripoly, shall be detained from proceeding to sea on her voyage longer than three days, under pretence of arming out the ships of war of this government, or any other whatsoever.

XXI. That no subject of the king of Great Britain, &c. shall be permitted to turn Mussulman in the city and kingdom of Tripoly (being induced thereunto by any surprize whatsoever) unless he voluntarily appears before the dey or governors, with the English consul's interpreter, thrice in twenty-four hours space, and every time declares his resolutions to become a Mussulman.

XXII. That the most serene king of Great-Britain's consul, residing in Tripoly aforesaid, shall have liberty, at all times when he pleases, to put up his said serene Majesty's flag on the top of his house, and there to continue it spread as long time as he pleases; likewise the said consul to have the same liberty of putting up and spreading the said flag in his boat, when he passes on the water; and no man whatsoever to oppose, molest, disturb, or injure him therein, either by word or deed.

XXIII. That whereas the island of Minorca, in the Mediterranean Sea, and the city of Gibraltar, in Spain, have been yielded up and annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, as well by the king of Spain, as by all the several powers of Europe engaged in the late war: now it is hereby agreed and fully concluded, That from this time forward, for ever, the said island of Minorca, and city of Gibraltar, shall be esteemed, in every respect, by the government of Tripoly, to be part of his Britannic Majesty's own dominions, and the inhabitants thereof to be looked upon as his Majesty's natural sub-

jects, in the same manner as if they had been born in any part of Great-Britain; and they, with their ships and vessels wearing British colours, shall be permitted freely to trade and traffic in any part of the kingdom of Tripoly, and shall pass without any molestation whatsoever, either on the seas or elsewhere, in the same manner, and with the same freedom and privileges, as have been stipulated in this and all former treaties, on behalf of the British nation and subjects.

XXIV. And whereas in the treaty of peace concluded in the reign of king Charles II, in the year 1676, by Sir John Narborough, Knt. an article was inserted, by which the ships and vessels of Tripoly were not permitted to cruize before, or in sight of, the port of Tangier, then belonging to Great-Britain: now it is hereby concluded and ratified, That, in the same manner, none of the ships or vessels belonging to Tripoly shall cruize, or look for prizes, before or in sight of the ports of the island of Minorca, and the city of Gibraltar, or to disturb or molest the trade thereof, in any manner whatsoever.

XXV. That all and every the articles in this treaty shall be inviolably kept and observed between his most sacred Majesty of Great-Britain, and the most illustrious lords and governors of this city and kingdom of Tripoly, and all other matters not particularly expressed in this treaty, and provided for in any former, shall still remain in full force, and shall be esteemed the same as if inserted here. Dated in the presence of Almighty God, in the city of Tripoly, this 19th day of July, 1751, according to the Christian computation; and of the Mussulman Hejira, the 10th of the moon Shaaban, 1128.

Whitehall, December 10, 1751.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES to the antient treaties subsisting between his Majesty and the dey and government of Algiers, agreed to by the present dey Mahomet, and his Majesty's plenipotentiaries, the honourable Augustus Kessel, and Ambrose Stansford, his Majesty's agent and consul-general at Algiers.

That all packet, or express-boats, bearing his Majesty's commission, which shall be met by any of the cruizers of Algiers, shall be treated with the same respect as his Majesty's ships of war, and all due respect shall be paid to his Majesty's commission; and both at meeting and at parting they shall be treated as friends; and if any of the Algerine cruizers commit the least fault or violence against them, the captains, or raziars, so offending, shall, on their arrival at Algiers, and proper complaint being made of them, be most severely punished, without admitting of their excuses. Dated at Algiers, the 3d of June, 1751; and in the year of the Hegeira 1164, the 20th day of the moon Regil.

By the KING, a PROCLAMATION, requiring passes formerly granted to ships and vessels trading in the way of the cruizers belonging to the governments on the coasts of Barbary, to be returned into the office of admiralty of Great-Britain, and other passes, of different forms, to be issued.

GEORGE R.

Whereas by our proclamation bearing date the 31st day of December, in the third year of our reign, we did charge and command all our loving subjects, who then were, or should be possessed of any passes for ships and vessels belonging to our subjects trading to Portugal, the Canaries, Guinea, the Indies, into the Mediterranean, or elsewhere, in the way of the cruizers of the government of Algiers (except such passes as had been granted to ships gone, or going to the East-Indies, or other remote voyages, where they could not be timely furnished with new passes) that they should, within the space of twelve months, to be computed from the first day of March then next, return the same, and furnish themselves with passes of a new form, under the hands and seals of our commissioners for executing the office of high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, in lieu thereof, for their several ships and vessels, in such manner as by the said recited proclamation was directed. And whereas it hath been humbly represented unto us, That it may have happened that, during the late war, several passes granted pursuant to the said recited proclamation, may, either by accident or undue means, have fallen into the hands of foreigners, who, by colour of such passes, may carry on their trade: We, taking the premises into our royal consideration, and judging it necessary to put a speedy stop to all such indirect practices, which do not only tend to the prejudice of our trading subjects, but may occasion a misunderstanding between us and the governments on the coast of Barbary, for preventing thereof, have thought fit, by the advice of our privy-council, to publish this our royal proclamation, and do hereby declare, that all such passes of the present form now in being, shall not continue in force longer than 'till the 1st day of April, 1752 (except such passes as have been granted to ships gone, or going to the East-Indies, or other remote voyages, where they cannot be timely furnished with new passes). And we do hereby strictly charge and command all our loving subjects, who are or shall be possessed of any such passes, that they do before the 1st day of April, 1752, return the same (except such as are before excepted) into the office of the admiralty of Great-

Great-Britain, or to the respective collectors of our customs at the out-ports of Great-Britain and Ireland, or to the governors of some of our foreign plantations or dominions, in order to their being cancelled, and that they do furnish themselves with passes of a new form, under the hands and seals of our commissioners for executing the office of high-admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, in lieu thereof, for their several ships and vessels, according to the treaties subsisting between us and the said governments on the coast of Barbary, and the regulations made by our royal father of glorious memory, by order in his privy-council, on the 14th day of June, in the year 1722, and our instructions given to our said commissioners for executing the office of high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland touching the same. And whereas many ships and vessels belonging to our loving subjects, continue several years trading from port to port in the Mediterranean, without returning home, whereby they cannot so conveniently procure their passes to be exchanged, we do hereby, for the ease of our trading subjects, publish and declare our pleasure, That upon the application of any owner of any ship or vessel, or other substantial merchant, to the office of the admiralty of Great-Britain, and oath made by him of the property of such ship or vessel, and that three-fourths of the company are our subjects, according to an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of our royal predecessor, king Charles the Second, (intituled, An Act for encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation;) and upon entering into the usual bond for the return of such pass at the end of the voyage, it shall and may be lawful for our commissioners for executing the office of high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, or our high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland for the time being, and they are respectively impowered to make out a new pass for such ship or vessel, and send the same to such of our consuls in the Mediterranean as the said owner or merchant shall desire, with directions to such consul, that, upon application to him from the master of the ship for which the pass is made out, and surrendering up his old pass, and entering into a like bond for the return of such new pass, he shall deliver out the said new pass to such master, and transmit the old one, with the bond, to the office of admiralty of Great-Britain. And in order more effectually to hinder, for the future, any abuses that may be attempted by foreigners, relating to the new passes to be issued as aforesaid, we do hereby further declare our royal will and pleasure, That all such new passes to be hereafter issued, for any ships or vessels belonging to any of our subjects of the island of Minorca, or Gibraltar, shall be made out in a particular form, different from the form of the new passes to be issued for ships and vessels belonging to any other part of our dominions, and that such passes shall be lodged with the respective governors, lieutenant-governors, or commanders in chief, for the time being, of the said island of Minorca, or Gibraltar, and issued out only by them, according to the regulations made by our said royal father in council, as aforesaid: and the said respective governors, lieutenant-governors, and commanders in chief, are hereby charged and required not to issue or deliver out any such passes to any persons whatsoever, other than such as are really our subjects, inhabiting in the said island of Minorca, or Gibraltar, respectively, and strictly to conform themselves to the regulations and instructions made and given as aforesaid. And we do hereby further publish and declare, That, by our orders made this day in our privy-council, we have ordered and directed, That the proper officers of our customs, in the several ports of our kingdoms of Great-Britain and Ireland, do demand of the masters of all merchant-ships, so soon as they shall return into port from a foreign voyage, all passes granted as aforesaid, which shall be in their possession, to be produced to the said respective officers of our customs; and that, if the same shall appear to be of an older date than twelve months, for ships and vessels trading on this side the Straights Mouth, or for ships and vessels trading to a greater distance, in case the voyages of such last mentioned ships and vessels shall be determined, then such passes shall be delivered up to the said respective officers of our customs, and be by them returned to the office of the admiralty of Great-Britain: and in case the master of any such ship or vessel shall refuse to produce or deliver up such passes, according to the true intent of our order, then the said officers shall certify the name of every such master, and of the ship or vessel, to our commissioners for executing the office of high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, or our high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland for the time being, to the end that directions may be given for putting the bond, entered into on the granting any such pass, in suit. And all our governors, lieutenant-governors, and commanders in chief of any of our islands, colonies, or plantations, consuls residing in foreign parts, and all other our officers and ministers whatsoever, and all our loving subjects whom it may concern, are hereby expressly required and commanded to yield due obedience unto, and strictly to observe all the orders, instructions, regulations, and directions before mentioned, on pain of our high displeasure.

Given at our court at St James's, the 29th day of March, 1750, in the twenty third year of our reign.

GOD save the KING.

At the court at St James's, the 29th day of December, 1751, present the King's Most Excellent Majesty in council.

Whereas his Majesty was pleased by his proclamation, bearing date the 29th day of March, 1750, to declare, That all passes of the present form now in being, which had been granted for ships and vessels belonging to his Majesty's subjects trading in the way of the cruisers of the government of Algiers, should not continue in force longer than until the 1st day of April, 1752 (except such passes as had been granted to ships gone, or going, to the East-Indies, or other remote voyages, where they could not be timely furnished with new passes) and his Majesty did thereby strictly charge and command all his subjects, who were or should be possessed of any such passes, that they should, before the said 1st day of April, 1752, return the same (except such as are before excepted) into the office of the admiralty of Great-Britain, or to the respective collectors of the customs at the out-ports of Great-Britain and Ireland, or to the governors of some of his Majesty's plantations and dominions, in order to their being cancelled; and that they should furnish themselves with passes of a new form, under the hands and seals of the commissioners for executing the office of the lord high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, in lieu thereof, for their several ships and vessels, as by the said recited proclamation is directed:—And whereas, since the issuing the said proclamation, it has been agreed by and between his Majesty and the dey of Algiers, that the passes of the present form should not expire so soon as the 1st day of April, 1752, but be continued, and remain in force, until the 30th day of October, 1752, at which time the passes of the new form are to commence, except only in the case of ships going to the East Indies, or other remote voyages, whose passes are to continue good for the space of three years, from the 30th day of October, 1751. His Majesty, with the advice of his privy-council, doth therefore hereby declare and order, That the passes of the present form do continue in force until the said 30th day of October, 1752: upon which day, the passes of the new form shall commence and take place, except in the case of ships going to the East-Indies, or other remote voyages, whose present passes are to remain good for three years from the said 30th day of October, 1752. And his Majesty doth hereby charge and command all his subjects who shall be possessed of any such passes, that they do, before the said 30th day of October, 1752, return the same (except such as are before excepted) into the office of the admiralty of Great-Britain, or to the respective collectors of the customs at the out-ports of Great-Britain and Ireland, or to the governors of some of his Majesty's plantations or dominions, in order to their being cancelled; and that they do furnish themselves with passes of a new form, under the hands and seals of the commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral of Great Britain and Ireland, in lieu thereof, agreeable to the requisites of his Majesty's afore-mentioned proclamation of the 29th of March, 1750.—Whereof all persons whom it may concern are to take notice, and conform themselves to his Majesty's pleasure, hereby signified.

WILLIAM SHARPE.

The PRIVILEGES of an ENGLISHMAN, in the kingdoms and dominions of PORTUGAL. Contained in the treaty of peace concluded by Oliver Cromwell. And various laws, decrees, &c. at sundry times, and on divers occasions, made by the kings of Portugal, in favour of the ENGLISH NATION. To which is added the king of Portugal's new law, concerning the diamonds found in the Brasils.

SIX PRELIMINARY ARTICLES, treated of and agreed upon between the ambassador extraordinary from the king of PORTUGAL, and the state counsellor of parliament; in the name of the republic of ENGLAND. Done in London, in the year 1652.

ARTICLE I.

That between the aforesaid, by the one and the other party, it is agreed, and likewise the said ambassador has thought fit to give his word, in the name of the king, that all those Englishmen who by any means are held in custody, either upon account of securities, or pledge, or by any other means whatsoever, occasioned by the controversies arisen between the one and the other people, in any of the dominions of Portugal, who by prince Rupert have been carried from hence, or put into its port of Lisbon, shall be delivered and set at liberty, and their securities discharged, or made of none effect.

ARTICLE II.

It was agreed with the said ambassador, who gave his word in the name of the king, to deliver immediately the ships, monies,

monies, and goods belonging to the English, which are retained in any of the places in the dominions of the king of Portugal, that they shall be delivered without any farther delay, in the same specie, in case they remain in the same goodness and value, as they were in when they were taken and retained; and if they are become worse, or of less value or goodness in specie; or if, by reason of the detention, they are any ways decayed, and become of less worth; or if they are lost; in these cases they shall be paid for, and satisfaction shall be given for them, according to the just price or value they bore at the time they were taken. And as touching the reparation of the damages, it shall be ordered in the manner as the council have declared their sentiments, by letter bearing date the 15th of November 1651. And the said ambassador obliged himself to give satisfaction for the whole.

A R T I C L E III.

It was agreed upon by the one and the other party, That all those who were the authors or helpers to kill the Englishmen mentioned in the petition, which the counsel exhibited to the said ambassador, who have been found or taken in any places in the dominions of the king of Portugal, or who may be found for the future, shall be punished by the said king, according to the merits of their crimes; or they shall be penally delivered with their accusations to the parliament, to be by them chastized; and the same, being subjects to the said king of Portugal, shall be punished for their malefactions, as also those who were their accomplices or abettors, and the rest of the above-mentioned of any degree or condition whatsoever; and also such as after this treaty shall be named by the parliament of the republic of England; and if they abscond, or run away to the ports of the said king, they shall be punished. And the said ambassador gave his word, in the name of his king, to observe this article.

A R T I C L E IV.

It was agreed upon between the abovesaid on both parts, That the king of Portugal, in the name of, i. e. in lieu of those expences made by this republic, the which the counsel declared to the said ambassador, they might, in right of this nation, liquidate from the goods of the Portuguese that were occupied or taken by reprisal, which amounted to 14,246l. 11s. shall pay to the parliament 50,000l. in good and lawful money of England, in the manner herein after declared, that is to say, 20,000l. or as much Portuguese money as is equal to it in value, which shall be paid to that person whom the parliament or council of state may appoint to receive it in Lisbon, on the first of March next ensuing after this treaty, or within the space of one month, as it shall appear by a writing under the said ambassador's hand, wherein it shall be expressed, that the said sum shall be paid in Lisbon; and afterwards shall be paid 15,000l. of the same good and lawful money of England, on the last day of the month of July, 1653, O. S. and in like manner the last 15,000l. (which makes the sum of 50,000l.) on the first day of the month of November, 1653, O. S. and that the two last payments shall be made here in the city of London.

In the same article it was agreed upon, that as to the sum which by agreement is to be paid in Lisbon money, if any thing should be wanting of the intire sum, the whole shall be made good, and paid by the said king of Portugal; because it is to be understood, that all that entire sum and quantity ought to be returned to the parliament in good and lawful money of England; and the said ambassador, in the name of his king, obliged himself to pay the 50,000l. in the payments and monies above declared and represented.

A R T I C L E V.

It was agreed upon between the one and the other parties abovesaid, That all the ships and goods of the English, which have been brought to Portugal by Rupert and Maurice, or by any of their ships, and there made use of, or are any where there detained, left, or by their order carried from thence, shall immediately be restored to their owners; or instead thereof full satisfaction and reparation shall be made. The which above-mentioned things the said ambassador has given his word, in the name of his king, to observe and perform.

A R T I C L E VI.

Between the abovesaid of the one and the other parties, it was agreed upon, That as well the ship called the Conversion, as all other ships belonging to this republic of England, and all whatsoever vessels of this republic, that by Rupert, or by any of the ships of his fleet, have been carried to Portugal, and are in possession of the king of Portugal; or any of his subjects, or before this have been taken

and applied to use, or which by any authority have been taken as prize, shall be restored again, with all their apparel, preparations, guns, and instructions; and just recompence shall be made for the retention of them; to which the said ambassador gave his word, in the name of his king, to perform the contents of this article: in faith and testimony whereof, the said ambassador has signed these six preliminary articles with his own hand, and sealed them with his seal.

Given on the 29th day of December, in the year of our Lord, 1652.

Articles of PEACE, ALLIANCE, and COMMERCE, concluded between the most serene lord protector of England, Scotland and Ireland, on the one part; and the most serene king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, on the other part. Done at Westminster, on the 10th of July, in the Year 1654.

A R T I C L E I.

In the first place, that there shall be a good, true, and firm peace, between the republic of England, and the most serene king of Portugal, and between the regions, countries, dominions, and principalities, under the empire of the one and the other, and the people, subjects, and the inhabitants of both, of any condition, rank, or dignity whatsoever, as well by land as by sea, in rivers and fresh waters; in such manner that the people and subjects shall favour and succour one the other, with reciprocal good will, and honest affection; and that neither of the said parties, nor their people, subjects, or inhabitants, shall commit, or attempt any thing against the other, in any place, either by land or sea, or in the harbours or rivers of either; nor shall they consent to, or assist in any war, council, or treaty, to the prejudice of the other party; nor shall either of the said parties house or harbour the rebels or fugitives of the other in any of their countries, kingdoms, dominions, ports, or frontiers.

A R T I C L E II.

That between the republic of England and the king of Portugal and their people, subjects, and inhabitants, as well by land as by sea, in rivers and fresh waters, in all and every one of the regions, countries, dominions, territories, provinces, islands, colonies, cities, towns, villages, ports and frontiers, there shall be free commerce in those places, in which there is at present, or has been commerce in time past; in such manner that without permit or other licence, general or special, as well by land as by sea, in rivers and fresh waters, the people, subjects and inhabitants, of either of the parties, may go, enter and navigate in the said dominions and kingdoms, and in all their cities, towns, harbours, coasts, bays, and places, with carriages, horses, packs, and ships, as well laden as to be laden, carry merchandizes, buy, sell, and at the current prices to procure provisions, and what necessities they may want for their stay and voyage, to repair their ships and carriages, whether their own or such as are hired or borrowed, and with the same liberty to depart from thence with their goods, merchandizes, and all other things whatsoever, either to their own or foreign countries, as they shall think fit; and that without any hindrance or impediment, saving, however, all the laws and statutes of each place.

A R T I C L E III.

That the people and inhabitants of this republic shall be at liberty to buy up all sorts of wares, goods and merchandizes, and the same to use and enjoy in the kingdoms, provinces, territories, and islands of the king of Portugal, at the first hand, either in small parcels or by wholesale, in whatsoever number and size, when and wheresoever they please; neither shall they be compelled to buy them of the farmer of the customs or monopolists, nor shall they be obliged to buy at any fixed price. They may also at discretion sell, traffic, and freely carry away, any sorts of goods, wares, and merchandize, whatsoever, from the said kingdoms and dominions, paying only the duties and customs in the consulado due on the goods they carry out, as they were paid the 10th of March, 1653-4, O. S.

And, as to their buying and selling by the intervention of brokers, the said people of this republic, shall enjoy and use the same liberties, privileges and exemptions as the Portuguese themselves; nor shall they be treated with more rigour than the same inhabitants and natives; and that which is called the ancient charter, and all the privileges and immunities that heretofore have been granted to the English at any time, by all or any of the kings of Portugal, shall be confirmed by edicts, to the end that the people and natives of the said republic may enjoy them, together with all other privileges and immunities which are already granted, or shall be granted from the time to come, to any nation, kingdom, or republic, in alliance with the said king of Portugal.

A R T I C L E IV.

That, whenever the people and natives of this republic arrive with their ships in the harbours of the king of Portugal, the said people and natives shall not be constrained, by the ministers, officers, and subjects of the said king of Portugal, to load, or put on board their ships, any other sorts or quantities of goods and merchandize, but only such as shall be by them approved of: neither, while they stay in the said harbours, shall there be put on board their ships, any more than two guards, or officers, at most; and in the unloading their ships, there shall be no unnecessary delays. And if the said ships, which are loaden with dry goods, should not be unloaded within the space of ten days, and the ships loaden with fish and provisions, within the space of 15 days, after their entrance into the port, they shall not, however, be obliged to pay any stipend, or sum of money, or any salary to the said guards, or officers, nor upon their account be at any farther expences, more than for the said ten or fifteen days respectively.

A R T I C L E V.

If it should so happen that the subjects of the most serene king of Portugal, or others, within the kingdoms and dominions of the said king, should be imprisoned, and their goods and merchandize seized, stopped, and detained, by the office of the court of inquisition, or by its judges, or ministers, or by the king's exchequer; and should owe any money, or come to be indebted to any of the people of this republic, the said debts shall be fully and intirely paid out of the above-said goods, and merchandize, within six months next ensuing after the imprisonment, and seizure of the goods as above-said, without hindrance, or any molestation, from the said tribunal, or its judges, or ministers; but, if among the said goods and merchandize, so seized and held, there should remain in being, any goods and merchandize belonging to the said people and natives, the same shall immediately be restored to them.

A R T I C L E VI.

That the captains, masters, officers, and mariners of the ships of this republic, or of any of its people, shall not attempt to sue, or in any wise molest, the said ships or people of this republic, within the said kingdoms and dominions of Portugal, on account of their wages, or salary, under pretence of their professing the Romish religion; nor shall they, under this or any other pretence, apply themselves to the service of the king of Portugal, or by any other means leave the ships whereunto they belong; and if they become delinquents, and offend in this point, their names being taken account of, they shall be chastised by the magistrates and officers of the place, and compelled to return to their ships; and if they cannot be found, it shall be lawful for the masters of such ships, or vessels, to detain their cloaths, goods, or wages, for the satisfaction of damages.

A R T I C L E VII.

That the consuls, who shall hereafter reside in any part of the dominions of Portugal, for the assistance and protection of the people of this republic, shall be from henceforward nominated, and made by the said lord protector; and when so nominated, they shall have and exercise the same authority, as any consul, of this or any other nation whatsoever, doth now, or shall hereafter exercise in the dominions of the said king, although they do not profess the Romish religion. And, for the judging of all causes, relating to the people of this republic, a judge conservator shall be deputed, from whom no manner of appeal shall be granted, except to the Senate of Rellacao, where the law-suits commenced, and appealed to that court shall be determined within the space of four months.

A R T I C L E VIII.

That if any of the people of this republic shall die within the kingdoms and dominions of the most serene king of Portugal, the books, accounts, goods and assets, belonging to them, or to others of the people of this republic, shall not be seized or possessed by the judges of the orphans and persons absent, or by their ministers and officers; nor shall they be liable to their jurisdiction; but the same goods, merchandize, and accounts, shall be delivered to the English factors, or procurators residing in that place, who are nominated or deputed by the deceased: but, if the defunct, whilst living, did not nominate any, then the said goods, merchandize and accounts, shall, by the authority of the judge conservator, be delivered to two or more English merchants residing in the place, and approved of by the English consul, after having given security by unexceptionable bondsmen (who shall also be approved by the same English consul) for restoring the said goods, merchandize and accounts, to the right

owners, or to their true creditors; and the goods which shall appear to have been the deceased's, shall be delivered to his heirs, executors or creditors.

A R T I C L E IX.

That neither the king of Portugal, nor any of his ministers, shall detain or arrest any merchants, masters of ships, captains, or mariners; or their ships, merchandizes, or other goods which belong to this republic, or any of its people, either for war, or any other use whatsoever, unless the lord protector, or those to whom such ships and goods appertain, are first apprised thereof, and give their consent; but that the said ships, men, and goods, may freely, and without hindrance or impediment from the above-said king or his ministers, depart from the harbours and dominions of the said king, at their own pleasure; and that the sales of the merchandize and goods belonging to this republic, shall not be hindered, or delayed, under pretence that the king has occasion for them, or for any other reason whatsoever; nor shall they be taken for the king's use, nor for any other uses whatsoever, if the persons who are concerned in the goods do not consent thereto.

A R T I C L E X.

That the people of the republic of England may freely carry in their ships all sorts of goods, merchandize, and things of what kind soever, even arms, provisions, or other such like, from the harbours and dominions of the said republic, or any other harbours or dominions whatsoever, provided they are not taken immediately from the harbours and dominions of Portugal, to be carried directly to any ports and territories whatsoever of the king of Spain; and that neither the most serene king of Portugal, nor any of his subjects, shall hinder the said ships, goods, or men, by seizures, reprisals, or any other means whatsoever, from navigating securely to the harbours and territories of the said king of Spain, and from trading therein; and that the people of this republic may freely carry arms, corn, fish, and all other sorts of merchandize, into the kingdoms, ports and territories of the king of Portugal, and sell the same at their pleasure, either by retale or wholesale, to any persons whatsoever, and for whatever price they can get; and they shall not be prohibited, circumscribed, or incapacitated by his said royal Majesty, or his ministers, governors, farmers of the revenue, or monopolists, or by any chamber or jurisdiction of any tribunal whatsoever, either public or private: and that such goods and merchandize as have once paid the customs or clearances in any port or harbour whatsoever, belonging to his Majesty, may be freely carried into any other ports or places whatsoever, of his said Majesty, without paying any farther duties, clearances, or sums of money, besides what the Portuguese merchants should pay, if the goods and merchandize did belong to them.

A R T I C L E XI.

That the people and natives of the republic of England shall trade and traffic freely and safely from Portugal to the Brazils, and the other conquests of the said king in the West-Indies, and from the Brazils and the said conquests to Portugal, in all sorts of goods and merchandize whatsoever (except meal, fish, wine, oil, and Brazil wood, which are prohibited by the king, in pursuance of his contract with the Brazil company) paying the duties and customs which others pay who trade into those parts; and it is to be understood that the English ships hired by the Portuguese are to sail in company with the Portuguese fleet; and that the said people and natives arriving from any of the harbours and places in Brazil, and the said conquests, at any of the dominions of the said king whatsoever, shall not be compelled to unload their ships, or to put out any goods belonging to the English; but the officers of the customs shall cause the goods to be weighed while they are on board the ships, to the end that the customs and tributes due on them may be paid; and that no heavier duty or impost, nor greater sum of money, or expence, shall be demanded by, or paid to, the king's officers, than if the goods were put on shore; nor shall there be any delay in dispatching and dismissing the said ships. And after they are arrived at any of the dominions whatsoever, of the said king, and have paid the customs and duties above mentioned, they shall freely proceed to any other harbour or place whatsoever; and the goods put on board the English ships, either by the subjects of the said king, or by others, to be transported to any part whatsoever of the dominions of Portugal, shall by no means pay greater customs, or any other different duties, than if they were put on board Portuguese ships. And likewise, that the people and natives of the republic of England shall have the liberty of navigating to the colonies, islands, regions, ports, districts, towns, villages, and dominions, belonging to the king of Portugal, in the East-Indies, Guinea, Bengal, the island of St Thomas, or to any other part whatsoever, on the coasts and shores of Africa; and there to stay or

or reside, negotiate, trade; and traffic, by land or by sea, on the rivers and fresh waters, in any goods and merchandize whatsoever; and to transport all kinds of merchandize to any place or region, with the same freedom as formerly; and also with the same that was ever granted, by any treaty heretofore, or shall hereafter be granted, to the natives of any other nation, in alliance and friendship with Portugal: and as to the customs and duties to be paid in those regions, they shall not pay more or heavier than those which are paid by any person or persons trading in any of the said places or regions. And likewise the king of Portugal, and his subjects, as well the Brazil company as all others, as often as they have need of foreign ships for carrying on their trade and navigation to the Brazils, or for the regions and islands above-mentioned, or else where, shall hire the ships of this republic, and its people, at the usual and ordinary rates, as many as they please, and no other ships of any prince or republic; provided the number of English ships to be hired be sufficient to supply their wants: excepting that the Brazil company (as is contained in the charter of liberties granted to them by the king's letters patent) may hire, of what nation soever they please, two ships of war, and four others, to be sent with fish to the Brazils; and that as well the said Brazil company, as all other the subjects of the said king, who follow the business of merchandizing, may freely hire as many English ships as they please, and sail therein to the Brazils, and the other conquests of the said king, in the West-Indies, without any licence, general or special, first to be obtained for that end; and the stipend agreed upon to be charged with the interest, shall run on, and an account thereof shall be kept till the whole is paid, though it should exceed the stipend on the time contracted for.

ARTICLE XII.

That, whereas the most serene king of Portugal, by his rescript sealed with his seal, and dated at Lisbon, the twenty-first day of January, in the year of our Lord, 1641, granted to the natives of the lands under the dominion of the states of Holland, &c. free liberty of importing and exporting all sorts of merchandize to and from his kingdoms, dominions, and territories; the people of the republic of England shall use and enjoy the same liberty in the kingdoms and dominions of the said most serene king of Portugal.

ARTICLE XIII.

That none who are commonly called Alcaydes (i. e. Bailiffs) or any other officer of his royal Majesty, shall seize or arrest any of the people of this republic, of what rank or condition soever, except in a criminal cause, being detected in any flagrant fact; unless he be first impowered in writing by the judge conservator; and that the aforesaid people, in all other respects, as to their persons, domesticks, and dwellings, books of accounts, interests, merchandize, and all other goods belonging to them, shall enjoy equal and the same immunity, within the dominions of the most serene king of Portugal, from imprisonment, arrests, and other molestations whatsoever, as already is, or shall hereafter be, granted to any other prince or people whatsoever, in alliance with the king of Portugal; nor shall they be hindered, by any permit or protection to be granted by the said king to his subjects, or others frequenting his dominions, from recovering their debts; but they shall have a right to sue any man to justice for the recovery of any just debt, although he be sheltered under the patronage or protection of any person whatsoever, or secured by any alvara, or written law, or whether he be a farmer of the revenues, or invested with any other privilege.

ARTICLE XIV.

And forasmuch as the rights of peace and commerce would be null and useless, if the people of the republic of England should be disturbed for conscience sake, when they pass to and from the kingdoms and dominions of the said king of Portugal, or reside there for the sake of exchanging their merchandize: That commerce may therefore be free and secure both by land and by sea, the said king of Portugal shall take effectual care, and provide, that they be not molested by any person, court, or tribunal, upon account of the said conscience, or for having with them, or using, any English Bibles, or other books; and that it shall be free for the people of this republic to observe and profess their own religion in private houses, together with their families, within any of the dominions of the said king of Portugal whatsoever; and the same to exercise on board their ships and vessels, as they shall think fit, without any trouble or hinderance; and finally, that a place be assigned them for the burial of their dead. But withal, the English are cautioned not to exceed what is written in this article.

ARTICLE XV.

If it shall happen hereafter, that any controversies or doubts do arise between the said republics, which may endanger the interruption of commerce between the one and the other nation, public notice shall be given to the people and subjects of both parties, through all the kingdoms and provinces of both, and the space of two years, after such notice, allowed for transporting themselves, goods, ships, merchandize; and any other substance whatsoever, without any molestation, impediment, or damage; offered, in the mean-time, either to their persons or goods. And it shall be lawful for the said people and subjects on both sides, to whom any debts may be owing at the time of such public notice, legally to demand the same within the said two years, in the places and dominions where they are owing; and from thence-forward uninterrupted justice shall be done them, in such manner, that in effect those creditors may be able to obtain their own within the time prescribed.

ARTICLE XVI.

If it shall happen, that while this treaty, friendship and society, are subsisting, any thing be committed or attempted by any of the people or natives of either of these parties, contrary to this treaty, or any part thereof, by land or by sea, on the rivers or fresh waters; the friendship, confederacy, and intercourse betwixt these nations, shall not for this cause be interrupted or broken, but shall rather entirely subsist and sustain its full force; and those only in particular, who violate the said confederacy, shall be punished, and none else; and justice shall be done, and satisfaction given, to all those concerned, by all those who by land, sea, on rivers, and fresh waters, shall act or commit any thing contrary to this confederacy, in any part of Europe, or in any other place within the freights of Gibraltar, or in America; or along the coasts of Africa, or in any of the lands, islands, seas, creeks, bays, rivers, or in any places on this side the Cape of Good Hope, within the space of one year after justice shall be demanded; but in all places as above, beyond the said cape, within eighteen months after justice be required in the manner above mentioned. And if the violators of the said confederacy do not appear, nor surrender themselves to trial, nor give satisfaction within this or that space of time now limited, according to the distance of the place, they shall be deemed as enemies to both parties; and their goods, substance, and revenues, whatsoever, shall be seized, condemned, and applied to the making of full and just satisfaction for the injuries done by them; besides which, the offenders themselves, when they happen to be in the power of either of the parties, shall be liable to the punishments which their respective crimes deserve.

ARTICLE XVII.

If it happens, that any controversy does arise between the said king's inspectors, officers, or ministers, and the said merchants, concerning the goodness of fish, or any other sorts of provisions whatsoever, which shall be carried to any of the said king's dominions; the same shall be determined by the arbitration of good men, provided they are Portuguese, who shall be equally chosen by the magistrate of the place, and the consul of the English nation; and they shall determine the business in such a manner, that no damage may accrue to the owner in the mean time, while the matter is in dispute.

ARTICLE XVIII.

That it shall be lawful for the people and subjects of either party, to go to the ports of the other, there to reside, and from thence to depart, with the same liberty, not only with merchant-ships and transports, but also with convoys and men of war, equipped for repelling the force of the enemy, whether they are driven there by stress of weather, or come in for refitting their ships, or for victualling them, provided they do not exceed the number of six men of war, if they come there of their own accord; nor shall they stay, or continue, any longer time than may be necessary to refit their ships, or to purchase such necessary things as they want; that peradventure they may not be the cause of interrupting the commerce of other nations which are allied in friendship. And if at any time any unusual number of ships should chance to come to such harbours, it shall not be lawful for them to enter, without first having leave from those in whose jurisdiction such harbours may be, unless they are constrained to do it against their will, by the force of tempestuous weather, or other urgent necessity for avoiding the danger of the sea, and shipwreck; the which, if it should happen, they shall immediately shew the cause of their coming thither to the president, or chief magistrate of that place; nor shall they stay there any longer time

time than they are allowed by the president or magistracy of that place; nor shall they commit any hostilities in the said harbours, which may be detrimental to the said republic or king.

A R T I C L E XIX.

That neither the said republic, nor king, shall suffer the ships and goods of either of them, or of their people, which shall at any time be taken by the enemies or rebels of the other, and brought to any ports or places of the other's countries, to be conveyed away from the right owners, or transfer the property; but the same shall be restored to them, or their attornies, provided they lay claim to such ships before they are sold and unladen; and either prove their right, or exhibit testimonies to make appear their property in them, within three months after the said ships and goods are so brought in: in the mean time, the proprietors themselves shall pay and discharge the necessary expences for the preservation and keeping of the said ships and goods.

A R T I C L E XX.

That the people and merchants of the republic of England, who frequent the kingdoms, dominions, and countries of the said king, upon account of trade, or who arrive at this harbour with their ships, shall not pay for anchorage, or other port charges, or any other duties, or sums of money, more than those which were customarily paid to the king, and the chamber of Lisbon; but if any ill custom should introduce others for the future, they shall not be paid.

A R T I C L E XXI.

That no manner of tribute shall be demanded from any of the people of this republic, either in Lisbon, or in any other place, to be expended in the chapel of St George; nor shall they be compelled to hold any personal offices, or to wear any sort of arms, or to furnish others therewith.

A R T I C L E XXII.

That the merchants of either of the aforesaid parties, and their factors, servants, negotiators of their families, or other servitors, mariners, masters of ships, and people of the navy, may securely and freely pass to and fro in the dominions, territories, and countries of the said republic and king; as also in their harbours, and on their out-skirts: and the people and subjects of the one may have and possess dwelling-houses of their own in any of the dominions of the other; and also warehouses for keeping their goods and merchandize, as long as they hire them, without being molested by any body. They may also wear swords, and carry with them both offensive and defensive arms, according to the usage and custom of the place, that they may the better be able to defend themselves and their goods.

A R T I C L E XXIII.

That all goods and merchandizes of the said republic or king, or of their people or subjects, of both parties, laden on board the ships of the enemies of either, being there found, shall be made prize, together with the same ships, and sold at public sale. But that all the goods of the enemies of either, or merchandize laden on board the ships of either party, or of their people and subjects, shall be untouched.

A R T I C L E XXIV.

That all just debts owing to the English by the king of Portugal, on account of merchandize taken or bought, or finally of ships laden either before or after putting their goods or sequestration to this time, shall be paid and discharged immediately, within two years next following: and that all recognizances, bonds, and surety ships, given and entered into by the English, on account of any ships hitherto laden by the king of Portugal, or any of his subjects, for the ports of Brazil or Angola, and afterwards detained in any of his Majesty's harbours, or seized and occupied by prince Rupert and prince Maurice, or hindered in any wise by the said king, or by any of his officers or ministers from being able to perform their contracts, shall from this time forward be cancelled, broken, and made null: and that neither their persons, nor their ships nor goods, shall be put under arrest, or in any wise molested by the said king, or by any of his subjects, on account, and by reason, of the said contracts.

A R T I C L E XXV.

Whereas there was a convention between the new parliament, and the ambassador extraordinary from the king of Portugal; and the said ambassador, in the second of the six preliminary articles, which were agreed to on the 29th of December, 1652, obliged himself, that all the ships, goods, monies, and debts, appertaining to any Englishmen whom-

soever, which were taken and detained in the dominions of the king of Portugal, should immediately be freely restored in specie, provided they were still of the same value, and remain in the same good condition they were in at the time when they were first detained; but if they are grown worse than they were, then satisfaction should be given for them, according to their true price or value when they were first detained. But as to the compensation of the damages, they being ascertained by a declaration of the council, in their letter bearing date the 15th of November, 1652, and therein declared by the council, that it was not their intentions to press and demand restitution by vigour of law, but only in such manner as should be conformable to equity and reason, and that the ambassador might witness his inclinations to procure a peace; upon this supposition he obliged himself, that the damages should be made good. In the fifth article of the said preliminaries, the said ambassador farther took upon him, or engaged, that all the ships and goods of the English, which by the princes Rupert and Maurice, or by any ship whatsoever under their command, have been carried to Portugal, and there disposed of, or are still remaining, or either by them or their command, have been carried again from thence, shall either immediately be restored to their owners and proprietors, or reparation and satisfaction shall be given for them. And because some controversies are still remaining concerning the petitions or demands of the merchants and others, touching satisfaction; to the end these petitions or demands, these complaints of right and equity, may be judged and determined, it was by both parties contracted, concluded, and agreed upon, that the said petitions, or demands, about the damages and satisfactions, shall be referred, as they are by these presents referred, to the judgment, award, and sentence, of Dr Walter Walker, John Crowther, Dr Henry da Sylva, secretary of the embassy, and Francis Perreira Rebella, agent in the affairs of the said embassy, indifferent persons, and chosen as well on the part of the king of Portugal, as of the lord protector; who by these presents are made and constituted recognizers, arbitrators, and judges, to hear and examine all and every one of the demands and complaints of every one of the merchants and masters of ships, and others who claim a right to all or any of the ships, monies, debts, merchandizes, and all other goods whatsoever, mentioned in the said preliminary articles: which arbitrators shall meet and sit in the city of London, on the 20th day of July next, O. S. and the same day they shall take a solemn oath before the judges of the high court of Admiralty of England, that they will renounce all favour or respect to either party, and all private interest in judging the matters to them referred; and, by these presents, they are instituted and authorized to summon any persons whatsoever, and to order such depositions and papers to be laid before them, as shall have any relation to the business referred to them; and, whether they take the said oath or not, they shall, in a summary way, examine and enquire into the truth of all these petitions and complaints, and also all and every one of the damages which were occasioned by the said arrests and detainers. And the said arbitrators are authorized by these presents to finish all the causes above mentioned, and to liquidate, adjudge, and finally determine, the damages or losses, as they, or the major part of them, in their discretion and consciences, shall judge to be justice and equity, and to publish their final sentence in writing under their hands; which sentence, so published, shall bind and oblige both parties, without any appeal, revival, or redemption whatsoever. And the said king binds himself effectually to perform, keep, and observe the same, in all its members and articles, as also to pay, or cause to be paid, such sum or sums of money as shall be adjudged him as aforesaid. And besides which it is agreed, that if the said arbitrators do not agree and finally determine upon the said things to them referred, before the first of September next, O. S. then the said petitions or demands, which are left undetermined by the said arbitrators, shall be submitted, as they are by these presents submitted, to such person of the said lord protector's council, as the said lord protector shall nominate, within any time whatsoever, after the first of September next: for which end the said lord protector shall, by his mandate, authorize such person so nominated, finally to determine upon all and every one of the petitions or demands aforesaid. And if, before the pronouncing of sentence by the said counsellor, any papers should arrive from Portugal, or any procurator to solicit about any of those causes, the said counsellor shall give them a new hearing, and the sentence which shall be given by such person so instituted under his hand and seal, shall conclude and bind both parties, and the same shall be duly complied with and executed. And for the greater caution and security that such sum of money, as shall be adjudged by the said arbitrators, or arbitrator, may be honestly paid, it is agreed and concluded, that one moiety of the duties and customs of Portugal, arising from all the goods and merchandize whatsoever, of the natives and populace of this republic, who trade to Portugal, shall, immediately after the date of this treaty, be applied to the said payment. Which moiety shall, from time to time, be paid to that person which the lord protector

protector shall nominate; thereby giving satisfaction to the merchants, masters of ships, and proprietors, for their losses or damages.

A R T I C L E XXVI.

It was concluded and agreed upon, that this present peace and confederacy shall not be broken by any other league or confederacy either already made, or that shall be made, by the most serene protector of England and king of Portugal, with any other princes or republics whatsoever; but this peace and confederacy shall be intirely kept, and its effects always remain in full force.

A R T I C L E XXVII.

It was agreed and concluded, that both parties shall truly and firmly observe, and put in execution, the present treaty, and all and every one of the things therein contained and comprehended, and cause the same to be observed and performed by the people and subjects of the one and the other party.

A R T I C L E XXVIII.

It was agreed and concluded, that the present treaty, and all and every one of the things therein contained and concluded, shall be ratified by the said lord protector and king, by the letters patent of both parties, adorned with the great seal in due and authentic form, within six months next ensuing; and within the said time mutual instruments shall be delivered on both sides: and also, this peace and confederacy shall immediately (after the delivery and exchange of the instruments) be proclaimed in the usual forms and places.

In truth and testimony of all which, we the commissioners of his highness the lord protector, and the ambassadors extraordinary of the most serene king, by virtue of our respective commissions and full powers, have signed the present treaty with our hands, and sealed it with our seals.

Done at Westminster, the 10th day of July, in the year 1654.

A SECRET ARTICLE between the lord protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland, on the one part; and the most serene king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, on the other part. Agreed on with the lord high chamberlain, his Majesty's ambassador extraordinary in London.

That the people and inhabitants of England, trading (as has been already mentioned) in the kingdoms, dominions, ports, or territories of the said king, shall not pay more duties and taxes, but only in the manner following, viz. That the English goods, merchandize, and manufactures shall never exceed 23 per cent. on their valuation for the payments of the duties; and they shall be favourably valued, according to the regimen of the custom house, and the ancient laws of the kingdom: and supposing there should be any motive for raising the valuation, by reason of a rise in the real value of goods or merchandize, it shall not be done but by the consent and in the presence of two English merchants who reside and dwell in Portugal, and are chosen by the English consul; and granting that the merchandize should fall from its present or future exact value, the valuation and doubt shall be determined by disinterested persons, who shall be chosen by the English consul, and the officers of the custom-house; and the abovesaid inhabitants of the said kingdom trading in the said dominions and lordships of this republic, shall pay the present taxes and duties as they are newly imposed and settled in this present month of May 1654, according to the usance and laws of the place, both parties observing the laws and ordinances of each place respectively. And thus it was agreed upon and concluded, that the abovesaid article, and every thing contained therein, shall be confirmed or ratified by the said king, and by the said lord protector, by the letters patent of the one and the other party, sealed with the great seal, in due and authentic form, within six months next following; and within the said time instruments shall be passed or exchanged by the one and the other party.

In faith and testimony whereof we sign: the commissioner of the said most serene king, by the force, vigour, and virtue of our commissions respecting this act, and we sign this secret article with our hands and firms, and we seal it with our manual seals.

Done at Westminster the 10th day of the month of July, 1654.

A CHARTER of the PRIVILEGES and LIBERTIES of the English; consisting of various ancient provisional laws, alvaras, and decrees, granted by several of the kings of Portugal, in favour of the English, and others.

DON JOHN, by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves of this side, and beyond the seas in Africa, lord

of Guiney, and the conquest, navigation, commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and the Indies, &c. To all justices, commissioners, auditors, judges, officers of justice, and persons of my kingdom and dominion of Portugal; where, or before whom, this my present charter of privileges may be presented, and to whom the acknowledgement thereof by right may belong: know, that in this my very noble, and always loyal city of Lisbon, in the court of the custom-house thereof; to me, and to my auditor, who at that time was doctor Nicholas Dias Tinoco, as judge conservator of the English, a petition was made, in the name and behalf of all the English nation then residing in this city; wherein they set forth, that among the laws, charters, and decrees, which the sovereign of these kingdoms had granted in their favour, it was provided, that no bailiff, or constable, should enter their houses, to execute any warrants, or mandates, on their persons, or goods; nor should it be done in any other place, or by any other person, but by their judge-conservator, or by his mandate, under the penalty of twenty crusadoes forfeiture to their use; except the officers of justice should be going in pursuit of a malefactor, detected in some flagrant fact: and that also they were excused, or exempted from paying any manner of rates, taxes, and loans, or performing any personal services, or holding any offices of charge whatsoever. And likewise, that they should not be imprisoned, or detained in prison, even in a criminal case; otherwise than by the mandate of my said auditor, their judge-conservator, without homage, according to the provisional law of the king, Don Emanuel; who, we hope, is taken into glory; and that likewise they were authorized to carry arms, offensive and defensive, in all this kingdom, as well by night as by day, before, or after, the ringing of the evening-bell, either with light, or without light, and enter with them into the prohibited places of all this kingdom. And, in like manner, they informed me how they had been vexed and disturbed by the scavengers, officers, who used to persecute them, notwithstanding, in order to excuse any differences, they used to send them one hundred reis, which they would not accept of; but from the Portuguese they accepted of forty reis, and less; but, because the petitioners were strangers, they condemned them in 1000 reis, or, at least, in 500 reis. And, likewise, when they went out of this city about their business, the justices of the country villages used to vex and disturb them; and they would not keep, or have any regard to, their said privileges, but rather put different and wrong constructions upon them, in order to vex and trouble the said petitioners; and they took away their arms, which they carried, and were authorized to carry.

They begged of me, and of my said auditor, their judge-conservator, to declare by his dispatch, that they were authorized to use the said arms, and that, if any officer of justice had a mind to impeach them, it should be done before their judge-conservator, and no other judge, or justice, whatsoever, under penalty of being suspended from their offices, and falling under the lash of their privileges; and they would thankfully receive the favour done them.—This was the contents of the said petition: together with which, Thomas Bostock, an Englishman, presented the charter of the liberties and privileges of the English nation, in which were inserted the subsequent papers and articles, viz.

DON FERDINAND, king of Portugal, &c. to thee Fernando Rodriguez, by my authority, judge of the causes relating to my custom house of Lisbon, or to any other, who after thee shall occupy thy place, health, &c. Know thou, that it being my pleasure to favour the English merchants, natives of the kingdom of England, and the dominions of the prince of Wales, I give thee to them for their judge in the law-suits they have, or may have, with any persons of my dominions, on account of merchandize bought or sold by them, to or from such person, or persons, of my dominions.

I thee therefore command, that thou (or whoever may be in thy place) take cognizance of the law-suits and causes, that between the parties abovesaid may happen, either by complaint of the one, or the other, upon account of merchandize, as is above already expressed. And, I command, that henceforward no others shall take cognizance of the said law-suits, besides thee, the said Fernando Rodriguez, or any other person, that by my authority may fill thy place, as judge of my said custom-house; and thou shalt not do any thing to the contrary, or beyond this my command. In witness whereof, I have commanded this my grant to be given in Lisbon, the 29th day of October, 1450, written by Stephen Armes, for the king Don Ferdinand.

The KING.

DON JOHN, by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, &c. To all to whom this letter shall come, we by it make known, that whereas we are graciously pleased to favour all the English merchants of the kingdom of England, who come to the city of Lisbon, or other places whatsoever of the kingdom, it is our pleasure and commands, that they shall henceforward have and enjoy all the privileges and liberties that are granted to the Genoese, and other merchants, who at this time come to, or reside in, our kingdoms,

doms, either in the city of Lisbon, or in any other places whatsoever, within our said kingdoms. We therefore command all judges and justices of the said kingdoms, and all general receivers of the revenues, scriveners, and all others whatsoever, to whom this may be presented, that they look into the said privileges and liberties, which the said Genoese, and others, frequenting our dominions, have obtained from these kingdoms, and have been heretofore confirmed by us; and see that they keep, observe, and fully comply with the same, in favour of the English merchants, for the same cause and reason as they strictly observe them in the favour of the said Genoese, and other merchants, at present residing in our kingdoms, it being a new favour we shew to the said English, having before given them privileges and liberties. In testimony whereof we have commanded this our letter-patent to be given in their favour, in the city of Coimbra, the 10th of August, 1400. Written by James Paes, for the king Don John.

The KING.

DON ALFONSO, by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, &c. To all to whom this our letter shall come, we by it make known, that we privilege all the Flemings, Germans, French, and Britons, who come to reside in our kingdoms; and, forasmuch as Michael Arman, a German shoemaker, and a dweller in our city of Lisbon, is a subject of one of the said nations, which we so privilege, and he humbly imploring our favour, that we command our privilege to be given him, and considering his request, we have thought fit to shew him our grace and favour; therefore it is our royal pleasure and will, that from henceforward he shall not be constrained to pay any of our demands, rates, taxes, or loans, whatsoever; nor shall he do any services, or take upon him any charge whatsoever, or servitudes that are, or have been, occasioned by us, or by our councils, upon any account whatsoever: they shall not guard either prisoners, or monies, nor shall they be tutors, or preceptors, to any persons whatsoever; nor shall they be obliged to hold any manner of offices, or servitudes, under us, or our councils, against their will. In like manner they shall not be obliged to go into our service, either by sea or land, in any parts or places whatsoever; nor shall they be obliged to keep horses, arms, or mules for our service, notwithstanding any law or custom to the contrary. In the like manner we command that no person, of what state or condition soever, shall be so presumptuous as to take from them their dwelling-houses, or cellars, or stables; nor shall they quarter therein; neither shall their bread, wine, cloaths, or any other thing whatsoever of theirs, be taken from them against their will.

We give them leave to hire and ride on beasts of burden, with saddle and bridle, all over our kingdoms and dominions, notwithstanding the prohibition and ordinance made about this to the contrary. And we command our harbinger, the harbinger of the queen our consort (whom above all we prize and love) as also of the princes and lords of the said city, that in case all and every one of us should have occasions, their said houses shall not be taken from them for the use of us, or any other persons, in any manner, or by any means whatsoever. Such is our royal favour, upon pain of our displeasure, and the forfeiture of six milreis to be paid for our use by any person whatsoever, who shall act contrary to this our mandate; the which we command our collectors and receivers to levy, and receive for our use, and the scriveners of their offices, shall enter it in their books, that a good and true account thereof may be kept under the penalty of paying double the sum for their neglect.

We therefore command all our justices, judges, officers of justice, collectors, receivers, and all other officers, and persons whatsoever, to the sight or knowledge of whom this may come, that they shall acknowledge, and hold the said Michael Arman, German shoemaker, for relieved, and excused from the abovesaid things; and he shall not be obliged, or constrained to any of them: therefore see that you comply with, and cause this our letter to be well and truly complied with, and kept and observed for the causes and reasons therein contained; nor shall ye do, or consent that any thing shall be done to the contrary hereof, in any manner, or by any means whatsoever; for such is our grace and favour, that it shall so be done, and let neither one nor the other do any thing to the contrary. Given in the city of Evora, the 28th day of March, 1452. Written by Loupo Fernandes for the king Don Alfonso.

The KING.

DON EMANUEL, by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, &c. To all to whom these our letters may come, health, and desire of love. And whereas we are accustomed to honour such as are worthy, and with liberal beneficence tread in the paths of honour: and whereas our approved-of subject, Simon Lopes, having applied to us with his accustomed humanity, we have heard him, and liberally granted his request, as will appear by these our letters, wherein may be seen our gracious favours in behalf of the esteemed gentlemen Anthony de Belver and Conrado Selim

in their own names, and in the names of their company of noble merchants of the august and imperial city, and other towns of Germany; wherein they signified to us their desire of settling a house of their company in this city of Lisbon, in order to negotiate, trade, and merchandize in our kingdoms, if we approved of granting them some favours and liberties, which they requested of us, conformable to such as were given them in other countries; and as we have understood their request, and considered how much honour and humanity is due to such gentlemen, as well upon account of their persons, as being worthy of all favour, as on account of their commodious trade, which according to our opinion will be advantageous for our people; as also on account of their being imperial citizens of the august emperor of the Romans, Maximilian our beloved cousin. For which reasons we consent to their petition with very good will, granting them the liberties and privileges they desire, the which have never been granted to any others, or even to our own subjects, as in these letters will appear and be contained at large, viz.

In the first place, we make over a freedom to the said noble merchants, whereby they may freely negotiate, trade, sell, and buy, in all our kingdoms and dominions, either by their own proper persons, or by their factors and servants. It is our will, and we command, that whensoever their merchandize arrives in any ship or vessel before, or in the port of, or near this city, at the time of unloading, before any thing be unladen, our discharging officers shall first acquaint them of the time they intend to go on board; that if they please they come and bring boats with them, and therein see their goods unladen; but if they do not come, or send within three hours, a little more or less, then the said officers may unload, although the owners of the goods are on shore in the city.

It is our commands, that as soon as their goods are brought into the custom-house, they shall immediately pay the decima and siza, except for woollen cloths, of which they shall pay the siza at the time of sale, according to the present practice, and as it is contained in our articles; which sizas shall be paid to the officers of the tables, whereunto such duties do belong, and they shall enter the same in their books as paid, that all doubts about the payment may be avoided for the future. And so soon as they have paid the duties, and received the said goods in their own possession, they may carry them where they please, all over our kingdoms and dominions, without being obliged to acquaint any body of their moving from place to place, or of the sales they make of the said goods; much less shall they be obliged to enter or take out a permit from any of our offices of inland duties: nor shall they incur any penalty, or be deemed as smugglers, on account of their not entering the same, or taking out a permit for moving their merchandize from place to place, according to the method ordained by our charters, articles, and laws: and this is to be understood of such goods and merchandize as have paid our duties, and have cleared, of which they shall have certificates from our officers, that by virtue of the same they may carry and sell their merchandize all over our kingdoms, without paying any thing more; and they shall be treated in the same manner as the Flemings, as is contained in their privileges.

It is our will and pleasure, that no officer, nor farmer of the duties, nor any other person whatsoever, shall enter into their houses to search, nor shall they in any wise oppress them, except by mandate of our accomptant-general: he first having information from some unsuspected person, or persons, making it appear, that they have in their houses some counterband or run goods; and when such an occasion shall offer of sending to their house, it shall be done by one scrivener of the custom-house, and one of the farmers of the duties, if there be any; and without the said scrivener they shall not go to their houses to search for the said counterband goods.

It is our will and pleasure, that they shall not pay any duties, either for the provisions, or the furniture they import for the use of their house, much less shall they any duties for the woollen cloths they import for cloathing their factors and servants, allowing them two suits a year for each person; also canvases and wrappers of hemp for bags, and crocus for their merchandize, they deposing on oath, that they import all those things for their own private use, and not for sale; because, if they are for sale, they shall pay the usual duties.

It is our will and pleasure, and we command, that none of our officers of justice presume to enter into their houses, except the said corregidor, or such as shall be sent by him, and no other, under the penalty of twenty crusadoes forfeiture to their use; except the officers of justice are in pursuit of some malefactor detected in any flagrant crime; in such case they may enter into their houses.

It is our will and pleasure, that they shall carry arms not only themselves, but also their domestic servants and attendants, so far as six of them in number, which arms they may carry by night and by day, all over our kingdoms and dominions, as well before the ringing of the evening-bell, as afterwards, with or without light, provided, however, that they

they do not use them otherwise than they ought to do; and this notwithstanding our laws to the contrary: the which servants, however, shall not be Spaniards, for none of that nation shall enjoy this liberty.

It is our will and pleasure, and our order, that any person whatsoever, who will not observe, keep, and comply with these their privileges, or doth any thing contradictory to them, such person shall incur the penalty of 50 crusadoes, in which he shall be condemned for the use of the hospital of All Saints in this city; and by these presents we command our accomptant-general, that he knowing of any person who will not keep and comply with these privileges, according as is therein contained and declared, shall immediately cause execution to be made for levying the penalty on the said person, which shall immediately be delivered to our general-receiver of the said hospital, and charged in the books for every time they violate these privileges, or do any thing contrary thereunto; besides which we command all other justices and officers of justice whom it may concern, that they observe this declaration, and see that it be intirely kept and complied with, together with all other privileges they have obtained of us, effectually putting the said penalty in execution; forasmuch as it is our will and intention, that the grace and favour we shew them shall in all things be understood to redound more to their advantage than to their prejudice; and because our pleasure is such, we have commanded this our alvara, or law, signed by us, to be given in their favour; the which shall be as valid as if it had been our letter, registered in the court of chancery, notwithstanding any law or ordinance there may be to the contrary. Done in Almeirim the 7th day of February, in the year 1411. Written by Andrew Pireo.

By the said privilege which we have granted them, they may load their merchandize in any ships they please, as well Portuguese as strangers, trading and lading from the islands: and besides this, we make them our natives; and we are just now informed, that at the Casa do Vero Pezo, the officers put doubts and difficulties to them, when they loaded their goods in foreign ships, as our said natives are wont to do: from whence it follows, that it is of damage to them to be privileged persons, which was not our intention, but rather we intended to do them all favour and honour. Therefore, for the declaration of which it is our will and pleasure, that as well in this case, as in any other whatsoever, which they have a mind to enjoy as strangers, they may do it; because we will not have it so that their privileges shall lessen any favour granted them as strangers, if it be possible to avoid it. And therefore they have for their privilege, that no officer of justice whatsoever can enter into their houses, without an order from their said judge, under certain penalties; and we are informed that some officers and persons have meddled with them, and with things belonging to them, and have used them ill; and, in order to provide against this, it is our will and pleasure, and we require, that no officer of ours either disturb or meddle with them, or any thing that belongs to them, except their said judges, or any by their order. And if any such case should happen, wherein their persons and their facts ought to be taken into custody and imprisoned, it is our will and pleasure, that they shall be conducted to the castle by their said judge, or his bailiff, in person, and not by their servants or followers; and if the cause of their imprisonment be such as will admit of bail, we command that immediately, without other delay, the said bail may be taken. Thus stands the case, wherein it is so largely contained and declared, and was contained and declared in the said privileges and petition; the which being presented to me, and by me considered, as also by my said auditor Dr. Nicholas Dias Tinoco, I therein pronounce my dispatch as followeth, viz.

Let them make use of arms as is expressed in their privileges; and, for this end, the charters and mandates they petition for shall be granted and drawn out for them in authentic form, wherein shall be included the article that speaks of arms, and that other justices cannot enter their houses without an order from this conservatory; and all bailiffs, constables, and all other officers of justice, that shall do any thing to the contrary, shall immediately be notified by the scrivener of the said conservatory, that without the approbation of this court, they meddle not with these privileged persons, under the penalty of being suspended from their offices, and falling under our displeasure. Lisbon, the 11th of May, 1645.

TINOCO.

And this dispatch being put to the said petition, by virtue thereof this present charter of privileges was passed or drawn out in authentic form, for all in general, and every one in particular; by which I command, so soon as this shall be presented to you, being first registered in my chancery, you comply with it, and keep it, and cause that it may be very intirely complied with, and kept, in the manner as is therein contained; and in complying therewith, ye shall not hurt, molest, nor vex the said Thomas Bostock, nor his servants and factors; nor shall ye do, or cause to be done, any act

or acts, as serving writs, warrants, &c. upon him, or his house, except it be done by the mandate of the said my auditor, his competent judge conservator, and not by the mandate of any other judge, without approbation of this conservatory; it being so decreed them by a charter granted in favour of the English, by the king Don Emanuel (who we hope is taken into glory.) But rather ye shall render, or cause to be rendered him all favour and honour. The which let one and another so comply with; and nothing to the contrary shall ye do, nor shall ye put any doubt or delay to the observance of it; lest the penalty of 50 crusadoes be levied upon you, and ye fall under the lash of the said privileges, and of being suspended, &c.

Given in this very noble and always loyal city of Lisbon, and court of the custom-house, and conservatory thereof, the 4th day of the month of November, from the year of the birth of our Lord Jesus Christ, 1647.

The king our lord sent this by Dr Anthony de Faria Machado, his judge-advocate, and his auditor, &c. &c. &c.

A DECREE about Englishmen's not being served with any executions, without an order from their judge-conservator.

On the part, and in behalf of the English nation, it was represented to me, that it being granted them by the 13th article of the treaty of peace, that no judge, or other officer of justice, could order to be seized, or taken into custody, any subject of the king of Great-Britain, my good brother and cousin, for any cause, either civil or criminal, without first having an order for so doing from the judge conservator; the said article is so little regarded, that Englishmen are every day seized and taken into custody, without the precedency of such order from the judge-conservator; so that the said article is by no means observed, or complied with; and because, according to the wording thereof, it is said, that only in flagrant crimes the English could be imprisoned by any of my ministers, and in other cases recourse ought to be had to the conservator, or that he should write his consent to the orders of other judges before they should be valid;

I recommend to the lord chief justice of the house of supplication, that he cause the said article to be observed in its due form. In Lisbon, the 23d of August, 1667.

KING.

WHEAT, which is brought from the islands, or from any other parts beyond the seas, may be imported free of duties in any parts or places of this kingdom.

I the king make known to whom this my alvara, or law, may come, that by the courts, which I held in this city of Lisbon, on the 28th of January, 1641, a reply to which I commanded to be given, in the year 1642, it was requested of me by the state, in chapter 55, that I would please to exempt all wheat imported from the islands, and other parts beyond the seas, from paying any duties in this kingdom, it being a provision absolutely necessary for the inhabitants thereof: and, as I have maturely considered the convenience and good of the common-weal of the kingdom, and other subjects, and for other reasons, for which I am accustomed to grant what is requested of me by temporal laws, and by their means to shew grace and favour; it is my will and pleasure, that the wheat which comes to this kingdom, as well from the islands as from any other parts beyond the seas, shall not pay any manner of duty; from which it shall be exempted, and free for ever. I therefore command the inspectors of my treasury, judges, justices, commissioners, and all other officers of justice, and other persons of these kingdoms and dominions, to whom this my alvara, or law, may be presented, and to whom the acknowledgement thereof doth belong, that they comply with it and keep it; and cause it to be intirely kept, observed, and complied with, according as is therein contained, without putting the least doubt or contradiction to it; because such is my grace and favour: and it shall be registered in the books of my treasury, and of the custom-house, and its regimens, and all other places where it may be necessary, that it may come to the notice of every body; and it shall be valid, as if a law made in court, and a charter given in my name, and sealed with the seal-pendent, notwithstanding the ordinance in the second book, title the 40th, to the contrary. Anthony de Morais writ it in Lisbon, the 25th of May, 1647.

KING.

Of the things which owe no duties in this city of Lisbon; taken from the 12th chapter of the Book of Rates of the Custom-house.

All wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, and pulse that are brought into this city from any foreign parts whatsoever, shall not pay any manner of duties in this custom-house; nor flesh-meat, cheese, or butter; forasmuch as I have shewn favour to the chamber and people of the said city, to free the

said things from duties; and, in the same manner, arms, powder, horses, gold, silver in lump, or in coin, and books, shall not pay any duty whatsoever in the said city and custom-house thereof. But all other things, and any kinds of merchandize, of what sort or quality soever, which belong to this custom-house, and are brought thereto by sea or by land, as is already said, although express mention should not be made in the said books of rates, of every species of goods in particular, yet they shall pay the said duties of 10 per cent. for the decima, and 10 per cent. for the siza; and this, because the said merchandize and things shall pay the same duties of 20 per cent. in all and every one of the custom-houses of this kingdom, islands, and dominions hereof; and the people who bring them to the said custom-house of Lisbon, shall bring with them certificates from the officers of the other custom-houses from whence they came, to make appear that they have paid the duties, forasmuch as otherwise they will be obliged to pay the duties in this city for any goods that are brought to the custom-house thereof. This is all that was expressed in the said 12th chapter, which, by order of the commissioner of the custom-house, James Soares, the Notary Luis da Costa has taken this copy of, in authentic form, the 2d of August, 1668.

A PROVISION, or LAW, whereby the English are exempted from paying decima on their stock, and from being obliged to take upon them any charge in war.

I the king make known, to whom this alvara, or law, shall come, that as I am desirous to oblige the English nation with particular marks of my royal favour, on account of the ancient friendship or alliance which I have had with that crown, and now in particular, in respect of some motives which induce me to it; it is my will and pleasure to shew grace unto the English merchants, and others of the same nation, residing in these kingdoms and dominions of Portugal, who have not been therein naturalized, by exempting them from paying the decima on their stock, which all the other dwellers in this kingdom pay: and I grant them liberty, that they shall not be obliged to keep horses; and if they have any for their own service, they shall not be taken from them against their will, nor shall they be obliged to any other charge of war. And because the publication of this privilege may be followed with great inconveniences, this alvara, or law, shall remain in all secrecy; and for the better keeping it so, it shall not go out of the hands of the English consul, for the time being, residing in my court; nor shall it be registered in any other book but in that of secrets, in the secretary's office, in the expedient or original writing from whence this was transcribed in Alcantara, the 29th of May, 1656. And I Peter Severinde Noronha wrote this by particular command of his Majesty, whom God preserve.

KING.

Of such things as owe no duties whatsoever; which are as follow, viz.

Pulse from England, Scotland, and Ireland, New-England, and its dominions; that is to say, beans, pease, lentils, wheat, barley, Indian corn large sort, ditto small sort, rye, butter, cheese, gun-powder, horses, gold, silver, in lump or in coin, books, flesh-meat of any sort whatsoever; concerning which there is a sentence against the contractors or farmers of the inland duties on flesh, obtained by Henry Bomelman, in the years 1645 and 1646, pronounced in court, the said farmers being plaintiffs, and the said Bomelman defendant; wherein it was decided, that the things in dispute owed no more than 40 reis for the entry, and 200 reis for the guard; which sentence lies in the office of the scrivener, Christopher de Campos. Also no duty shall be paid for biscuit, or any other species of bread, cannon-shot of iron or bell-metal, bandeliers, pikes, and muskets. But, however, these things ought to pass through the custom-house, and the accoutrements of war be offered to the service of the king; and, if he has no occasion for them, then the owners thereof may carry them where they please.

ALVARA, or a LAW, in favour of the ENGLISH; allowing them to repute their ships as Portuguese, which pay no duties going from Lisbon to the Western Islands, and other conquests belonging to the crown of Portugal; which are word for word in the manner following; viz.

I the king make known, to whom this alvara, or law, may come, that the English merchants residing in the Western Islands, sent to acquaint me by their petition, that I had been pleased to command, among other agreements and resolutions of the treaty of peace lately concluded with the lord protector of England, that they might transport and carry any sort of merchandize, which had paid the duties in any one port, to any other ports or places, without paying any more duties, or any manner of tribute, besides what is paid by the native Portuguese themselves, for the goods that belong to them; and that, having once paid their duties in this city, they

shall not pay again any sort of tribute in any other port; and that the English ships which are freighted by Portuguese, shall not pay more duties than is paid for the goods navigated in Portuguese vessels, as will appear by the tenth and eleventh articles of the treaty, the authentic tenor whereof was by them presented: and whereas the said articles were not duly observed and complied with in the said islands, but, on the contrary, the English were vexed and disturbed with doubts and molestations, and that the natives of the islands had unjustly extorted a great deal of money from them, since the said articles of peace were made and published; whereas, in the observance thereof, due regard ought to have been had to the exemptions I granted to the English, because the royal mandates ought always to be effective, and the transgressors of them punished:

Therefore they requested of me, that I would please to favour them with my provisional law, to oblige the ministers of the said islands, to whom the observance of what is contained in the said articles doth belong, that they comply with the same, and observe and keep them in the manner as is therein expressed; and that they should not consent to the molestation of the petitioners, nor take from them more than they ought to pay, and that restitution should be made of what they had hitherto been unjustly obliged to pay. Considering what they alledged, and the form of my orders, which had been given on such like matters, they hoped I would grant their request, and with all humility they would thankfully receive the favour.

I, having seen and considered the said petition, did thereupon send my decree, dated the first of June of this present year, wherein it was written, that a provisional law should be prepared and passed by the council of my treasury, in favour of the said petitioners, conformable to the articles of peace; and if it should appear to the said council, that there was any thing in the matter, necessary to be represented to me, they should do it immediately. And in compliance with this my order, the council gave their dispatch, that the said provisional law should be made and passed, in the form ordained by my said decree, and that the articles of peace mentioned in the said petition, should be requested from the secretary of state's office, which was accordingly complied with; but, as the said articles are written in Latin, they were translated into the Portuguese language, and are as follows, viz.

[Here follow articles the tenth and eleventh, which are wrote in full length, in folio II.]

Wherefore I command the commissioners of my treasury, and all other ministers and officers thereof, and the justices of the said islands, and all other persons to whom this my provisional law may be presented, and the acknowledgement thereof doth belong, that they comply with it, and keep it intirely; and that they cause it to be observed, complied with, and kept, in conformity to the articles herein translated, without any manner of doubt or contradiction; because such is my will and pleasure: and it shall be valid, though its effect should last more than one year, notwithstanding the ordinances or regimens that may be to the contrary; the which shall be registered in the books of the custom-house, that it may be publicly known to all people. Anthony Velloso Estaso writ it in Lisbon, the 4th of July, 1657; and John Pereira Bitancur ordered it to be transcribed.

QUEEN.

ALVARA, or a LAW, to exempt the English from paying brokerage against their will.

I the king make known, to whom this alvara, or law, may come, that having a regard to what the English merchants, residing in the island of Madeira, sent to inform me of by their petition, requesting that I would please to order my provisional law to be passed, in order to prevent the brokers from obliging them to pay brokerage, unless they, of their own accord and free-will, thought fit to employ them, according to the third article of the last treaty of peace with England: and having seen what they allege, and likewise the information given by Dr Manoel da Cunha, conservator of the English, together with the answer given upon this by my attorney-general, it is my will and pleasure, and command, that the brokers shall not oblige the English to pay brokerage, except the said English shall freely, and of their own accord, employ them, as they request in their petition; having considered the articles of peace, and likewise the said answer of my attorney-general. And this alvara, or law, shall be duly complied with, in the manner as is therein contained; and it shall continue in force, though its effect may last more than one year, notwithstanding the ordinance in the second book, title the 40th, to the contrary. Emanuel de Couto writ it in Lisbon, the 27th of January, 1661, and sent this by two conveyancers. Jacinto Facundes Bezerra ordered it to be transcribed.

QUEEN.

ALVARA,

ALVARA, or a LAW, which the king, DON ALPHONSUS VI. granted, at the request of the English merchants, on account of such cases in law that may take place in the conservatory, even with such persons as are privileged.

I the king make known, to whom this alvara, or law, may come, that the merchants of the crown of England represented to me, that notwithstanding the conservatory, which by an article of peace I have granted them for their causes, they are obliged to litigate in other courts, under pretence that the words of the general concession do not abrogate the privileges granted in law, and are enjoyed by their contenders, which is a great hindrance to trade, they being obliged to attend various courts, and delay their causes, with trials about preferences: and because, in all things which are not repugnant to justice, I desire to favour the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, my good brother and cousin, I have ordered this matter to be examined with all due consideration; and it has been my pleasure to resolve, that the said conservatory shall take place, even with such as are privileged, and with privileges which are incorporated in law, either upon account of persons, or upon account of things; such as officers of the mint, of the court of India, and mines, and other such like; that every body, in causes which proceed from trade, shall be obliged to answer, or litigate, whether they are plaintiffs, or defendants, in the said conservatory, notwithstanding any laws or ordinances whatsoever to the contrary: therefore, for this effect, it is my will and pleasure to annul them; but, however, with the declaration it is not my intention, by this concession, to alter any thing whatsoever belonging to the judge or court of my exchequer, upon account of the quality of the matters and things therein transacted; and it is always to be understood, that appeals are to be made from the said conservator of the English, to whom they belong, as has been hitherto practised. And this alvara, or law, shall be complied with, in the manner as is therein contained; and it shall be valid, though its effect may last more than one year, notwithstanding the ordinance in the second book, title the 40th, to the contrary. Emanuel de Couto writ it in Lisbon the 16th of September, 1665. Jacinto Facundes Bezerra ordered it to be transcribed.

KING.

The superintendant of the collectors of the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the parish of St Paul in this city, notwithstanding the order given him in this junto or council, shall not oblige the subjects of the Catholic King, the French, English, and Hollanders, who are not naturalized, to pay what was charged to them on their stock; and those who have lands in this kingdom, and are not naturalized, shall pay only what is charged on the said lands, his Majesty having declared it so by his decree of the 9th of the present month of July. And all other strangers of other nations ought to pay what is charged them on their stock; because, in order for them to enjoy this privilege, it is necessary they should shew what they have to entitle them to it, that it may be observed and kept accordingly. And this dispatch shall be recognized in the office of the accomptant-general of war. Lisbon, the 18th of July, 1699, with four firms of the ministers of the junto of the three states. Registered, folio 106.

TRANSCRIPT of the RESOLUTION about the TAX on STOCK.

In the book of advices from the counties and hundreds, which serves in this office of the accomptant-general of war and the kingdom, in folio 211, is registered the order given to the auditor of the town of Crato, about the particular things mentioned in this provision; of which tenor, other orders have been given to all the rest of the ministers and superintendants of the parishes of this city, and its districts; of which the following is a transcript.

PROVISIONAL, fol. 211. of the BOOK, Number XII.

Don John, by the grace of God, &c. I make known to thee, auditor of the hundred of Crato, that I am informed by the consultations of the junto of the three States, that the subjects of several different nations dispute the payment of the tax on their stock, which they were charged with, under pretence that they are privileged by the articles of peace, which free them from paying the said tax. I was pleased to resolve, on the 28th of April last, that the French, and the subjects of other nations, ought to pay the tax on stock, which was charged to them according to their trade, and that the subjects of the Catholic king, my good brother and cousin, and those of England and Holland, ought to be exempted from this contribution; but, however, such as are naturalized, notwithstanding the privileges of England and Holland, ought to pay the tax on stock, in the same manner as the natives of this kingdom do. And I send you this advice of my said resolution, that thou mayest observe it in that hundred, in the part which concerns thee; and due no-

tice shall be taken of this order in the office of the accomptant-general of war. The king our lord sent this by Don Philip de Souza, captain of his royal guards, and by Francis de Mello, forrester general of the kingdom, both deputies of the junto of the three states. Lewis Simeons de Azevedo writ it in Lisbon, the 7th of May, 1708. Gaspar Salgado, who serves as secretary, ordered it to be transcribed. Accordingly, these are the contents of the said privileges, which in every thing shall be duly complied with, according as is therein contained; and by virtue hereof, they shall be observed and kept, and every one shall comply with them, and nothing to the contrary shall ye do, &c. And this is registered in my chancery of the accounts of the kingdom and palace. Given in this city of East Lisbon, the 8th day of the month of February, from the year of the birth of our Lord Jesus Christ, 1717.

A TREATY of COMMERCE betwixt the most serene lady ANNE, queen of GREAT-BRITAIN, and the most serene lord Don PETER, king of PORTUGAL, and of the Algarves, &c. Agreed upon and concluded in Lisbon, the 27th of December, 1703.

P R O L O G U E.

Whereas the league and strict friendship which is between the most serene and most potent princess Anne, queen of Great-Britain, and the most potent Peter, king of Portugal; requires that the commerce of both the British and Portuguese nations should be promoted as much as possible; and her sacred royal Majesty of Great-Britain, hath signified to his sacred royal Majesty of Portugal, by the most excellent John Methuen, Esq; member of the English parliament, and ambassador extraordinary in Portugal, that it would be very acceptable to her, if the woollen cloths, and the rest of the woollen manufactures of Britain, might be admitted into Portugal, the prohibition of them being taken off: that this matter might be treated and transacted, they have given their full power and commands; that is to say, her sacred Majesty of Great-Britain to the abovesaid most excellent John Methuen, and his sacred Majesty of Portugal to the most excellent Don Emanuel Telles, marquis of Alegrete, Conde da Villa Major, knight professed in the order of Christ, &c. &c. &c. who, by virtue of the full powers to them respectively granted, having maturely and diligently considered the matter, have agreed upon the following articles, viz.

A R T I C L E I.

His sacred royal Majesty of Portugal promises, both in his own name, and that of his successors, to admit for ever hereafter into Portugal, the woollen cloths, and the rest of the woollen manufactures of the Britons, as was accustomed till they were prohibited by the laws; nevertheless upon this condition, that is to say,

A R T I C L E II.

That her sacred royal Majesty of Great-Britain shall, in her own name, and that of her successors, be obliged for ever hereafter to admit the wines, of the growth of Portugal, into Britain; so that at no time, whether there shall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Britain and France, any thing more shall be demanded for these wines by the name of custom or duty, or by any other title whatsoever, directly or indirectly (whether they shall be imported into Great-Britain in pipes or hogheads, or other casks) than what shall be demanded for the like quantity or measure of French wine, deducting or abating one half of the custom or duty. But if at any time this deduction or abatement of customs, which is to be made as aforesaid, shall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it shall be just and lawful for his sacred royal Majesty of Portugal, again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the rest of the British woollen manufactures.

A R T I C L E III.

The most excellent lords the plenipotentiaries promise and take upon themselves, that their above-named masters shall ratify this treaty, and within the space of two months the ratifications shall be exchanged.

For the faith and testimony of all which things, I the plenipotentiary of her sacred royal Majesty of Great-Britain, have confirmed this treaty by the subscription of my hand, and by the seal of my coat of arms: and the most excellent lord the plenipotentiary of his sacred royal Majesty of Portugal, for avoiding the controversy about precedence, between the two crowns of Britain and Portugal, hath subscribed another instrument of the said tenor, changing only what ought to be changed for that reason.

Given at Lisbon, the 27th of the month of Decem. 1703.

JOHN METHUEN. (L. S.)

A NEW

A NEW LAW, concerning the DIAMONDS found in the MINES of BRASIL.

DON JOHN, by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves, on this side, and beyond the seas in Africa, lord of Guinea, and the conquest, navigation, commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and the Indies, &c. I make known to whom this my law may come, that as the mines of diamonds, which are found in my dominions, do belong to me in the same manner, and by the same title, as all the mines of metals, I have therefore a right to make such reserves of them as I may think proper; and as, by the custom of those dominions in which diamonds are found, such as are of a special greatness, are reserved for the sovereign; therefore it is my will and pleasure, that even in the countries in which, by my permission, diamonds are extracted (besides the other precepts and regulations prescribed by the laws, and such as I have been pleased to give) all diamonds that are of the weight of twenty carats, or upwards, shall be reserved for my use; and the persons who find them, or take them out of the mines, shall deliver them immediately, within thirty days (to be counted from the time of their finding or taking them up) into my mints, or to the next neighbouring ministers, that they may remit them to the mints; of which delivery an entry shall be made by the scrivener, who has the charge of that office, which he shall be obliged to remit to the governor. And such diamonds being manifested and delivered by any slave whatsoever, that slave shall be made free, and he shall have his charter of freedom granted him, and drawn out in my name by the superintendant of the mint, or by the minister to whom he made such delivery; and to his owner shall be given four hundred milreis for the value of the said slave, which shall be paid him in the said mint where the said diamond was delivered or remitted to. And if the delivery be made by a freeman, to him the said freeman shall be given the same four hundred milreis. And all the diamonds, of the weight of twenty carats, or upwards, which may be found henceforward, and not delivered in the manner above mentioned, it is my will and pleasure, that they shall be forfeited to my use, whose hands soever they may be found in; of which all, or any persons, may impeach, inform, or denounce; and their denunciation being proved, and the diamond taken into custody, they shall receive four hundred milreis as a reward, to be paid them only out of my treasury. And if the informer be a slave, that slave shall have his liberty given him, and his owner shall receive four hundred milreis for the value of him, except the information of the slave be given against his master; for then in such case the slave shall be free, and two hundred milreis shall be given him, and both the freedom and the premium shall be paid and complied with, after the denunciation is adjudged to be good; and the master shall have nothing for the value of his slave, but he shall incur the penalties here-under declared. And, in the same manner such may be informed against, who finding or taking out diamonds, of the weight of twenty carats, or upwards, do clandestinely hide, smuggle, or secret them, and not manifest and deliver them in the manner above prescribed; which persons, besides the loss of the diamond, or its value, I command, shall incur the penalties established against those who smuggle, secret, or run gold; and, being a slave, he shall undergo the punishment of being whipt and confined to the galleys during his life. In like manner such persons may be informed against, who send such diamonds out of the kingdom; which persons, besides the loss of the value of the diamonds, shall incur the penalty of being banished ten years to Angola, and confiscation of all their goods; and those informations being given by the slaves of such delinquents, the said slaves shall have their liberty given them as a reward. But if the information be given by a slave belonging to another person, then, besides the slave's being set at liberty, his master shall receive four hundred milreis for the value of him, as is declared above.

And because it is not my royal intention to comprehend the diamonds that have been taken out of the mines to the time of the publication of this resolution, it is my pleasure, that all persons who have diamonds in their possession, that weigh twenty carats, or upwards, which were taken out of the mines before the publication of this resolution, do manifest them within two months (to be counted from the day of the publication hereof) before any of my auditors of the state of Brasil, and the other ministers of this kingdom, and in all my dominions where such diamonds are; and that they deliver them to the said ministers to be remitted to this court, and delivered into the mint thereof, in order that they may be purchased for my use, at the just valuation that shall be put upon them. And such as are not manifested and delivered within the said space of time, shall be reputed as discovered or found after the said publication; and they shall be irremissibly lost or forfeited to my use in any hand where-insoever they may be found: which persons may be impeached, informed of, or denounced against, and the informers shall have the same reward, and the delinquents the same punishment, as above mentioned; and in the same manner

may be impeached such as are accomplices or abettors in the smugglings here prohibited: and on them shall be executed the same punishments in this resolution established, and the informers shall have the same rewards.

Wherefore I command the lord chief justice of the house of supplication, governor of the high court of king's-bench, and the house of Oporto, vice-king of the state of Brasil, or whoever fills that place, judges of the said courts, governors of the conquests, and all justices, commissioners, auditors, judges, officers of justice, and persons of these my kingdoms and dominions, that they observe, comply with, and keep this my law, and cause the same intirely to be observed, complied with, and kept, as it is therein contained. And that it may come to the notice of every body, in order to cut off the allegation of ignorance, I command my chancellor-general of these kingdoms and dominions, or whoever fills his place, that he cause it to be published in the chancery, and send transcripts thereof, under my seal and his firm, to all the justices of the counties and hundreds of these kingdoms, and to the auditors of the donatory countries, in which the justices do not enter into visitation; whom I command to proclaim it immediately in the places where they are, and cause it to be proclaimed in all their hundreds and tithings; and it shall be registered in the books of my disembargo, and house of supplication, and of Oporto, and in the Ultramarine council, and all other places where such like laws are used to be registered; and this original shall be deposited in the Tower of Records. Given in West Lisbon, the 24th of December, 1734.

KING.

COPIES of the TWELFTH and THIRTEENTH ARTICLES of the TREATY made betwixt the Crowns of ENGLAND and PORTUGAL, at the Marriage of CHARLES the Second, June 23, 1661. Taken from fol. 1. of the register-book, by petition made by consul POYNTZ, to his Majesty Don JOHN, December 12, 1716. Translated.

ARTICLE XII.

In order that the subjects of the king of Great-Britain may enjoy greater advantages in trade and commerce in all the dominions of the king of Portugal, it was agreed, that if the merchants and factors (besides the privileges which were granted to them by the first treaties) ask, in virtue of this, to reside in all places where they have a mind especially, they may inhabit and enjoy the same privileges and immunities, as far as relates to trade, as the native Portuguese, in the cities and places of Cochim and Dio, provided that the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, that are to reside in the above places, do not exceed the number of four families in each of them.

ARTICLE XIII.

The same privileges, liberties, and immunities, shall be enjoyed by the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, in the place of Bahia de todos os Santos, Pernambuco, and Rio de Janeiro, and in all other the dominions of the king of Portugal in the East-Indies.

For the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, see the article AMERICA.

TURKEY COMPANY and TRADE. Under the article LEVANT TRADE, we have shewn that the FRENCH, in the year 1535, were the first nation that made TREATIES OF COMMERCE with the Porte: we have likewise there shewn, by what wise measures and regulations that neighbouring nation first established, and has since advanced, this branch of commerce to a greater extent and advantage than is now done by any other European power. And if those wise measures and regulations are duly weighed and considered, we cannot be at all surprized, that the effects thereof should prove more lucrative and successful to France than the measures taken by other nations; with regard to that trade, have proved to them. Likewise,

Under the article ORIENTAL TRADE, we have resumed this subject, and given an historical view of the conduct and proceedings of our own Turkey company, and the case of the governor and this company of merchants trading to the Levant Seas, as laid before the parliament by the Turkey company in the year 1753, in order to prevent the trade being laid absolutely open, as was then aimed at. Under this article, also, I have given an abstract of what has been argumentatively urged, in opposition to this company, in order to lay that trade open to all his Majesty's subjects.—These particulars we have judged necessary to state before the public, as preliminary to the determination of the expediency of opening this trade.

But as this matter was depending before the parliament, when I drew up what has been said under ORIENTAL TRADE, and it being then doubtful what measures would be taken with this company, I thought it more eligible to postpone what I had further to observe in relation hereunto, till the determination of the legislature should be known. And that the reader may have

have before him what the parliament have done upon this occasion, we shall here insert the last act made with regard to this company, anno vicesimo sexto Georgii II. regis, intituled, An act for enlarging and regulating the trade into the Levant Seas, which is as follows:

Whereas king James the First, by his letters patent, bearing date the 14th day of December, in the third year of his reign, did grant to several persons therein named, and to their sons, and such other as should then after be admitted, or made free, that they should be one fellowship, and one body corporate and politic, by the name of The Governor and Company of Merchants of England, trading into the Levant Seas; and, by the same name, should have perpetual succession; and did direct, that all persons, subjects of this realm, being mere merchants, which then were, or after the date of the said letters patent should happen to be, under the age of twenty-six years, or not out of his or their apprenticeships, should be admitted into the freedom of the said company, if he or they should demand the same within one year next after he or they should attain the age of twenty-six years, or within one year after the end of his or their apprenticeships, and should offer and pay to the said governor and company, for his or their admittance, the sum of twenty-five pounds; and did further direct, that all persons, subjects of this realm of England, being mere merchants, above the age of twenty-six years, should be admitted into the freedom of the said company, upon paying a fine of fifty pounds; and did also direct, that all and every the sons of such as were or should be free of the said company, and also all their apprentices employed in that trade for the space of three years, or upwards, within the limits of the said letters patent, should, after the end of their apprenticeships, be admitted to the freedom of the said company, on payment of the sum of 20s. only. And whereas king Charles the Second, by his letters patent, bearing date the 2d day of April, in the thirteenth year of his reign, did ratify and confirm the said letters patent of king James the First, and did further direct, That no person residing within twenty miles of the city of London, should be admitted into the freedom of the said company, or have any benefit of the privileges thereof, unless he be made free of the said city. And whereas the trade into the Levant Seas has very much decreased, and the taking of less fines for the admission of persons into the freedom of the said company, and the not restraining the freedom thereof to mere merchants, and to such persons as, residing within twenty miles of the city of London, are free of the said city: and the securing to all persons admitted into the said company, the liberty of exporting, at all times hereafter, all sorts of goods and merchandizes (not prohibited by law to be exported) to any port or place within the limits of the said letters patent, from what parts of Great-Britain, and at what time, and in what quantity, and on board what ships (navigated according to law) they shall respectively think proper; and also of importing, in the like manner, from any port or place within the limits of the said letters patent, raw silk, or any other goods or commodities purchased within the said limits (not prohibited by law to be imported) are the most probable means of recovering and extending the said trade, for the benefit of this nation: may it therefore please your Majesty that it may be enacted, and be it enacted, by the king's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That from and after the 24th day of June, 1754, every subject of Great-Britain, desiring admission into the said company of merchants of England, trading into the Levant Seas, commonly called, or known, by the name of the Turkey Company, shall, upon request for that purpose, made by himself or any other person in his behalf, to the governor, or deputy-governor, of the said company for the time being, be admitted into the said company, within the space of 30 days after such request shall be made, and shall have, use, and enjoy all the liberties, privileges, jurisdictions, franchises, power, and authorities, granted to the said company by the said letters patent, as largely, fully, and amply, to all intents, constructions, and purposes, as any member of the said company could, can, or may have, use, and enjoy the same, by virtue of the said letters patent, such subject paying or tendering, or causing to be paid or tendered, for such his admission, for the use of the said company, the sum of 20l. and no more, any thing in the said letters patent, or either of them, to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 24th day of June, 1754, the following oath, in lieu of the oath heretofore taken by persons, upon their admissions to their freedom in the said company, shall be taken by every person, upon his admission to his freedom, either before the governor or deputy-governor of the said company, or before two of his Majesty's justices of the peace (who are hereby respectively impowered and required to administer the said oath) which justices are hereby required to certify, under their hands and seals, that the said oath was taken by on the day of before us, two of his Majesty's justices of the peace in and for

— 'You swear to be good, faithful, and true, to our sovereign lord king George, his heirs and successors: you shall be obedient and assistant to the governor, his deputy, and assistants, of the company of merchants of England, trading into the Levant Seas, in all lawful matters: you shall truly hold and keep to your power (having no singular regard to yourself, to the hurt and prejudice of the common-weal of the said company) all statutes, acts, and ordinances, which have been duly made, according to the grant of privileges granted to the said company, and consistent with an act of parliament made in the 26th year of the reign of king George the Second, intituled, An act for enlarging and regulating the trade into the Levant Seas: the secrets of the said company you shall not disclose; and, if you shall know any person or persons, that intend any hurt, harm, or prejudice, to our aforesaid sovereign lord the king's Majesty, his heirs, or successors, or to the said company, or the privileges of the said company, you shall give knowledge thereof to the said governor, deputy, or assistants, or to some of them; and you shall not colour or free any goods belonging to any one not free of the said company.

So help you God.'

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the said 24th day of June, 1754, it shall and may be lawful to and for all and every person and persons, being free of the said company as aforesaid, separately or jointly, to export, or cause to be exported, from any port or place in Great-Britain, to any port or place within the limits of the said letters patent, in any British or plantation-built ships (navigated according to law) at any time, and to any person or persons whatsoever, being freemen of the said company, or sons or apprentices of freemen (such freemens sons or apprentices being his Majesty's Christian subjects) so long as such person or persons shall remain under, and submit to, the protection and direction of the BRITISH AMBASSADOR AND CONSULS RESPECTIVELY, for the time being, any goods, wares, or merchandizes whatsoever, not prohibited by law to be exported; and also to import, in like manner, from any port or place within the limits of the said letters patent, raw silk, or any other goods, wares, or commodities, purchased within the said limits (not prohibited by law to be imported) upon paying or securing the customs, and other duties payable for the same to his majesty, his heirs, and successors, by virtue of any law now in force, or hereafter to be made; and, upon paying such impositions or sums of money as shall be assessed and charged upon all goods, wares, or merchandizes, to be exported or imported as aforesaid, or upon any ships laden with the same, for defraying the necessary expences of the said company, any thing in the said letters patent, or either of them, or any ordinance, constitution, or bye-law of the said company, made, or to be made, to the contrary, in any wise notwithstanding.

Provided always, That the exportation of gold or silver, either in foreign coin or bullion, shall remain subject to the bye-laws of the said company, made or to be made in that behalf.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That it shall and may be lawful for the said governor or deputy-governor, and company, in general court assembled, to make such rules, ordinances, or bye-laws, for the good government of the said company, as the major part of the members present at such general court shall think necessary; but no such rule, ordinance, or bye-law, shall be valid, or of any force or effect whatsoever, unless the same be confirmed at a subsequent general court, to be held at least one calendar month after the general court at which such rule, ordinance, or bye-law was made; and if any seven, or more, of the freemen of the said company, shall think themselves aggrieved by any rule, ordinance, or bye-law, made or to be made, it shall be lawful for them to present an appeal, in writing, against the same, to the commissioners for trade and plantations, who are hereby impowered and required, with all convenient speed, to hear such appeal, and to approve or disapprove such rule, ordinance, or bye-law, and in such manner as to them, or the major part of them present, shall appear fit and reasonable.

Provided, also, That in case any such appeal shall be brought against any future rule, ordinance, or bye-law, to be made by the said governor and company, such appeal shall be brought within twelve calendar months after such rule, ordinance, or bye-law, shall be so made and confirmed as aforesaid; and if any such appeal shall be brought against any rule, ordinance, or bye-law of the said company now in force, such appeal shall be brought within twelve calendar months after the said 24th day of June, 1754.

Provided, also, That the persons appealing against any such rule, ordinance, or bye-law, shall, at the same time, give notice in writing of such appeal, to the governor, deputy-governor, or secretary of the said company, for the time being. Provided, nevertheless, That no such rule, ordinance, or bye-law, shall be of any greater or other force or validity, than the same would or ought to have been if no such appeal had been given by this act.

Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted, That whenever any general court of the said company shall be appointed to be held, for the making of any rule, ordinance, or bye-law, public notice thereof shall be given in the London Gazette, at least 20 days before the time appointed for the holding of such general court.

Provided always, and it is hereby enacted, That all rules, orders, and regulations made for preventing infection, shall be and remain in full force and virtue, as if this act had never passed. See our article QUARANTINE.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That no goods or merchandizes liable to retain the infection of the plague, and coming from the Levant, without a clean bill of health, shall be landed in any part of Great-Britain or Ireland, or of the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, unless it shall appear to the satisfaction of his Majesty, his heirs, or successors, or of his or their privy-council, that the said goods or merchandizes have been sufficiently opened and aired in the lazareto of Malta, Ancona, Venice, Messina, Leghorn, Genoa, and Marseilles, or one of them*.

* Before the making of this act, it was observed, by a judicious advocate for laying the trade intirely open [see ORIENTAL TRADE] and which may deserve attention, as the trade is now circumstanced, viz. 'That all ships returning from the Levant in times of infection, might perform quarantine either at Port Mahon or Gibraltar, as these places are directly in their voyage homewards, and might be made very convenient for supplying them with proper stores and refreshments; so that it would be, in some measure, the interest of ships on a long voyage, to call at one or other of these places, especially if they were made FREE PORTS. Moreover for the greater security, all ships returning from the Levant might be obliged, under the penalty of forfeiting ship and cargo, to touch at one or other of these ports, and obtain bills of health from the magistrates, before they proceeded to England. These cautions are very practicable in themselves, and yet much stricter than have been usually required either of the Turkey company, or of the merchants trading to Barbary and Morocco.'

R E M A R K S.

The preceding act of parliament having obviated some, if not most, of the principal objections that have been made against the company, and in favour of laying the trade absolutely open [see our article ORIENTAL TRADE], we shall only observe, that it must be left to a few years experience to shew whether the general permission of trade to the Levant, given by the aforesaid act, will tend to enlarge this commerce, according to the intent and title, or not.—But, to have rendered this act still the more effectual, it is to be wished, we humbly presume, that the heavy charges that necessarily attend the Turkey trade (as the support of the ambassador, consuls, &c.) were borne by the state instead of the company—I am not unapprized of the unprecedented munificence of his present most gracious Majesty, to our ambassador at the Porte*, in order to give more weight to our minister, and to render our mercantile interest in Turkey the more respectable; and yet it seems the French have, by the measures they take, more influence than we, and have rapidly advanced their commerce in the Turkish empire, while ours has been many years upon the decline. When this trade was first established, there might be many good reasons why the Turkey company was charged with the support of the ambassador at the Porte, together with their consuls, &c. and the same reason might exist for a number of years, but things have now taken a very different turn. It has been proved to a demonstration, that our Levant trade hath declined; it has indeed languished to that degree, that our Turkey merchants, who some years since figured at the top of the commercial world, now bow their diminished heads. Yet is not the trade intirely sunk; on the contrary, we import annually from Aleppo above 600 bales of raw silk. This alone is a great national object; for if these 600 bales of raw silk contain 180,000 small pounds†, what a benefit do we not receive by the manufactory of this silk, in the article of labour?

* As this may be a piece of secret history to most, yet, in justice to the king's liberality, I think the public should know, that, besides the appointments allowed by the company to our ambassador at the Porte, his Majesty, out of regard to the merit of Mr. Porter, while commissaire d'affaire at the court of Vienna, and to induce him the more earnestly to promote the interest of his kingdoms at the Porte, has allowed him out of his privy purse, which was never done to any ambassador there before, the additional appointment, as commissaire d'affaire, of 1000 l. sterling per annum, with this memento, 'that it is not to be made a precedent of.'

† A bale of 25 batmans, or 300 small pounds, produce 180,000 lb.

In regard to the laying the Turkey trade intirely open in England, it will give great light into this subject to apprise the reader of what has been urged pro and con, with relation to

the laying open the Levant trade in France; nor will it prove useful so to do upon this peculiar occasion only, but it will give us a lively idea of the measures taken in France, in order so thoroughly to canvass all commercial topics, that the resolutions of the state may terminate in the promotion of the general prosperity. And this I am the more disposed to do, as it may, some time or other, determine us to make establishments of the like kind.

What I shall present to the reader upon this occasion, is an extract from some MEMORIALS presented by the DEPUTIES OF THE COUNCIL OF TRADE IN FRANCE, to the ROYAL COUNCIL, in 1701, being the year after the establishment of the said council of trade by king Lewis XIV.

A MEMORIAL of the deputies of the trading towns in the west of France, concerning the commerce with the Levant, the goods used in that trade, and why Marseilles alone has the privilege of trading thither.

Experience teaches us that the English carry on [in 1701] the trade of the Levant with much greater advantage than our nation; their woollen cloths are better made, are better and cheaper than ours, and, therefore, are more in request, and have a greater vent. They carry thither lead, pewter, copperas, logwood, which are goods that they are masters of, together with a great deal of pepper: and, that they may not drain their country of its gold and silver, the ships which are freighted with those goods are laden likewise with dry fish, of their own catching, sugars from their colonies, and other goods of their own product, which they sell on the coasts of Portugal, Spain, and Italy, and receive the produce in pieces of eight, which they carry to the Levant, to add to the stock necessary for purchasing the merchandizes which they take in there, and carry to England.

This way of trading is very beneficial to the English, since by supplying themselves with coin from foreigners, they draw so much the less from home; and besides, they make a profit by the goods they sell in their passage upon the coasts of Portugal, Spain, and Italy, which contributes to render this a good trade, and enables them to sell the merchandizes of the Levant much cheaper than any other nation.

Upon the like plan it would be more advantageous to France to permit the towns of the west to carry on this trade in the same manner directly.

We have, as well as the English, woollen cloths, stuffs, paper, silks, tobacco, fish of our own catching, and linen cloths, which they have not; we can, like them, make up our cargoes of different sorts of goods, some for the Levant, and others for Spain, Portugal, and Italy; we may sell those goods by the way, and carry the produce in money to the Levant to help make our purchases.

Thus the towns of the west might carry on this trade without sending our money abroad, our manufactures would be consumed in greater quantities, as far as the competition with those of the English would permit, and we might bring back in our ships all the merchandizes of the Levant that are wanted in the western parts of France, which would then come much cheaper to us than now they do.

Since the towns of the ocean have been obliged to go and unlade their goods at Marseilles, instead of endeavouring to continue and increase that trade, they have been forced to relinquish it absolutely. And indeed, how can it be expected they should come from the extremity of the Levant to pay their respect to Marseilles? subject themselves to consume a fourth or a third more of victuals than usual? pay greater wages to seamen, and higher rates for insurance? lie at heavy charges while they are unlading and relading their goods; and by this long delay, and that of making a round-about voyage, run the risque of being still at Marseilles, when they might have been at home?

The pretence of contagious distempers, ought not to be made use of against the towns of the ocean to exclude them from this trade; since every body is taught by self-preservation to guard against them, there being likewise proper places appointed for quarantine on such occasions; besides, the passing of the Streights, and the change of climate, purifies the malignant air; for which reason, the English and Dutch returning from the Levant have no need of such precautions; and there's hardly any instance, that this trade has introduced among them any pestilential distemper, which some would put us in apprehension of.

By the arrêts, none but the towns of Dunkirk and Rouen can receive goods from the Levant directly without touching at Marseilles; nor they without paying 20 per cent. for entry; the other ports complain of being excluded: this extraordinary duty has been laid on but since the year 1685, whereby the throwing up of that trade has not only been continued, but it has likewise given occasion to the farmers to be very vexatious in extending that duty to merchandizes which are not subject to it, as allums, oils of Italy and Barbary, manna, aloes, assaetida, wax of Camenice, musk, sal armoniac, gum senegal, nay, even to sublimated mercury, which is prepared at Amsterdam, and to other the like goods that

that they could impute to this trade ; which has occasioned the excessive dearness of all drugs that are used in our manufactures.

Consequently, our manufactures have laboured under this dearness : which is contrary to the views we ought to have, of increasing the export and vent of them to foreign parts, and putting them, as much as possible, upon an equal foot with foreign manufactures.

The town of Marseilles, which is solely impowered to manage the Levant trade, thrives by the exclusion of the other maritime towns, to the prejudice of the public : that city ought not to oppose the liberty demanded by the ports in the ocean, to drive the said trade directly, and to bring home their returns without paying the 20 per cent.

Marseilles, by being a free port, by its near situation to the Levant, and the settled correspondence of its merchants there, will always have sufficient advantage over the ports and towns of the west. Marseilles is not excluded from any commerce permitted to the towns of the west (or ports of the ocean) ; therefore, what justice is there in appropriating the trade of the Levant to that city alone ?

Besides, the manner in which Marseilles carries on this commerce cannot be approved, since it is manifest, that the goods which it sends thither, of the growth or make of the kingdom, being in moderate quantities, and of little consideration, the merchants of that town make the greatest part of their remittances in pieces of eight and in other sorts of coin ; which consumes a good part of the returns from Cadiz and the Indies, and greatly contributes to make bullion more scarce throughout the kingdom.

The merchants of Marseilles lay out a great part of such remittances in linen cloth and stuffs of the Levant, which, whatever precaution be taken, do not fail of being disposed about the kingdom, to the prejudice of our own manufactures. It would be proper to prohibit, not only the importation, but likewise the wear of them in France ; and that nothing were brought from the Levant, but drugs and unwrought materials proper for our manufactures, such as galls, cotton, hair, sugar, silk, wool, and the like.

The privilege which the merchants of Marseilles have, of enjoying this trade in exclusion of the other towns of the kingdom, joined to the 20 per cent. which is charged on the same sorts of goods, and the fixing particular ports for importing of goods into the kingdom, give those merchants an opportunity to starve the trade of the kingdom, and to enrich themselves so much, that notwithstanding the 20 per cent. the charges of carriage, commission money, duties of export, and the disadvantage of the exchange, which may together be reckoned at above 35 per cent. we find our account better in fetching those goods from foreigners, than from the merchants at Marseilles ; who, being favoured so much, do not give themselves the trouble to send them into the provinces of the kingdom.

They sit still for us to come to their market, that they may have an opportunity of imposing what rates they please : nor are they ever sufficiently stocked to supply all our demands.

And since the drugs which they bring to Marseilles from the Levant, come thither from the east in caravans, which enhances the price of them considerably, and that the same drugs which come directly from the East Indies to the ocean, are not subject to the 20 per cent. for entry, no more than is cotton, the deputies conceive, that it would be a piece of justice to forbid the farmers to exact the duty of 20 per cent. upon the said drugs so brought from the Levant.

The REPLY of the deputies of the western ports of France to the preceding ANSWER.

1. We must own that the liberty which the towns of the ocean demand, may somewhat diminish the commerce of Marseilles in the Levant : but the benefit which it will procure to the state and to the public, by the abundance of merchandizes and the increase of navigation, is of much greater weight ; besides, Marseilles may extend its commerce into the ocean, to make itself amends for the diminution of their Levant trade : our colonies are a fair field for them to exercise their navigation in.

2. This article is exaggerated, and it were needless to answer it : however, we shall say that there is not any merchandize of the Levant comprized among those specified in a list by the deputy of Marseilles, that has not a consumption in the west ; except ashes for the glass manufacture, which are but of small consumption.

3. If from the year 1669 to 1685, the sea-port towns of the west in general have not carried on the trade to the Levant, it is because at that time our nation had not mariners, ships, skill, nor emulation, for improving all sorts of commerce : it is however true, that the towns of Rouen and Bourdeaux had correspondence there, and sent ships thither.

The deputy of Marseilles makes a wrong interpretation of the decree of 1685. The duty of 20 per cent. takes its rise from 1669, and was laid upon the Levant merchandizes which were first landed in Italy, England, and Holland : and the effect of the decree of 1685, has been only to debar the

king's subjects from fetching the merchandizes of the Levant directly to Rouen, where, before that decree, they were exempt from the duty of 20 per cent. to which they are now subject, whether they come directly from the Levant, or whether they have been first landed in any other country. This is an effect of the powerful protection which Marseilles has had, to the prejudice of the state and of the public. It is to avoid taking from England and Holland the Levant merchandizes, that we demand liberty to trade directly to the Levant.

4. If the traders of Marseilles are suffered to set against us their titles of prescription, it is to no purpose to propose any thing ; but the council has thought fit to give leave to lay before them the grievances of such arrêts as are prejudicial to commerce in general.

5. We own it is good to guard against running of goods : it belongs to the general farmers to take the necessary precautions, but the 20 per cent duties are more likely to favour than hinder it.

6. We agree we have not spices as the English and Dutch have ; but Marseilles has them not any more than we ; and as to all other merchandizes, it is beyond contradiction true, that we get them more commodiously than Marseilles, and cheaper ; because the commerce of the Ocean being of much greater extent than that of Marseilles in particular, procures us all things with greater ease, and in greater plenty.

7. This article is not maintainable ; and it is indisputable that the sale of our fish in Portugal, Spain, and Italy, will produce specie for the Levant, as it does actually supply the English therewith.

The commerce which the towns of the ocean maintain in Portugal and Spain, by linen cloths and other manufactures of the kingdom, is a perpetual fund to furnish them with specie, which Marseilles has not, nor ever can have. The deputy of Marseilles contradicts himself, in saying that there is no carrying sugars and tobacco into Italy and the Levant, since he himself puts sugars into his account of what merchandizes are proper for the Levant ; and as for tobacco, it is well known that Genoa, Leghorn, and other towns of Italy, consume considerable quantities of Clairac and St Domingo tobacco : and the towns of the ocean are willing, for the good of the state, to bind themselves not to send abroad any coin of the kingdom either to strangers or others, and to carry to the Levant only the product of those merchandizes which they shall sell in foreign countries, provided Marseilles submits to the like law.

If an account be taken of the goods sent from Marseilles to the Levant, and of those which are imported at Marseilles, communibus annis, it will be seen what difference there is in the value, and how much specie must have been carried out to purchase the overplus.

The ballance which has been produced upon two sorts of Levant merchandizes essential to our manufactures, proves the truth of what the deputies of the west have advanced concerning the prices during the months of October, November, and December, when the commerce was in the greatest tranquillity, and upon the foot of the present time, when the prices of merchandizes of the Levant are very high in England and Holland, through the fear of a war. Which has a counter-effect favourable to Marseilles, since by her situation she is free from that fear, and should not be sensible of the like change ; and therefore the deputy of Marseilles should not bring his comparison upon the foot of the present time, because it would be a false rule.

9. This reason is in favour of the towns of the ocean, since Marseilles by its situation will always have great advantages over them ; and as for the merchandizes proper for the Levant, the towns of the west will have them in our provinces as commodiously as at Marseilles.

10. If it is true, as the deputy of Marseilles asserts, that the Dutch fetch from Marseilles the merchandizes of the Levant, they will fetch them from the ports of the ocean much more willingly and commodiously.

11. All the preceding articles shew, that the intention of the merchants of the west is perfectly opposite to such views ; and that it is purely and solely to avoid fetching from England and Holland the merchandizes of the Levant, that they now ask the liberty of trading to the Levant directly.

12. The merchants of the west reckon they shall considerably augment their fisheries, and by that means have wherewithal to furnish in abundance this kingdom, Spain, and Italy.

13. It is agreed, that Marseilles is the natural port of the city of Lyons for commerce ; but it does not at all suit the towns of the west, who have ports and ships of their own for trading ; and if the merchandizes of the Levant come dearer to the towns of the west, they give so much the less umbrage to Marseilles ; therefore that city ought not to oppose the liberty that is desired.

14. Since we propose a general liberty for all towns to follow the Levant trade, there would be no inconveniency if the town of Sette should enjoy it : the competition which the deputy of Marseilles is apprehensive of, cannot but be advantageous to the state, on account of giving greater vent to the king-

dom and its manufactures, as likewise occasioning a more plentiful importation of the goods of the Levant, which will make the market better for the public: if hereby some private men are losers, the state still gains; and instead of having any fear, lest such permission when granted to the towns should enable the English, Dutch, and Italians, to make us abandon that commerce; on the contrary, several towns united may, better than Marseilles alone, rival those nations.

15. The ports of the west have places appointed for performing quarantine, and it is easy to take the same precautions as are taken at Marseilles to defend ourselves from the plague; besides, it is undeniable, that the passage of the Straights to come to the north, and the change of climate, purifies that infectious air, and the English and Dutch for that reason are exempt from such quarantine.

16. It must be allowed that the 9th article of the treaty of Ryswic, gives to the Dutch the same advantage as to the king's subjects, in point of trading to the Levant; but we need not fear their coming from the Levant directly into our ports, with cargoes of 50, 60, and 100,000 crowns to subject themselves to the humour of the buyers. That nation solely applies itself to make marts of goods at home, and to fix such a price upon them as they think fit, and then to furnish retailers therewith. It is the less to be feared that they should bring to France the merchandizes of the Levant directly, if it be true what the deputy advances in his 11th article, that Marseilles will furnish that nation with them. Besides, the Dutch being almost continually at war with the nations of Barbary, cannot carry on that trade without great convoys, which enhances very much the merchandize, and hinders them from carrying the same to France, where they would be losers, and renders their navigation to the Levant very inconsiderable. To conclude, The towns of the west have actually the liberty of going to the Levant; and, in a word, they want only to free themselves from the subjection of going to unlade and lade again at Marseilles, which is equivalent to a formal exclusion, and has obliged the traders of the west to quit that commerce.

17. Whatever memorial may be given upon this head, it will fall of itself.

A MEMORIAL of the deputy of Marseilles, in answer to the foregoing; setting forth the grounds and reasons of the privilege which that town enjoys of trading to the Levant.

It is a very difficult task, when a single man is obliged to answer such knowing and acute persons as the deputies of the ports of the western sea; and if I had not a just cause to defend, a cause in which the interest of the state, as well as that of the town of Marseilles in particular, is concerned, I should distrust my ability, through want of practice, in drawing up memorials so well put together, and so politely turned as those given in by those gentlemen: but as the present dispute is about facts, and that the trade of the Levant has ever been allowed to be the most beneficial to the state, the council will please to permit me to lay before them my reasons in the best manner I can, without being too solicitous about purity of style, which is not my talent.

1. The pretension of these gentlemen is not new; they have often endeavoured at the same thing, though without effect, because it is against the good of the general trade of the kingdom, as I shall prove in the sequel of this memorial. This proof is founded upon the ancient course and practice of trade, which they themselves take notice of; and upon the information and insight which the king has had of the prejudice resulting from this proposition to the general commerce of his dominions, for this reason his Majesty has fixed things in the condition they have been for a long time, and are in to this day.

2. It is certain, that the permission which they require of driving a trade to the Levant, is not proper to be granted them; because neither in their own towns, nor among their neighbours, can they find a consumption of divers gross commodities, which they would be forced to take in to make up the lading of their ships, as does Marseilles which enjoys this advantage.

3. One sure proof that this trade is not proper for them, is, that it does not appear, they ever set about it, notwithstanding the permission which all the ports of the west had to drive this trade, before and after the establishment of the free port of Marseilles, which was in 1669 until 1685. For the ports of Rouen and Dunkirk had this permission, because the conveniency of their having the merchandizes of the Levant by the way of Holland and England, more easily than by fetching them from thence directly, which they find very difficult, always put them upon that prejudicial practice of giving their profits to those foreigners and enemies, to the damage of the king's subjects; and, if his Majesty had not put a stop to it, by his decree of the 15th of August, 1685, which lays a duty of 20 per cent. upon the merchandizes of the Levant which should come from England or Holland into France, in order to exclude them for the good of his subjects, it is certain that by this time those nations would have supplied France

with all the Levant goods, and the king's subjects would have utterly lost that trade, so important to the state.

This is so true, that the experience of it puts the thing out of doubt. I ask these gentlemen, the deputies, whether it be not true, that after 1669, while they brought in by their ports the commodities of the Levant from Holland and England, when no duty was laid to hinder those merchandizes from entering otherwise than by Marseilles, France was filled with those goods; whereby the trade of the Levant by Marseilles was reduced to the last gasp, as not finding any longer a consumption, but only in Provence and the parts adjacent? This is what occasioned the king's passing the said arrêt of 1685, wherein the special causes moving him thereto are inserted; without the passing of which arrêt, it is evident, that these two foreign nations, who have long sought to destroy our Levant trade, as well by their ambassador at the Port, as by their intelligence and secret practices in France, had entirely cut us out of it.

4. His Majesty, and all his ministers, who since the establishment of this free-port, which was done upon due cognizance of the matter, and mature consideration, have ever since done their utmost to support this important trade; foreseeing, some years after the said arrêt, that they could not so soon root out the intelligence which those nations had settled in France by their dealings with the French merchants, who continued to let them bring in their merchandizes, by the facility which they found in compounding the 20 per cent. with the general farmers, or by counterballances, very frequent and common; his Majesty renewed his arrêt of prohibition, by that of November 1, 1688, confirmative of that of 1685. And because, even after that, the abuses in some measure continued, and he found more and more the necessity of putting a stop to them, he made another arrêt of the 3d of July, 1692, containing the same prohibitions, and still confirmative of the edict which made Marseilles a free port, and settled the duty of 20 per cent. Since 1692, things have gone on according to the intention of the king, who has continually caused orders to be given to the intendants of the provinces, to see to the execution thereof; and there has likewise passed a confirmative arrêt in relation to Dunkirk, the 30th of January, 1700.

5. How, after all this, can it be expected, that his Majesty should alter this establishment? And how can the least part of it be dispensed with, either for their carrying on the trade themselves directly to the Levant, or taking in goods at Leghorn, as they propose? Is it not alike mischievous to our trade? And if the king, instead of granting such permission, shall not be pleased to put a stop to the abuses which are still practised, both by compounding the duty to almost nothing at all, and by the daily pouring in of prohibited goods, through the ports and upon the coast of the west, to the prejudice particularly of the king's farms, (as it happened not long since with 4 or 500 bales of goat's-hair, which were imported on the coast of Picardy, whereby great quantities of the like goods which were in France, belonging to the king's subjects, became of no value, because it is a perishing commodity;) in all likelihood our trade, which is of consequence to the state, will be extremely diminished. It is well known what cardinal Richlieu said to the advantage of this trade, and what was done by M. Colbert, after mature consideration, and upon the particular enquiries he made into it, and generally all that has been done in favour of it by the ministers, who have succeeded them to this time: how can men, after this, think of procuring any change in this establishment? It is well known, trade is so nice a thing, that it is often lost by endeavouring to change the management of it, as may be proved by many instances.

6. All the artful subtleties, with which the memorials of the said deputies abound, in order to prevail upon the council to grant them this commerce, are founded much more upon private designs, to the prejudice of the general interest, than upon reason; and all the comparisons which they make from the English and Dutch touching in their way upon the coasts of Spain and Italy, there to sell their goods, are fallacious, and bear no similitude; for those nations have part of the merchandizes which are any wise proper to sell on those coasts, from the Indies, or else they are the product of their own country, with neither of which these gentlemen of the western ports of France are stocked.

7. The fisheries of the English or Dutch have no relation to this commerce: I affirm that the ships of those nations trading to the Levant, do not carry any fish, and that the gentlemen of the west could not do it; that the very same ships which are employed by the English or Dutch in fishing, carry them from the places where they catch them to those coasts, and that they do this but once a year; that therefore their proposition of going and exchanging their merchandizes for pieces of eight in Spain, and carrying that money to the Levant, to avoid thereby the exporting of French money, is not real, it is only a pretence; since, even though they had any merchandizes to carry to Spain, which they have not, except some linen cloths, these are goods that are long in going off, and this length of time would subject them to great charges; and it is exaggerating to say, that they can

carry to the coasts of Spain and Italy, sugar and tobacco from the French colonies, since Lisbon furnishes them with both, in greater quantities than they have occasion for; and it is beyond dispute true, that they cannot carry on this trade but almost wholly by money, of which (whatever they say) the English carry great quantities from Holland and Germany.

8. As to what they object concerning their manufactures, that they can get materials from England with much more advantage than by Marseilles, I defy them, and am persuaded that they have not computed rightly: that may indeed happen in some of the materials, but I lay it down for fact, that they will very often, and almost always, draw what is necessary for them by the way of Marseilles, cheaper than from foreign countries, or by their commerce directly, or at least as cheap.

9. Marseilles has a very particular and advantageous situation and proximity to the Levant; she has in her town, her province, and in those of Languedoc and Dauphiné, her neighbours, all sorts of manufactures proper for the Levant, and has had settled correspondence, and been used for some ages to this trade, which by experience she manages with perfect oeconomy; and it looks as if God had endowed her with these advantages for the good of the state, to carry on by her means this so important commerce from France with the Levant, and from the Levant with all France.

10. It is so apparent and so true, that Marseilles is always filled with all assortments of merchandizes (whatever they say) and even more than Holland and England; that Marseilles often furnishes the Dutch with goods which they have not, and would do the same to the English, if it were permitted to carry any thither; but they have taken due care of that by a vigorous prohibition, and the merchandizes which should be carried thither would be burnt, and perhaps the ships too; so watchful are they to preserve the trade to themselves, to which they are the more stimulated by an inbred hatred which they have to the French: under what colour of justice, therefore, should France permit her natives to go, fetch the merchandizes of the Levant from them? Which forms another principal reason against the pretension of these deputies; and it is certain, that even though it were permitted them, there would not be that correspondence with the English as is imagined; nor would they come, either more or less, to fetch the commodities of our kingdom; for they who come for wines and brandies are only dealers in those goods, and not Levant merchants, and so would not have occasion to exchange their merchandizes for ours.

11. They ought to be the less indulged in this permission, because they ask it for no other reason but to have a pretence of carrying on their old clandestine trade with those two nations, as from past example it is evident they used to do.

12. It is an idle pretence to say, that some of their ships going to Italy with their fish, might find means to touch there for Levant merchandizes at Leghorn, whither there go so few of them, that they may always for their fish have ready money; by which means they constantly relade with oil and alum on the coast of Italy, which are merchandizes of greater use to them. It is to Marseilles whither almost all the ships of their fishery come, to the number of 30 or 40 every year, where they find their commission favourable, and in return take soap, oil, merchandizes of the Levant, and fruits of Provence, whereby the greatest part of them have an opportunity of making great freights homeward. This is very convenient for them, and gives them a profit which they would not have, if Marseilles were not able to furnish them with all those things; there would be no need of going so far if they desired to truck their fish for Levant merchandizes, they might do it much more easily and advantageously at Marseilles than at Leghorn.

13. If they will carry on the Levant trade by Marseilles, as Lyons and other cities of the kingdom do, no body hinders them; they may thereby have the same advantages which they fancy the Marseillians have, without disturbing, by their vain pretensions, an order established for trade so long ago; it being certain, that if they went to fetch the Levant merchandizes directly, they would cost them much dearer than if they took them at Marseilles. They cannot oppose to this any thing, but some charges of insurance, which they pay from Marseilles to the ports in the ocean; but this expence is so moderate, that it bears no comparison with the extraordinary charges they would be obliged to be at, in going directly to the Levant, and in returning home; and before they could well have settled their correspondence there, they would suffer considerable losses, which has always been the cause why they have not undertaken it.

If the general farmers make them pay the duty of 20 per cent. for such goods as are not subject to it, it is their business to obtain justice against them, and the deputy of Marseilles will gladly enter into measures to assist them.

14. There is another principal reason which that deputy has to offer, viz. If this permission be given to the ports of the ocean, it must likewise be given to the port of Cette, which would demand it; and that could not possibly be done, without entirely destroying the Levant trade in France, by an infallible decay which this disorder would occasion, it not be-

ing possible to reconcile all these several competitors; the rather, because it is known that Marseilles itself, by order of M. Pontchartrain, has been obliged (for the preservation of this trade, though they had it solely) to make a regulation of the number of shipping employed in it, to avoid the too great concourse of them, which was very pernicious, as well at their arrival in the Levant, as at their return: this hinders the Dutch from driving this trade, as they were permitted by the treaty of Ryfwic. If these gentlemen were allowed this permission, how could we possibly avoid a general disorder, which would bring this trade to decay; and which the English, Dutch, and Italians, would take advantage of, and put us, perhaps, in danger of losing it entirely? it being undoubtedly true, that these gentlemen, who have always had a good intelligence with those two nations their neighbours, would make no other use of this permission, but to lend their names to the English to drive this trade under the flag of France, and for a small private interest, would not value ruining that of Marseilles. We may further insist upon the inconveniencies that would affect all the payments which Marseilles makes for all the consuls; the averages of the Levant, the pension of the ambassador, and other extraordinary casual expences, which could never be well adjusted: this disorder would likewise infallibly bring the plague into France, and we shall hear what work it has very lately made in a ship of St Malo.

I cannot believe, that after so many obstacles, and so many regulations, so well concerted, and continually enforced to this present day, counter to this proposition, and made to preserve in its perfection this important trade, which is the greatest and most profitable one of the kingdom, the government will destroy it by a permission which will produce nothing good and settled; as may be gathered from what has already happened in the kingdom, which by the like novelties has lost several trades and manufactures.

15. Whatever they say to dissipate the apprehension of the danger of bringing the plague into France, it is almost certain they could not avoid it; and there is no doubt to be made, but this would be the greatest calamity which could befall the kingdom. The deputy of Marseilles affirms, that the contagious distemper never ceasing to be in the Levant and Barbary, sometimes in one part, sometimes in another, because in those countries they take no precaution to avoid it; these gentlemen having neither experience, nor proper places for purging the merchandizes from that evil which cleaves to them (as is found true at Marseilles, where oftentimes several die of the plague during the quarantine), would infallibly give the plague to France, which they of Marseilles avoid, by rules which are more rigorously observed there than in any city in the world. This special experience in the Marseillians is so well known every where, that the Italians, though an ingenious people, and who have proper places for these precautions, so dread the plague, that, when there come into their ports any ships from a place where it is known to be, they drive them away, and their asylum is at Marseilles, which receives them, with their wonted precautions; and oftentimes those ships and merchandizes, by endeavouring to guard against the plague, would communicate it to the kingdom. Must the king put it to the venture, among men who have neither experience, nor proper places for the purpose, whether they will bring in the plague or not?

It is in vain for them to say, That the climate they inhabit, and the length of the passage, would stifle this evil, and hinder the communication of it; and to suppose that the English and Dutch never had it. This cannot be insisted on, since both the one and the other have had it oftener than once, though the coldness of their country, which really serves in some measure to preserve them from it, is beyond comparison greater than in France; and I have been informed for certain, that, not above 30 or 40 years ago, Holland and Flanders had it to a great degree, and that Picardy was afflicted with it likewise, as also Rouen, Dieppe, and other places, where it made great havock: and there is no doubt but it came from the Levant: and though it might have been there but once, yet we may have it often in France, especially if opportunities be given of introducing it: and as this would be one of the most dreadful evils that could happen, people ought to be very apprehensive of it.

16. Over and above all that I have been saying, there is an article, which of itself ought to destroy the pretensions of these gentlemen to this trade, as a memorial which was communicated to me on their part has very reasonably foreseen. By the 9th article of the treaty of commerce at Ryfwic, the Dutch are permitted to drive this very trade in France, and under the same advantages with the king's subjects. In this case, they would not enjoy the permission they ask, and it would be the Hollanders who would ingross the whole trade, by their ports, which would entirely ruin ours; and though there be a likelihood now of a war with the Dutch, they will not fail, in the next treaty of peace, to stipulate and obtain the confirmation of that article.

17. It ought likewise to be observed, that Marseilles, by means of this trade, causes infinitely more money to be brought

into France than the causes to be carried out; which I shall take another occasion to prove.

The rejoinder of the deputy of Marfeilles, to the foregoing reply.

1. First, He represents that they formerly deny the principle of his first memorial, by every article of which it is plainly proved, that such permission would ruin the commerce of the Levant, and the navigation of the king's subjects, and totally transfer it to strangers, and that all his Majesty has done since 1669, by every successive arrêt till this day, to avoid this misfortune, would be in vain; that his conduct and wise precaution herein, leaves no room to doubt that this proposed competition was not found suitable to this trade, but rather that it would cause a general disorder in all the scales or marts of the Levant, which would considerably raise the price of their goods; and this would soon bring on the total ruin of that commerce; and the same would befall that of the western ports of France, if there were the like concurrence: and therefore it is for the interest of the state and of the public, to preserve both the one and the other, as hath wisely been practised hitherto.

2. The gentlemen of the western ports cannot be ignorant that they are unable to consume all the merchandizes which they should be obliged to take in to fill their ships, and which, consequently, they would be overstocked with; among others, there are four sorts of very cumbersome commodities, and which always make three-fourths of a ship's lading, viz. coarse wool, hides in the hair, ashes in great quantities, and flax; all which are merchandizes proper for the manufactures set up in Provence, Languedoc, and Dauphiné, and which the provinces of the west are without.

3. He persists in affirming, That no town in the west, not even Bourdeaux and Rouen, ever drove the trade of the Levant, though they were better able to do it before 1685 than since; and I do not believe that Rouen, which is the principal town on that coast, has any ships to carry it on, nor Bourdeaux neither, except some small vessels which serve them to go up the river. The deputies cannot deny the truth of this.

The edict of 1669, and the subsequent ordinance, laid a duty of 20 per cent. on such merchandizes of the Levant as should be imported into Marfeilles, after having been first carried into foreign countries; but it left the port of Rouen, and that of Dunkirk, free to carry on the Levant trade directly, without paying the 20 per cent. yet they never did it, because it was not a suitable trade for them. But they made use of that permission to get the Levant merchandizes by the way of England and Holland: so that, by that means, they filled France with those merchandizes, and this brought the trade of the French in the Levant to almost nothing: which gave occasion to his Majesty (in order to remedy such a misfortune) to pass the arrêt of the 15th of August, 1685, commanding, That all such commodities of the Levant as should enter by the said ports of Rouen and Dunkirk, which had not first been landed at Marfeilles, should pay 20 per cent. The causes are inserted in the said arrêt; and, were it not for that arrêt, which hinders that evil practice with those nations, it is to be feared it would have gone on still.

4. The council may indeed allow things, which are really grievances, to be redressed: but these gentlemen of the west need not trouble themselves; they will never persuade the council to destroy edicts, passed with so thorough knowledge of the cause, and so often ratified until this present time; that were to contradict all that the king has done, and is what the deputy of Marfeilles is in no apprehension of.

5. It was, as we just now said, to hinder the dealings with the English and Dutch, that his Majesty was pleased to lay on that duty of 20 per cent. and, notwithstanding the said duty, such dealings are still carried on, either by compounding the duty, or by running the goods: and it is on this account that the deputy complains, because of the mischief it does to commerce in general; and the farmers are obliged, for the interest of the state, to keep a watchful eye upon this matter.

6. They do not give a direct answer to the question in this article; for they not only have not all that the English have to carry on this commerce in Spain and Italy (which they take for granted), but hardly any of the manufactured goods proper for the Levant, which Marfeilles is provided with, either in her city or province, as well as in her neighbourhood of Languedoc and Dauphiné, and such as they cannot possibly have.

7. He affirms it to be fact and true, That the ships laden with their fish do not go into the Levant; they go from the place of their fishing to the Mediterranean, and chiefly to Marfeilles, and this but once a year: that the greatest part of the product of such fish, and all that they presuppose to carry with them in the course of their pretended voyage, would serve for no more than to pay seamen's wages, victuals, and the charges of the voyage; and what is over and above is not sufficient for a fund for that trade, and therefore they ought not to reckon

it. Tobacco abounds in the Levant, and as for sugars, they are both of them articles of small consideration.

It is in vain for them to compare themselves to the English, whose ships with fish go not to the Levant, and who use other ships wholly for that voyage, and have a great many goods proper for sale on their way, and in the Levant, which the gentlemen of the west have not. As for linen cloth, it is agreed that a great many of them are sent to Cadiz for the Indies; but this is not a fund for them to reckon upon, to be made use of in the same voyage, no more than are the other linen cloths that they may vend in some places of the coasts of Spain, which are long in going off, and which they sell at a very long credit; and Marfeilles, in this particular, has a greater advantage than they, by means of large quantities of imported manufactures, proper for that country, which she sends thither generally all the year round, and which go soon off, almost all for ready money, which brings her pieces of eight, and these she makes use of partly for the Levant; and she has the further advantage of making use of assortments of goods, which she draws to herself, by means of uttering divers commodities and merchandizes to the Dutch, which the gentlemen of the west do not, for want thereof. Marfeilles therefore, which consumes a great deal less money than is thought, does not make use of that foreign coin which she acquires by means of the permutation of her wares and commodities; and it argues great ignorance to say, That the western gentlemen can carry on the Levant trade without money, especially since they have not the wares and manufactures which Marfeilles has.

8. The deputies of the west were pleased to pitch upon that time, and upon two particular sorts of merchandizes, in order to make a calculation their own way; and it is observed they are continually taking advantage of every thing, and this occasions their calculation (under favour) to be false; and the deputy of Marfeilles proves by his, that it is so far from being true, that those gentlemen buy the merchandizes dearer at Marfeilles than in England and Holland: that the same merchandizes are bought at Marfeilles much cheaper than in those countries, and that it is generally so. He has added to his calculation divers other merchandizes, for one and the same proof, to shew the difference there is between Marfeilles and England and Holland. He proves what he advances by certificates from the royal brokers; and, to satisfy these gentlemen as to the difference of the time, the deputy of Marfeilles, in selecting that time, has taken a medium, which is the month of April; though the same merchandizes can never increase in a neighbouring country, but they must increase, by means thereof, in another, whatever they pretend to the contrary.

9. It is upon account of her advantageous situation, that the king has chosen Marfeilles to preserve this commerce to the state: for this reason likewise it is, that all the manufactures proper for the Levant are set up in abundance about Marfeilles; and the gentlemen of the west cannot have them unless they go for them in that place. It was for all these reasons that the king, to preserve this important trade, did grant his edict of franchise to Marfeilles, and made all the other subsequent edicts to this day, and especially to hinder the towns of the west from abusing the liberty heretofore granted them.

10. That the Hollanders draw sometimes from Marfeilles certain merchandizes which are convenient for them, and which they have not at home, and which they find among the assortments at Marfeilles, where the warehouses are always full of them, and which the gentlemen of the west cannot have, because, though they were to be let into this trade, they would carry it on but poorly: whereas Marfeilles, when it abounds, can, by reason of its nearness, send suddenly to the Levant for such merchandizes as she may want, and much cheaper than they who are forced to be at extraordinary expence, by reason of the length of their voyage.

11. If the gentlemen of the west had formerly carried on this trade, and if, during the time that they were permitted to do it, they had not made use of this permission to introduce the merchandizes of the English and Dutch into France, what they advance might possibly be true; but the ill use which they made of it in times past, notwithstanding all the edicts and orders of the king to reform the abuses, is apt to make us suspect the contrary.

12. They have increased their trade hitherto as much as they could, and they cannot hope to increase it more: were it not for Marfeilles, which consumes the greatest part of their fish, they would be forced to lessen their fishing; and this is what will certainly happen, if the least blow be given to her trade by this permission.

13. The port of Marfeilles was not chosen solely for the sake of the city of Lyons, but for the sake of the whole kingdom, as a door through which the chiefest trades are carried on, and particularly that of the Levant, which is of the greatest importance, and which cannot be well managed but by the port of Marfeilles; and it is proved by divers memorials which the deputy of that city has to present, that it would be entirely lost by dividing it, and would fall into the hand of strangers.

strangers. For this reason, his Majesty has always thought fit to preserve it to Marseilles.

14. It is evident, and beyond all question, that a general opening of the Levant trade would entirely, in a short time, destroy it. The constituting Marseilles a free port, was not done without good grounds, and to put an end to that disorder which a general permission had caused; and all that has been done from that time to this, to correct the abuses that had crept in, is it not a certain proof that such a permission would destroy it infallibly? since even Marseilles could not hold up her head without regulating the number of ships that are to sail to each port of the Levant, and which was done by order of M. de Pontchartrain, within these three years, otherwise it had been ruined. What then would become of this trade, if every body were let into it, and crowded in upon one another? The vent of manufactures at Marseilles is as great as can be wished, for such manufactures which she has, and the west has not; and the pretended cheapness at which France would have the Levant merchandizes, would last but a little while, because competition would make them dearer in the Levant, and cheaper in France, which would disable the merchants from continuing that trade, without ruining themselves, and so it would pass to foreigners. As for the permission demanded for the port of Sette, Marseilles has laid memorials before the council, with reasons for not granting it, and desires the council to cast their eyes over them; and then they will be convinced that the gentlemen of the west ought not to have it neither.

15. The deputy of Marseilles has made sufficient answer to this article, by the memorial which he has given in, whereby he shews plainly, that the plague would not fail to enter into France, as it did heretofore, by means of the English and Dutch. But this being a very important article, the deputy will give an answer more at large, by a special memorial.

16. It is disguising the truth, by their favour, to maintain that the Dutch would not carry on this trade in France. They demanded that article in the treaty of peace for no other end or purpose; and it would be very suitable to that nation, who would drive that whole trade by the ports, which would help them to destroy that of Marseilles: and are those gentlemen ignorant that the Dutch go thither continually, with several ships which private men send thither, and seldom with convoys? It is true that they, like us, are sometimes at war with the nations of Barbary, but commonly they are at peace, as now. And all the reasons and replies of these gentlemen of the west, have no other foundation but their fondness to drive that trade with those nations, rather than to carry it on themselves: and we repeat it again, That they are not excluded this trade, since they may carry it on by Marseilles, as Lyons and some other cities of the kingdom do; and even though they were permitted to do it by their own ports, they could not possibly do it, considering the war we are going into at present.

17. The memorial given in by the deputy of Marseilles, concerning the money she makes use of for her trade, proves the truth of what he advances; and his memorial is clear upon that head, which is an abstract of all his reasons, and evidently demonstrates, that there is no possibility of granting this Levant trade to other ports besides Marseilles (consider-

ing the difficulties that occur) without intirely losing it to foreigners.

For the usefulness and excellency of these institutions in the kingdom of France, see our article CHAMBER of COMMERCE, and REMARKS thereon, and LEVANT TRADE; see also our articles TRADE.

R E M A R K S.

In order to come at the truth, in relation to commercial affairs, we find that the ROYAL COUNCIL OF FRANCE promote altercations between the DEPUTIES of the respective provinces: by which means, all the pertinent matter that can be urged pro and con, upon interesting points, by the mercantile people, comes before the ROYAL COUNCIL; and where any repugnances or fallacies seem to appear, from different and contradictory representations, the ROYAL COUNCIL is excited to make the severer inquiry into the matter, whereby they are the better enabled to come to such resolutions as tend most to the general emolument of the state.

Those who have applied themselves to these kind of studies, have allowed, that there cannot be brought before the legislature of this kingdom any points more difficult in themselves, more entangled with a multiplicity of relations, or more perplexed with diversity of circumstances, than those which relate to the concerns of trade; concerns on which the most experienced often disagree, and on which the most sagacious may deceive themselves with erroneous conjectures. There are no questions which require so much personal knowledge of the subject to which they relate, nor is there any subject with which so few gentlemen in our parliament have had opportunities of being acquainted: there are no questions which their variety of relations to different persons exposes to be so easily misrepresented without detection, nor any in which the opposition of particular interests so much incites a false representation. In all these cases deceit is easy, and there is a strong temptation to deceive.

The methods we see from the preceding example (which I have introduced on purpose) that are practised by the French, have certainly a very happy tendency to the discovery of truth, and to prevent the royal council from being perplexed and misled by private interests, in opposition to the general: for it is no little discredit to the contending deputies to attempt to impose upon each other, and far more so to aim at any barefaced imposition upon the royal council: whereby all matter foreign to the point in question, all personal altercations and sophistry, impertinence and verbosity, are laid aside. But whoever has attended to occasional controversies of this nature in our nation, both without doors, and too frequently elsewhere, have too much reason to think they are seldom untainted with such matter, and such unbecoming warmth and animosity as can tend only to eclipse, instead of illuminate the truth; and this we fear has too often occasioned the public interests to be mistaken, overlooked, or misrepresented, to the great injury of the state.—How far these ill consequences might be prevented, by an institution bearing some similitude to that in France, is humbly submitted to those whose duty it is to take these things into their deliberate consideration.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the End of Letter S.

CHIEF LAWS WITH RESPECT TO TEA.

TEA—counterfeited, adulterated, manufactured with Terra-Japonica, or any drug, or mixed with any ingredients, is forfeited, with the ingredients, and 100 l. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 5.

— May not be imported but from the place of its growth, nor upon any other pretence, upon forfeiture. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 7.

— The importation from any foreign parts, by licence, repealed. 6 and 7 W. III. c. 7. §. 3. 3 and 4 Ann. c. 4. §. 6. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 45, 46. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 12.

— Seized, which cannot be sold at a public sale for 5 s. per pound, may be burnt, or otherwise destroyed; and the seizer rewarded as the commissioners shall think fit, not exceeding 18 d. per pound. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 3.

— Any dealers in tea, who shall dye, fabricate, or manufacture any sloe leaves, liquorice leaves, or leaves of tea that have been used, or of any other tree, shrub, plant, in imitation of tea, &c. are to forfeit 10 l. for every pound weight. 4 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 11.

— Every person, declared at the company's public sale of tea the best bidder, is, within three days, to deposit with the

company 40 s. for every tub or chest; and on neglect to make such deposit, forfeits six times the value, and rendered incapable of bidding for, or buying, any teas there for the future. 18 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 7.

— The East India company, if tea imported be not sufficient to answer the consumption in Great-Britain, and to keep the price upon an equality with the neighbouring countries of Europe, may, with licence from the commissioners of the treasury, import, from any part of Europe, in British ships legally navigated, what they shall think necessary; to be entered at the custom-house, and subject to the same subsidies and duties, rules, &c. as tea imported from the East-Indies. 18 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 10, 12.

— Upon neglect of the company to supply this market sufficiently at reasonable prices, the commissioners of treasury may grant licences to any other person, or body corporate, to import tea from any parts of Europe, subject to such duties, &c. as if imported by the said company, to be lodged in warehouses at the charge of importers, approved of by the commissioners of the customs till publicly sold and duties paid—Notice of sale to be given six days in the Gazette. 18 Geo. II. c. 26. §. 11, 12.

TEA,

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

TEA, exported to Ireland, or his Majesty's plantations in America, the bond entered into, not to be discharged without a certificate under the hands and seals of the collector, comptroller, or surveyor of the port where landed, testifying the landing; the certificate, if from Ireland, to be produced in 6 months; if from America, in 18 months from the date thereof, otherwise the bond to be put in suit. 21 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 1.

— To be exported as above, the permit received upon delivery of the tea from the warehouse, must, before shipped, be delivered to the searcher, or proper officers, of the port where entered for exportation, who must, upon suspicion of a deficiency in quantity or quality, open and examine the package, and whether it has been duly entered OUTWARDS, and endorsed on the entry; and if it does not agree in quantity and quality with the PERMIT and ENDORSEMENT, or is entered under a wrong denomination, it is forfeited, with the package, and may be seized and prosecuted by any officer of the customs.—If otherwise, the officer to cause the same to be repacked at his own charge, which is to be allowed him by the commissioners of the customs, if thought reasonable. 21 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 1.

— Not to be exported to Ireland, or the British plantations, in any package but that in which it was imported, or in any quantity less than the entire lot in which it was sold, on forfeiture. 21 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 2.

— Entered for exportation as above, the package to be marked by the searcher in four different parts on the outside, as the commissioners of the customs shall direct; and if found again on shore, is forfeited, and may be seized and prosecuted by any officer of the customs or inland duties. 21 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 3.

— All tea, above the quantity of six pounds, found in any British ship arriving in Great-Britain from foreign parts (except ships employed by the India company) forfeited, though intended to be reported for exportation. 28 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 1.

The chief Laws with regard to TOBACCO.

TOBACCO—Not of the British plantations.—The importer having been secured at importation, if the importer is afterwards desirous to discharge his bond before the expiration of the 15 months, he is allowed a discount after the rate of 10l. per cent. per annum, for so much of the said 15 months as remain unexpired. 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 8. §. 3. 5 Geo. I. c. 7. §. 1.

— Of the British plantations.—The importer may, if he is not willing to pay ready money, become bound with one or more sufficient sureties, (to be approved by the collector and comptroller of the port of importation) in one or more bonds, for payment of the additional duty, new subsidy, subsidy 1747, one-third subsidy and impost, within 18 months, to commence at the end of 30 days after the master's report of the ship, or from the merchant's entry within those 30 days, which shall first happen. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 3. 21 Geo. II. c. 2. §. 5.

If, after such security be given for payment of the duties in 18 months, the importer be desirous to discharge his bond in ready money, any time before the expiration thereof, he shall be abated upon such bond, so much as the discount, at the rate of 7l. per cent. per annum shall amount unto, in proportion to the time unexpired. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 12. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 31.

— Upon payment of the old subsidy, and security of the other duties by the importer's own bond; may be put into warehouses, provided at his charge, and approved by the commissioners of the customs; if destroyed in such warehouses by fire, the duties to be allowed. 12 Ann. c. 8. §. 5, 6. 5 Geo. II. c. 7. §. 1. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 32.

— Damaged or mean, is not to have any allowance, either at the scale or otherwise; but upon the merchant's refusing to pay the duty, he may separate such damaged tobacco, by cutting off, from the hogheads, so much as he shall refuse to pay or secure custom for; and any three or more of the principal officers of his Majesty's customs shall cause such tobacco to be burnt or destroyed, without making the importer any allowance for freight or charges, except as follows; viz. If any British plantation tobacco hath received damage on board any ship at sea, or by the ship's being forced on shore in any part of Great-Britain; or after arrival, by the ship's bulging on an anchor, or by the lighter into which the tobacco is put, in order to be landed; the merchant refusing to pay, or secure the duty for the same, hath liberty to separate such tobacco as afore observed, and to receive for every pound of damaged tobacco, so separated, the merchant is to be allowed one half penny.—The same to be paid by the commissioners or collectors, or other chief officers of the customs.—But such allowance is not to exceed 30 shillings on any one hoghead. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 13.

— The stalks may not be separated from the leaves, on pretence that the same is damaged or mean tobacco. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 5.

— Allowance for draught at the scale, to be only 8 lb. upon every hoghead of 350 lb. or more; which allowance is not to be deducted upon exportation. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 15.

— Only tobacco of the British plantation, that has paid the duties, and been manufactured in Great-Britain, may be consumed on board British ships of war in any part of Europe, upon forfeiture of the respective places of their commander or purfers, and 3 shillings per pound weight. 6 Ann. c. 22. §. 13.

— Shipped at any place in the British plantations in America for Great-Britain, after the 25th of March, 1752, the collector or comptroller, or other chief officer of the customs there, or any two of them, are at the clearing out of the vessel to deliver to the commander, or person taking charge of her, a manifest under their hands and seals of office, containing a true account of all the tobacco taken on board, the number of packages, the quantity, marks, numbers, and tare of each package; and at the same time transmit a duplicate thereof to the respective commissioners of the customs in Great-Britain, on forfeiture of 200l. to be recovered in any court of record at Westminster, or court of admiralty in the plantations, where the offence is committed. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 1.

— The person having charge of the vessel, upon her arrival at his port of discharge in Great-Britain, and at the time of making his report, must deliver the said manifest to the collector of the customs there, on forfeiture of 100l. and the collector is to deliver it to the land-waiters appointed upon the ship. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 2.

— The land-waiters are, from the manifest, to enter in their books (before any tobacco is landed) the marks, numbers, weights, tares, and contents of the several packages, under the penalty of 50l. and to cause such landing mark, as the commissioners of the customs shall direct, to be set upon every package, and are to enter every such landing mark in their books, on forfeiture of 50l. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 3.

— May not be imported into Great-Britain, otherwise than in cask, chest, or case only, each containing 450 pounds weight of net tobacco at the least, on forfeiture of all the tobacco, together with the package. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 20.

— Imported from the British plantations on the continent of America in bulk, or otherwise than in casks, chests, or cases, containing each two hundred weight, or 224 lb. at least, is forfeited, and 6d. per pound weight, except small quantities for the crews smoking; $\frac{2}{3}$ to his Majesty, and $\frac{1}{3}$ to the seizer or fuer. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 21. §. 29.

— Exported.—No debenture to be made out after the 29th of September, 1751, nor any drawback to be allowed upon tobacco imported after that time, unless it is shipped and exported from the same port where it was originally imported, and (if unmanufactured) in the original package, with the same marks in and with which it was imported, no other tobacco being put therein, nor any taken out, except 10 pounds, which shall be allowed to be taken out of each package after the same is weighed at importation, as is now the practice. The penalty for entering unmanufactured tobacco for exportation, from any port but the port of importation, or in any other package, or without the same marks as imported, is forfeiture of the tobacco, and 200l. by the person who enters it, or causes it to be entered, besides of drawback; and whoever knowingly exports any package of tobacco, out of which more than 10 pounds has been taken, forfeits 20l. for every package exported. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 4.

— But if, upon landing, the tobacco in any hoghead or cask, by cutting off the damaged part, is under the weight of 450 pounds; the importer may, in the presence of the land-waiter, cause the sound tobacco to be put together into one or more hogheads, out of which the damaged was taken; and the land-waiters are to enter in their books the exact weight of the tobacco, with the marks and numbers of each such hogheads, and note that they were refilled in their presence; then such tobacco (provided the quantity in each hoghead is 425 pounds weight or more) may be exported from the port of importation, as if the package had not been altered. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 5.

— The person who enters unmanufactured tobacco outwards, must, before shipping it for exportation, indorse upon the cocket and bill the plantation or manifest mark and number, the landing mark and number, with the weight of each package at the time of landing; also the exporter's mark and number, with the weight of each at the time of entry for exportation; and write off the weight of each package from the identical entry thereof at importation. Every person refusing, or neglecting so to do, forfeits 5l. for every package, besides loss of drawback; and the searcher is not to admit any cocket, unless marked as afore said. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 6.

— Unmanufactured, may not be laden in any vessel in Great-Britain, with intent to be exported, but in casks, chests, or cases only, containing 425 pounds weight or more of tobacco in each, on forfeiture of the tobacco and

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

cask, &c. containing the same; except packages containing samples shipped and exported at the same time and place with the casks, &c. out of which they were taken. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 21.

— Exported (though manufactured) in any package but casks of three hundred weight or more, is not to be allowed any drawback, except tobacco cut or rolled. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 14.

— Mixed with rubbish or dirt, or any other thing, shall be allowed no drawback; and every person who shall enter or ship such for exportation, or cause it to be done, or who shall enter any thing as tobacco for exportation, which, upon examination by the proper officer, appears not to be so, shall forfeit all the goods and the package; and 50*l.* for every package. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 24.

— Manufactured or unmanufactured; may not be entered or shipped for exportation in any vessel, not of the burthen of 70 tons or upwards, except to Ireland; and if exported thither in any vessel under the burthen of 20 tons, it is not to be allowed any drawback. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 25. 8 Ann. c. 13. §. 20.

— Any officer of the customs apprehending a vessel outward-bound with tobacco on board, not of the burthen of 70 tons or upwards, he may stop and detain her, and the whole cargo, 'till she is admeasured, as directed by 6 Geo. I. c. 21. and if she proves to be of that burthen, he shall not be subject to any action for damages; but the master of such vessel entering and clearing her out as of that burthen, when she is under it, forfeits 100*l.* for every such offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 25. 8 Ann. c. 13. §. 20.

TOBACCO EXPORTED TO IRELAND.—If, upon producing a certificate, less appears to be landed there than shipped from hence, an allowance not exceeding two per cent. may be made for waste during the voyage. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 48.

— Entered for other foreign parts, if landed in Ireland, is forfeited, and double the drawback; and the debenture for the drawback is to be void. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 49.

— Entered out for any other place than Ireland, the exporter is to swear that the same is not landed in any part of Great-Britain or Ireland. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 50.

— Imported from the **BRITISH PLANTATIONS** in America.—The importer manufacturing it, or delivering it out to be manufactured upon his own account, must first deliver to the collector, or chief officer of the customs, at the port of importation, an account in writing, signed by himself and the manufacturer, or their known agents, with their names and places of abode, containing the plantations or manifest mark and number of each package, with the name of the ship, and time when imported, the landing mark and number, the weight at importation, and the weight at the time of delivering it out; and the importer must write off the weight from the entry at importation. The penalty for neglecting to give or sign such account, or knowingly giving or signing a fraudulent one, is 30*l.* for every package, by each person concerned. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 7.

— The importer selling or delivering such tobacco out of his possession, must, within 14 days after delivery, give to the collector the same account in writing, signed by himself and the purchaser, or their known agents, and write off the weight from the entry in the same manner, and subject to the same penalties, as in case of delivering it out to be manufactured. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 8.

— **REMOVED BY LAND.**—**TOBACCO** OR **TOBACCO STALKS**, exceeding 24*lb.* weight, or **SNUFF** exceeding 10*lb.* weight, may not be conveyed from the place of importation to any other place in Great-Britain, without a certificate from the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the customs, at the place of importation; and if unmanufactured, with the importer's oath thereto (if the importer applies for it) that the duties were paid or secured at importation, by whom, when, and in what ship imported; or with the purchaser's oath thereto (if he applies for it) attesting the marks and numbers of the hogheads, out of which it was taken, from whom purchased, and when: if **TOBACCO-STALKS** or **SNUFF**, or **MANUFACTURED TOBACCO**, are so removed, then the certificate must have the importer's oath thereto (if he applies for it) that such stalks were stripped, or such snuff or manufactured tobacco was made, from one or more hogheads, for which the duties were by him paid or secured at importation; or the purchaser's oath thereto (if he applies for it) that such stalks were stripped, or the snuff or manufactured tobacco was made, from one or more hogheads, which had been delivered and received according to the direction of this act; which certificate such officers are to grant, and after entering in their books, to deliver to the person applying for the same, without fee or reward for certificate or oath, on forfeiture of 10*l.* for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 9.

TOBACCO.—The proprietor, factor, or agent of the tobacco, &c. (before it is removed) is to insert on the back of the certificate the names of each package, with the marks and numbers, and the weight of each species of goods in each package, the place from whence delivered, and to which they are to

be conveyed; and by whom, or the name of the inn from whence carried, and the name of the person to whom consigned; and to which he must subscribe his name, and make oath to the truth thereof. The certificate must express the number of days it is to continue in force, and accompany the goods to the place to which they are to be carried; and the person there receiving it, must cause it to be delivered to the chief officer of the customs there; or if there is no officer of the customs, to the officer of excise for that division, who is to examine the same with the goods; which, if they agree therewith, are to be taken away by the person to whom they belong; and such officer is to enter the certificate in a book kept for that purpose. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 10. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 4.

— Such goods, in the quantity above-mentioned, removing by land without such certificate, are forfeited, and the packages, together with the cattle and carriages; and the carrier, or person employed in removing the same, is to be committed to the county gaol for one month, by a justice of the peace for the county where the offence is committed, or the offender found.—And any person, who shall counterfeit, forge, erase, or alter such certificate, or the duplicate thereof, or procure the same to be done, shall forfeit 50*l.* for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 12.

— Such goods, in the quantity above-mentioned, may not be conveyed by land from any place in Great-Britain to any other, unless the package is marked on the outside with the respective words **TOBACCO**, **TOBACCO-STALKS**, or **SNUFF**, in letters not less than three inches in length, on forfeiture thereof, with the package, and also 1*s.* per pound weight to be paid by the owner thereof. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 23.

TOBACCO REMOVED BY WATER.—No **TOBACCO**, **TOBACCO-STALKS**, or **SNUFF**, may be shipped on board any vessel to be carried by water from any place in Great-Britain to any other, until every part thereof is entered at the custom-house, at the port nearest the place where they are shipped; and if **UNMANUFACTURED**, it must be shipped in the original package in which it was imported, preserving the same marks and numbers, but not without a certificate from the collector or comptroller, or chief officer of the customs at the port of importation, that the duties thereof were paid or secured at importation; by whom, the time when, and in what vessel imported: if it is **TOBACCO-STALKS**, or **SNUFF**; or other **MANUFACTURED TOBACCO**, it is not to be so shipped without a certificate from the said officers, that the duties were paid or secured at importation, for the tobacco from which they were stripped, made, or manufactured; which certificates the said officers are required to grant to the importer, or his known agent, applying for the same, without fee or reward, on forfeiture of 10*l.* for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 13.

— Before such goods are shipped, the proprietor must insert on the back of the certificate the names of each particular package, with the marks and numbers, the weight of each particular species of goods in each package, and the place from whence brought, and to which they are to be carried. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 14.

— The certificate must, before shipping, be delivered by the proprietor to the person taking charge of the vessel, who, immediately upon his arrival in any port or place in Great-Britain, must deliver it to the collector or chief officer there, who must examine the goods with the certificate; and if they agree therewith, the goods are to be discharged, and may be taken away by the person to whom they belong. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 15.

— Such goods found on board any vessel before such certificate is obtained, or without its being on board therewith, or if it is forged, or does not agree in all respects with the goods, then all such goods are forfeited, together with the packages, and may be seized and prosecuted by any officer of the customs; and the person taking charge of the vessel shall forfeit 6*d.* per pound weight; and any person who shall counterfeit, forge, erase, or alter such certificate, shall forfeit 100*l.* 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 16.

TOBACCO, or **TOBACCO-STALKS**, exceeding 24 pounds weight, or **SNUFF** exceeding 10 pounds weight (which has been removed by water from the place of importation to any other place in Great-Britain) may not be removed afterwards from thence by land, without a certificate from the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the customs, at the place to which they were carried by water, that it appears to them by the entry of the certificate, which came by the goods from the place of importation, that the duties thereof were paid or secured there, and in what vessel they were brought by water, and when, and that the person applying for the same had made oath to the truth thereof; which certificate such officers are required (after writing it in their books) to deliver to any person applying for it. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 22.

— The proprietor of the goods, or his factor or agent (before they are removed) must insert on the back of the certificate the names of each package, with the marks and numbers,

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

numbers, the weight of each species of goods in each package, the place from whence brought, and to which they are to be carried, and the name of the person to whom they shall be sent, which he must subscribe with his name, and make oath to the truth thereof.—And such goods found so removing without such certificate, or if the certificate appears to be forged or counterfeited, are forfeited, and the package, together with the horses, cattle, and carriages employed, and may be seized and prosecuted by any officer of the customs: the carrier or person employed in the removal also forfeits 10 l. and is to be committed to the county-gaol for one month by any justice of the peace for the county where the offence is committed, or the offender found.—And any person who shall counterfeit, forge, erase, or alter such certificate or duplicate thereof, or procure it to be done, shall forfeit 100 l. for every offence. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 22.

TOBACCO.—The second purchaser of an intire hoghead of unmanufactured tobacco, is intitled to the benefit of a certificate on removal by land or water, in like manner as the first purchaser from the importer; but in this certificate the name of the importer or seller may be omitted, provided the seller to the second purchaser has delivered to the collector, or chief officer of the customs at the port of importation, such accounts as the importer is required to give by 24 Geo. II. c. 41. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 6.

— Any certificate for removal of tobacco, tobacco-stalks, or snuff, by land or water, is to be deemed a proper one, though the name of the importer is not inserted therein, provided his name is expressed in the bill from which the certificate is prepared. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 5.

— Any person who shall put out, alter, or deface any mark or number set upon any package of tobacco in America, or in Great-Britain, at importation or exportation, shall forfeit 20 l. for each package. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 19.

— Tobacco-stalks and snuff, seized and condemned, are to be burnt in the presence of the collector and comptroller of the customs at the place where the goods are at the time of condemnation; or, for want of such, in the presence of the collector or supervisor of excise for that district. 24 Geo. II. c. 47. §. 27, 28.

— The officers who seized and prosecuted, are to be paid (if it is tobacco, or tobacco-snuff) at the same rate as if it was sold for 6 d. per pound, which by 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 10. being one-third of the gross sale clear of all charges, amounts to 2 d. per pound: if tobacco-stalks, or damaged tobacco, they are to be paid 1 d. per pound, in lieu of all other allowance, by the receiver-general of the customs at London or Edinburgh respectively, or by the collector of the out-ports where seized and burnt, out of any duties applicable to incidents; provided the officers, before whom it was burnt, certify to the respective commissioners of the customs the exact quantity burnt, who are thereupon to grant their order for payment. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 27, 28.

The following particulars are to be transmitted to the register of tobacco by the persons under mentioned, viz. an account of the certificate received with the goods by the officer of the customs or excise respectively; and duplicates of original certificates for removing by land, by the officers who granted them at the port of importation; and certificates for removal by water by the chief officer of the customs at the port where the goods were landed, within one month after he receives it, provided the goods agree therewith; and duplicates of certificates for removal by land, after the first removal by water, by the person who granted it; and once in every calendar month, one of the land-waiters book of the landing and discharging of tobacco imported from the British plantations in America, and copies of every entry thereof for exportation, with the endorsements, and copies of every account of tobacco intended to be manufactured, and copies of every account of tobacco sold by the importer, to be transmitted by the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the customs, of every port in Great-Britain where the business was transacted: which several accounts are to be by him entered in such manner and form, that the marks and numbers of every hoghead, cask, or other package, and their weights at importation, may be compared with the marks, &c. respectively at exportation, or delivery for home-consumption, or to be manufactured, in order to preserve the identity thereof; and the said register is to transmit to the commissioners of the customs, at London and Edinburgh respectively, an account in writing of any thing which appears to be done contrary to the meaning of this act; and once in 6 months he is to lay before the lords of the treasury, a copy of such his representations made to the said commissioners. Any collector, or chief officer, neglecting to transmit any of the accounts before-mentioned, to forfeit 50 l. for every such neglect. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 10, 11, 15, 17, 22.

TOBACCO imported from the British plantations in America.—The importer is every year, between the 1st and 24th of June, to deliver to the collector, or chief officer of

the customs, at the port of importation, an account in writing, under his hand, of all tobacco in his custody, power, or possession, which has been entered 18 months or more at that time, containing the number of packages, with the respective marks, numbers, and weights of each, and the place where lodged; upon receipt of which, such officer is to cause the goods to be examined thereby, and then to transmit the account to the register of tobacco. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 18.

Any importer neglecting so to do, or if the account proves fraudulent in any respect, forfeits 50 l. for every offence.—Ditto act of parliament.

— Any vessel, under the burthen of 70 tons, having on board 100 lb. weight of tobacco, or any tobacco-stalks, or 50 lb. weight of snuff, found at anchor, or hovering within the limits of any port, or within two leagues of the shore, or discovered to have been within the limits of any port, and not proceeding on her voyage, (unless in case of unavoidable necessity and distress of weather, of which the master, purser, or person taking charge, must give notice, and make proof before the collector, or chief officer of the customs, immediately after arrival) all such goods are forfeited, with the package, or the value thereof, whether bulk shall have been broke or not; and the master, or person taking charge of the vessel, forfeits 100 l.

— And if any vessel, above the burthen of 70 tons, having such goods on board, shall be found hovering as aforesaid, and no notice of distress is given, the master, or person taking charge of it, forfeits 100 l. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 26.

TOBACCO-STALKS, or SNUFF, removed from one place to another in greater quantities than by 24 Geo. II. c. 21. is allowed, and not attended with the certificate required, may be seized and prosecuted by any officer of the customs or excise; and the proof that it was removed from the port of importation with a proper certificate, and that the duties thereon were paid or secured, is to lie on the claimer, and not on the officer who seized it. 26 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 2.

TOBACCO.—All bonds for payment of duties on tobacco, shall be deemed to be due and payable upon the day of payment, mentioned in the condition of the bond, and interest to be computed from the said day whereon the bond shall be paid off in money, or the day the searcher certifies on the debenture, that the tobacco is shipped for exportation; and no security to be vacated till all interest be paid thereon. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 29.

— The chancellor, or either of the barons, of the Exchequer, to grant a fiat for issuing process of immediate extent against any person bound for the duties on tobacco before the bond becomes due, on affidavit laid before him by one of the securities, or the executor or administrator of such security, that the person bound is decayed in circumstances, and setting forth the danger of loss to the crown, unless some more speedy method of recovery than usual be made use of: if the money is recovered before the bond becomes due, the obliger is to be allowed therefrom the usual discounts. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 30.

— The penalties and forfeitures by this act are to be, one moiety to the use of his Majesty, &c. and the other moiety to the use of such person as shall inform, prosecute, or sue for the same; and the said penalties and forfeitures may be sued for, and the causes arising by this act may be tried and determined in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, if such offences are committed in England, or if the offender be in England at the time of commencing the prosecution; or in the court of Exchequer at Edinburgh, if the offence be committed in Scotland, or the offender be in Scotland at the time of commencing the prosecution, at the election of the commissioners of the customs for England and Scotland respectively. 24 Geo. II. c. 41. §. 33.

TOBACCO, of the growth of Europe, or mixed therewith, may not be sold or delivered to the seamen on board any of his Majesty's ships of war. 6 Ann. c. 22. §. 12.

— The stalks or stems, stripped from the leaf, may not be imported; and upon seizure and condemnation, the commissioners of the customs may cause them to be publicly burnt, allowing the seizer 1 d. per pound weight, clear of all charges of condemnation. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 13.

— The **STALKS or STEMS**, when separated from the rest of the leaf, and exported by themselves, are not to have any drawback. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 20.

— May not be planted in Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernsey, or Jersey, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and 40 s. for every rod or pole of ground planted; half to the king, and half to the suer; and also 10 l. more; one-third to the king, one-third to the poor of the parish, and one-third to the suer.—Except in physic-gardens, and not exceeding half a rod in any one garden.—Sheriffs, justices, &c. within ten days after information, are to cause such tobacco to be destroyed.—Justices, a month before each general quarter sessions, are to issue out warrants to the constables, &c. to search for such tobacco, and to make a presentation upon

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

upon oath, at the quarter-sessions.—Constables, within 14 days after such warrant, may call assistance, and destroy such tobacco; upon neglect, are to forfeit 5 s. per rod.—Assistance refused, the forfeiture is 5 s.—Resisting, the penalty is imprisonment for three months, or to forfeit 5 l. and imprisonment, till a recognizance of 10 l. penalty, with two securities, be entered into, not to offend again. 12 Car. II. c. 34. §. 1, &c. 15 Car. II. c. 7. §. 18, &c. 22 Car. II. c. 26. §. 2, &c. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 19.

LEAVES OF WALNUTS, hops, sycamore, or any other leaves, herbs, plants, or materials, may not be cut in the form, or in imitation of any of the usual sizes or cuts of tobacco of the British plantations, or coloured or cured, to resemble such tobacco for sale, or knowingly sold or offered to sale as such tobacco, upon forfeiture of 5 s. per pound weight. The charges of prosecution to be borne by his Majesty. 1 Geo. I. c. 46. §. 1.

—Such leaves, &c. may not be exported with intent to obtain a drawback, as for tobacco, upon forfeiture of 5 s. per pound weight, besides former penalties. 1 Geo. I. c. 46. §. 2.

—May, with all engines, utensils, and tools, be searched for, and seized by the officers of the customs, at reasonable hours, and with a warrant from the justices; who, at their quarter-sessions, are to determine such seizure, and after condemnation, cause them to be burnt. 1 Geo. I. c. 46. §. 3, 4.

Servants employed in cutting, manufacturing, &c. or selling, upon conviction before two justices, may be committed to the house of correction, there to remain, not exceeding six months. 1 Geo. I. c. 46. §. 5.

TOBACCO-PIPE CLAY. See the conclusion of letter W.

WOOL.
TURKEY.—Currants, and all goods of the growth, product, or manufacture of Turkey, must be imported only in ships belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland; except such ships as are of the built of the country whereof the said goods are the growth, production, or manufacture, or of such port where the said goods commonly, or most usually, are first shipped for transportation, on forfeiture of ship and goods. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 8.

V.

V E N

VENICE. This ancient republic may be divided into three parts: these are the dominions in Italy, called *Terma Firma*; those in *Dalmatia*, and those in the *Ionian* and *Egean Seas*; called the *Levant*. The *Terra Firma* dominions are again subdivided into the following territories, viz. the *Dagado* of Venice, the *Padnano*, *Vicentino*, *Veronese*, *Bresciano*, *Bergamasco*, *Friuli* and *Aquilegio*, *Istria*, *Cremesco*, *Polesin de Revigo*, *Marcas Trevigiana*.—The coasts of *Dalmatia* contain the towns of *Zara*, *Nona*, *Spalato*, *Sebenico*, *Trau*, *Cliffa*, and *Cattara*; and the isles of *Charto*, *Otero*, *Vegtia*, or *Vegia*, *Arbe*, *Pago*, *Isola*, *Longa*, *La Barza*, *Lessna*, *Curzola*, and some few more of small note.—In the *Levant*, the isles of *Cephalonia*, *Corfu*, *Zant*, *La Praga*, *Millo*, *Cerigo*, *Tine*, *Kimolo*, or *Argentaria*, and the *Morea*.

The Venetians have little produce of the country, or manufacture of the people, except the silk, and the filken manufactures: the former respects the land part, the latter the city, where many of the silk manufactures are made: but yet the state is very opulent, because they abound with universal merchants; and this is owing to an universal correspondence, by which, as the Dutch are to these northern parts, so are the Venetians to all the shores of the *Adriatic gulph*, the isles of the *Arches*, and the sea-coasts of the *Turkish dominions*; for to all these places they send their ships, freighted with the growth and manufactures of other countries, as *England*, *Holland*, *France*, *New Spain*, &c. in return for which they bring but few goods, except from *Turkey*, whence they bring large quantities of silk, which they sell again, among their own manufacturers in the city, as also in their *Terra Firma* dominions, and likewise to the duchies of *Milan* and *Mantua*.

By their inland commerce they convey their silk into the several countries as well of their own dominions, as those of the emperor, and into all the countries between the gulph and the river *Danube*; through all which the Venetians have a great and flourishing commerce, partly by the help of canals, and partly by small navigable rivers.

The trade which may be called their own, and which is more considerable, is by the navigation of those great rivers the *Po*, the *Adige*, the *Adda*, the *Mincio*, and others, by which they carry all the heavy goods they import from foreign parts, into the rich and populous provinces of *Lombardy*, and have a communication even with *Milan* and *Turin*.

By these rivers, also, they have a correspondence with the country of *Trent* and *Tirol*, and even with *Bavaria* itself; as also, by the lower branches of the *Po*, and the canal de *Ferrara*, they have with all the southern provinces of the papal dominions, as *Ferrara*, *Bologna*, *Urbino*, and *Parma*, and as far into the country westward as *Modena*, &c.

As they have the sole commerce of most of these countries, and in such a manner as not to be interrupted by any rival nations, it is not to be wondered that the Venetians have a very thriving and gainful trade, and that they can advantageously disperse the large importations they make from almost all parts of Europe, as from *Spain*, *Portugal*, *England*, and *Holland*, they having a considerable call for goods from them all.

Nor do they bring any valuable returns back from their inland countries, for they have few productions in those provinces, except corn: neither have they metals or minerals, iron excepted; nor wool, cotton, or hair, or any considerable manufacture for employing their people: so that the Venetians are said to drive the most ready-money trade of any of the *Mediterranean* countries, because they export such great quantities of goods to countries which have no returns to make them but money.

However, they receive large quantities of other merchandize from the *Turkish dominions*; it is thought more than any one nation besides. The particulars are,

Raw silk, directly from *Smyrna* and *Scanderoon*.
Coffee, from the *Red-Sea*, by the way of *Alexandria*.
Spices, from *India*, and by the same way.

Drugs, &c. { Galls, from *Aleppo*.
 { Mastic, and } from *Scio*.
 { Turpentine, }

V E N

Drugs, &c. { Senna,
 { Balm,
 { Mummy,
 { Dates, and } from *Egypt*.
 { India cotton, }

Cotton, and cotton-yarn, from *Cyprus*.

Greek wines from the islands.

Though the Venetians may have mines of iron and lead in the territories of the *Vicentine* and *Friule*, and in other parts, yet we find *English* lead and *Swedish* iron have a good market at Venice, as also *English* block-tin, and most kinds of wrought iron and brass: nor have we yet had any sufficient proof of those metals being found there in quantities, except some iron, as far off as *Stiria* and *Carinthia*.

The Venetians were formerly the principal glass-makers in Europe, and furnished all this part of the world with looking-glasses, and other glass wares of all sorts, which were in high esteem. But they have been excelled by the *French*, and the *French* by the *English*, who, without flattery, do now make the best glass wares in the world; and the *English* plate-glass and drinking-glasses are carried not to *France* only, but even to Venice itself.

They have a very considerable silk manufacture, as before noticed, not only in the city of Venice, but in the countries of *Brescia*, *Verona*, *Bergamo*, and other parts; and they carry their fine brocaded silks, velvets, sattins, and *Mantua* silks, as also figured damasks, to *Constantinople* one way, and to *Vienna* the other way: and this trade is very considerable, and it brings them great returns in money, and employs multitudes of their people.

The Venetians have another trade, which is of no less concernment, it being almost peculiar to themselves; it consists in naval stores: for the provinces of the *Vicentine*, the *Trevigiana*, and part of *Friuli*, are full of firs, and those so well grown and large, that they cut masts there, even for their biggest ships of war: they have likewise good oak for building. In consequence of their fir woods, they have pitch and tar; and the same countries produce great quantities of hemp and flax: so that they have deals, timber, masts, sails, hemp, flax, pitch, and tar, all of their own; which none of the princes or states in the *Mediterranean* can boast of in the same manner.

Nor is this solely beneficial to them in regard to their own navy, and to fill their own magazines, but they furnish all those materials, in great quantities, to the other ports of Italy, as *Genoa*, *Naples*, *Messina*, and *Palermo*, or to any other places where they build ships, especially those of force; and the knights of *Malta* fetch most of their naval stores from hence. Were the countries this way furnished for trade, and with wealth sufficient to carry it on, they would send hither for ships, and Venice would be the arsenal of the *Mediterranean*, as *Holland* has been of other parts of Europe.

They are possessed of a very large coast on the other side of the *Adriatic gulph*, called *Dalmatia*, where they have some good ports, though no city of any considerable commerce; neither does the country produce any thing extraordinary for merchandize: it supplies the city of Venice with corn and mutton, in great quantities; and, in return, the Venetians supply the people with their foreign merchandize.

Yet the Venetians want many things which their own territories cannot supply them with, and which, since they lost so much of their dominions to the *Turks*, they are obliged to purchase from them, and from the *Greeks* under the *Turkish* government: and these are as well necessities as merchandize.

They have no wine; the mountainous countries to the north of the city are, like the *Alps*, too cold for the vines, nor do they pretend to make any: and therefore they are so meanly supplied by the *Greeks*, who mix water with their rich wines, till they reduce them almost to water: yet the Venetians, taking care to reduce the price in proportion, are content with the liquor, though they know it is so spoiled.

They are supplied with wines from several of the islands, as particularly from

SKYROS, where the wine is very good and rich, and bought very cheap.

NEGROPONT: here the Venetians buy very good wine also, and raisins of the sun, or dried grapes: but the wine is dearer here than at Skyros.

ANDROS: from hence the Venetians fetch both wine and oil, also good oranges and lemons; and pomegranates they bring thence in such plenty, that they make a kind of vinegar of their juice.

TINOS: here the Venetians fetch the best wines they drink, except that of Florence, of which we have spoken already; and, as this island is their own, they encourage the trade very much. Also the Venetians fetch a great deal of silk here, of a meaner sort than the Italian and Turkey silk, which they fraudulently mix with it sometimes in their manufactures, but principally use it in making tapestry, and other substantial manufactures.

MYCONE: here is that wine, which, though excellent well-tasted, and rich and strong in its natural original as a juice, is so greatly adulterated by the Myconians, before they bring it to Venice.

The Venetians bring cotton-yarn, also, and goat's-hair, from these islands, and several kinds of silk, some worse than that of Tinos, and some better. The cotton and hair they work into several useful manufactures, which supply the place of woollen, for they have very little wool, and what they have is of little use in any kind of manufacture: wherefore they import considerable quantities of English, and other woollen manufactures.

They have some refining-houses for sugar, they purchasing large quantities of muscavado sugars in England and in France, which they boil and refine, as is done in England; they also refine the Brazil sugars, though very white before.

Their manufacture of bone-lace is still considerable, as well for the use of the city, as for the trade of the countries adjacent; but is so much outdone by the Flanders manufacture, that very little, if any, is brought into these parts of the world.

It should not be omitted, among their importations, that they fetch a great quantity of wax from all those islands above named, which they generally consume in the city of Venice, where the quantity they use is very great, almost all the persons of figure burning none but wax candles, and the poorer sort lamps, for they have but little tallow.

It may be observed here, that the cities of Venice and of Rome are, of all the cities of Europe for their bigness, the most noted for pomp and shew, the confluence of strangers to both being scarce conceivable. At Venice, the diversions of the carnival, the magnificence of the buildings, among which are 400 noblemens palaces, with the splendid appearance of ladies richly attired, &c.

This causes a prodigious trade in things otherwise of no great moment, as equipages, coaches, gondaloes, liveries, habits of ceremony, and such things; as also in furniture, paintings, and other extraordinaries of that kind. Hence there are more taylors, upholsters, gold and silver lace-makers, embroiderers, and, to sum up all, footmen and pages, and you may allow me to add fiddlers and strumpets, than in any other city in the world, Paris and London excepted.

At Venice, the numerous throng of gentry, and persons of the first quality, to the carnival, is such, that they frequently number 20 or 30 sovereign princes there at a time, besides others of lower rank, without number: and the noblemen of Venice themselves, though they are very numerous, and affect splendor and magnificence in apparel and jewels, as also in their furniture, yet they do not entertain so many valets, and other domestics, as is the custom at Rome: and because they cannot keep coaches and horses in Venice, yet their grandeur the other way is equally expensive, and occasions abundance of those trades before enumerated.

Nor, indeed, does any thing conduce more to the promoting commerce, than the gay and sumptuous dress of the people, especially where the humour once becomes national, as it is at Venice, as well as at Rome.

The Venetians trade with the Turks in the Morea, and the gulph of Theffalonica, and to some of the islands, as before observed. And as those countries are full of Greeks, and other Christian inhabitants, they carry them proper manufactures, such as wrought silks, fine linen, bone-lace, and all sorts of haberdashery for the women, who love to go fine, especially in the isles. What they carry back in return is difficult to enquire, but is from all parts according to the production of the place, such as currants, raisins, figs, drugs, rice, corn, oil, wine, cotton, silk, &c. and this is the reason why Venice is the magazine for the scarcest drugs, and from whence they are sent over the whole Christian world. As for money, they take little in the islands; the islanders rather carry some money from the Venetians.

Of the FOREIGN EXCHANGES of VENICE.

The usance of Venice with respect to the following places, viz.

To Amsterdam, two months after date.

VOL. II.

To Antwerp	} 2 months	} after date;
Hamburg		
London		
Auguste	} 3 months	}
Vienna		
Franckfort	} 15 days	} after acception.
St Gall		
Genoa		
Naples	} 5 days	
Florence		
Leghorn	} 20 days	
Rome		
Milan	20 days after date.	

After the expiration of the time of these different usances, bills of exchange have six days of grace to run.

It is forbidden to pay or accept bills of exchange endorsed, if not by the procurator of the last endorser. All bills of exchange drawn upon any place or fair whatsoever must, under pain of being void, be paid in bank, and the bank keep their accounts, and almost the whole republic also, in ducats and gros.

There are particular persons who keep their accounts in livres, sols and deniers gros, whose subdivisions are by 20 and 12; and others keep them in ducats current.

The lira, or livre = 10 ducats bank, or 240 grossi.

The ducat of bank imaginary money, which is used in the exchanges, = 24 grossi, or 124 soldi, or 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ liras.

The gros = 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ soldi banco, or 32 piccioli.

The soldo banco = 12 gros, or $\frac{1}{2}$ ducat banco.

The lira, or livre banco, = 240 gros, or 10 ducats banco = 12 ducats current, or 74 liras 8 soldi piccioli.

The ducat bank = 7 liras, 8 soldi, 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ piccioli, or 148 $\frac{1}{2}$ soldi current, or piccioli.

The word piccioli signifies a denier, or a penny, and it is also called current money, piccioli or current being synonymous words.

The sequin of gold = 20 liras current money, and is of the standard of 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ carats, and it weighs 66 grains.

The Venetian crown, or ducaton, = 8 liras 10 soldi of the said money; of the standard of 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers, and it weighs 600 grains.

The reduction of ducats bank money into current, and the latter again into the former; and also of liras bank into liras piccioli, and liras piccioli into liras bank.

800 duc. 12 sols d'or ban. * 960 duc. 14 fol. 5 den. d'or cur.
 $\frac{1}{2}$ 160 2 5 to be add. | 160 2 5 the $\frac{1}{2}$ to be sub.

* 960 duc. 14 5 den. cur. = 800 duc. 12 sols d'or in banco:
 6 liras 4 soldi 6 liras 4 soldi

5760	4800
192	160
3 liras 2 soldi pic.	3 liras 2 soldi pic.
1 4 4	0 12 5
0 2 6	

5956	8	10 cur.	4963	14	5 banco.
$\frac{1}{2}$ 992	14	5 sub.	992	14	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ to be added:

4963 14 5 ban. = 5956 8 10 current.

Besides the bank money of the prince, there is another current money, which gives a sur-agio from 15 to 20 per cent. according to particular conjunctures.

Besides the abovesaid bank and current monies, there are liras piccioli, which is the money with which merchandizes are ordinarily bought, and these are reduced into ducats current, of 6 liras 4 soldi, by multiplying the liras by 20 soldi, and by dividing the product by 124 soldi, the value of the ducat current.

The lira, or lire, = 20 soldi piccioli.

The soldo, or fol, = 12 piccioli, or bagattini.

We shall now touch upon the several operations of the exchanges, in order to know for what sums bills must be made, that I would remit to my correspondents of the undermentioned cities, in their several and respective monies.

Before we enter into these operations, it is proper to apprise the reader that, for the same reasons given under the article HOLLAND, in relation to the exchange between that republic and Spain, with regard to the reduction of the parts of the ducat of 375 marvedees, in like manner we shall, for facility of computation, subdivide the ducat banco of Venice into 20 sols d'or, and 12 deniers d'or, although the ordinary subdivision is into 24 gros, or 124 marchetti; and, in conformity hereto, we will suppose that I owe the following sums, in ducats, sols, and deniers d'or, bank money, to my several correspondents.

VEN

	Duc.	Sols	Den.	Course of Exchange.	
At Amsterdam,	1060	17	3	at 88 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros	} per said ducat banco.
Antwerp	600	10	—	at 92 deniers gros of exchange	
London	14.9	18	1	at 52 $\frac{3}{4}$ pence sterling	} per said ducat banco.
Hamburgh	552	10	4	at 86 $\frac{7}{8}$ gros of Hamburgh	
Genoa	373	15	—	at 107 marchetti per crown of 4 lires banco.	
Leghorn	785	1	—	at 102 piaftres of 20 sol d'or, per 100 duc. banco.	
Rome	2258	17	5	at 62 crowns d'estampe per 100 ducats banco.	
Naples	515	—	5	at 116 $\frac{1}{2}$ ducats of 10 carlins per 100 ditto.	
Lyons	800	12	—	at 62 ducats banco per 100 crowns of 3 lires.	
Augusta	500	15	—	at 96 rixdollars of 90 kreutzers per 100 duc. banco.	
Vienna	542	12	9	at 188 florins current per 100 ditto.	
Milan	724	3	6	at 154 marchetti per crown of 117 s. exchange.	
Ancona	400	—	—	at 93 crowns of 10 julios per 100 ducats banco.	
Florence	300	—	—	at 78 crowns of 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ lires per 100 ditto.	
Bolzano	800	—	—	at 136 marchetti per rixd. of 93 kreutzers exch.	
Novi	1930	—	—	at 13, ducats banco per 100 crowns mark.	

CASE I.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon HOLLAND.

To reduce 1060 duc. 17 sols 3 deniers banco of Venice, into florins, sols, and penings banco of Amsterdam, exchange at 88 $\frac{1}{2}$ den. per ducat as above.

OPERATION.

1060 Ducats, 17 sols, 3 deniers, multiplied
By the 88 $\frac{1}{2}$ Deniers gros of exchange.

$$\begin{array}{r} 8480 \\ 8480 \\ 265 \text{ for } \frac{1}{4} \text{ of } 1060 \\ 44 \frac{1}{8} \text{ for } 10 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{2} \\ 22 \text{ for } 5 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{4} \\ 8 \frac{6}{8} \text{ for } 2 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{8} \\ 1 \frac{1}{8} \text{ for } 3 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{8} \end{array} \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{r} 8480 \\ 8480 \\ 265 \text{ for } \frac{1}{4} \text{ of } 1060 \\ 44 \frac{1}{8} \text{ for } 10 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{2} \\ 22 \text{ for } 5 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{4} \\ 8 \frac{6}{8} \text{ for } 2 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{8} \\ 1 \frac{1}{8} \text{ for } 3 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{8} \end{array}} \right\} \text{of the exchange.}$$

9362 $\frac{1}{2}$ Deniers gros.

the $\frac{1}{4}$ 2340 florins, 10 sols, 8 penings banco, for which the draught must be made upon Amsterdam.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 1060 duc. 17 sols 3 den. by the price of exchange of 88 $\frac{1}{2}$, and divide by 40 deniers gros, the value of a florin, and the quotient will be 2340 florins, 10 sols, 8 penings banco, to be received at Amsterdam; the proof of which you have under the article HOLLAND, in the exchange of Holland upon Venice.

CASE II.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon ANTWERP.

To reduce 600 $\frac{1}{2}$ ducats banco of Venice, into livres, sols, and deniers gros, permission money* of Antwerp, exchange at 92 per ducat.

* It must be observed, that Antwerp, and all Brabant, exchanges with most places in exchange or permission-money, as it is called, which differs 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. from the current money; that is, 100 livres gros exchange money, make 108 $\frac{1}{2}$ livres gros current money; thus the crown of 48 palais exchange money, makes 52 palais, or sols, current money.

OPERATION.

600 $\frac{1}{2}$ Ducats banco, to be multiplied
By 92 Deniers gros exchange.

$$\begin{array}{r} 1200 \\ 5400 \\ 46 \text{ for the } \frac{1}{2}. \end{array}$$

55246 Deniers to be divided by 240, give 230 livres, 3 sols, 10 deniers gros, money of exchange, or permission-money, for which sum the draught must be made upon Antwerp.

Multiply the 600 $\frac{1}{2}$ ducats by the price of exchange of 92 deniers; and divide the product 55246 by 240 deniers gros, the value of a livre gros, and the quotient will be 230 livres, with a remainder of 46 to be multiplied by 20 sols, the value of the said livre, and dividing by the same it gives 3 sols, with another remainder of 200, which being multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a sol, and divided again by the same divisor, you will have 10 deniers gros to be received at Antwerp.—The proof of which must be easy to those who understand the operation.

CASE III.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon LONDON.

To reduce 1459 ducats, 18 sols, 1 denier d'or, bank money of Venice, into pounds shillings, and pence sterling of England, exchange at 52 $\frac{3}{4}$ pence sterling per ducat.

VEN

OPERATION.

1459 Ducats, 18 sols, 1 denier, to be multiplied
By 52 $\frac{3}{4}$ pence sterling, the exchange.

$$\begin{array}{r} 2918 \\ 7295 \\ 729 \frac{4}{8} \text{ for } \frac{1}{2} \text{ of } 1459 \\ 364 \frac{6}{8} \text{ for } \frac{1}{4} \text{ of } 1459 \\ 26 \frac{3}{8} \text{ for } 10 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{2}. \\ 13 \frac{1}{8} \text{ for } 5 \text{ — the } \frac{1}{4}. \\ 5 \frac{2}{8} \text{ for } 2 \text{ — the } \frac{1}{8}. \\ 2 \frac{5}{8} \text{ for } 1 \text{ — the } \frac{1}{8}. \\ 3 \frac{3}{8} \text{ for } 1 \text{ denier.} \end{array}$$

77010 pence sterling, to be divided by 12 and 20, give 320l. 17s. 6d. sterling, for which the draught must be made upon London.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 1459 ducats, 18 sols, 1 denier, by the price of exchange of 52 $\frac{3}{4}$ pence sterling, divide the product 77010 pence by 12 and 20, and you have pounds, shillings, and pence sterling. Note, The proof of this must be so easy to those at all acquainted with arithmetic, that we think it needless to say more.

CASE IV.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon HAMBURGH.

To reduce 552 ducats, 10 sols, 4 deniers banco of Venice, into marks lubbs of banco of Hamburgh, exchange at 86 $\frac{7}{8}$ gros of Hamburgh, per said ducat.

OPERATION.

552 Ducats, 10 sols, 4 deniers banco, to be multiplied
By 86 $\frac{7}{8}$ gros exchange.

$$\begin{array}{r} 3312 \\ 4416 \\ 276 \text{ for } \frac{4}{8} \text{ the } \frac{1}{2} \\ 138 \text{ for } \frac{2}{8} \text{ the } \frac{1}{4} \\ 69 \text{ for } \frac{1}{8} \text{ the } \frac{1}{8} \\ 43 \frac{3}{8} \text{ for } 10 \text{ sols.} \\ 1 \frac{5}{8} \text{ for } 4 \text{ deniers.} \end{array} \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{r} 3312 \\ 4416 \\ 276 \text{ for } \frac{4}{8} \text{ the } \frac{1}{2} \\ 138 \text{ for } \frac{2}{8} \text{ the } \frac{1}{4} \\ 69 \text{ for } \frac{1}{8} \text{ the } \frac{1}{8} \\ 43 \frac{3}{8} \text{ for } 10 \text{ sols.} \\ 1 \frac{5}{8} \text{ for } 4 \text{ deniers.} \end{array}} \right\} \text{of } 552.$$

48000 Gros, to be divided by 32, gives 1500 marks lubbs banco, for which the draught must be made upon Hamburgh.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 552 ducats, 10 sols, 4 deniers, by the price of exchange, and divide the product 48000 gros by 32 gros, the value of the marks lubbs, and the quotient will produce 1500 marks lubbs to be received at Hamburgh. For the proof of which see the article HAMBURGH, Vol. I.

CASE V.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon GENOA.

To reduce 373 ducats, 15 sols, 9 deniers d'or, bank money of Venice, into lires bank money of Genoa, exchange at 103 marchetti of Venice per crown of 4 lires of Genoa.

OPERATION.

373 Ducats, 15 sols, 9 deniers, to be multiplied
By 124 marchetti.

$$\begin{array}{r} 1492 \\ 746 \\ 373 \\ 62 \text{ for } 10 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{2} \\ 31 \text{ for } 5 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{4} \\ 5 \text{ for } 9 \text{ deniers, the } \frac{1}{8} \text{ of } 5 \text{ sols.} \end{array} \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{r} 1492 \\ 746 \\ 373 \\ 62 \text{ for } 10 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{2} \\ 31 \text{ for } 5 \text{ sols, the } \frac{1}{4} \\ 5 \text{ for } 9 \text{ deniers, the } \frac{1}{8} \text{ of } 5 \text{ sols.} \end{array}} \right\} \text{of } 124$$

46350 marchetti, to be divided by 103, gives 450 crowns of 4 lires bank money, for which the draught must be made upon Genoa.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 373 ducats, 15 sols, 9 deniers, into marchetti, by multiplying them by 124, the value of a ducat, and dividing the product 46350 marchetti by 103 marchetti, the price of exchange, and you will have a quotient of 450 crowns of 4 lires, which being multiplied by 4, make 1800 lires banco to be received at Genoa; for the proof of which see the article GENOA, Vol. I.

If any thing after the first and second divisions should remain, it must be multiplied by 20 and 12, and by dividing the same by the exchange, it will give sols and deniers d'or to be received at Genoa, with the crowns.

VEN

CASE VI.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon LEGHORN.

To reduce 785 ducats 1 fol banco of Venice, into piaftres of 20 fols d'or of Leghorn, exchange at 102 of the said piaftres per 100 ducats.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats banco give 102 piaft. what will 785 $\frac{1}{20}$ ducats? 102 exch.

$$\begin{array}{r} 1570 \\ 7850 \\ 5 \frac{1}{20} \\ \hline \text{Piaftres } 800 \overline{) 75 \frac{1}{20}} \\ 120 \\ \hline \text{Sols } 15 \overline{) 02} \end{array}$$

800 Piaftres, 15 fols, for which the draught must be made upon Leghorn.

INSTRUCTION.

The question is stated according to the direct rule of proportion, and the operation carried on according thereto. See the article ARITHMETIC.

CASE VII.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon ROME.

To reduce 2258 ducats, 17 fols, 5 deniers d'or, bank money of Venice, into crowns d'estampe of Rome, exchange at 62 crowns per 100 ducats.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats of Venice give 62 crowns d'estampe, what will 2258 ducats 17 os. 62 exchange.

$$\begin{array}{r} 4516 \\ 13548 \\ 31 : - : 0 \text{ for 10 fols, the } \frac{1}{2}. \\ 15 : 10 : 0 \text{ for } 5 \text{ — the } \frac{1}{4}. \\ 6 : 4 : 0 \text{ for } 2 \text{ — the } \frac{1}{10}. \\ : 15 : 6 \text{ for } 3 \text{ deniers.} \\ : 10 : 6 \text{ for } 2 \text{ deniers.} \end{array}$$

Anfw. 1400 crowns, 10 fols d'estampe, the draught must be made for.

CASE VIII.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon NAPLES.

To reduce 515 ducats, 5 deniers d'or, banco of Venice, into ducats del regno of Naples, exchange at 116 $\frac{1}{2}$ of the said ducats of Naples per 100 ducats of Venice.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats of Venice give 116 $\frac{1}{2}$ ducats Naples, what will 515 duc. 5 — give? 116 $\frac{1}{2}$ exchange.

$$\begin{array}{r} 3090 \\ 515 \\ 515 \\ 257 : 10 \text{ for the } \frac{1}{2}. \\ 2 : 10 \text{ for the } 5 \text{ den.} \end{array}$$

The draught should be made up- } 600/00 on Naples of duc. reg.

CASE IX.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon FRANCE.

To reduce 800 ducats, 12 fols d'or, banco of Venice, into livres, fols, deniers Tournois of France, exchange at 62 of the said ducats per 100 of said crowns.

OPERATION.

If 62 ducats give 100 crowns, what will 800 $\frac{1}{2}$ ducats?

$$\begin{array}{r} 100 \\ 80000 \\ 60 \text{ for the } \frac{1}{2}. \end{array}$$

80060 to be divided by 62, give 1291 crowns, 17 fols, 5 deniers Tournois, for which the draught must be made on Lyons.

Note, To reduce the French crowns into livres, fols, and deniers, multiply the same by 3:

Thus 1291 crowns, 17 fols, 5 deniers.

3

3873 Livres, 17 fols, 5 den. Tourn. of France.

VEN

CASE X.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon AUGUSTA.

To reduce 500 $\frac{3}{4}$ ducats banco of Venice, into rixdollars, kreutzers and fenings, current money of Augusta, exchange at 96 rixdollars exchange money of said Augusta, per 100 ducats banco of Venice.

OPERATION.

100 Ducats banco. 500 $\frac{3}{4}$ Ducats, to be multiplied
100 Rixd. exch. By the 96 Rixdollars exch.

$$\begin{array}{r} 10000 \\ 3000 \\ 4500 \\ 48 \text{ for the } \frac{3}{4}. \\ 24 \text{ for the } \frac{1}{4}. \\ \hline 48072 \\ 127 \\ \hline 336504 \\ 96144 \\ 48072 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Rixd. } 610 \overline{) 5144} \\ 90 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Kreutz. } 46 \overline{) 2960} \\ 4 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Fenings } 1 \overline{) 1840} \end{array}$$

The draught must be made for 610 rixd. 46 kreut. and 1 fening.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 500 $\frac{3}{4}$ ducats, by the price of exchange of 96 rixdollars, and the product 48072 by 127 rixdollars, current money (because it is the equality of 100 rixdollars exchange money, the current money being 27 per cent. higher than that of exchange): separate 4 figures to the right-hand of the new product 6105144, and it will produce for quotient 610 rixdollars to be received at Augusta, in current money.— Multiply the remainder 5144 by 90 kreutzers, the value of the rixdollar, and separating 4 figures as before, it gives 46 kreutzers: multiplying also these 4 last figures by 4 fenings, the value of the kreutzer, and separating again in the same manner, it produces 1 fening more. Separating the four last figures of the three products, is the same as dividing by 10000, the product of 100 ducats of Venice, multiplied by 100 rixdollars exchange of Augusta, which is done with respect to the equality of the said 100 ducats, with the exchange of 96 rixdollars of exchange.

CASE XI.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon VIENNA.

To reduce 541 ducats, 12 fols, 9 deniers d'or, banco of Venice, into florins, gros, and fenings of Vienna, exchange at 188 of the said florins per 100 of the said ducats.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats of Venice give 188 florins of Vienna, what will 542 ducats 12 s. 9 d.?

$$\begin{array}{r} 542 \text{ ducats } 12 \text{ s. } 9 \text{ d.} \\ 188 \\ \hline 4336 \\ 4336 \\ 542 \\ 94 : - : - \\ 18 : 16 : - \\ 4 : 14 : - \\ 2 : 7 : - \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1020 \overline{) 15 : 17} \\ 120 \end{array}$$

The draught must be made upon Vienna for 1020 florins, 3 gros, and 2 fenings.

$$\begin{array}{r} 3 \overline{) 17} \\ 12 \\ \hline 2 \overline{) 04} \end{array}$$

CASE XII.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon MILAN.

To reduce 724 ducats, 30 fols, 6 deniers d'or, banco of Venice, into livres, fols, and den. current money of Milan, exchange at 154 marchetti of Venice, per crown of 117 fols, exchange money of Milan.

OPERA-

V E N

OPERATION.

117 fols of the crown	724 duc. 3 : 6, to be multi.*
73 fols current	* By 124 marchetti
351	2896
819	1448
	724
8541 multiplicator	12 : 8
154 marchetti of exch.	6 : 4
53 fols exchange	3 : 2
462	89798 : 2
770	8541 fols current
8162 divisor.	89798
	359192
	448990
	718384
	854 $\frac{1}{10}$, for the 2 fols, the

766965572 $\frac{1}{10}$, dividend.
766965572 $\frac{1}{10}$, divided by 8162, will give 9396, 7 fols, 10 den. current money, and 4698 livres, 7 fols, 10 deniers, also cur. money, for which the draught must be made upon Milan.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 724 ducats, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols, into marchetti, by multiplying by 124, the value of the ducat, and the product will be 89798 $\frac{1}{10}$; multiply the 177 fols of the crown by 73, the product will be 8541; multiply these two products, the one by the other, and it will give 766965572 for a dividend.—Multiply separately the exchange of 154 marchetti by 53, the product will be 8162, for a divisor, which gives for a quotient, 93967 fols, and 6918 for a remainder; and which being multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a fol, and dividing by the same, it gives 10 deniers.—Separate the last figure of 93967 fols, and take the $\frac{1}{2}$ of the remainder, and you will find that the sum to be received at Milan is 4698 livres, 7 fols, 10 deniers, current money.—Multiplying the exchange of 154 marchetti, by 53 fols exchange, is because you multiply the 117 fols of the crown of Milan, by 73 fols current of Milan, these two multipliers being in proportion the one to the other, for we have seen in the exchange of Genoa upon Milan, that 106 fols of exchange makes 146 current. See the article GENOA, Vol. I.

CASE XIII.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon ANCONA.

To reduce 400 ducats banco of Venice, into crowns of 10 julios of Ancona, exchange at 93 of the said crowns per cent. of said ducats.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats ban. Ven. give 93 crowns Anc. what will 400?	400
Crowns of Anc. to be rec.	372 00

CASE XIV.

Of the Exchange of Venice, upon BOLZANO.

To reduce 800 ducats banco of Venice into florins, kreutzers, and fenings, current money of Bolzano, exchange at 136 marchetti of Venice, per rixdollar of 93 kreutzers of Bolzano.

OPERATION.

136 marchetti of exch.	124 marchetti
60 kreutzers	800 ducat
810 divisor.	99200
	93
	297600
	892800

922560 dividend, being divided by 8160, gives 1130 florins, 35 kreutzers, 1 fenings, current money, for which the draught must be made upon Bolzano.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 800 ducats into marchetti, by multiplying them by 124; multiply the product, 99200, by 93 kreutzers, the value of the exchange rixdollar; the new product will be 9225600, the dividend.—Multiply the exchange of 136 marchetti by 60 kreutzers, the value of a florin, the product will be 8160; the divisor, which will give 1130 florins, with a remainder of 480, to be multiplied by 60 kreutzers, the value of a florin, and dividing by the same, you will have 35 kreutzers, and 240 remaining, which multiplied by 4 fenings, the value of a kreutzer, and dividing as before, it gives 1 fenings.

V E N

CASE XV.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon FLORENCE.

To reduce 300 ducats banco of Venice into crowns of 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ lires of Florence, exchange at 78 of the said crowns per 100 of the said ducats.

OPERATION.

If 100 ducats of Ven. give 78 crowns of Florence, what will 300	[300?
---	-------

Crowns of 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ lires 234|00

CASE XVI.

Of the EXCHANGE of VENICE upon NOVI, or BIZENZONE,

To reduce 1930 ducats banco of Venice, into crowns mark of Novi, exchange at 193 of the said ducats per 100 of the said crowns of Novi.

OPERATION.

If 193 ducats give 100 crowns, what will 1930 ducats?	100
---	-----

193)193000(1000 cro.
mark, for which the draught must be made in the Easter fair upon Novi.

Of the WEIGHTS and MEASURES of VENICE.

Their measure for linen and silks is the brace, and that is of two sorts, viz. 5 braces for silk make something less than 3 English ells; or 100 braces make about 57 $\frac{1}{2}$ ells in London, 98 in Holland, 117 $\frac{1}{2}$ in Hamburgh, 122 $\frac{1}{2}$ in Breslau, 104 in Dantzic, 117 in Leipzig: and the brace for linen is about half an English ell.

Their weights are distinguished in gros and futtle weights. Their gros quintal, by which they weigh brags, metal, feathers, and other lumbering commodities, is 100 lb. gros. The other, by which they weigh silk, spices, and drugs, is 100 lb. futtle.

Now 100 lb. gros weight makes 158 lb. futtle weight, or 106 lb. in London avoirdupoise weight.

And 100 lb. futtle weight makes about 63 $\frac{2}{3}$ lb. of their gros weight, or about 65 $\frac{2}{3}$ lb. in London.

And 100 lb. futtle weight of Venice has been found to make about 61 $\frac{2}{3}$ lb. in Hamburgh, 65 $\frac{2}{3}$ lb. in London, 60 lb. in Amsterdam, 59 lb. in Frankfort.

Their gold and silver weights are as follow, viz. 4 grains is 1 carat, 9 carats (or faliques) is 1 quarta, 4 quarta's 1 ounce, and 8 ounces is one mark; and 100 lb. Troy weight has been found to make about 116 $\frac{1}{2}$ of the above marks: and the same in Verona.

Their wine measure is the amphora, of 4 bigorza's; each bigorza is 4 quarts, and each quart 4 fachie, and each fachie is 4 lera's; but, by wholesale, the amphora is 14 quarts, and the bigorza 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ quarts.

Oil they sell by weight and by measure; the mizaro is 40 mero, and the mero is about 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ pints by measure, but by weight it is more.

Corn is sold by the ftaro, and is in quantify about one sextier of Paris.

THE BANK of VENICE.

This is commonly called Banco del Giro: that is, properly, a public depositum, for the reception of the cash of merchants and traders, &c. It was established by an edict of the republic, which declares, That the payment, for merchandizes by wholesale, and bills of exchange, is to be made in bank; and that all debtors and creditors shall be obliged, the one to carry their money to the bank, and the other to receive their payment in bank, by making a transfer from one account to the other.

An excellent memoir received from Venice remarks, That none are obliged to pay for merchandize in bank, every one being free to do so, or otherwise; and with relation to bills of exchange, if it is expressed VALUE IN BANK, i. e. the value to be paid in bank, such bills are to be paid in bank; but when it is expressed in CURRENT MONEY, that is to say, in ducats, or livres current, or in sequins, philippines, or other species, they must be paid in these respective monies, unless the parties agree to negotiate the affair in bank; but, in such case, the concerned must previously agree upon the agio. See the article AGIO.

It is allowed sometimes to make real payment, particularly in retail trade, or when strangers desire ready money, or when others shall require current money for the transaction of business by bills of exchange, or otherwise to dispose of it.

The necessity that there sometimes is of making these effective, or money payments, has occasioned a ready money bank-account to be opened, for the accommodation of those whose affairs require it.

It has been experienced, that this cash account has not caused any sensible diminution in the funds of the bank; this liberty of drawing for ready cash has, on the contrary, occasioned an augmentation thereof.

By means of the bank, the republic, without cramping the freedom of trade, and without paying any interest, has made herself mistress of five millions of ducats, to which the fund of this bank is fixed: whereby, on pressing emergencies, the Venetians have rarely occasion for extraordinary taxes. The regularity also exercised in the administration of the affairs of the bank, for which the state is guaranty, has rendered this establishment so permanent, that there is great reason to judge its duration will be equal with that of the republic itself.

The accounts of the bank are kept in livres, sols, and deniers gros: the livre is 10 ducats bank, or 240 gros, the ducat being equal to 24 gros.

Money of exchange is always understood to be that of ducats in bank, which is imaginary, 100 whereof make 120 ducats current money: so that the difference between bank and current ducats is 20 per cent. brokers being prohibited to raise the same higher.

The memoir before cited illustrates this matter as follows: 100 ducats bank make 100 effective, which have besides another agio upon the ducats current, or upon the current money; and this agio, like the other, is called an agio of bank, which is always fixed at 20 per cent. and, on the contrary, the other agio is uncertain, and varies more or less: for example, suppose this variable agio to be 20 per 100, if we would know how many 100 ducats bank will produce current, we must first add the fixed bank agio of 20 per cent. and afterwards upon the 120 ducats must be added the value of 20 per cent. thus 100 ducats bank will make 154 ducats and 19 gros current.

The bank is shut four times a year, viz. the 20th of March, the 20th of June, the 20th of September, and the 20th of December; and it remains shut every time for the space of 20 days. During this time, business is not obstructed, the money payments go on, and what is transacted in bank, is transferred upon the opening thereof.

The said memoir likewise informs us, That the precise times of opening and shutting the bank have been settled, by an ulterior decree of the senate, of the 20th of February, 1730, as follows: (1.) That it shall be shut the Saturday before Palm-Sunday, and opened again the Monday after the Octave of Easter. (2.) From the 23d of June to the second Monday in July. (3.) From the 23d of September to the second Monday in October. (4.) From the 23d of December to the second Monday in January. The bank is also shut on all ordinary holidays, and every Friday, when there is no such holiday; but at present the bank is not shut on law-court holidays, nor on the Fridays of the month of March, as heretofore.

There are, besides, other extraordinary times of shutting up the bank, which is for eight or ten days, during the Carnival, and as many for the Passion Week. It is shut likewise every Friday of the week, when there is no holiday, for the ballancing of their accounts.

Bills of exchange for places and fairs are paid in bank. A feller cannot refuse payment in bank for his merchandize, when there is no agreement to the contrary.—Bills of exchange, from the expiration of their time to run, have six days of grace, or *RISpetto DI BANCO*; and, in default of payment, you are not obliged to make protest; but the sixth day, after which you run the hazard, if not done.

From the moment that the bank is shut, a debtor is not obliged to the payment of bills of exchange in cash, nor in any other manner; nor can a protest be made till the opening of the bank, and that only after six days of grace, according to custom, excepting, nevertheless, in the case of a failure, and, when this happens, strict measures may be taken, provided the time of usance, with regard to bills, is expired.

Bills of exchange endorsed cannot be paid in bank: the person to whom the bill is payable, must send a letter of attorney to his correspondent at Venice, to receive it for him; otherwise it is necessary that the bill be made payable to such correspondent.

Contracts for goods and merchandizes are made for current money, and not in bank, except those for oil and quicksilver, which are always dealt for in bank money.

As the accounts of the public bank of exchange are kept in livres, sols, and deniers, when transfers are therein made, it must be done by reckoning 10 ducats banco per livre: for example, if you have occasion to write in bank, ducats 1246 : 8, it is not specified in ducats and gros, but in liv. 124 : 12 : 8, which make the said sum of ducats banco. To give an idea with what facility and convenience parties may be paid in bank, the following is the method practised.

Aldrubal is indebted to sundries for sundry particulars:

To Berentio, for a bill of exchange remitted from London upon said Aldrubal, of the sum of ducats banco } 2689 : 4

To Casimiro, for a bill of exchange, remitted to Aldrubal upon Amsterdam } 3847 : 9

VOL. II.

Brought over - 6536 : 13
To Domitian, for the value remitted to said Ald. 4754 : 17
To Emilio, for ballance of an account current, } 1589 : 5
settled with Aldrubal -

Total ducats - 12880 : 11

To discharge these several sums in bank, when Aldrubal has the sum in bank requisite so to do, he appears before two of the book-keepers of the bank (who write uniformly, at the same time, in two separate bank books) and he says or dictates to them as follows:

By Ald. to Barentio, for a bill from London l. 268 : 18 : 4
to Casimiro, for one from Amsterdam 384 : 14 : 9
to Domitian, received - 475 : 9 : 5
to Emilio, for ballance - 158 : 18 : 5

Livres bank - 1288 : 0 : 11

In this manner the whole is regulated, without need of any receipt, declaration, or acquittance, between the parties. It is not even necessary for the creditor to be present when these articles are wrote off, except Emilio, because when he settles the ballance of an account, the creditor must be there, and affirm, by a simple *AYE*, to the writer, that such sum makes the ballance, an act of this kind being more valid than any other acquittance that can be required by the payer. And suppose that Aldrubal has not, by his credit in bank, a sum sufficient to pay what he owes, or that he has none at all; in this case he must carry into bank so much current money as the said sum amounts to, upon the footing of 20 per cent. agio: or, by the means of a broker, he must find such who will lend him that sum (after having agreed for the said agio, perhaps at $\frac{1}{8}$ difference) and transfer the same in bank, to the credit of Aldrubal's account: suppose that Flammio is the person who receives the value thereof, he goes to the bank book-keepers, and orders them to write as follows:

By Flammio. To Aldrubal, l. 1288 : 0 : 11. In this manner the disposition that Aldrubal has made in bank, is justly regulated for the value of the several beforementioned sums. By these examples, the great conveniency of this bank may be judged of, particularly in a city where such large transactions in bank and exchange are negotiated.

VIRGINIA. We having spoken so largely already throughout this work, in relation to the high importance of the colonies to this kingdom, it cannot be necessary to urge that matter further; nor is it needful, we apprehend, to say more than we have done, with respect to the precarious state wherein our plantations on the continent of America seem to be at present, from the unjustifiable conduct of the French. What we have said upon these points, is to be met with under the articles *BRITISH AMERICA*, *CANADA*, *COLONIES*, *FLORIDA*, *LOUISIANA*, *MARYLAND*, *NORTH CAROLINA*, *PENNSYLVANIA*, *PLANTATIONS*, *SUGAR COLONIES*, *TRADE*.

And as this is the last time that we shall have occasion in this work to speak of our colonies in America, it may not be unacceptable to give a summary of the measures taken by FRANCE to protect and extend the commerce of their colonies and plantations in this part of the world; whereby it will appear, in a narrow compass, by what means they are at present enabled to figure it so powerfully in the American world.

REMARKS on the article VIRGINIA, before the last war.

The MEASURES taken by FRANCE to promote and extend the TRADE and COMMERCE of their COLONIES and PLANTATIONS in AMERICA.

The measures taken by the French to people their colonies, are,

I. To people them with a number of WHITES proportionate to that of BLACKS, that the latter may not be an overmatch for the former, and raise insurrections*.

* The case is otherwise with regard to our colony of JAMAICA. See an Essay concerning Slavery, and the danger Jamaica is exposed to from the too great number of slaves, &c.

II. They send over French workmen, so articulated as servants, to render labour cheap, and to instruct the negroes in such things as may render them more beneficial to the French planters.

III. They regularly instruct the people in the use of arms, as well to defend their colonies at the least expence to the crown, as to train them to hunting, not only for food, but to enlarge the peltry trade in New France†. See our article FRENCH AMERICA.

† We have not been so careful in regard to either of these material particulars.

IV. Those who are bred up in the hospitals in France (where there is a prodigious number) are sent to America for planters, and every single man of these is obliged to marry an Indian woman. And to enable them to trade among themselves, they had a supply of 25,000,000, in bank bills, granted them, by an arrêt of the 16th of July, 1719. See the article CANADA.

V. The French king gave the clergy considerable grants of lands in Canada, and sent thither a great number of missionaries and Jesuits to Quebec, who are dispersed among the Indians, fall in with their customs, and thereby have greatly extended their trade and influence among them.

VI. They have taken effectual measures, from time to time, to establish formidable colonies from Florida and the Mississippi, to Canada, upon the back of all the British colonies on the continent of America, and have erected many strong forts in the most advantageous situations, and destroyed several nations of our Indian allies, and drawn others off from our interest, and added them to their own*.—See our articles BRITISH AMERICA, FLORIDA, LOUISIANA, NORTH CAROLINA, PENNSYLVANIA, PLANTATIONS, &c.

* Can any measures prove more effectual to reduce the Indians to their obedience?

VII. The negro-trade, for the benefit of their island colonies in particular, is regulated upon wiser principles than that of any other nation.—Their great East-India company, with all its privileges, &c. is the support of their African trade. See the articles FRANCE, and FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY; see, in particular, an account of the bounties, exemptions, privileges, and encouragements, given by the French to their African Company, &c. See also the article FRENCH AMERICA, in regard to the trade of their island and continent colonies in America, where we have treated of this matter very fully, extracted from the registers of the council of state. See further, LE CODE NOIRE, ou RECUEIL des reglemens rendus jusqu'à present [1742] concernant le gouvernement, l'administration de la justice, la police, la discipline, & le commerce des negres dans les colonies Françaises. Et les conseils & compagnies établis à ce sujet†.

† By these means they have peopled their island colonies cheaply with negro slaves, and can thereby afford the produce of their colonies cheaper than we can that of ours.

VIII. For the further regulations of the commerce of France, see the article CHAMBER of COMMERCE, and my REMARKS thereon. See also the article TURKEY TRADE and COMPANY, in the conclusion, for an exemplification of the methods of proceeding of the DEPUTIES of COMMERCE or council of trade, in order that nothing essential may be omitted to be laid before the ROYAL COUNCIL, for the government of their resolutions in regard to points of trade. See also the article CONSUL, with our REMARKS thereon.

|| This council it is which oversees the manufactures of the kingdom, and procures to them those encouragements, that liberty, and those immunities which gave birth to them, and preserves them. It directs the mutual commerce between France and its colonies, to their best common advantage. Well informed of the state of the national trade, by a comparison of the annual imports and exports, it observes the branches of it which want protection. From this knowledge it is that they govern opportunely their solicitations to foreign powers for new advantages; that they defend those which they possess, or profit of those which present themselves. It is from the representations of this board that those treaties of commerce are projected which commonly accompany treaties of peace. In short, this council is a center of union for trade, the marine, and the revenue, to furnish one another with reciprocal and necessary occasional assistance.

IX. After establishing the said council of commerce, ordinances were issued for regulating the conduct of the governors, sur-intendants, &c. in America, and a sovereign council was appointed in each colony, consisting of 12 counsellors, and the intendant as president.—This council is the supreme judicature, in all causes, without appeal, in the colonies. Here every one pleads his own cause, viva voce, or by memorial, solicitors and barristers being not to appear there: thus law-suits are quickly determined. Besides these, there is in each colony a lieutenant-general, both civil and military, an attorney-general, the great provost, and a chief justice in eyre.—The chief officers are such checks on each other, that few abuses, injurious to the crown or subject, are committed without speedy redress.—The French have a governor-general of Louisiana, or Mississippi, residing at New Orleans,

§ Does not this prevent the planters and traders being distracted with law-suits; which unfit them to exert their trading industry?

¶ Our colonies being differently constituted among themselves, and having no governor-general, &c. to direct their affairs

upon one steady plan of conduct, for the safety and prosperity of all, are liable to great disadvantages and dangers.—We have many difficulties to encounter in relation to our charter-governments, which require the redress of parliament.

and the lieutenant-governor at Mobile. See the article LOUISIANA.

X. The revenues arising in the French colonies are accounted for in the chamber of accounts, and all officers give security for the due performance of their duty; whereby there is a constant fund for the use of the colonies, applied as advised by the council of trade*.

* We have no such competent fund for the constant support of our colonies.

Of the DUE EXECUTION of the ORDONNANCES, EDICTS, and ARRETS, in relation to TRADE, issued in FRANCE, concerning their Plantations.

I. The council of commerce is the channel of conveyance, in regard to matters of trade, to the royal council.—The former examines and discusses, as we have shewn before, all propositions and memorials, and the secretary keeps an exact register thereof: these are laid before the royal council.—With such steadiness and independency does this council of commerce act, that they have frequently opposed and overruled the determinations of the regal council. By this means the council of trade guards against encroachments, as well on the rights of the crown as on the property of the subjects, and the ordonnances or arrêts of the crown scarce ever fail to be duly executed: for the council of state is so constituted, that it may be truly said to be (as a late judicious writer observes) the eyes, the ears, and the hands of the king, as there is no act done but what may be redressed, by applying to the king in this council of state: if the officers of the crown are aggrieved by acts of power in their superiors, they may, and often do, meet with redress on that head: which regulation hath a wonderful effect in the foreign concerns of the French nation, whereby all channels of information are left open to the view of the crown, the officers of the lower class not being debarred access to the crown, nor liable to oppression of their superiors without redress. Thus care is taken for the security of the subjects in America, so as not to leave them a prey to governors, and other officers in the plantations. And in order the more effectually to enforce the execution of the royal edicts, arrêts, and ordonnances, the penalties for the violation thereof are vigilantly inflicted. See our articles before referred to†.

† This point certainly deserves due attention in this kingdom.

The FRENCH MANAGEMENT of the INDIANS in NORTH AMERICA.

I. We have seen how the French intermarry with the Indians, and of what use their missionaries and Jesuits are among those people.

II. The French who carry on the fur-trade in Canada do it by licence: but they employ great numbers of Indian traders, whom they call COUREURS DE BOIS, who are expert in that trade, and go in canoes, and trade with most of the savage nations round the government of Canada. The coureurs de bois are, at present, become very numerous, being computed, at least, at 1500 men, who are often employed as a kind of flying corps, and joined with the French Indians, either to attack the ENGLISH, or such Indians as are in friendship with them.

|| Is not this far more judicious than our methods of traffic with the Indians?

III. The French for many years being prevented, by the FIVE NATIONS in our interest, from discovering the great lakes, carrying on trade, and forming alliances with the Indians who lived to the southward and westward of them, they prevailed with our Charles II. to forward a peace between the French and those nations.—This gave them a power to extend their lines, and build FORTS to the southward, by which means the FIVE NATIONS have been much galled, ever since the building of FORT FRONTENAC, NIAGARA, and others.

IV. The French have cut off many of them, by treachery and open force, when the English have neglected to support them; so that those warlike people are so reduced, as to be unable to withstand the French, which has been owing to our engaging them in wars with the French, and then leaving the burthen of the war on them. See LOUISIANA.

|| This disregard and treachery on our side towards the Indians, will hardly be thought to cement their friendship towards us.

V. The French also have built a FORT near the water-fall of SAUT ST MARIE, and erected another of considerable strength at CROWN POINT, on the lands of the FIVE NATIONS,

TIONS, which is of more service to the French, and, consequently more hurtful to the English, than any of the forts the French have built from Quebec to the river Ohio. By this fort they keep the Five Nations under constant alarms, and distress them and their allies in their huntings; and by CROWN POINT, FORT FRONTENAC, NIAGARA, &c. they keep open a communication with the western Indians.

VI. They likewise prevent the English from making a proper use of the Five Nations against the eastern Indians, who live in the province (as the French call it) of GASPESIE, which is part of NOVA SCOTIA: by this means, the Indians to the eastward of NEW ENGLAND are left at liberty to make continual inroads upon the English settlements of NOVA-SCOTIA: though this might be prevented, if the FIVE NATIONS could, with safety, attack the eastern nations in the province of GASPESIE, in the back parts of Nova Scotia.*

* Upon what plan, on our side, the ill consequences of these measures may be greatly prevented, if executed in time, see our REMARKS on the article LOUISIANA.

VII. CROWN POINT is near to the branches of HUDSON'S RIVER, which runs by Albany to New York: therefore, from the situation of this fort, the province of NEW YORK may be brought into imminent danger; and, indeed, may endanger the safety of the whole British continent of America; for if the French take us at an unguarded hour, and make themselves masters of New York, they may cut off the communication between our NORTHERN and SOUTHERN COLONIES, and, by the aid of their INDIANS, they might have it in their power to destroy the English settlements.

VIII. Though the English have above ten times the number of settlers which the French have in their colonies on the continent of America, yet the English frontiers making near 1500 miles in length, and the French having now most of the Indians in their interest, it is not easy to guard against the Indians in their sudden attacks; for before the English can collect a force to oppose them, the Indians may retire and shelter themselves behind the FRENCH FORTS; and in such an extensive forest, through swamps and thickets, it is scarce possible to pursue them with any prospect of advantage, or to supply an army with necessaries in such an enterprise†.

† Should not all imaginable ways be taken to secure the Indians ever after in our interests?

IX. The design of the French, in taking the great lakes, was to secure the Indians and the fur-trade to themselves.—The building of CROWN POINT was to awe the FIVE NATIONS, or bring them into the measures of FRANCE.—The treaties with the EASTERN TRIBES OF INDIANS, and erecting the province of GASPESIE out of NOVA SCOTIA, was to enlarge their territories on the SEA-COAST, and extend their FISHERIES.—These encroachments, added to those made at the OHIO, must render them very formidable. X. If the French surrender to us the FORTS which they have lately taken at OHIO, and yet continue to extend their SOUTH LINE, they would thereby take in a great part of VIRGINIA, and of NORTH and SOUTH CAROLINA, and leave us wholly exposed to the excursions of the INDIANS in all our frontier settlements; therefore the ENGLISH ought not only to demolish the FORTS which they have lately built on the branches of the river OHIO, but to take CROWN POINT and NIAGARA, and also to erect FORTS instantly, for the protection of the FIVE NATIONS, and for enlarging our trade and commerce with the INDIANS§.

§ How our Indian trade and affairs have suffered by the handlers at ALBANY, see our REMARKS on the article LOUISIANA.

XI. If the French come to a DIVISION with the English on the continent of America, their intention apparently is to include our INDIAN ALLIES within their limits, and to turn our own weapons against us.

XII. Many of the Indians to the west of the APALACHIAN MOUNTAINS have acknowledged themselves subject to the crown of GREAT-BRITAIN, and, were we to determine their territories to be within the FRENCH limits, it would be throwing them into the arms of FRANCE, destructive of all our frontier settlements, and put an intire stop to the trade and commerce which hath hitherto been carried on with them; and, in such case, the FRENCH, doubtless, would erect divers FORTS within their territories, and compel our present INDIAN FRIENDS to make war on us.

XIII. The ULIBALYS, CHICANES, and CHATTAS, who were the most considerable nations upon and between the river Coza and the MISSISSIPPI, kindly entertained the English, who resided among them several years, and carried on a safe and peaceable trade with them, till about the year 1715, when, by the intrigues of the FRENCH, they were either MURDERED, or obliged to make room for those NEW INVADERS, who have since unjustly possessed and fortified the same stations, in order to curb the natives, and to cut off

the communication with the English traders; whereby the French have ingrossed a profitable trade for above 500 miles, of which the BRITISH SUBJECTS were a few years ago the sole masters. See our article FLORIDA.

XIV. But if such LIMITS were determined between the ENGLISH and the FRENCH, those who settle on our frontiers would not be more secure in respect of their lives or possessions, as it has always been, and always will be, the policy of France to stir up their friendly Indians to annoy our frontier settlements, and afterwards disavow every act done by them.

XV. What has greatly contributed to the success of the French affairs in America, and has given them such weight and influence with the Indians, is the appropriation and due application of a fund for those purposes.—How these evils may be, or might have been, we most humbly conceive, happily prevented, see our article LOUISIANA [REMARKS thereon] and such other articles as we have referred to occasionally on our AMERICAN AFFAIRS.

Of the FRENCH ISLAND-COLONIES in AMERICA.

I. In a memorial of the French deputies of commerce, laid before the royal council in the year 1701, the said deputies represented, That the French had then 8,850 white men, and 45,600 blacks in their island-colonies*; but, by a calculation made in the year 1751, the FRENCH had then, in the said colonies, upwards of 51,500 white men, fit to bear arms, independent of many thousands of sailors employed in the trade of the colonies, and 364,800 slaves of both sexes; and, since the increase of their colonies, they have incroached upon the ENGLISH, in settling of ST LUCIA, TOBAGO, DOMINIQUE, &c. By what means these things have come to pass, see the articles beforementioned, particularly FRANCE, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY, and FRENCH AMERICA. See LEeward ISLANDS.

* It is proper to remark here, That the deputies of commerce do not make any mention of the islands of St Vincent, St Lucia, or Tobago. See our article BRITISH AMERICA. The colonies specified by the said deputies are, CAYENNE, GRENADA, MARTINICO, GUADALOUPE, MARIGALANTE, ST CRUCE, HISPANIOLA, or ST DOMINGO, PETIT GUAVE, LA DOMINIQUE, LES XANTIES, ST MARTIN, and ST BARTHOLEMY (a.)

(a) Vide Memoire sur la compagnie de Guinée, sur le commerce des colonies François de l'Amerique, & l'état présent des îles que la France y occupe, les moyens de s'y conserver, & s'y étendre, & leurs sentimens sur les ports & commerces exclusifs, en particulier sur les parties du tabac & du sucre.

II. By a calculation made from the year 1737 to 1744, it appeared, That the amount of the produce of the French settlements on the continent of America, and also of their fishery on the coast of Newfoundland, &c. was 820,000 l. sterling per annum, and upwards.—That the said freight, in time of peace, amounted to 220,000 l. sterling, and upwards, which, inclusive of their fishery, annually employed 9000 seamen.

III. And it appears, by the beforementioned French memorial of the deputies of commerce in 1701, that the French did not employ above 100 sail of ships in the WEST-INDIA TRADE, and these ships were not near the size, dimensions, or burthen of their ships at present employed therein; neither were their commodities of equal goodness or value of those which they now produce; but, by a calculation made of the amount of the produce of their West-India colonies, from the year 1737 to 1744, the French Islands have, in sugar, rum, molasses, indigo, pimento, cotton, pepper, ginger, coffee, &c. &c. produced to the value or amount of 2,400,000 l. sterling per ann. and upwards, independent of an extensive and profitable trade carried on from St Domingo with the Spaniards in America. Moreover, that in the French WEST-INDIA COMMERCE, 120,000 tons of shipping, with 11,000 seamen, are annually employed; the freight of which (as computed) amounted to 480,000 l. sterling per annum.—These are the effects which those regulations, arrêts, edicts, and ordonnances issued in France, with relation to their colonies, and exhibited throughout our work, have produced.

The STEADY MEASURES taken by the FRENCH to PROTECT and EXTEND their AMERICAN COLONIES.

I. It has always been the conduct of France, in relation to the Spanish depredations committed in their American trade, to check them, by empowering their governors to grant private commissions, and employ ships of force, to treat their guardes de costa as pirates; and they avow or disavow the conduct of their governors therein, as the circumstances of their affairs require.—When the Spaniards have complained of the French governors making reprizals, or treating the Spanish guardes costes as pirates, the answer of the French hath generally been, That it was the duty of their governors to protect the king's

king's subjects, but if they found their conduct blameable with respect to the subjects of Spain, they would grant them satisfaction therein. However, it has always so happened, that the French have found sufficient cause to throw the blame on the Spanish governors, and the *guardes de costes* commissioned by them †.

† Might not the like measures have preserved our logwood-trade to us, from which, it seems, we are now absolutely excluded by the Spaniards, notwithstanding our undoubted right to the same? See our article *Logwood*.

II. In the settlement of St Domingo, the French did not appear openly to support the buccaneers who first settled there, but only supplied them with arms and ammunition, 'till they strengthened themselves and got possession of a great part of St Domingo.

III. The French have, for some years since, carried on a very lucrative, though illicit trade, from the Mississippi to Mexico, and we have not heard of any complaints on that head from the Spaniards, or their *guardes de costes*, committing any depredations on them on that account. They have also carried on an extensive smuggling trade from St Domingo to the Spanish settlements, which has somehow been winked at by the Spaniards: and yet some are willing to flatter themselves, that there is not so good an understanding between the French and the Spaniards, as between the latter and the English*.

* Is it any indication of friendship on the part of the Spaniards, towards the English, when they have thus long suffered the French to carry on an illicit trade, and have lately extirpated the English logwood-cutters from their rightful possessions, while they pretended to be negotiating a treaty with us, to settle that matter amicably? Does not the Spaniard's present attempt too upon the Dutch colonies of ISE-QUEBE and BERRICE, shew as high regard for that republic, as their honourable treatment of us does to Great-Britain? Will the Dutch be blind, as long as the English have been, to their true interests, and suffer themselves to be lulled into a lethargy? Sure the Protestant maritime powers will at length be roused, and never suffer Popish perfidy to be triumphant.

That the French have, by the grossest falsehoods and perfidy, endeavoured to make shameful and unjustifiable encroachments upon the British colonies and plantations in America, has been shewn in various parts of this work, as may be seen by the various articles before referred to.—We shall, at present, only add a word more upon this occasion.

NOVA SCOTIA being the only province in AMERICA, belonging to the crown of England, that can be made a sufficient barrier to cover any of our plantations from the invasions of the FRENCH, and check their motions on that side of the continent, by sea and land: the French have practised every art of deceit and treachery to encroach upon this colony.

In my REMARKS upon the article MAP, I have taken occasion to shew, that there is an office in the French marine for depositing charts and plans, to be made use of for the benefit of their navigation; nor is this nation less solicitous in regard to geography than hydrography; for it too frequently appears, that their geographers are directed to adapt their maps to the views, schemes, and pretensions of their statesmen, however unjustifiable they may be: nay, we have all imaginable reason to believe, that those Machiavellians have set even their historians to work, to assert and maintain those things for truth, with respect to their POSSESSIONS, that from their map-makers may the more plausibly describe upon paper, those shameful encroachments upon the dominions of other states, to the end that their statesmen may the more plausibly support them by artful negotiations.—This we have shewn to be the case, in variety of instances throughout this work, which we have often referred to; and the truth of this charge against the French has been lately unanswerably corroborated, with great judgment and accuracy, in a treatise intitled, *THE CONDUCT of the FRENCH with respect to the BRITISH DOMINIONS in AMERICA*, particularly *NOVA SCOTIA*.—In a letter to a member of parliament.—Printed for T. Jefferys.

AN EXTRACT from Dr MAYHEW's remarkable POLITICAL SERMON, preached lately before the GOVERNOR, COUNCIL, and REPRESENTATIVES of MASSACHUSETTS BAY in NEW ENGLAND, on the interesting circumstances of NORTH AMERICA before the last war.

‘What horrid scene is this, which restless, roving France, or something of an higher nature, presents to me, and so chills my blood! Do I behold these territories of freedom become the prey of arbitrary power! Do I see the motly armies of French and painted savages taking our fortresses, and erecting their own, even in our capital towns and cities! Do I behold them spreading desolation through the land! Do I see the slaves of Lewis, with their Indian allies, dispossessing the free-born subjects of king George, of the inheritance received from their forefathers, and purchased by them at the

expence of their ease, their treasure, their blood! To aggravate the indignity beyond human toleration, do I see this goodly patrimony ravished from them, by those who never knew what property was, except by seizing that of others for an insatiable lord! Do I see Christianity banished for Popery! the Bible for the mass-book! the oracles of truth for fabulous legends! Do I see the sacred edifices erected here to the honour of the true God and his Son, on the ruins of pagan superstition and idolatry, erected here, where Satan's seat was! Do I see these sacred edifices laid in ruins themselves, and others rising in their places, consecrated to the saints and angels! Instead of a train of Christ's faithful, laborious ministers, do I behold an herd of lazy monks and Jesuits, and exorcists, and inquisitors, cowed and uncowed impostors! Do I see a Protestant there stealing a look at his Bible, and, being taken in the fact, punished like a felon! What indignity is yonder offered to the matrons! and here to the virgins! Is it now a crime to reverence the hoary head! and is he alone happy that taketh the little ones, and dasheth them against the stones! Do I see all liberty, property, religion, happiness, changed, or rather transubstantiated into slavery, poverty, superstition, wretchedness! And, in fine, do I hear the miserable sufferers (those of them that survive) bitterly accusing the negligence of the public guardians! and charging all their calamities less upon the enemies, than upon the fathers of their country! O dishonest, prophane, execrable fight! O piercing sound! that entereth into the ears of the Lord of Sabbath! Where, in what region, in what world am I? Is this imagination (its own busy tormentor), or is it something more divine? I will not, I cannot, believe 'tis prophetic vision, or that God has so far abandoned us.

And how different a scene is now opening upon me, with clearer indications of truth and reality! There insolence and injustice punished! Here, ‘the meek inheriting the earth!’ Liberty victorious! Slavery biting her own chain! Pride brought down! Virtue exalted! Christianity triumphing over imposture! and another Great-Britain arising in America! But I must not declare the whole—The Lord God omnipotent reigneth! Just and true are all thy ways, O thou king of saints! And them that in pride thou art able to abase, ‘What has pride profited, or what good has vaunting brought you,’ ye restless disturbers of our peace? What good your masses? your relics? your crossings? your Ave Marias? and to which of your saints will you now turn?

But we are not, my honoured fathers, to presume on God's protection, much less on his giving us any signal advantages over them that are ever either planning or executing mischief against us, without using the proper means for obtaining that protection, and these advantages: as the apostle said to the mariners, after assuring them of deliverance from the impending danger, ‘Except these abide in the ship, ye cannot be saved;’ so it may be said to our British colonies, Ye cannot be saved from the storm ye are now threatened with, yea, which is already begun, except ye are at union amongst yourselves, and exert your strength together, for your common interest. Upon this condition you are safe, even without a miracle: otherwise, nothing short of one can save you. And can you, without the utmost indignation, think of becoming a prey to those who are so much inferior to you in all respects, merely for want of unanimity, public spirit, the manly resolution of your forefathers, and a little expence?’ For a display of the matchless perfidy of FRANCE, see our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FLORIDA, FRANCE, LOUISIANA, NORTH CAROLINA, PLANTATIONS, INDIANS IN NORTH-AMERICA.

REMARKS on this article VIRGINIA, since the last war, and the treaty of 1763.

Under our article AMERICA, we have given the treaty of peace, concluded in the year 1763, at large. By the present as well as the various articles we have above referred to from this, and also from divers others referred to from them, it appears that the fulness of time was come, before the last war, that Great-Britain must either extirpate the French out of NORTH-AMERICA, or that the French would extirpate the subjects of Britain from thence. By the last treaty of peace, we seem now to have secured, from the power of the French, the whole range of our British colonies from north to south of this extensive continent, by the cession of CANADA and all its DEPENDENCIES, and more particularly the cession of CAPE BRETON, to the crown of Great-Britain. See CANADA, MISSISSIPPI, NEWFOUNDLAND.—By the said treaty we have also obtained the cession, from Spain, of East and West Florida; so that, at present, our North American colonies are secured to this kingdom by divers maritime barriers; we mean, on the most northerly parts, by the GULPH and RIVER ST LAWRENCE, and by CAPE BRETON; by the extended ocean, on the east, from CAPE BRETON to FLORIDA; by the GULPH OF MEXICO on the south, by our possessions therein, as the BAY OF APALACHE, PENSACOLA, and MOBILE; and on the west, by the British right of navigation to and from the River MISSISSIPPI: so that now we shall be able to exert the full force of our maritime strength to maintain

maintain and preserve to the British crown those estimable colonies. The small possession of NEW ORLEANS, which the French enjoy on the east of the MISSISSIPPI, does not seem to put it in their power, any more than their other possessions on the west of the river, to endanger those colonies from that power; especially if we attach the INDIANS on the east thereof to our interest; which now it appears that we can hardly fail of doing effectually, and soon. For by a letter from OSWEGO, dated August the 7th, 1764, to colonel Burton, at MONTREAL, we have an account, that "Matters are entirely settled with all the Indian nations who attended the meeting at NIAGARA; the greatest ever known, being about 2000 Indians. Some reports spreading prevented the CHENUSSIOS coming for a long time: at length they came and delivered up the prisoners, &c. &c. and gave to his Majesty and his successors, for ever, the land on both sides the streights to LAKE ERIE (or CARRYING PLACE) four miles on each side, and liberty of a port on the north side of Lake Erie, &c. So that his Majesty will be possessed of all territory from LAKE to LAKE; a cession of near 300,000 acres. They have also given two Seneca hostages, for the SHAWNEESE and DELAWARE king, whom the CHENUSSIOS engage to deliver up at this part, with all prisoners amongst them. There were 22 different nations at the congress, eleven of which were western Indians; all behaved well, and were discharged in the best humour. The MICHILLEMAKINAC INDIANS have engaged to protect the garrison which may be sent there. The COGNAWAGOE warriors are gone with the army, and behave well. Peace is settled by a solemn treaty, in writing, with the HURONS of DETROIT: the treaty of peace and alliance with the CHENUSSIOS is also ratified and confirmed in writing; so that every thing is done that could be wished for, or expected." And

Before this goes to the press, we have the following accounts from Philadelphia, dated September 6, 1764.

"Ten deputies from the Delawares, Shawanese, Hurons of Sandusky, and other Indians of the countries between Lake Erie and the Ohio, met Col. Bradstreet at Presque Isle, on his way to their country, with the forces under his command, and in the most submissive manner begged for peace, which he granted them on terms to the purport following:

"1. That all the prisoners in their hands should be delivered to him at Sandusky in twenty-five days.

"2. That they should renounce all claim to the posts and forts we now have in their country; and that we shall be at liberty to erect as many more as we think necessary to secure our trade; and that they shall cede to us for ever, as much land round each fort as a cannon-shot can fly over, on which our people may raise provisions.

"3. That if any Indian hereafter kill any Englishman, he shall be delivered up by his nation, and tried by the English laws, only to have half the jury Indians. And if any one of the nations renew the war, the rest shall join us to bring them to reason.

"4. That six of the deputies should remain with him as hostages, and the other four with an English officer; and one of our Indians should proceed immediately to acquaint those nations with these terms of peace, and forward the collecting of the prisoners, to be ready at the day appointed.

"It is said that the colonel has told them, that if this peace is not confirmed by their chiefs, no other will be granted them; and that, if they continue the war, they shall find their country filled with warriors immediately, who will cut them off from the face of the earth.

"It seems the motion of the two armies at once towards their country, viz. that under Colonel Bradstreet, from Niagara, and that from this province, under colonel Bouquet, has greatly intimidated those people, who at first haughtily stood out, and refused to meet Sir William Johnson at the congress of Niagara. See the article INDIAN NATIONS.

UNITED PROVINCES of the STATES-GENERAL. Under the articles FLANDERS, HOLLAND, NETHERLANDS, DUTCH AMERICA, DUTCH WEST-INDIA COMPANY; DUTCH COMPANY of the NORTH, DUTCH LEVANT COMPANY, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, we have considered the nature of the commerce of this republic; to which we have subjoined such REMARKS as we have judged requisite to support the power and dignity of the States-General of the United Provinces, whose interest we look upon to be inseparable from that of Great-Britain. We have more particularly shewn the ill consequences which soon attend this republic, for want of the barrier being duly settled for her preservation, as well as our own.

From this principle it is, that, in all our wars in Flanders, we have fought for the Dutch as for ourselves, and that it has been the repeated sense of the parliament, That a strong barrier for the Dutch in Flanders, against France, is necessary for the safety of England, as well as Holland. This we have endeavoured to demonstrate from reason and authority, under the articles above referred to. [See FLANDERS and NETHERLANDS.]

If we make a calculation of the forces of France in time of war, we shall find that they have not amounted to less than 100,000 horse, and 300,000 foot; nor is there any other potentate in Europe, if in the whole world, able to bring such an army, and so well appointed, into the field. On the other hand, we know very well what an aversion both the parliament and people of Great-Britain have to a standing army, as a thing destructive of their liberty and freedom; nor need we be told how unable an undisciplined rabble is to withstand a body of regular troops: so that our security chiefly lies in being masters at sea. This is what we, in conjunction with the United Provinces, may still be, if the Dutch will increase their marine, and exert their naval power, as they have heretofore gloriously done. But should the French king be once possessed of Flanders, he may easily surprize and conquer Holland: nor is it possible for that small republic to withstand him. Being once possessed of the Dutch towns and harbours, he is, by consequence, not only master of all the ships and naval stores that are laid up in them, but may augment them to as great degree as the Dutch have formerly done. And having once united the ports and fleets of Holland with his own, it is a vain thing for us to pretend any longer to the dominion of the sea: for if this should ever come to pass (which God forbid!) and the fleets of Spain should join those of France, as is too likely to be the case, we must submit to the yoke of France: for they may then pour in above 100,000 veteran troops upon us, from all quarters; nor will it be possible for us, without a miracle, to withstand them. So that in truth we are as much concerned to hinder the French from over-running the United Provinces, as he that dwells at one end of a street is to quench those flames that are raging at the other: for, as Sir W. Temple very well observes, "If France were once master of Flanders, the body of that empire would be so great and so entire, so abounding in people and riches, that, whenever they found or made an occasion of invading the United Provinces, they have no hopes of preserving themselves by any opposition or diversion."—And if they be ruined one year, we are undone the next.

† Temple's Observations on the United Provinces.

The necessity of a BARRIER, or a chain of strong towns, in the LOW COUNTRIES, to hinder the French from surprizing Holland, has been the sense of our parliament from the time of king Charles II. and is at present the sense of the wisest men in the nation, and of the truest friends to our constitution. In the year 1713, the parliament, in their humble representation presented to her Majesty, and printed by the Speaker's order, they affirm, in direct terms, "That the SUCCESSION and BARRIER are two points of the GREATEST IMPORTANCE to both nations," i. e. to BRITAIN as well as HOLLAND.

The present insecurity of the United Provinces, for want of a good barrier being settled, we may reasonably enough presume, has been none of the least incentives with France to act so barefacedly as they do at present against Great-Britain, imagining that it will not be in her power, without the aid of the Dutch, to right herself, especially if they should bring Spain into their measures (of which I make no doubt but they were certain before they struck any stroke in America); and, however omnipotent some people are sanguine enough to think this kingdom alone, yet we have had the experience of three long wars to convince us, that the strongest confederacies which can be formed, are scarce a match for France; and, therefore, they that are for trusting to the SINGLE STRENGTH of ENGLAND, in opposition to a force so much superior, must certainly very much mistake the true interest of their country. Our constitution will not consist with a standing army: the French king, on the contrary, can never be without one: therefore it is our business to secure the assistance of such as have always a standing force, ready to oppose to his; and by their fleets at sea, as well as their armies on the continent, may, in conjunction with us, either deter him from invading England, or, if he does, soon find him so much work at home, as may oblige him rather to think of defending his OWN dominions than invading his NEIGHBOURS.

Certain it is, that there is no alliance so useful to us as that of the STATES-GENERAL, in order to secure the Protestant succession: whether we consider their situation, their strength, (which I am grieved to think is far inferior to what it was in queen Anne's war) their religion, or indeed, their interest; for the safety of each country depends upon that of the other: for as, on the one hand, should HOLLAND fall under the dominion of France, Britain would be entirely cut off from any communication with the continent (which, joined to the great accession of naval strength which France would acquire by this conquest, must bring immediate ruin upon Britain); so, on the other hand, Holland must inevitably lose both its religion and liberties, the moment that France, or any Popish prince under the influence and direction of France, gets possession of Britain. From whence it necessarily follows, that the mutual defence and preservation of each other ought to be

be one of the chief maxims of government to BOTH NATIONS.

This is so plain, that the only handle which the emissaries of France have made use of to divide Us and the DUTCH, has been the point of TRADE, in which they have always endeavoured to represent them as dangerous rivals. Although we have occasionally spoken to this point, under the articles of FISHERIES in particular, yet it may be useful, at this juncture of affairs, to urge this matter farther.

Certain it is, that the wealth and strength of each nation doth depend entirely upon TRADE, and that therefore neither we nor they can be too careful and tender in that matter; but the world is wide enough for us both, and if the pains and expence that have been employed in the quarrels we have had with one another, upon the pretence of trade, had been applied to the keeping a watchful hand over our enemies, and preventing the encroachments they have made upon us both in this valuable article, and also the strides they have made, and are daily making, to universal dominion [see our article FRANCE], it is evident the commerce of both nations would have been much more extensive and flourishing than it is at this time; nor should we now have reason to dread the ill consequences that may attend the United Provinces, upon the breaking out of a fresh war in Flanders.

We are far from allowing, that the trade of the two states engages them in such a rivalry and competition with one another as has been generally pretended by those who are enemies to both: for all that have any insight into the affairs of HOLLAND must acknowledge, that their trade is chiefly founded upon their carrying goods cheaper than any nation of the world: the hard and penurious way of living they are inured to, enables them to perform the longest voyages with much less consumption and expence than other nations: by this means they are become the common carriers of the product of other countries, having none of their own, except what arises from their settlements in the Indies. Our trade, on the contrary, consists almost intirely in vending and dispersing the product and manufactures of our own country and the plantations, while our freight is dearer than that of any other nation. See the article FREIGHT, REMARKS thereon.

The main branch, therefore, of the Dutch commerce, no way affects or interferes with ours; neither, if they were to lay it down to-morrow, would any share of it devolve to GREAT-BRITAIN, but to the FRENCH, the DANES, the SWEDES, the HAMBURGERS, and the other Hanse-Towns [see the article FISHERIES particularly] who all both can, and actually do, sail much cheaper than we. And were the Dutch at this time to lose the plantations in the Indies, would not these fall into the hands of France? France, therefore, is our most formidable rival, and the proper object of jealousy to both nations, who, by fomenting animosities and quarrels between us, has had the address to weaken us at our own expence, and to make herself powerful under favour of our folly and connivance. The divisions between England and Holland first gave France the courage and opportunity to increase her naval strength, to extend her dominions in both the Indies, to drive the English out of the trade of HUDSON'S-BAY, and of great part of NEWFOUNDLAND; to lay such high duties on our respective commodities as amount to a prohibition, and thereby to encourage, and even force her own subjects to establish our manufactures in FRANCE, and by that means to run away with a great part of OURS, as well as the DUTCH trade to SPAIN, the LEVANT, and other countries. These are part of the fruits of our former quarrels with the DUTCH, which, one would hope, might have that effect, as to make us wiser for the future, by teaching us that the only way to retrieve our past follies, is by UNITING, in order to recover those valuable branches of our respective trades which FRANCE has taken from us; to preserve a ballance of power in Europe, which now seems in great danger, that peace and trade may flourish; to provide jointly and zealously for the security of the seas, and safety of our commerce; and to destroy that growing naval force that otherwise may soon prove our destruction.

That such an happy and indissoluble union may instantly take place, I hope it will not be judged unseasonable to endeavour to remove those prejudices against the Dutch, which too many, by the wiles and artifices of the partizans of FRANCE, have causelessly imbibed.

A popular objection against the Dutch, in relation to those wars wherein we have been allies and confederates, is this, viz. That though we have come generously into the wars, to help them in their distress, yet they have thrown all the burthen upon our shoulders, which they themselves would scarce touch with one of their fingers; that they have rooked us of our money, but done little or nothing to promote the common cause. This is that prejudice which has made the deepest impression on the minds of the common people. Profit and loss are things by which they are most sensibly affected: do but confidently affirm, that they have been cheated of their money, by such or such great men, their rage is presently kindled, without waiting for a proof, or expecting evidence.

Thus, in the reign of king William, the impatience of the people under taxes, together with a groundless clamour against the prince, as if he had transported the treasures of the nation into Holland, constrained him, contrary to his own sense of things, to precipitate a peace with France; whereas the carrying on the war till the king of Spain's death, and expending eight or ten millions THEN, would have saved the nation FIFTY MILLIONS since.—This was the case, also, at the conclusion of queen Anne's war, as well as of the last great war.

But I would ask, Was not England as much concerned to enter into these wars as the Dutch? Are we not highly indebted to the Dutch, for their assistance to bring about the Revolution? Nay, could it have been possibly brought about without them? Or what figure could this kingdom have made in queen Anne's war, without the aid of this our old and natural ally? The most groundless, false, and inveterate clamours were raised against them by the French partizans, in this reign, as if they had not brought into the field their quota's of men, arms, and ammunition, according to the stipulations agreed upon: whereas it was demonstrated, to the confusion of their enemies, that they had greatly exceeded what was required of them; and yet were so infamously treated by the Utrecht treaty-makers, that it is to be admired they were so ready to assist us in the last war, which was chiefly OUR war, and not theirs; for the depredations the Spaniards committed on us, gave birth to the war; and yet they were shamefully aspersed and belied, in regard to their conduct upon that occasion, which I could shew at large, if the limits to which I am confined did not so restrain me as not to admit of it at present.

However, that people may not be misled by the artful and wicked insinuations of the enemies of the Dutch (whom I shall ever look upon as the enemies of Great-Britain), it may not be altogether unserviceable to observe, in the general, That, if we consult any book of geography, or any map of Europe, we shall find that the dominions of his Britannic Majesty are twenty times as large as those of the STATES-GENERAL; their SEVEN PROVINCES are commonly reckoned no bigger than our four western counties: it is true, these provinces are fuller of towns and villages than most counties in England, but then the city of London is three times as populous as that of AMSTERDAM, the greatest city belonging to the States. This is evident by the bills of mortality, which, in the former amounts, in the most healthy years, to about 20,000, whereas, in the latter, they seldom amount to more than between 6 and 7000: without doubt, the Dutch must unite many of their biggest cities, before they can equal his Majesty's metropolis in number of inhabitants, and many more to equal it in wealth. What reason, therefore, can we have to think hardly of the Dutch, as if, in any degree, they withdrew their shoulders from the burthen, when the truth of it is, they actually have maintained more soldiers against the common enemy than we, though the wars have been as necessary for our safety as for theirs, and though their territories bear no manner of proportion to those of his British Majesty?

This will appear yet more evident, if we consider that their taxes are incomparably heavier than ours. This was the case in Sir William Temple's time, king Charles the Second's ambassador at the Hague, a most accomplished statesman; and since his time their taxes have greatly increased, although their trade and their treasure have not in the like proportion. Sir William tells us, in general, 'That they are oppressed with the most cruel hardships and variety of taxes, that was ever known under any government: that the excise [upon all commodities] is so great and general, that he hath heard it observed at Amsterdam, That, when, in a tavern a certain dish of fish is eaten, with the usual sauce, above 30 excises are paid for what is necessary to that small service &c.' In queen Anne's time, besides what we call the land-tax, which is heavier with them than with us in the general, they pay, says my author, excise for every thing they eat, drink, use, or enjoy.

§ Observations on the United Provinces.

The impost upon all corn ground in the mills of Holland, which every body pays without exception, amounts to 5l. 5s. per quarter of wheat, to half as much for rye, to 35s. for barley and oats: in a word, it is generally computed there, that the duty on all bread-corn is equal to the prime cost.

The excise on beer is as follows: first, the brewer pays 12d. a barrel, private families pay 20d. more, and victuallers, or retailers, pay another 20d. French wines pay 6d. a stoup, other wines twice as much. Butter pays 6s. a barrel, tobacco 10d. a pound, fish 20d. a pannier, and soap 11s. a barrel. Every horse above three years old pays 2d. a month; every horned beast above that age 3d. a month. Every coach pays 10s. a year, and every little bark 20d. All cattle, sheep, or hogs, that are killed, pay one penny in seven of the money they are sold for. All wood made use for fuel, pays one penny in eight of what it costs. Every master pays 20d. a head yearly for each servant that he has in his family, male

male or female. All ships, lands, and houses, that are sold by one man to another, pay to the government a fortieth penny of what they are sold for: hangings and household-stuff pay one penny in nine, and woollen cloths a fourth part of their value. In one word, the Dutch pay excise for salt, candles, lead, lime, coals, stone; there is not a turf or log of wood in their chimnies, not an herb or onion in their gardens, but what pays a duty, more or less, to the States. Our author assures us, that a cow of nine years old, if it be sold for 5 l. will pay above 6 l. to the States; and that there is never a dish comes to table but has paid excise above twenty times.

These are the impositions that our neighbours are subject to in times of peace, which, in war, are raised to a degree hardly to be believed: at such times, land and houses have paid 10 or 11 s. in the pound of their intrinsic value.

To such a degree are these our friendly provinces taxed, that they are under the necessity to lay impositions even upon the dead: but these, indeed, may be termed voluntary benevolence; for from noon 'till two o'clock you may bury your dead, without paying any other costs than only the charges of the burial: but they who bury half an hour after two are obliged to pay a forfeiture of 100 sous, which doubles every half-hour: for example; at three o'clock the forfeiture is 10 livres; at four, 20; at five, 40; at six, 80; at seven, 160; at eight, 320; and at nine, 640; which is the highest, for after that hour no body is permitted to bury.

The reader may be apt to ask, perchance, how it is possible for people to bear up under such heavy pressures, such loads, that even the English would certainly sink under? To this it is answered, That their extraordinary industry and parsimony enables them to support such prodigious taxes. A burgher of Amsterdam will dine contentedly on a red herring, when a citizen of London, of the same condition, will scorn to sit down to table without a surloin of beef or a couple of capons before him. Sir William Temple again tells us, that 'it is a common rule among them, for every man to spend less than what he has coming in, be that what it will; and that, if a man's expence equals his revenues, it discredits a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries: so that frugality is become honourable amongst them.'

Another thing that reconciles them to these excessive impositions, is that confidence which they have, that their money is laid out for the good of the community. The salary of a burgomaster of Amsterdam is but 500 gilders a year, which amounts not to 50 l. sterling: nor was it ever known that they who have the disposal of offices in that republic, took any money on that occasion. The prime ministers of state are obliged to no sort of expence more than ordinary modest citizens, in their habits, their attendants, their tables, or any part of their domestic affairs. Sir William never saw the two greatest officers belonging to their state, the vice-admiral DE RUYTER, and the pensioner DE WIT, with above one servant a piece in their train, but most usually on foot, and alone in the streets, like common burghers: and this was the general fashion among all the magistrates. This has made the people part cheerfully with their money, when it is not made use of to fill the coffers, or maintain the pompous equipages, of the servants of the public.

Upon the whole, when we reflect upon the small extent of this republic, their maintaining more men considerably than we have done, at an average, during the three great wars, in comparison to the extent of their territories, &c. with those heavy taxes which they submit to, we cannot doubt but they are the bravest people in the world; and it is certain that they have made the most prodigious efforts for the common liberties of Europe, that ever any state of the like dimensions did: and do they not deserve our utmost aid and assistance, when needful, as well as our praises and encomiums?

Another art practised by the French interest in this kingdom, to divide England and Holland, is the malevolent insinuation, That, in times of war in Flanders, the DUTCH in particular have drained us of our money. We cannot disallow but, on these occasions, a great deal of gold and silver have been exported to pay our armies in Flanders, though nothing comparable to the clamour that has been raised about it; but this could by no means be avoided in carrying on the wars, which have been always absolutely necessary in the defence of both states, since a tolerable understanding has happily subsisted between them. But in regard to this matter the case is plainly thus; we must, on these unhappy occasions, spare some of our money, or lose all our lands. However, it should be observed, by those who would know the truth of things, that the armies have, for the most part, been paid by bills drawn on merchants in Amsterdam, and other places: and the Dutch purchasing of us many hundred thousand pounds worth of British manufactures every year, brings back the money again

§ Holland takes from England, broad cloths, druggets, long-ells, stuffs of a great many sorts, leather, corn, coals, and something of almost every thing that this kingdom produces; besides all sorts of India and Turkey re-exported goods, sugars, tobacco, rice, ginger, pitch, and tar, and sundry

other commodities of the produce of our plantations. England imports from Holland, fine Holland linens, threads, tapes, and incles; whale fins, brass battery, madder, argol, toys, clapboard, wainfoot, &c.

that has been exported on those occasions: that is to say, The ballance of our trade by means of Holland, has far more than compensated for the occasional expences upon the continent, which our mutual safety seems to have rendered necessary. And, perhaps, upon due examination it will be found, that after those wars, and the expences among all the contending parties have run high in Flanders, the trade of England with Holland, Flanders, Germany, &c. has been temporarily augmented, in proportion to the money spent by England on those military achievements.

It would, without doubt, be better for both states, provided they could contend with the enemy wholly in a maritime way, upon the supposition that they could supply themselves with all ships and naval stores for the purpose, because such expences would circulate and center within themselves. But while France is able to support such formidable armies, and their territories so adjacent to the United Provinces, it is to be feared that the exertion of the maritime strength of England and Holland alone will not all times absolutely prevent a war upon the continent; for it should seem, that while the affairs of France are so circumstanced to enable them to uphold so great a military force, England and Holland, in conjunction with the house of Austria, and such other allies as can be brought into their measures, must somehow have a land force capable of looking France in the face, and stopping the progress of her arms.

That it is not in the power of the Dutch alone to do this, has been apparent beyond all doubt*. Nothing can effectually do this but another GRAND ALLIANCE; and England must, for her own security, contribute to a part of the military expence; and this may be more eligible, perhaps, than to send our soldiery abroad on these occasions, as has hitherto been our practice. There is, indeed, some doubt to be made in relation to the repose of confidence in allies and confederates, when they do not fight, as well as act, in concert: however, experience has shewn what troops and what general officers are to be trusted, when the cause of Great-Britain is at stake, although some people are too backward in our giving assistance to the Hanoverians, notwithstanding they are our natural ally, and have behaved gallantly in the common cause of England and Holland, notwithstanding they should be drawn into quarrels upon our account. And if the exigency of public affairs should require Great-Britain to take into her pay any troops to serve in Flanders against France, conjunctively with other confederates, will it not prove adviseable to put confidence in our tried, trusty, and natural friends and allies, the HANOVERIANS, who are subjects of the same sovereign? It has been said too, That if a war should break out, his Britannic Majesty, as Elector of Hanover, will augment his troops; if so, ought not this to prove a further inducement to us to take an additional body of these troops into British pay?

* If we consider France and Holland, as to the extent of their dominions, the Dutch can make no head. If we will consider the length and breadth of each province in the United Netherlands, and then multiply one by the other, we may know how many square miles there are in the whole, and see what proportion this bears to the kingdom of France.

	Square Miles.
Holland is computed 80 miles long, 40 broad, making	3200
Zealand, 30 long, 17 broad	510
Utrecht, 30 long, 25 broad	750
Guelderland and Zutphen, 50 long, 48 broad	2400
Overysfel, 60 long, 40 broad	2400
Groningen, 46 long, 24 broad	1104
West Friesland, 40 long, 25 broad	1000
Dutch Brabant, 55 long, 31 broad	1705
Dutch Flanders, 31 long, 13 broad	403

So that the whole comprehends, of square miles 13472

These are all the dominions the States-General have in Europe, except two or three scattering towns, which have no territories belonging to them worth regarding. Let us next see the dimensions of the kingdom of France. France is computed to be, in length and breadth, 200 leagues, or 600 miles. This number, multiplied by itself, produces 360,000 square miles. Now if you divide 360,000 by 13,472, the quotient is 27: so that the kingdom of France is 27 times bigger than all the territories possessed by the Dutch. If it be objected, That France is not in all places 600 miles broad, the same may be said of each of the United Provinces. Thus we have reckoned Holland 40 miles broad, when in many places it is not above 25; and you can consult no map, in which the disproportion between the two states will not appear greater than I have represented it. I confess, were France like the parched deserts of Arabia, or the frozen lakes of Lapland, a wild uncultivated wilderness, our argument would conclude very little; but France is a populous country, full of great towns and villages, and a rich and fruitful soil, containing above 36,441 parishes, above

above three times as many as there are in England and Scotland; nor has the greatest city in Holland half so many inhabitants as that of Paris: so that you may as well suppose that a gnat should swallow a camel, as that the Dutch republic should devour the French monarchy, or alone make any head against that nation.

We will next consider the revenues of these two states, which are not improperly stiled, the nerves and sinews of war. Sir William Temple informs us, that, in his time, the revenue of the Seven Provinces amounted commonly to 21 millions of gilders, which is something less than two millions sterling. It is true, in time of war, they have raised five millions; but this is little, compared to what the grand monarch collects within his spacious territories; his revenues, in 1695, amounted to more than 15 millions and a half of our money; and they have increased very considerably since that time. Of the number of their forces we have taken notice before.

It has been urged by some, That the whole empire is concerned to keep the UNITED NETHERLANDS out of the hands of FRANCE; and why should we be at any expence for them? This is certainly the interest of his Imperial Majesty, nor is any question to be made, but he will do all that he is able, to prevent so great a mischief to his family: but then the emperor may be involved against the Turks, &c. and so not able to help them, at least not to any effectual purpose. The German princes may be quarrelling one with another; or some of them may be bribed to take part with FRANCE against their own country, which has too often been the case of these perfidious princes. This was actually the case of the DUTCH, in 1672, when their two neighbours, the bishops of COLOGNE and MUNSTER, joined with the FRENCH in invading their dominions, and that with such success, that their deliverance from utter ruin was next to a miracle. These things considered, I hope it will be allowed by all true friends to the PROTESTANT INTEREST, that we did not, in our late wars, fight barely for the DUTCH, but for our OWN security, as well as theirs.

Notwithstanding the unhappy differences which heretofore, by the machinations of the common enemy, subsisted between England and Holland, and by means whereof France first raised their naval power; yet I cannot but look upon these misunderstandings as fatal to both states, as even civil wars would be in the hearts of their nations; because I cannot but look upon them in the light of ONE and the SAME PEOPLE, and that every measure ought to be pursued by both, to render their reciprocal interests compatible in every respect; so that they may be jointly and harmoniously enabled to extend their COMMERCIAL interests, and their MARITIME strength, in perfect concert and unanimity, in order to curb the growing formidable power of those who will ever be perfidious enough to attempt the destruction of both.

Another prepossession which the common enemy studiously endeavours to raise among us against this state, is their form of government, which is republican, and therefore cannot so well accord with ours, that is monarchical. Have we any reason to be angry with them on this account? Friends to this constitution must determine in the negative, when it is considered that their casting themselves into such a model was the effect not of choice, but absolute necessity.

It is not consistent with our brevity to enter into a detail of the rise, progress, and conclusion of the Low-Country wars; let it suffice to observe for the present occasion, that the United Provinces were once subject to the king of Spain:—That the invasion of their civil liberties, and the inhuman cruelties which those of the reformed religion suffered, provoked the distressed inhabitants to take up arms in their own defence, and to withstand those instruments of cruelty that were made use of to oppress them.—After many tumults and confusions, there was a convention of the estates at Antwerp, in the year 1581, in which it was determined, That Philip king of Spain, by invading their privileges, and overthrowing their constitution, had forfeited his right to govern those provinces, &c. and the throne was become vacant.—But, instead of moulding themselves into a commonwealth, they, at the same time, elected the DUKE of ALENÇON, younger brother to the king of France, to be their sovereign §. This prince accepted their invitation; but being influenced more by humour and caprice than by the maxims of policy and wisdom, he quickly lost the affections of his new subjects.—When he perceived this, he retired into France, and quickly after died there. The provinces being once more without a supreme governor, they offer next to transfer their allegiance to our renowned QUEEN ELIZABETH †. She refused, indeed, to accept of this proposal, but afforded them a very generous assistance, and continued their friend and patroness to the day of her death. Whence we may discern, that when the DUTCH formed themselves at first into a commonwealth, it was because they could not obtain a KING or QUEEN of their own, who was able and willing to protect them; and their erecting a republic was a matter rather of necessity than

§ Vide Stradam de Bello Belgico. Bentivoglio's Hist. of Flanders.

† Camden's Hist. of Queen Elizabeth.

choice. This seems plainly to demonstrate, that men may be born and bred in a commonwealth, and under government as anti-monarchical as Holland may appear to be; and yet the wisest part of the state may be zealous friends to a limited monarchy, especially such an one as that of Great-Britain, because there is no other nation that has the same constitution that we have, nor so well adapted to the happiness of the people.

Nor ought the religion of the Dutch, which is Presbyterian, to give either of the nations a prejudice against each other: the Dutch never attempted to obtrude their model upon us; they do not look upon their particular discipline as absolutely necessary to salvation, nor do they condemn those that differ from them; they look upon the church of England as a sister-church, and pay a due regard to her. An instance or two may be necessary to intimate, in order to what may be touched on in the sequel.

In the reign of king James I. when the peace of their provinces was very much disturbed, by the Arminian controversies, they sent to the king, desiring that some of our British divines might be permitted to come over, and consult with those of other reformed churches, in order to compose those unhappy differences. Accordingly, the then bishop of Landaff, with the doctors Davenant and Hall, afterwards bishops of Sarum and Exeter, were sent over by the said prince, with other eminent men §. These met with the divines of Holland and Germany, at the famous synod of Dort, where they gave their suffrages with the rest. So that the churches of England and Holland looked upon each other as members of the same body: nor have the latter, to this very day, receded from that charitable temper.

§ Vide Acta Synodi Dordrecht. pag. 10.

When the established church of England was really in danger, under the administration of king James II. when her bishops were imprisoned; when an illegal commission was set up, prepared to execute the vengeance of enraged Papists upon all the clergy in the kingdom; in that distress, did we not implore the assistance of the DUTCH? Were they not the instruments (under God) of rescuing our ecclesiastical and civil liberties, whilst the FRENCH offered their troops to enslave us? Before I leave this matter, it may not be improper to mention one or two instances more of the respect which is shewn in Holland to our Common Prayer. The Dutch consented to the erecting of a stately church in Rotterdam, in which the English Liturgy is read to such British merchants and traders as reside in that town. When the bishop of Bristol arrived at Utrecht, as her Majesty queen Anne's plenipotentiary at that peace, the state offered his lordship the use of one of their public churches in that city, for the celebration of divine service, according to the right and usage of the church of England: was not this paying a great deference to those forms of devotion used by his lordship?

We have not room to enter into the nature of the civil constitution and stadtholdership of this state, and to compare it with that of England: which if we were to do, it would be easily discernable that the constitution of Great-Britain is infinitely preferable, as being better calculated for the preservation of liberty and property, and the extension and enlargement of the commercial interests of a maritime nation. True it is, that the United Provinces have splendidly and gallantly figured it under their stadtholders; but if they had been governed, since their shaking off the Spanish yoke, by monarchs, limited as those of Great-Britain are in all respects; if, in a word, the constitution of the UNITED PROVINCES was modelled upon the plan of that of this kingdom; it would, in all human appearance, have increased the trading interests and glory of that state, to a degree far superior to what it ever was, and have established the same upon such a foundation, as would have contributed unspeakably more to the preservation of the Protestant and the commercial interests both of Great-Britain and the United Provinces, than a difference in constitution has done; provided that one and the same sovereign had governed both powers, and that a stadtholder was only a viceroy, deputed from the crown of England, as the Earl of Leicester was in our queen Elizabeth's time, or as a lord lieutenant of Ireland now is. And what hinders but this may one day be the case?

We have seen from a very brief comparison of the essential particulars relating to both states, that these provinces have no aversion to our monarchical government: on the contrary, they have frequently manifested a high regard to the British constitution in general; and they, as well as we, have experienced the ill consequences of the interest of both states not being bottomed and cemented upon the principles of an inseparable union, as well with regard to trade and navigation, as to every other material point.

That I may not be misunderstood upon this occasion, the candid reader is desired to observe, that all that is here meant and intended is, that if the DUTCH should ever think proper to agree to adopt the constitution of England, and make her sovereign their sovereign, they should possess and enjoy all the privileges of commerce and navigation as Englishmen, without

without any restriction whatsoever: for although we have compared a stadtholder, or viceroy, deputed from the crown of Great-Britain, to a lord lieutenant of Ireland; yet it is not thereby intended to insinuate that, in such case, the Dutch ought to lie under any restraints of trade whatsoever, as the Irish do, which is what also we disapprove, as well in regard to Ireland, as we should do in regard to Holland, if any such happy union could ever be brought about. And what would be the consequence hereof to both nations, we have briefly shewn under our article *TRADE*, to which we refer the reader.

But if England and Holland should never judge it adviseable to become one nation, and governed by one and the same constitution, the next best thing to be done, for the mutual security and interest of both, seems to be, to cement the strictest union between them that can be upon all other occasions. Nor can any thing more apparently evince the necessity hereof, than the surprizes to which they are both liable, from the machinations of France, their common enemy. This we have repeatedly experienced, to the unspeakable loss of the blood and treasure of both; and this we are likely too soon to experience again: and, therefore, does it not become the duty of the wise and honest men, and those in authority in both nations, to think seriously and expeditiously upon the best measures to secure and preserve themselves from those imminent dangers to which they are both liable by their disunion? For however sanguine some may be, that our security may be sufficiently provided for by our fleet, (which, indeed, is in a condition that gives glory to the nation) yet do we not know, that when the fleet of Holland was almost as powerful as our own now is, and theirs and ours were united, they with difficulty withstood the common enemy? It is a very fond opinion to imagine that we, who, in conjunction with Holland, have heretofore been insulted on our own coast by the fleets of France, and another time had probably been ruined by them, had not the heavens been favourable to us, should be able, without the assistance of the like degree of ma-

ritime strength, to secure us from a power so exorbitant as that of France and Spain may be in conjunction. The security of England and Holland does undoubtedly chiefly depend upon a powerful fleet; but does it not become the wisdom of both to be certain of that degree of naval power that will overmatch and defeat that of our enemies which may be united against us? But without the Dutch will instantly exert their maritime strength, and act zealously in concert with Great-Britain, we do not seem to have that degree of maritime strength, ready to act for the effectual security of both states. We have been repeatedly informed that the Spaniards have actually made, or apparently intend, an attempt on the Dutch colonies of ISEQUEBE and BERBICE, which are greatly assistant to our sugar colonies of Barbadoes and St Christopher's, in supplying them with timber for their sugarworks, of which it seems they must be deprived, if those colonies fall into Spanish hands: and if the French also get possession of the NEUTRAL ISLANDS, those sugar colonies must be greatly hurt, if not absolutely ruined and undone, for want of those needful supplies. If it should prove matter of fact that the Spaniards have made, or soon intend to make, such an attempt on those Dutch colonies, under the pretext of preventing illicit commerce with the Spanish colonies, does not this look with an aspect that Spain intends the like insults and encroachments on the Dutch, as they have shewed to us in our logwood settlements, from whence, it seems, they have quite extirpated the British logwood-cutters? Does not such conduct in the Spaniards appear too significantly declarative, that they intend as little good towards England and Holland, as France does? Do not these things seem to forebode a conjunction between France and Spain, that we both ought instantly to guard against by proper alliances, and by the due exertion of our maritime, as well as military strength? And as this nation has at present a very able and vigilant minister in Holland, we have good reason to expect as happy success from his negotiations ABROAD, as we have from the wisdom and councils of his honourable family at HOME.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the End of Letter T.

UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.—After the 1st of May, 1707, united into one kingdom, by the name of Great-Britain (art. 1.) 5 Ann. cap. 8. §. 1.—All the subjects to have full freedom and intercourse of trade and navigation, within all the dominions thereunto belonging (art. 4.) ditto act of parliament.—All ports of the united kingdom to be under the same LAWS and REGULATIONS of TRADE, liable to the same CUSTOMS and DUTIES, entitled to the same ALLOWANCES and DRAWBACKS as in England; except the exemption of private rights. 5 Ann. cap. 8. (art. 6; 7, 14, 18.) 6 Ann. cap. 26. §. 17. But after the Union, an equivalent was to be paid by England to Scotland for the improvement of the duties; to be ap-

plied towards satisfying private losses by the reduction of the coin, and to the payment of the capital stock and interest of the African and Indian company of Scotland; and the overplus towards the public debts of Scotland, and the encouragement of the fisheries, and other manufactures and improvements; which said equivalent was to be under the management of particular commissioners: but in lieu and full discharge of such equivalent, after the 24th of June, 1719; there was established one yearly fund of 10,000 l. and one other, of 2000 l. payable out of the revenue of custom, excise, &c. arising in Scotland, by the respective commissioners. 5 Ann. c. 8. §. 1. 6 Ann. c. 24. §. 1. 5 Geo. I. c. 20: §. 1, 14, 18.

W.

WAR

As this article stood in our former editions, begun in the year 1751, when France seemed again to be meditating a fresh war, soon after the treaty of peace concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748.

WA R. If Great-Britain should enter into a war in the present conjuncture of affairs, we have endeavoured to demonstrate, throughout this work, that she is compelled so to do for the defence of her rightful TRADE and POSSESSIONS, and not from any unjustifiable motives, or attempts made upon the commerce or possessions of any other nation. 'A man may be forced to kill another, in his own necessary self-defence, and then the sin is not in the slayer, but in him that is slain for in all cases of force, not he who is compelled to strike the stroke, but he who is the cause of the evil, bears the whole guilt. If a thief be found breaking, say our sacred oracles, and be smitten that he die, there shall no blood be shed for him. For the same reason, enemies may be slain in a just and necessary war: and it is no crime, but an honour to be successful in destroying them: but WARS of mere AMBITION are direct MURDERS.' See Dr Samuel Clarke's Works.

Some PRINCIPLES relating to the CONDUCT of WAR.

I. To deal with murderers of this kind then, it is not necessary only to be in a capacity to protect our trade and commerce, our possessions and our liberties, for the present, but we must endeavour to put it for ever out of the power of a perfidious nation to injure us again. See the article PLANTATIONS [REMARKS thereon], shewing the detestable perfidy of France for above a century past.

II. Nothing can effectuate this but the due exertion of our NAVAL POWER, as well MERCANTILE AS ROYAL, to destroy their trade and navigation, which is the great source of their treasure and strength. See our articles NAVAL AFFAIRS, SEA DOMINION, SEA BRITISH, SEAMEN.

III. If we suffer their trade and navigation, and, consequently, their maritime strength, to grow to a greater pitch, and do not put a stop to that career of splendor and power which they aim at, we shall be no longer a nation: vassalage and slavery must be the inevitable doom of Britons.

IV. To defend ourselves against any invasion, we must have a competent number of land forces; nor should we be destitute of a well-regulated and DISCIPLINED MILITIA, to contribute to the defence of our extended sea-coasts; for our fleets alone may not always be capable to prevent the landing of the enemy.

V. Left our own force should not be amply sufficient to put it out of the power of the enemy to disturb our peace, and distract Europe again, the most powerful alliances, both OFFENSIVE and DEFENSIVE, should be entered into that can be, with such powers whose interest it will be, as well as ours, to destroy the ENEMY'S TRADE AND NAVIGATION, and to TAKE AND DIVIDE THEIR MOST VALUABLE TRADING POSSESSIONS AMONGST US, ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF STRENGTH WHICH THE CONFEDERATES SHALL CONTRIBUTE TO THAT END, AND THE SUCCESS THAT SHALL ATTEND THEM. See UNITED PROVINCES, FLANDERS, HOLLAND.

VI. If the MARINE of HOLLAND could be raised equal to that of GREAT-BRITAIN, their united royal navies, together with their mercantile maritime strength, would certainly prove sufficient to answer this great end in the four parts of the world. See our article UNITED PROVINCES.

VII. If the UNITED PROVINCES cannot be brought, or are not able, perhaps, to raise their marine and their military force to the height desired, and to act vigorously, in concert with Great-Britain, as one nation, Great-Britain must do the next best thing that she is able: she must make such alliances as will afford her the greatest addition of MARITIME STRENGTH; and, if needful, she must not be backward in aiding, with her purse, such confederacies on the continent as may prevent the French from over running the United Provinces; for as the interest of Great-Britain and those provinces are inseparable, as we have endeavoured to shew under the article UNITED PROVINCES, it will be impolitic

WAR

for us to trust their whole security and protection to any other power or powers, without contributing any thing thereto. Besides, there may be other powers besides France, that might be glad to possess themselves of this republic, and who might not prove less detrimental to the trade and navigation of Great-Britain, than France would be, if the United Provinces were annexed to that crown.

VIII. If the United Provinces are reduced to so low an ebb, that they are rendered incapable of exerting themselves against France, in concert with Great-Britain, as they have heretofore done, it will nevertheless be for the interest of England to enter into an alliance with them, both OFFENSIVE and DEFENSIVE; and England must, for her own safety, do all in her power to preserve Holland from destruction: for if England enters into such alliances with the United Provinces as will make their INTERESTS ONE, and if they both zealously exert their maritime power, and ruin a great part of the French trade and navigation, and POSSESS THEMSELVES OF THE SAME, this will make them both an ample compensation for the expence of SUCH A WAR: and SUCH A WAR AS WILL RUIN THE TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF FRANCE, AND ADVANTAGE THAT OF GREAT-BRITAIN AND THE UNITED PROVINCES MUTUALLY, is the ONLY WAR that those powers ought chiefly to prosecute.

IX. The Dutch can never be so poor, as a state, but they are able still to lend themselves many millions, and are still able so to exert their maritime strength, in conjunction with England, as to destroy a great part of the French commerce and navigation, and to draw the same into their own scale: wherefore it must be very desirable to the well-wishers of both states, that such offensive and defensive alliances are instantly entered into, that may for ever secure the possessions of both, and so enlarge and extend the trade and navigation of both, as to give and preserve to them the dominion of the seas: for, without this, England and Holland will be no more, and Britons and Dutchmen must tamely submit to the French yoke.

X. So happy an union between Great-Britain and the United Provinces, would soon raise the maritime power, and the trade and navigation of both states, to what pitch they pleased; for if they jointly exert themselves, upon the coast of Africa, the French might soon be extirpated from all commerce in that part of the world, because the Dutch and the English united there, are now stronger than all the other powers who have settlements in that part of the world; [see ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, and DUTCH AFRICAN COMPANY;] and if the English and Dutch destroy the French AFRICAN TRADE, and possess themselves of their settlements for ever, will not this prevent that nation from supplying their sugar-islands with negro-slaves? and what then will become of their sugar-colonies? which, as they have proved the means of greatly extending the commerce of that nation, it is to be hoped that Great-Britain and Holland will have a watchful eye upon them; for if these were in ENGLISH AND DUTCH hands, and proper TREATIES OF COMMERCE were entered into between those two powers, in relation to their trading acquisitions, they would enjoy the SUGAR-TRADE OF THE WHOLE WORLD; and this, and their African commerce, would amply recompence them for the expence of a war of some years.

XI. Upon so happy a maritime and commercial union of interests between England and Holland, how long could the French figure it in Asia? Would not the united power of the Dutch and English in the East-Indies, soon lower the crest of France also in that part of the world?

XII. If once Great-Britain and Holland possessed themselves of the FRENCH AFRICAN SETTLEMENTS, and their SUGAR ISLANDS, this would give a great blow to the French commerce between Canada and those islands, and increase that between the British northern colonies and those islands.

XIII. In regard to the British affairs in North-America, we have urged that point largely, from the beginning to the conclusion of this work; but as every thing that throws a new light upon a matter of this high concernment to the nation, may have its use, I shall cite a late-ingénious writer upon this occasion*.

* See the State of the British and French Colonies in North-America, &c. In two letters to a friend.

' If we would secure, says that gentleman, our American dominions against the French, we must **OUT-FORT** them, as well as **OUT-SETTLE** them. Our colonies are in a worse condition by far than is generally believed, or can well be conceived, unable to hurt their invaders, or defend themselves, while the French have **FORTS** every where, and we have **FORTS**, in a manner, no where.

The number of forts necessary to be built for securing the colonies, must be estimated by the number of forts already built by the French on our frontiers, and the places proper for fortifying, which they have left unoccupied, which are indeed very few, so industrious they have been to anticipate us in an article of such infinite concern to our plantations.

As the country of the **OHIO** is in so much danger of being wrested from us, and its being well secured of so much importance to all the colonies in general, north, south, and middle, as hath been already set forth; if ever it comes into our hands again, it ought to be well fortified, by building forts in convenient places, along the river, especially at each extremity; that is, one at the mouth of the **OHIO**, on the **MISSISSIPPI**, and another at **NIAWGRA**, near the lake **ONTARIO**: this last will prevent the communication of **LOUISIANA** with **CANADA**, by that lake and the lake **ERIE**, and oblige the French to abandon their forts on the south-east side of this last lake, by rendering them useless, as well as save us the expence of erecting a fort at **TIERONDOGNAT**, on the lake of **ONTARIO**, about 60 miles to the east of the **NIAWGRA** streight: a place which they have long had their eye upon for building a fort, and which we might be under a necessity of fortifying, in case the French remain at **NIAWGRA**, in order to prevent their taking possession of it, as they did once already, in 1687, although it was but for a short time: and this, doubtless, was the reason which made governor Clarke of New York so earnest to have that place fortified.

In effect, a French fort there would prove no less dangerous to **NEW YORK**, than that at **CROWN POINT**, as it would give them admission into the country of the **SENNEKAS**, the most powerful of the **SIX NATIONS**, among whom they have already gotten some footing, by means of the **NIAWGRA** fort, and their priests; and whose defection, considering their influence, might be a means of our losing the friendship of the other five.

The fort at the mouth of the **OHIO** ought to be strongly built and garrisoned, and a considerable settlement made about it: after, this settlement might be gradually carried on, between the **MISSISSIPPI**, and the **ALLIGANEY** mountains, backwards and forwards at the same time. Nor can too much encouragement be given to settle this country, especially on the side of the **MISSISSIPPI**, as quick as possible, by allowing people liberty to settle how and where they please, without making large grants to any company; an obstacle which has hindered settling more than any other thing, and, on many accounts, proved greatly detrimental to the colonies, by raising the price of land to an exorbitant degree; which, besides the dangerous evil of enriching a few, and impoverishing many, has been attended with one still more pernicious, that is, of weakening the colonies, by leaving near **HALF OF SOME OF THEM UNPEOPLED**.

This fort and settlement would effectually exclude the French from passing into the western parts of Virginia, by the **Ohio** and its branches: but as they have two forts on the **WABISH**, one at its mouth on the **OHIO**, and another about the middle of that river, it would be proper to have two others built, in opposition to them: the second, in the part where it draws near the river of the **ILONIS**, or **CHIKTAGHIKS**. Should we go a little farther, and erect another on this last river, in the neighbourhood of the former, it would intirely cut off their communication this way, between **LOUISIANA** and **CANADA**, and oblige them to go so far about, as to discourage them, with all their sanguine views and perseverance, from ever hoping to compass their so-much-desired project of joining their two colonies on this side of the **Mississippi**.

The country to the south of the **OHIO** would be in good measure secured, by the fort built at the mouth of it, which will hinder their passage into the **HOGHEGE**, or river of the **CHEROKEES**, dividing the country of these Indians on the north from **VIRGINIA**. However, more effectually to secure it, and, at the same time, cover the country of the **CHEROKEES**, it would be proper to build one at the **FALLS**, a little below the place where the **PELESUPI**, or **CLINCHES** river joins it, in the north-west borders of the **CHEROKEES**; and another especially in the heart of the country possessed by those people, who have long applied with great earnestness to the governor of **CAROLINA** for that purpose, representing the danger which otherwise there was of the French doing the same; and it is well if, through this unpardonable neglect, the French, in case they should be forced out of the back parts of **VIRGINIA**, [see **VIRGINIA**] do not, in their return to **NEW ORLEANS**, put that design in execution: as to be sure they will, in case they keep possession of what they have already usurped, in order to prevent any attempts on our side to secure that country to us. By a like pernicious remissness, or something else, were they suffered, since the

year 1715, to build the fort **TOULOUSE**, on the river **ALLIBAMOUS**, not far from the country of the **CREEK INDIANS**, and the borders of **GEORGIA**; which frontier, though not yet sufficiently fortified, has balked their views of carrying on their **CHAIN OF FORTS**, on that side, to the Atlantic Ocean, which, before that colony was founded, they thought themselves sure of effecting, whenever they pleased, and, therefore, made the less haste to accomplish it.

These **FORTS** might serve, at present, to fortify the southern provinces of our American dominions. With regard to our northern, the first thing that demands our attention is the security of **NEW YORK**, and its **PROVINCE**. This will be, in good measure, done by the **FORT** to be built at **NIAWGRA**, and that already built at **OSWEGO**, in the country of the **SIX NATIONS**, at the south-east end of the lake **KADARAKAI**, or on **ONTARIO**, almost due south of the **FRENCH** fort of **FRONTENAC**, on the north-east corner of the same lake, about 70 miles distant. But this fort, which is the only one we have for defence of our back settlements for many hundred miles, 'till we come to **GEORGIA**, ought to be much enlarged, strongly fortified, and furnished with a pretty numerous garrison, and is of great consequence, by its situation, to both the security and trade of our northern colonies, it being our north-western frontier, and the only place, or opening left, by which the Indians can come to us with their furs. For this reason, 'till such time as our neighbours shall be obliged to allow them a free passage through the **LAKES**, it will be necessary to build a vessel or two, capable of mounting guns for the conveniency of carrying them backwards and forwards, across the lake; which expedient will go a great way to frustrate the design of the French, and recover our trade.

And here it is worth observing, that this fort of **OSWEGO**, built by governor Burnet in 1727, by favour of the Indians, stood unmolested all the last war; and although the garrison usually consists of no more than an officer and 23 men, has been of more service and benefit than all the rest, although now it must be in imminent danger. This is a demonstrative proof of the great importance and advantage of such **FORTS**, on the number of which and small garrisons, properly placed, the interest and support of the French almost wholly depend.

However, more effectually to secure **NEW YORK**, a strong **FORT** ought to be built in view of the French **FORT** at **CROWN POINT**. By means of this post, they may be enabled to intercept, or at least disturb, the trade from **ALBANY** up to the **MOHOK's** river, a branch of **HUDSON's**, to the **Six Nations**, by sending a force on that side; and could they destroy the commerce of these Indians with the province of **NEW YORK**, they would oblige them to depend wholly on **CANADA**, a thing which they threatened to have done in 1732.

During the late French war, from 1744 to 1748, **CROWN POINT** was the rendezvous of the **CANADA** French and their Indians, from whence they attacked **NEW YORK**, and the north-west corner of **MASSACHUSETTS BAY**. From this place, in 1745, they destroyed **SARATOGA** settlement, on **Hudson's** river, about 30 miles above **ALBANY**: in which parts, during that and the two following years, they killed and captivated above 300 of our people*, destroying most of the inhabitants and plantations on the north-east branch of that river. In former wars, the attack on New England was from the north-eastward; in the war of 1746, it was from **Crown Point**. New York government, in former French wars, did not suffer, but in this last they suffered most†; that is, they were punished for suffering that fort to be built. Besides building this counter fort, **ALBANY** ought to be put in the best posture of defence imaginable, in order to secure it against any attempts on that side. This quarter requires the strongest barriers, because the French have declared it to be the chief object of their views; and it lies so near **QUEBEC**, the center of all their strength in **CANADA**, from which they have a most convenient passage all by water, excepting a small space of about 12 miles by land.

* Douglas's Summary of North America, vol. ii. p. 246.

† Ibid. vol. i. p. 316.

Monf. Callieres, who first proposed the project for the conquest of this city, to induce **Lewis XIV**, to comply with his desire, says, in his Memoirs to the French ministers, 'That this conquest would make the king master of one of the finest ports in **AMERICA**, which they might enter at all times, and a most beautiful country, in a mild and fertile climate!' No wonder so inviting a description as this should set the French at **Canada** a longing for **NEW YORK**: but ought not that longing of theirs to make us more earnest to preserve it?

By these fortifications, **NEW ENGLAND** will be pretty well secured on the west side, as it will on the east by those already built, and the two now building on the river **KENNEBECK**, one by the province, the other by the proprietors of the **KENNEBECK** purchase; whose generous example, it is hoped, will animate others to do the like, and not let them stop

stop, 'till they have erected a fortress on the very banks of ST LAURENCE RIVER, which is within their limits. Mean time, as the last of the two forts has been founded so high as the TAKONNEK FALLS, and the north part of New England lies wholly exposed to the ravages of an enemy, it is not doubted but that they will not delay to build a third, at the head of the KENNEBECK itself in the Carrying-Place, not above four miles over, where it locks with the river called by the French LA CHAUDIERE, which falls into the ST LAURENCE, four or five leagues to the south-west of QUEBEC. This fort should be strongly built, and furnished from Britain with a garrison of 500 stout men: unless this be done, the building those two forts will only serve to put the French in mind of doing it. And from their conduct it may be judged, that a small occasion would serve them for a pretence.

The building a fort here is the more necessary on three accounts; (1.) As it will bridle the ABENAKKI INDIANS, in the interest of the French, and hinder them from ever attempting any thing against NEW ENGLAND, this having always been the place of rendezvous for both, on such occasions. It will also prevent their going on the OHIO expedition; and those restraints, by degrees, be a means of their coming over to our interest. (2.) As it lies near the heads of the rivers St Francis and St John, as well as of the Kennebeck and La Chaudiere, before mentioned; so that it will have the command of four very important rivers, two of which fall into the St Laurence, the Chaudiere towards Quebec, and the St Francis towards Montreal. (3.) As it will help to cover not only the northern borders of New England, but also those of New York, from which it will not be far distant. I may venture to say, that the good effect of this fort will extend as far as ANNAPOLIS ROYAL, and the town of HALIFAX in NOVA SCOTIA, by cutting off all supplies of men and stores to the French in that country, by ST JOHN'S RIVER, which will oblige them to abandon their forts lately built at the mouth of it. The KENNEBECK company, in full expectation of this desirable event, have already given land to 100 men, and their families, to settle the country thereabout, under protection of the two forts newly built upon that river.

How different is the practice of some colonies, to this generous public-spirited conduct of the KENNEBECK proprietors! The assembly of NEW YORK, in their address to governor De Lancey, the 20th of August last, complains, 'That other colonies make themselves strong and defensible, by settling in townships, or some other close order, while our frontier lands are granted away in patents almost without bounds or number, regardless of settlements, or the public welfare.' And in a State of the British settlements, now in view, we are told, that 'even the lands beyond New York itself and Albany, on both sides of Hudson's river, by an abuse which ought to be remedied, viz. the old exorbitant grants, are but thinly inhabited, although lands for settlement in that colony are extremely wanted: and those tracks would soon be purchased, if they could be had at any tolerable rates.' This unpeopled state of the country is of so much the worse consequence, since, in case the French should attack ALBANY and NEW YORK at the same time, one by SEA, and the other by LAND, conformably to their plan, from whence could ALBANY be reinforced? The country has not men to supply it, nor could NEW YORK, in such a case, be able to spare any. On this occasion, the memorial of 1732 observes, 'That when the present state of New York, and the power of those neighbours (the French) is well understood, it will too evidently appear, that they will, on a rupture, be under unhappy circumstances; and with them the other colonies must be deeply involved.' Such ENFEEBLING GRANTS, therefore, are of pernicious tendency every where, but no where so much as in the province of NEW YORK; which being the key of all the other colonies, and most exposed to our northern neighbours, who, for these reasons, cover it, all means which can be thought of, conducive either to its improvement or security, ought to be applied, and every the least obstacle to either ought to be removed.

After the words cited from the assembly's address, they justly remark, 'We can erect FORTS and BLOCK-HOUSES; but to what end? Woods and uncultivated tracks are not the objects of security; industry is to be protected, and men persons to be defended, otherwise little good will accrue to the public, be the expence what it will.' It is true, there can be no prospect of settling a country, while such discouraging grants are in the way: but were those obstacles removed, under the protection of such forts as have been proposed, in a very short time we might hope to see this part well inhabited, and, consequently, the strongest barrier (as it ought to be) in the ENGLISH AMERICAN dominions against the FRENCH. With regard to NOVA SCOTIA, including the country to the east of KENNEBEK RIVER, it will require several FORTS and settlements to secure it, not only at the mouths of the three principal rivers, PENOBSCOT, LA CROIX, and ST JOHN'S, at which last there are two French forts, but also at certain posts along those rivers, particularly this last; which beginning not far from the head of the Kennebek, and passing with a circular course, encompasseth the greater and most va-

luable part of all the country; so that those forts will keep both FRENCH and INDIANS in awe, as they will have an easy communication by water among themselves, and with the settlements on the other rivers, travelling only a little way by land. Above all, care must be taken to build a strong fort at SHEGNIKTO, on some elevated ground, to the north of the French fort, which may both command, and exceed it in force; for the present fort is so weak, and ill situated, that the garrison would be obliged to surrender almost at the first shot: so that, in case of a war, we should have no chance there. Nor will this be enough: it will be necessary for securing it, to have two forts more, one at BAY VERTE, to prevent our neighbours from invading the country at pleasure, that being their landing-place from CANADA, and one of the two ways by which they enter and correspond with Nova Scotia: ST JOHN'S RIVER, as before mentioned, is the other, by which (says La Hontan) the inhabitants of those two countries may hear from each other in 16 or 17 days, though not in a month by sea.

The second fort ought to be erected at the entrance into SHEGNIKTO basin, or harbour; for should the French build one there, they would exclude all access to it by sea.

But as the erecting so many forts at once in this province (of Nova Scotia) may be thought too expensive a work, it may be sufficient, for the present, only to build some along the river ST JOHN, and those at SHEGNIKTO.

By such a number of forts and settlements as I have mentioned, may the BRITISH territories be effectually secured, the FRENCH kept at a distance, and our trade in good measure recovered, by passages opened for the Indians to come and trade with the colonies; which will likewise be at liberty to extend their settlements on all sides, in spite of any opposition which the French can give them, or rather without danger of any from them: for, by means of these forts, a much stronger line of circumvallation will be formed against them, than they at present have against us.

You will say, perhaps, that I have cut out a fine expensive work for the colonies. It will be expensive, there is no doubt of that; but what can be done, supposing fewer forts will not be sufficient to secure them? If, therefore, the burthen fall heavy, they may thank their own mismanagements. Had FORTS been gradually built on their frontiers, and as they extended their out-settlements, after the example of the FRENCH, a thing which ought to have been done, the charge would not have been felt. As this has been neglected, that must be done at once which should have been done at different times: besides, the expence is greatly augmented, by their having suffered the French to build upon them every where. At first, a few forts erected in proper places, would have served the purpose, and their neighbours finding the possessions secured, might never have thought of disturbing them: but seeing the countries lie open, and the colonies careless through a vain security, or worse, covetousness, they were invited to enter, and punish their neglect in the manner they have done.

REMARKS before the last war, and peace of 1763, in our first edition began in the year 1751.

If America should again become the seat of war, as it was in the last, (and this it certainly will, if the Spaniards join the French) it will prove of unspeakable detriment to these kingdoms, as things are at present circumstanced, provided it should be conducted as the last war there was, and if there should be such unhappy misunderstandings between admirals and generals, as was between Mr Vernon and Mr Wentworth, &c.—I have now the misconduct of this whole affair before me; which would prove very disagreeable, and, indeed, very shocking, to represent in its true colours. But we will hope for better conduct in the next war, in that part of the world, or our all, I am confident, will be lost there.—It appears to me, that there are opportunities enough in America greatly to distress the Spaniards, if it should become necessary, as well as the French; and, after having provided effectually for our affairs in Europe, we cannot have too great a fleet to act in America, and elsewhere: but, unless we strike some CAPITAL AND EFFECTUAL STROKE, the war will only be prolonged for the benefit of the officers, from year to year, and turn to the dishonour and ruin of the nation, instead of its glory and prosperity.

We have not the least reason to be discouraged at the expence of a much greater FLEET than ever this nation beheld. If we had a fleet as powerful again as we have, we should scarce feel the expence of it: nay, I could almost presume to affirm, THAT THE GREATER OUR ROYAL NAVY IS, THE RICHER, INSTEAD OF THE POORER, WILL THE NATION BE; AND THEREFORE WE CAN SCARCE SPEND TOO MUCH UPON OUR MARITIME FORCE.

Exclusive of what we expend for naval stores with other nations, the residue of our naval expences is raised within ourselves, and centers and terminates within ourselves. 1. Our royal navy is victualled among ourselves, and this enriches the landed gentleman, as well as the farmer and grazier. 2. Our ships are built and masted with our own timber, and built by British artificers. 3. Though we take hemp from Russia,

yet our cordage and sail-cloth and iron are chiefly manufactured amongst ourselves, for the employment of our manufacturers and artificers. 4. Our ship-chandlery particulars, great in number, are produced among ourselves; and our ships are supplied with liquors by our own brewery, and our own distillery. 5. Though we used formerly to be obliged to take our pitch and tar from Sweden, yet at present we have the bulk of it from our own plantations; and so we may, in time, have all our hemp from thence: and whatever adds to the circulation of commerce between England and her colonies and plantations, tends to augment the opulence and power of both. 6. The appointments paid to our sea officers, and wages of our mariners, also revert again into our own hands. 7. The great estates frequently obtained in time of war by our admirals, and other chief officers, as well as by privateering, generally make the nation more than an ample recompence for the mercantile losses we sustain by sea in those calamitous times. 8. The prizes which we commonly make of the enemies ships of war and naval stores, can scarce fail to be equivalent to those we may happen to lose of our own.

Upon the whole, if we compare the national expence raised upon our ROYAL NAVY, when it shall be exerted to its fullest extent in times of war, with the national RETURNS, as the necessary consequence thereof, according as our affairs are now happily circumstanced; we need not be at all apprehensive, that a war carried on by SEA can ever impoverish or hurt the kingdom at all. For let it be supposed that 3,000,000*l.* a year, or even more, was raised annually above the ordinary expence, for the support of the royal navy, it will not be easy for any one to shew, that near the whole expence raised would not return into Great-Britain again. From past experience in relation to the three last great wars, the expence of our naval affairs, considered in the several lights before intimated, did the nation no great injury, and would have done much less, if we could then have provided ourselves, as we now can, with so great a part of our naval stores.

Nor could it do us any detriment, if the expence was considerably greater, provided the money was constantly RAISED WITHIN THE YEAR; for the greater our naval power is, if exerted as it ought to be, the greater might, and very probably would, be our advantages by sea over the enemy, and therefore the RETURNS of treasure into the kingdom would be equivalent to the EXPENCE RAISED: and this would be almost all gain to the nation.

But supposing the necessity of our affairs should oblige us to run annually THREE MILLIONS, or more, into debt, on account of our NAVAL EXPENCES, let us consider how it would affect the wealth of the nation.

Who must be the public creditors to whom this money will be due? Does it not every shilling (except what I have before excepted) arise from the product of our land, and the labour of our workmen? And while the PRINCIPAL MONEY is due only AMONGST HIS MAJESTY'S SUBJECTS, as I have zealously pleaded for in this performance, and the INTEREST paid to them only, such debts will fit light upon the nation: but when any proportion of such debts becomes due to foreigners, by transfer or otherwise, and the interest money goes out of the nation, this is reckoned a disadvantage in the like degree, which is the reason that I have suggested how desirable it would be, if it should ever be found practicable, that all the PUBLIC DEBTS THE NATION SHALL BE OBLIGED TO INCUR, should be CONTRACTED AMONGST BRITONS ONLY; in which case, no interest-money would go out of the nation, and, consequently, the burthen of our national incumbrances would be the less sensibly felt. See our articles CREDIT, [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS, [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS, MONIED-INTEREST.

Although a part of the interest money paid on account of the principal debt contracted for our naval affairs, should be remitted to foreigners out of the kingdom, in virtue of their becoming our public creditors, yet it should not be forgot, that the PRINCIPAL VALUE arose from the produce of our LAND and our LABOUR, and that we have taken such foreigners PRINCIPAL MONEY, though they take away our INTEREST MONEY. This abates the evil in some degree: but when a great proportion of the principal money due to FOREIGNERS has been spent in FOREIGN COUNTRIES, and never returned in any shape to us again; when this is not only the case, but the interest money is spent out of the nation likewise; this magnifies the evil of such debts.

But when our native land and labour shall have PRIMARILY received the benefit and advantage of our NAVAL EXPENCE, it may be a quere, whether those benefits and advantages, considered upon the WHOLE, may not be equivalent to the disadvantages sustained by paying interest to foreigners for a PART only.

Certain it is, however, that let these our NAVAL EXPENCES be any way considered, it should seem, methinks, as if they had a tendency rather to enrich the nation, than any how to injure or impoverish it: for so much of the money expended this way, in time of war, is really something like extracting so much GOLD and SILVER out of our MINES; and what is the common produce of our LANDS and our LABOUR, are

MINES of the greatest utility to the state. Neither should it be forgot, that our ROYAL NAVIES, built and equipped with such money, become really PERMANENT RICHES for many years, of which we enjoy the benefit; and the service and glory which the kingdom derives from these her NAVAL TREASURES, far more than compensate for the expence of the interest of the money they cost, be that considered in what light it may.

In a word, it should seem, however paradoxical at first glance it may appear, that our very NAVAL EXPENCES are creative, under the restrictions we have considered them, of NATIONAL WEALTH; and if our whole public incumbrances had been made up of such sort of expences, and raised within the year, and the whole interest money had centered within ourselves, as perhaps might have been the case, our debts would have proved very little burthen to us. There is another consideration, notwithstanding, that ought to alleviate, in some measure, the thoughts of the burthen of the INTEREST MONEY paid to foreigners who are our public creditors; which is, that the chief of our foreign public creditors being the subjects of the United Provinces, and the author of this work looking upon the interest of those provinces in a light absolutely inseparable from that of Great-Britain, thinks that the interest money paid to them ought to be looked upon, in some degree, as really paid to ourselves: and what ought to be some additional motive with us to have a natural tie and affection towards that nation, is the cheerfulness they ever shew to aid and assist us with their money-subscriptions, upon all emergencies, and in all other shapes, I am willing to think, according to their power, unless when some wicked men at the helm have prevented it. And is not this the case of all nations at one time or other? But the contrary is the genuine sense of the wise and upright men in that state; and I hope that we shall soon happily experience a perfect union and good understanding between GREAT-BRITAIN and HOLLAND, notwithstanding all the wiles and machinations of our common enemies, to divide and distract us, in order to subvert the power of both.—To this end, I have zealously endeavoured to remove the prejudices which too many in this kingdom are at present taught to have against the Dutch, by the emissaries of France. See our articles UNITED PROVINCES, HOLLAND, TRADE, FLANDERS and NETHRELANDS.

These considerations, we humbly hope, will animate the nation to spare no EXPENCE upon their NAVAL POWER, if the necessity of affairs, as I fear will be the case, should make it requisite even to treble the FLEETS we at present have, more especially if we exert ourselves to raise the whole of our naval stores in our plantations.

REMARKS on our article WAR, since the last war, and the PEACE of 1763.

Under our article TAXES, there appears an account of all the money that has been raised since the year of the REVOLUTION in 1688, to the conclusion of the reign of his late Majesty George II. If we cast an eye upon the incredible expence of the last war, it would certainly have proved utterly impracticable to have raised such supplies WITHIN THE YEAR as were raised to carry on that war. Since the reign of queen Anne, our PUBLIC DEBTS are nearly trebled to what they then were, although a great parade has been made, since that period, to lessen them. And if the examples of carrying on WARS by this nation at the expence we have hitherto done, are to become permanent precedents, and esteemed worthy the sanguine imitation of posterity; it requires no extraordinary prescience to predict, that such expensive wars must at length prove the inevitable RUIN and DESTRUCTION of this commercial empire. For to such a degree must our TAXES in general be necessarily augmented, to pay the INTEREST of our ENCREASED PUBLIC DEBTS, that the NECESSARIES OF LIFE, THE PRICES OF LABOUR, AND THE PRICES OF ALL OUR COMMODITIES AND MANUFACTURES, WILL BE SO GREATLY RAISED AND INCREASED, THAT THE GENERAL DOMESTIC CONSUMPTION OF ALL OUR NATIVE COMMODITIES WILL DECREASE AMONG OURSELVES; OUR GOODS WILL BECOME SO DEAR, THAT FOREIGNERS NEITHER CAN NOR WILL PURCHASE THEM: AND WHAT WILL BE THE CONSEQUENCE HEREOF? AS THE HOME CONSUMPTION OF OUR NATIVE COMMODITIES DIMINISHES, WHAT WILL BECOME OF THE REVENUE OF EXCISES? WILL NOT THAT BE REDUCED PROPORTIONABLY? AND WHEN WE SHALL NOT BE IN A CONDITION TO EXPORT OUR OWN GOODS, BECAUSE NO FOREIGNER CAN OR WILL BUY THEM, WHILE HE CAN BUY THOSE OF OTHER NATIONS, OUR TRADING COMPETITORS, CONSIDERABLY CHEAPER, HOW LONG SHALL WE BE ABLE TO IMPORT THE FOREIGN GOODS OF OTHER STATES AND EMPIRES? NOT LONG, MOST CERTAINLY. AND WHEN THAT COMES TO BE OUR CASE, WHAT LIKEWISE WILL BECOME OF THE REVENUE OF CUSTOMS? WILL NOT THAT BE REDUCED AS OUR IMPORTS SHALL BE? WHERE THEN SHALL WE FIND THE FUNDS TO PAY THE INTEREST FOR OUR PUBLIC DEBTS? WILL NOT THE FUNDS

FUNDS VANISH ALSO, FOR THE PAYMENT OF THE KING'S CIVIL LIST REVENUE; FOR THE SUPPORT OF HIS HOUSEHOLD, AND THE HONOUR AND DIGNITY OF HIS CROWN? WILL NOT THE VERY EXISTENCE OF THE SINKING FUND, NOW MORTGAGED AS A COLLATERAL SECURITY TO THE PUBLIC CREDITORS, BE ANNIHILATED; AND INSTEAD OF THE NATIONAL CREDITORS HAVING ANY SECURITY FOR THE DISCHARGE OF THEIR PRINCIPAL MONEY, HOW WILL THEY COME BY THEIR INTEREST? WHEN THIS SHALL COME TO BE THE STATE OF PUBLIC CREDIT, AND THE MONIED INTEREST SHALL BE UNDONE, WHAT WILL BECOME OF OUR TRADERS? WILL NOT OUR MERCHANTS FLY TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES, AND THERE EXERCISE THEIR SKILL AND INDUSTRY, TO IMPROVE THE COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THOSE COUNTRIES, WHOSE GREATER CHEAPNESS OF THEIR COMMODITIES WILL INDUCE THEM TO TRADE THEREIN THROUGHOUT THE WHOLE WORLD? WHEN WE HAVE LOST OUR MERCHANTS AND OUR MONIED MEN, WHAT A FIGURE WILL OUR LANDED GENTLEMEN MAKE? WHEN OUR BRITISH LAND SHALL BE OF AS LITTLE WORTH AS THAT IN SIBERIA, WILL THE RAISING FOUR SHILLINGS IN THE POUND UPON SUCH LAND, RAISE AGAIN THE BRITISH SPLENDOR?

It would be easy to carry on this strain of observation to a much greater pitch; but the idea of a bankrupted and ruined nation is a melancholy subject to dwell upon; especially when men are too apt to judge it visionary. I heartily wish it may never prove otherwise; the author had rather have his memory eternally stigmatized, than such a catastrophe should ever come to pass. His motive is not to alarm with false fears; but to guard Britons against that danger that appears to him impending, unless some masterly strokes of policy are struck, to reduce the tax-incumbrances on our trade in general, in order to reduce the PRICES OF OUR COMMODITIES AND MANUFACTURES in general as low as those of any RIVAL NATION in EUROPE. 'Till this is done, and most effectually too, we deceive ourselves in imagining, that we shall be able to preserve our trade and navigation. The wisest TREATIES OF COMMERCE with nations will not effect it; they will eternally be evaded; such states and empires with whom we should make them, and become even upon a better footing with them in trade than any other nation is, cannot be compelled to purchase our goods, when they can have others from 15 to 30 and 40 per cent. cheaper. Nor shall we ever be able to put a stop to the infamous practice of smuggling in Great-Britain and Ireland, and the British plantations, while they shall be able to buy French and other foreign commodities so much cheaper than they can English. I could heartily wish and rejoice that these things were considered by our RULERS as they ought to be, and this great work was set about in earnest; for if it is deferred, the malady will grow so malignant as to become absolutely incurable. It has proved a misfortune to both states, that Great-Britain and the States General, have not been happily cemented in their interests; we mean more particularly in their commercial interests; for nothing but a union founded on such a basis, can influence them to act in concert heartily for their reciprocal support and preservation, against France, or any confederacy the court of Versailles may form against them both.

But while the Dutch experience it more for their benefit and advantage, to traffic in French commodities and manufactures, in preference to those of English; while the Hollanders find it turn more to their account to engage large capitals in the French trade, and carry the wares of that kingdom for sale to every part of the world, by reason of their greater cheapness and readier vent than English, 'tis no wonder, that those states are more united than England and Holland; but it is more astonishing, that the great men in England and Holland have not yet fallen upon some measures to accomplish a desirable commercial union, as previously necessary to a total union of all their mutual interests. For till this is done, and effectually done, they will always be liable to be plunged into wars; which their hearty conjunction would often prevent.

However beneficial the Dutch may have found their neutrality when Great Britain has been engaged in wars with France, the States General may at length carry this maxim too far; for it is to be feared, that France will never lose sight of attempting to annex the United Provinces to their crown, however they may temporize with them. The Dutch may also have reason, and that, perhaps, not long first, to dread the machinations of another great and intriguing power, whose great aim seems to be to erect himself into a considerable maritime and commercial power; to which end he may have his eye no less upon the United Provinces than some other, and that acquisition would not a little contribute to his extensive views. Nothing might have a happier tendency to render abortive such schemes of power, either on the side of France, or others, to swallow up Holland, than a perfect harmony and good understanding, in all respects, between

Great-Britain and the States General; and this upon principles preservative of the being of both states, and tending to the increase of their commerce and navigation. See UNITED PROVINCES, FLANDRES, HOLLAND.

WARWICKSHIRE is bounded with Worcestershire on the west; Gloucestershire and Oxfordshire on the south; Derbyshire and Staffordshire on the north; and Northamptonshire on the east: in circumference it is computed at 122 miles. Its air is excellent, the soil rich, and its principal commodities are corn, malt, wool, wood, iron, coal, and cheese. The most considerable of the many rivers and brooks it is plentifully watered with, are the Avon and the Tame.

COVENTRY is a large, populous, and rich city: the chief employment of the inhabitants, at present, is in the manufacture of tammies, and weaving the ordinary sorts of ribbons, especially black.

TAMWORTH is a fine pleasant town, noted for its good ale: the river Tame parts it in the middle, so that one half of this town is in this county, and the other in Staffordshire. Here is a considerable trade in narrow cloth, and some other manufactures.

BIRMINGHAM is a large populous town; multitudes of the meaner sort of people are employed here in the iron-works, in which they are such ingenious artificers, that their performances in the small wares of iron and steel are admired both at home and abroad.

STRATFORD has a stone bridge on the Avon, which is navigable to it by barges. It is a populous town, and its chief commodity is malt, which it makes in great abundance.

The navigation of the river Avon is observed to be of vast advantage to this county, and to the particular commerce of the city of Bristol; for by it they drive a great trade in groceries, iron, lead, and all heavy goods, which are usually carried by water almost as far as Warwick; and, in return, the corn, and especially cheese, are carried back from Gloucestershire and Warwickshire to Bristol.

ATHERSTON, on the Stour, is famous for its cheese fair, the greatest in England, on the 8th of September. Here the cheese factors buy vast quantities, which they carry to Stour-bridge fair.

NUNEATON is a pretty large well-built town, and has a manufacture of woollen cloth.

WATCH-MAKER. See CLOCK-MAKER.

WAX. See BEES-WAX.

WEAVING. See CLOTH, LINEN, SILK, TAPESTRY, &c. WEST-INDIES. See AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, LEEWARD ISLANDS.

WEIGHTS.

The foreign Weights of several of the chief trading parts of EUROPE compared.

The weights for HEAVY GOODS may properly be divided into three sorts. 1. GREAT WEIGHTS, 2. POUNDS, and, 3. Their FRACTIONS, or small weights.

The great weights are the SCHIPPENDT, which makes 300 or 400 pound, according to the different places; the LOAD, composed of two bales, making likewise 300 or 400 pound weight; the WAGE, about 165 pounds; the QUINTAL, making 100, 104, 105, 110, and sometimes 112 pounds, or more, according to the custom of each place.

The hundred, which is divided into QUARTERONS; the AROB, between 25 and 32 pounds.

The LISPENDT, 15 pound, more or less; the STONE, in some places of 8, in some of 15, and in some of 16 more; in others, more; the POUND consists in some places of 12, in some of 14, in others of 16, which is most common; and in some of 40 ounces. And those FRACTIONS are variously subdivided, according to the goods that are weighed, and the custom of the place.

The fractions of the POUND are the MARK, consisting of 8 ounces, or half a pound; the OUNCE, of 8 GROSS, or DRACHMS, or 24 DENIERS, or 20 ENGELS; the GROSS, or DRACHM, of 3 DENIERS; the DENIER, of 24 GRAINS; the ENGEL, of 32 ACES, or 30 GRAINS. In weighing of PRECIOUS STONES, &c. the OUNCE consists of 576 GRAINS, but they reckon it 600. Four GRAINS make a CARAT.

The SILVERSMITHS divide their MARK, which they call OUNCE, into OCTAVES, CARATS, and GRAINS. The MARK, or OUNCE, contains 8 OCTAVES; the OCTAVE, 20 CARATS; and the CARAT, 4 GRAINS.

In HOLLAND, and particularly at AMSTERDAM, they make use of two sorts of weights, to weigh all sorts of goods and commodities subject to be weighed by the town-weights, viz. The MARK, or Troy weights, and the ANTWERP weights. The MARK, or TROY WEIGHT, is that which is known all over Europe, and which is used by the goldsmiths in weighing gold and silver, consisting, as I have already said, of 8 ounces, or half a pound; so that, to make the hundred weight, there must be 200 MARKS, which hundred weight, or 200 marks, makes 105 $\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of Antwerp weight, or a little less; and the hundred weight of Antwerp makes but 94 $\frac{1}{2}$ pounds weight of Amsterdam.

As for Antwerp weights, they are only used there to weigh certain sorts of silk, cochineal, some drugs, and other things of that nature.

Nor is it of the Antwerp, but of the Amsterdam hundred of 200 marks, that the schippendit is composed; by which weight the Holland cheese, Riga hemp and flax, and many other such goods, are commonly sold. At Amsterdam the schippendit is reckoned but 300 weight, and not 400, as in divers other places.

The pound mark of Spain and Portugal is held to be about $\frac{1}{2}$ an ounce less than that of Amsterdam. However, they make use, in those countries, of several smaller weights.

In France they use three different sorts of weights in buying and selling of goods, viz. mark-weight, table-weight, and king's-weight, or custom-house weight.

It is not necessary to give further account of the mark-weight, of which I have said enough. What they call table-weight, is that they make use of in several provinces in the kingdom, and particularly in Provence and Languedoc; which weight is between 18 and 25 per cent. smaller than the mark-weight; though at the same time the pound table-weight is composed of 16 ounces, because those ounces are so much smaller than the other. And though that diversity of weight, in almost every town in Provence, and High and Low Languedoc, occasions a great inconvenience to trade, the inhabitants of those towns cannot be prevailed with to alter their ancient weights and measures.

Though some who have wrote upon that subject, have not taken notice of the difference between the weights of Toulouse and those of Marseilles, 'tis certain that the latter are $5\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. or thereabouts, smaller than the former; since 100 weight of Toulouse renders about 105 $\frac{1}{4}$ at Marseilles, and 100 weight of Marseilles renders only about 95 at Toulouse.

Nor are they less mistaken, who reckon the weights of Marseilles equal to those of Rochelle; for, on the contrary, they differ almost 25 per cent. as shall be shewn.

In some places of France they reckon by the quintal, and in others by the hundred, and in some places, both by the one and the other. And in that case, strangers must take particular notice of making contracts, clearly to express which of the two they mean.

By the hundred is meant barely 100 weight, and no more. And by the quintal is commonly meant 104; and in some places much more, as we shall see hereafter. And even at Toulouse they add 1 pound to the 104, to make it good weight as they call it.

At Lyons they have two sorts of weights. By the town-weights all sorts of goods are weighed but silks; and they reckon 14 ounces mark to the pound.

By the others nothing is weighed but silks; and the pound consists of 15 ounces.

At Rouen they have likewise two sorts of weights; those of the Viconté, and the mark-weight.

The weight of the Viconté is taken to be about 6 per cent. better than that of Paris, or the mark-weight, in weighing of wool; but in other cases it is only 4 per cent. greater than the other. And so it is divided into fractions of 52, 26, and 13 pounds.

There being no Viconté weights less than 13 pound, all fine goods that are sold by smaller weights are weighed by the mark-weight.

Of the WEIGHTS of HOLLAND, and their conformity with those of other COUNTRIES.

We have already observed, that the weights ordinarily used in Holland, and particularly at Amsterdam, are those called mark-weights; and though some people make them equal to those of Paris, Straßburgh, Besançon, and Bourdeaux, it is certain, there is some difference between them.

Of the WEIGHTS of BRABANT and FLANDERS, compared with those of HOLLAND.

The difference between the weights of Amsterdam and those of Brabant, is about $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. exclusively: so that 100 pound of Amsterdam make 105 $\frac{1}{2}$ of Brabant, Antwerp, &c. and 100 pound of those places make 94 $\frac{4}{5}$ of Amsterdam. As for the reduction of the one into the other, nothing is more easy, since you need only make the plain operation of the rule of three, and say,

If 100 pound of Amsterdam make 105 $\frac{1}{2}$ of Antwerp, &c. how many will 90 $\frac{4}{5}$ make? And you will have just 100—And on the contrary,

If 100 pound of Antwerp, &c. make 94 $\frac{4}{5}$ of Amsterdam; how many will 105 $\frac{1}{2}$ of Antwerp make? And you will likewise have 100.

And so you may make the reduction of any quantity whatsoever, of the weights of one of these places, into those of the other.

You may comprehend, under the name of those of Antwerp, the weights of more of the other towns of the same province, and likewise of Flanders; though indeed there is some small difference between them, as it has been calculated, according to the following account, viz.

100 pound weight of Amsterdam makes at	Brussels	100
	Bruges	
	Louvain	
	Bois Le Duc	98
	Malines and Aerschot	
	Bergen-op-Zoom	98
	Namur	99
	Ghent	108

The schippendit of Antwerp is 300 pound

The load - - - 400

The wage - - - 165

The stone - - - 8

Of the WEIGHTS of PARIS, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

Though there is but an inconsiderable difference between the weights of Amsterdam and those of France, we did not think fit to pass it by without notice. According to the truest calculation, we reckon the weights of Paris $1\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. heavier than those of Amsterdam. That is to say, 100 pound of Amsterdam make 92 $\frac{2}{3}$ pound of Paris; consequently 100 pound of Paris make 101 $\frac{1}{3}$ pound of Amsterdam. The reduction of the one into the other is made in the manner mentioned above for the weights of Flanders and Holland, which is very plain.

The WEIGHTS of ROUEN, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

For making the reduction of the weights of those two places, you need only to take notice, that

100 pound of Amsterdam make 96 pound 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ ounces, Viconté weight of Rouen; and

100 pound Viconté weight of Rouen make 104 pound of Amsterdam.

The WEIGHTS of LYONS, compared with those of HOLLAND.

We have observed that at Lyons they use two sorts of weights, viz. the pound of 15 ounces mark for silks, and that of 14 ounces for other goods; and the latter being the town-weight, observe, that

100 pound town-weight of Lyons make 86 pound of Amsterdam, and 100 pound of Amsterdam make 116 pound town-weight of Lyons, or thereabouts. Observe also, that the weight for silk is $\frac{1}{15}$ greater than the town-weight: so they reckon, that 100 pound silk-weight make 108 pound town-weight, and 100 town-weight make but 98 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound silk weight, and a little more.

The WEIGHTS of BOURDEAUX, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

Though a certain mistaken author has averred, that 100 pound of Amsterdam make 115 of Bourdeaux, the same having been exactly compared, the difference was found to be only $\frac{1}{2}$ a pound or thereabouts, that the weight of Amsterdam proved heavier than that of Bourdeaux; so that the difference being so very small, it will not be necessary to trouble the reader with further notice thereof.

The WEIGHTS of ROCHELLE and NANTES, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The difference between the weights of Rochelle and those of Amsterdam, is so inconsiderable, that some writers have asserted that they are equal; but upon a more exact enquiry, it appears,

100 pound of Amsterdam make 99 pound of Rochelle; and 100 pound of Rochelle make 101 pound of Amsterdam, or very near—The weights of Nantes are equal to those of Rochelle, or but a very trifling difference.

The WEIGHTS of TOULOUSE, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Alby, Cartres, Lavour, and other towns of High Languedoc, are the same with those of Toulouse.

100 pound of Amsterdam make 118 pound of those places; and 100 of those places make 84 pound $\frac{2}{3}$ of Amsterdam.

The WEIGHTS of MARSEILLES, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

Though it is commonly said that 100 pound of Amsterdam make only 120 pound of Marseilles; upon an exact enquiry into the matter, it appears that 100 pound of Amsterdam make 123 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Marseilles; and

100 of Marseilles are reckoned 300 pound of the weight of that town; and by that they commonly sell the Levant and Turkey goods.

The WEIGHTS of GENEVA, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

Monf. Sebastian Peters, an author of Bremen in Germany, in a book he published, says, that 100 pound of Geneva make 113 $\frac{1}{2}$ of Amsterdam, and that 100 pound of Amsterdam

Amsterdam make 88 pound of Geneva; but Messieurs Marcet, brothers, and natives of Geneva, late merchants of Amsterdam, say that

100 pound of Geneva make $112\frac{3}{8}$ pounds of Amsterdam; And 100 pound of Amsterdam make 89 pound of Geneva.

The Weights of LONDON and DUBLIN, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

They make use of three different sorts of weights at London, for weighing of goods and silver, viz. The great hundred, the hundred, and the weight of Venice.

For what they call the great hundred, they give 112 pound; and in some sorts of goods, only 104 pound, and that only to citizens of London; the strangers, and such Englishmen as are not citizens, having only 100.

But for spiceries, drugs for dyers, and some other such things, strangers and citizens promiscuously have 112 for 100.

When strangers sell their goods, they must deliver them by the king's weights; but when they buy, they must use the merchants weights, which are less than the king's weights.

They weigh silver by the weight called the weight of Venice; 12 ounces of which make the mark.

According to the best computation, 100 pound of London make $91\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Amsterdam; and 100 pound of Amsterdam make $109\frac{1}{2}$ pound of London.

The weights of Ireland are the same with those of England.

The Weights of SCOTLAND, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Scotland being about 4 per cent. greater than those of London, the reduction must be made accordingly.

The Weights of BREMEN, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Bremen being 3 per cent. less than those of Amsterdam, 100 pound of Amsterdam make 103 pound of Bremen, or a little more; and 100 pound of Bremen make 96 pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of HAMBURGH, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

At Hamburgh they sell several sorts of goods by the schippendt of 300 pound, or 30 stone of 10 pound each, to the schippendt; which renders at Amsterdam 294 pound.

It is to be observed, that at Hamburgh, retailers have the privilege to sell any goods, not exceeding 10 pound, by the weight of Cologne, which is 2 per cent. less than that of Hamburgh; but wholesale merchants must sell by the weight of that place.

They have but one weight at Hamburgh, by which all goods are to be weighed; and the weighers, at their admission, take an oath before the senate, and keep a record of all goods they weigh.

100 pound of Amsterdam make 102 pound of Hamburgh; and 100 pound of Hamburgh make 98 pound of Amsterdam, or thereabouts.

The Weights of LUBECK, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

There is about 5 per cent. difference between the weights of Lubeck and those of Amsterdam. For

100 pound of Amsterdam make 105 pound of Lubeck; and 100 pound of Lubeck make $95\frac{1}{4}$ pound of Amsterdam.

The schippendt of Lubeck is composed of 320 pound;

The stone, of 10 pound; and,

The lispndt, of 16 pound.

The schippendt renders at Amsterdam about 305 pound.

The Weights of COPENHAGEN, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The schippendt of Amsterdam is composed of 20 lispndts, or 32 pounds; and 100 pound of Amsterdam make $101\frac{1}{4}$ pound of Copenhagen; and 100 pound of Copenhagen make $98\frac{3}{4}$ pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of BERGEN in NORWAY, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Bergen are by some reckoned equal to those of Copenhagen, but upon scrutiny it has been found that there is some difference. For

100 pound of Amsterdam make $95\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Bergen; and 100 pound of Bergen make 105 pound of Amsterdam.

Some reckon the schippendt equal to 300 pound of Amsterdam, but it is commonly reckoned 315.

The Weights of STOCKHOLM, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The schippendt of Stockholm, for copper and such goods, consists of 320 pound; but that used for other commodities is reckoned 400.

The first renders at Amsterdam $273\frac{1}{2}$ pound; the last, 342.

100 pound of Amsterdam make 117 pound of Stockholm; And 100 pound of Stockholm make $85\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of DANTZIC and REVEL, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

They weigh fine goods in those places by the STONE of 24 pound.

Almonds, rice, wax, and such other goods, are weighed by the GREAT STONE of 34 pound.

Brafs, tin, lead, and other such goods, are weighed by the great hundred, of 120 pound.

16 pound, mark-weight, make 1 lispndt.

20 lispndts make the schippendt of 32 pound.

But the schippendt of Revel is reckoned 400 pound.

100 pound of Amsterdam make $112\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Dantzic; and 100 pound of Dantzic make 89 pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of STETIN, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

See what has been said of the weights of Copenhagen; to which those of Stetin are reckoned equal, or within a very small matter.

The weights of Koningsberg consist of 400 pound, or 10 stone of 40 pound each; and it renders at Amsterdam 306 or 307 pound.

When burghers of Koningsberg buy of strangers, they allow $4\frac{1}{2}$ or 5 per cent. good weight.

100 pound of Amsterdam make 125 pound of Koningsberg; And 100 pound of Koningsberg make 80 pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of RIGA, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The schippendt of RIGA consists of 20 lispndts, and renders at Amsterdam about 330 pound.

100 pound of Amsterdam make $121\frac{1}{2}$ pound at Riga; and 100 pound of Riga make $82\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of FRANKFORT and NUREMBURGH, compared with those of HOLLAND.

The ordinary custom of Frankfort and Nuremburgh, is to allow 120, and sometimes they allow the length of 132, to the hundred.

100 pound of Amsterdam make 98 pound of Frankfort and Nuremburgh; and

100 pound of Nuremburgh make 102 pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of BERN in SWITZERLAND, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Amsterdam are about 11 per cent. greater than those of Bern; for

100 pound of Amsterdam make 111 pound of Bern; and 100 pound of Bern make 90 pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of LEIPSI compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The difference between the weights of these two places is not so considerable as some authors have made it, viz. 8 per cent.; for upon enquiry it appears, that

100 pound of Amsterdam make 105 pound of Leipzig; and 100 pound of Leipzig make $95\frac{1}{4}$ of Amsterdam.

The Weights of NAUMBURGH and HALL, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

There being but a very inconsiderable difference, if any at all, between the weights of these two places, and those of Leipzig, I refer the reader to what is said thereof before.

The Weights of BRESLAW in SILESIA, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The difference between the weights of those two places is very considerable, being, according to the exactest computation, no less than 25 per cent. So that

100 pound of Amsterdam make 125 pound of Breslaw; and 100 pound of Breslaw make 80 pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of COLOGNE, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Amsterdam are 4 per cent. greater than those of Cologne; So that

100 pound of Amsterdam make 104 pound of Cologne; and 100 pound of Cologne make 96 pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of LIEGE, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The weights of Amsterdam have likewise the advantage of those of Liege, about 5 per cent. or little more; for

100 pound of Amsterdam make $105\frac{1}{4}$ pound of Liege; and 100 pound of Liege make 95 pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of GENOA, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

At Genoa they use five different sorts of weights in buying and selling goods.

The first they call the GREAT-WEIGHTS, which are used in the custom-house.

The

The second they call CASH-WEIGHTS, being what they weigh the piastres, and other silver species, with.

The third they call QUINTERO, which is the common-hundred, used for bulky goods.

The fourth they call the GREAT BALANCE, by which they weigh raw and unwrought silks. And

The fifth they call the SMALL BALANCE, for weighing fine goods.

They reckon that 90 $\frac{4}{5}$ rotoli, great-weight,
or 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ rotoli, cash-weight,
or 100 rotoli, common-weight,
or 144 pound, great-balance,
or 153 pound, small-balance,
make 100 pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of LEGHORNE, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The pound of Leghorne consists of 12 ounces, mark-weight. They commonly sell goods by the quintero, which in some cases is reckoned 150, in some 151, and in some cases 160 pound.

And sometimes they sell by the thousand.

Wool and fish are sold by the quintero, of 160 pound.

100 pound of Amsterdam make 145 pound of Leghorne; and

100 pound of Leghorne make 69 pound of Amsterdam.

And you may likewise observe, that

100 pound of Leghorne make 85 pound of Marseilles; and

100 pound of Marseilles make 117 $\frac{3}{4}$ pound of Leghorne.

The Weights of MILAN, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The pound of Amsterdam makes 1 pound 11 ounces of Milan, or a little more.

The pound of Milan makes 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ ounces of Amsterdam, or a little more. So that

100 pound of Amsterdam make 168 pound of Milan; and

100 pound of Milan make 59 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Amsterdam.

Some authors have made the difference greater, but this account is conformable to the exactest computation.

The Weights of VENICE, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

At Venice they use two sorts of weights, one for wholesale bargains, the other for retail; and the difference between these weights is very considerable.

For 100 pound, wholesale gross weights, make 158 pound, retail weights; and

100 pound small or retail weights, make but 63 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound, gross weights.

100 pound of Amsterdam make 166 pound, small weights of Venice; and

100 pound, small weights of Venice, make 60 pound of Amsterdam.

They also commonly reckon that 100 pound of Marseilles make 134 pound, small weights of Venice.

The mark of Venice, both at the mint and among the goldsmiths, is reckoned 8 ounces, and the ounce 144 carats.

They likewise divide the ounce into 4 quarters, and the quarter into 36 carats, 1152 of which compose the mark.

Gold and silver thread is weighed by the ounce of 132 carats; whereas the small ounce consists only of 120; and the carat is composed of 4 grains: for though one of those weights be heavier than the other, they are both divided in the same manner.

Spiceries are sold by the load of 400 pound, small weights.

The weights of NAPLES and BERGEN, compared with those of HOLLAND.

As there is little or no difference at all between the weights of Naples and Bergen, I have comprehended them both in one article.

100 pound of Amsterdam make 169 pound of Naples, &c.

And 100 pound of Naples, &c. make 59 pound of Amsterdam.

The Weights of SPAIN, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The robe of Seville and Cadiz consists of 25 pound, and 4 robes make the quintal, the pound being reckoned of 17 ounces.

But the quintal for iron is reckoned at Bilboa and St Sebastian's 155 pound, the pound consisting of 16 ounces.

100 pound of Amsterdam make 106 pound of Seville and Cadiz, of and

Amst. make 108 pound of Alicant; and

100 pound of Seville and Cadiz make 94 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Amsterdam, or a little more.

And 100 pound of Alicant make 92 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Amsterdam, or a little more.

The Weights of PORTUGAL, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

The robe of Portugal consists of 32 pound, which render

VOL. II.

between 28 and 29 pound of Amsterdam; and 4 robes make the quintal.

100 pound of Amsterdam make 114 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Lisbon, or a little more; and

100 pound of Lisbon make 87 $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Amsterdam; or a little more.

The Weights of CONSTANTINOPLE, SMYRNA, LEYDA, ALEPPO, and SICILY, compared with those of AMSTERDAM.

100 rota's of Constantinople and Smyrna make 114 pound of Amsterdam.

100 rota's or damasquins of Leyda, make 380 pound of Amsterdam.

100 rota's or acres of Leyda make 486 pound of Amsterdam.

100 rota's of Aleppo, for coarse goods, make 455 pound of Amsterdam.

100 rota's of Aleppo, for Persian silks, make 430 pound of Amsterdam.

100 rota's of Aleppo, for white silks, make 440 pound of Amsterdam.

100 rotolo's of Sicily make 162 pound of Amsterdam.

See our article MEASURES.

WESTMORELAND is an inland county, and has Lancashire on the south and south-west; Cumberland on the west and north-west; and Yorkshire and the bishopric of Durham on the east and north-east; and is about 120 miles in compass.

Its air is sweet, healthful, and pleasant, but somewhat sharp in the mountainous parts; the vallies are pretty fruitful, especially in the meadows near the rivers; and the northern parts afford plenty of arable land, which bears good store of corn.

Among the mountains, in the south part of the country, lies Winander Mere, said to be the greatest lake in England: it is about 10 miles in length, and said to be of a vast depth in some parts of it, and well stored with the chare, a sort of fish rarely found, except among the Alps, and is reckoned a sort of golden Alpine trout; it is baked in pots, and so sent to London, and other parts.

The Ulles-Water is another lake well stocked with fish, and has some chares too, but not in such plenty as the other.

APPLEBY is the county town, but is neither rich nor beautiful. It has the best corn market in all these northern parts.

KENDAL, upon the river Can, is much superior to Appleby in trade, buildings, and the number and wealth of the inhabitants, and is indeed the largest town in the county, being enriched by the industry of the townsmen, and the woollen manufacture, with which they have drove a trade throughout England for some ages. It is of note, also, for the manufactures of cottons, druggets, serges, hats, worsted and yarn stockings, &c.

KIRKBY LONSDALE, the chief town of Lonsdale, i. e. a vale upon the Lone, is a pretty large town, with a woollen manufacture.

KIRBY STEPHEN, on the river Eden, is noted for weaving yarn stockings.

AMBLESIDE is another town noted for a manufacture of cloth. It stands on the upper corner of Winander Mere.

MILTHORP, at the mouth of the Can, is the only sea-port town in the county, commodities being brought hither in small vessels from Grange in Lancashire.

WESTPHALIA in Germany. This circle stretches along the west side of the Weser, from the German Ocean on the north, to Hefia on the south, and between Lower Saxony on the east, and the Netherlands on the west. The air, especially in the north part, is very cold, and great part of the soil marshy and barren; however, it has plenty of corn and pasture, but the fruit is very ordinary, and used chiefly to feed the hogs, which are numerous, and of an excellent kind; so that the bacon they send abroad is very much esteemed. It is divided into several dominions or provinces.

OSNABRUG, which is the capital of the bishopric of that name, is a neat well-built city: the inhabitants, who are very industrious, not only breed abundance of hogs and other cattle, but have a considerable trade in making linen, in brewing a palatable, though thick sort of beer, called buse, and in baking the best white bread in Westphalia.

OLDENBURG has a good trade by barges, which come up from the Weser to its bridge.

PYRMONT, famous for its mineral waters, lies on the borders of Hanover. It is the capital of a county. There is a great resort of German and other nobility hither to drink the waters, which are preferred even to those of the Spa, and exported far abroad from Bremen, to which they are carried by the Weser.

LUDE is of note also for its medicinal fountain, for which it is much frequented: this commonly goes by the name of Pyrmont water.

HOXTER, on the river Weser, is a fair considerable trading town.

SOEST is a populous city on the river Arse, but having no trade, is not very rich.

DORTMUND, though a small place, is rich and populous, having

11 I

ing a pretty good trade, and communication with the Rhine by its river Empfer.

CLEVE, the metropolis of the duchy of that name; is so called from its situation among cliffs, and on the declivity of a hill, between the Rhine and the Maese, is one of the finest countries of Germany. It is now small, but well built and peopled. The river Hel, which runs by the foot of its castle, is navigable by small vessels to the Rhine.

EMMERICK is a large, rich, beautiful town, pleasantly situated on the east side of the Rhine, and has a pretty good trade.

CALCAR, on the river Men, which falls into the Rhine, soon after it was built grew populous and rich, by a trade in linen; but since one of its dukes built a vast granary here, for the boors to bring their corn to, it has been more considerable for making malt and beer.

WESEL, called NETHER WESEL, to distinguish it from Upper Wesel, in the electorate of Treves, stands on the east side of the Rhine, near the mouth of the river Lippe. It is not only a large and well-built town, but populous, and well seated for trade. It grew rich by the concurrence of merchants, who fled hither from the persecution in the Spanish Netherlands.

DUISBURG is a small city on the Roer, which falls a little lower into the Rhine. Fairs were held in the town formerly, which brought a great trade to it, but are since removed to Frankfort.

DUSSELDORP has its name from the little river Duffel, that here falls into the Rhine. The town is large and well built. Here are three weekly markets for corn, which is imported hither from the Low Countries, and exported in great quantities to Cologne, and other parts of Germany.

SOLINGEN, a small city on the river Wipper, is only noted for making good cutlers ware.

AKEN, by the French called AIX LA CHAPELLE, is of chief note, and greatly frequented on account of its baths.

The adjacent country abounds with corn, fruit, and pasturage. They have also rich coal-mines, besides others of iron, lead, vitriol, sulphur, and lapis calaminaris, and are well supplied with necessaries by the Rhine and Maese.

WETTERAW in Germany. This is the general name of the county that lies between Hesse on the north, the river Nayne on the south, the Rhine on the west, and the county of Reineck on the east. The principal dominions of it are,

The county of NASSAU, which is bounded on the north by Westphalia; on the west by Berg, Triers, and the Rhine; on the east by Hesse and Solms; and the electorate of Mentz on the south. The soil and product of it is various. In several parts they have good mines of iron, lead, copper, and other metals.

DILEMBERG on the river Dilla, has a good trade in cattle and woollen goods.

SIGEN, near which there is a very good iron mine, stands on the river Siega.

EMBS is noted for its baths.

HERBORN, upon the river Dilla, is a city of a pretty good trade in cotton and woollen cloths.

WISBADEN is an ancient large town frequented by reason of famous hot baths in it, from whence it has the name.

HANAU, the capital of a county or division so called, stands pleasantly on the river Kintz, and is reckoned one of the neatest and most regularly built towns in Germany: it is much frequented by merchants of several nations, particularly the French and Dutch. The Walloons here have established several manufactures, viz. woollen stuffs, snuff, &c.

But the chief of the imperial and free cities in Wetteraw, of which it is the capital, is FRANKFORT. It is a large, populous, and rich city; it has a great trade by the Mayne and the Rhine, and several other rivers which fall into them, and is very well situate for bringing corn and wine in abundance from the Palatinate and Franconia. It has two annual fairs, frequented by merchants with all sorts of commodities, particularly books from most parts of Europe, of which they distribute printed catalogues; so that there is greater choice here than in any other town in Christendom, during their mart, which lasts three weeks.

On the north side of the city is a spacious horse-fair or market, where a vast number of good horses are sold to the French king, and the neighbouring princes, particularly the former, who buys some thousands in a year to remount his cavalry. The Jews are the chief jockies.

WILTSHIRE is bounded on the west with Somersetshire, on the east with Berkshire and Hampshire, on the north with Gloucestershire, and on the south with Dorsetshire and part of Hampshire, and is 140 miles in circumference.

The air is very sweet and healthy. The soil of its vales is very fruitful, and affords great quantity of as good cheese as any in England; and though that of the hills is in some places chalky, and barren enough, yet its cheapness makes it beneficial to the neighbouring farmers, some hundreds of acres having been rented at a groat an acre. But the numerous flocks of sheep fed there, turn much more to the profit of the proprietors. And the abundance of wool thereby produced, invited the inhabitants to fall very much into

the clothing trade; and the best broad cloths, both white and dyed, in England, are made in the west and north parts of this county, and indeed in the south and east parts too, but not in such quantities.

SALISBURY is a large, well-built, pleasant city. Besides the manufacture of flannels, druggets, and the cloths in particular, called Salisbury whites, for the Turkey trade, here is a considerable trade in bone-lace; and partly by those commodities, and by its markets, fairs, &c. it may be looked upon as flourishing a city as any in the kingdom, that depends entirely upon a home trade.

HINDON is a small old borough towards the borders of Dorsetshire. Its market is chiefly for cattle, and its manufacture a sort of fine twist, which employs even the children of the poor.

WESTBURY is another small borough. Its chief manufacture is coarse broad cloth.

CALNE is a small, but populous well-built town. Its chief manufacture also is cloth.

DEVIZES is an old-built town. Its chief trade, besides malt-ing, is the woollen manufacture, especially druggets, and its market is much frequented for corn, wool, horses, and all sorts of cattle.

CHIPPENHAM, on the river Avon, is a large, populous, well-built town. The chief manufacture here is cloth; but its main supports are, its market, and its thoroughfare between London and Bristol.

MALMSBURY is a neat town, and carries on a considerable trade in the woollen manufacture.

MARLBOROUGH is an ancient borough; but the chief tradesmen are shopkeepers, there being few manufacturers.

TROWBRIDGE is also an ancient town, in the west part of the county. The chief manufacture is broad cloth, and, for most part, of the fine sort, made with Spanish wool; and some clothiers have formerly got great estates.

BRADFORD is also noted, as well as Trowbridge, Melksham and other adjacent towns, for the finest broad cloths, of which so many were made about 40 years ago, when the trade was in its most flourishing state, that it was no extraordinary thing for clothiers hereabouts to be worth from 10,000 to 40,000*l.* and many of the gentry of these parts have been originally raised from this truly noble manufacture.

COSHAM is a pleasant village. The woollen manufacture is the chief employment and support of this place, here being some considerable clothiers.

WARMINSTER has a flourishing market for corn, and the malt trade here is greater than in any other town in the west of England; Bristol, and many places in Somersetshire, being supplied with it from hence. Here is also a considerable trade in wool and cloth.

WINE is made of the expressed juice of the grape, which immediately after the pressure is called must, and being fermented, becomes wine*. The fermentation causes a separation of the gross tartar, and the viscous part of the must from the pure sulphureous and oily ones, in which are the spirit and essential salt. The solid part of the tartar adheres to the sides of the vessel, and the viscous fall to the bottom.

* The difference of flavour, taste, colour, and body in wines, is, perhaps, as much owing to the different manner and time of pressing, gathering, fermenting, &c. the grape, as to any difference in the grape itself. In Hungary, whence tockay, and some of the richest and highest flavoured wines come, they are extremely curious in these respects: for their prime and most delicate wines, the grape is suffered to continue upon the vine, till it is half dried by the heat of the sun; and if the sun's heat should not prove sufficient, they are dried by the gentle heat of a furnace, and then picked one by one from the stalks. The juice of this grape, when pressed out, is of a fine flavour, and sweet as sugar: this, after due fermentation, is kept for a year, and then racked from the lees, when it proves a generous, oily, rich wine, and is sold at a very high rate.

The Hungarians prepare a second sort of wine, by collecting together the better kind of grapes, carefully picking the fruit from the stalks, and then pressing out the juice: this is extremely sweet, and is made richer by infusing in it, after it has fermented for some days, a sufficient quantity of half dried grapes. This wine is very sweet, oily, of a grateful taste, and retains these qualities for a long time. There is a third sort, made from the pure juice of the same kind of grape without any addition. This is a more brisk and lively wine, and far less sweet. They likewise prepare a fourth sort, from grapes of different goodness mixed together: this, though not so generous, is nevertheless an excellent wine. These Hungarian wines are remarkable for preserving their sweetness, and for the delicacy of their taste and smell: they likewise do not grow easily vapid, and may be kept in perfection for many years.

The practice of the Hungarians, which we have extracted from Hoffman's observations, fairly points out a method of improving must, or the juice of the grape, so as to make it of any assignable degree of richness and strength; and the celebrated Dr Stahl has given us another method of improving poor, thin wines, so as to make them strong and full bodied, without any ways altering their natural flavour or taste.

This he effects by exposing a quantity of the liquor, in proper vessels, to the action of a cold, freezing air, which soon congealing the watery parts alone, suffers the richer to be poured from them. By this means, the product of our own country, cyder, may be made of such a degree of strength and richness, as to equal, if not to exceed, the strongest bodied wines, and to stand the alternatives of the winter's cold, and the summer's sun, without alteration; and if as much care was taken in the culture, choice, and management of the fruit, and particularly in the pressure, and slow way fermentation of the juice, there is good reason to expect, that the flavour and taste would not fall far short even of the more excellent wines. See Stahl's Zymotechn. fund. Opusc. Physico-Med. Schediasma commendans concentrationem vini aliorumque, and Dr Shaw's Comment on this Tract, in his third Essay in artificial Philosophy. Miller's Gardeners Dictionary.

The sharp sprightly wines, Champagne, Burgundy, Nants, Bourdeaux, &c. being most impregnated with essential salt, yield more spirit than sweet Spanish and Muscate wines, because they are more loaded with a viscous substance*.

* The principles of wines are, an inflammable spirit, a phlegm or watery liquor, an acid salt or tartar, and a sulphureous oily substance. Wines, therefore, greatly differ in their taste, smell, and virtue, according to the various proportions and manner in which these principles are combined. There is in some wines another principle, which is a soft, oily, mild, viscid, sweet substance; and is particularly observable in sack, Frontinac, and the more generous kinds of Hungarian wine. The sulphureous, oily principle, is more subtle and grateful in some wines, than in others: thus Rhenish and Hungarian wines yield a far more delicate and subtle spirit, than those of France and Misnia: the very smell of good old Rhenish wine, has a remarkable effect in refreshing the spirits. Nor is the acid principle, or tartar, less different in wines: some abound with it, while others have it more sparingly, but of a more subtle kind, as the Spanish wines: the tartar of some wines, particularly that of Moselle, has a bitterish, nitrous taste, whence they are held to be laxative and diuretic.

REMARKS.

The great expence to which this nation is put for foreign wines, should induce us, methinks, to make our utmost efforts to try whether we cannot amply supply ourselves with this commodity, of which we are so fond; especially since some of those countries from which we take great quantities of wine, have begun to take less and less of our British manufacture: wherefore, to retaliate upon them in their own way, may not be impolitic.

It is commonly objected against this attempt, that our climate will not admit hereof to any considerable degree. I am afraid, that has never been effectually tried; but if it has not, for want of proper management, succeeded upon the grape, I am inclined to believe, that we have many other productions in Great-Britain, that will afford exceeding good wines.

It has, however, been reported for these twelve months past, that several gentlemen in different parts of England, are going on in the planting and improving of vineyards, some wines having been made in this kingdom of good strength, and of a more delicate flavour than the best growths of France. It is greatly to be wished they may meet with success, since the nation pays such sums for those liquors, as tend to impoverish us, and augment the strength of our rivals. Another, and a greater consideration is, the health of the drinkers; for most foreign wines are sophisticated; whereas it will not be the interest of the English planter to sophisticate his wine, as he would thereby lose his credit, and the sale of it.

But if Great-Britain nor Ireland should be found to afford good wines sufficient for our own consumption, might not our own plantations answer the end effectually? Certainly they might; but we have not room to shew how that may be effectually done. Some other opportunities may possibly hereafter offer.

WISBUY LAWS of COMMERCE and NAVIGATION.

Before we represent the laws of Wisbuy, we shall give some account of Gothland; and that city, the capital of it, once famous for trade above all the cities in the north. The isle of Gothland is situated by the Gothic Sea, in the diocese of Licopen. It formerly belonged to the king of Sweden, but was afterwards annexed to the crown of Denmark.

According to Johannes Magnus, a Gothic historian, book 23. chap 2. it was so called for the goodness of the country; for Goth signifies Good: and Olaus Magnus, book 2. says it deserves that name for many reasons. There are several very fine ports in it, whose entrances are safe and easy: it is rich in cattle, of which it feeds prodigious numbers; abounds in venison, fish, forests, woods, pitch, tar, and fine marble. In the north-east part of the island, was a very fair and noble sea-port town called Wisbuy, built by foreigners, who came to live in the country: upon which account the citizens of Wisbuy had frequent quarrels with the Gothlanders, or inhabitants of the country, of whom they made a terrible slaugh-

ter in the year 1288. After which the citizens, to defend themselves against their enemies, obtained a permission, from Magnus king of Sweden, to wall their city, and erect bastions, and other fortifications. They flourished more and more, and grew great by their trade and navigation, to which they entirely gave themselves up: inasmuch that this town was a long while the axis and most celebrated market of Europe, there being no city so full of merchants, and so famous for its commerce. Hither came Swedes, Russians, Danes, Prussians, Livonians, Germans, Finlanders, Vandals, Flemings, Saxons, English, Scots, and French, to trade. Each nation had their quarter, and particularly streets for their shops and warehouses. All strangers were safe and welcome there, and enjoyed the same privileges as the townsmen themselves. The magistrates of this city had the jurisdiction, or rather the arbitrament, of all causes or suits relating to sea affairs. Their ordinances were submitted to in all such cases, and passed for just on all the coasts of Europe; from Muscovy to the Mediterranean. Thus much we have taken from Olaus Magnus, lib. 10. cap. 16. and baron Herbestain In Rerum Muscovitarum Commentario, p. 118. In the course of time, this town was entirely destroyed, except the citadel, which stands to this day. The Gothic historians do not tell us when nor how its destruction came upon it, only that it was through civil dissensions which arose from trifles, but occasioned great factions; which set them so against one another, that it ended in the entire ruin of them all, city and citizens. The ruins of it are now to be seen, and under them are often found tables of marble, porphyry, and jasper, witnesses of the ancient splendor and magnificence of the citizens. The houses were covered with copper, the windows gilt with gold, and all that is said or that is discovered of it, shews the inestimable riches of the inhabitants in times past. The citizens who survived the ruin of the city, retired to the country of the Vandals and Eastern Saxons, who were enriched with the wealth of these refugees. Albert king of Sweden rebuilt it, and granted great privileges to all that should come and inhabit it: but it never could recover its trade and former magnificence.

It was in this city of Wisbuy that the sea laws and ordinances, which the Swedes brought into credit, were composed; they were received as righteous and just, and are kept in the Teutonic language till now. The Germans, Swedes, Danes, Flemings, and all the people of the north observe them: but none have been so curious, as to preserve the date and the remembrance of the time when they were composed and published.

ARTICLE I.

Whatever mariner, whether pilot, mate, or sailor, binds or hires himself to a master, if he afterwards leaves him, he shall refund what wages he has received; and besides that, pay half as much as the master had promised him for the whole voyage. And if a mariner has hired himself to two several masters, the first that hired him may claim him, and force him to serve him. Nevertheless, he shall not be obliged to pay him any wages at all for the whole voyage, unless he does it of his own good-will.

ARTICLE II.

Every pilot, mate, or mariner, that does not understand his business, shall be obliged to repay to the master whatever wages he had advanced him, and be besides bound to pay half as much more as he had promised him.

ARTICLE III.

A master may turn off a mariner, without any lawful cause given, before he sets sail, paying him half what he had promised him for the voyage. After he has set sail, and is gone out of his port, that master who turns off a mariner without lawful cause given, is obliged to pay him all his wages, as much as if he had performed the voyage.

ARTICLE IV.

No mariner shall lie or stay a night ashore without the master's leave, on pain of forfeiting two deniers, nor shall he unmoor the ship's boat in the night, under the same penalty. By deniers here are understood, those of which 24 make an ounce of silver. The double deniers are now called carolus's, or grand blancs, by the French and other nations.

ARTICLE V.

The mariners shall have three deniers a last for loading and three for unloading, which is to be reckoned only as their wages for guindage or hoisting*. These duties are never fixed on account of the dearness of provisions and the value of money, which changes and increases daily. The rate of guindage or reguindage, is commonly in France five sols a last, which is two sols six deniers Tournois a ton.

* i. e. Loading or unloading.

ARTICLE VI.

It is not lawful to arrest or imprison the master, pilot, or mariners of a ship, in an action of debt, when they are ready to sail; but the creditor may seize and sell any thing he finds in the ship, that belongs to his debtor. L. 1. de Naviculariis, lib. iv. cod.

ARTICLE VII.

A ship being freighted for all the summer, the season shall end on the feast of St Martin, or the 11th of November.

ARTICLE VIII.

Whoever shall make use of another man's lighter, without his leave, shall pay the owner four sols a day, unless it was in a case of necessity, as of fire, or the like.

ARTICLE IX.

If any one has occasion to have a debt witnessed; he need not carry strangers aboard, but may make use of the people in the ship. The same he may do in all acts where witnesses are necessary; lib. 10. cod.

ARTICLE X.

It is not lawful to sell or mortgage a vessel let out to freight, but it is lawful to freight it or underlett it to others for the same time, and the same voyage. The words of this article are, *de la frotter ou sous louer a d'autres pour le mesme temps, & pour mesme voyage*: which we think we have rendered right, notwithstanding the difficulty there seems to be in the sense, or the equity of this law.

ARTICLE XI.

If a ship that was freighted for a voyage is sent upon another longer than that, or upon several voyages, if there's no protestation or dissent entered against it, the freighter shall pay but half the damage that may happen to the ship in such longer voyage or voyages.

ARTICLE XII.

If a mast, sail, or any other tackling is unfortunately lost when the ship is under sail, or otherwise, the loss shall not be brought into an average. But if the master is obliged to cut his mast by the board, or spoil any of his tackling for the preservation of the ship, the bottom and the cargo shall make good the damage by an average.

ARTICLE XIII.

The master shall not sell the ship, nor any part of her tackling, without the consent of the owners; but if he wants victuals, he may pawn his cables and cordage, always observing to have the advice of the mariners.

ARTICLE XIV.

The master being in port, ought not to depart and set sail without the advice and consent of the major part of the mariners: if he does, and there happens any loss, he is bound to make satisfaction.

ARTICLE XV.

The mariners are obliged, to the utmost of their power, to save and preserve the merchandize, and for doing it ought to be paid their wages, but not otherwise. It is not lawful for the master to sell the ship's cordage, without the consent of the owners or factors; but he is bound to preserve all, as much as in him lies, on pain of making satisfaction.

ARTICLE XVI.

The mariners are obliged to save as much as they can, and the merchants may take away their goods, paying the freight, or satisfying the master: otherwise the said master may fit out his ship, if he can do it in a little time, in order to accomplish his voyage: if he cannot do it, he may relade his merchandize upon other vessels bound for the port to which he was to carry them, paying freight.

There is some difficulty in this article also, and, perhaps, the error is in the French version; we not understanding the Teutonic, which is the original, and making use of the translation printed by authority at Roan.

ARTICLE XVII.

The mariners shall not go out of the ship without leave of the master, on pain of paying the damage that may happen in their absence, unless it is when the ship lies ashore, moored

with four cables: in such case, they may go out of her for a little time, taking care not to transgress in it.

ARTICLE XVIII.

A mariner being ashore in the master's or the ship's service, if he should happen to be wounded, he shall be maintained and cured at the charge of the ship: but if he goes ashore on his own head, to be merry and divert himself, or otherwise, and happens to be wounded, the master may turn him off, and the mariner shall be obliged to refund what he has received, and, besides, to pay what the master shall be forced to pay over and above to another whom he shall hire in his place.

ARTICLE XIX.

If a seaman falls ill of any disease, and it is convenient to put him ashore, he shall be fed as he was aboard, and have some body to look after him there, and, when he is recovered, be paid his wages; and, if he dies, his wages shall be paid to his widow or heirs.

ARTICLE XX.

If, by stress of weather, it is thought necessary to throw any goods overboard, to lighten the ship, and the supercargoes or merchants aboard will not consent to it, the merchandize shall nevertheless be thrown overboard, if the rest of the people aboard think it safest to do so: in such case, as soon as the ship puts into port, a third part of the mariners must go ashore, and purge themselves by oath, that they were forced to do it for the preservation of their own lives, the ship, and the rest of the cargo. The merchandize so thrown overboard shall be brought into a gross average, and be rated at the same price the other merchandize of the same sort that was saved was sold for.

ARTICLE XXI.

Before the master throws any goods overboard, he is bound, in the absence of the merchant, to ask the pilot and mariners advice; and the loss shall be made good by contribution, the ship and cargo being accountable towards it.

ARTICLE XXII.

The master and mariners are obliged to shew the merchant the cordage that is used for hoisting his goods in and out of the ship; if he does not do it, and there happens any accident, they shall stand to the loss; but if the merchant has seen and approved of it, the damage he sustains shall be borne by himself.

ARTICLE XXIII.

If a ship is ill trimmed, and it happens that the wine she has aboard is lost, through the master's ignorance or negligence in governing her, the said master is bound to pay for it: but if the mariners clear him upon oath, the leakage or loss shall be borne by the merchant.

ARTICLE XXIV.

No man shall fight, or give another the lie aboard; he who offends in this kind, shall pay four deniers; and if the mariner gives the master the lie, he shall pay eight deniers: but he who strikes him shall pay 100 sols, or lose his hand. If the master gives the lie, he shall pay eight deniers; if he strikes, he ought to receive blow for blow.

Lose his hand: this was a common punishment among the Scythians, and the people of the north. Lucianus de Toxari. And also among those in the east. Harmonopolus de Pœnis.

ARTICLE XXV.

The master may turn off a mariner for a lawful cause; but if the said mariner compensates for his fault, and the master nevertheless refuses to admit him again, the mariner may follow the ship to her destined port, and he shall be paid his wages as much as if he had made the voyage in the same ship: if the master hires a less able seaman in his place, and there happens any damage by it, the master is to make good the loss.

ARTICLE XVI.

If a ship riding at anchor in a harbour is struck by another ship which runs against her, driven by the wind or current, and the ship so struck receives damage, either in her hull or cargo, the two ships shall jointly stand to the loss. But if the ship that struck against the other might have avoided it, if it was done by the master on purpose, or by his fault, he alone shall make satisfaction. The reason is, that some masters who have old crazy ships, may willingly lie in other ships way, that they may be damaged or sunk, and so have more than they were worth for them: on which account this law provides, That the damage shall be divided, and paid equally by

by the two ships, to oblige both to take care, and keep clear of such accidents as much as they can.

ARTICLE XXVII.

A ship being at anchor in a harbour, where there is so little water that she touches, another ship comes and anchors near her; if the ship's company of the former vessel require those of the latter to take up their anchor, because it is too near them, and they do not do it, the former may take it up themselves; and if the latter hinders them, they shall make satisfaction for all the damage that may happen by that anchor.

ARTICLE XXVIII.

No master of a ship shall lie at anchor in a haven without fastening a buoy to his anchor, to give notice to others where it is: if he omits to do so, and any damage is sustained by it, he is obliged to make it good.

ARTICLE XXIX.

In any voyage, where wine is the trade, the master is obliged to find the seamen with it, and then he may give them but one meal a day: but where it is not to be had, and the mariners drink water, he shall give them two meals a day.

ARTICLE XXX.

When a ship is let out to freight, the master ought to assign and shew the seamen where they are to have the stowage that belongs to them; and they must declare whether they will load it themselves, or will let the master freight it with the rest of the ship, and be paid for their proportion.

ARTICLE XXXI.

A ship being arrived at her destined port, those seamen who would be paid their wages there, if they have no chest nor bedding, or other moveables aboard, equivalent to their wages, they must give the master security that they will serve out the rest of the voyage, and see it completed, or he may refuse to pay them before.

ARTICLE XXXII.

Those seamen who bargained for a certain proportion of the ship's freight, instead of wages in money, in case freight is not to be had for her when she arrives at the port for which she was bound, and she must go further in quest of it, they must go with her: but those seamen who agreed to be paid in money, shall have their wages there.

ARTICLE XXXIII.

When a ship is safe at anchor, the seamen may go ashore, one after another, or two together, and carry sufficient meat and bread with them for one meal, but no drink: nor must they stay any longer time ashore; for if, through their absence, any damage happens to the ship or goods, they are obliged to make satisfaction. And if any one of the crew is wounded, or comes by any other ill accident in doing the merchant's business, the merchant is bound to cure him, and indemnify the master, pilot, and mariners.

ARTICLE XXXIV.

A ship being let out to hire, to a merchant to freight her, and he agrees to load her in a certain time, if he fails, and exceeds that time fifteen days, or more, and by this means the master loses his opportunity to freight his ship, the said merchant shall make him satisfaction for his delays, and pay his damages and interest, a quarter of which belongs to the mariners, and three quarters to the master.

ARTICLE XXXV.

If the master, being upon his voyage, wants money, he must fend home for it, but ought not to lose a fair opportunity of proceeding; if he does, he shall satisfy the merchant for all the damage he may sustain by his delay: but, in case of great necessity, he may sell part of the merchandizes, and, when he arrives at his destined port, he shall pay the merchant for them, at the same price the rest was sold at, and the merchant shall pay freight as well for the merchandizes the master sold, as for those he delivered him.

ARTICLE XXXVI.

When the master arrives in a port, he should be careful to place his ship well, to moor her well; for if, by his neglect in this, the merchandize aboard receives any damage, he is obliged to make it good.

ARTICLE XXXVII.

If a ship has been in a storm, and the merchant, master, or crew, think she ought to be refitted, to enable her to con-

tinue her voyage, they may do it, and then proceed: however, the master shall be paid his freight for the goods saved, which are for the merchant's profit only. If the merchant has no money, and the master will not give him credit, he may take his merchandize in payment, at the market-price.

ARTICLE XXXVIII.

The master shall not throw any goods overboard, without first consulting the merchant; and if the merchant will not consent to it, yet if two or three of the most experienced mariners think it necessary, they may be thrown overboard, but the mariners must swear they thought it was expedient so to do. If there is no merchant or factor aboard, the master and major part of the mariners may lawfully resolve upon what is fit to be done.

ARTICLE XXXIX.

The merchandize thrown overboard shall be valued in the average, at the price the rest was sold for, freight only deducted.

ARTICLE XL.

The master, in the average, shall pay his proportion for the goods thrown overboard, either by calculating what the ship is worth, or what the freight amounts to, at the choice of the merchant; and the merchant shall pay his, according to the value of the remaining merchandize: it shall be left to the merchant to leave or take the ship at the price the master rated her at.

ARTICLE XLI.

If any one has plate, or merchandize of great price, in his chest, he is bound to declare it beforehand, and so doing, he shall be paid for his merchandize according to its worth, and the plate after the rate of two deniers for one.

There is something a little dark in this article; but it is as we find it in the French version, as is also what is obscure in others; and we excuse the translator, considering the Teutonic is an untoward language to turn into French: we wish our readers may have as much tenderness for us.

ARTICLE XLII.

If any one has money in his chest, let him take it out, and carry it about him, and he shall pay nothing.

ARTICLE XLIII.

If a chest is thrown overboard, and the proprietor does not declare what is in it, it shall not be reckoned in the average, but for the wood and the lock, if it be locked, according to their value.

ARTICLE XLIV.

If it be thought convenient in any river, or off any dangerous coast, to take aboard a pilot of the country, and the merchant oppose it, yet, if the master, the ship's pilot, and the major part of the seamen, are of another opinion, he may be hired, and the pilot shall be paid by the ship and cargo, as averages are calculated for goods thrown overboard.

ARTICLE XLV.

If a master wants money or victuals, and for that reason is forced to sell part of his merchandize aboard, or borrow money at bottomry, he ought to pay, within 15 days after his arrival, for the merchandize, at a reasonable price, neither the highest nor the lowest; and if he does not, and the ship be sold, and another master put in her, the merchant to whom the merchandize belonged, or the creditor that lent the money on bottomry, shall, at any time within a year and a day, have a good right to the ship, till satisfaction is made for the goods sold, or money borrowed.

ARTICLE XLVI.

A ship being laden, the master ought not to take in any more merchandize, without leave of the merchant: if he does, and there happens any occasion to throw goods overboard, he shall pay as much as he took in goods over and above the ship's loading: wherefore he ought, when he is loaded, to declare how much goods he has, and ought to have aboard.

ARTICLE XLVII.

The seamen are obliged to keep and match the merchandize, at the request of the merchants, master, and pilot.

ARTICLE XLVIII.

If, for the preservation of the commodity, the seamen turn up the corn aboard, they shall be allowed a denier a last for each time; and if they will not do it, they are liable for the damage that comes to it for want of it: they shall also be allowed

lowed a denier a last for unlading, and so for other merchandize.

ARTICLE XLIX.

The mariners ought to represent to the master what condition their tackling for lading and unlading is in, that if the cordage is out of repair, or any other part of it, it may be mended; and if the master does not do it, he shall be accountable for whatever damage happens by that means; but if the mariners do not make their representation, the accidents that befall the merchandize shall be indemnified at their expence.

ARTICLE L.

If two ships strike against one another, and receive damage, the loss shall be borne equally between them; unless the men aboard one of them did it on purpose; in which case, that ship shall pay all the damage.

ARTICLE LI.

To prevent all inconveniencies, all masters of ships are required to fasten buoys to their anchors, on pain of making satisfaction for all the damage that may happen for want of

ARTICLE LII.

When a ship arrives at her port of discharge, she ought to be unladen with all possible dispatch, and the master to be paid in eight or fifteen days at farthest, according to the circumstances of the voyage.

ARTICLE LIII.

If a ship, freighted for one port, enters another, the master, together with two or three of his chief mariners, ought to clear themselves upon oath, that it was by constraint and necessity that they went out of their way: after which he may proceed in his intended voyage, or ship the cargo aboard other ships, paying freight for the goods, which the merchant shall also pay him, and what else is due on account of the merchandize.

ARTICLE LIV.

It is forbidden to any mariner to go out of the ship and leave it, after the voyage is done, and the ship discharged, unless her sails are all in, her furniture taken away, and she is sufficiently lightened of her ballast.

ARTICLE LV.

If a ship strikes, the master may take out part of his cargo, and relade it aboard other ships, and the charges of it shall come into a general average upon ship and goods: however, the master, and two or three of his seamen, shall purge themselves upon oath, that they were forced to do it to save the ship and cargo.

ARTICLE LVI.

When a ship arrives at the mouth of any river or harbour, and the master finds she is too heavy laden to sail up, he may put part of the cargo aboard hoys, lighters, or barges, and an average shall be made for it, of which the master shall pay two-thirds, and the merchant one-third; but if, after the ship is intirely discharged, the ship draws too much water, and cannot sail up, then the master shall pay all the charges.

ARTICLE LVII.

The merchandize being put aboard lighters, in order to be landed, if the master has any jealousy of the merchant's ability or honesty to pay him, he may stop it at his ship's side, and refuse to let it go, till the merchant has paid him in full for his freight and charges.

ARTICLE LVIII.

All lighters, open or close, shall be discharged in five days.

ARTICLE LIX.

When a ship is at anchor before an harbour, with which her pilot is not well acquainted, the master ought to hire one at the place, to carry his ship into it, who shall be paid by ship and cargo.

ARTICLE LX.

When a ship is in an harbour or river, and the master does not know the coast nor the river, he ought to take a pilot of that country to carry her up the river or harbour, which pilot shall be maintained by the master, and paid by the merchant.

ARTICLE LXI.

If a seaman deserts his ship, and carries away what he has received of the master, and the master apprehends him, the

fact being proved upon him, by the depositions of two other seamen, he shall be condemned to be hanged and executed.

ARTICLE LXII.

If a master discovers that a mariner is infected with any contagious distemper, he may put him ashore on the first land he makes, without being bound to pay him any wages, provided the case be proved by the attestation of two or three of the other mariners belonging to his ship.

ARTICLE LXIII.

If a pilot or mariner buys a ship, or is made master of one, he shall be discharged from his own master, paying him back what he received of him; and it shall be the same if he marries.

ARTICLE LXIV.

If the master, merchant, and owners have any difference, and the owners will not furnish their quota of the charge of the outfit, the master may nevertheless proceed in his voyage or voyages with the said ship, paying the seaman what he thinks reasonable.

ARTICLE LXV.

If the master lays out any money in repairing or refitting his ship, or buys any tackling, or any thing else for her use, he shall be reimbursed, and every owner pay his part.

ARTICLE LXVI.

If the merchant obliges the master to insure the ship, the merchant shall be obliged to insure the master's life against the hazards of the sea.

ARTICLE LXVII.

If two ships strike against one another, and one of them unfortunately perishes by the blow, the merchandize that is lost out of both of them shall be valued, and paid for pro rata by both owners, and the damage of the ships shall also be answered for by both, according to their value.

ARTICLE LXVIII.

In case of necessity, the merchant may sell part of the merchandize, to raise money for his ship's use, and the ship happening to be lost afterward, the master shall, however, be obliged to pay the merchant for the said merchandize so sold, without pretending to deduct any thing for the freight.

ARTICLE LXIX.

When the master is forced to sell any of the merchandize, he is obliged to pay the same price for them as the same goods were sold for at the market for which they were designed, and the master shall be paid his freight for what goods are sold.

ARTICLE LXX.

If a ship under sail does damage to another, the master and mariners of the ship doing the damage, must swear they did not do it designedly, and could not help it, and then the damage shall be borne by both ships, in equal proportion; and if they refuse to swear, the damage shall be paid by the ship that did it.

WOOL, and WOOLLEN MANUFACTORY.

Under the articles BISCAY, CASTILLE, CATALONIA, FACTORS, INDIA-HOUSE of SPAIN, and FRANCE and SPAIN, we have shewn the extraordinary progress that both FRANCE and SPAIN have made, and are daily making, in the woollen manufactories, and which must necessarily tend to the greater and greater injury of our branches of trade in the like way. We have too long experienced the unspeakable detriment that France alone has done to this nation in this article only; and if Spain is determined to supply her own dominions with what they took from us in this kind of manufactures, we must soon sensibly feel the effects of this policy; and more especially so, if the Portuguese also should betaking measures to encourage our competitors more and more in this capital article: and this I am assured, by my correspondence from Portugal, is the real case.—There are several other states too that are striving for some share in this the grand British staple of commerce. In a word, we are losing ground in most parts of the world, in this branch, where we had long got footing, as has been shewn throughout the course of this performance.—It is, therefore, certainly full time to think, without delay, of every measure that is in our power to save and preserve ourselves from the calamitous consequences that must result herefrom.

In the course of this undertaking, we have endeavoured also to point out the CAUSES of these things, and have occasionally suggested what we humbly apprehend to be the most rational and practicable ways and means to retrieve what we have lost in this essential particular.

As the running of wool from Ireland has, among many other things, been attributed to be one principal cause of the before-intimated misfortunes to our trading interest, whatever bids fair to remove an evil of this nature, cannot be too often inculcated, nor too seriously weighed and considered.

Many very judicious and well-intentioned gentlemen have endeavoured, by variety of schemes, to prevent this practice of smuggling wool. The great difficulty that seems to attend this matter is the reason, perhaps, why many good proposals have been rejected, and why, indeed, none of our laws hitherto have been effectual to the purpose intended.

Among others who have attempted this great work, the judicious Mr Bradshaw has lately obliged the public with something that seems to merit great regard, and, therefore, a short abstract of what this gentleman has offered, may have its use, if any thing of this should ever be attempted in earnest.

Long experience has shewn us, that no laws hitherto made have prevented the running of raw wools from Ireland to France, and their manufactured goods to foreign countries, and that nothing can put a stop to this evil, but making it the interest of Ireland to discourage that practice.

The importation of Spanish wools into Ireland, and their clothiers making Spanish cloths therewith, instead of working up their own wool, is the reason why they have the more of their own wools to sell to France: wherefore let Spanish wool be prohibited in Ireland, and their manufacturers will work up their own wools, and then there will be the less for France to purchase.

Let such woollen goods made in Ireland be exported to Great-Britain only, not to be consumed in England, but exported from thence to foreign countries.

To prevent the Irish from injuring the English woollen manufactures, let a Duty be laid on all Irish woollen goods imported into England, and drawn back upon exportation to foreign countries, &c. This duty would prevent their wear in England, and also hinder the Irish from running their wools to France.

To induce Ireland to lay aside the manufacture of Spanish cloths, and take to the working upon their own wools, the ingenious gentleman shews the Irish the advantage of the one to be far superior to that of the other, thus:

The Spanish wools imported into Ireland, from the 25th of March, 1743, to the 25th of March, 1744, were 128,086 futtle pounds;—which I compute to be about 570 bags.

I shall suppose each bag of wool sufficient to make four pieces of Spanish cloth: then the cloths manufactured were 2280, which, upon an average, being worth 20l. each cloth, the produce of the year's importation of Spanish wools will amount to 45,600 l.

It is computed that, in woollen manufactures, four-fifths of the value of the goods, when finished for sale, are given to the labour of the people; therefore I shall suppose, that, of this 45,600 l.

There was paid to the labour of the people, - 1. 36,480
And to Spain for the wool, &c. - 9,120

To make one piece of Spanish cloth, compleatly finished for sale, will take up three months; it is seldom finished in less time: the manufacture is so tedious, that some of the people employed are often obliged to wait for work, while others are finishing their parts, as may be supposed by the following table, which I received from an eminent clothier, on whose veracity I can depend.

To make one piece of Spanish cloth will employ

	men.	wom.	boys.	days.
Dyeing	1	0	0	1
Beating and picking	0	2	0	4
Scribbling	2	0	0	5
Spinning the chain	0	8	0	7
Spinning the woof	0	8	0	7
Winding the chain	0	3	0	1
Warping, winding quills, and weaving	2	0	1	24
Spinning the list	0	2	0	2
Burling,	0	2	0	4
Milling	1	0	0	1
Dressing	4	0	0	5

By this table it appears, in how many days less than three months the poor employed in this manufacture finish their several parts; and several of them are often idle for want of work.

The same people employed in this table, in manufacturing one cloth made of Spanish wool, are requisite in manufacturing a cloth made of Irish; and they can finish such a cloth in two months, as compleatly as they can a cloth made of Spanish in THREE; therefore, if fully employed, can work up half as many more yards of cloth in one year, as an equal number can do who are wholly employed in manufacturing of Spanish. Besides, as coarse wools may be worked up into goods of various kinds, and the wool so disposed of as to give employment, at any time, to a greater number of hands than the like value of Spanish wools can employ; all manufactures of coarse wools can be finished with greater dispatch. Therefore, since the wealth of a nation is increased by the

number of the poor it employs, and the quantity of the product of the lands they consume, let it be considered what number of the poor of Ireland 9,120 l. value in Spanish wools will employ, and what number of poor the wools of Ireland, valued at 12 s. the great stone containing 16 lb. will employ and subsist.

I have made the best enquiry I was capable of, and find that the wools Ireland yearly produces are computed at 480,000 stones, of 16 lb. each; some think they are less, but no accounts that I have received from any part of that kingdom say more.

I shall therefore consider the wools of that kingdom under the highest estimation that I have received, and shew what that quantity of wool would produce, if worked up for their own consumption, or for exportation to England, and what loss that kingdom sustains yearly, by neglecting the manufacturing her own wools, encouraging the manufacture of Spanish, and smuggling her raw wools to France.

I shall likewise shew the gain that would arise to that kingdom, if their own wools were fully manufactured by their own people.

I shall suppose the medium price of the wools of Ireland to be 12 s. the stone of 16 lb. then	1.
480,000 stones, at 12 s. the stone, are	288,000
If 10 l. value in wools, when compleatly manufactured for sale, is worth 50 l. the value of the yearly wools of Ireland, when worked up, must be	1,440,000
If $\frac{4}{5}$ of this sum be paid to the working people for labour, and the remaining $\frac{1}{5}$ be paid to the rents of the kingdom, for the produce of their sheep, the earned money of the poor of that country, in working up the yearly produce, will amount to	1,152,000
And they will work up as much of the product of the kingdom as amounts to	288,000
Consequently, Ireland will gain yearly, by the manufacturing of her own wools	1,152,000
And, by the manufacturing the whole year's importation of Spanish wools, she can only gain	36,486
To earn which sum, she must yearly pay to Spain	9,120

And have numbers of her poor idly supported by high wages, to make them amends for the many days the manufacturing of Spanish wool leaves them unemployed.

It is very difficult to compute the exact number of poor that the wools of a country, if worked up among themselves, would employ and subsist: but, as most working people earn no more than what is sufficient to maintain them comfortably, I am of opinion, that the finding out the quantity and value of any kind of goods manufactured in a country, and the value of the common annual subsistence of a manufacturer, is the best way of judging of the number of working people subsisted by that manufacture.

I shall therefore suppose, that the annual subsistence of working men, women, and children, in Ireland, may be purchased, at a medium, for 10 l. per annum, and that 480,000 stones of wool, when fully manufactured, are worth 1,440,000 l. Then the number of poor subsisted by the manufacturing the yearly produce of the wools, will be 144,000 people.

I shall consider next how many of the poor of Ireland are subsisted by the manufacturing Spanish wools, admitting that they are not, during the whole year, one day unemployed, and that they manufactured the whole importation of Spanish wools in the year 1743, which was much larger than any quantity they ever imported in one year into that kingdom. I computed that 570 bags of Spanish wool, when fully manufactured for sale, would amount to 45,600 l.

By that computation, the poor employed can be no more than 4,560 persons.

It is therefore obvious, that Ireland loses immensely every year by encouraging the manufacture of Spanish cloths, discouraging the manufacturing her own wools, and selling her unmanufactured wools to France. To these causes we must ascribe the number of poor that are now in the places of manufacture in France, where, on account of religion, as well as skill, they have met with protection and encouragement.

If the industrious poor are compelled to quit their country for want of employment, the gentlemen of Ireland must lose their former markets for the product of their lands. The loss will be greater to the landed than the trading interest; gentlemen must abate of their rents: for it is the employment of the poor that must keep them up to their value. And while the Irish encourage the manufacturing Spanish cloths, which has obliged numberless poor to quit that country, or come to the lands for their maintenance, the price of their beef, butter, &c. will be low; but the value of their lands must rise, as the manufacture of Irish wools is encouraged, and as the greater numbers of their poor are employed. Therefore a trade with England for such woollen goods as Ireland may manufacture more than are requisite for her own consumption must be of the greatest advantage to that kingdom. It will

will encourage them to work up early their surplus wools, and employ the number of the poor already mentioned.

Therefore, if encouragement to manufacture Irish wools will keep up the price of the product of the lands of Ireland (as consumption of all commodities necessarily causes the advance of prices); if it will bring home numberless manufacturers, who have found employment in other countries, and enable their poor to maintain themselves, who are now a public charge: it must be the interest of Ireland to manufacture her own wools, prohibit the importation of Spanish wools, and prevent the running their raw wools to France, which must ever be detrimental to the woollen manufactures of both England and Ireland.

If the union proposed between England and Ireland, with respect to a liberty of exporting to England such woollen goods as Ireland shall manufacture, should be agreeable to both kingdoms, I am convinced no gentleman in Ireland will consent to the running of raw wools to France. If he is able to procure but a nursery of spinners upon his estate, the produce of their labour (though of all labour on wools the most sparingly paid for) will keep up the price of the product of his lands, which will be much more advantageous to him than what he can gain by permitting the wools that grow on his lands to be sent to France.

If this union should not be agreeable to both kingdoms, and that the people of Ireland shall be obliged to wear (as they now are) what woollen goods they manufacture, I am of opinion it appears that it is not the interest of that kingdom to wear Spanish cloths, if manufactured in Ireland, which must bring such numbers of their poor to the parish for subsistence, or oblige them to quit the country for want of employment, who might be subsisted by their labour on Irish wools, without any charge to the landed interest.

For if such of their poor as could not be employed in manufacturing their wools fully, were encouraged to spin their surplus wools for exportation to England, their poor might be employed and subsisted, since it is evident, by the price we have paid them of late for their spinning, that the labour of the comber and spinner is equal to the first cost of the wool; and as England has taken upwards of 80,000 stones of their yarn, (as shall be shewn in its place) the poor of Ireland have earned 48,000*l.* for their spinning, and we have paid them the like sum of 48,000*l.* for their wool, which will appear from the following computation. A ball of wool consists of one pound and a half of combed wool, which, at 12*s.* per stone of 16*lb.* costs 13½*d.*: when spun into skains of yarn, is sold from 2*s.* 3*d.* to 3*s.* per ball, according to the number of skains into which it is spun.

I shall take the lowest price for my valuation: if, therefore, a ball of wool that costs but 13½*d.* when spun into yarn, is sold for 2*s.* 3*d.* it appears that the money earned by the comber and spinner is equal to the first cost of the wool: therefore, if the poor of Ireland were employed to manufacture their surplus wools, no farther than through the hands of the combers and spinners, numbers might be maintained, and Ireland would become a nursery for England (but never can be so, while her poor are engrossed by the high prices now given for the spinning of Spanish wools) and the landed interest of Ireland would be considerable gainers by their poor being so far employed, since it must benefit a nation to be saved from the charge of maintaining its poor.

The gentlemen of Ireland may imagine they receive their rents from their tenants; but it is the consumer that pays them both the price of their wools, and of the product of their lands.

If their artificers and manufacturers are obliged to quit the country for want of employment, the consumption of the product must be greatly lessened: therefore all prudent ways ought to be tried, to keep those at home that are willing to work, and to induce them to return who have been obliged to seek for their subsistence abroad.

Every one who lives in that country, and wears the manufacture of Irish wools, ought to be considered, for what he wears, eats, and drinks, as a tenant to the lands and a paymaster to the workmen.

How many such tenants the gentlemen of Ireland may keep in that country, and how many old ones they may prevail on to return, by preventing the running of their wools to France, encouraging the manufacturing their own, and prohibiting the importation of Spanish, I have endeavoured to shew; which I shall submit to the consideration of the gentlemen of that kingdom.

I shall next consider the advantages England will have, by consenting to the importation of such woollen goods as Ireland shall send us, under a duty at importation to be drawn back only on exportation to foreign countries.

The accounts that were published the year after the peace of Utrecht, of the great quantities of Irish wools that were run out of Ireland, and imported in one year into France, so alarmed our manufacturers and landed gentlemen of England, that we have ever since endeavoured to make the most effectual laws to prevent the exportation of the wools of that country, and are now at a great annual expence by the many ships stationed on the coasts of Ireland for that purpose; but not-

withstanding we have been unwilling to receive any proposals, that have been offered to the consideration of parliament to prevent this evil, if such proposals had the least tendency to a free liberty of exportation of the woollen manufactured goods of that kingdom.

However just our apprehensions were thirty years ago, there is not the least room for them now; since Ireland does not produce, at present, two-thirds of the wools that were supposed to be the growth of the country at that time.

The decrease of their sheep has been owing, not only to the very great danger and difficulty the people of Ireland found in sending their wools to France, under the severe laws we made to prevent it, but to several acts of parliament, which have been made in that kingdom since the year 1714.

By the act to encourage tillage, every farmer in Ireland is obliged to plow a certain number of acres, in every hundred, which he holds by lease. This obligation, together with the great difficulty and risk in sending their wools to France, obliged many people to plow up their pasture grounds, which lessened their sheep throughout the kingdom; for they found a certain market for their corn, instead of an uncertain one for their wool.

The several acts for encouraging the linen manufactures of that kingdom, have been another cause of lessening the growth of their wools; since it is well known that they have no more sheep in the north of Ireland, where that manufacture is established, than are sufficient for the necessary subsistence of the people.

These considerations should entirely remove our former apprehensions, and convince us, that the Irish cannot have the quantity of wools, which they had before these acts of parliament were made.

We ought to examine what the wools of that country are at present, and what we have to fear if the wools, which their own people cannot consume in apparel, were fully manufactured and exported to us, and from hence exported to such foreign countries as we trade to.

We are very certain that we may grow less considerable in foreign markets, but cannot be more so, while the French continue to procure the wools of Ireland; and since we have made so many laws to prevent it, and that it is evident they have been ineffectual, we should try other ways and means to stop the evil we have so long complained of. For since by long experience we find that the people of Ireland are not, by any laws, to be forced from this pernicious practice of selling their wools to France, and that neither punishments nor penalties can prevent it; I am clearly of opinion, our condition cannot be worse than it is at present, if we permit them to send us such woollen goods as they shall manufacture for exportation, which will effectually put a stop to their sending to France; because they will then find it more their own interest to prevent it, than it is now their interest to connive at and encourage it.

The many creeks and by-places on the coast of Ireland are so well known to the French, that their agents, notwithstanding the many difficulties that attend it, will be always able to procure a loading of wool; for the farmer, whose lands lie contiguous to the sea, will be as ready to sell as the French are to buy. But these temptations will cease, if the farmer finds that he can have a market near his own home for his wools, when spun only; because the French can give no price for the small quantity of wool that he has to sell, that can be equal to the advantage the farmer will have by its being so far manufactured.

Since the last declaration of war against Spain, the wools of Ireland have sold at a much higher price than they were ever known at before. When they exceed ten shillings per stone of sixteen pounds, our manufacturers cannot afford to purchase them. But as the prohibiting the importation of Spanish wools into Ireland, will occasion a greater plenty of their spinning, we may be certain of having more of their surplus wools so far manufactured, and thereby lessen the quantity, they would otherwise fully manufacture themselves. We do not buy their spinning for its fineness, (our own people spin much finer) but on account of its nature and quality. It is very useful to our weavers, in mixing with our own spinning, and making several sorts of goods for foreign markets; and on that account only we buy it. But if we cannot take from them in spinning, such wools as they have more than are requisite for the cloathing of their own people, we must give them leave to export, fully manufactured, what they cannot consume, or the French will certainly take from them their wools unmanufactured.

They are not (as we are) limited by price; for by the help of one pack of Irish wools, France manufactures two of her own, without which they are useless to her for foreign markets, notwithstanding the wool she procures from Germany, Portugal, Barbary, and Turkey.

The wools of France are short and coarse; they are not (to speak in a manufacturer's phrase) so fine in the thread, or so long in the staple, as those of Ireland: for which reason, France can ever give double the price that we can afford for the wools of that country, which I shall shew more fully hereafter.

hereafter. This proves how dangerous an enemy we have to encounter, and that nothing can prevent France from buying them, but making it the interest of Ireland to manufacture their wools; which engages me to think, that the best law that can be made, to prevent France from procuring the wools of Ireland, will be, to permit the people of that country to send their manufactured woollen goods to England, under a duty at importation, to be drawn back on exportation to foreign countries.

I have already shewn the quantity of wool, by estimation, that Ireland yearly produces, and what value these wools may be manufactured into by their own people, if the importation of Spanish wool is prohibited. I shall now consider what number of people there are in that kingdom, what their own consumption must be of the wools they may manufacture; what quantity of wool we have taken from them last year, how much in woollen yarn, and how much in worsted yarn, and to what value the surplus wools of Ireland, if fully manufactured, will amount. The exportation to England of this last article, is the whole we have to fear from the union proposed, which I shall shew cannot be manufactured into such a quantity of cloth, or other woollen goods, as will prejudice England to receive, for exportation. On the contrary, I am of opinion, the encouragement to manufacture and export it, will be the means of increasing and extending our commerce.

The people of Ireland are computed at 1,666,000: I shall suppose the one half of their people to be men and boys, and the other half women and girls; and that every man and every boy in Ireland wears, or is the occasion of consuming, the value of 20s. of woollen goods yearly; and that every woman and every girl wears, or is the occasion of consuming, 5 s. in woollen goods yearly.

Then 833,000 men and boys, at 20 s. per ann.	1.
consume in Irish woollen goods	833,000
And 833,000 women and girls, at 5 s. per ann.	208,250
Therefore, the amount of woollen goods, wore in apparel and consumed in furniture of such houses as they inhabit, will be	1,041,250
As the richer kind of people in Ireland are buried in woollens, according to act of parliament, I shall allow for burials in woollen	20,000
	<u>1,061,250</u>

Then, if all the wools Ireland yearly produces were fully manufactured, and that England took from them neither raw wools, worsted, or woollen yarns, the value of the surplus wools fully manufactured would be	378,750
	<u>1,440,000</u>

I find we have imported from Ireland from March 25, 1743, to March 25, 1744,

In raw wools, great stones	19,993
In worsted yarn	68,622
In woollen yarn	15,224
Stones	<u>103,839</u>

If we take yearly the same quantity of unmanufactured wools, worsted, and woollen yarns, that we have done last year, which I shall compute only at 100,000 great stones, we shall prevent their fully manufacturing as much of the wools of Ireland as I have computed, when fully manufactured by themselves, would amount to 300,000 l.

Therefore, admitting there is no objection to the value in woollen goods, which I have computed to be the yearly consumption of the people of Ireland, not only in apparel, but in bedding, house-furniture, and burials, all the woollen goods Ireland can fully manufacture for exportation, will amount to no more than 78,750 l.

In order to remove the apprehensions that may arise in our clothiers and manufacturers, that this value in Irish woollen goods, if exported to England for re-exportation to foreign countries, may hurt the sale of our manufactures abroad, I shall consider, what value in woollen goods France will be prevented from vending at foreign markets, which she now supplies, by procuring the surplus wools of Ireland, that may be manufactured into that sum.

I shall suppose, that France has been able to procure yearly no more Irish wools than, when fully manufactured, I have computed would produce this 78,750 l. which I calculate at 1750 packs, of 240 pounds weight each.

I shall likewise suppose, that what France purchases are the best Irish wools, for which she pays 16 s. the great stone (at which price the fine wools of that country were sold last year), and that all risks, hazards, insurances, and freights, being accounted for, those wools, when landed in France, cost the manufacturer 20 s. per stone.

By the best information I could get in France, I have learned that their people manufacture two packs of their own wools

by the help of one pack of Irish. I shall therefore suppose their own wools worth 5 s. the great stone, and when mixed with Irish wools at 20 s. the stone; that the manufacturer in France has three packs of wools, at 10 s. the stone, a medium price.

I have computed that the surplus wools of Ireland, which France now procures, are 1750 packs, which make in great stones of 16 pounds to the stone	26,250
To which I shall add double that quantity of French wools, which the manufacturers of France work up by the help of this quantity of Irish	52,500
Total stones	<u>78,750</u>

Therefore the French manufacturers, by the help of 26,250 stones of Irish wools, have 78,750 stones of wools proper for such manufactures as we carry on; which wools, on an average, will cost them only 10 s. per stone. Then 78,750 stones, at 10 s. per stone, cost the manufacturer in France 39,375 l. And when fully manufactured for sale, allowing for labour, as I have done on the like value of wools manufactured in England, the amount will be 196,875 l.

If these calculations are just, it plainly appears, that we have nothing to fear from giving Ireland a liberty of exporting to England such manufactured woollen goods, as her own people cannot consume; since, by encouraging Ireland, we shall prevent France from procuring her wools, who thereby is enabled to supply the foreign markets with goods of her own manufacture, to the value of 196,875 l.

If France can send to foreign markets such considerable quantities of woollen goods, by procuring 1750 packs of Irish wools, of what consequence ought those wools to be to England! and since we know that such a quantity, and a much greater, may be sent yearly out of England, we should endeavour to prevent the running of it from England as well as Ireland, which I am far from thinking an impossible scheme. If the preventing the running of this quantity of Irish wools, will enable us to send to foreign markets as much woollen goods, as will, when manufactured, be worth 196,875 l. more than we now export, I am humbly of opinion, we ought to make a new experiment, and consent to the people of Ireland's sending their manufactured woollen goods to England; for we may be certain of manufacturing and vending more cloth, and other woollen goods, as the French are deprived of the means of supplying the foreign demands. And as all the goods that the surplus wools of Ireland can be manufactured into, will not amount to one-half of what France will be prevented from supplying, we must furnish the rest from our own manufactures. And if France has been able to procure a larger quantity of Irish wools yearly, than I have supposed, we shall be able to manufacture so much the greater quantity for foreign markets, as she is obliged to manufacture the less.

We have nothing to fear from any encouragement we give Ireland to manufacture, if we can prevent the French from procuring the wools of that country; for when the plague raged at Marseilles, the demands for woollen goods from foreign countries were so large, that the wools of both England and Ireland were insufficient to supply them; which plainly shewed how largely France had been concerned in the markets abroad, and what a quantity of her own coarse wools she must have worked up, by the help and assistance of the wools of that kingdom.

The camblets of Ireland are goods the Portuguese have been a long time accustomed to wear, and that they will have, and do procure these goods from Ireland, appears from the ships we have already taken, bound with such goods to Portugal; and the Irish will continue that trade, notwithstanding our guard-ships, and the encouragement our commanders of men of war have to search, unless we make it their own interest to discourage it.

All that our manufacturers have been able to do, has not been sufficient to prevail with Portugal to approve of the camblets we make. I am convinced, the consumption of that article would be greatly increased there, if the people of Ireland were permitted to export those camblets to us, under a duty at importation, to be drawn back on exportation from England; their profit would be more certain than it can be at present, and it would put a stop to all attempts to run such goods for the future, and be a great encouragement to their working up more of their surplus wools, and consequently of lessening the temptation of selling them to France. Our merchants would have a commission on receiving and forwarding, perhaps on sales; our packers would have the benefit of re-packing, and our ships of carrying.

If it be objected, that the exportation of such other woollen goods, as Ireland may send us, will interfere with the exportation of our own, I am of opinion it cannot. For if France be prevented from procuring the wools of Ireland, there will be a demand in foreign markets, not only for the same quantity of woollen goods which we now supply, but for as much

more as France did formerly supply; and we shall sell, not only to the amount of what I have computed the surplus wools of Ireland may be manufactured into, but also near double that value, which France would have been able to sell of her own manufactured wools, by the help of the surplus wools of that kingdom.

If it be objected, that when the duties laid on the Irish woollen goods at importation, are drawn back on the exportation from England, the Irish woollen goods can be sold cheaper in foreign markets, than goods of the same kind manufactured in England, by reason of the cheapness of provisions and low price of labour in Ireland; I answer, that we shall have in our own hands a remedy, when it is convenient to use it, by permitting such goods to draw back only a PART of the DUTIES paid at importation, as we find can be sold cheaper in foreign markets. By which we shall bring the value of such Irish woollen goods upon a par with our own, on exportation from England, so that there will be no temptation to the buyers for exportation to take the one before the other.

If it be objected, that the people of Ireland will increase their sheep, when they have liberty to export what they manufacture, and that they may send us too great a quantity of their woollen goods for re-exportation; I answer, That it must be some years before they can effect it; and if they should so increase their sheep, as to be able to export double the quantity that I have computed their present surplus wools may be manufactured into for exportation, that quantity will not exceed what France now sells, by the help of the surplus wools of that country; therefore we must continue to sell the same quantity we now send abroad.

Again, if it be objected, that should the people of Ireland have liberty to export what they manufacture, they will sell us no more of their wools, or woollen and worsted yarn; and that instead of their having but 78,750 l. value to export, they will export the whole value that I have computed their surplus wools might be manufactured into; I am of opinion, we have little to fear from this objection; for there will be always in England and Ireland, as many people on the trade of buying the wools and yarns (for which we pay ready money) as there will be purchasers of their wools, fully manufactured; which, if sent here to be sold for exportation, must be on long credit; and if sent abroad on their own accounts, will be subject to uncertain sales, and as uncertain payments. Besides, if there should be occasion, their wools may be made cheaper to us, and their woollen goods loaded with a duty at exportation from Ireland to England.

We pay for licence (together with fees) to the lord lieutenant of Ireland, for every thousand great stones of wool exported to England, about 23 l. If the Irish wools are exported to us free of this charge, our manufacturers might purchase the wools of Ireland at all times, near 5 per cent. cheaper than they now can, or hitherto have done; and in lieu of this income which belongs to the lord lieutenant of Ireland, the parliament of that kingdom may fix a duty on all woollen goods, fully manufactured, on exportation to England.

This would, in some measure, prevent their sending us too much of their wools fully manufactured, and enable us to purchase more of their raw wools.

New experiments must be made; the people of Ireland must find a market for their surplus wools, manufactured or unmanufactured, or we cannot effectually distress France, enlarge our foreign woollen trade, or indeed be certain of supplying them ourselves with such goods as we now manufacture. I will admit, that from the cheapness of provisions, and low price of labour in Ireland, their poor are able to work cheaper than ours. They are not in Ireland bound by any parliamentary laws to provide for, and maintain for life, reduced and decayed housekeepers, and disabled and superannuated servants, as the people of England are, which obliges their poor to work for less prices than ours.

Notwithstanding, I am of opinion we have little to fear from their being able to undersell us abroad; for though most of the goods they manufacture are worked up cheaper than ours, yet the advantages we have of them in dyeing better colours, pressing, tilleting, and packing our goods, will balance, in most foreign markets, the advantage they may have of us, with respect to their low price for labour.

Besides, the freight of their woollen goods from Ireland to England, the insurance, the inland carriage to proper places for sale, the charge of warehouse room, reception and forwarding, the charges of unpacking and repacking, will affect such woollen goods as they can send us, 10 per cent. on the lowest computation I can make; which ought greatly to lessen the apprehensions of our manufacturers; and if the woollen goods they send us are to be dyed, pressed, and packed here, so as to be sent abroad, equally finished with the like goods of our own manufacture, they will be subject to a much greater expence.

What we suffer Ireland to gain by the export of her woollen manufactured goods from England, can be no loss to us; in many instances we shall be gainers. By encouraging them to manufacture their wools, they will find it their own interest

to sell none of them to France, by which we shall be tempted to manufacture the more of our own.

By prohibiting the importation of Spanish wools into Ireland, their manufacturers will be obliged to work up more of their own wools, and their people to wear more of their own manufactures, by which we shall have the less to fear from what they may be able to export.

By lessening the numbers of their fine spinners, we shall increase the spinning of such worsted and woollen yarn, as we want and take from them; which are so useful and necessary in our manufacturing several kinds of coarse goods, for our consumption as well as exportation.

By allowing them to export their woollen goods to Great-Britain, manufactories will be established in several counties in Ireland; their nobility and gentry will have such advantages by the settlements of workmen on their estates, that they will find it their own interest to discourage the running of wools, and to forbid their tenants to be aiding and assisting. By making Ireland a NURSERY of spinners for England, we shall have plenty of their spinning; and by making England a MAGAZINE for Irish woollen goods, fully manufactured, our merchants will have a commission on reception and forwarding; our dyers, a profit on such white goods as they shall send us; our pressers, the benefit of packing, and our shipping have better employment. By a good understanding between ENGLAND and IRELAND, our manufactures will be brought into greater esteem abroad; we then shall have nothing to fear from the low price of labour in France, with respect to coarse goods, which has obliged us for years past to manufacture such goods as would sell, although they brought discredit to our country.

By our woollen goods being demanded abroad, in proportion as France is unable to supply, our landed gentlemen will find their rents better paid, and their lands lett at a higher value. The increase of our woollen manufactures will keep up the price of the product of the lands; as demands for goods not only employ our poor, but cause the advance of the price. The product of the lands of England is a considerable part of every manufacture; our rents are but the value paid for the product of the lands; therefore all the additional labour we encourage, which pays to the product of the lands, is so much added to the rents of the kingdom.

By preventing France from procuring the raw wools of Ireland, we shall not only undersell her, but speedily put it out of her power to answer the demands of those foreign countries, which she has for many years past been able to supply. By permitting Ireland to export such goods, as she may manufacture of her own wools, the gentlemen of that kingdom may be prevailed on to wear no Spanish cloths, but such as we manufacture. The advantage of which I shall shew.

I have already computed, that the Spanish wools Ireland imported last year, might be manufactured into 2280 pieces of cloth; which, supposing each cloth 26 yards, would be 59,000 yards. I find that from the 25th of March 1743, to the 25th of March 1744, the importations of Spanish cloths into Ireland were 20,981 yards and one quarter; therefore the yearly consumption of Spanish cloths in Ireland, seems to me to be 77,981 yards one quarter. We cannot prevent France from supplying foreign countries with their Spanish cloths; by their situation they always will have the Spanish wools cheaper than we can; and the low price of labour, and cheapness of provisions in those provinces of France where Spanish cloths are manufactured, will ever enable them to vie with, if not undersell, us in that manufacture. Their colours are as good as ours, and their wools as fine. But we have advantages peculiar to this nation, which they cannot take from us. Their cloths want the firmness in their texture and milling, that our cloths have, without which they never can dress them as we do; and if a small encouragement, by bounty on exportation, was given by parliament, on such Spanish cloths, as we export to the Levant only, I am humbly of opinion, we should wholly supply both the Turks and the Persians.

Therefore, since we have so powerful a rival as France in our Spanish wool manufacture, which of all our manufactures deserves our greatest attention; we should endeavour, by all prudent ways, to encourage and support it at home. Our silken manufactures greatly depend on it. A bale of Spanish cloths amounts to a large sum of money; consequently, it is a means of increasing our balances against those countries, from which we receive a balance by our commerce, and, on the other hand, of preventing a balance being too heavy against us with those countries, which, by our large imports, may have a balance against us.

By the modern dress of our nobility, gentry, and merchants, this manufacture appears daily decreasing among ourselves. I am convinced, that the new-fashion goods we wear, have lessened our consumption of Spanish cloths two fifths of what it was a few years ago. If we suffer this manufacture to decay, the FRENCH and DUTCH will soon procure the hands we employ; our poor must quit the country, or come to the lands for a maintenance; since it is well known, that a woman, who has spent the best of her days in spinning fine wools,

wools, cannot bring her fingers to make good work by spinning of coarse. I have already shewn, that if we consent to the people of Ireland's exporting their surplus wools, fully manufactured, the value of them cannot exceed 78,750 l. And though we may think it our interest, that no Spanish cloths should be manufactured but in England, and to prohibit the importation of Spanish wools into Ireland, yet I am of opinion, the gentlemen of Ireland would wear but little of our Spanish cloths, if we prevented their manufacturing (though it is demonstrably their own interest) without giving them, in lieu thereof, a liberty of exporting such woollen goods as they could manufacture of their own wools.

The consumption of Spanish cloths, in that country last year, appears to be 77,981 yards; and we may expect they will yearly consume an equal quantity, which, at 16s. per yard, will amount to 62,385 l.

Therefore, if they wear no Spanish cloths but what we manufacture, and we agree to their exportation of such woollen goods as they may manufacture, more than are requisite for their own consumption, the balance we should yearly pay them would be but a trifle, if they took no woollen goods from us but Spanish cloths; whereas we do now, and always may, depend on supplying them yearly, with all new-fashion woollen goods that are worn here, since all dependent kingdoms take their fashions from the place where the court resides. We have had no reason to repent of the encouragement we have given to their linen manufactures; it has greatly enriched that country, which has been thereby more improved, within these 30 years past, than in 100 years before. We take from them in linens 500,000 l. value per ann. besides what they send directly to our plantations, and other countries; whereas, according to Dr d'Avenant's report, in the year 1713, their whole exports of linen were computed at only 80,000 l. value. We continue to give their linens the preference of most others, and since we contribute so largely to support and encourage that manufacture, they ought in gratitude to support (as far as in their power lies) a manufacture, that is of as great consequence to England, as the linens are to that kingdom.

Therefore I am humbly of opinion, that a union between England and Ireland, with respect to their woollen manufactures, must be advantageous to both kingdoms, and will be the means of effectually preventing FRANCE from procuring the wools of that country.

R E M A R K S.

As the Irish are not allowed to carry their woollen manufactures to foreign markets, nor to export them to England, whilst the English may export such goods to Ireland, it naturally follows, that the wool of that nation must be smuggled to the French and Dutch, or any nation that will bid highest for it. Some regulations might, perhaps, be framed, to prevent the running of English wool to France and Holland, and this nation might possibly be induced to try dangerous schemes, in order to retrieve so important a branch of trade as the woollen manufactory. But if this great end can be as effectually answered for the reciprocal benefit of both nations, without introducing any such schemes which may prove dangerous to the liberty of the subject, it will certainly prove far more eligible, and that is what the preceding proposal seems to bid very fair to do.

It is a maxim in equity and the law of nature, that every nation has a right to make the most of its own products. Where one nation is so far subject to another as to be debarred from that right, it must be for considerations respecting the interest of both; the chief of which may be, that the more powerful of the two may be maintained in a condition to afford protection and support to the other. Where that natural right is not superseded on this principle, the weaker nation will be apt to look upon it as an oppressive act, or, at best, as an absurdity equally pernicious to both parties.

So long as the Irish are not allowed a free vent for their woollen manufactures, it will be in vain to think of effectually preventing the running of their unwrought wool to France and other foreign parts; and even part of their manufactures will be run to England and elsewhere, in spite of all the laws the English can make to obstruct it. Commerce claims freedom: where it is cramped, it either decays, or is carried on clandestinely. To take all the wool of Ireland into the government's hands, in order to sell to the manufacturers just enough for the inhabitants of that kingdom, and export the rest to England at a lower price than foreigners offer for it, would, by the Irish, be considered as an act of injustice: at least, to make them view it in a favourable light, English woollen goods ought to be prohibited in Ireland. For though England's prosperity is of so much importance to Ireland, that if ever the former should be ruined, the latter would of course fall under a foreign yoke; yet the welfare of both ought, as far as is possible, to be promoted by equitable measures and fair regulations, such as no reasonable man in either kingdom would object to.

It has been apprehended by some, that if the Irish were allowed a free trade in the woollen branch, they would greatly

hurt England; but, perhaps, it would produce the contrary effect, by what has been urged in the foregoing representation. It might occasion, for some time, the removal of many manufacturers from England to Ireland; but is not this much better than their removing to foreign parts, going to seek bread among our enemies, and helping them to ruin the trade of the three kingdoms? If Ireland increases in commerce and wealth, one may safely conclude, from the genius and character of that nation, that its riches will chiefly center here at last. That country produces fewer misers than England: the Irish covet money, perhaps, as much as any people in the world; but not so much with a view to hoard it, as to make a figure and spend freely: and experience proves, that in all states and monarchies, the riches of distant provinces and colonies insensibly flow to the mother country, or to the metropolis.

It may be objected, that Ireland's taxes bear no manner of proportion with those of England; and therefore, to grant them a free trade, would be putting them in a condition to leave the English far behind them, as they could carry every thing to foreign markets so much cheaper than this nation can do. In answer to this it has been asked, Whether it is not safer to let the IRISH thrive, than to suffer our enemies, the FRENCH, to take advantage of their miserable condition, and thereby ruin BRITAIN as well as IRELAND? The Irish, in their present circumstances, cannot be taxed like England: yet to grant IRELAND the same privileges as ENGLAND enjoys, and to tax it in PROPORTION to its wealth, would be fair and equitable, satisfactory and beneficial to both nations. Let us therefore think in earnest of a solid and permanent union, before it be too late: let us lay aside unreasonable, partial, and selfish principles; give them encouragement to become industrious, put them upon a fair and equitable footing, make all trifling distinctions cease; and let us not suffer our most dangerous competitors to run away with that trade, that England and Ireland may obtain, upon a wife and solid union made between the two nations.

An act for permitting the exportation of wool and woollen, or bay yarn, from any port in Ireland, to any port in Great-Britain.

Whereas the permitting of wool, and woollen or bay yarn, to be exported only from certain ports in Ireland, to certain ports in England, is not of so great and extensive advantage to the trade of this kingdom, as it would be if all the ports in Great-Britain and Ireland were opened for that purpose; be it therefore enacted by the king's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That from and after the fifth day of June, in the year of our Lord 1753, it shall and may be lawful for any person or persons, to export from any port in Ireland, any wool, or woollen, or bay yarn, wool fells, shortlings, mortlings, wool flocks, and worsted yarn, to any port in Great-Britain, any act or acts of parliament to the contrary notwithstanding.

Provided always, and be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, That all such exportations and importations of wool, and woollen or bay yarn, wool fells, shortlings, mortlings, wool flocks, and worsted yarn, from any port in Ireland, into any port in Great-Britain, shall be made under the same restrictions and regulations, and in the same manner in all respects, as wool or woollen yarn is now by law permitted to be exported from Dublin, Waterford, Youghall, Kinsale, Cork, Drogheda, New Ross, Newry, Wexford, Wicklow, Sligo, Limerick, Galway, and Dundalk, and imported into the several ports of Biddeford, Barnstable, Minehead, Bridgewater, Bristol, Milford-Haven, Chester, Liverpool, Lancaster, and Great Yarmouth, or any of them. See IRELAND.

WORCESTERSHIRE, has Herefordshire and Shropshire on the west, Gloucestershire on the south, Staffordshire on the north, and Warwickshire on the east, and is 130 miles in circumference. The air and soil of this shire are inferior to no other, either for health or pleasure; the former being sweet all over the county, the latter rich both in tillage and pasturage, the hills being covered with flocks of sheep, and the vallies abounding in corn and rich meadows. It is in all parts watered with very fine rivers, as the Severn, Stour, Avon, Teme, &c. which also furnish it with plenty of the most delicious fish. Its commodities, besides corn, cattle, cheese, wool, cloth, stuffs, cyder, lampreys, &c. are perry and salt, which last is in a peculiar manner. Hops are lately very much cultivated in this shire, which commodity and their salt are sent down the Severn in a sort of vessels called troughs, of which at least 20 are constantly employed to Bristol, Bridgewater, and other places, Somerset and Dorsetshire being chiefly supplied with the latter by this traffic.

WORCESTER, which is the capital of the county, is a large flourishing city. The chief manufactures of it are broad cloth and gloves, especially the former, in which it is incredible what a number of people are employed here and hereabouts.

DROITWICH is of special note for its salt springs, by which it is much enriched; the quantity of salt made being so great, that the taxes annually paid to the crown amount to about 50,000 l. a year, at the rate of 3 s. 6 d. a bushel.

EVESHAM is a neat town, with a gentle ascent from the river Avon. Its chief manufacture is woollen stockings.

BEWDLEY, or **BEAULIEU**, is so called, from its pleasant situation on the declivity of a hill on the west bank of the river Severn. It is a place of considerable trade; for by means of the Severn, great quantities of salt, iron ware, glass, Manchester goods, &c. are put aboard barges here, and at Gloucester aboard troughs, for Bristol, Bridgewater, and other ports, which renders this a populous thriving town and corporation: but its chief manufacture is caps, which the Dutch seamen buy, called Monmouth caps. The town is well supplied with corn, malt, and leather, and every Saturday has a market for hops.

KIDDERMINSTER on the Stour, not far from the Severn, is a compact town, where the inhabitants, who are at least 2000, drive a pretty good trade in cloth, and weaving linsey woollseys, &c.

STOURBRIDGE is a well-built town, the name of which shews its relation to the river, over which it has a stone bridge. It has been much enriched by iron and glass works. There's about half a score glass-houses near it, where glasses, bottles, and window-glass are made, together with fine stone-pots for glass-makers to melt the metal in, also crucibles, &c. the clay of which they are made, being peculiar to the place. Here is also a manufacture of fine freeze cloth.

BROMSGROVE, near the rise of the river Salwarp, drives a considerable trade in clothing.

PERSHORE is a pretty large old town. Its manufacture is stockings.

WRECK is where a ship is broke to pieces, or lost on the sea, and signifies in our law such goods as, after a shipwreck, are cast upon the land by the sea, and left there within some county, for they are not wrecks so long as they remain at sea, in the jurisdiction of the admiralty.

In matters of wreck it is observed, that there is, as it were, a contract between the persons that have lost their goods by such misfortune, and those upon whose lands the goods and merchandize are driven, that the same be restored to them, or those that claim under them: and therefore, by the civil law, no man shall meddle with such goods as are wrecked, nor shall they be seized by the king, or any other by virtue of his grant or royal privilege; for that such goods, being cast on land and recovered out of the sea, remain still his who was the first owner thereof, and shall go to him or his successor; and if it be proved that any thing be stolen out of the wreck, the takers shall be deemed robbers.

Here we find what is worthy to be followed and imitated in all trading countries; and the reason why the laws were so strictly declared by the Romans was, because by the Rhodian laws [see **RHODIAN LAWS**], if any ship had become wreck, though all the persons were saved and alive, yet the ship and goods became seizable by the lords: but the same being barbarous and inhuman, it was afterwards repealed and abrogated, as well by those emperors in their territories, as here in England; and first by the naval law of Oleron [see **OLERON'S LAWS**], which provided in such misfortune, that if the merchant or mariners, or any of them came safe to land, it was not to be accounted wreck.

And the emperor Constantine the Great says, If any ship at any time by shipwreck be driven unto the shore, or touch at any land, let the owner have it, and let not my exchequer meddle with it; for what right have I in another man's calamity, that I should hunt after gain in such a woeful case?

R E M A R K S.

The laws of Oleron well deserve attention, on account of the great and just spirit of them; and this barbarity is now rarely used in any nation in Europe, unless it be against the enemies of the state, infidels, or pirates. See **OLERON LAWS**.

There are several other excellent provisions in the laws of Oleron, to secure shipwrecked goods to the distressed owners; and by other sea laws and ordinances, if any man shall prevent assistance to shipwrecked persons, he shall be punished as a murderer: and the like punishment hath been ordained for those who shall, by treachery, put forth any light, with intention to subject them to danger or shipwreck; and hence it is that fishermen are forbidden to fish with lights in the night. By the laws of France, such as during the night light false fires upon the shore, in dangerous places, to decoy thither, and occasion the loss of ships, shall be put to death, and their bodies hung up upon a mast, which shall be set upon the place where the fires are made.

If a ship and goods perish in the sea, and the owners abandon her, so that she becomes a mere derelict, in such case, the first person that takes possession of her, and recovers any part of the lading, gains a property therein, by the laws of nations. And where any such wreck happens by any fault or negligence in the master or mariner, the master must make good

the loss; but if the same was occasioned by the act of God, or done to avoid an enemy or pirate, then he shall be excused. The master, &c. shall sustain the damage, where he, or any of his mariners, lie ashore, and the ship, during their absence, perisheth, whether by night or by day, &c. See **RHODIAN LAWS**.

By the French laws, all ships and persons belonging to them that shall be cast ashore by tempest, or otherwise, upon the coasts of that kingdom, and every thing that has escaped shipwreck, is declared to be taken into the protection of the king: and all subjects are enjoined not only to do their utmost endeavours to succour all persons in danger of shipwreck, but also, till the arrival of the officers of the admiralty, to save the shipwrecked goods, and prevent their being rifled, under pain of being answerable for all losses and damages, of which they shall not be excused, without producing those that are guilty: and such as make an attempt upon the lives or goods of shipwrecked persons, shall be punished with death, without any possibility of a pardon.

In ancient times, all wrecks in England belonged to the crown; and where a ship perished at sea, and no man doth escape out of it, the wrecked goods being brought to land by the waves, by the common law belong to the king, by his prerogative, or to the lord of the manor: and the statute de Prerogativa Regis, 17 Edward II, ordains, That the king shall have wreck of the sea, whales and great sturgeons, taken in the sea and elsewhere, throughout the realm, except in places privileged. But it was formerly usual to seize wrecks as forfeited to the king, only when no owner could be found; for, in such case, it must of consequence belong to him, as lord of the Narrow Seas [see **SEA DOMINIONS** and **SEA BRITISH**], which he is obliged to scour of pirates, &c. and the product of wrecks was ordained to contribute to the charge. *Bract. lib. ii. cap. 5.*

And by stat. 3 Edw. I. cap. 4. called the statute of Westminster the first, it is enacted, That where a man, dog, or cat, escapes alive out of the ship, neither the ship, nor any thing therein, shall be adjudged a wreck; but the goods shall be saved, and kept by the sheriff, coroners, or king's bailiffs, and delivered to the inhabitants of the town where they are found; so that if any person, within a year and a day, sue or apply for those goods, and prove that they were his property at the time of the shipwreck, they shall be restored to him without delay: but if not, then they shall be seized by the said sheriffs, coroners, or bailiffs for the king's use, and shall be delivered to the inhabitants of the town or place, who shall answer before the justices for the wreck belonging to the king. Also where the wreck belongs to another, he shall have the same in like manner; and if any one be convicted to have done otherwise, he shall suffer imprisonment, make fine to the king, and likewise yield damages: and bailiffs to lords acting contrary, shall answer for it, if they have wherewith to do it; and if they have not, the lord shall deliver his bailiff's body to the king to be answerable.

The owners claiming a wreck, must make sufficient proof of their title within the year and day; and they are to do it by their marks or cockets, by the custom-house books, or the testimony of reputable men; and if the wreck be taken by the king, or seized by persons having no authority, the owner may have a commission to inquire, and hear and determine it, by the oaths of 12 men; or he may bring an action at law, and make his proof by verdict. The year and day shall be accounted from the seizure; and if the owner of the goods dies within the year, his executors or administrators may make proof: and when such goods wrecked are perishable, the sheriff may sell them within the year, and the sale shall be good; but he must dispose of them to the best advantage, and account with the owners. *Fitz. Nat. Br. 12. 2 Inst. 167.* If a ship is ready to sink at sea, and all the men therein, for preservation of their lives, quit the ship, and afterwards she perishes, if any of the men are saved, the goods shall not be lost. A ship on the sea was chased by an enemy; the men in it, for the security of their lives, quitted the ship, which was taken by the enemy, and spoiled of her goods and tackle, and then turned to sea: after this, by stress of weather, she was cast on land, where it happened her men safely arrived: it was resolved that the ship was no wreck by our law. *5 Co. Rep. 2.*

Where goods are wrecked on shore, and the lord having power takes them, he shall not pay custom, neither by the common law nor the statute law; for at the common law, shipwrecked goods could not be charged with customs, by reason the wreck was wholly the king's, and he could not have a custom of what was all his own: and wines, or other goods, coming or brought into the kingdom by wreck, are not imported by any body, but by the wind and sea; nor can such wrecked goods, so cast ashore, be said to be brought into the kingdom as merchandize for sale. *Hill. 23 and 24 Car. II.*

If a man have a grant of wreck, and goods are wrecked upon his lands, and another taketh them away before seizure, he shall have an action of trespass, &c. to recover them; and before they are seized, there is no property gained, to make it felony. *1 Hawk. 94.*

In case a person loses his goods at sea, by piracy or tempest, and not by wreck, if they afterwards come to land, and he can make proof that they are his goods, they are to be restored by the king's officers, or the lords there. Stat. 27 Edw. III. cap. 13.

The statute of 12 Ann. cap. 18. hath ordained, That the sheriffs and justices of the peace of every county, or of a city or town, and all mayors, bailiffs, and other head officers of corporations and port towns near adjoining to the sea, and all constables, tithing-men, and officers of the customs, in all such places, upon application to them made on behalf of any commander of a ship in danger of being stranded, or run on shore, shall command the constables near the sea-coast where such ship shall be in danger, to call together as many men as shall be necessary, to the assistance, and for the preservation of such ship; and if there shall be any ships of war, or other ships, lying at anchor near the place, the officers of the customs, and constables, &c. are to require the assistance of the superior officers, by their boats, and what hands they can spare: and if such officers shall refuse or neglect to assist, they shall be liable to the penalty of 100 l. to be recovered by the chief officer of the ship in distress.

No persons shall enter into such ships in distress, without leave from the commander, or a constable, &c. and the masters and constables may, by force, repel persons who shall press on board the said ships without leave. And if any goods are carried off from any such ship, and found on any person, if they are not delivered to the owner on demand, such person shall pay treble the value of the goods, recoverable by the owner in an action at law. Also, if any officer of the customs, or his deputy, abuse the trust reposed in him by this act, and shall be convicted thereof, he shall forfeit treble damages to the party grieved, and be incapable of any employment in the customs.

If any person makes holes in the bottom, side, or in any part of a ship, or steals any pump, or does any thing tending to the loss of the ship, he shall be guilty of felony. And by this statute, ships and goods are to be preserved for the benefit of the owners, paying the salvage, &c. [see SALVAGE.] But this act shall not extend to deprive the crown, or any grantee of any right or claim to any wreck or goods that shall be jetsam, flotsam, or lagan. See FLOTSAM.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the End of Letter U.

The chief LAWS relating to WINES:

WINE, oil, and honey, the ton must contain 252 gallons, the pipe or butt 126 gallons, the hoghead 63 gallons, the barrel $31\frac{1}{2}$ gallons, the rundlet $18\frac{1}{2}$ gallons.

—imported, are discharged from the imposition of excise. 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 15.

—of vinegar, landed before payment and security of the impost duty, are forfeited, or their value, and the importers are to pay the said duty notwithstanding. 1 Jac. II. c. 3. §. 5.

—first landed in the out-ports, and carried afterward to London by certificate, are to pay so much more as they paid short of the duties due in London.

—No wine exceeding the quantity of 10 gallons, imported into any of the out-ports, to be brought from thence to London, or within 20 miles of the Royal Exchange, without paying the out-port and London duty. And if any quantity of wine, exceeding in bottles three dozen, or in casks 10 gallons, is brought in the same carriage to London, or within 20 miles of the said Exchange, without a certificate of the said respective duties being paid, &c. it is to be forfeited, &c. 26 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 1, 2.

—Every hoghead run out, and not full seven inches, or above, and every pipe or butt not above nine inches left therein, are to be accounted for outs, and no duty is to be paid for the same.

—of the growth of Hungary, may be imported from Hamburgh, paying duty as Rhenish wines. 1 Ann. c. 12. §. 112.

—imported, 12 per cent. to be allowed for leakage.

—damaged and corrupt, the allowance repealed. 6 Geo. I. c. 12 §. 1.

—damaged, corrupt, or unmerchantable, upon the importer's refusing to pay or secure the duties, may, at the landing, be delivered up into the custody of the officers of the customs, in order to be publicly sold to be distilled into brandy, or made into vinegar: and that they shall not be used for any other purpose, security must be taken; which may be discharged upon a certificate (within three months after delivery) that they have been so used. 6 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 3. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 20.

—The produce of such sale is to be paid to the importer, by certificate, as a compensation for the freight, &c. but such allowance must not exceed 4 l. for every ton of wine of the growth of France and Germany, and 8 l. for every ton of all other wines so delivered up: and if there be any overplus beyond the said allowance, it must be placed to the duties out of which the charges have been paid. 6 Geo. I. c. 12. §. 4. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 20.

—But no allowance may be made for such wines, unless they be imported in casks on board a merchant-ship directly from the place of their growth, or the usual place of their first shipping. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 19. 11 Geo. I. c. 29. §. 4.

—Except saved from ships stranded, which are to enjoy the same allowances, as if imported in the ship wherein they

were first laden. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 20. 11 Geo. I. c. 29. §. 4.

—Except of the growth of the dominions of the great duke of Tuscany, in open flasks, or of Turkey, or any other parts of the Levant Seas, may not be imported in flasks or bottles, or in vessels, or casks, which shall contain less than 25 gallons, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value: to be sued for in any of the courts of record in Westminster, or in the court of Exchequer in Scotland, or by the laws of excise. 1 Geo. II. c. 17. §. 7, 8.

—exceeding in quantity 10 gallons, which have been imported from foreign parts into any of the out-ports, may not be brought from any place, either by land or water, into the port of London, or members thereof, or within 20 miles of the Royal Exchange, before the proprietor has paid to the collector, or proper officer of the customs, nearest to the place from whence the wine is intended to be removed, the duties payable in any of the out-ports, and also the difference between the duties payable there, and in the port of London on importation. 26 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 1.

—in bottles, exceeding three dozen, and in casks 10 gallons, at the same time, and in the same carriage, so removed, without a certificate from such collector or proper officer, expressing the quantity and quality, and that the duties have been paid as above, or that the same was wine sold for salvage, or has been compounded for or condemned, is forfeited, together with the casks or vessels containing it, and may be seized by any officer of the customs, and prosecuted in the same manner as any uncustomed wines.

—If after removal, and payment of the duties as above, it is staved, lost or perished before its arrival as aforesaid, the commissioners of the customs, or any three of them, upon proof thereof upon oath to their satisfaction, are to cause repayment to be made to the proprietor of the difference between the duties payable in the out-ports, and in London, out of the duties payable on wines.

Besides the duties before mentioned, an act of parliament took place in the year 1762, intitled, An act for granting several additional DUTIES upon WINES imported into this kingdom, and certain DUTIES upon all CYDER and PERRY, &c.

WINES.—The additional duties on wines to take place after the 31st of March, 1763, without any DISCOUNT or DEDUCTION inwards, or drawback on re-exportation afterwards, viz.

—On French wine and vinegar, 8 l. per ton; and on all other wines and vinegar imported, 4 l. per ton.

—Damaged and unmerchantable wines exempted from these additional duties.

—The said duties to be under the management of the commissioners of the customs.

—No allowance to be made for LEAKAGE, but upon wines imported directly from the country or place of their growth, &c.

—MADEIRA wines imported from the British plantations in America excepted.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

CHIEF LAWS RELATING TO WOOL.

WOOL.—The owners of wool, shorn or lodged within 10 miles of the sea-side, in the counties of Kent or Sussex, must, within three days after sheering, give an exact account, in writing, of the number of fleeces, and where lodged, to the officers of the next port.

— The like notice must be given before removal, expressing the number of fleeces, and weight, the name and abode of the buyer, and the place to which it is intended to be carried, and a certificate taken from the officer, who first entered it, upon forfeiture, and 3s. per pound weight.

— Such certificates must specify the names of the owners and buyers, and be limited to such times and places to be removed; for which certificate the officer is to receive 6d. 9 & 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 3.

— Persons residing within 15 miles of the sea, in the counties of Kent and Sussex, may not buy wool before they have entered into a bond, with sureties, that all the wool they buy, shall not be sold by them to any persons within 15 miles of the sea.

— found carrying towards the sea-side, in the aforesaid counties, unless entered, and security be given, is forfeited, and 3s. per pound weight. Ditto act, §. 4.

— removed from the place where first lodged after sheering, within 10 miles of the sea, may not be lodged, after the first removal, within 15 miles of the sea, in the aforesaid counties, upon forfeiture thereof, if found, or 3s. per pound weight by the owners, if carried away. Ditto act, §. 5.

— laid or hid within 15 miles of the sea, and not entered, is forfeited.

— The claimer of such wool, so seized as forfeited, must give sufficient security in the court of Exchequer, to pay treble costs, if cast, over and above the penalties and forfeitures. Ditto act, §. 6.

— One third part of the aforesaid forfeitures and penalties is to be to the use of his Majesty, and the other two-thirds to the use of the seiser or suer. Ditto act, §. 8.

— coastwise, designed to be carried to any place on the sea-coasts, with an intention to be conveyed to any other port or place on the sea-coast, from whence it may be exported, must, before loaded, or carried within five miles of the place, be entered at the port from whence it is to be conveyed, mentioning the exact weight, mark and numbers, upon forfeiture thereof, with the horses, &c. and persons concerned in carrying, driving, &c. are liable to the forfeitures inflicted on the exportation.

— But to hinder the conveyance of wool from the place of sheering to the proprietor's dwelling-house, though within five miles, or less, of the sea; provided that within 10 days after the sheering, and before the removal and disposal, he certifies under his hand, to the officers of the next port, the number of fleeces, and where lodged, and does not remove or dispose thereof, without certifying his intention, at least three days before removal; such certificates are to be kept, and registered by the officers. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 2, 3. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

— A register of all wool sent coastwise, with the particular weights and numbers, the ship-master's name, and to whom consigned, must be kept at the custom-house, London. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 11. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

— Wool-fells, mortlings, shortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, and tobacco-pipe-clay; the cockets for the carriage thereof coastwise must be written upon paper, and not parchment, expressing the exact weights, marks, and numbers, and be signed by at least three of the chief officers in whose presence they are to be weighed. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 4. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 7. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 14.

— The return or certificate of landing the wool must be written on paper, not parchment, the quantity not obliterated or interlined, and must express the exact weights, marks, and numbers, and be signed by at least three of the chief officers, in whose presence it must be weighed. Ditto acts.

— Officers not performing their duties, are to be deemed aiders and abettors of the transportation, and shall suffer the penalties contained in 12 Car. II. c. 32. and 14 Car. II. c. 18. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 5. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

— Wool, sheep, &c. as above, may not be exported, nor packed, or loaded upon any horse, &c. nor laden on board any ship, with intent to be exported, unless as hereafter excepted, upon forfeiture, and 20s. for every sheep, and 3s. for every pound weight of the rest. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 1, 2, 3. and 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 2, 3, 8. and 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 2, 3, 4. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1, 2.

— Owners of the ships, knowing thereof, are to forfeit their interest therein. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— And if the owners be aliens, or natural-born subjects not inhabiting within this kingdom, such ships are forfeited wholly to his Majesty. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 9.

— Masters and mariners, knowing thereof, and assisting therein, are to forfeit all their goods and chattels, and to suffer three months imprisonment. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 3.

— The exporter, besides other penalties, is disabled to require any debt, &c. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 4.

— Owners, masters, or mariners, discovering upon oath, within three months after knowledge of the offence, or after their return into Great-Britain, the number, quantity, and quality of the goods exported, &c. are to be discharged of all penalties, and to have the benefit of an informer's part. 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 11. and 1 W. & M. c. 32. §. 8. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

— Sheep, wool-fells, mortlings, shortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, or tobacco-pipe-clay, the exportation declared a common and public nuisance. 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 11.

— Offences may be tried and determined at the general quarter-sessions, in the county where committed, or where the offenders shall be apprehended, or the goods or ships taken. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 5. 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 4, 12. and 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 12.

— Offences must be prosecuted within three years. Ditto acts.

Such goods shipped or found on the shore, at or near the sea, or any navigable river, or packed or loaded on any horse, &c. with intent to be exported, may be seized by any persons; but such persons may not be evidence against the offender. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 7, 8. and 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 8, 9. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

— BUT THE AFORESAID PROHIBITION IS NOT TO EXTEND to—lamb-skins ready dressed and prepared for furs or linings—nor to wool-fells, or pelts, or beds stuffed with flocks, or whether sheep alive, or the wool growing thereon, taken on board for the use and food of the ship and passengers. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 10, 11. and 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 10.—Nor to the exportation of uncombed wool, out of the port of Southampton, into the following islands, and not exceeding the following respective quantities yearly, viz.

To Jersey	-	4000	Tods, not exceeding 32 pounds each.
To Guernsey	-	2000	
To Alderney	-	400	
To Sark	-	200	

— Provided the exporter, before shipping, delivers to the customer, comptroller, surveyor, or searcher, a writing under the seals of the respective governors, signifying that the person therein named is authorized to export the number of tods therein mentioned; and that he has given sufficient security for the due landing. 12 Car. II. c. 32. §. 2, 12, 13.

— Governors may not grant licences for any greater quantity, upon forfeiture of 20 l. per tod to his majesty. 1 W. & M. c. 32. §. 14. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

— Such wool may not be again transported out of the said islands, upon forfeiture of 20 l. per tod; $\frac{1}{2}$ to his Majesty, $\frac{1}{4}$ to the informer, $\frac{1}{4}$ to the poor; and the offenders to be rendered incapable of any grant or warrant for wool for the future. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 14. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

— Customer of Southampton must keep a true account of the quantity of the wool shipped, and may not permit any greater quantities than those before limited, upon forfeiture of office, and 100 l. Ditto acts.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, YARN MADE OF WOOL, WOOL-FLOCKS, FULLER'S-EARTH, FULLING-CLAY, OR TOBACCO-PIPE-CLAY.

— Packs, sacks, bags, or casks of such goods, may not be loaded on any horse, &c. nor carried by land within this kingdom, but in the day-time, and at seasonable hours; that is to say, from the 1st day of March to the 29th of September, between 4 in the morning, and 8 in the evening; and after the 29th of September to the first of March, between 7 in the morning and 5 in the evening, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value. 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 9.

— Such goods may not be loaded upon any horse, &c. or carried by land, within five miles of the sea-coast, but between sun-rising and sun-setting, upon forfeiture thereof, and the horses, &c.

— Exported into parts beyond the seas, the penalty is forfeiture of ship and goods, and treble the value, with treble costs of suit.

— Persons assisting in the exportation, are to suffer three years imprisonment, without bail or main-prize.

— The first three persons (not being the owners) assisting in the exportation, discovering their crime to any justice of the peace, are discharged of all penalties and punishments. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 8, 10, 11.

— The inhabitants of the place out of which, or through which, such goods are carried or exported, are to forfeit 20 l. if they be under the value of 10 l. but if above, treble the value, and also treble costs of suit. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 8.

— But

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

— But the hundred of Winchelsea, in the cinque-ports, being divided by a navigable arm of the sea, is to be deemed as two distinct hundreds; and the offences committed in one part, are not to be chargeable on the inhabitants of the other. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

— Execution for the informer may be had against two or more of the inhabitants; and the justices, at their general quarter-sessions, may tax every town, &c. in the hundred, &c. as in the case of robbery. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 9.

— The owner of the goods, and each of his assistants, are to answer treble the value of the penalties to the inhabitants, and treble costs of suit, to be recovered by action, in the name of the clerk of the peace. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 10.

— Persons entitled to penalties and forfeitures, compounding with any hundred, port or place, for less than is due by law, any other person may sue for the whole, as if no such composition had been made; and the compounder is to suffer five years imprisonment, without bail or main-prize. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 13.

— The admiralty are to appoint one ship of the 5th rate, and two of the 6th rate, and four armed sloops, to cruize constantly from off the North-Foreland to the Isle of Wight, with orders for seizing all vessels exporting wool, or carrying or bringing prohibited goods, or any suspected persons. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 14.

— The admiralty are to appoint three ships of the 6th rate, and 8 or more armed sloops, to cruize on the coast of Great-Britain or Ireland, in such stations as shall be assigned them by the admiralty, with orders to seize all vessels in which any wool, worsted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, serges, bays, kersies, says, frizes, druggets, cloth-serges, shalloons, or any drapery, stuffs, or woollen manufactures whatsoever, shall be exported, or laden to be exported, from Ireland to foreign parts. A list of the ships and sloops, the names of the commanders, and copies of their instructions, are to be sent to the commissioners of the customs of Great-Britain, and commissioners of the revenue in Ireland, within 10 days after given. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 16. and 5 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 1.

— The commanders of such ships may search any vessels within the limits of their stations; and if any of the above-mentioned goods are found on board, without cocket or warrant, licensing the exportation thereof, may carry them, with crew and cargo, into any port in Great-Britain or Ireland. 5 Geo. II. cap. 21. §. 2.

— After seizure, the goods are to be secured in the king's warehouse; and when condemned must, together with the vessel, her guns, tackle and furniture, be sold by inch of candle to the best bidder, after 21 days public notice; $\frac{1}{4}$ of the produce of such to the commander, $\frac{1}{4}$ to the officers of the ship or sloop, $\frac{1}{4}$ to the mariners, and $\frac{1}{4}$ to the king, out of which the charges of prosecution are to be paid, except the seizure be made upon information; in which case, the informer is to be indemnified from all penalties, &c. and to be paid $\frac{2}{3}$ of such sale, and the residue to be divided into four parts, and distributed as above. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 17. and 5 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 3.

— Commanders neglecting their duties, compounding for, or conniving at the exportation of wool, are to forfeit all their pay due, to suffer six months imprisonment, and be rendered incapable of any service in the navy. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 18.

— Offenders against any of the laws made for the preventing of the exportation of wool, may be prosecuted by action, &c. in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster; and thereupon copies may issue in the first process, specifying the sum of the penalty sued for; and such offenders be obliged to give bail to answer the suit, and also, at appearance, to pay the penalties incurred, or to yield their bodies to prison. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 20.

— Offenders in prison, for want of sufficient bail, for the unlawful exportation of wool or wool-fells, not pleading to a declaration or information, delivered by the space of one term, judgment may be entered against them by default. 4 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 6.

— If judgment be obtained against such offenders, and they do not pay the sum recovered within three months, the court may order transportation for seven years, as for felony. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 27.

WOOL, YARN MADE OF WOOL, AND WOOL-FLOCKS, may not be pressed together with any screws, presses, or other engines, into any sack, pack, bag, cask, &c. nor carried, nor laid, at or near the shore or coasts of the sea, or any navigable river, or into any place adjoining, with intent to be exported, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value. 14 Car. II. c. 18. §. 7.

— Wool, Spanish or foreign, may be exported only in British shipping, upon pain of confiscation. See Rule 5, at the end of Letter A.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WOOL-FLOCKS, WORSTED, BAY, OR WOOLLEN YARN, may be exported from any port in Ireland, with intent to be imported into any port in Great-Britain, and not otherwise; but CLOTH, SERGES, BAYS, KERSIES, SAYS, FRIZES, DRUGGETS,

SHALLOONS, STUFFS, CLOTH-SERGES, or any other DRAPERY, made of or mixed with WOOL, or WOOL-FLOCKS, and manufactured in Ireland, may not be exported out of Ireland, unless they be shipped in the ports of Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Dundalk, Galway, Kinsale, Limerick, New-Ross, Newry, Sligo, Waterford, Wexford, Wicklow, and Youghall in Ireland, and with intent to be imported into the ports of Barnstaple, Bideford, Bridgewater, Bristol, Chester, Liverpool, Milford haven, and Minehead in England and Wales: but notice must be first given to the commissioners of the customs, or to the customer or collector of the port into which they are intended to be brought, of the quantity, quality and package, with the marks and numbers, the name of the ship and master, and the port of importation; and bond be entered into, with one or more sufficient sureties, in treble the value of the goods, that they shall be landed accordingly; and a licence be also granted, under the hands of the commissioners, or any three of them, or by the customer, or the collector of the port where bond is given, upon forfeiture of ship, goods, and 500l. by every offender. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 6. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 5. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 1, 2, 3, 10, 14. 11 and 12 W. III. c. 13. §. 9. 4 Ann. c. 7. §. 1. 3 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 4, 5. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 21. 5 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 6. 26 Geo. II. c. 11. §. 1, 2.

— Masters, mariners, or others, knowing of such offence, and assisting therein, are to forfeit 40l.

— Actions and informations may be tried in any of his majesty's four courts at Dublin.

— The first three persons assisting, (not being owners) discovering their offence, are discharged of all penalties.

— Acquittals in Ireland, not to bar or delay prosecutions in England. Ditto acts.

— WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WOOL-FLOCKS, WORSTED, BAY OR WOOLLEN-YARN, CLOTH, SERGES, BAYS, KERSIES, SAYS, FRIZES, DRUGGETS, SHALLOONS, STUFFS, CLOTH SERGES, or any other DRAPERY made of, or mixed with WOOL, or WOOL-FLOCKS. For every ship sailing from Ireland to Great-Britain, with any of the aforesaid goods, bond must be given, before shipping, to the chief officers of the port, by two sufficient persons, in double the value of the goods, that they shall be brought to Great-Britain, and there landed, and the duties paid, upon forfeiture of the ship. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 5, 15.

— The penalties and forfeitures of such bonds may not be granted or assigned over to any person. Ditto acts.

The cockets, or warrants, for carrying of such goods from Ireland to Great-Britain, must be written upon paper, and not parchment, and signed by at least three of the chief officers, with the exact quantities, qualities, marks and numbers indorsed thereon.

— The like endorsement must be upon the warrant for the landing the same in England; and the goods must be viewed and examined by the surveyor or land-waiter. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 7. 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 7, 9.

— The certificates of landing, granted for discharging the bond taken in Ireland, must be written on paper, and not parchment, signed by at least three of the chief officers, with the exact quantities, qualities, marks and numbers indorsed thereon, and not obliterated or interlined. Ditto acts.

— A register of all such goods, with the particular quantities, qualities, weights, and numbers, the ship, master's name, owner's name, and to whom consigned, must be kept at the custom-house, London. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 11. and 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 6.

— The commissioners of the customs in Ireland must, every six months, or within 30 days after, transmit to the commissioners of the customs in England, duplicates of the bonds taken for the lading, and a true account of all such goods exported, expressing the quantity, quality, and weight, by whom, and in what ship exported, where consigned, the names of the officers, certifying the landing in England, the dates of their certificates, where landed, and the quantity, quality, weight, marks and numbers contained in such certificates. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 28. §. 6. and 10 and 11 W. III. c. 10. §. 8.

— The commissioners appointed to execute the several acts against the exportation thereof. 1 W. and M. c. 32. §. 7. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 40. §. 1.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WOOL-FLOCKS, WORSTED, BAY OR WOOLLEN-YARN, CLOTH, SERGES, BAYS, KERSIES, SAYS, FRIZES, DRUGGETS, SHALLOONS, STUFFS, CLOTH-SERGES, OR ANY OTHER DRAPERY, MADE OF, OR MIXED WITH WOOL, OR WOOL-FLOCKS, may not be put on board any vessel or boat in Ireland, or imported from thence, into this kingdom, but such as are of the built of Great-Britain or Ireland, and wholly owned and manned by the subjects of this kingdom or Ireland, and registered as under, on forfeiture of the goods or value thereof, as also of the vessel or boat, with her guns, tackle, apparel, and furniture. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 6.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Oath must be made by one of the owners, before the collector and comptroller of the customs, at the port to which she belongs, as follows :

Jurat. A. B. That the ship _____ of _____ whereof _____ is at present master, being built of _____ tons, was built at _____ in the year _____ and that _____ of _____ and _____ of _____ are at present owners thereof; and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any share, part, or interest therein. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 7.

A certificate of which oath, attested by the collector and comptroller, under their hands and seals, is (after having been registered by them) to be delivered to the master of the ship, for the security of her navigation; and a duplicate of the register to be immediately transmitted to the commissioners of the customs in London, in order to be entered in a general register to be there kept for this purpose. Ditto act.

— No ship's name, after registering, may be changed, or the property transferred to any port, without registering her again, and delivered up to the former register to be cancelled, under the same penalties as before directed. And in case of any alteration of property in the same port, by sale of any share, such sale must be acknowledged by indorsement on the certificate of the register before two witnesses. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 8.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WOOL-FLOCKS, WORSTED, BAY, or WOOLLEN YARN, may not be packed up in Great Britain or Ireland, in any other package but packs or trusses of leather, and pack-cloth, and marked on the outside with the respective words WOOL or YARN, in large letters, not less than three inches in length, on forfeiture of the goods and package, and 3s. for every pound weight, to be paid by the owner or packer of it. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 10.

— Wool, coverlids, waddings, or other manufactures of wool slightly worked or put together, so as they may be reduced to, or made use of as wool again, or mattresses, or beds stuffed with combed wool, or wool fit for combing, may not be exported from Great-Britain or Ireland, under the like penalties and forfeitures, as for being concerned in the exportation of wool. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 9.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, COMBED WOOL, WOOLLEN or BAY-YARN, WORSTED, YARN-CRUEL, or WOOL SLIGHTLY MANUFACTURED, may not be laden on any vessel bound to parts beyond the seas; nor laden, in order to be carried coastwise, from one port of Great-Britain or Ireland to another; unless notice be first given to the commissioner of the customs, or to the customer or collector and comptroller of the port from which they are intended to be sent or exported, of the quantity, quality, and package, with the marks and numbers, the ship and master's name, the name and place of abode of the owner of the goods, and the port into which they are intended to be imported, and to whom consigned; and bond be entered into, in treble the value of the goods, that they shall be landed accordingly (notice whereof to be transmitted from the customer or collector of the port from whence the same is intended to be exported, to the customer or collector and comptroller of the port into which the same is intended to be imported) and unless a licence be taken out under the hands of three of the commissioners of the customs, or from the customer, or collector and comptroller, where such bond is given for landing and carrying thereof as aforesaid, on forfeiture of the goods, together with the vessel, or boat, and furniture, on which they are laden. The licence to be granted without any charge to the person demanding it. 12 Car. II. c. 21. §. 11.

— The said bond not to be discharged, but by a certificate under the hand and seal of the customer or collector and comptroller of the port where they are landed, of the quality, quantity and package, the marks and numbers, with the name of the ship and master. And bonds not so discharged after six months, are to be transmitted to the commissioners of the customs in Great-Britain, or to the commissioners of the revenue in Ireland, who are to put them in suit immediately. Ditto act.

— No other security, now required by law, for goods carried coastwise, to be hereby lessened; or law in force for preventing the exportation of wool, or other goods aforesaid, to be repealed or made void hereby. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 12.

— None of the goods before mentioned, imported from Ireland, or carried coastwise within this kingdom or Ireland, may be shipped or landed, but in the presence of the proper officers, and at the lawful keys, without leave from the commissioners and officers of the customs, on forfeiture of the goods, or value thereof, and 3s. for every pound weight; to be paid by the proprietor of the goods, or any person concerned in the shipping or landing thereof. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 13.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, WOOL-FLOCKS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WORSTED, BAY, or WOOLLEN-YARN, FULLER'S-EARTH, FULLING-CLAY, TOBACCO-PIPE-

CLAY, or any scouring-clay or earth, transported out of Great-Britain, or any of the said goods, or CLOTHS, SERGES, BAYS, KERSIES, SAYS, FRIZES, DRUGGETS, CLOTH-SERGES, SHALLOONS, or other DRAPERY-STUFFS, or WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES, made up or mixed with WOOL, or WOOL-FLOCKS, illegally transported out of Ireland.

— Information of seizure of any of the said goods, as forfeited by this or any other act, are to be entered by none but officers of the customs, excise, or salt-duties; and informations against any persons, for recovery of the penalties and forfeitures, on account of the illegal transportation of the said goods, to be filed, and prosecuted only in the name of the attorney-general, or in the name of some officer of the customs, excise, or salt-duties.

— But this act is not to take away the power given by any law to the commander and officer of ships of war, or the armed sloops, appointed by the admiralty to guard against the transportation of wool out of Great-Britain or Ireland. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 14.

— Any officer making a collusive seizure or information of the said goods, or any fraudulent agreement, whereby the persons concerned may avoid the penalties and forfeitures incurred, forfeits 200l. and is incapable of serving in any office of the revenue; and the exporters, importers, and owners of the goods, forfeit treble the value, to the use of the person who informs or sues for the same, in any court of record at Westminster or Dublin, or the court of Exchequer in Scotland. 12 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 16.

— Any person concerned therein, first making a discovery, so as one of his accomplices be convicted, is to be cleared and discharged thereof; and, not being an officer of the revenue, or owner of the goods, to have the whole money recovered on conviction of the offender, the charge of prosecution being first deducted. 12 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 17.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, WOOL-FLOCKS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, WORSTED, BAY or WOOLLEN YARN, CRUELS, or WOOL SLIGHTLY MANUFACTURED, or MATTRESSES, or BEDS STUFFED WITH COMBED WOOL, or WOOL FIT FOR COMBING, FULLER'S-EARTH, FULLING-CLAY, TOBACCO-PIPE-CLAY, or ANY OTHER SCOURING-EARTH or CLAY, exported from Great-Britain, or any of the said goods, or CLOTH, SERGES, BAYS, KERSIES, FRIZES, DRUGGETS, SHALLOONS, STUFFS, CLOTH-SERGES, or any other DRAPERY made or mixed with WOOL manufactured in Ireland, and illegally exported from thence. Actions, suits or informations upon this, or any other act, may be prosecuted (except where by this act is otherwise directed) in any court of record at Westminster, or in the court of Exchequer in Scotland, or at the quarter-sessions of the peace, or before two justices of the peace, in a summary way, at the election of the seizer or informer, or by any law relating to the revenue of Ireland in that kingdom; and if the property be claimed, the ONUS PROBANDI to lie upon the owner or claimer. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 18.

— All penalties and forfeitures before mentioned in this act (except where otherwise directed) to be for the use of the person who shall seize, inform, or sue for the same. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 19.

On condemnation of the aforesaid goods, the respective commissioners may cause them to be sold publicly to the best bidder; and the charges of condemnation and sale being first paid, the remainder is to be paid to the person who shall seize, inform, or sue for the same. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 20.

— But if an officer makes a seizure, or carries on a prosecution to effect, by the information of any other person, such person is to have half of what is recovered by the officer. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 21.

— If any person who may become liable to the payment of the 3s. per pound weight by this or by any former acts, is not able to pay it, the respective commissioners may cause 1s. per pound weight of the goods, for which the offender is convicted, to be paid to the informer or prosecutor by their receiver-general, out of any public money in his hands. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 22.

— Any master, mate, or mariners, belonging to any ship concerned in the illegal exportation or importation of the goods aforesaid, from Great-Britain or Ireland, giving an account, within six months after the shipping the same, to the commissioners of the customs in England or Scotland, or the commissioners of the revenue in Ireland, of the name of the ship, the species and quantities of the goods, the name of the owner, exporter, or persons who act in their aid and assistance, so as they may be convicted, is to be indemnified, discharged of all penalties and forfeitures, and receive $\frac{1}{4}$ of what is recovered, clear of all charges, the other $\frac{3}{4}$ to be applied to the use of his majesty, after deducting the charges of prosecution and condemnation. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 23.

— Every person appointed by deputation, commission, or other instrument, under the hands and seals of the commissioners of the customs, excise, or salt, to act as an officer

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

or servant under them, in putting this or any act, against the transportation of wool, in execution, is to be esteemed an officer of the customs, excise, or salt respectively. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 24.

— Offering or promising to bribe an officer to connive at the said illegal practices, the penalty is 300 l. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 25.

— Persons obstructing an officer, or his assistants, in making seizures, by virtue of this act, or who being armed or disguised, attempt to rescue any of the aforesaid goods after seizure, are to be transported for seven years. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 26.

WOOL, WOOL-FELLS, WOOL-FLOCKS, MORTLINGS, SHORTLINGS, CRUELS, WORSTED, WOOLLEN AND BAY-YARN, MATRASSES, AND BEDS STUFFED WITH COMBED WOOL, OR WOOL fit to be combed, exported from Great-Britain or Ireland, and WOOLLEN MANUFAC-

TURES exported from Ireland, insured to parts beyond the seas; the person insuring, his aiders, abettors, and assistants, forfeit 500 l. over and above all other forfeitures and penalties they are liable to; and the person insured forfeits 500 l. to the use of the informer, or person who sues for the same. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 29, 30.

— The insurer first making discovery within six months after such transaction, so as the persons concerned with him be convicted thereof, is to be acquitted of the offence, receive the whole forfeiture recovered, deducting charges of prosecution, and likewise retain the money given him for insurance. Or the person insured first making discovery as aforesaid, is to receive back what was paid for the insurance, and also to have the whole forfeiture imposed on the insurer, deducting the charges of prosecution, and to be discharged of the forfeitures incurred. 12 Geo. II. c. 21. §. 31.

X.

X Y L

XYLO BALIANUM. This is the wood of the shrub that yields the balsam of Mecca, and passes for a powerful cordial, cephalic, and alexipharmic. It

X Y L

has been ordered in many compositions; but as it is very hard to be procured, apothecaries generally substitute for it either yellow saunders or aloës-wood.

Y.

Y O R

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Y E A S T.

A METHOD of CURING YEAST, the FLOWER of WINE, and WINE-LEES, for the service of distilling, wine-making, vinegar-making, &c.

Take a quantity of common ale-yeast, and put it into a close canvas-bag, and gently squeeze out the moisture in a screw-press, 'till the remaining matter is left as hard as clay; in which state, being close packed in a tight cask, and well secured from the air, it will keep fresh and sound for several months, as has been often experienced.

R E M A R K S.

This is an experiment of considerable use to brewers and distillers, who in England, though they employ very large quantities of yeast, seem to have no good method of preserving it, or raising nurseries thereof, whereby they sustain a considerable loss: whereas the brewers in Flanders make a great profit, by supplying the malt-distillers of Holland with yeast, which is rendered lasting and fit for carriage, after the manner of the present experiment.

The same method is practicable to much greater advantage, in the yeast of wine and wine-lees, if they could be imported into England: for by this means we might easily imitate the wines and brandies of foreign growth; the lees and yeast of wine readily affording an essential oil, by distillation, a small proportion whereof will flavour a large one of wine or brandy. But a shorter and more perfect way, is to let any tasteless, or other proper wine, fret, or stand for some time, upon such lees, or wine-yeast, whereby it will, to great advantage, acquire the natural taste and flavour of the wine whereto the lee or yeast belonged. See the article BREWING.

YORKSHIRE. As this is by far the largest county in England, so it is variously situated, and consequently, has great variety of ground, that is, high and low, rich and poor, marshy and heathy. On the west it is bounded by Lancashire, and a part of Cheshire; on the south by Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Lincolnshire; on the north by Durham and Westmoreland; and on the east by the German Ocean; and contains 360 miles in compass.

The commodities are, in a particular manner, allum, jet, lime, liquorice, horses; its manufactures, knives, bits, spurs, stockings, &c. but the greatest of all is cloth, with which it in a good measure supplies Germany and the North. The corn and cattle, with which it abounds, are not mentioned, because these are what they have in common with other counties. Iron and lead mines have been in more plenty than of late years, though no less than 40,000 persons are employed in the iron manufactures, under about 600 master cutlers, who are incorporated by the stile of the cutlers of Hallamshire.

It is divided into three parts, or ridings, each as large, if not larger, than any ordinary county, which are distinguished by west, east, and north, from their situation with respect to the city of York.

The **WEST RIDING**, which is the most considerable of the three, for its fertility and number of inhabitants, is separated by the Ouse from the East Riding; it has the North Riding on the north; part of Lancashire, and Cheshire on the west and south-west; and Lincolnshire, Nottinghamshire, and Derbyshire, on the south-east and south. Its chief rivers are the Ure or Ouse, Don, Calder, Aire, Ribble, and Wharfe. Its air, though sharp, is generally reckoned more healthy than that of the other two; and the soil is various. They have a stone here, which being calcined, is made into allum, by various percolations and boilings: it is noted also for jet and liquorice, for fine horses and goats, for making and curing legs of pork into hams, like the Westphalian, and for the manufactures of cloth and iron.

YORK, the capital of the county, and heretofore the second city in the kingdom, is pleasantly situate, in a large plain, or valley, on the river Ouse, which, though 60 miles from the sea, bring ships to the city that are of 70 tons burthen. A

cotton manufacture was lately established here, which is brought to very great perfection.

KNARESBOROUGH is only of note for its medicinal springs, but not so much frequented since Scarborough spa came in vogue.

RIPPON is a large, pleasant, well-built, and populous town, between the Ure and little river Skell: it formerly flourished by the woollen manufacture, which it has since lost, though it is still a staple for wool, which is bought up here every week, by the clothiers from Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, &c. It has two annual horse-fairs, viz. one the Monday before the 10th of March, the other on the Monday after Lammas-Day, and is noted for making the best spurs. Tanned leather is sold in great quantities, as also cattle of all kinds, at its fairs.

BOROUGHBRIDGE is a borough and post-town on the Ure; it is reckoned that 7 or 8000 l. is laid out yearly here in hardware, which is the chief support of the town.

SHEFFIELD, on the borders of Derbyshire, is an ancient, large, thriving, and populous town, on the river Don, having been noted several hundred years for cutlers and smiths-ware, particularly for files and knives, or whittles: the first mills in England for turning grindstones were set up here. The smiths manufactures were encouraged and advanced here, by the neighbourhood of the iron mines.

DONCASTER, on the river Don, is a noble, spacious, and populous town; the manufactures of which are knit waistcoats and petticoats, gloves and stockings.

BAUTRE, situate near the Idle, which parts this riding from Nottinghamshire: it is of chief note for its trade in millstones.

BARNESLEY is a well-built town, noted for its trade in wire and hardware.

WAKEFIELD is a large well-built town, in a thriving state, and very populous. Its Friday market is for woollen cloth, like that at Leeds, but not quite so considerable, though abundance of it is made in and near this town: it stands on the Calder, which has been made navigable by acts of parliament, first to this town, and continued from hence to Ealand and Halifax.

HUTHERSFIELD is the first town of note that the Calder comes to from Halifax, and is one of the five towns in this county that have the greatest share in the cloathing trade.

SNATH is a small town, but has a pretty good trade, the river being navigable to it by boats.

HALIFAX stands on the Calder, extending from west to east, on the gentle descent of a hill: it is a parish, the most populous, if not the most extensive, in England. The trade of this town has greatly increased of late years, especially as they have entered into the manufacture of shalloons, of which few, if any, were ever made in these parts before; so that it has been calculated that 100,000 pieces are made in a year in this parish only, at the same time that almost as many kerseys are made here as ever; and it has been affirmed, that one dealer here has traded by commission for 60,000 l. a year, to Holland and Hamburgh, in the single article of kerseys.

It is remarked, that this and the neighbouring towns are all so employed in the woollen manufactures, that they scarce sow more corn than will keep their poultry, and that they feed very few oxen or sheep: so that the provisions they consume come chiefly from the East Riding, and neighbouring counties. Their markets are thronged by such prodigious numbers of people, to sell their manufactures, and buy provisions, that none are more crowded in the north of England, except those of Leeds and Wakefield.

LEEDS, which stands on the river Aire, has been a long time famous for the woollen manufacture, and is one of the largest and most flourishing towns in the county.

Its cloth market was formerly on the bridge; but, on the great increase of that trade, it has been sold in that called the High-Street, or Bridgate-Street, where every market-day in the morning numbers of treffels are ranged, and covered with boards, and, upon ringing of the market bell, at six in the summer, and seven in the winter, the clothiers in the inns bring out their cloth. When the bell ceases, the chapmen come into

Y O R

into the market, where they match their patterns, and treat for the cloth in few words, and with a whisper, because the clothiers stand so near each other; and perhaps 20,000l. worth of cloth is sold in an hour's time. The bell rings again at half an hour after eight, upon which the scene is changed; the clothiers and their chapmen, with their tressels, disappear, and make room for the linen-draper, hardwaremen, shoe-makers, fruiterers, &c. at the same time the shambles are well stored with all sorts of fish and flesh; and of apples 500 loads have been counted here on a day. There is a magnificent hall in the town, where they also sell great quantities of white cloth: it has a cupola and bell at top, like Blackwell-Hall in London, to give notice when the sale begins. The river Aire being navigable here by boats, opens a communication from the town with Wakefield, York, and Hull, to which places it exports other goods besides woollen, and furnishes the city of York with coals.

BRADFORTH is another town eminent for the woollen manufacture.

ABERFORTH is of note only for its manufacture of pins.

SELBY is a populous, though small town, with a good trade on the river Ouse, which brings up large vessels to it, so that it is inhabited by several merchants.

WETHERBY is a notable trading town on the river Wharfe.

BURSTALL is a little town, noted for the manufacture of broad cloth, so called to distinguish it from kerseys, druggets, &c. though the cloths of this county are all called narrow at London, when compared with the broad cloths made in the west of England. At this town is also made a sort of cloth in imitation of the Gloucester whites, which is of as good a colour as those, if not as fine.

The **EAST RIDING**, which is the smallest of the three, is bounded on the north and west by the Derwent and the Ouse; on the south by the Humber; and on the east by the German Ocean. The air and soil are various, according to the different parts of it. Its rivers are the Ouse, Derwent, Fowlwy, Shelfleet, and Hull.

BEVERLEY, on the river Hull, has a trade in malt, oatmeal, and tanned leather, which are its principal manufactures; but the poor people support themselves mostly by weaving of bone-lace, which of late has met with particular encouragement. Here was formerly a cloathing trade, but long since decayed. Its most remarkable fair is that which begins about nine days before Ascension, and is kept in a street leading to the Minster-Garth, called Londoner-Street, because then the Londoners bring down their wares and furnish the country tradesmen with them by wholesale. The trade of this town is very much increased since the creek, or cut, called Beverley-Beck, from the town to the river Hull, has by act of parliament, in 1727, been cleansed, deepened, and widened, and thereby rendered navigable for vessels of large burthen.

KINGSTON UPON HULL, as it is denominated in all authentic writings, but commonly called **HULL**, is a large, close-built, and exceeding populous town, and not only the most considerable in this part of England, for its inland traffic, but has a foreign trade equal to that of most out-ports in the kingdom; and has as many merchant-ships belong to it, as to any port in England, except London, Bristol, Liverpool, and Yarmouth. Indeed more particular circumstances concur to render it rich in trade, than most towns on our coasts can boast of. One thing has contributed especially to its increase in trade, and to its being the center of the navigation, and that is, the great number of large rivers which fall into the sea near it, by which it carries on a commerce and

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navigation with a very great part of England, particularly the inland counties, that have no foreign trade by any other canal; all the heavy goods of which counties, such as lead from Derby and Nottinghamshires, iron ware from Sheffield, cheese from Warwickshire, Staffordshire, and even Cheshire, are brought down to this port, and here exported to Holland, Hamburg, and the Baltic, as also to France and Spain, from whence they make large returns in iron, copper, hemp, flax, canvas, Russia linen and yarn, besides wine, oil, fruit, linen, &c. from Holland, France, and Spain. But what is more than all is, the vast quantity of corn brought down out of those counties to Hull, as makes it, without exception, the greatest port in England for exportation of corn, sometimes exceeding even London itself. The trade, on the other hand, betwixt this port and London, especially for corn, lead, and butter, and the trade between this port and Holland and France, not only for all those commodities, but for the cloth, kerseys, and other manufactures of Leeds, Halifax, and other great and populous towns of the West-Riding, is such, that they not only employ ships, but fleets, which are generally from 50 to 60 sail together, and in war time often 100 sail, or more. They who have seen the greatest ports abroad, say there is more business done at this, in proportion to its bigness, than in any other port in Europe.

BRIDLINGTON, which stands near the bay so called, is of late years become a place of good trade, and has a great corn market. The key, which is near two miles from the town, is chiefly inhabited by seafaring people.

The **NORTH RIDING** extends along the coast, from Robin Hood's Bay, as far as Whitley, being bounded on the north with the river Tees; it runs from the sea, in a narrow track of near 60 miles, as far as Westmoreland, and is bounded on the south and west with the Derwent and Ure, which part it from the East and West Ridings. The soil in many parts is very indifferent, it being rocky and mountainous, but the bottoms and vallies are not unfruitful. The hills afford great store of lead, pit-coal, and lapis calaminaris; and in some places it produces marble, allum, jet, and copperas. The chief allum-works here were carried on by the late duke and duchess of Buckingham, at Whitby, where was the greatest plenty of its mine. The jet is found in several places by the sea side, in the chinks and clefts of the rocks.

SCARBOROUGH is an ancient borough, situate on a steep rock, has a good trade, and a commodious key, with a good number of vessels, which are chiefly employed in the coal trade between Newcastle and London. From the middle of August to November, herrings are taken here in great numbers, with which they supply the city of York, as also with several other kinds in their season. But the wealthy condition of this town is chiefly owing to the number of persons of all ranks that flock hither every year, in the season, to drink the waters of its chalybeat spring.

MALTON is a populous borough, and its Saturdays market is the best in the county for horses, black cattle, and other commodities, especially tools for husbandry.

NORTHALLERTON has a good market also for horses, and other cattle, corn, &c. and its beast fairs the most thronged in England.

RICHMOND has a good trade in stockings and sailors woollen caps.

YARUM is a corporate, though a small town, and carries on a pretty trade with London by water, for lead, corn, and butter.

MIDLAM is noted for a manufacture of woollen cloth.

MASHAM has also a cloth manufacture.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the End of Letter U.

CHIEF LAWS RELATING TO YARN.

YARN, linen. See the end of letter I. and the end of letter W. for **WOOL**.

—Brown or raw linen-yarn made of **FLAX** may be imported in British ships legally navigated, free of duty, from the 24th of June 1756, for 15 years, and to the end of

the then next session of parliament, if duly entered and landed in the presence of the proper officers.

—If any doubt arises whether such yarn is made of **FLAX** or not, the **ONUS PROBANDI** to lie on the importer or claimer. — 29 Geo. II. c. 15. §. 13, 24.

—**MOHAIR**. See end of letter G. — Yarn worsted. See end of **WOOL**.

Z.

Z I N

ZAFFRE, or SAFREE, is a mineral of a blueish, or partridge-eye colour, which the English, Dutch, and Hamburgers bring from the East-Indies, and especially from Surat.

Most of the zaffre we have is in a grey powder, like ashes, from which it so little differs in appearance, that we are forced to consult the workmen who use it, to know, by trials, whether it is what it ought to be.

There are, however, two sorts of zaffre, the fine and the common: the former is in a bluish, or cineritious stone; the latter in powder, and very often so bad, that it is hardly good for any thing, and being so very weighty, must needs be mixed with some stony substance, the other being much lighter.

This matter is much used by Delft-ware and glass-makers, to give a blue colour to both sorts of ware: it is also with zaffre that they colour calcined pewter, in order to make a sort of false stone; and with zaffre it is that the azure colour of glass is produced, as is before observed, and of which is made the counterfeit sapphire, according to Pomet.

Monfieur Lemery says saphre, safre, zafre, or sapphire, is a mineral whereof there are two kinds, one called fine sapphire, and the other common: the fine sapphire is a pretty soft stone, of a blueish colour; the common sapphire is a greyish heavy powder: both sorts come from India. The fine sapphire is used to give a blue colour to enamel, to earthen ware, and glass; they likewise colour counterfeit sapphires with it, whence it takes its name.

ZINCK, called **ZINCHUM**, **ZINCTHUM**, and **MARCASITA PALLIDA**, by some, is a metallic, sulphureous, heavy substance, resembling lead in colour, fusible

and ductile to a certain degree, very hard to break, inflammable, and volatile. It seems to have been quite unknown to the ancients; and even the moderns knew very little of its nature and origin, till Mr Stahl explained it, in his Metallurgia. It is extracted from a kind of the lapis calaminaris, and from the lead ore of the mines of Gosselar, which ore is very hard to melt, though it appears rich and shining. Three substances are separated from it, lead, zinck, and a kind of cadima for-nacea, which, melted with copper, makes a Bath metal, or prince's metal, so called from prince Rupert, who is said to have invented it: but the finest metal of this kind is made of zinck and copper melted together. In the melting this Gosselar ore, the lead remains at the bottom of the furnace, and the zinck and cadima stick to the sides. The cadima is to be long exposed to the air before it is fit for use, and the zinck is purified by careful meltings, and cast into moulds.

The zinck at this time is much in use, for the pewterers have found it more proper to cleanse their pewter than pin-dust and rosin. It is wrong to believe that zinck is mixed with pewter to increase its weight, for unto a fount of five or six hundred pounds of it they put but one pound of zinck, and, which is wonderful, the zinck has the quality of purifying and whitening the pewter, and acting upon it as lead does upon gold, silver, or copper. This zinck is used to give copper the colour of gold, especially when mixed with turmeric, and works upon copper as arsenic does, that turns it of a silver colour; or the lapis calaminaris, that makes it yellowish; or, lastly, as Hungarian vitriol, that turns iron into copper colour, as hath been observed in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society at London.

A CONCISE EXPLANATION of the **CONTENTS** of **MR. SAXBY'S PORTABLE BOOK OF RATES**, referred to in this **WORK**, in relation to the **BUSINESS** of the **CUSTOMS**, and the **CHIEF ACTS** of **PARLIAMENT** contained therein. See the **Conclusion** of **Letter A**, and that of every other **Letter**. See also our article **SUBSIDY**.

UNDER any peculiar articles, where it is necessary, we have given such an idea of the practical business of the customs, both as the same respects the out-ports, as well as the port of London, that the reader will easily judge from thence, what further knowledge may be occasionally requisite for him to obtain, relative to that particular branch of trade he may be interested in; and he will be able to obtain the same from his own enquiry, when he has been duly introduced into the system of our customs.

At the end of the letter A, we have also communicated, in an intelligible manner, it is apprehended, the principles and rudiments upon which the computation of the custom-house **DUTIES** are grounded, as the same have relation to British subjects and strangers; and also to the customary drawbacks, bounties, and premiums, as they are computed in Mr Saxby's book of rates.

In order to render the same the more easily comprehensible to our readers, which it really requires, we have shewn, that the **REFERENCE FIGURES**, affixed to the **RIGHT-HAND SIDE** of the columns of that ready-calculated book of rates, are the keys whereby such computations are to be understood. To this end, we have represented the peculiar **TABLE** and **LIST**, made use of therein, invented first by Mr. Edgar, in the year 1714, since followed by the late Mr. Crouch, and now by Mr. Saxby. For the said **TABLE** and **LIST**, contained in pages 73, 74, and 75 of Saxby, indicate,

with all possible brevity, the several branches of duties, to which the respective goods, contained in the book of rates, are liable, by the various acts of parliament that are now in force. At the end of our letter A, we have also given the **RULES, ORDERS, DIRECTIONS, and ALLOWANCES**, for the advancement of trade, and **ENCOURAGEMENT OF THE MERCHANT**, as also for the regulating as well of the merchant in making of due entries and just payments of their customs, as of the **OFFICERS** in all the ports of this kingdom, in the faithful discharge of their duty; referred to in the act of tonnage and poundage, passed anno 12 Car. II. Which **RULES, &c.** are signed by Sir Harbottle Grimstone, speaker of the house of commons.

We have also noticed the **RULES, ORDERS, and REGULATIONS**, annexed to the additional book of rates, referred to in an act passed anno 11 Geo. I. c. 7.

Upon the before-intimated rules and regulations, we have made some remarks that we judged necessary, in relation to the **DISCOUNTS** allowed to merchants, upon the payment of the divers subsidies at importation; to which we refer the reader; we judging what we have there urged may require consideration.

If the reader likewise consults our article **SUBSIDY**, he will find a succinct account of those duties to which various species of goods are subject, pursuant to act of parliament; with some observations thereon, which may not be altogether useless to those

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

those who would well weigh the conditions whereon such subsidies are paid.

Besides the several subsidies noticed under our article **SUBSIDY**, Mr. Saxby's book of rates contains, in the first part of it, the various imposts, and other kind of duties, payable on goods and merchandizes imported into, brought coastwise, or exported out of Great-Britain; all which are enumerated in the above-mentioned **LIST of DUTIES**, conjoined with the **TABLE** before observed, except those that have arose since.

This part of Saxby contains an abstract of the several acts referred to, and the particular conditions upon which the said impositions are paid; all which are necessary to be consulted by those who would comprehend the **TABLE** and **LIST**.

The second part of Saxby contains the **RATES of MERCHANDIZE**: that is to say,

‘ The subsidy of tonnage; the subsidy of poundage; and
‘ the subsidy of woollen cloth, or old drapery; as they are
‘ rated and agreed on by the commons house of parliament,
‘ set down and expressed in that book, to be paid according
‘ to the tenor of the act of tonnage and poundage from the
‘ 24th day of June, inclusively, in the 12th year of the reign
‘ of his Majesty (Charles the Second) and subscribed with
‘ the hand of Sir Harbottle Grimstone, Bart. speaker of the
‘ house of commons.’ Likewise,

‘ An additional book of rates (referred to by 11 Geo. I.) of
‘ goods and merchandizes usually imported, and not parti-
‘ cularly rated in the book of rates referred to in the act of
‘ tonnage and poundage, made in the 12th year of the reign
‘ of king Charles the Second; with rules, orders, and re-
‘ gulations, signed by the right honourable Spencer Compton,
‘ Esq; speaker of the honourable house of commons.’ To-
gether with

The several additions and alterations which have been re-
spectively made by any subsequent act of parliament; every
of which is distinctly pointed out and explained. To which
are added,

The **TOTAL AMOUNTS** of the net duties to be paid on each
species of goods imported, exported, or brought coastwise,
and of the net **DRAWBACKS** to be repaid on any of them
when duly exported; with proper **REFERENCES**, shewing
the several respective **BRANCHES** which compose the said
TOTAL AMOUNTS, &c. and commencing from page 79 to
page 266 of Saxby, on goods **INWARDS**, or imported.

Then follows the **SUBSIDY of TONNAGE**, upon all **WINES**
to be brought into the port of London, and all other ports
of Great-Britain, and dominions thereof, by **BRITISH**;
and also the **DRAWBACK** thereof to be repaid upon due ex-
portation, which begins at page 267, and continues to page
275.

REMARKS.

With respect to the **WINES** mentioned in Saxby, page 267,
it must be observed, that all merchant-strangers, bringing
in any sorts of the wines there enumerated, are to pay thirty
shillings in the ton, over and above the rates there signified,
which the natives pay; including twenty shillings the ton
formerly paid to his Majesty, by the name of Southampton
duties for muscadels, malmseys, and all other wines of the
growth of the Levant.

For which sort of wines, the stranger is also to pay to the
use of the town of Southampton, for every butt or pipe,
the sum of ten shillings.

Moreover, the stranger is to pay the ancient duty of but-
lerage, which is two shillings upon every ton.

Note, that such wines as shall be landed in any of the out-
ports, and custom paid, and afterwards brought to the
port of London by certificate, shall pay so much more cu-
stom, as they paid short of the duty due in the port of Lon-
don. For the explanation of which see pages 7 and 274, and
275, of Saxby — And for the other duties on wines, see
the respective branches contained therein.

N. B. All wines imported into the port of London, are to
pay for the use of the orphans of the said city, for every
ton, as by 5 and 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 10. §. 7. 4 shil-
lings. And

Also, if imported by strangers, the ancient duty of butlerage,
which is for every ton 2 shillings.

WINE-LEES imported into any port, are to pay the same
duties as wine; but are exempted from drawback upon ex-
portation. 1 Geo. II. cap. 17.

N. B. No wines, except of the dominions of the Great
Duke of Tuscany, in open flasks, or of Turkey, or any
other parts of the Levant seas, may be imported in flasks or
bottles.

Though part of the duties on wines may be secured by bond;
yet, as that does not frequently happen, all the duties, as
computed in Saxby, are as if paid down in ready money;
therefore, when bond is to be given, you must consult the
ADDITIONAL DUTY, IMPOST ON WINES, and IMPOST
1692, Saxby.

Wines may not be brought in any other than British or
Irish ships, or ships of the built of the country of which
VOL. II.

they are the growth, or of the port where they can only, or
are most usually first shipped; nor from the Netherlands or
Germany, except **RHENISH** or **HUNGARY WINES** from
Hamburg. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 8.

For other regulations respecting wines, see our article
WINE, and the end of letter W. where the last duties on
wines are observed, since the publication of Saxby. And if
the duties are understood, as they are calculated in Saxby's
present book, it will be easy to make any after-addition
thereto, that may happen.

The tonnage duty comprehends the duties payable on wines
imported (and the old subsidy on perry, rape of grape, fyder,
fyder-eager, and vinegar, the imposts on vinegar, and the
coinage duties) being regulated by the sum certain on the ton
measure.

All the duties on wines are explained in Saxby, under each
respective branch in chap. I: wherein are shewn the
GROSS DUTIES, the **DISCOUNTS** thereon, and the net
duties to be paid or secured (for one ton, or one gallon) ac-
cording to the several circumstances of entry and importa-
tion; therefore, when the branches, to which any sort of
wines are liable, are desired to be known, that sort (observ-
ing the particular circumstances of entry and importation)
must be sought for in Saxby between the pages before said, of
267 and the page 275; and opposite thereto will be the
REFERENCE LETTER, as contained in the preceding **TA-
BLE**, representing the particular branches, as is explained in
the following example.

One ton of Spanish wine, unfilled, for sale, imported into
the port of London, by British, in British ships qualified,
all duties paid down.

Upon recourse had to page 269, Saxby, in the **REFERENCE
COLUMN**, directing to the said **TABLE** and **LIST**, at the
end of our letter A, or Saxby 74, 75, opposite to the sort
of wine above described, will be found the **REFERRING
LETTERS Zb**, which letters (being found also in the **TA-
BLE**) refer to the **BRANCHES** contained in the **LIST No.**
I. III, 2, 3, 4, 7, 16, 34; each of which branches must be
consulted, that the respective sums due thereon may be ex-
actly charged; which from the above example will be found
to stand thus. viz.

	l.	s.	d.	20ths.
No. I. Old Subsidy - - -	3	10	2	8
No. III. Additional duty - -	2	17	1	8
No. 2. New Subsidy - - -	3	10	2	8
No. 3. One-third subsidy - -	1	3	4	16
No. 4. Two-thirds subsidy - -	2	6	9	12
No. 7. Impost on wine - - -	8	0	7	1
No. 16. Coinage duty on wine -	0	10	0	—
No. 34. Duty on wine 1745 -	4	0	0	—

Total duty to be paid — — 25 18 3 13

As the same stands at present in Saxby, page 316, before the
last further duty on wines took place in the year 1762, viz:
on French wine and vinegar, of 8 l. per ton; and on all
other wines and vinegars imported, 4 l. per ton. See the
end of letter W, for the **BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS**.
So that there must be added to the said sum in Saxby, of
25 l. 18 s. 3 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, the further additional duty of 4 l. per
ton, which makes the duty 29 l. 18 s. 3 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per ton; on
the wine above.

But as the duties on wines bear so many branches of duties,
for the greater ease and dispatch in computing them, it is the
practice of the customs to work by tables, wherein each branch
is computed net, according to all the respective circumstances
of importation, discount, &c. from a gallon to a ton.

However, with relation to wines, the computations in Saxby,
from page 269 to page 275, may be consulted; and then the
last additional duties mentioned before must be added thereto.

The next part contained in Saxby concerns the rates of mer-
chandize **OUTWARDS**, referred to by the act of **TON-
NAGE and POUNDAGE**, Anno 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 2, 7,
with the net duties payable on each species of goods and
merchandize (subject thereto) by that or any subsequent act
of parliament; together with the subsidy of poundage, of
six-pence in the pound, to be paid on the exportation of fo-
reign goods used in dyeing, &c. This extends from page
279 to 306, including directions for the payment of the sub-
sidy upon woollen-cloths, or old drapery; the former of
these being mighty easy; the **REFERENCE LETTERS** direct-
ing to the **TABLE**, being **IB**, which point to page 48 in
Saxby, with directions for the computation.

The following part of Saxby contains the total net duties
payable upon goods brought **COASTWISE** from port to port
of Great-Britain; and also to be repaid on due exportation,
which consists only of the single page 307, and is under-
stood by the **REFERENCE LETTERS** to the **TABLE** of
HA, VB. the former directs to pages 52 and 53, in Saxby;
and the latter to page 54, where the duties are plain enough.

After this follow certain **RULES, ORDERS, DIREC-
TIONS**, and **ALLOWANCES**, for the encouragement of the
merchant, as also for the regulating as well of the merchant
in making of **DUE ENTRIES** and **JUST PAYMENTS** of
their customs, as of the officers in all the ports of this king-
dom, referred to in the act of tonnage and poundage passed
anno

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

anno 12 Car. II. — Also, the RULES, ORDERS, and REGULATIONS, annexed to the ADDITIONAL BOOK of RATES referred to in an act passed anno 11 Georgii Primi, c. 7. — All which ought to be deliberately consulted by merchants for their own interest. See what we have said thereon at the conclusion of our letter A, respecting the BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, and also under our article SUBSIDY.

Chapter the 3d of Saxby begins at page 315, and ends at 388, and contains to the time that gentleman wrote. I. Instructions for the computation of the several branches composing the total duties to be paid on goods and merchandizes imported, exported, and brought coastwise; illustrated by examples adapted to the respective circumstances of importation, &c. II. The several allowances and bounties payable out of the duties of customs, the bounties and drawbacks on British exciseable goods exported, and the premium on naval stores imported.

In regard to the former of these, the reader is desired to consult the end of our letter A, upon the computation of the duties, &c. together with what we have here said, and also under our article SUBSIDY: and for the variety of examples given in Saxby we refer him to the before-mentioned pages; recommending to him the consideration of the subsequent acts of parliament, that have been made since Mr Saxby wrote; especially that which concerns the subsidy of 1759, and that of the further additional duties on wines, cyder and perry, made in 1762.

With relation to the several ALLOWANCES, and BOUNTIES payable out of the duties of the customs, the bounties and drawbacks on British exciseable goods exported, and the premium on naval stores imported; together with instructions in regard to the performance of the respective regulations required by law; these concerning the interest of merchants so materially, we shall give them at large at the end of these short observations on the book of rates in general.

The fourth chapter of Saxby begins at page 389, and ends at page 433, and contains, 1. List of the ports of Great-Britain, with their members and creeks. 2. The names of the lawful keys, wharfs, &c. for shipping and landing goods in the port of London. 3. Fees and allowances due and payable to the officers of his Majesty's customs in the port of London. 4. The grant to the city of London of the duties of scavage, package, &c. 5. The scavage table of rates inwards. 6. The package table of rates outwards. 7. The balliage duties outwards. 8. The packers water-side porters table of duties and rates for landing and shipping out strangers goods.

The contents of this chapter are known as soon as perused, and require only to be duly noticed, that traders may be informed when they have justice done them according to the laws of the land still in force.

The fifth and last chapter is an index, containing an abstract of the laws now in force for collecting, and otherwise regulating the customs, digested and disposed in alphabetical order; with references to the respective acts, and to the material circumstance throughout the book.

This index serves to give some idea of the multiplicity of our laws relative to the revenue of customs only, yet a very faint one of their full bulk and extent; for, was every trader obliged to consult them all at large, and we had given them in their full length from the statutes, in this work, we might have easily filled up our volumes even with those laws, and more especially so, if we had had added thereto those appertaining to the excise, and other branches of trade also. 'Tis no little misfortune to this kingdom, that the present constitution of the public revenues, particularly, should occasion such a body of numerous laws, which concern our commerce and navigation only; for it requires more application to become masters of those laws than traders have to spare, or even our professed lawyers either to reconcile: yet what adds to our misfortune is, that we have no hopes of these voluminous laws being lessened to any considerable degree, till the whole state of our revenues is changed; and when that will be, since we are in the way of encreasing our laws concerning it every sessions, we do not presume to say, notwithstanding there is nothing of so much importance to these kingdoms. But who will attempt what he will never be recompensed for in this nation?

At the end of every letter of our work, we have given an abstract of many materials of the laws relating to the customs, and have occasionally interspersed others throughout this performance. Yet we the rather refer our readers to consult the Statutes at Large, upon any peculiar branch of trade wherein they may be concerned, than to depend wholly upon our abstracts, or those of any other. Even those published by the officers of the customs themselves, who are daily concerned in the practice of the custom laws, we have found to be very imperfect, of which Mr Saxby has complained largely in the introduction to his book of rates; and perhaps it may not be long before the imperfections of his book may be shewn by others: and it is, perhaps, more ow-

ing to the laws themselves than to those who may endeavour to explain them, as might be shewn in many instances, if necessary. At present I shall only observe, in the words of Mr Saxby, that 'the allowances, bounties and drawbacks payable on British goods exported, and premiums on other goods imported, &c. being a part of business not so immediately obvious to the officers of the customs, (and I will add, not to the traders themselves, though for other reasons than he has assigned perhaps, some of them being within the province of the excise and salt duties) have not been heretofore so well collected and digested as they might have been; for though part of them have been extremely well done, others have been but slightly touched, and some quite omitted: but as they are now become very numerous, and in regard to bounties and premiums a very extensive and formidable branch of the business of the customs, it became necessary that the merchants, as well as officers, should be well instructed therein; therefore great care and diligence have been used to construct them in such manner, as that every regulation for the obtaining the several bounties and premiums is properly inserted under the respective heads; and in regard to the payment of all other allowances, &c. the instructions for the performance of the respective regulations required by law, are so particularly and extensively described, that the officers will scarcely be at a loss in any circumstance.'

As we esteem this one of the most material improvements in Mr Saxby, for the benefit of the trader, we shall give the same as it is therein contained.

SECTION II.

The several allowances and bounties payable out of the duties of the customs, the bounties and drawbacks on British exciseable goods exported, and the premium on naval stores imported; together with instructions in regard to the performance of the respective regulations required by law.

1. Bounty on corn exported.
2. Bounty on British refined sugar exported.
3. Bounty on British-made sailcloth exported.
4. Bounty on spirits drawn from barley, malt, or other corn exported.
5. Bounty on British manufactures of silk exported.
6. Bounty on British-made gunpowder exported.
7. Bounty on British ships employed in the whale-fishery.
8. Bounty for encouragement of the British white-herring fishery.
9. Bounty on ships built for, and employed in the British white-herring fishery.
10. Bounty on British and Irish linens exported.
11. Bounty or premium on British plantation indico imported.
12. Allowance on damaged tobacco imported.
13. Allowance or drawback of the duties of coals used in copper or tin mines.
14. Allowance on damaged or corrupt wines imported.
15. Allowance of portage.
16. Drawback of the excise duty on British-made candles exported.
17. Drawback of the excise duty on hides or calve-skins rough or tanned; hides or calve-skins, dressed or curried; sheep skins and lamb-skins, tanned, tawed, or dressed, exported.
18. Drawback of the excise duty on British-made soap exported.
19. Drawback of the excise duty on British-made paper exported.
20. Drawback of the excise duty on silks, silk handkerchiefs, calicoes, and all linens and stuffs printed, stained, painted or dyed in Great-Britain, exported.
21. Drawback of the excise duty on British-made starch exported.
22. Bounty or allowance on gold and silver thread, lace or fringe, made in Great-Britain, exported.
23. Drawback on boots, shoes, and other manufactures of British-tanned leather, exported.
24. Drawback of the excise duty on British-wrought plate exported.
25. Drawback of the excise duty on glass made in Great-Britain exported.
26. Drawback of the excise or inland duty on British-made salt exported.
27. Bounty on fish and flesh exported.
28. Premium on naval stores imported.
29. Drawback of the excise duty on strong beer, strong ale, mum, cyder, and perry, made in Great-Britain, exported. 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 22, &c.
30. Drawback of the excise duty on spirits drawn from corn in Great-Britain, without any mixture of other materials, exported. 6 Geo. II. cap. 17.
31. Drawback of the excise on spirits exported. 19 Geo. II. cap. 8.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

I. The bounty on CORN exported.

	Price per quarter Winchester measure.			Bounty per quarter Winchester measure.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
WHEAT — — —	2	8	0	0	5	0
RYE — — —	1	12	0	0	3	6
BARLEY — — —	1	4	0	0	2	6
MALT — — —	1	4	0	0	2	6

By 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 12. §. 2. — But the excise of 6d. per bushel must not be reckoned into the price of the malt. 13 and 14 of Will. III. c. 5. §. 31. 12 Ann. c. 2. §. 3.

By 5 Ann. c. 8. article 6.	{	BEER, alias BIGG	1	4	0	0	2	6
5 Ann. c. 29.		Malt made of wheat	2	8	0	0	5	0
§. 10, 15.		Oatmeal when oats do not exceed	0	15	0	0	2	6

* When the above sorts of corn, either ground or unground, do not, at the port of exportation, exceed the respective prices in the first column, and shall be shipped on board any British ship, whereof the master, and at least two-thirds of the mariners, are British subjects, in order to be exported to parts beyond the seas, the exporter is to be allowed the respective bounties in the second column; provided a certificate in writing, under the hand of the exporter, containing the quantity and quality of the corn, be first brought to the collector of the port, and the truth thereof confirmed by the oath of one or more credible person or persons; and bond be given by the exporter, in the penalty of 10l. for every ton of oatmeal, or forty bushels of beer, alias bigg, and 200l. at least for every 100 tons of all the other sorts (i. e. eight shillings per quarter) that the same shall be exported into parts beyond the seas, and not be reloaded in Great-Britain, or the islands of Guernsey or Jersey.

* 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 12. §. 2. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 10. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 15.

† In order to adjust the quantity for which the bounty is to be paid, the corn is to be admeasured by the proper officers of the customs, who, for the greater expedition, may make use of a tub or measure containing four Winchester bushels; or if the said corn be intended to be exported in sacks, they are to choose two out of any number not exceeding twenty sacks; and so in proportion, and thereby compute the whole quantity; but if exported from London, may be measured by the sworn meters, from whose certificate the searchers may certify the quantity shipped for exportation.

† 2 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 4, 5.

‡ But with respect to malt, the bounty is to be allowed after the rate of thirty quarters, and no more, for every twenty quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt, for exportation; as shall appear by a certificate from the proper officer, with whom the corn or grain, intended to be made into malt for exportation, was entered.

‡ 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 14, 15.

§ And with respect to wheat meal or other ground corn or grain, the same bounty, and no more, is to be allowed for 224 pounds weight thereof, as is allowed for 4 bushels of the same kind of corn or grain, unground, and so in proportion. And if it is brought to be shipped off in sacks, the proper officer may choose and weigh two sacks out of any number not exceeding twenty sacks, and so in proportion for any greater quantity, and thereby compute the weight of the whole. And the bounty money is to be paid to the exporter accordingly, upon producing a certificate from the proper officer of the customs, attesting the quantity, quality, and weight thereof.

§ 24 Geo. II. cap. 56. §. 1.

|| The aforesaid bounty to be paid by the collector of the port, upon demand made by the exporter, unless he has not sufficient money in his hands; and then (except for bigg and oatmeal) he is to certify the same to the commissioners of the customs, who are to cause the money to be paid by the receiver-general within three months.

|| 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 12. §. 2. 12 and 13 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 91. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 10. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 15.

¶ When the certificate above mentioned, annexed to the debenture for corn exported, is produced to the commissioners of the customs at London, they are immediately to cause

¶ 26 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 6.

an indorsement to be made on the back of the debenture, of the day when it was produced, and as soon as conveniently may be, sign their order to the receiver-general for payment.

* If any such debenture remains unsatisfied more than six months after the day it has been produced to the commissioners of the customs at London, interest, at the rate of three per cent. per annum, is to be allowed thereon, from the end of the said six months to the time of payment, or to the time of proper notice given thereof.

* 26 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 1.

† The receiver-general, when he has sufficient money in his hands, is to give notice in writing, to be affixed on three or more doors of some public place in the custom-house, London, and to be advertised in the London Gazette, that on a certain day therein limited, and on the four days following (so as six days intervene between the date of the notice and the day so limited, and so as Sundays and holidays be not included in such four days) he shall be ready to pay the principal and interest of such debentures, which have remained unsatisfied above six months from the time of their being produced as above, or principal of such debentures, which have not exceeded the said six months; after the expiration of which five days, all interest is to cease, though the money due should not then be demanded.

† 26 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 2, 4.

‡ These debentures are to be paid by the receiver-general, without fee or reward, in course, respect being had to the times when they were produced to the commissioners of the customs, without any preference, and are assignable by indorsement thereon.

‡ 26 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 5, 7, 8.

§ The same allowances are granted, and rules to be observed with respect to debentures for corn exported from Scotland; with this difference, that the certificate is to be made to the commissioners of Edinburgh, and notice of payment to be published in the Edinburgh Courant, and affixed in the custom-house, Edinburgh.

§ 26 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 9, 10, 11, 12.

|| The aforesaid bond, given for the exportation, may be delivered up to be cancelled, upon producing a certificate under the common seal of the chief magistrate in any place beyond the seas, or under the hands and seal of two known British merchants, testifying that the corn was there landed, or upon proof by credible persons, that it was taken by enemies, or perished in the seas.

|| 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 12. §. 2. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 10.

¶ Malt reloaded in Great Britain is forfeited, with treble the value, besides the penalty of the bond.

¶ 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 15. and since continued yearly with the malt act.

II. The allowance on British REFINED SUGAR exported.

By 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 23. §. 9. — 5 Ann. cap. 8. art. 6.	{	Was granted from 31 January 1699, during the continuance of the New subsidy, Upon sugar refined in GREAT-BRITAIN, for every Cwt. exported	} 0 3 0
2 & 3 Ann. c. 9. §. 3. 4 — — 6. — 2. 5 — — 19. — 8. 1 G. I. — — 12. — 8.	{	Was granted during the continuance of the one- third subsidy, A further allowance on the same, for every Cwt. exported — —	} 0 1 0
6 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 10.		Was granted from 24 June 1753, for five years.	
11 — — 18. — 2.		Further continued for seven years.	
19 — — 23. — 1.		Further continued for seven years.	
20 — — 32. — 5.		Further continued to 24 June 1756.	
29 — — 26. — 1.		Further continued for three years.	
		A further allowance on the same, for every Cwt. exported — —	} 0 2 0

Was

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

21 Geo. II. cap. 2. §. 6.	{ Was granted from 1 March 1747, during the continuance of the subsidy 1747,		
	{ A further allowance on the same, for every		0 3 0
	{ Cwt. exported. — }		
	Total bounty		0 9 0

* To be paid at the custom-house to the exporter within thirty days after the demand thereof; oath being first made by the refiner, that the sugar, so exported, was produced from brown and muscovada sugar, charged by the acts of 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 23. and of 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 9. and by 21 Geo. II. cap. 12. (that is to say, charged with the new subsidy, one-third subsidy, and subsidy 1747) and that, as he verily believes, the same was imported from his Majesty's plantations in America, and the duty duly paid at the time of the importation thereof; the exporter making oath, that the same was duly exported, and his Majesty's searcher also certifying the shipping thereof, and all other requisites being performed according to the book of rates.

* 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 23. §. 9. 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 9. §. 3. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 10. 21 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 8.

III. The bounty on British-made SAILCLOTH exported.

By 12 Ann. cap. 16. §. 2.	{ Was granted from 21 July 1713 for 7 years		
	{ 5 Geo. I. — 25. — 2. Further continued for 7 years		
	{ 10 — — 17. — 4. Further continued for 7 years		
	{ 8 Geo. II. — 18. — 1. Further continued to 25 March 1742		
	{ 15 and 16 — 35. — 1. Further continued to 1 June 1747 —		
	{ 20 — — 45. — 1. Further continued to 1 June 1754 —		
By 4 Geo. II. c. 27. §. 4.	{ 27 — — 18. — 6. Further continued to 29 September 1760		
	{ Upon British-made SAILCLOTH or CANVAS, fit for or made into sails, for every ell exported — }		Bounty. 0 0 1
	{ Was granted from 24 June 1741, without limitation, a further allowance for every ell of British-made SAILCLOTH — }		0 0 1
	Total bounty		0 0 2

† This bounty is to be paid out of such parts of the old subsidy as are applicable to incidents, upon the exporter making oath, that such sailcloth was made in Great-Britain, is actually exported, or shipped to be exported, without any intention to be reloaded in Great-Britain, and that no former reward upon these acts was made for the same.

† 12 Ann. cap. 16. §. 2. 23 Geo. II. cap. 21. §. 26. 26 Geo. II. cap. 32. §. 9.

† Such sailcloth, upon which the bounty has been given, reloaded in Great-Britain, shall be forfeited; and every person concerned in bringing back, or reloading the same, shall forfeit two shillings for every ell so brought back or reloaded.

† 12 Ann. cap. 16. §. 3.

IV. The bounty on SPIRITS drawn from barley, malt, or other corn, exported.

By 6 Geo. II. cap. 17. §. 10. was granted without limitation, viz.	
SPIRITS drawn from barley, malt, or other corn, for every ton thereof	Bounty. 1 10 0

§ To be paid to the exporter by the commissioners of the customs, or other proper officer belonging to them, when barley is at 24s. per quarter, or under, upon such proof of the exportation, as is directed by 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 12. and out of such duties as are liable to the payment or the bounties on corn exported, in the same manner as if the respective quantity of barley, malt, or other corn, had been exported, allowing that twelve quarters of barley or malt are made use of in making one ton of spirits.

§. 6 Geo. II. cap. 17. §. 10.

V. The bounty on British MANUFACTURES of SILK, &c. exported.

By 8 G. I. c. 15. §. 1. granted from 25 March 1722, to 25 March 1725.	
11 — — 29. — 2. thence continu'd to 25 March 1728.	
2 G. II. c. 28. — 4. thence — — to 29 Sept. 1734.	
8 — — 18. — 2. thence — — to 25 March 1742.	
15 and 16 — 35. — 2. thence — — to 1 June 1747.	
20 — — 45. — 2. thence — — to 1 June 1754.	
26 — — 32. — 4. thence — — to 24 March 1758.	

And from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament.

Upon due exportation of the British manufactures of silk hereafter mentioned, there are to be allowed the following respective bounties, viz.

RIBBONS and STUFFS of SILK ONLY, the pound avoirdupoise weight	0 3 0
SILKS and RIBBONS of SILK mixed with GOLD or SILVER, the pound avoirdupoise weight	0 4 0
SILK STOCKINGS, SILK GLOVES, SILK FRINGES, SILK LACES, STITCHING or SEWING SILK, the pound avoirdupoise weight	0 1 3
STUFFS of SILK and GROGRAM YARN, the pound avoirdupoise weight	0 0 8
STUFFS of SILK mixed with INCLE or COTTON, the pound avoirdupoise weight	0 1 0
STUFFS of SILK and WORSTED, the pound avoirdupoise weight	0 0 6

* To be paid out of the customs, or other duties upon goods imported, by the collector of the port, with the privity of the comptroller, upon a debenture made out from the entry, the shipping verified by the searcher, and the oath of the exporter, that they are of British manufacture, and exported without intention of relanding in Great-Britain; he having first given security with one or more persons, in the value of the goods, to the same purpose; and to produce a certificate from the officers of the customs in discharge thereof, within six months, for such goods as shall be exported to Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, and within eighteen months for those to the British plantations; and for what shall be exported to any other foreign parts, a certificate under the common seal of the chief magistrate, or under the hands and seals of two known British merchants there residing.

* 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 1, 5.

† But after 1 May 1729, if such goods were sold on the coast of Africa, or other foreign parts, where certificates of the landing cannot be obtained, or were transhipped at any of the British plantations in America, without being there landed, into ships bound to Africa, or other foreign parts, the bonds given on exportation may be discharged, and vacated, upon proof made, within eighteen months from the date of such bonds, upon oath of the master, mate, purser, &c. and also upon oath of the merchant exporter, if living, that to the best of their knowledge and belief, the said goods have been disposed of at the places therein to be mentioned, and that they have not been reloaded, or brought on shore again, in any port or part of Great-Britain.

† 1 Geo. II. cap. 17. §. 9.

† The aforesaid manufactures may, after entry, be opened and examined by the officers, and if wrong entered, are forfeited, with their value; but if right entered, must be re-packed at the officer's charge, which may be allowed him by the commissioners of the customs.

† 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 2, 3. 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 2.

§ And in all cases of disputes, touching the manufacture or quality, the onus probandi is to lie on the proprietor.

§ 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 2, 3. 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 2.

¶ No allowance to be made for such manufactures as are mixed with gold, silver, or silk, only at the ends and edges of the piece.

¶ 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 3.

¶ Silk stuffs mixed with grogram-yarn, incle, cotton, or worsted, not to have allowance, except at least two-third parts of the ends, or threads of the warp (in the length of the piece) be all silk, or mixed, or twisted with silk in the warp, and the silk mixed in the warp be obvious and apparent to the view of the proper officers of the customs; and the silk therein used be double the value of the bounty.

¶ 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 9. 1 Geo. II. cap. 17. §. 10.

And

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

† And if entered or shipped, not being mixed with the quantity of silk required, they are forfeited, with double the value.

† 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 10. 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 3.

‡ If relanded, forfeited, with the penalty of the bond, and treble the value.

‡ 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 4. 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 2.

VI. The bounty on British-made GUNPOWDER exported.

By 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 1. was granted from 24 June, 1731, for five years,
By 10 Geo. II. cap. 27. §. 3. further continued to 24 June, 1738,
By 16 Geo. II. cap. 26. §. 1. further continued to 24 June, 1750,
By 24 Geo. II. cap. 52. §. 4. further continued to 24 June, 1757,
And from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament,

GUNPOWDER of the MANUFACTURE of GREAT-BRITAIN, exported by way of merchandize, for every barrel containing one hundred pounds net weight, and so in proportion for greater or less quantities } 0 4 6

† To be paid to the exporter on a debenture to be made forth by the collector of the customs (with the privy of the comptroller) at the port of exportation, and the shipping thereof testified by the searcher; the exporter making oath that it is of British manufacture, and to be exported by way of merchandize, and not relanded, or intended to be relanded in Great-Britain; that it is not for the use of the ship in her voyage; and also giving security, in the penalty of 5l. per barrel, that no part thereof shall be relanded in Great-Britain.

† 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 1.

§ To be paid out of customs, or other duties on goods imported.

§ 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 4.

* But may not be exported, when it exceeds the price of 5l. per barrel.

* 12 Geo. II. cap. 4. §. 12.

† Fraudulently relanded (over and above the penalty of the bond) forfeited, and treble the value.

† 4 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 3.

VII. Bounty on SHIPS employed in the WHALE-FISHERY.

By 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1. was granted, during the continuance of the act 5 Geo. II. cap. 28. for every British ship of 200 tons and upwards, manned and navigated according to law, which shall proceed from Great-Britain on the whale-fishery to the Greenland seas, Davis's Streights, or the adjacent seas, a bounty, according to the admeasurement of the ship, for every ton thereof } 1 s. d.
By 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3. continued to 25 December, 1750. } 1 0 0
By 22 Geo. II. cap. 45. §. 2. continued to 25 December, 1757. } 1 0 0
And by this last-recited act a further bounty for every ton } 1 0 0
And the whole extended to ships built in any of his Majesty's dominions in America.
By 28 Geo. II. cap. 20. the whole continued to 25 December, 1764; and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament, and extended to ships under 200 tons.

Total bounty 2 0 0

† To be paid to the master or owners, or their assigns, on the return of the ship to Great-Britain, by the receiver-general of the customs of that part of Great-Britain from whence she departed, out of the old subsidy; but if he has not sufficient money on that branch, then out of any money arising from any duties under the management of the commissioners of the customs respectively, if the following regulations are complied with.

† 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 3. 28 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 4.

§ Every ship, of the burthen of 200 tons, or under, must have on board 40 fishing lines, 120 fathoms each, 40 har-

poon-irons, four boats, with seven men to each boat (including a harpooner, a steersman, and a line-manager to each boat) making in the whole 28 men, besides the master and surgeon, with six months provision at least; and every ship of larger burthen, an increase of six men, one boat, 10 such lines, and 10 harpoon-irons for every 50 tons.

§ 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 2. 28 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 8.

* After 25 December, 1757, every ship employed in this fishery is to have on board an apprentice, indentured for three years at least, for every fifty tons burthen, otherwise the owners are to lose the bounty; but such apprentice is to be accounted as one of the number of men, which by law ought to be on board such ship.

* 28 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 5.

† After 25 December, 1757, no ship above the burthen of 400 tons shall be intitled to a larger bounty than a ship of 400 tons; nor the owners obliged to fit out, equip, or man any such ship, otherwise than is required for a ship of 400 tons.

† 28 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 6, 7.

† The ship, before she proceeds on her voyage, must be visited by the proper officer of the customs at the port from whence she proceeds, who is to examine the above qualifications, and take an account of her tonnage, &c. and certify the same to the commissioners of the customs. And if it appears, by the oath of one of the owners and the master of the ship, made before the collector and comptroller of the port, at the foot of the certificate, that it is really and truly their firm purpose, and determined resolution, that such ship shall forthwith proceed, so manned, furnished, and accounted, in a voyage to the Greenland seas, or Davis's Streights, or the seas adjacent, and there to use their utmost endeavours to take whales, and other creatures living in the sea, and on no other design, and to import the whale-fins, oil and blubber, into Great-Britain (naming the port to which it is their intention to return). And if the master also becomes bound with two sufficient securities, in treble the value of the bounty (which bond is to be taken by the collector, with approbation of the comptroller, and is to be in force for the term of three years against them, for the faithful dealing of the master and ship's company, in regard to the ship and voyage) then any three of the commissioners of the customs for England or Scotland, respectively, upon receiving such certificate and oath, with a certificate that sufficient security has been given, are to grant to the master and owners full licence to proceed on such voyage.

† 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1.

‡ On return of such ship to the port mentioned in the oath of the master, the proper officers of the customs are to go on board and view her condition and lading, and take a schedule of the names of the master, mate, and other persons on board, distinguishing the harpooners, and persons more immediately employed in the fishery, and certify the same, with their observations thereon, and also the real tonnage of the ship; and the master and mate must make oath before the collector and comptroller, on the back of, or annexed to the licence (which is then to be delivered up) that they did in pursuance thereof (mentioning the day of their departure) proceed in a voyage directly to the places aforesaid, and have not since been on any other voyage, or pursued any other design or view of profit; and that they had there (mentioning the time of their stay) used their utmost endeavours to take whales, and other creatures living in those seas; and that all the whale-fins, oil and blubber, imported (if any) in such ship, was truly, and bona fide, taken in the said seas by the crew of such ship only. This schedule, certificate, licence, and oath, are to be transmitted to the respective commissioners for that part of Great-Britain from whence the ship departed with her licence, who being fully satisfied of their faithful dealings are, on demand, to cause payment to be made of the bounty, as above.

‡ 6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 3.

§ Ships fitted out from any of his Majesty's dominions in America, to be under the same regulations as those fitted out from Great-Britain, except that they are not to be more than two years old from the first building, which is to be inserted in the oath; and that the certificate is to be returned to the governor or naval officer, who are to administer the oath, take the bond, and grant the licence.

§ 22 Geo. II. cap. 45. §. 5.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

* On the arrival of such a ship in Great-Britain, the proper officers of the customs are to proceed as directed for British ships; and the respective commissioners of the customs, for that part of Great-Britain where she shall arrive, being satisfied of the faithful dealings of the master and others, with respect to the voyage, shall cause payment to be made of the bounty.

* 22 Geo. II. cap. 45. §. 6.

† Also every ship fitted out in America must sail from the port where surveyed, directly on the whale-fishery, on or before the first of May, and not leave Davis's Straights, or Greenland, and seas adjacent, before the 20th of August, unless they have such success as to fill as many casks with blubber as will amount to no less than 200 hogheads for a ship of 300 tons, and so in proportion, or meet with any unavoidable accident, so as to endanger the lives of the crew; which accident must be declared on the oaths of the master, mate, carpenter, harpooners, line-managers, boat-steerers, and surgeon, or such of them as are living; otherwise she shall lose the benefit of this bounty.

† 22 Geo. II. cap. 45. §. 7.

‡ The commissioners of the customs for England and Scotland respectively must, at the beginning of every session of parliament, lay before both houses an account of what number of ships have been employed in this fishery, with their names and burthens, from whence fitted out, and at what port in Great-Britain discharged, and what quantity of oil or whale-fins each ship imported.

‡ 28 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 10.

VIII. Bounty for encouragement of the British WHITE-HERRING FISHERY.

By 23 Geo. II. c. 24. §. 6. was granted to the Society of the Free British Fishery, for fourteen years, from the 11th of October, 1750, the date of their charter,
And by 28 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 4. was further continued for three years,

And is,

For every hundred pounds actually employed in the said fishery } 3l. per annum.
|| To be paid to the proprietors of the stock out of the customs, by the receiver-general of the customs, by equal half-yearly payments, provided the society shall employ 100,000 l. at least in the said fishery, within eighteen months after the date of their subscription.

|| 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 6, 7.

§ In order to ascertain the sums from time to time actually expended and employed by the society in the said fishery, the account thereof must be delivered to the commissioners of the customs, signed by three at least of the council of the society, as an attestation that they have examined it, and believe it to be just, and attested by the oath of the accountant of the society at the foot of the account; upon which the commissioners are to order payment accordingly.

§ 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 6.

|| The society are also to lay their accounts annually before parliament, and if loss should arise by one year's adventure, and there should be gain by succeeding years, the gain must be applied to make good the original stock of 100,000 l. before any dividend is made.

|| 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 7.

By 28 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 1, 2. this bounty is allowed to the society on the sum of 104,509 l. for two years, to October 22, 1752, and all future interest on that sum is to be computed from that day; and all future computations of interest on any additional sum paid in by the society, in order to be employed in the said fishery, are to be made from the day on which each sum respectively is paid into the Bank of England.

* Any number of persons subscribing 10,000 l. or upwards, into the stock of the said society, and carrying on the said fishery, under their own management, and on their own account, from the port named by them; conformably, nevertheless, to this act and the charter (except as to being obliged to use the marks of the said society) and subscribing under the name of the Fishing Chamber of such city, port, or town, are entitled to the same bounty. But their account of expences, attested by three of their committee, signed by their accountant, and verified by his oath, and also the vouchers, if required, are to be transmitted to the society in London, whose accountant is to enter it in their ac-

* 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 18, 20.

count, delivered to the commissioners of the customs, as a sum expended in the said fishery by the said society. The bounty is to be paid to the society in London, and by them paid over to the Fishing Chamber, after deducting the necessary charges of receiving it.

IX. Bounty on SHIPS built for, and employed in the British WHITE-HERRING FISHERY.

By 23 Geo. II. c. 24. §. 11, 12, 16. was granted for fourteen years, from the commencement of this act,
By 28 Geo. II. c. 14. §. 4. further continued for three years,

And is, for

Every decked bus or vessel, from 20 to 80 tons burthen, built in Great-Britain after the commencement of this act, for the use of the said fishery, and proceeding thereon from some port in Great-Britain, and fitted out and employed therein by the society of the Free British Fishery, or any other person, manned and navigated according to law, for every ton burthen } Bounty.

To be paid annually to the owners thereof out of the produce of the customs, subject to the following regulations.

† Every such vessel must have on board twelve Winchester bushels of salt for every last of fish she is capable of holding, barreled up in new barrels, and as many more new barrels as she can carry, and two fleets of tanned nets, viz. for a vessel of 70 tons, one fleet of 50 nets on board, each 30 yards upon the rope, and 7 fathoms deep; and another fleet of 50 nets in a tender, or proper place on shore, each 30 yards upon the rope, and not under five fathoms deep, and so in proportion; and must have on board, at the rendezvous, six men for a vessel of 20 tons, and one man more for every five tons above 20; and must return into port with the same number, unless reduced by death, sickness, or desertion, without fraud or collusion.

† 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 13, 14. 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 3, 4.

‡ Before she proceeds on such voyage, she must be visited by the proper officer of the customs, who is to examine if she is qualified as above, and take account of her tonnage by admeasurement, and certify the same to the commissioners of the customs, and whether she is a proper vessel to be employed in the fishery. And further, upon one of the owners, or their agents, or a proper officer or agents of the society, and the master of the vessel making oath at the foot of the certificate, before the collector and comptroller of the port, that it is their firm purpose, and determined resolution, that the vessel shall proceed, so manned, furnished, and accoutred, either to Brassey's Sound in Shetland, and be at the rendezvous on or before the 22d of June, and not shoot or wet their nets before the 24th of June, and shall continue fishing among the shoals of herrings as they move southward, unless prevented by loss of masts, or other unavoidable accidents, to the 12th of October; or shall proceed to Campbell town in Argyleshire, or Kirkwall in the Orkney islands, and be at the rendezvous on or before the 12th of September, and continue fishing among the shoals of herrings as they move to the 11th day of January, unless they shall sooner have completed their loading [1], and fish in an orderly manner, without obstructing others; and shall keep a journal of their proceedings, and an account of the quantities of fish dispatched to foreign markets before they come into port, and the quantity they shall bring into port with them; and upon the same persons giving security, in treble the value of the bounty, for the faithful dealings of the master and ship's company, the collector and comptroller of the port are to give them a licence to proceed on the voyage.

‡ 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 12. 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 2, 7.

[1] By 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. sect. 5, 6. the society may follow the white-herring fishery in any part of the British seas; and are not to forfeit this bounty, though the busses should not arrive at one of these places of their rendezvous on the respective days appointed, provided she took her departure from one of those places at least five days before the day appointed for their being there.

|| But in the interval, between the Shetland and Yarmouth fisheries, the vessels may put into any port of Great Britain or Ireland to change their nets, or otherwise prepare for the Yarmouth fishery; and are not obliged to carry more than one fleet of nets to the latter fishing.

|| 26 Geo. II. c. 9. §. 3, 8.

§ Upon the return of the vessel to her port of discharge, the chief officer of the customs, or one appointed by him, must

§ 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 15.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

go on board and examine her condition and lading, and certify the same, with their observations thereon, and also the tonnage and names of the master, and other persons on board [2]; and the master must make oath, before the collector and comptroller of the port, on the back of the licence, or to be annexed to it, that the vessel was at one of the places before mentioned at the time appointed, and has not since been on any other voyage, or pursued any other design, or view of profit; and that they did remain fishing, according to the directions of this act, and had, at the time of their rendezvous, the quantity of nets and other stores, and number of men as above directed [3]. The licence is to be delivered up, with an account of what was done in pursuance of it; and the certificate, schedule, licence, and oath, together with the account of the fish taken, are to be transmitted, by the collector and comptroller of the port, to the commissioners of the customs for that part of Great-Britain from whence she departed with her licence; who, being satisfied of their faithful dealings, are (upon the owners producing a proper certificate, from the receiver of the duty of 6d. per month from all seamen for the use of Greenwich-hospital, that all money due on that account for every seaman on board such vessel has been paid) to cause payment of the bounty to be made by the receiver-general of the customs.

[2] A true copy of this certificate must be transmitted by the commissioners of the customs, with all convenient speed, to the receiver of the duty of 6d. per month from all seamen for the use of Greenwich hospital, in London 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 10.

[3] If by virtue of the liberty granted (note [1]) any bufs quits her station, appointed by 26 Geo. II. c. 9 in order for fishing at other stations, or does not arrive at one of the stations there mentioned on the day appointed, this oath is to be varied, and made conformable to the circumstances attending such respective bufs. 28 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 7.

* The society may let out to hire any of their bufses to be used and employed in the said fishery only, and subject to the same regulations and restrictions, as if employed by the society.

* 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 5.

X. Bounty on BRITISH and IRISH LINENS exported.

By 29 Geo. II. c. 15. §. 1. was granted from 24 June, 1756, for fifteen years, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament,

† For every yard of BRITISH and IRISH LINEN made of hemp or flax, of the breadth of 25 inches, or more, and under the value of 5d. per yard	Bounty.
Of the value of 5d. and under the value of 6d. per yard	0 0 0½
Of the value of 6d. and not exceeding the value of 1s. 6d. per yard	0 0 1
which shall be exported out of Great-Britain to Africa, America, Spain, Portugal, Gibraltar, the island of Minorca, or the East-Indies.	0 0 1½

† To be paid to the exporter, or seller for exportation, by the collector of the port from whence the same shall be exported, out of any monies in his hands arising from any duties, revenues, and customs received at such port.

† 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 1.

† But not to extend to any linens that are striped or chequered, or printed or painted, or made into buckrams or tilletings; nor to any Irish linen, unless of the property of persons residing in Great-Britain, or in his Majesty's plantations in America; nor to such Irish linen, whereof the piece or bolt contains 38 yards in length, and 24 inches in breadth, and cloths of different lengths and breadths in proportion, from N^o 1. to N^o 10. inclusive, weighing from 15 to 44 pounds, as described in the act of 9 Geo. II. cap. 37.

† 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 7, 8, 9.

§ Collectors in the out-ports of South-Britain, and in any port of North-Britain, not having money sufficient in their hands to pay such bounties, are to certify the same to the commissioners of the customs at London and Edinburgh respectively, who shall cause payment thereof to be made by the respective receiver-general; and if the receiver-general of Edinburgh hath not money sufficient in his hands, the commissioners at Edinburgh, or any three of them, shall certify the same to the commissioners in London, who are to cause payment thereof to be made by the receiver-general there.

§ 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 1.

|| The exporter, or seller for exportation, shall express in his entry, and indorse on the cocket, the quantity and value of such linen, and produce a certificate from the searcher, verifying the shipping thereof, and likewise give security in double the value of the goods, and 100 l. not to reland them in Great-Britain, Ireland, or Isle of Man; and shall also make oath of the value of such linens; and that the same were made in Great-Britain or Ireland, and (if in Ireland) that at the time of exportation they were the property of a person or persons residing in Great-Britain, or in some of his majesty's plantations in America.

|| 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 2; 8.

* After entry of any linens, as being intitled to this bounty; the searcher, or other proper officer, may open and examine any package, to see if the goods are rightly entered and indorsed; and if they are so, he must repack them at his own charge, which shall be allowed to the officer by the commissioners of the customs, if they think it reasonable.

* 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 3.

† If any linen, so to be exported for the bounty, shall be of greater value than 18 d. per yard, the exporter, or seller thereof for exportation (on demand in writing made by the customer or collector and comptroller of the port of exportation) shall cause it to be delivered into the king's warehouse; and the collector shall pay to the exporter, &c. (out of any money in his hands) the value of 1s. 7d. per yard, taking his receipt for the same; and such linen to be publicly sold, and out of the produce thereof the money to be replaced to such funds from which it was borrowed, and one moiety of the overplus, if any, to be paid into the exchequer to the sinking fund, the other to the officer who searched and examined the linen.

† 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 4.

† If the exporter of such linen, so demanded, refuses to cause the same to be delivered up; and if any such linen, entered for exportation, of the value of 6 d. per yard, and not exceeding 18 d. per yard, shall be found to be under the value of 6d. per yard; or entered for exportation at the value of 5d. per yard, and not amounting to the value of 6d. per yard, be found to be under the value of 5d. per yard; or of such linen as shall be less in quantity than is indorsed on the cocket, or shall be found to be under the breadth of 25 inches, or entered and indorsed under a wrong denomination, whereby the bounty may be fraudulently received; all such linen, and also all the goods in every package, indorsed on such cocket, shall be forfeited, and the exporter to lose the benefit of the bounty.

† 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 5.

§ Any such linen, for which the bounty has been given or claimed, relanded in Great-Britain, Ireland, or the Isle of Man, is forfeited, and every person concerned in bringing back, or re-landing it, forfeits one shilling per yard.

§ 29 Geo. II. c. 15. §. 6.

|| Bonds taken, or debentures made, pursuant to this act, are not chargeable with the stamp duties.

|| 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 10.

* Any person, legally convicted of falsely making any oath required by this act, is to forfeit 200 l. and be imprisoned for twelve months;

* 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 11.

† In case of any question, whether the linens are of the manufacture of Great-Britain or Ireland, the ONUS PROBANDI is to lie upon the exporter or seller for exportation.

† 29 Geo. II. cap. 15. §. 12.

XI. Premium or Bounty on British Plantation-made INDICO imported.

By 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 1, 6, 8. was granted for seven years, from March 25, 1749;

By 28 Geo. II. cap. 25. §. 1. further continued to March 25, 1763; and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament,

For every pound weight of good and merchantable INDICO, free from any false mixture, and fit for dyers use, imported directly from any of the British colonies or plantations in America, in a ship which may lawfully trade thither, manned as by law required, and being of the growth or product of the plantation from whence imported, and being worth 3s. per pound weight, when the best French, or other indico equal with the best French, is 4s. per pound weight, and so in proportion	Bounty.
	0 0 6

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

To be paid upon demand to the importer by the collector of the port of importation, out of the customs; but if he has not money sufficient in his hands, he must certify the same to the commissioners of the customs, who are to cause it to be paid by the receiver-general of the customs in England or Scotland respectively, according to the place of importation.

* But to intitle the importer to this premium, the person who ships the indico in America must, before the ship is cleared out, produce to the governor, lieutenant-governor, collector and comptroller of the customs, and naval officer of the colony, or any two of them, a certificate signed and sworn before a justice of the peace by the planter, or his known agent, and attested by the justice, "that a quantity of indico, expressing the weight thereof, had been sent from his indico-work to be shipped off, or was sold to the person therein named, and was of the growth of his plantation, situate in the district, division, or parish of _____, within the island or colony of _____;" and also sign a certificate himself before the said officers, "that the indico shipped by him is the same mentioned in the planter's certificate;" upon which they are to deliver to him a certificate, under their hands and seal of office, of having received such certificate, and that at the same time the planter's certificate was produced and left with them." This last certificate must be produced to the chief officer of the customs at the port of importation, together with a certificate from the commander of the vessel importing the indico, "that the same was shipped on board his vessel, within such British colony in America, as mentioned in the said certificate;" and also a certificate signed by the surveyor, land-waiters, or searchers of the customs of the port where landed, or any two of them, specifying "the weight, and that it is good and merchantable, free from false mixture, and of such quality as to be intitled to the premium;" which certificate they must grant within ten days after landing, unless they can assign sufficient cause for refusal. Upon producing the several certificates to the proper officer, the premium is to be paid.

* 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 2, 3, 4.

† The officers of the customs, before making out the certificates, are to examine the indico, by opening the package, and shifting it so as to see the whole contents, and if it is good and merchantable, and free from false mixture, and of the value required.

† 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 7, 8.

|| In case of any dispute about the quality of the indico, if in the port of London, the commissioners of the customs may call two or more dyers, dry-salters, or brokers, or others well skilled in it, who are to declare upon oath, if required, their opinion as to the quality, and whether it is intitled to the premium: if in the out-ports, samples are to be sent up to the commissioners of the customs in London or Edinburgh respectively, to be inspected and adjudged there.

|| 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 9.

‡ No fee, gratuity, or reward, to be taken by any officer of the customs, for examining, viewing, or delivering such indico, or for signing any certificate, or paying the premium, on forfeiture of 100l. loss of office, and being incapable of serving his Majesty.

‡ 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 10.

§ Certificates and debentures, made out in pursuance of this act, are not chargeable with the stamp duties.

§ 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 11.

* No person may enter, or cause to be entered, any foreign-made indico, under the name of British plantation-made indico, on forfeiture thereof; or mix, or cause to be mixed, any foreign indico, or other false mixture, with that made in the British plantations, in order to obtain the premium, on forfeiture of the whole, and double the value thereof.

* 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 5.

† Any governor, lieutenant-governor, collector, or comptroller of the customs, naval officer, merchant, trader, or factor, or master, or commander of a ship, or any other person, falsely making a certificate of the produce or manufacture of any indico, or counterfeiting any certificate by this act required, in order to obtain the premium, is to forfeit 200l. and, if an officer of the customs, also to lose his office, and be incapable of serving his Majesty.

† 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 15.

† If any indico, made in the British plantations in America, shall be exported after the 25th of March, 1749, the

† 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 12, 13, 14.

exporter, before entry thereof, is to pay the collector of the customs, at the port of exportation, 6d. for every pound weight, allowed as a premium by this act, over and above any other duty it is subject to pay on exportation, on forfeiture thereof, and double the value; and in case of a dispute, whether it is of the growth, product, and manufacture of the British plantations in America, the onus probandi is to lie upon the owner or claimer.

‡ Penalties and forfeitures, by this act, may be prosecuted in any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, the court of exchequer in Scotland, or any of the courts of admiralty, in his Majesty's plantations in America respectively; and are to be divided, if in Great-Britain, one moiety to his Majesty, and the other to the person who shall sue for the same; if in his Majesty's plantations in America, one-third to his Majesty, one-third to the governor of the plantation, and one-third to the person who shall sue for the same.

‡ 21 Geo. II. cap. 30. §. 16, 17.

XII. Allowance on damaged TOBACCO imported.

§ If any British plantation TOBACCO hath received damage on board any ship at sea, or by the ship's being forced on shore in any part of Great-Britain; or after arrival, by the ship's bulging on an anchor, or by the lighter into which the tobacco is put in order to be landed; the merchant refusing to pay, or secure the duty for the same, hath liberty to separate such damaged tobacco, by cutting it off from the hoghead or other package.

§ 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 4, 13.

|| For every pound of damaged TOBACCO so cut off, the merchant is to be allowed $\frac{1}{2}$ o o $\frac{1}{2}$ To be paid by the commissioners or collectors, or other chief officers of his Majesty's customs. But such allowance not to exceed thirty shillings on any one hoghead.

|| 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 13.

* Such damaged tobacco cut off, to be burnt and destroyed.

* 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 4.

XIII. Allowance or drawback of the duties on COALS used in melting copper or tin ores within the counties of Cornwall and Devon, or in fire-engines for draining tin or copper mines in Cornwall.

† All COALS used in either of the above works, and for which the duties have been first answered, upon proof, by oath made before the customer or collector of the said duties, that they have been so used, shall have a drawback of all the duties; to be repaid by the collector of the duties to the person making such proof.

† 9 Ann. cap. 6. §. 54. 14 Geo. II. cap. 41. §. 3.

XIV. Allowance on damaged, corrupt, or unmerchantable WINES imported.

‡ If any merchant, finding his wine on importation to be damaged, corrupt, or unmerchantable, shall refuse to pay or secure the duties for the same; the commissioners of the customs may cause such wines to be received into the custody of the proper officers, and to be publicly sold, in order to be distilled into brandy, or made into vinegar, taking sufficient security that they be not made use of for any other purpose whatsoever; and shall cause the produce of such sale to be paid to the merchant, as a compensation for the freight and other charges, not exceeding the allowances following.

For every	{	of the growth of Germany, or which	}	4	0	0	
ton of		pays duty as such		-	4	0	0
WINE		of the growth of France		-	4	0	0
		of the growth of Spain, Portugal or elsewhere		-	8	0	0

‡ 6 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 3, 4. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 20.

The security to be discharged, on a proper certificate that the wines have been so made use of within three months after delivery out of the warehouse.

The overplus, if any, to be replaced to the duties, out of which the warehouse rent, and other charges attending the sale, have been advanced.

§ But no allowance to be made for any wines, unless imported in casks, on board a merchant ship, directly from the place of the growth, or the usual place of first shipping.

§ 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 19.

* Except as to ships stranded; in which case, the wines salvaged may be put on board any other ship or vessel, and carried to any lawful port of this kingdom, and be intitled to the aforementioned allowance.

* 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 20.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

XV. Allowance of PORTAGE.

PORTAGE is a bounty given by the commissioners of the customs, by virtue of their patent, to masters of ships inwards for making true reports of their ships and cargoes, and otherwise demeaning themselves according to law and custom, and is granted on the net amount of the undermentioned branches paid or secured for the goods imported in their respective ships, certified by the proper officer of the port (damages and over-entries first to be deducted) and is as follows.

WINES	-	0	6	8	per cent. on the net amount of the branches of customs and impost.
CURRENTS	-	0	6	8	per cent. on the net amount of the branch of customs.
NORWAY GOODS	2	0	0		
OTHER GOODS	0	10	0		

Note, that no portage is to be granted, when it doth not amount to ten shillings, except for Norway goods.

XVI. Drawback or repayment of the duty of excise on British-made CANDLES.

		Drawb.
CANDLES MADE OF WAX.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the pound weight aver-} \\ \text{dupoise} \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 4 \end{array} \right\}$	0 0 8
CANDLES MADE OF TALLOW, and other Candles.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the pound weight aver-} \\ \text{dupoise} \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0\frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right\}$	0 0 1

† 8 Ann. cap. 9. 9 Ann. cap. 21.
† 9 Ann. cap. 6. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7.

* To be repaid to the exporter by the collector of the excise, on proof made before him, upon oath, of the payment of the duties; and the collector giving a certificate thereof to the exporter, expressing kinds and quantities, and payment of duties; which certificate being produced to the collector of the customs at the port of exportation, and the exporter giving sufficient security, before shipping, that the candles shall not be reloaded in Great-Britain, and likewise making oath, that they are the same mentioned in the certificate, the collector of the customs is to give to the exporter a debenture, expressing the true kinds and quantities exported.

* 8 Ann. cap. 9. §. 24, 26.

† If reloaded (over and above the penalty of the bond) the candles are forfeited, or their value.

† 8 Ann. cap. 9. §. 25.

XVII. Drawback or repayment of the duty of excise on HIDES or CALVE-SKINS, rough or tanned; HIDES or CALVE-SKINS, dressed or curried; SHEEP-SKINS and LAMB-SKINS, tanned, tawed, or dressed, in Great-Britain, exported.

By 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. and 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4. any hides or calve-skins, tanned, tawed, or dressed, were to draw back two-thirds of the duties laid on by those acts respectively.

But by 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 6. it is there explained, that those acts, as to the drawback, comprehended only tanned or rough hides, and calve-skins, &c.

Therefore the drawback is as follows.

		Drawback.
TANNED or ROUGH HIDES, and CALVE-SKINS, the pound weight	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{by 9 Ann. cap.} \\ \text{11.} \quad - \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0\frac{2}{3} \\ \text{by 10 Ann. cap.} \\ \text{26.} \quad - \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0\frac{1}{3} \end{array} \right\}$	0 0 1
averdupoise	-	

† 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 6.

† HIDES or CALVE-SKINS, dressed or curried, the pound weight, as they shall weigh at the custom-house

† 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 6.

SHEEP-SKINS, * and LAMB-SKINS,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{tanned for gloves and} \\ \text{bazils} \\ \text{dressed in allum and} \\ \text{salt, or meal, or o-} \\ \text{therwise tawed} \\ \text{dressed in oil, the pound weight} \\ \text{avoirdupoise} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the pound} \\ \text{weight} \\ \text{averdu-} \\ \text{poise} \end{array} \right\}$	0 0 0 $\frac{1}{3}$
			0 0 0 $\frac{2}{3}$

* 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 67. 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 2.

VOL. II.

† To be repaid to the exporter, by the collector of excise on a debenture made forth by the collector of the customs, at the port of exportation, expressing the kinds, quantities and weights so exported, sufficient security being first given by the exporter to the collector of the customs, that the said goods shall not be reloaded in Great-Britain.

† 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39, 40.

† The hides and calve-skins, so exported, to be marked with a stamp, denoting having paid the duties*; but the drawback may be allowed, although the said marks have not been seen by the officers of the customs, provided that oath be made before the collector of the customs, that the hides or skins, contained in the respective bales or packs, were marked with the stamps, denoting payment of the duties, and specifying how much the duties amounted to, together with the weight thereof exported.

† 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39.

* 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 5.

|| If reloaded, forfeited, with treble the value.

|| 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 42.

XVIII. Drawback or repayment of the duty of excise on British-made SOAP exported.

		Drawback.
SOAP, for every pound weight avoirdupoise	0 0 1	
SOAP, for every pound weight avoirdupoise	0 0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	
	† 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 24. 1 Geo. I. cap. 7.	
	† 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 13. 6 Geo. I. cap. 4.	

* To be repaid to the exporter by the collector of excise for such soap as is exported to foreign parts by way of merchandise, on a debenture to be made forth by the collector of the customs, at the port of exportation, and testified by the searcher; the exporter having first made proof of the payment of the duties before the collector, who received the same, and also having given sufficient security, that the soap shall not be reloaded in Great-Britain.

* 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 22, 24. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 13.

† If reloaded (over and above the penalty of the bond) the soap, or the value, forfeited.

† 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 23.

XIX. Drawback or repayment of the excise duty on British-made PAPER exported.

						Drawback.							
BROWN	{	large cap, the	+	—	0	0	6	{	0	0	9		
		ream											
		small the	+	—	0	0	0					3	
		ream											
CROWN	{	fine the	+	—	0	1	0	{	0	1	6		
		ream											
		second the	+	—	0	0	0					9	
		ream											
DEMY	{	fine the	+	—	0	1	6	{	0	2	3		
		ream											
			+	—	0	1	0						
FOOL'S-CAP	{	fine the	+	—	0	1	0	{	0	1	6		
		ream											
		second the	+	—	0	0	0					9	
		ream											
POT	{	fine, the	+	—	0	1	0	{	0	1	6		
		ream											
		second, the	+	—	0	0	0					6	
		ream											
WHITED BROWN, the bundle containing forty quires	{		+	—	0	0	6	{	0	0	9		
ALL OTHER PAPER, for every 100l. value, to be sold at the next market town, upon oath of the maker	{		+	—	12	0	0	{	18	0	0		
MILL-BOARDS, PASTE-BOARDS, and SCALE-BOARDS, the 112 lb.	{		+	—	0	3	0	{	0	4	6		
PAPER, PAINTED or STAINED, in Great-Britain, for hangings, &c. (besides the afore-said duties) for every yard square	{		+	—	0	0	1	{	0	0	1½		

To be repaid under the same regulations and penalties for re-landing, as the drawback on British-made soap.

† 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 56. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7.

|| 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 13. 6 Geo. I. cap. 4.

11 Q

XX. Draw-

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

XX. Drawback or repayment of the duty of excise on
 SILKS, and SILK } printed, stained, } in Great Bri-
 HANDKERCHIEFS } or painted - } tain, ex-
 CALICOES, and } printed, stained, } ported.
 all LINENS and } painted, or }
 STUFFS - } dyed - }

Drawback.

ALL SILKS, PRINTED, STAINED, or PAINTED (except silk handkerchiefs) for every yard in length, reckoning half a yard in breadth - } † 0 0 6 } 0 1 0
 || 0 0 6 }

ALL SILK HANDKERCHIEFS, PRINTED, STAINED, or PAINTED, for every yard square, and in those proportions for wider or narrower silk - } † 0 0 3 } 0 0 4
 || 0 0 1 }

ALL CALICOES, PRINTED, STAINED, PAINTED, or DYED, for every yard in length, reckoning one yard wide, and after that proportion - } † 0 0 3 } 0 0 6
 || 0 0 3 }

ALL LINEN AND STUFFS, PRINTED, STAINED, PAINTED, or DYED, for every yard in length, reckoning one yard wide, and after that rate for a greater or lesser quantity - } † 0 0 1½ } 0 0 3
 || 0 0 1½ }

† 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 93.
 || 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 13.

* Not to extend to linens, calicoes, or fustians, dyed throughout of one colour, nor to stuffs made of woollen, or whereof the greatest part is woollen.

* 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 68. 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 8.

† Note, all calicoes printed, &c. as above, which shall be within ⅔ part of a yard of a yard broad, or not exceeding ⅔ part of a yard of a yard board, shall pay as yard broad, and no more nor less.

† 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 96.

‡ To be repaid to the exporter by the collector of excise, on a debenture, expressing the kinds and quantities, to be made forth by the collector of the customs at the port of exportation: the exporter having first made proof of the payment of the duties before the said collector of the customs, and also having given sufficient security, that the goods shall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

‡ 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 93, 95. 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 13.

§ Before shipping the exporter is to give, to the proper officer of the customs, notice, when and where he will pack the goods; and such officer is to see the seals or stamps taken off from every piece to be exported, and to make returns of the kinds and quantities thereof to the officer appointed to receive the same.

§ 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 17.

|| If relanded (over and above the penalty of the bond) forfeited, or the value.

|| 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 92.

XXI. Drawback or repayment of the duty of excise on British-made STARCH exported.

Drawback.

† STARCH, for every pound weight thereof avoirdupoise } 0 0 1
 || STARCH, for every pound weight thereof avoirdupoise } 0 0 2
 || 0 0 1 }

† 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 27. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7.
 || 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 13. 6 Geo. I. cap. 4.

* To be repaid to the exporter thereof (by the collector of the duties) for such starch, exported to foreign parts by way of merchandize, on a debenture, to be made forth by the collector of the customs at the port of exportation, expressing the true kinds and quantities, and the exportation thereof testified by the searcher; the exporter having first made proof of the payment of the duties (on oath) before the said collector, and also having given sufficient security, that the starch shall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

* 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 25, 27. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 13.

† If relanded (over and above the penalty of the bond) forfeited, or the value.

† 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 26.

XXII. Bounty or allowance on GOLD and SILVER THREAD, LACE, or FRINGE, made in GREAT-BRITAIN, exported.

Bounty.

* SILVER THREAD, LACE, or FRINGE, made of plate-wire, and spun on silk, every pound weight avoirdupoise } 0 5 0
 * GOLD LACE, THREAD, or FRINGE, made of plate-wire, and spun on silk, every pound weight avoirdupoise } 0 6 8

To be paid to the exporter by the collector of the duties on gilt and silver wire, on a debenture, expressing the kinds and quantities, to be made forth by the collector of the customs at the port of exportation, and the shipping thereof testified by the searcher; the exporter first making proof upon oath, before the collector of the customs, that the said thread, lace, or fringe, was actually made after the first of July, 1712, and also giving sufficient security, that they shall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

* 9 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 1.

XXIII. Drawback on BOOTS, SHOES, GLOVES, and other manufactures of British-tanned leather, exported.

Drawb.

† ALL TANNED LEATHER, which shall be manufactured, and actually made into GOODS or WARES, for every pound weight thereof } 0 0 1½

† 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 68.

§ This drawback commenced from the 2d of August, 1714, and is in lieu of the drawback of two-thirds of the excise duties granted by 9 Ann. cap. 11. and 10 Ann. cap. 26. and is to be paid by the collector of those duties, to the exporter thereof, out of those duties respectively, on a debenture to be made forth by the collector of the customs of the port of exportation, security being first given by the exporter, that the goods shall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

§ 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 40, 41. 12 Ann. sess. 2. cap. 9. §. 68.

|| Relanded, forfeited, and treble the value.

|| 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 43.

XXIV. Drawback or repayment of excise on British-wrought PLATE exported.

Drawback.

WROUGHT PLATE, or MANUFACTURES of SILVER, made in Great Britain, the ounce troy } 0 0 6

* To be repaid by the exporter, for such plate as is exported to foreign parts by way of merchandize, by the collector of the duty, on a debenture to be made forth by the collector of the customs at the port of exportation, expressing kinds and quantities, and the shipping thereof certified by the searcher; the exporter first making proof on oath, before the said collector, that the plate was actually made or marked after the first of June, 1720, and likewise giving sufficient security, that it shall not be relanded in Great-Britain.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 18.

If the collector of the duties hath not money sufficient in his hands, he is to certify the same to the commissioners.

† But no drawback to be paid on the exportation of plate, if the same shall have been made seven years or more before the day of entering it for exportation.

† 12 Geo. II. cap. 16. §. 10.

For other regulations, see silver in the index.

XXV. Drawback or repayment of the excise on GLASS made in Great-Britain, exported.

Viz. Drawback.

§ CROWN, PLATE, FLINT, } for every hundred } 0 9 4
 or WHITE GLASS - } weight - }
 GREEN GLASS, for every hundred weight } 0 2 4

§ 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 3, 4, 5.

† The collector who received the duty upon the glass, upon oath made before him that the duty has been paid, is to give the person (gratis) a certificate, expressing the kinds and weight of the glass, and the duty paid for it; which being produced to the customer or collector of the port of exportation, and the exporter making oath before him, that the glass to be exported is the same mentioned therein, and likewise giving sufficient security for such exportation, and that

† 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 19, 21.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE:

it shall not be relanded in any part of Great-Britain, the collector is to grant a debenture, expressing the true weight; which debenture being produced to the collector of the said duties at the place of exportation, he is forthwith to pay the above allowance; but if he has not money sufficient in his hands, the respective commissioners of excise in Great-Britain are to pay it out of the duties upon glass arising by this act.

* Relanded, is forfeited, or the value, besides the penalty of the bond.

* 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 20.

XXVI. DRAWBACK of the EXCISE or INLAND DUTIES on BRITISH SALT exported.

Of England, Wales, or Berwick upon Tweed.

By 5 and 6 of W. and M. cap. 7. were granted, from the 25th of March, 1694, to the 17th of May, 1697, the following duties.

ROCK-SALT, taken out of any pits in England, Wales, or Berwick, the bushel †, containing 65 pounds weight	Duty.
SALT made at any salt-works in England, Wales, or Berwick, or refined from rock-salt, the bushel †, containing 56 pounds weight	0 1 0
And by 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. was granted from 24 December 1699,	
A further duty on every such respective bushel of SALT above mentioned	0 2 4
Total duty	0 3 4

† 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 9.

† 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. §. 34.

§ Which duties have been since revived and continued for ever.

§ 7 and 8 Will. and Mar. cap. 31. § Geo. II. cap. 6. 7 Geo. II. cap. 6. 8 Geo. II. cap. 12. 14 Geo. II. cap. 22. 18 Geo. II. cap. 5. 26 Geo. II. cap. 3.

|| The above duties to be paid by the maker thereof, for rock-salt, within twelve months, and for all other salt, within nine months, after true entries made of the respective times of making such salt, or taking it out of the pits, on sufficient security given; but if he chuses to pay ready money, he shall have a discount thereon, after the rate of 10 per cent per annum *; and if paid within 28 days after security given, to be allowed a discount, after the rate of ten per cent. per annum, for the remaining time.

|| 5 and 6 Will. and Mar. cap. 7. §. 6. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. §. 8. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 5.

* 1 Ann. cap. 24. §. 39.

† On exportation, the officer of the place, where such salt was made or taken out of the pits, shall deliver to the exporter a certificate, under his hand and seal, that the duties have been paid or secured; on producing this certificate to the officer of the customs where the said salt is to be shipped off, he is to grant a debenture, the exporter making oath of the shipping of the salt, and of its not being relanded in England or Wales; which debenture being produced to the officer of the place where the duties have been paid or secured;

Then these duties are to be wholly repaid, or the security vacated.

† 5 and 6 Will. and Mar. cap. 7. §. 11. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. §. 22.

† Shipped for Ireland, no debenture to be granted, till there is produced a certificate of the quantity landed, under the hand of the collector of the customs of such port in Ireland where the said salt is landed.

For further regulations thereon, see the index.

† 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 11.

SALT of SCOTLAND.

By the act of union, 5 Ann. cap. 8. art. 8. salt made in Scotland is exempted from payment of the inland duty of 2s. 4d. per bushel, imposed by 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44.

Therefore the inland duty payable in Scotland, for the like sorts of SALTS, is, the respective bushel 0 1 0

§ To be managed with the same allowance, encouragement, and drawback proportionable, and under the same restrictions and regulations, as for England.

§ 5 Ann. cap. 8. art. 6. §. 18.

XXVII. Bounty on FISH and FLESH exported.

|| FLESH exported, cured with (any salt in England, but in Scotland only with foreign) salt which has paid duty, is to be allowed, viz.

BEEF or PORK, the barrel — — — 0 5 0

|| 5 Ann. cap. 8. art. 8. § Ann. cap. 29. §. 8.

* To be paid by the collector of the duties upon salt, in the port of exportation, within 30 days after demand, on a debenture to be prepared by the collector of the customs at that port, verified by the searcher, as to the quantity actually shipped, and that the same is good and merchantable; and the oath of the exporter, or agent, being first taken before the principal officers of the port, before the debenture is allowed (if exported from England, Wales, or the town of Berwick upon Tweed) 'that the beef or pork, mentioned in the debenture, was salted with salt, for which the duties have been paid, and not drawn back, and that the same is really exported to parts beyond the seas for sale, and that any part thereof was not spent, or intended to be spent, for the ship's use, nor relanded, or intended to be relanded;' if exported from Scotland, 'that the flesh, mentioned in the debenture, is really exported to parts beyond the seas for sale, and not intended to be relanded in Great-Britain, and was duly cured only with foreign salt, without any mixture of British or Irish salt, and that the duties for such imported salt have been duly paid or secured.'

* 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8. 7 Ann. cap. 11. §. 10.

† Relanded, is forfeited, and 40s. for every barrel, to be recovered of the importer or proprietor.

† 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 9.

FISH, exported from any part of Great-Britain to foreign parts, are intitled to the following allowances, viz.

PILCHARDS, or SCADS, the cask, containing 50 gallons	0 7 0
CODFISH, If 14 inches or upwards in length, from the bone in the fin to the third joint	0 5 0
LING, or in the tail, the hundred	0 2 0
HAKE — Wet, the barrel, containing 32 gallons	0 3 0
— Dried, called HABERDINES, the hundred weight	0 4 6
SALMON, the barrel, containing 42 gallons	0 2 8
WHITE HERRINGS, the barrel, containing 32 gallons	0 1 9
FULL RED HERRINGS, the barrel, containing 32 gallons	0 1 0
CLEAN SHOTTEN RED HERRINGS, the barrel, containing 32 gallons	0 1 0
DRIED RED SPRATS, the last	0 1 0

By 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 5. these bounties were extended to fish cured in Scotland with British or foreign salt, which by the act of union were limited to fish cured (in Scotland) with foreign salt only.

† To be paid by the collector of the duties upon salt, in the port of exportation, within thirty days after demand, on a debenture to be prepared by the collector of the customs in the port of exportation, and verified by the searcher, as to the quantity actually shipped; and the oath of the exporter, or agent, being first taken before the principal officers of the port, before the debenture is allowed, 'that the fish mentioned in the debenture were British, taken and really exported to, or for parts beyond the seas, and not relanded, or intended to be relanded in Great-Britain.'

† 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 5.

§ If the said collector (in England) has not sufficient money in his hands to pay the said debentures on flesh or fish exported, he is to give without delay a certificate thereof to the commissioners for the excise upon salt in England, who shall be chargeable with the payment, to be paid in course out of the first money arising out of the duties upon salt; and if in Scotland, to the commissioners of the customs or excise in Scotland, at the option of the merchant, who are to cause it to be paid in course out of the duties upon salt in Scotland, or out of the revenues of customs or excise there.

§ 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8. 7 Ann. cap. 11. §. 10. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

|| The herring barrel is to contain 32 gallons, and the salmon barrel 42 gallons; and herrings or salmon exported in barrels of any other size (except half barrels) are not entitled to the bounty.

|| 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 15, 16. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 5.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

* No allowance to be paid on flesh or fish not well cured, or unmerchantable.

* 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 5.

† Such fish fraudulently reloaded in Great-Britain, or re-imported, is forfeited, and double the value, to be recovered of the importer or proprietor.

† 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 5.

‡ No fee to be taken for a debenture, or certificate, or for payment of the money.

‡ 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8. 7 Ann. cap. 11. §. 10. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

§ Any officer refusing or neglecting to pay the money, or give a certificate, as above, forfeits double the sum to the party aggrieved.

§ 7 Ann. cap. 29. §. 8. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

* Herring, salmon, cod, ling, tusk, or other white fish, brought coastwise from Scotland into England for re-exportation after the 25th of June, 1756, are upon exportation intitled to the bounties above mentioned, subject to the same regulations, in order to prevent the reloading, or reimporting thereof, and the owners are subject to the same penalties for reloading, or other fraudulent proceedings, in order to obtain the bounty, as in case of fish cured in, and exported from England.—This allowance is not to be paid in England, but the chief officer of the customs, or his deputy, at the port of exportation, upon request of the exporter, and oath made before the principal officers of the port, “of the shipping of the fish, and its not being reloaded, or intended to be reloaded in Great-Britain,” is to give a debenture under his hand, without fee, for payment of the allowance, which being produced to the commissioners of the customs or excise in Scotland (at the option of the exporter or his assigns) they are to pay the bounties out of any money in their hands, arising by any branch of the customs or excise, regard being had to the priority of the dates of the debentures.

* 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. §. 10, 11.

XXVIII. Premium on NAVAL STORES imported.

I. From the British plantations in America.

By 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 3. 18. was granted from 29 September, 1729, to 29 September, 1742.
By 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1. continued to 25 December, 1750.
By 24 Geo. II. cap. 52. §. 1. continued to 25 December, 1751.
By 25 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 2. continued to 25 March, 1758. And to the end of the then next session of parliament.

Imported directly from any of the British plantations in America, in ships legally navigated, and that by law may trade thither	MASTS, YARDS, and BOWSPRIGHTS, the ton, allowing 40 feet to each ton, girt measure, according to the customary way of measuring round bodies	1	0	0
	Clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of dross or water, and fit in every respect for making of cordage, the ton, containing eight barrels, and each barrel to gauge $31\frac{1}{2}$ gallons, to be well hooped and filled up	2	4	0
	TAR { Clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of dross or water, and fit in every respect for making of cordage, made from trees prepared according to the directions hereafter mentioned, the ton, containing eight barrels, and each barrel to gauge $31\frac{1}{2}$ gallons, to be well hooped and filled up on the importation thereof	4	0	0
	But no premium is to be paid on any tar, unless each barrel contains $31\frac{1}{2}$ gallons, and the officers not to survey the tar till the water is all drawn off, and every barrel filled up with tar.			
	PITCH, clean, good, merchantable, and well-conditioned, not mixed with dirt or dross, the ton, containing 20 gross hundreds, neat pitch, to be brought in eight barrels of equal size	1	0	0
	TURPENTINE, clean, good, and merchantable, clear of dross and water, the ton, containing 20 gross hundreds, neat turpentine, to be brought in eight barrels of equal size	1	10	0

† 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 3.

|| 24 Geo. II. cap. 52. §. 2. 25 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 3.

* Which premiums are to be paid by the commissioners of the navy, by bills to be made out for the same, and delivered to the importers within twenty days after the discharge or unlading of the ship, in order to be paid in course, upon certificate of the respective chief officers of the customs where imported; to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and seals of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or collector of his Majesty's customs, and naval officer, or any two of them, residing within any of his Majesty's said plantations, testifying, that before the departure of the ship, the person lading the same had made oath before them, that the said stores were truly, and bona fide, of the growth and produce of his Majesty's said plantations: and with respect to the high bounty on tar, expressing, that it has appeared to them, the persons so certifying, by the oath of the owner or maker of the tar for which such certificate was granted, that the tar herein mentioned was made from green trees, prepared for that purpose after the following manner; that is to say, that when such trees were fit to bark, the bark thereof was stripped eight feet or thereabouts, up from the root of each tree, a slip of the bark, of about four inches in breadth, having been left on one side of each tree; and that each tree, after having been so barked, and stood during one year at the least, and was not before cut down for the making of tar; and that the said tar was made without mixture of any other tar therewith; as likewise upon oath to be made by the master of the ship, at any port in Great-Britain, that the same were shipped within some of his Majesty's plantations in America, and that he knows, or believes, that the said stores were the produce of the said plantations.

* 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 4, 12.

† But the aforesaid certificates of the chief officers of the customs are not to be made out for the premium on pitch, until the same be freed from dirt or dross, nor for any tar that is not fitting to be used for making of cordage, and shall not be freed from dross and water, and unless such pitch and tar be clean, good, merchantable, and well-conditioned.

† 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 16. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.

§ And the said officers of the customs, before they make out such certificates, are to examine the pitch, by opening the heads of the barrels, sawing of the staves in the middle, and breaking the barrels, or by such other means as they shall think proper, to discover whether the said pitch is good and merchantable, not mixt with dirt or dross; and also to examine and search the said tar, to discover whether the same is clean, good, merchantable, well conditioned, and clear of dross or water, and fit for making of cordage.

§ 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 17. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.

II. From North-Britain, commonly called Scotland.

By 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 13. was granted from 29 September, 1729, to 29 September, 1742.
By 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1. continued to 25 December, 1750.
By 24 Geo. II. cap. 52. §. 1. continued to 25 December, 1751.
By 25 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 2. continued to 25 March, 1758. And from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament.

Imported from North-Britain to any part of South-Britain.	TREES of twelve inches diameter and upwards, fit for MASTS, YARDS, or BOWSPRIGHTS, regularly converted and hewed at least into eight squares, sound, fresh, and in good and merchantable condition, the ton, allowing forty feet to each ton, girt measure, according to the customary way of measuring round bodies	1	0	0
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* Which premiums are to be paid by the commissioners of the navy, by bills to be made out for the same, and delivered to the importers within twenty days after the discharge or unlading of the ship, in order to be paid in course; upon certificates of the respective chief officers of the customs where imported, to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and seals of the comptroller and collector of the customs, and the naval officer, or any two of them, residing at the port or ports of exportation in North-Britain, testifying, that before the departure of the ship, the persons concerned, or employed, (or any two of them) in cutting down the aforesaid trees, had made affidavit in writing, before such comptroller and collector, and naval-officer, or any two of them, that such trees were truly and bona fide of the growth and produce of North-Britain; and specifying in the said affidavit, the particular number, quantity, and qualities of the trees, together with the time when they were cut down,

* 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 13.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

the names of the proprietors, and the places where the same did grow; as likewise upon oath to be made by the master of the ship, at the port of importation in South Britain, that the same were truly laden within North-Britain, and that he knows, or believes, that the said trees were of the growth of North-Britain.

* Persons counterfeiting, or making false affidavits, or certificates, of the growth of the trees, in order to obtain the premium, are to suffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury, and to forfeit 100 l.

* Collector, comptroller, or naval officer, making false certificates, shall incur such penalties as are directed for like offences, by the act (13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11.) for preventing frauds, and regulating abuses in his majesty's customs.

* 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 14.

† Masters or owners of ships knowingly importing foreign trees, fit for masts, &c. as of the product of North-Britain, in order to obtain the bounty, are to forfeit 100 l. together with the ship and furniture.

† 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 15.

From the British plantations and Scotland.

‡ Upon the landing of the aforesaid stores and trees, the pre-emption or refusal must be offered and tendered to the commissioners of the navy, and if, within twenty days after such tender, they shall not contract for the same, the importers may otherwise dispose of them.

‡ 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 6, 13.

§ No fee, gratuity, or reward, may be demanded or taken by the officers of the customs, for the examining, viewing,

5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 18. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 11.

or delivering any of the aforesaid naval stores, or for making or signing certificates, in order to receive the premium, upon the forfeiture of office and 100 l. and to be rendered incapable of serving his Majesty.

* And if any of the aforesaid naval stores, or trees, shall be again exported, the exporter must, before entry thereof, produce to the collector, &c. of the customs, at the port of exportation, a receipt from the treasurer of the navy, or his cashier, subscribed by his comptroller, or his chief clerk, signifying that the full amount of the aforesaid premium had been repaid to him; on failure whereof, such stores may not be exported; and if such stores are fraudulently exported without repayment of the premium, they are forfeited, and double the value.

* 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 7, 9, 16.

† And if, upon the exportation of the aforesaid stores, doubts shall arise concerning the growth, product, or manufacture, the onus probandi shall lie on the owner or claimer thereof.

† 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 10, 16.

XXIX. Drawback of excise on STRONG BEER, STRONG ALE, MUM, CYDER, and PERRY, made in Great-Britain, exported. 1 Will. and Mar. cap. 22, &c.

XXX. Drawback of excise on SPIRITS DRAWN FROM CORN in Great-Britain, without mixture of any other materials exported. 6 Geo. II. cap. 17.

XXXI. Drawback of the excise on SPIRITS exported. 16 Geo. II. cap. 8.

§ Not only the payment of these three drawbacks, but the forms and regulations of shipping, being by law required to be performed by the officers of excise, it is unnecessary to describe them particularly here.

A N I N D E X O F T H E M A T E R I A L A R T I C L E S,

Contained in the SECOND VOLUME of the UNIVERSAL
DICTIONARY of TRADE and COMMERCE.

L E T T E R L.

LABOUR, remarks political thereon, in relation to the natural price thereof. How taxes on commodities tend to raise the price of labour. The price of labour will fall, when such taxes are annihilated. Invention of compendious arts of workmanship. Of the natural causes of the rise and decay of nations in wealth and power, with regard to the price of labour. The increase of paper circulation in a state naturally tends to raise the price of labour and commodities; and likewise the declension of the state in wealth and power. Annihilation of paper debts, the way to preserve states, by preserving the channels of trade and exportation. The more commercial labour in a state, the richer is that state esteemed. Laws of England in regard to labourers; with remarks since the last war and peace of 1763.

LACE-MANUFACTURE, its manufacture. Political Reflections thereon. The principal laws of France, in respect to the lace-manufacture. Of the principal laws of England in regard thereto. The allowance on gold and silver lace, thread, and fringe, on exportation. Of the custom-house business on this occasion. Political remarks thereon. The encouragement given to this manufacture in Ireland. Philosophical considerations on the manufacture of gold and silver lace.

LADING, see **BILLS OF LADING**.

LAGAN, or **LAGON**, what.

LANCASHIRE, its situation, produce and trade; with remarks relating to Liverpool.

LANDED-INTEREST. Reason why the decline of foreign trade sinks the value of land. Encrease of paper-treasure, argues the decline of trade, and decay of the landed-interest. The effect of land-taxes compared with those upon commodities. Further political remarks. Of the country gentleman's advancement by improving it, and of preserving himself and family, independently on court-preferment; which is ever a precarious dependence, except to but very few, and those few liable to be turned out of their posts and places, on ministerial distractions.

LAND-CARRIAGE, outward; with regard to duties and taxes of goods for exportation.

LAND-CARRIAGE, inward; with regard to duties and taxes of goods for importation.

LAND-WAITER, an officer of the customs. His business; and some laws relating thereto.

LANERKSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.

LANGUEDOC, its situation, produce, and trade.

LAPIDARY, an artificer. Laws in France relating thereto.

LAPLAND, its situation, produce, and trade. See **NORWAY**, **SWEDEN**, and **RUSSIA**.

LAQUE, an artificial preparation for the business of laquered wares. Its preparation of a vegetable colour called laques.

LAQUERED-WARES, laquers of divers sorts, how prepared.

LATITUDE, in geography and navigation.

LAW, as the same regards traders; with suitable remarks thereon.

LEAD, a metal. Its manufacture from natural ores. Its divers preparations for several uses. Methods of smelting lead at the great works with pit-coal. Ditto with wood-fuel. Of black lead.

LEAKAGE of liquors, allowance at the customs on the importation thereof.

LEASE in LAW, what. The calculations of the values of leases; with tables suitable thereto; with remarks thereon.

LEATHER, of its manufacture from skins of beasts of various kinds; with remarks before and since the last war, and Definitive Treaty of 1763.

LEATHER-BREECHES-MAKER, his trade.

LEATHER-CUTTER and **CURRIER**, ditto.

LEATHER-DRESSER, ——— ditto.

LEATHER-DYER, ——— ditto.

LEATHER-PARER and **GROUNDER**, ditto.

LEATHER-SELLER, ——— ditto. The chief laws of England relating to leather. Some laws and regulations in England concerning leather tanned. Remarks on **LEATHER-DRESSING** in general.

LEDGER, in regard to the art of accountantship. A curious real mercantile transaction, carried on by partnership at several foreign ports; the same stated in the ledger mode, and ballanced by the several parties residing at the several different foreign ports, and all in conformity to each other; with illustrative remarks thereon.

LEEWARD ISLANDS, their short state, with considerations suitable to the late peace of 1763; shewing the probability of those **NEUTRAL ISLANDS**, that are thereby annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, turning to our commercial emolument hereafter.

LEICESTERSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.

LEINSTER, ——— ditto.

LETTER OF CREDIT, what.

LETTER-FOUNDER, his employment.

LETTER OF LICENSE, what, and its form.

LETTER OF MARQUE, ——— ditto. ——— Laws of England relating thereto.

LETTERS PATENT, what. The laws relating thereto.

I N D E X.

LEVANT-TRADE, its trade in general. The first establishment of the Christian powers therein. The regulations and polity of France with respect to the Levant-trade. An arret of the king's council of state, ordaining that the French ships trading to the ports of the Levant, shall not be liable to those averages which may be necessary to be laid on the payment of the debts and other charges of the nation, but in proportion to the value of the merchandizes wherewith they are loaded, and not according to the tonnage and strength of the shipping. A royal ordonnance, permitting the sheriffs, and deputies of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, to deliver certificates of residence of the children and relations of the merchants of the province, who chuse to settle in the Levant, provided they were 18 years of age; and also to such women and girls whose husbands or fathers are established in the said ports, to live there with them, 1716. An arret of the royal council in times of war ordains, that upon the merchandize of the Levant, arising by the prizes made during the present war, (1705) and carried into the port of Toulon, there shall be levied 10 per cent. on the value of the said merchandizes over and above the ordinary duties paid on importation. A royal ordonnance, excluding from all public trust and administration, and from the assemblies of the body of the French nation in the ports of the Levant, such French merchants, who shall there marry maids or widows born in the dominions of the Grand Senior; and excludes, likewise, all those who are under 30 years of age, from all public trusts of administration, who shall marry, without the consent of the parents, even any French young women. A royal ordonnance, forbidding all the subjects of France, and others trading in Turkey under their protection, to purchase any thing taken from the Turks by the Maltese corsairs, or by any other, 1718. A royal ordonnance, forbidding all captains of French ships and vessels to embark in the Levant any Frenchman or foreigner, without permission first had and obtained, in writing, from the king's ambassador at Constantinople, or the consuls of the ports, 1719. An arret of the royal council of state, in relation to the establishment of a duty in favour of the chamber of commerce at Marseilles laid upon merchandizes coming from the Levant, charged with the payment of the appointments of the consuls, 1721. An arret of the royal council of state, laying a penalty upon the captains and owners of ships, coming from the Levant to Marseilles, who should misrepresent the weight and quality of the merchandizes wherewith they are loaded, or should not represent them at all, 1722. A royal ordonnance, regulating the appointments that the first deputies of the French Nation are intitled to in the ports of the Levant and Barbary; if, in case of the death or absence of the consuls, they perform the offices of the consular power, 1723. A royal ordonnance, revoking those of the year 1689, 1713, and 1719, and the prohibitions therein contained; in consequence whereof, it permits all Frenchmen residing in the ports of the Levant, Barbary, and Italy, to load merchandizes for their account upon foreign bottoms, 1727. A royal ordonnance, regulating what should be regarded in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, on the part of the Jews, and other foreigners, who shall enjoy there the protection of France, 1727. A royal ordonnance, excluding from the liberty of trading in France, and from the privilege of the body of the nation, such French who shall marry in the ports of the Levant, and the sons of Frenchmen born in the said ports, whose mothers are foreigners, 1728. A royal ordonnance, concerning the patent of health that the captains and masters of ships should take, who traffic in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, 1730. The French king's declaration, signifying that no cabbin-boy shall be left in the ports of the Levant and Barbary, 1730. A royal ordonnance concerning the deposits in the chanceries of the consuls of the Levant and Barbary, 1731. Regulations for the imports of consuls and vice-consuls of the ports of Negropont, Covelie, Rhodes, Meteleme, Scio, Milo, Ime, Miconia, 1732. General regulations of the French trade of all the said ports. An arret of the council of state, relating to the merchandizes in pacotilles, as the French term them, which the captains, supercargoes, and passengers carry into the Levant, as well for their own account as for that of the freighters, 1733. A royal ordonnance, forbidding the French merchants to consign directly, or indirectly, merchandizes, fruits, or provisions, to foreigners established in the ports of the Levant, 1735. An arret of the council of state, concerning the imposition of a duty of average of 1 per cent. for 3 years, upon the merchandizes which shall be carried to the ports of the Levant, 1736. A royal ordonnance, permitting French ships to be consigned to merchant strangers established in the ports of the Levant, in case they are entirely freighted by foreigners, 1737. An arret of the council of state, establishing, to commence the 1st of April, 1739, that the duty of averages at importation, the raising of which was ordained by the arret of the 25th of February, 1736, shall be suppressed in all the ports of the Levant of Dec. 1738. On the 18th of January, 1749, an arret was issued for the regulation of policies of insurance passed before the signing

the preliminaries of peace, with regard to ships employed in the commerce of the ports of the Levant, and regulating the premiums to be allowed to the insurers, in these cases mentioned in the arret of the 12th of July, 1748. A royal ordonnance, forbidding all subjects who reside in the ports of the Levant and Barbary to possess themselves of any real estates, 1749; with remarks, shewing that the above are the principal royal arrets; edicts, ordonnances, and declarations issued in France, from the year 1665, by authority, for the occasional regulation of the Levant trade, and the consequences thereof.

LEVANT TRADE, of the regulation of the Dutch, in regard to their commerce of the Levant trade. Of the general nature and circumstances of the Turkey trade in the Levant; with remarks.

LIEGE, its situation, produce and trade.

LIGHT-HOUSES, or **SEA-MARKS**, their nature and use in navigation.

LIMBURG, its situation, produce and trade.

LINCOLNSHIRE, ———ditto.

LINEN, a manufacture. Its great utility throughout the world. In whose hands the linen trade of Europe chiefly lies; to the disadvantage of England; with a series of national political reflections. Of the raising of flax, for the more effectual establishment of the linen manufacture in Great Britain. A summary of the chief laws of England, relating to the linen manufacture. Of the conduct of Ireland, in regard to the linen manufacture, with respect to the linen-board there granting premiums for the encouragement of that manufactory. An account of the quantity and duty of the statuteable and unstatuteable linen yarn, exported out of Ireland to Great-Britain for twenty years. An account of the net quantities of cotton wool imported into Great-Britain for seven years, after deduction of the quantities exported; drawn from the accounts before the committee; in a report to his late Majesty George II. with political remarks on the linen manufacture in general.

LINLITHGOWSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.

LINT, with respect to the linen manufacture, in order to render the linen manufacture belonging to these kingdoms as complete as the same is in foreign countries, &c. with remarks.

LITHUANIA, its situation, produce, and trade.

LIVES, (annuities on lives). Of the principles whereon such computations are made, with various curious tables thereon, made by several ingenious gentlemen.

LIVONIA, its situation, produce, and trade.

LOADMANAGE, a term in commerce.

LOADSMAN, ———ditto. ——— Laws relative thereto.

LOGWOOD, a wood much used in the art of dying. A representation from the board of trade to his late majesty Geo. I. asserting the right of the subjects of Great-Britain, to cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, 1717. Political remarks on this article in various lights, before and since the last war and treaty of peace of 1763.

LONGITUDE, its nature and use in the art of navigation, and the difficulties hitherto attending its discovery. Of a new problem for its discovery at sea. Acts of parliament relative thereto. See also **COMMANDERS OF SHIPS** for the same at large.

LORRAIN AND BAR, their situation, produce and trade. See **ALSACE**.

LOTTERY, a public game at hazard, to raise money for the service of the state. Laws of England relating thereto. Lotteries in France. That in England for the purchase of Sir Hans Sloane's curiosities; with remarks on lotteries in general, upon mathematical principles. Of the abuse of lotteries.

LOUISIANA, its situation, produce, and trade; with political remarks thereon, before and since the last war and peace of 1763. Of the Indians in North America; and how to manage them since the large acquisition of territory ceded in North America to the crown of Great-Britain; of present important consideration.

LUBECKERS, of the imperial city of Lubeck. Of their union with other states.

LUXEMBERG, its situation, produce and trade.

LYONNOIS, its ———ditto.

Of the business of the custom-house.

L E T T E R M.

MACE, its nature and commerce.

MACEDONIA, its situation, produce and trade.

MACHINE, with political remarks thereon, to lessen the price of commodities.

MALT, observations on the manner of **MALTING**; with philosophical remarks thereon. An abstract of acts of parliament thereon; together with the nature of the excise business respecting this article; and also the business of the customs, relating to the exportation of malt.

MAN,

I N D E X.

- MAN, (ISLE OF MAN)** its situation, produce, and trade; with political remarks with respect to the smuggling trade carried on at the Isle of Man before its being annexed to the crown of Great-Britain. Reason before its being annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, given in this work above 10 years before it was so annexed, furnished to the author by that worthy patriot, the present chamberlain of London, Stephen Theodore Janssen, Esq;
- MANUFACTURERS.** English laws relating to them; with political remarks for their encouragement in Great-Britain. The system of Spain to advance their manufactures of every kind, as published in this work before the last war, and Definitive Treaty of 1763; with other political remarks in divers useful lights. An abstract of an act of parliament for the effectual punishing of persons convicted of seducing artificers in the manufactures of Great-Britain or Ireland, out of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain or Ireland, into foreign parts; and for the more easy and speedy determination of appeals, allowed by another act, &c.
- MANURE,** for land; with philosophical remarks thereon. Of political remarks thereon, tending to the better cultivating of the lands of Great-Britain and Ireland, in order to render labour and commodities cheaper than they are; with considerations incorporated regarding the landed interest. Also other political remarks on the whole of our article **MANURE**, and cultivating additional quantities of land, so as to render the necessities of life cheaper, in order to cheapen labour, and the price of English commodities in general, for the benefit of foreign commerce.
- MAP,** its use in geography; with political remarks on this article before the last war and peace of 1763, relative to the perfidious designs of France to strip us many years ago of our rights of possession in North America in particular; of which the author of this work apprized the nation before the late war; also political remarks since the last war and Definitive Treaty of 1763.
- MARBLE,** its nature and quality, and use in buildings.
- MARCASITE,** a mineral; its nature, quality, and use; with proper remarks thereon, in order to make them turn to the best advantage on landed estates.
- MARINERS,** how governed in a maritime country by the antient sea law, as those of Rhodes, Oleron, and Wisby; see those articles, as well as according to the English laws; with variety of cases litigated and determined in our courts of justice. Of the admiralty laws relating to these people. See **ADMIRALTY**.
- MARITIME and MARINE AFFAIRS,** and **MARINE TREATIES.** See **MARQUE, (LETTERS OF MARQUE)** **MASTERS OF SHIPS, NAVAL AFFAIRS, PILOTS, PORTS, and HAVEN; PIRACY, PRIZES, QUARENTINE, SALVAGE, WRECKS;** with other articles therefrom referred to. A marine treaty between the States-General and the city of Lubeck, 1613. A marine treaty between the United Provinces and the Hanse Towns, 1615; with political remarks thereon of divers kinds. Also variety of maritime forms, and articles of several natures; with occasional illustrative explanations. Treaty between the states of Holland with the towns of Bremen and Hamburg, in the year 1645. Another between the king of Denmark and the States-General. Another maritime treaty between the crowns of Sweden and Denmark. A form of a general maritime passport for a Swedish ship laden with Swedish goods, &c. A form of a certificate to be given to the Swedish ships, laden partly with Swedish, and partly with foreign goods, &c. with explanatory and political remarks, 1645. Another treaty between the States-General and Denmark, 1647; with a model for measuring the ships according to the measure of Amsterdam. A manifesto published by the Parliament of England against the States-General of the United Provinces in the year 1652, severe against the Dutch. An abridgement of the manifesto of the States-General against the nation and government, &c. of England, given at the Hague, 1652; which ended in a declaration of war, and was followed by a treaty between the States-General and the king of Denmark; which promoting a good understanding between the Dutch and the Danes, there was another treaty concluded between those two powers at Copenhagen in the year 1653. An abstract of a treaty of peace and union between Oliver Cromwell, as protector of England, and the United Provinces of the Low-Countries. A marine treaty between king Charles II. after his restoration to his dominions, and the States-General of Holland; in which all former differences are composed, &c. in 1667. The same time was concluded another treaty concerning marine affairs; which was the forerunner of that of February, 1667-8. Article touching navigation and commerce, between king Charles II. and the States-General, concluded at the Hague in February, 1667-8. Form of the certificate that ought to be given by those that have the ordinary power of the admiralty of England, to the ships and vessels that go out thence, according to the said treaty; with other requisite forms on both sides relative to carrying the same into execution. After this treaty for affairs in Europe, another was set on foot, and agreed to, for regulating their naval affairs all over the world, &c. the substance of which we have given; with various necessary forms concerning the same. A marine treaty between king Charles II. and Lewis XIV. king of France in 1676-7; with the form requisite on this occasion, and proper remarks.
- MARLE,** for the manuring of land; with philosophical remarks.
- MARQUE, (LETTER OF MARQUE)** what, their nature and authority. Laws of England concerning the same; with some curious cases determined in our courts of judicature, on laws relative to litigations on this point.
- MASTERS OF SHIPS,** mercatorial laws and usages relating thereto. With divers useful cases of dispute settled by our courts of law concerning them.
- MATHEMATICS,** how far they may be useful to those who would understand the practice and theory of trade; and of general use and advantage, in the several lights represented; with pertinent remarks of several kinds.
- MEASURES and WEIGHTS,** as well relative to foreign countries as our own; with proper tables and computations.
- MECHANICAL ARTS,** the great commercial utility of mechanic arts to the states; with suitable remarks thereon in divers lights.
- MECKLENBURGH, or MECKLENBOURGH,** its situation, produce and trade.
- MEDALS,** of the traffic therein in divers parts; with political remarks made of them in France to commemorate the great epochas of their commercial advancement in the reign of Lewis the XIVth and the present French king; with remarks also since the late war and treaty of peace of 1763.
- MEDITERRANEAN,** its situation and extent; with remarks relative to the important advantages derived to Great-Britain from the possession of Gibraltar, and shewing why that territory and fortrefs ought never to be given up to any power whatsoever, if we would preserve the Mediterranean trade; also other political remarks on this article. Likewise of the business of the custom house relating to the **MEDITERRANEAN COMMERCE.**
- MEDITERRANEAN PASSES,** our laws relating thereto.
- MELLI,** its situation, produce, and trade.
- MENSURATION,** its usefulness in several branches of trade. With practical cases of computation concerning the same, in artificers works of divers kinds; as carpenters work, bricklayers work, plaisterers work, masons work, glaziers work, painters work; also the use of the carpenter's rule, and the sliding-rule in mensuration.
- MENTZ,** its situation, produce, and trade.
- MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANT-SHIP,** the whole art succinctly delineated.
- BRITISH MERCANTILE COLLEGE,** shewing the necessity of establishing a mercantile college in Great-Britain for the education of young British merchants better than they usually are; with a plan for that purpose. Another plan laid down for the due execution of the former. Of the dignity of the British merchant, and the consequences of this intended new college to the public.
- MERCHANT-COURT, or COURT-MERCHANT,** of the nature of such an institution for the summary decision of mercantile personal controversies. Of the merchant's court in the city of Rouen in France.
- MERCURY,** a mineral, its nature and quality; with philosophical observations thereon.
- MERIONETHSHIRE,** its situation, produce, and trade.
- METALLURGY,** the art of, described; with remarks philosophical.
- METALS,** their nature and quality philosophically described. Of factitious metals; with proper remarks.
- MEXICO, (OLD MEXICO)** its situation, produce, and trade; with remarks particularly respecting the right of British subjects to the cutting of logwood in the bay of Honduras; also political remarks made before and since the last war and treaty of 1763.
- MIDDLESEX,** its situation, produce, and trade; with suitable remarks before and since the last war and Definitive Treaty of 1763.
- MILAN,** its situation, produce, and trade.
- MINERAL,** described philosophically; with remarks.
- MINERAL WATERS,** their nature, use, and their trade.
- MINEROLOGY,** concerns the discovery of mines; with philosophical explanations, and suitable remarks. Of the deceits and impositions of miners, and others, often in league with them. Of the generation of mines; with interesting remarks to those concerned therein.
- MINORCA,** its situation, produce, and trade; with political remarks.
- MISSISSIPPI,** its situation, produce, and trade; with remarks before the last war and the Definitive Treaty of peace in the year 1763; also political remarks since the last war and peace of 1763.
- MODENA,** its situation, produce, and trade.
- MOGUL EMPIRE,** see **INDOSTAN.**
- MONEMUGI,** its situation, produce, and trade.
- MONEY,** the origin of money; with political remarks thereon.
- MONIED-INTEREST,** or the stockholders of this kingdom; with suitable remarks thereon, both before the last war and peace of 1763, and since the said peace.

I N D E X.

MONMOUTHSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.
 MONOMOTOPA, its situation, produce, and trade; with remarks.
 MONOPOLIES, their nature. Our laws relating thereto, and origin of those trading ones in this kingdom; with political remarks thereon.
 MONTFERRAT, its situation, produce, and trade.
 MONTGOMERYSHIRE, ———ditto.
 MONTSERAT, see BRITISH AMERICA.
 MORAVIA, its situation, produce, and trade.
 MOROCCO, its situation, produce, and trade; with remarks thereon. Of the union of the Christian powers to extirpate the piratical states.
 MORTALITY, (BILLS OF MORTALITY) with respect to annuities on lives and leases, &c. with various useful tables relating thereto; with cases exemplifying the same.
 MOSKITO COUNTRY, its situation, produce, and trade.
 MUNSTER, ———ditto.
 MUSÆUM, BRITISH, with political remarks thereon.
 The practical business of the custom-house continued at the end of Letter M.

L E T T E R N.

NAPLES, its situation, produce, and trade; with political remarks. Of Sicily in particular; with remarks also.
 NATIONAL ACCOUNTANTSHIP, an idea thereof, for people of distinction.
 NAVAL AFFAIRS, their importance to the British empire, and their short History; with remarks, shewing how the French regard their naval affairs. Further remarks thereon before the last war and peace of 1763. And likewise remarks interesting since the last peace of 1763.
 NAVAL STORES, with political remarks thereon, before and since the Definitive Treaty of 1763.
 NAVIGATION, the practical arts thereof; with the Rev. Mr Richard Locke's universal problem for the discovery of the longitude at sea. See COMMANDERS OF SHIPS, and LONGITUDE. The principal Laws of England enacted for the promotion of trading navigation. A memoir that may be necessary to be referred to occasionally, containing an account of all the foreign shipping which entered in at the several ports of England, set forth in columns, under the title of the nation or state to which they belong, for two several years, ending at Christmas 1743, and 1747, and one year ending at Lady-day 1749; which is one year before the last French war but one, one year in the war, and one year after that war, or the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, made in 1741.
 NEGROLAND; see AFRICA, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, ANTILLES ISLANDS.
 NETHERLANDS, (or THE UNITED PROVINCES OF THE NETHERLANDS) of their commerce; with interesting political remarks before the last war and peace of 1763; and likewise remarks since the said peace of 1763.
 NEUFCHATEL, its situation, produce, and trade.
 NEVIS; see BRITISH-AMERICA.
 NEUTRAL ISLANDS; see LEEWARD ISLANDS.
 NEW-CASTLE; see CASTILLE.
 NEW-ENGLAND; see ditto.
 NEW-JERSEY; see — ditto.
 NEW-YORK; see — ditto.
 NEWFOUNDLAND, its fisheries and trade; with remarks since the last war and peace of 1763.
 NEWS-PAPERS, their use and their abuse, with respect to public affairs; the laws relative thereto.
 NEW-SPAIN; see SPANISH-AMERICA, PERU, and MEXICO.
 NICARAGUA; see MEXICO.
 NICOBAR-ISLANDS, their situation, produce, and trade.
 NIGRITIA; see AFRICA.
 NITRE, or SALT-PETRE, its nature, quality, and use, with philosophical remarks; of its purification, &c. &c.
 NIVERNON, or NEVERS, its situation, produce, and trade.
 NORFOLK, its situation, produce, and trade; with the peculiar laws relating to Norwich, and Norwich-stuffs.
 NORMANDY, its situation, produce, and trade.
 NORTHAMPTONSHIRE, — ditto.
 NORTH-CAROLINA, ———ditto; ———with interesting remarks before the last war, and peace of 1763, and since that peace.
 NORTHUMBERLAND, its situation, produce, and trade.
 NORWAY, ———ditto; ———with political remarks before the last war and peace of 1763, and since the said peace.
 NOTARY-PUBLIC, an idea of his profession, with remarks.
 NOTTINGHAMSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.
 NOVOGOROD, ———ditto.
 NOYONNOIS, ———ditto.
 VOL. II.

NUBIA, its situation, produce, and trade.
 NUTMEG, its nature and commerce; see LEEWARD-ISLANDS.
 The business of the custom-house continued.

L E T T E R O.

OAK, its nature and growth; with remarks.
 OATHS; of custom-house oaths obliged to be taken by traders, with remarks; see also our article AFFIDAVIT, with remarks.
 OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS, the several kinds thereof, and the nature of their respective employments, in conducting the system of the customs.
 OIL, of various sorts, their nature and quality.
 OIL (OLIVE-OIL) how produced.
 OIL OF SWEET-ALMONDS, how produced.
 OIL, (TRAIN-OIL) ———ditto.
 GALLIOLI-OIL, for the woollen manufacture.
 OLDENBURGH, its situation, produce, and trade.
 OLERON, and OLERON LAWS OF NAVIGATION and COMMERCE, in esteem throughout Europe; their use in mercantile affairs; with illustrative observations thereon.
 ORCADES, their situation, produce, and trade.
 ORDNANCE; see ARTILLERY.
 ORES, their nature, quality, use, and management. See MINERAL, MINEROLOGY, METALLURGY, ASSAY, COPPER MINES, LEAD, TIN, IRON, MERCURY, SILVER, GOLD, FLAX, METALS, MINES, MINING, SMELTING.
 ORIENTAL-TRADE; see LEVANT-TRADE also; with reflections on the expediency of laying the Turkey-trade open; with remarks.
 ORLEANS, its situation, produce, and trade.
 OSTEND; see AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.
 OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY, its rise and fall; with political remarks.
 OVERSIL, its situation, produce, and trade.
 OYSTERS; of the generation and ordering of green oysters, or Colchester-oysters; the laws of England in regard to oysters.
 The laws and business of the customs with respect to this Letter O, in its alphabetical order.

L E T T E R P.

PACKERS, the nature of their employment.
 PAINTERS, ———ditto.
 PAINTING, considered as an art; the qualifications requisite to form a good one; with suitable remarks.
 PALATINATE OF BAVARIA, its situation, produce, and trade.
 Ditto ———of the RHINE, ———ditto.
 PALESTINE, ———ditto.
 PAPER, a manufacture; of what and how made, of various kinds; with philosophical remarks: of the PAPER-TREE, with political remarks: of the French regulation of the paper-trade.
 PAPER-CREDIT, what meant by it; with political remarks before the last war and peace of 1763, and since the said peace.
 PAR, what, in matters of commerce.
 PARAGUAY, its situation, produce, and trade; with political remarks before and since the last war, and peace of 1763.
 PARAYBA, its situation, produce, and trade.
 PARCHMENT, a manufacture, how made.
 PARLIAMENT, the nature and constitution of the British parliament; and an idea of the method of proceeding therein on public affairs. The names of counties, cities, corporations, borough-towns, and stewarts in Great-Britain; with the knights, commissioners of shires, citizens and burgesses, chosen in each to serve in parliament. A scheme of the proportions the several counties in England paid to the land-tax in 1693, and to the subsidies in 1697, compared with the number of members they send to parliament.
 MEMBER OF PARLIAMENT; of his importance, and his accomplishments necessary to enable him to become properly useful in his senatorial capacity. An act of parliament made in the third year of the reign of his present majesty Geo. III. relating to bankrupts being intitled to the privilege of parliament, and becoming insolvent.
 PARTNERSHIPS, in trade; some cases determined in our courts of judicature respecting the same.
 PARMA, its situation, produce, and trade.
 PASSPORT, SAFE CONDUCT, and PROTECTIONS; the nature and laws relative thereto; with the forms of English and foreign passports to shipping.

I N D E X.

PATENTS, what; with the laws of England concerning them; with cases in law determined thereon; with political remarks on this article patents.

PEARLS, a species of precious stones; where found; of artificial pearls; to imitate fine oriental pearls; to blanch and cleanse pearls.

PEDLAR, who; with remarks thereon.

PEGU, its situation, produce, and trade; with remarks thereon relating to the East-India trade.

PEMBROKESHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.

PENNSYLVANIA, its situation, produce, and trade; with remarks in various lights before and since the last war and Definitive Treaty of 1763.

PEOPLE, considered in political lights.

PERSIA, its situation, produce, and trade. A summary of the commerce thereof; with their monies, weights, measures, &c.

PERU, its situation, produce, and trade; with political remarks.

PERUVIAN BARK, a valuable drug in medicine; with philosophical observations.

PETTY-CUSTOMS, or ALIEN'S DUTY, paid at the custom-house, what, and how.

PEWTER, a factitious metal, how made, and its qualities.

PHARMACY, an art; its nature, and kinds; with a succinct account of the whole art; illustrated by suitable experiments.

PHILIPPINE-ISLANDS, their situation, produce, and trade.

PHOENICE, its situation, produce, and trade.

PHILOSOPHY EXPERIMENTAL, with remarks on its general utility in arts, manufactures, and commerce.

PHILOSOPHICAL CHEMISTRY, its particular utility in arts and trades.

PICARDY, its situation, produce, and trade.

PIEDMONT, its——ditto;——with remarks.

PILCHARD, a fish wherein there is a large trade; their nature and cure.

PILOT of a ship; regulations and laws relating thereto. Of pilots in Spain.

PITCH AND TAR, their production and use; see NAVAL STORES.

PLANTATIONS; of those belonging to Great-Britain; our laws relating thereto: a proclamation for ascertaining the currency of the foreign coins in the plantations. Remarks on this article before the last war and peace of 1763, and since the said peace; with additional remarks on the constant perfidy of France, which we ought never to forget.

PODOLIA, its situation, produce, and trade.

POITOU,——ditto.

POLAND,——ditto;——with remarks before and since the last war and Definitive Treaty of 1763, while the choice of a king of Poland was depending.

POLITICAL ARITHMETIC, its usefulness in regard to matters of trade and commerce, and the general promotion of the national interests.

POMERANIA, its situation, produce, and trade.

POOR; a scheme for setting the poor to work; of the wise regulation of the poor in the United Provinces; with illustrative observations: also general remarks on the article poor.

PORCELAIN, a manufacture, philosophically treated. The method of giving a lustre to the gold laid on porcelain; the different kind of varnishes and colours given to the porcelain; the method of preparing these varnishes and colours: new designs of porcelain works; manner of embossing porcelain. Of the Saxon porcelain, with remarks.

PORTO-RICO; see ANTILLES ISLANDS.

PORTS, places appointed for the lawful exportation, or importation of merchandizes; those belonging to England.

PORTUGAL, its situation, produce, and trade. Of the monies, weights, and measures: the exchanges of Portugal with other the chief parts of Europe, exemplified with variety of computations; with interesting observations. Of the unjustifiable treatment our British merchants have experienced in Portugal for several years past, in divers respects. Of the dependency of Portugal on Great-Britain; notwithstanding which, they have insulted Great-Britain again by the late institution of the general company for the culture of the vineyards of Alto-Duro, in the kingdom of Portugal; with political remarks since the late war and treaty of peace of 1763.

PORTUGUESE AFRICAN-TRADE, with remarks.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA, its situation, produce, and trade; with suitable remarks.

PORTUGUESE EAST-INDIA COMPANY, its situation, produce, and trade.

POSTAGE OF LETTERS; short history of that establishment, with the laws relating thereto.

POT ASH, their manufacture, use, and commerce; with remarks since the last war and Definitive Treaty of peace, 1763.

POTTERY, an art; with philosophical remarks and experiments thereon.

PRINTING OF BOOKS, its origin and progress.

PRINTING OF CALICOES; see CALICOE PRINTING.

PRINTING FROM COPPER-PLATES, the method: instructions for limning and colouring prints, maps, &c. with

water-colours, &c. Of fine collections of prints; with remarks.

PRISAGE AND BUTLERAGE, a duty of customs; the laws concerning it; some law cases thereon determined in our courts of judicature.

PRIVATEERS AND PRIZES, their nature, regulations, and laws relating thereto; with some cases concerning them adjudged in our courts of law. An order of council to release ships, and exempt them from molestation by men of war and privateers. Laws of France relating to prizes. Of their regulations in Spain.

PROJECTORS, their use and abuse; with a short history of various remarkable ones; with pertinent remarks on the whole.

PROVENCE, its situation, produce, and trade.

PRUSSIA, its situation, produce, and trade; with remarks thereon before and since the last war and the Definitive Treaty of peace of 1763.

The business of the custom-house continued from Letter O.

LETTER Q.

QUACK, in medicine; a short antidote against general quacks, who are ignorant of the rational practice of physic; with remarks.

QUARANTINE, what, and how regulated by the laws of England, &c.

QUARRY of stone, &c. philosophically represented; with suitable remarks.

Of the business of the custom-house continued.

LETTER R.

RADNORSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.

RAISINS, a fruit; their use and trade, in divers articles, experimentally given, and illustrated.

RASBERRY, a curious wine made thereby.

RATTEEN, or RATTEN, a manufacture.

REFINING; the art of refining, as applied to metallurgy. Of refining gold and silver, and other metals.

REGISTER-SHIPS OF SPAIN, what are called so, trading to the Spanish West-Indies; how regulated.

REMITTANCES of monies to distant parts; how this business is carried on and regulated, according to the best arts of mercantile accountants; curiously represented; with further explanatory remarks.

REPRIZALS, what, and how regulated by law.

REVENUE; of raising the revenue of England from the conquest to the revolution in 1688, in every reign; with remarks upon each coin in each reign; with general remarks on the article revenue, with respect as well to the state of the civil and religious liberty of the nation, as to its trade and commerce; with political remarks on the value of money heretofore, and now, at the end of this article.

RHODIAN LAWS, of commerce and navigation, in esteem throughout Europe. Of the naval law and statutes of the Rhodians; with illustrations. Political remarks thereon.

RHUBARB, its nature, quality, and use, in various preparations and respects.

RICE, its growth, product, and use; with political remarks thereon. An act of parliament to carry rice from Carolina directly to any part of Europe southward of Cape Finesterre, in ships built in, and belonging to, Great-Britain, and navigated according to law, to the year 1767.

RIVERS; of encreasing our navigable, inland rivers, in order to lessen the rate of carriage; with political remarks thereon.

ROADS; of their improvement, for the benefit of carriage of merchandize over the nation; containing political remarks thereon.

ROMAGNA, or ROMANIA, its situation, produce, and trade.

ROMANIA, RUMELIA, or RUMELI,—ditto.

ROYAL EXCHANGE, an idea thereof in general; with remarks concerning the conduct of traders in general: also political remarks in other lights, respecting what has been done for the advancement of trade and commerce since the present royal family came to the throne of these kingdoms.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF LONDON; of its first institution; with political remarks on its important utility to the trade and navigation of the British empire; an idea of all societies, peculiarly adapted to the general improvements of all the commercial arts. Further remarks on the greater utility of the Royal Society to arts, manufactures, and trade, than it ever has been. Of the progress of the society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures and commerce; with political observations.

RUM,

I N D E X.

RUM, a spirituous liquor, its quality and use; see **SUGAR COLONIES**.
RUSSIA, its situation, produce, and commerce. Of their monies, weights, and measures.
RUSSIA-COMPANY, its short history. Of the British Caspian trade, as it was attempted to be carried on through Russia to Persia. A view of the British trade and factory at St. Petersburg in Russia. Observation on the Russia Coin. Russia considered with relation to the other principal states and empires; with political remarks since the last war and treaty of peace of 1763.
RUTLANDSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.
 The business of the custom-house continued.

L E T T E R S.

SABLE, curious skins of an animal, where had.
SADLER, his trade.
SAFE-CONDUCT, PROTECTION AND PASSPORT; laws regarding it.
SAFFRON; of its growth and cultivation in England; with remarks.
SAIL-CLOTH; laws relating to this manufacture.
SAIL-MAKER; of his trade.
SAILOR; see **SEAMEN**.
SALT, its natural history; of preparing the same, of divers kinds, for use and trade.
SALTERS, their trade.
SALT-PETRE, its natural production; its purification; of gathering it in quantities.
SALVAGE, a mercantile term; laws relating thereto.
SAMOGITIA, its situation, produce, and trade.
SARDINIA, its——ditto;——with political remarks.
SAVOY, its situation, produce, and trade.
SAXON-GREEN COLOUR; method of dying white cloth of that colour.
SAXONY, its situation, produce, and trade.
SAY; see **ASSAY**, in refining.
SAY, or SAYE, a manufacture.
SCILLY, its situation, produce, and trade.
SCLAVONIA,——ditto.
SCOTLAND,——ditto.——Memoir of the Bank established in Scotland. Substance of the warrant of the charter erecting the Royal Bank of Scotland. Account of linen-cloth or sale, stamped in Scotland for several years; and of the whole commerce of Scotland; with remarks of various kinds: of their weights and measures.
SEA-DOMINION in general; with interesting political considerations; with suitable remarks.
SEA, BRITISH; the right to the sovereignty of the British seas asserted and proved; with political observations relative to the commercial union of Great-Britain and the United Provinces; with other considerations relating to the author and his endeavours to serve the British empire, and the ill treatment he has met with; with interesting political remarks.
SEAMEN, their importance; of the great national inconvenience we labour under for seamen in times of war; with methods to prevent them; a proposal of another kind for that purpose; with suggestions for a register of seamen; with further suitable remarks. Laws relating to seamen.
SHIP-BUILDING; see **ARCHITECTURE-MARINE**.
SHIPPING; dimensions, tonnage, and number of guns of some men of war built in Spain, the Indies, France, England, and Genoa; and the rules of the Spaniards, French, English and Dutch, in regard to their mariners. Of the royal marine of France in general; with interesting notes thereon; with remarks regarding the lasting security and glory of the British empire.
SHROPSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.
SIAM,——ditto;——with political remarks.
SIBERIA, its situation, produce, and trade; with political remarks: a short account of the many attempts made for the discovery of a north-west passage: of the north-east passage.
SICILY; see **NAPLES**.
SILESIA, its situation, produce, and trade; with remarks. The duke of Newcastle's letter, by his late majesty's order, to Mons. Mitchell, the king of Prussia's secretary of the embassy, in answer to the memorial, and other papers delivered by Mons. Mitchell to the duke of Newcastle, on the 23d of November and 13th of December, 1753; with the report of Dr. Lee, Dr. Paul, D. Ryder, and W. Murray, concerning a dispute between his Prussian majesty and his Britannic majesty, concerning interruption given to the navigation of Prussian subjects; well worthy of future attention.
SILK-WORMS; memoir upon breeding silk-worms in France, and all other climates where mulberry-trees can be cultivated. Some methods used in France to render silk abun-

dant, and of good quality. Remarks upon the different soils and qualities of the trees. Of the lodging of silk-worms; with remarks thereon, before the last war and treaty of 1763, and since that war and the said treaty.
SILK MANUFACTURE OF CHINA: an act of parliament for repealing the duties payable on China raw silk, and for granting other duties in lieu thereof, made in the year 1750. An act of parliament for encouraging the culture of raw silk in his Majesty's colonies in America; with remarks. An act for encouraging the silk manufactures of this kingdom, and for securing the duties payable upon the importation of velvets, wrought silks, and silks mixed with other materials, not manufactured in Great-Britain; with remarks. An act for explaining, amending, and rendering more effectual an act in the 19th year of the reign of king Henry the VIIth, intitled **SILK-WORKS**, which took place after the 24th of June, 1763.
SILVER; see **METALLURGY, METALS**; with proper remarks. Tables of gold and silver, composed by Mr Lowndes, who inspected the original indentures, and from bishop Fleetwood.
SKIE, its situation, produce, and trade.
SKINS, their various sorts, and trade; with remarks since the last peace of 1763.
SLAVE TRADE; see **AFRICAN-TRADE, &c. &c.**
SLESWIC, or SOUTH-JUTLAND, its situation, produce, and trade.
SLIGO, its situation, produce, and trade.
SMEETING, what, and how performed amongst metallurgists; with illustrative observations on the operations.
SMOLENSKO, its situation, produce, and trade.
SMUGGLER; an abstract of the chief laws against smugglers.
SMUGGLING; anecdotes on smuggling in the Isle of Man. Other observations on the present state of the Isle of Man. Remarks concerning the annexing the Isle of Man to the crown. A memorial of the merchants and owners of ships in the port of Whitehaven, addressed to the lords of the treasury. Annual revenue of the Isle of Man to the proprietor. Further remarks on smuggling before the last war and peace of 1763. Also remarks since the last peace of 1763, extracted from the judicious tract lately published by the present chamberlain of London, Stephen Theodore Janssen, Esq;
SOAP, its manufacture, with political remarks.
SOISON NOIS, its situation, produce, and trade.
SOMMERSETSHIRE,——ditto.
SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, its short history. Of the South sea year 1720, with the schedule of the directors' respective estates, with their respective allowances for their subsistence, and the sum taken from them; with remarks. Treaty concluded at Madrid, 1750, with regard to the assiento and annual ship. See **ASSIENTO CONTRACT**.
SPAIN, its situation, produce, and trade in Europe. Articles of peace, commerce, and alliance between the crowns of Great-Britain and Spain in the year 1667; with remarks thereon. Of the foreign exchanges of Spain with the principal parts of Europe, exemplified with various computations, familiarly explained.
SPANISH-AMERICA; of the conquest of Spanish-America at first. The manner of the sailing of the galleons and flota from Old Spain. A treaty between England and Spain in 1760; with general remarks on this article Spain before, and since the last war and Definitive Treaty of 1763.
STAFFORDSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.
STOCK-JOBING; laws relating thereto. Reasons why stock-jobbing is detrimental to the trade of the nation. The injurious effects of stock-jobbing, with regard to the public credit.
SUBSIDY, a tax; those at the custom-house described. Of the subsidies of 1747 and 1759.
SUFFOLK, its situation, produce, and trade.
SUGAR, its production and manufacture. Of various sorts of sugar: **SUGAR COLONIES**. Remarks before the last war and peace of 1763, and since that peace; with the act of parliament for granting liberty to carry sugars from the British colonies, of the product of the said colonies, from thence directly to foreign parts. Of the duties on rum, &c.
SURRY, its situation, produce, and trade.
SUSSEX,——ditto.
SWABIA,——ditto.
SWEDEN,——ditto;——the exchanges thereof. Of the Swedish East-India company.
SWITZERLAND, its situation, produce, and trade. Of its exchanges.
 Of the business of the custom-house continued from letter R.

L E T T E R T.

TAPESTRY, a manufacture: of curious improvements made therein. Of the upright way of working tapestry, with relation to Turkey-carpets, with remarks political.
TAXES;

I N D E X.

TAXES; summary of the total yearly supplies, granted by parliament, during the reign of king William and Mary, and William III. Queen Anne, king George the 1st, and king George the 2d. Summary of the total ways and means yearly of the said reigns; with remarks on the several forementioned reigns from the revolution in 1688, to the demise of Geo. II. Remarks on the state of trade and liberty since the revolution in 1688; with the coinage in each reign.

TEA; see the article **BOHEA**, describing the various sorts thereof, and their quality; with political remarks on lowering the duty thereon, designed by the present chamberlain of London, to his great honour, and to the benefit of the revenue above six millions of money; also to the advantage of the East-India company, by increasing their sale of teas, and preventing smuggling of foreign teas into the kingdom.

TIN, a metal; with remarks.

TOBACCO, its manner of planting and production; with pertinent remarks thereon.

TRADE; this article contains variety of maxims, which should seem to be confirmed in the course of this work, deserving notice. Remarks on this article trade, since the last war, and the Definitive Treaty of peace of 1763.

TREATIES OF COMMERCE: treaty of navigation and commerce between the late queen Anne and Lewis XIV. of France, concluded at Utrecht, 1713. Treaty of navigation and commerce between Great-Britain and Spain in 1713. Measures taken by king George I. to remedy some of the defects of the said treaty of Utrecht. Treaty of commerce between Great-Britain and Spain in the year 1715. Treaty of commerce between Queen Anne and the king of Portugal in the year 1703. A declaration and engagement concerning the rights and privileges of the British merchants in the kingdom of Sicily made at Utrecht in 1712-13. Treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, between Great-Britain and Russia, concluded at St. Petersburg in the year 1734. Treaty between Geo. II. and the emperor of Morocco, in 1728; ditto in the year 1751: other treaties between the same: ditto between Great-Britain and the Algerines: ditto between Great-Britain and the Tunisians: ditto between Great-Britain and Tripoly. The privileges of an Englishman in the kingdom of Portugal, contained in the treaty of peace concluded by Oliver Cromwell; and various laws, decrees, &c. at sundry times, and divers occasions, made by the kings of Portugal, in favour of the English nation: to which is added, the king of Portugal's new law, concerning diamonds found in the Brazils.

TURKEY-COMPANY AND TRADE, with remarks thereon. A memorial of the deputies of the trading towns in the west of France, concerning the commerce with the Levant, and goods used in that trade; and why Marseilles alone has the privilege of trading thither. Reply of the deputies of the western ports of France to the preceding. A memorial of the deputy of Marseilles, in answer to the foregoing, setting forth the reason of the privilege which Marseilles enjoys of trading to the Levant. A rejoinder to the foregoing; with remarks on the whole.

The business of the customs continued from the end of letter S.

L E T T E R V.

VENICE, its situation, produce, and trade. Of the foreign exchanges of Venice, with respect to the chief parts of Europe, arithmetically exemplified and illustrated. Of the weights and measures. Of the Bank of Venice.

VIRGINIA, with remarks thereon before the last war and peace of 1763; and remarks since the said peace of 1763.

UNITED PROVINCES OF THE STATES-GENERAL. Political considerations thereon, very interesting.

The business of the custom-house continued from letter T.

L E T T E R W.

WAR. This article, as the same stood from the commencement of the first edition of this work; just after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748; containing some principles relating to the conduct of war in this trading nation, as the same is circumstanced; with the measure necessary to be taken for the security of our colonies in North-America; with political remarks hereon before the last war and treaty of peace of 1763; and also remarks since the last war and treaty of peace of 1763, very interesting.

WARWICKSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.

WEIGHTS; foreign weights compared.

WESTMORELAND, its situation, produce, and trade.

WESTPHALIA, ————— ditto.

WETTERAW, ————— ditto.

WILTSHIRE, ————— ditto.

WINE, a liquor; with political remarks.

WISBY LAWS: ancient laws of commerce and navigation in esteem throughout Europe.

WOOL, and WOOLLEN MANUFACTORY. Observations to prevent the smuggling of British and Irish wool to France and elsewhere; with political remarks. An act for permitting the exportation of wool, and woollen yarn, from any port of Ireland to any port in Great-Britain.

WORCESTERSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.

WRECK; mercantile laws relating thereto; with suitable remarks.

Of the practical business of the custom-house continued.

L E T T E R X.

XYLO-BALSANUM, a curious medicinal drug.

L E T T E R Y.

YEAST; a method of curing it; the flowers of wine, and wine-lees, for the service of distilling, wine-making, vinegar-making, &c. with remarks.

YORKSHIRE, its situation, produce, and trade.

L E T T E R Z.

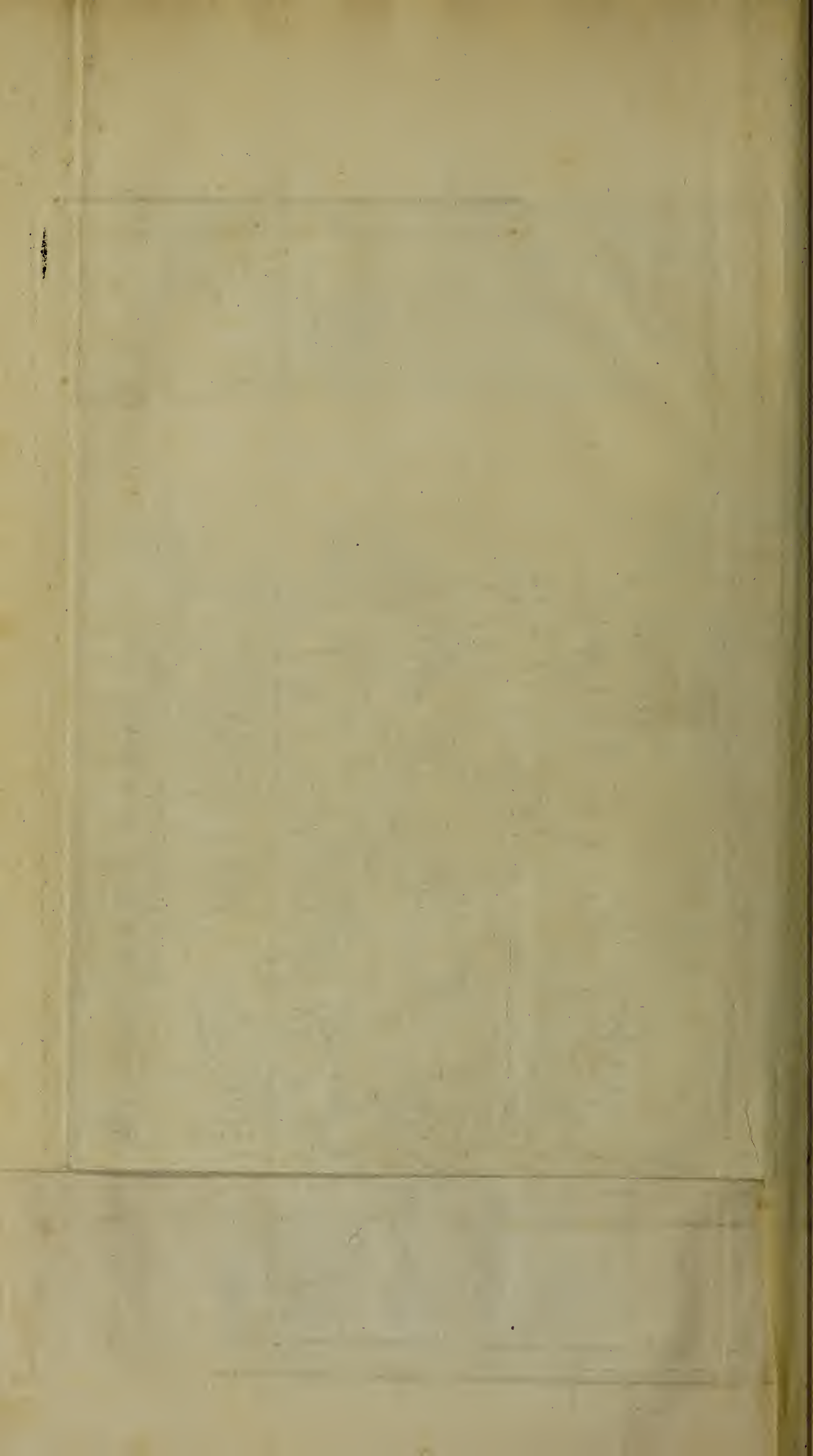
The practical business of the custom-house continued.

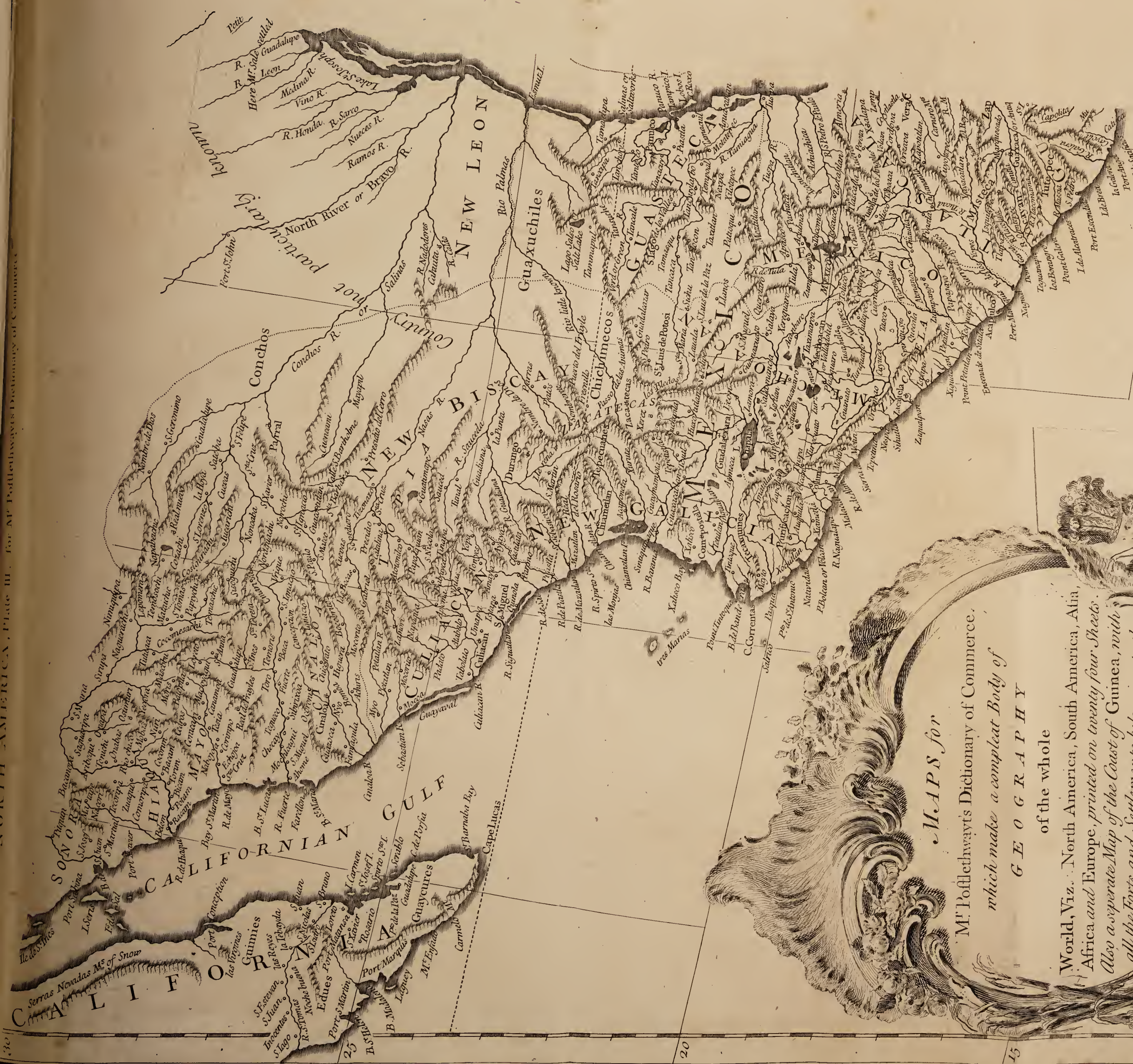
A Concise explanation of the contents of Mr. Saxby's portable book of rates referred to in this work, in relation to the business of the customs, and the chief acts of parliament contained therein.

THE END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.









MAPS for
Mr Pofflethway's Dictionary of Commerce.
which make a compleat Body of
G E O G R A P H Y
of the whole
World, Viz. North America, South America, Asia,
Africa and Europe, printed on twenty four Sheets.
Also a separate Map of the Coast of Guinea, with
all the Forts and Settlements belonging to the
several European Potentates, minutely
described.

French Land Liegues of 3000 Paces, or 2400 French fathoms.

10	20	40	60	80	100
----	----	----	----	----	-----

Marine Liegues, 20 to a Degree, or 69 British mile exactly.

10	20	40	60	80	100
----	----	----	----	----	-----

Proper Spanish Liegues, 19 to a Degree, or 3000 French fathoms.

10	20	40	60	80	100
----	----	----	----	----	-----

Spanish Liegues, 17 and half to a Degree.

10	20	40	60	80	100
----	----	----	----	----	-----

English Statute miles, 800 fathoms, 5280 foot, or 805 French fathoms.

10	20	40	60	80	100
----	----	----	----	----	-----

Liegues for measuring a Voyage on the Map.

25	50	75	100	125
----	----	----	-----	-----

The French Foot being longer than the English in proportion as 15 to 16; therefore 805 Toise make a British mile: the Author by mistake says 826.

4950 foot
 330 being one in 15
 5280 foot, or British mile.

S O

These Maps given gratis in this Work, were Drawn & Engraved at the expense of the Duke of Orleans, and cost several thousand Pounds, are all translated into English with a great number of additional Names of Places with Remarks Since the Trade of 1763.



By the last Treaty of Peace concluded at Paris the 10. Feb. 1763. the King of Spain cedes to his Britannick Majesty, Florida, with Fort St. Augustin, & the Bay of Pensacola, as well as all that Spain possesses on the continent of North America, to the East, or to the South east of the River Mississippi. See our Article America, Florida, Bahama Islands, & Mexico.

Here is the River Belize or Baylis, wherein our English Logwood Cutters are settled in the Bay of Honduras, where Right of cutting, loading & carrying away Logwood is provided for in the late Treaty of Peace concluded at Paris Feb. 10. 1763. See our Article America & Logwood.

By the last Treaty of Peace concluded at Paris the 10. Feb. 1763. the Leeward Islands of Dominica, St. Vincent, Grenada, & Grenadilla, together with Tobago, are ceded to the Crown of G^t. Britain, & St. Lucia is ceded to the Crown of France. For the Reason & the Value of the said Offences. See our Article America, & Leeward Islands.

These Mucketo Indians depend on Jamaica, being subject to Gr. Britain since K. Charles 2^d.



Plate I. AMAZONIA, TERRAPHIMA, Part of BRASIL and PERU, Revised with Remarks, by M. BOLTON. 1755







AFRICA.
Performed by the
S. DANVILLE
under the Patronage of the
DUKE of ORLEANS.
Revised and Improved by
M. BOLTON.

In the Original each Tropic is a single pecked Line,
and the Equator a single plain Line:
But here the Copyist by Mistake has made the Lines double.

In the 7th Century some Persons imagined they had
found the Spring head of the Nile in the Land of
Aethiopia. But all the old Geographers call this River
Atchana, which is entirely a different river lying farther
in the Continent of Africa, and to which the name of Nile
has been given in preference.
Wherefore as the true source thereof remains doubtful,
we must not reject the opinion of Ptolemy, or the
report of Eudoxus and Alcibiades, till Time shall make
a more clear Discovery.
Note. The pretended Nile from Aethiopia runs East of
Sennar and the other runs on the West Latitude 15.

The Course of this River is un-
certain, but probably is the
Pue or Quilman on the Lan-
guibar Coast.

MACHIDAS
whose Prince is a Mahometan,
descended from the Kings of
Abyssinia.

MUJAC Km.
the Boundary of Anzio





KM. of ANZICO or MACOKO

Baki bakee
a dwarfish breed
who hunt
Elephants

Monsoi
Residence of Macoko

POMBO, general name for this Island

FUNGENO Km.
depending on Macoko

IOANGO

Dingi

Km. of

DEMBO

AMULASSA independent of Congo

KINGDOM OF CONGO

Mani Imbuila Prince
of Dembi

Pombo

Samba

Dembo Quingengo

Dembo Ansonga

Dembo

Dembo

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All Zanguebar, namely from Mozambique to Quileba
is inhabited by Arabs who being Mahometans
give the scornful name of Kaffers or Infidels
to the Originals of this Country which word
Kaffers or Caffrenia is now carried
down this coast to the State of
Monomatapa.

Uncertain KM. of MONOMUGI
not at all known

RUENGAS

This Lake is said to
extend farther and
broader to the North.

MASSI

Ville de Maravi

Chief Km. of the Bororos

EMPIRE OF BOROROS

Km. of BUTUA

CHICORA

Here are Silver Mines

SHANGAR

Source of this River
undiscovered

RUPANDI

MANICA

is called

Sofala Manica and Sabia
are parts of the ancient
Empire of Monomatapa.

Demains of the King called BIRI

MANICA

is called

Sofala

Manica and Sabia

are parts of the ancient
Empire of Monomatapa.

Demains of the King called BIRI

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Manica and Sabia

are parts of the ancient
Empire of Monomatapa.

This part of the Continent about Sofala is
with great reason supposed to be the
ancient Land of Ophir.

Ph. Tr. 4. 451.
Dr. Halley in his last Account, from a sure and repeated
Observation, lays Cape Good hope only 15 Degrees from
London, which is 32.36 from Ferro, or 12.36 from Paris.
about two Degrees more West than this Author, who would
certainly have copied such an Authority, had he known it.

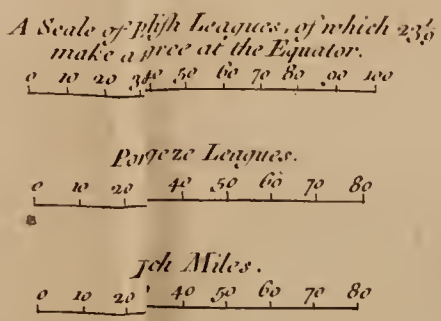


THE ATLANTIC OCEAN

- Explanation of our New MAP of the Coast of AFRICA &c
1. The Northernmost Settlement is that at Arguin, on the Gum Coast, belonging to the French.
 2. The River Senegal, the French had Forts and Factories several Miles up, and thereby engrossed all the Gum Trade of the Coast: but they are by last Peace of 1763, ceded to the Crown of England.
 3. The Isle of Gorée, the French have a strong Castle.
 4. Gambia River has James Fort and Island, belonging to the English Company; together with several Factories for above 600 Miles up the River; such on the North as Gillsfree, Ioar, Cuttejar, Samy, Wally, Fittatenda, Baracunda; and on the South of the River, they have the following Factories. Cabata, Vintain, Geregia, Tancrowall, Bracoe, Jemaron, and Yamyamacunda. &c.
 5. Cutchee and Bifsee, two Portuguese Settlements.
 6. Bisago, a Portuguese Factory.
 7. Sierra Leone River. The English Company had on this River, before 1728 a Factory at Bence Isle and the Isle of Tifsa, but have had none since.
 8. Sherbro, on York I. the English Company had a Fort here, but have now only a Factory.
 9. Accra, the first European Factory on the Gold Coast, belonging to the Dutch West India Company. See the separate Map of the Gold Coast on a larger Scale.
 10. Axim, a Fort belonging to the Dutch West India Company. See ditto.
 11. Fredericksburg, at Cape Three points, a Fort and Factory belonging to the Dutch West India Company.
 12. Dixcove, a Fort belonging to the English African Company.
 13. Boutrou, a Fort belonging to the Dutch West India Company. See separate Map of the Gold Coast.
 14. Taccarado, a Factory-house, belonging to the Dutch West India Company. See ditto.
 15. Succondee, a Fort belonging to the Dutch West India Company. See ditto.
 16. Chamah, a Fort belonging to the Dutch West India Company. See ditto.
 17. Commenda, a Fort belonging to ditto.
 18. S. Jago, a Fort on the top of a hill, within gun shot of S. George delmina, belonging to ditto. See ditto.
 19. Elmina, or S. George del Mina, the principal Fort on the Gold Coast, belonging to the Dutch Company. See ditto.
 20. Phipps's Tower, built for defence of Cape Coast towards the land: Also P. Royal and Queen Ann's point for the same cause.
 21. Cape Coast Castle, the principal Fort and Factory, belonging to the English African Company.
 22. Mouree, a Fort belonging to the Dutch West India Company. See separate Map of the Gold Coast.
 23. Annishan and Agga, are occasional Factory houses for the English Company. See ditto.

24. Annemaboe Fort, belonging to the English Company, but relinquish'd for want of support before the year 1730. also lately necessary to be rebuilt for English account, the French having supplied their Sugar Colonies from hence, where they have no right to trade, with vast quantities of the choicest Negroes upon the whole coast, and having also attempted to build a Fort there since the English have abandon'd it. See Gold Coast Map.
25. Cormantine, a Fort belonging to the Dutch West India Company. See ditto.
26. Tintunquerry Fort, belonging to the English Company. See ditto.
27. Appam, or Apong, a Fort belonging to the Dutch West India Company. See ditto.
28. Winnebuh, a Fort belonging to the English Company. See ditto.
29. Barracoe, a Fort belonging to the Dutch West India Company. See ditto.
30. Shedd's, a Factory belonging to the English Company. See ditto.
31. Accra, a Fort belonging to the English Company, about 6 leagues to E. of Shedd's.
32. Accra, also a Fort belonging to the Dutch West India Company, within gun shot of the last mentioned English fort. Also Accra, a Fort belonging to the King of Denmark, about 2 miles to E. of the Dutch fort.
33. Prampram, a Factory belonging to the English Company. See Gold Coast Map.
34. Whydah has a Fort called William's Fort belong to Eng. Comp.
35. Loango S. Paul's, where the Portuguese have several Forts and Settlements, and a large City, and carry on an inland advantageous Trade, for some hundred Miles.

A new and correct MAP of the COAST of AFRICA
from Cape Blanc Lat. 20. 40. N. to the Coast of Angol Lat. 12. S.
With Explanatory Nos of all the Forts and Settlements belonging to several European Powers.



N.B. The Gold Coast is extended about 60 Miles, beginning with the Gold River 3 miles west of Axim, and ending with the Village Penni, 7 or 8 miles east of Accra. The Gold Coast comprehends all the Countries from the Unobresian River to the Village Penni, in number, viz. Axim, Ante, Adem, Jabi, Commam, Fettu, Saboe, Fintyn, Acra, Aconna, & Aquamboe; each containing 1, 2, or 3 Towns or Villages, lying upon the Sea Shore; their most populous Towns being generally farther inland. The English here have great opportunities to extend the inland Commerce.

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